Loss of genome maintenance accelerates podocyte damage

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Abstract:

Background: DNA repair is essential for preserving genome integrity and ensuring cellular functionality and survival. Podocytes have a very limited regenerative capacity, and their survival is essential to maintain kidney function. While podocyte depletion is a hallmark of many glomerular diseases, the mechanisms leading to severe podocyte injury and loss remain unclear.

Methods: We investigated DNA repair mechanisms in glomerular diseases by gene expression analysis of human kidney biopsies. Using a constitutive and an inducible podocyte-specific *Ercc1* knockout mouse model, we assessed the influence of disrupted NER *in vivo,* complemented by mechanistical *in vitro* studies of induced DNA damage in cultured podocytes. Furthermore, we characterized DNA damage-related alterations in aged mice and human renal tissue of different age groups as well as in minimal change disease (MCD) and Focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS) patient biopsies.

Results: We detected perturbed NER gene expression in nuclei of podocytes in FSGS as well as aberrations of DNA repair genes in biopsies of patients with various podocyte-related glomerular diseases. Genome maintenance through NER proved to be indispensable for podocyte homeostasis. Podocyte-specific accumulation of DNA damage through the knockout of the NER endonuclease co-factor Ercc1 resulted in proteinuria, podocyte loss, glomerulosclerosis, and renal insufficiency. The response to this genomic stress was fundamentally different to the pattern reported in other cell types, as podocytes activated mTORC1 signaling upon DNA damage *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The induced mTORC1 activation was abrogated by inhibiting DNA damage response through DNA-PK and ATM *in vitro*. Moreover, pharmacological inhibition of mTORC1 ameliorated the development of glomerulosclerosis in NER-deficient mice.

Conclusion: Disruption of DNA damage response pathways seems to be a uniform response in several glomerulopathies. Accumulation of DNA damage in podocytes results in glomerulosclerosis and activates mTORC1 signaling.

Keywords:

Translational statement

Growing evidence suggests that perturbations in genome maintenance play a role in glomerulopathies. The authors have identified several DNA repair genes to be differentially expressed in glomerular diseases in human kidney biopsies and observed dramatic differences in

nucleotide excision repair (NER) gene expression in focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS)

podocytes. *In vivo* and *in vitro* analyses in murine podocytes uncovered accumulation of DNA

damage through disruption of NER to result in podocyte loss with glomerulosclerosis and to

activate the mTORC1 pathway. Similar results were identified in FSGS patient biopsies as well as

in renal specimens of human and murine aging. These findings reveal that DNA damage and its

repair pathways are crucial for podocyte maintenance and for the development of

glomerulosclerosis, potentially serving as therapeutic targets in the future.

Introduction:

Most cells of the body are constantly subjected to various endogenous and exogenous DNA damaging agents [1,2]. Therefore, cells depend on numerous DNA repair mechanisms to counteract genomic stress [3]. Mutations in DNA repair genes result in a variety of pathologies ranging from cancer to progeroid syndromes [4,5]. The specific importance of genome maintenance in cells with limited regenerative capacity is demonstrated by the prevalence of neurodegeneration as a hallmark of DNA repair deficiency syndromes [6].

Glomerular podocytes are terminally differentiated, post-mitotic cells with little to no replacement post-development [7]. As an integral part of the primary filtration unit of the kidney [8], podocyte depletion is a leading cause of chronic kidney disease due to diabetes, hypertension, and other glomerulopathies, with ensuing loss of protein into the urine [9]. The precise pathomechanisms leading to podocyte depletion, however, are incompletely understood. Protecting this finite number of cells is, therefore, an important therapeutic goal [10].

Lately, first studies have indicated the importance of genome maintenance for renal health [11,12]. Mutations in the kinase endopeptidase and other proteins of small size (KEOPS) complex genes caused proteinuria and induced DNA damage response (DDR) *in vitro* [13]. Likewise, glomerular DNA damage was found to be associated with declining kidney function [14] and cells isolated from the urine of patients suffering from diabetes and hypertension showed increased levels of DNA strand breaks [15]. First evidence of nucleotide excision repair (NER) being an essential pathway in kidney health was recently provided through the identification of *ERCC1* variants causing kidney dysfunction in patients [16]. However, this study mostly reported on a tubulopathy phenotype, hence, the link between DNA damage and podocyte loss remains unclear.

Several studies have proposed an interplay between DNA damage signaling and the mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway with factors induced by DNA damage exhibiting repressive effects on mTOR-complex1 (mTORC1) [17–19] and increased mTORC1 activity leading to genomic stress [20–22]. This is of particular interest for podocytes, as they are highly dependent on a rigorous control of mTOR activity. While mTORC1-driven hypertrophy is a protective response upon podocyte depletion [23–25], mTORC1 overactivation drives pathologic hyperproliferation and sclerosis [26,27]. In line with these findings, side effects of pharmacological mTORC1 inhibition entail proteinuria and glomerular scarring [28–34].

In this study, we identified perturbations in the expression of DNA repair genes in glomeruli from various human glomerular diseases associated with podocyte depletion and a significant loss of NER gene expression in podocytes of FSGS patients. Podocyte-specific DNA damage

accumulation through NER disruption resulted in proteinuria, podocyte loss, glomerulosclerosis,

and renal insufficiency in mice. Ancillary, DNA damage accumulation was identified as a hallmark

of murine and human podocyte aging. Strikingly, both *in vivo* and *in vitro* analyses revealed

mTORC1 activation upon DNA damage, indicating a cell-type specific response. Inhibiting parts

of the DNA damage response diminished mTORC1 activation and, in turn, inhibiting mTORC1

activation ameliorated glomerulosclerotic phenotypes in two NER-deficient mouse models. These

results directly link genome maintenance to mTORC1 signaling and glomerular diseases.

