Spatiotemporal dynamics of RAD51C between the Golgi and nucleus regulates homologous recombination and genomic stability.

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Abstract

Intra-organelle communication is essential for cellular homeostasis, but the coordination between nuclear processes and cytoplasmic compartments remains poorly understood. Here, we uncover a novel spatiotemporal regulatory pathway linking the Golgi complex to the nucleus upon DNA damage. We show key DNA repair proteins, including RAD51C, dynamically shuttle between these organelles in response to distinct types of DNA damage. Mechanistic analysis reveals that RAD51C is anchored at the Golgi by Giantin. Disrupting this interaction leads to premature RAD51C nuclear localization, impaired homologous recombination signaling, genomic instability, and increased cell proliferation. Our findings establish Golgi-nuclear communication as a critical regulator of DNA repair, offering new insights into genomic integrity maintenance with profound implications for cancer and aging-related genomic instability.

Introduction

Eukaryotic cells have evolved a highly specialised and coordinated array of membrane-bounded organelles. This compartmentalisation allows the segregation of biochemical reactions, ensuring that they are carried out with the highest specificity and efficiency. However, organelles do not function in isolation but rely on the continual exchange of lipids, proteins and signalling cues to maintain cellular homeostasis. At the centre of this cross-coordination of subcellular transport and signalling pathways lies the Golgi complex. Thus, contributing well beyond its classical roles of membrane trafficking, and post-translational modification but also acting as a regulatory hub with numerous cellular processes intersecting at this organelle such as autophagy, mitosis, growth signalling, cytoskeletal and energy status regulation (*1, 2*). Perturbations to the Golgi architecture and mutations of its constituents have been associated with a wide array of human diseases such as neurodegenerative disorders and cancer, amongst many others (*3–6*). Although we have a clearer picture of the Golgi's interactions and regulatory functions in the cytoplasmic domain, its communication with thel nucleus remains largely unexplored.

Emerging themes have started to illustrate the relationship between the Golgi and nuclear compartment, with multi-localisation proteins playing a pivotal role. For example, in cholesterol homeostasis and ER stress response, sensing-signalling proteins SREBP and ATF6, respectively, get proteolytically cleaved at the Golgi complex to regulate gene expression through the release of a transcriptionally active amino terminus that makes its way to the nucleus (*7, 8*). Few studies have also hinted at a link between cytoplasmic organelles, genomic stability, and, in turn, cancer, with the Golgi complex emerging as a central theme (*9–11*). At a structural level, the Golgi undergoes dramatic morphological changes following the induction of DNA lesions, from ribbon-like perinuclear stack to dispersed fragments (*12*). A response requiring the phosphorylation of the Golgi resident oncoprotein, Golgi phosphoprotein 3 (GOLPH3), by DNA-dependent protein kinase (DNA-PK), aDNA Damage Response (DDR) regulator (*12*). Golgi morphology alterations are also a common feature across a wide variety of cancer types and are often reflected in changes in the distribution of Golgi resident proteins (*9, 11*). Rearrangement of Golgi glycosyltransferases distribution is a recurrent phenomenon in cancer cells, resulting in defective glycosylation, a process thought to promote cancer development (*9, 11, 13*). These

96   studies hint at a clear link between Golgi and nucleus as communicating organelles, however
97   a systematic approach that could pin down the signalling pathways involved in this
98   communication has been missing.
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To this end, here, we utilise localisation data and antibody resources from the Human Protein
Atlas (HPA) project (*14*) to explore a class of multi-localisation proteins as a systematic
strategy to identify key signalling pathways that function between the Golgi and nuclear
compartment. Our work reveals the first example of a network of DNA repair proteins
localised to the Golgi complex. We systematically analyse their subcellular localisation within
the Golgi, as well as their redistribution patterns in response to various types of DNA damage.
Furthermore, we propose a novel spatiotemporal regulatory pathway for DDR control
between the Golgi complex and nucleus, activating Homologous Recombination (HR)-
mediated DNA repair. Our findings reveal that the spatial localisation of RAD51C between
the Golgi and nucleus is critical for proper HR function. We demonstrate that Giantin is crucial
for the Golgi localisation of RAD51C, while GMAP210-mediated localisation of NBN at the
Golgi is necessary for recruiting RAD51C to the nucleus upon DNA double-strand break
(DSB) induction. The dysregulation of RAD51C by depletion of Giantin leads to genomic
instability, impaired DDR signalling, and increased cell proliferation, highlighting the critical
role of spatial regulation of DDR proteins in maintaining genomic integrity and cellular
homeostasis. This work opens up an exciting new scientific niche with the potential to identify
novel therapeutic targets.
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119 **Results**
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121 **Antibody-based systematic analysis identifies a network of DNA damage response**
122 **proteins at the Golgi complex.**
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124 To systematically explore possible candidates that link Golgi to nuclear function or vice versa,
125 we shortlisted 329 proteins identified by the Human Protein Atlas (HPA) project (*14*) to
126 localise at both Golgi-like membranes and the cell nucleus **(Fig. 1A)**. siRNA-mediated
127 validation experiments (*15*) confirmed the double-localisation of 163 candidates (167
128 antibodies) **(Fig. 1B; Supplementary table S1)**.
129
Bioinformatic analysis of the identified 163 candidates revealed a number of functional
protein networks **(Fig. 1B)**, primarily composed of two major pathways: membrane trafficking
and surprisingly, DNA repair **(Fig. 1B and C)**. Additionally, we identified enrichment for cell
cycle regulation, RNA metabolism, and lipid metabolism regulators **(fig. S2B and**
Supplementary Table S1). Within the membrane trafficking enriched cluster, we identified
several essential components of intra-Golgi trafficking machinery, including Golgins,
SNAREs, COG tethering complex, and RAB GTPase exchange factors **(Fig. 1B)**.
137
An enriched cluster centred on the DNA Damage Response (DDR) emerged through the
combination of DNA repair proteins and an array of cell cycle regulators (**Fig. 1D; fig. S1 &**
fig. S2A and B). Within this cluster, we identified various proteins collectively spanning the
core DNA repair pathways (Homologous Recombination (HR); Mismatch Repair (MMR);
Microhomology-Mediated End Joining (MMEJ) and Base Excision Repair (BER)) as well as
other integral regulators of DDR such as ubiquitination, cell cycle and signalling **(Fig. 1D and**

E). These surprising findings of DNA repair proteins at the Golgi prompted us to explore the
links between DDR and Golgi function.
146
147 **Golgi cisternal localisation analysis of dual-localising DDR proteins identifies specific**
148 **distribution patterns that correlate with their function.**
149
To start addressing the role of DDR proteins at the Golgi complex, we shortlisted 15
candidates based on their described role in this pathway and conducted an in-depth analysis
of their subcellular distribution within the organelle. The Golgi apparatus consists of *cis*-,
medial, and *trans*-Golgi cisternae, extending into a tubular *trans*-Golgi network (TGN), with
resident Golgi proteins strategically distributed along the Golgi stack in order to serve their
function (*10