Methods:

ERCB Human microarray analysis

167 genes involved in DNA repair and nucleotide excision repair were compiled from the hallmark

gene set "DNA-Repair" from the Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) Collection[35] and upon

literature research. Human kidney biopsies and Affymetrix microarray expression data were

obtained within the framework of the European Renal cDNA Bank - Kröner-Fresenius Biopsy Bank

[36]. Diagnostic biopsies were obtained from patients after informed consent and with approval of

the local ethics committees. Following renal biopsy, the tissue was transferred to RNase inhibitor

and micro-dissected into glomeruli and tubulo-interstitium. Total RNA was isolated, reverse

transcribed, and amplified to a protocol previously reported [37]. Fragmentation, hybridization,

staining, and imaging were performed according to the Affymetrix Expression Analysis Technical

Manual (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Published datasets of glomerular samples were

analysed for mRNA expression levels. Analysis included datasets from patients with minimal

change disease (MCD; n=14), focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS; n=23), membranous

nephropathy (MGN; n=21), IgA nephropathy (Glom; n=27), and hypertensive nephropathy (HTN;

n=15) as well as controls (living donors (LD); n=42) (GSE99340, LD data from: GSE32591,

GSE37463). CEL file normalization was performed with the Robust Multichip Average method

using RMAExpress (Version 1.0.5) and the human Entrez-Gene custom CDF annotation from

Brain Array version 18 (http://brainarray.mbni.med.umich.edu/Brainarray/default.asp). To identify

differentially expressed genes, the SAM (Significance Analysis of Microarrays) method [38] was

applied using SAM function in Multiple Experiment Viewer (TiGR MeV, Version 4.9). A q-value

below 5% was considered to be statistically significant. The resulting gene expression list was

censored for genes, whose products were detected in a transcriptomic and proteomic analysis of

wild-type murine podocytes [39].

Single nucleus sequencing

Nuclei were prepared from kidney biopsy cores stored in RNAlater from FSGS patients enrolled

in the NEPTUNE study. The processing followed the protocol developed from the Kidney Precision

Medicine Project. Nuclei preparations were processed and sequenced using 10x Genomics single

cell sequencer. Analyses were performed on the output data files from CellRanger v6.0.0 using

the Seurat R package (version 3.2 and 4.0; https://cran.r-

project.org/web/packages/Seurat/index.html). To limit low quality nuclei and/or multiplets, we set

gene counts and cutoffs to between 500 and 5000 genes and examined nuclei with a mitochondrial

gene content of less than 10%. Nuclei were merged into a Seurat object using the CCA integrate

function and nuclear cluster annotation was determined by finding enriched genes in each cell

cluster. A comparison of these cluster selective gene profiles was compared against previously

identified cell marker gene sets from human kidney samples from KPMP and other sources [40].

Mice

Mice were bred in a mixed FVB/CD1 (*Ercc1* pko) or FVB/CD1/C57BL6 (*Ercc1* ipko) background.

All offspring was born in normal mendelian ratios. Mice were housed in the animal facility of the

Center for Molecular Medicine Cologne or the Cluster of Excellence – Cellular Stress Responses

in Aging-Associated Diseases. Following federal regulations, the Animal Care Committee of the

University of Cologne reviewed and approved the experimental protocols. Animals were housed

at specific pathogen-free (SPF) conditions with three-monthly monitoring according to FELASA

suggestions. Housing was done in groups of less than six adult animals receiving CRM pelleted

breeder and maintenance diet irradiated with 25 kGy (Special Diet Services, Witham, UK) and

water *ad libitum*. Spot urine was collected once a week during cage changes or during sacrifice.

Tamoxifen was administered at 400 mg/kg Tamoxifen in dry chow.

For rapamycin injection studies male and female *Ercc1*^{fl/fl} (ctrl) and *Ercc1*; *pod-cre* (pko) mice at

week 6 of age were injected intraperitoneally 3 times/week with 2 mg/kg bw of rapamycin diluted

in 5% ethanol, 5% tween 80 and 5% PEG 400 or with 5% ethanol, 5% tween 80 and 5% PEG 400

as vehicle. Urine collection was performed 2 times/week and mice were sacrificed at week 13 of

age for serum and kidney tissue isolation. All animals were maintained in grouped cages on a 12h

light/dark cycle. Mice were kept on a regular diet and had access to water *ad libitum*. Body weight

was measured weekly. Animals were housed in a temperature-controlled, pathogen-free animal

facility at the Institute of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology (IMBB), which operates in

compliance with the "Animal Welfare Act" of the Greek government, using the "Guide for the Care

and Use of Laboratory Animals" as its standard.

Mice were anaesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of 10 μl per g bodyweight of 0,01% xylocaine

and 12,5 mg/ml ketamine – blood was drawn from the left ventricle into a syringe rinsed with

Heparin sulfate, and animals were perfused with cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Kidneys

were excised and embedded in OCT (Sakura, Torrance, CA) and frozen at -80°C or fixed in 4%

neutral buffered formalin and subsequently embedded in paraffin.

Podocyte isolation

To isolate primary podocytes, *Ercc1*$^{fl/fl}$ mice heterozygous for the *R26mTmG* and *NPHS2.Cre*

transgene were sacrificed and kidneys were used for glomerular preparation, as previously

described [39]. The glomeruli were digested and the single-cell suspension was used for

fluorescence-activated cell sorting.

qPCR Analysis

Total ribonucleic acid (RNA) was extracted from podocytes of *Ercc1/Pod:Cre/mTmG* mice using

Direct-zol™ RNA MiniPrep Kit (cat. no. R2052, Zymo Research). Isolation of glomeruli,

preparation of a glomerular single-cell suspension, and fluorescence-activated cell sorting was

done as previously described [7]. Podocytes were sorted into TriReagent (cat. no. 93289, Sigma-

Aldrich). The complementary deoxyribonucleic acid (cDNA) was synthesized with High Capacity

cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (cat. no. 4368814, Applied Biosystems). PCR was performed

using TaqMan™ Gene Expression Master Mix (cat. no. 4369016, Applied Biosystems) and the

Applied Biosystems Real-time PCR system. Real-time PCR was measured with triplicates in each

gene   target.   The   sequence   of   the   PCR   primer   used   for   *Ercc1*   was: 5′-

AGCCAGACCCTGAAAACAG-3′ and 5′- CACCTCACCGAATTCCCA-3′ in PrimeTime Mini qPCR

Assay for *Ercc1* (Assay-ID: Mm.PT.58.42152282, IDT). The gene expression was calculated using

comparative cycle threshold method and normalized to RNA polymerase II subunit A (*Polr2a*).

The relative fold change of *Ercc1* expression in knockout mice was compared with WT and

heterozygous mice.

Urinary Albumin ELISA & Creatinine measurement

Urinary albumin levels were measured with a mouse albumin ELISA kit (mouse albumin ELISA

kit; Bethyl Labs, Montgomery, TX, USA). Urinary creatinine kit (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI,

USA) was used to determine corresponding urinary creatinine values. For Coomassie Blue

detection of albuminuria, spot urine of mice was diluted 1:20 in 1x Laemmli buffer and urinary

proteins separated using poly-acrylamide gel electrophoresis with subsequent Coomassie gel

stain.

Plasma Creatinine and Urea measurement

Blood samples were centrifuged at 400 g 4°C for 20 minutes and plasma samples subsequently

stored at -20°C until further analysis. Creatinine and Urea were measured using standard clinical

protocols by the Department of Clinical Chemistry of the University of Cologne.

Histologic analysis

To assess morphological changes in light microscopy we performed Periodic Acid Schiff staining.

For specific antibody stainings sections were deparaffinized in Xylene (VWR, Darmstadt,

Germany), rehydrated in decreasing concentrations of ethanol, and subjected to heat-induced

antigen retrieval in 10 mM Citrate Buffer pH 6 for 15 minutes. Peroxidase blocking was performed

in methanol mixed with 3% hydrogen peroxidase (Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) followed by

Avidin/Biotin Blocking (Vector, Burlingame, CA, USA) for 15 minutes each. After incubation in

primary antibody (anti-phospho-S6 Ribosomal Protein (Ser235/236) # 4858 – Cell Signaling

Technology) 1:200 in TBS 1% BSA at 4°C overnight, sections were washed in TBS and incubated

in biotinylated secondary antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch, West Grove, USA) 1h at room

temperature. For signal amplification the ABC Kit (Vector, Burlingame, CA, USA) was used before

applying 3,30-diaminobenzamidine (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, USA) as a chromogen. Hematoxylin

was used for counterstaining. After dehydration, slides were covered in Histomount (National

Diagnostics, Atlanta, USA).

Immunofluorescence Staining

Paraffin embedded tissue was cut into 3 *µ*m thick sections and processed according to published

protocols [41]. Primary antibodies (anti-γH2A.X #2577s – Cell Signalling Technology, anti-nephrin

#GP-N2 – Progen, anti-synaptopodin #65294 – Progen, anti-Dach1 #HPA012672 – Sigma Aldrich

[42], anti-phospho-S6 Ribosomal Protein (Ser235/236) # 4858 – Cell Signaling Technology), and

anti-p53 (anti-p53 #p53-protein-cm5 Leica Biosystems) were used at 1:200 dilution. Far-red

fluorescent DNA dye Draq 5 was used as a nuclear marker.

Cells were processed according to published protocols [43].

For γH2A.X foci quantification, a custom-built FIJI macro was used. In brief, podocyte nuclei were

identified through surrounding synaptopodin staining, segmented using the freehand tool and split

into single channels. Draq 5 channel was converted into binary image using auto threshold "otsu

dark" with subsequent particle measurement (range 5-Infinite) to determine nuclear area. γH2A.X

channel was converted into binary image using auto threshold "MaxEntropy dark" with subsequent

particle measurement (range 0.02-infinite) to determine foci number and area.

Electron Microscopy

Mice were perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde and 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M sodium

cacodylate, pH 7.4. Postfixation was performed in the same buffer for two additional weeks at 4°C.

Tissue was osmicated with 1% OsO4 in 0.1 M cacodylate and dehydrated in increasing ethanol

concentrations. Epon infiltration and flat embedding were performed following standard

procedures. Toluidine blue was used to stain semithin sections of 0.5 μm. 30 nm-thick sections

were cut with an Ultracut UCT ultramicrotome (Reichert) and stained with 1% aqueous uranylic

acetate and lead citrate. Samples were studied with Zeiss EM 902 and Zeiss EM 109 electron

microscopes (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

In vitro Experiments

Conditional immortalized murine podocytes were a gift by Stuart Shankland. Cells were cultured

as previously described [44]. Briefly, immortalized podocytes were cultured in RPMI media

supplemented with 10% FBS and IFNγ (Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany). Cells proliferated

at 33°C on Primaria plastic plates (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) until they reached a

confluence of 60-70%. Differentiation of podocytes was induced by seeding the cells at 37°C in

the absence of IFNy. After 10 days of differentiation, cells were treated with 5 or10 μg/ml

Mitomycin C (#M0503 - Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany) for 2h in serum-free medium,

followed by one washing step with Phosphate-Buffered Saline and further incubation for 6 h in

serum-free medium without Mitomycin C before further processing. The absence of mycoplasm

infection was tested regularly using the mycoplasm detection kit from Minerva biolabs (Minerva

Biolabs, Berlin, Germany). For experiments with DNA damage response inhibitors, differentiated

cells were pre-treated with 3 μM KU60019 (Selleckchem, Houston, TX, USA) or 1 μM Nedisertib

(Selleckchem, Houston, TX, USA) for 1 h before inducing DNA damage by UV-C or Mitomycin C

treatment. Inhibitors were added again after medium change following DNA damage induction to

further incubate cells for 6 h before cell lysis.

Western Blot analysis

SDS-PAGE was used for protein size separation with subsequent blotting onto polyvinylidene

difluoride membranes and visualized with enhanced chemiluminescence after incubation of the

blots with corresponding antibodies (Phospho-Histone H2A.X (Ser139); Phospho-S6 Ribosomal

Protein (Ser235/236) (D57.2.2E); S6 Ribosomal Protein (5G10) – Cell Signaling Technology;

alpha Actin – Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank; beta-Tubulin (E7) - Developmental Studies

Hybridoma Bank).

eQTL Analysis

For the subgroup analysis of FSGS cohort, the procedure described in Gillies et al., 2018 was

used with the following exceptions: only FSGS patients were analysed (N=87) and only RNAseq

expression data for glomerular samples were utilized. Briefly cis-eQTLs were identified using

MatrixEQTL from among variants that were located either within the annotated boundaries of a

gene or its surrounding region (+/- 500 kb) [45]. We then adjusted for age, sex, principal components

of genetic ancestry, and the first 5 PEER factors [46]. The genetic ancestry was calculated using

LD-pruned WGS data from across all 87 patients using the EPACTS tool

(https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/EPACTS). The gene-level FDR for the MatrixEQTL was

controlled using TORUS. Fine mapping of the eQTLs was performed using the DAP algorithm [47].

Study approval

All investigations involving human specimen have been conducted according to the Declaration

of Helsinki following approval of the local ethics committees. Written informed consent was

received from participants prior to inclusion in the study. All mouse experiments were conducted

according to institutional and federal guidelines and approved by the LANUV NRW VSG 84-

02.04.2013.A336.

Statistics

If not stated otherwise, unpaired two tailed Student's t-test was used to compare two groups and

p values ≤ 0.05 were considered significant. For multiple group comparisons, we applied 1-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc correction. Statistics were performed using GraphPad Prism

8.

Results:

DNA damage repair is essential for podocyte health and is impaired in focal segmental

glomerulosclerosis

To determine the involvement of the NER pathway in podocyte loss, we investigated the

expression of NER genes in podocytes of FSGS biopsies, Minimal change disease (MCD) patients

and controls using single nucleus sequencing. Indeed, we detected an upregulation in the *Ercc1-*

8 genes, all involved in damage recognition, DNA unwinding and damage excision, in FSGS

podocytes when compared to MCD and living donor kidney samples (Fig. 1A). Conversely the

expression of various polymerases involved in the synthesis of new repaired strands was virtually

lost in the podocytes of both MCD and FSGS samples indicative of a predominance of damage

recognition and strand excision in the FSGS biopsies (Fig. S1A). Targets of the mTORC1

pathway, used as an internal control, increased in expression with little changes in the percentage

of podocytes expressing these genes (Fig. S1A).

Likewise, we detected a wide array of alterations in the expression of DNA repair and NER genes

in glomerular lysates of different nephropathies compared to controls (Fig. S1B; Tbl. S1)

Furthermore, we assessed whether genetic variants associated with glomerular mRNA expression

of DNA repair genes could be detected in patients with sclerotic glomerular diseases (Table S2)

and we identified single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associated with alterations in the

expression of DNA repair genes (Table S2 - S4).

As the perturbation of NER genes in FSGS podocytes could indicate defective DNA repair

mechanisms, we investigated the accumulation of DNA damage in podocyte nuclei using γH2A.X

immunofluorescence staining in human biopsies of FSGS compared to MCD patients. Indeed, we

detected a marked increase in podocyte-specific nuclear γH2A.X foci in FSGS glomeruli (Fig. 1B

& S1C, D & E), corresponding to DNA double-strand breaks and thus suggestive of an involvement

of DNA damage accumulation in podocyte damage and loss.

A well-established model to induce DNA damage *in vivo* is to induce a functional impairment of

the NER cascade by deletion of the endonuclease Ercc4's co-factor, the DNA excision repair

protein Ercc1 [48–50]. Investigating glomeruli of the *Ercc1* -/delta mouse [51], a mouse model with whole

body disruption of *Ercc1* on one allele and a truncated form of *Ercc1* on the second allele, leading

to a hypomorphic variant with minimal residual activity, already revealed the development of foot

process effacement at 14 weeks of age (Fig. S2A).

These findings pointed towards DNA damage repair as an essential mechanism for podocyte

health. Thus, we generated a constitutive podocyte-specific knockout of *Ercc1* using the cre-loxP

system in mice of mixed FVB/CD1 background [52] (Fig. S2B & 1C.). Mice carrying the podocyte-

specific knockout (pko) had a decreased lifespan of 10-15 weeks, while cre negative animals (ctrl)

and cre positive animals heterozygous for the floxed *Ercc1* allele (het) were investigated for up to

72 weeks without overt abnormalities (Fig. 1D & S2C & D). While weight gain after birth was

normal up to week 9, *Ercc1* pko offspring displayed a pronounced decrease of weight thereafter

(Fig. 1E). This weight drop was accompanied by the development of significant albuminuria as

well as elevated serum creatinine and urea levels, starting at week 11 (Fig. 1F-H). At week 13,

Ercc1 pko mice had developed severe generalized renal damage, including glomerulosclerosis,

interstitial fibrosis, and tubular atrophy with protein casts (Fig. 1I).

Similar results could be obtained in a tamoxifen-inducible podocyte specific knockout (ipko) of

Ercc1 (Fig. S3).

DNA damage accumulation in podocytes triggers cellular stress and podocyte loss

Ultrastructural alterations in 9-week-old constitutive *Ercc1* pko glomeruli were detectable in the form of focally effaced podocyte foot processes. These changes were not yet present in 7-week-old animals (Fig. 2A). Further evidence of podocyte stress was revealed by gradual reduction of nephrin expression, an important slit diaphragm protein, from weeks 9 to 13 (Fig. 2B & S4A). Podocyte number, glomerular hypertrophy, and podocyte density, investigated through staining of the podocyte specific proteins synaptopodin (SNP) and Dachshund Family Transcription Factor 1 (Dach1) remained within normal ranges at week 9 (Fig. 2C & S4B). In contrast, glomeruli from 11-week-old *Ercc1* pko mice clearly showed severe injury and loss of podocytes, indicated by the decrease and loss of both SNP and Dach1 (Fig. 2D). This loss of podocytes was further validated through the analysis of WT1-positive cells in 9- and 11-week-old *Ercc1* pko mice (Fig. S4C). Foci of phosphorylated histone 2A.X (γH2A.X), a *bona fide* marker for DNA double-strand breaks, were significantly increased in both number and area in podocyte nuclei of *Ercc1* pko glomeruli at week 9 (Fig. 2E & S4D-F) compared to control animals. Strikingly, we also observed a smaller number of γH2A.X foci in almost all wildtype podocyte nuclei indicative of constant DNA damage occurrence and subsequent repair in healthy glomeruli. At later time points, single podocytes with γH2A.X signals covering larger areas of the nuclei became apparent in *Ercc1* pko glomeruli (Fig. 2F).

DNA damage accumulation in podocytes activates the mTORC1 pathway *in vivo*

Podocyte loss is tightly linked to mTORC1 activation and cellular hypertrophy of the remaining podocytes. Therefore, we investigated the timepoint of mTORC1 activation in *Ercc1* pko mice. Strikingly, we detected a significant increase in pS6RP-positive cells in *Ercc1* pko glomeruli at 9 weeks of age (Fig. 3A), a timepoint, when no evidence for podocyte loss was present yet (Fig. 2C & S4C). In-detail analysis revealed that more than 40% of podocytes showed mTORC1 activation at week 9 (Fig. 3A).

To investigate whether increased mTORC1 signaling contributes to the development of podocyte loss, we analysed the kidneys of *Ercc1* -/delta mice treated with 14 mg/kg food of the mTORC1 inhibitor rapamycin from 8 weeks of age until termination of the experiment due to high moribund scoring [53]. Despite the fact that the treated cohort did not present with an extended lifespan, moribund animals of the end-of-life cohort (aged 15-26 weeks) presented with a significant reduction of sclerotic glomeruli, when treated with rapamycin (Fig. 3B). Additionally, we treated

our podocyte-specific *Ercc1* ko mouse model with 2 mg/kg bodyweight rapamycin via i.p. injections

three times a week, beginning at 6 weeks of age. Again, we detected a significant reduction in

globally sclerotic glomeruli and more healthy glomeruli upon rapamycin treatment at the end of

our observation period at week 13 (Fig. 3C).

The observed detection of increased mTORC1 signaling and DNA damage accumulation

suggests a potential interplay. It has been suggested that increased mTORC1 signaling decreases

the cellular ability to repair DNA damage [20,21]. Thus, we investigated the occurrence of γH2A.X

foci accumulation in a podocyte-specific *Tsc1* knockout mouse model characterized by podocyte-

specific mTORC1 hyperactivation [25,54]. Indeed, *Tsc1* pko mice also depicted an increased number

of DNA damage foci as early as 4 weeks of age, when the phenotype is predominantly driven by

mTORC1 hyperactivation (Fig. 3D).

This data indicates increased mTORC1 signaling through DNA damage accumulation and

decreased DNA damage repair upon mTORC1 activation potentially constituting a downward

spiral aggravating podocyte damage (Fig. 3E).

DNA damage activates the mTORC1 cascade through DNA damage signaling kinase DNA-

PK in podocytes

To further investigate the mechanism behind mTORC1 activation occurring in podocytes upon

genomic stress, we induced DNA damage through mitomycin C (MMC) treatment and UV-C

irradiation *in vitro* in immortalized mouse podocytes (Fig. 4A). These treatments led to significant

increases of γH2A.X (Fig. 4B) and accumulation of the DNA damage response protein p53 in the

nucleus (Fig. 4C). Again, DNA damage induced an increased phosphorylation of S6 ribosomal

protein (pS6RP), which is a downstream target of mTORC1, in podocytes (Fig. 4D). This

phosphorylation was completely abrogated by mTORC1 inhibitor rapamycin and reduced by

serum starvation, a well-known mTORC1 modulator[55]. In order to identify the link between DNA

damage accumulation and mTORC1 activation, we treated MMC- or UV-C-stimulated murine

podocytes with inhibitors of the DNA damage signaling cascade (Fig. 4E). In both conditions,

inhibition of DNA-dependent protein kinase (DNA-PK) by Nedisertib resulted in abrogation of

S6RP phosphorylation. Similar results could be achieved with the Ataxia Telangiectasia Mutated

serine/threonine kinase (ATM) inhibitor KU60019. No effects were detected upon treatment with

the ATR inhibitor VE822 or with the CHK1 inhibitor prexasertib (data not shown). These data

indicate a direct mechanistic link between genomic stress and mTORC1 signaling in podocytes.

Since genomic stress represents a hallmark of cellular aging, we investigated both murine and

human glomeruli of young and aged subjects. Indeed, the well-documented increase in mTORC1

signaling in aged murine podocytes coincided with increased detection of DNA damage foci (Fig.

4F & S5A). Similar results were detected in a series of human tumor nephrectomy samples when

comparing a young group (21-49 years; n=4) with an old group (69-81 years; n=5) (Fig.4G & S5B).

These results validate the occurrence of DNA damage in both healthy murine and human

podocytes and indicate an association between DNA damage and aging in podocytes, possibly

contributing to age-related podocyte loss [25].

Discussion:

Our study allows two principal conclusions: (1) DNA repair mechanisms are involved in the

pathophysiology of glomerular disease, which are indispensable for podocyte homeostasis, and

(2) podocytes respond to DNA damage by upregulation of the mTORC1 pathway in a DNA-PK-

mediated manner before the onset of podocyte loss, not via a repression of the mTORC1 pathway.

Together, this is the first report drawing a connection between DNA repair mechanisms and

glomerular diseases via mTORC1 signaling.

Only recently the importance of DNA repair has sparked larger interest in the field of podocyte

biology. Due to their often deleterious clinical phenotypes in humans, the description of glomerular

abnormalities in syndromes caused by mutations in DNA repair genes is scarce [56,57]. However,

there is evidence for podocyte involvement in syndromes caused by mutations of DNA repair

genes underlined by reports of patients exhibiting proteinuria and nephrotic syndrome [49,58,59]. The

same holds true for factors involved in other forms of DNA maintenance such as the KEOPS

complex [13,60] or KAT5, a contributor to DNA methylation and non-homologous endjoining repair [61].

Itoh and co-workers linked proteinuric kidney diseases due to hypertension and diabetes to DNA

double-strand breaks and methylation in the promotor region of the slit diaphragm protein nephrin

and established an association to DNA double-strand breaks in glomeruli of patients suffering from

IgA nephropathy [14,15]. Our analysis adds considerably to this body of evidence, as we identify

multiple factors of DNA maintenance, in particular of NER, to be transcriptionally altered in

glomeruli of different renal diseases involving pronounced podocyte damage and loss. This is in

line with decreased expression of NER endonuclease ERCC4 in IgA nephropathy[14]. The precise

evaluation of perturbations in every single one of the identified genes goes beyond the scope of

this manuscript, but we delineated the striking decrease of NER gene expression in FSGS

podocytes and investigated the podocyte-specific reaction to accumulating DNA damage in depth

in vivo and *in vitro*.

To what extent glomerular epithelial cells are subjected to genomic stress is currently unclear. For

the first time, this study reveals the occurrence of individual DNA damage foci in podocytes under

healthy conditions indicating a need for constant DNA maintenance and repair in this specialized

cell type. This finding is in line with studies investigating glomerular expression profiles of a partial

Ercc1 knockout [62] and an adipose tissue-specific *Ercc1* knockout that described a low amount of

DNA damage foci also occurring in adipocytes of control animals [50]. A major factor contributing to

this stress may result from damaging agents in the serum, as serum components are constantly

filtered into the primary urine in which the podocytes are emerged in. Since podocytes entail very

little capacity for regeneration [7], they are in specific need for efficient repair of occurring DNA

damage and particularly vulnerable to abrogation of these repair pathways. Deficiency in the repair

of DNA damage seems to be compensable up to a certain threshold as podocyte loss, proteinuria,

and glomerular sclerosis only became apparent after week 9 in our mouse model. In line with

these findings, decreased *Ercc1* gene expression in heterozygous mice appears to be sufficient

to maintain healthy glomeruli, as these animals depict no phenotype at one year of age. Yet, the

presence of foot process effacement and glomerulosclerosis in *Ercc1* -/delta mice indicates that

minimal residual activity is not sufficient for podocyte health.

The interplay of DNA damage, its repair, and the mTOR pathway has been a subject of numerous

studies, specifically in the field of cancer biology. These studies indicated that mTORC1 signaling

is inhibited upon DNA damage in a TSC, Sestrin or AKT dependent manner [17,18,19]. Strikingly, we

observed that podocytes both *in vitro* and *in vivo* reacted to endogenous accumulation or

exogenous infliction of DNA damage with activation of the mTORC1 pathway. Herein lies a

fundamental difference to past reports and a potential disease mechanism as numerous studies

have depicted the importance of a tight regulation of mTORC1 for podocyte health and the

deleterious effects of both overactivation and repression in disease [23,25,26,43,63,64]. Since mTORC1

activation occurs in *Ercc1* pko podocytes at 9 weeks, a time point of no overt podocyte loss, mild

ultrastructural differences, and significant accumulation of DNA damage foci, our data indicate a

direct link between genomic stress and mTORC1 activation in podocytes via activation of DNA-

PK.

A growing body of evidence suggests that mTORC1 activity reduces the capacity of successful

DNA repair [20,21], e.g. through ribosomal S6 kinase (S6K)-dependent phosphorylation of E3

ubiquitin-protein ligase RNF168 [22]. However, upon podocyte depletion, remaining podocytes on

the glomerular tuft counteract the loss of neighbouring cells through mTORC1-mediated
hypertrophy [25] which impairs proper DNA repair. This fact is underlined by podocyte-specific *Tsc1*
knockout animals displaying mTORC1 hyperactivation, which accumulate a significantly increased
amount of DNA damage foci already at 4 weeks of age. We, therefore, hypothesize that this
reaction can lead to a downward spiral of insufficient DNA maintenance further aggravated
through mTORC1 activation and, despite of mTORC1 mediated hypertrophy, trigger excessive
podocyte loss. This cascade could potentially be ameliorated through well-timed mTORC1
inhibition as indicated by the reduction of glomerulosclerosis in rapamycin-treated *Ercc1* -/delta
and *Ercc1* pko animals or upregulation of DNA repair mechanisms to alleviate accumulated
genomic stress. Potential sites in the genome that could be used to alter glomerular damage repair
were already identified in our eQTL analysis in FSGS patients. This is of particular interest since
there seems to be a broad interplay between gene products exerting functions beyond their
canonical pathways in genome maintenance [65]. Likewise, decreased expression of DNA repair
genes in a subset of patients or the accumulation of DNA damage through the aging process may
lead to increased mTORC1 activation in podocytes, thereby rendering a subgroup of patients
vulnerable to the development of glomerular disease and scarring.
The importance of DNA damage repair in podocyte homeostasis is consistent with the role in other
postmitotic cell types and particularly apparent in neurodegenerative pathologies typical for NER
deficiency syndromes [5]. The role of NER in repairing transcription-blocking lesions might thus play
a pivotal role in podocytes that need to maintain the integrity of transcribed genes during the entire
lifespan of the organism. Even hepatocytes of *Ercc1* -/delta mice, usually characterized by high
self-renewing potential, showed a considerable block of transcription, indicative of transcription-
coupled mechanisms being stalled [66,47].
In conclusion, we identified nucleotide excision repair as an essential mechanism of DNA
maintenance in podocyte homeostasis. The presented study characterizes the activation of
mTORC1 signaling as a podocyte-specific response to DNA damage and identifies the
accumulation of DNA damage as one novel hallmark of podocyte loss and glomerular disease,
suitable for precision medicine approaches.
517
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520

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FB, AMM, LB, RAH, VGP, MNW, GC, MR, DF, GGS, SK, MTL, WB, VN, PM performed experiments; FB, LB, AMM, GC, RAH, VGP, MNW, DF, MTL, WB, MGS, VN analysed data; FB, AMM, VGP, GG, MD, PTB, CDC, MK, MGS, MK, TBH, BSche, TB, BSchu, CEK conceived experiments, FB, VGP, BSchu, CEK wrote the manuscript, all authors revised the manuscript, all authors agreed on the publication in the presented state.

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Figures and Figure Legends:

Figure 1: Nucleotide excision repair (NER) gene expression is perturbed in human FSGS and this perturbation causes glomerulosclerosis

A: Bubble plot indicating the differences in Ercc gene expression in podocytes between living donor (LD) kidney samples, Minimal change disease (MCD) and FSGS biopsies obtained through single nucleus sequencing.

B: Representative immunofluorescence staining of synaptopodin (SNP), γH2A.X and Draq5 in sections of human MCD and FSGS biopsies with quantification of γH2A.X foci per podocyte nucleus, scalebar indicating 2 μm, yellow dotted line indicating nuclear border, n=4, 4 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.

C: qPCR analysis for *Ercc1* in FACS-sorted podocytes of *Ercc1* ctrl, wt/pko (het) or pko mice. Delta-Delta-CT values expressed as scatterplots depicting mean plus 95% confidence interval.

D: Kaplan-Meyer curve depicting survival of *Ercc1* ctrl, wt/pko (het) and pko mice (Mantel-Cox test).

E: Weight analysis; F: urinary albumin/creatinine analysis; G: serum creatinine analysis; H: serum urea analysis of *Ercc1* ctrl and pko mice.

I: Representative Periodic Acid Schiff (PAS) staining of 13-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko mice and quantification of sclerotic glomeruli, scalebars: 100 μm, n = 5, 50 glomeruli per sample.

All violin plots indicate median (black) and upper and lower quartile (gray), scatterplots indicate mean plus 95% confidence interval, *p ≤ 0,05, **p ≤ 0,01, ***p ≤ 0,001, ****p ≤ 0,0001.

Figure 2: The podocyte-specific constitutive ko of *Ercc1* leads to foot process effacement and podocyte loss accompanied by accumulation of DNA damage.

A: Representative electron microscopy image of 7- and 9-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko slit diaphragms, scalebar indicating 2 μm, B: blood side – intracapillary space, U: urinary side – Bowman's space, asterisk indicating podocyte foot process (n=3).

B: Representative immunofluorescence staining of slit diaphragm protein nephrin (yellow) with nuclear marker DAPI (grey) of *Ercc1* ctrl at 13 weeks of age and pko kidneys at 7, 9, 11, and 13 weeks of age, scalebar indicating 2 μm (n=5).

C: Representative immunofluorescence staining of podocyte proteins synaptopodin (SNP, gray), Dachshund homolog 1 (Dach1, green) [42] and far-red fluorescent DNA dye Draq5 (red) as a nuclear marker in sections of 9-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, with quantification of podocyte number and density of *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, scalebar indicating 10 μm (n=5).

D: Corresponding staining of podocyte proteins synaptopodin (gray), Dachshund homolog 1 (Dach1, green) [42] and far-red fluorescent DNA dye Draq5 (red) as a nuclear marker in paraffin-embedded sections of 11-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, scalebar indicating 10 μm (n=5).

E: Representative immunofluorescence staining of synaptopodin (SNP, gray), DNA damage marker γH2A.X (green) and nuclear marker Draq5 (red) in sections of 9-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, with quantification of γH2A.X foci per podocyte nucleus and nuclear area of *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, scalebar indicating 2 μm, yellow dotted line indicating nuclear border, n=5, 10 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.

F: Representative immunofluorescence staining of synaptopodin (SNP, gray), DNA damage marker γH2A.X (green) and nuclear marker Draq5 (red) in sections of 11-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, with quantification of γH2A.X foci per podocyte nucleus and nuclear area of *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, scalebar indicating 2 μm, n=5, 10 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.

All violin plots indicate median (black) and upper and lower quartile (gray), *p ≤ 0,05, **p ≤ 0,01, ***p ≤ 0,001, ****p ≤ 0,0001.

Figure 3: DNA damage leads to an activation of the mTORC1 pathway in podocytes *in vivo*.

A: Representative immunofluorescence staining of SNP, pS6RP and DAPI in sections of 9-week-old *Ercc1*
ctrl and pko kidneys with quantification of SNP and pS6RP double positive cells per glomerulus and per
total SNP positive cells, scalebar indicating 10 *µ*m (n=5, 10 glomeruli per sample).

B: Representative Periodic Acid Schiff (PAS) staining of end-of-life *Ercc1* -/delta mice treated with 14 mg
rapamycin per kg food from 8 weeks of age and quantification of sclerotic glomeruli (n = 8, 50 glomeruli per
sample), scalebar indicating 50 *µ*m.

C: Representative Periodic Acid Schiff (PAS) staining of *Ercc1* pko mice treated with vehicle (*Ercc1* pko) or
rapamycin (*Ercc1* pko Rapa) from 6 weeks of age and quantification of sclerotic glomeruli, n ≥ 9, 50 glomeruli
per sample, scalebar indicating 50 *µ*m.

D: Representative immunofluorescence staining of synaptopodin (SNP, gray), DNA damage marker γH2A.X
(green) and nuclear marker Draq5 (red) in sections of 4-week-old *Tsc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, with
quantification of γH2A.X foci per podocyte nucleus and nuclear area of *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, yellow
dotted line indicating nuclear border (n=5, 10 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus), scalebar
indicating 2 *µ*m.

E: Schematic overview depicting the potential interplay between defective DNA damage repair and
increased mTORC1 signaling. In *Ercc1* pko mice, accumulation of DNA damage triggers mTORC1
signaling. In *Tsc1* pko mice, hyperactive mTORC1 signaling also leads to increased DNA damage foci.

All violin plots indicate median (black) and upper and lower quartile (gray), scatterplots indicate mean plus
95% confidence interval, *p ≤ 0,05, **p ≤ 0,01, ***p ≤ 0,001, ****p ≤ 0,0001.

Figure 4: DNA damage leads to an activation of the mTORC1 pathway in podocytes *in vitro* through
a DNA-PK-dependent mechanism and podocytes accumulate DNA damage with aging.
A: Schematic of *in vitro* protocol for the induction of DNA damage.
B: Representative immunoblot images for DNA damage marker γH2A.X and loading control protein beta-
tubulin of immortalized murine podocyte lysates (n=3).
C: Representative immunofluorescence images for tumor suppressor p53 and nuclear marker DAPI in
immortalized murine podocytes (n=3).
D: Representative immunoblot images for mTORC1 target phospho-S6 ribosomal protein (pS6RP), S6RP
and loading control protein alpha-actin of immortalized murine podocyte lysates (n=3).
All cells imaged or lysed after treatment with mitomycin C (MMC) or ultraviolet C (UV-C) irradiation ±
rapamycin or serum starvation (SS), n ≥ 4.
E: Representative immunoblot images for mTORC1 target phospho-S6 ribosomal protein (pS6RP), S6RP
and loading control protein alpha-actin of immortalized murine podocyte lysates (n=3 MMC; n=6 UV-C).
All cells imaged or lysed after treatment with mitomycin C (MMC) or ultraviolet C (UV-C) irradiation ± ATM
inhibitor KU60019 or DNA-PK inhibitor nedisertib.
F: Representative immunofluorescence staining of SNP, γH2A.X and Draq5 in sections of murine young
and aged wildtype kidneys with quantification of γH2A.X foci per podocyte nucleus, scalebar indicating 2
μm, n=4, 5 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.
G: Representative immunofluorescence staining of SNP, γH2A.X and Draq5 in sections of human young
and old tumor nephrectomy kidneys with quantification of γH2A.X foci per podocyte nucleus, scalebar
indicating 5 μm, n≥4, 5 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.
All violin plots indicate median (black) and upper and lower quartile (gray), *p ≤ 0,05, ***p ≤ 0,001, ****p ≤
0,0001.
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897 **Supplementary Information:**

Figure S1:

A: Bubble plot indicating the differences in NER (excluding Ercc genes) and mTORC1 target gene expression in podocytes between living donor (LD) kidney samples, Minimal change disease (MCD) and FSGS biopsies obtained through single nucleus sequencing. Grey line indicating the split between NER and mTORC1 target genes.

B: Expression profile of 118 hallmark DNA repair genes in MCD, FSGS, IgA nephropathy (IgA), membranous nephropathy (MGN), diabetic nephropathy (DN), and hypertension (HT) glomeruli compared to controls depicted as parts of whole and single genes in heatmaps. Genes ranked by their protein abundance (Intensity-based absolute quantification - IBAQ) in murine podocyte proteome analysis[39].

C: Quantification of podocyte nuclear area of human MCD and FSGS biopsies (n=4, 4 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus).

D: Quantification of γH2A.X foci area per podocyte nucleus of human MCD and FSGS biopsies (n=4, 4 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus).

E: Quantification of γH2A.X foci area per podocyte nuclear area of human MCD and FSGS biopsies (n=4, 4 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus).

All violin plots indicate median (black) and upper and lower quartile (gray), ****$p \leq 0{,}0001$.

A

Wild-Type 14 weeks

Ercc1 -/delta 14 weeks

B

Ercc1 fl/fl
Ercc1 ctrl
X
pod:cre wt/tg

Ercc1 fl/fl
pod:cre wt/tg
Ercc1 pko

Ercc1 wt/fl
pod:cre wt/tg
Ercc1 het

C

36 weeks

Ladder BSA 10µg BSA 1µg Ercc1 ctrl Ercc1 het Ercc1 het

D

Ercc1 het 72w

Fig S2:

A: Representative electron microscopy image of 14-week-old wild-type (WT) and *Ercc1* -/delta (Ercc1-/d)
glomerular filtration barrier, scalebar indicating 2 μm, B: blood side – intracapillary space, U: urinary side –
bowman's space, Asterisk indicating podocyte foot process (n=4).
B: Breeding scheme for homozygous and heterozygous podocyte-specific *Ercc1* pko mice.
C: Representative Coomassie blue staining of *Ercc1* ctrl and wt/pko (het) urine at 36 weeks of age; bovine
serum albumin (BSA) was loaded as reference.
D: Representative Periodic Acid Schiff (PAS) staining of *Ercc1* wt/pko (het) kidney at 72 weeks of age,
scalebar: 100 μm.

Figure S3:
A: Breeding and induction scheme for homozygous inducible podocyte-specific *Ercc1* ko mice (ipko).
B: Kaplan-Meyer curve depicting survival of *Ercc1* ctrl and ipko mice (Mantel-Cox test).
C: Representative Coomassie blue staining of *Ercc1* ctrl and ipko urine 18 weeks after induction with tamoxifen; bovine serum albumin (BSA) was loaded as reference (n=6).
D: Representative Periodic Acid Schiff (PAS) staining of *Ercc1* ctrl and ipko mice 25 weeks after induction with tamoxifen (n=6).
*p ≤ 0,05, scalebars: 100μm.

Figure S4:

A: Quantification of nephrin positive area in μm^2 of *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys at 7, 9, 11, and 13 weeks of age, n=4, 10 glomeruli per sample.

B: Quantification of glomerular volume of 9-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, n = 5, 10 glomeruli per sample.

C: Quantification of WT+ nuclei per glomerulus of *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys at 9 and 11 weeks of age, n = 4, ≥50 glomeruli per group

D: Quantification of podocyte nuclear are of 9-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, n = 5, 10 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.

E: Quantification of γH2A.X foci area per podocyte nucleus of 9-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, n = 5, 10 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.

F: Quantification of γH2A.X foci area per podocyte nuclear area of 9-week-old *Ercc1* ctrl and pko kidneys, n = 5, 10 glomeruli per sample, 5 podocytes per glomerulus.

All violin plots indicate median (black) and upper and lower quartile (gray), **$p ≤ 0,01$, ***$p ≤ 0,001$, ****$p ≤ 0,0001$.

Figure S5:

A: Representative immunohistochemistry staining of pS6RP in sections of murine young and aged wildtype kidneys with quantification of pS6RP-positive cells per glomerulus, scalebar indicating 25 μm, n =11, 50 glomeruli per sample.

B: Representative immunofluorescence staining of SNP, pS6RP and DAPI in sections of young and old human tumor nephrectomy kidneys with quantification of SNP and pS6RP double positive cells per glomerulus and per total SNP positive cells, scalebar indicating 10 μm, n=≥4, 10 glomeruli per sample. Scatterplot depicting mean and 95% confidence interval, all violin plots indicating median (black) and upper and lower quartile (gray), ****p ≤ 0,0001.

Table S1: Gene expression analysis of ERCB for Hallmark DNA Repair and Nucleotide Excision Repair Genes

Table S2: Clinical characteristics of FSGS patients

Table S3: eQTL analysis of DNA repair genes in FSGS patients

Ensg: ensemble gene ID; FDR: false discovery rate, PIP: posterior inclusion probability, AF:

allele frequency, beta: expression difference to reference allele

Table S4: Full eQTL analysis of DNA repair genes in FSGS patients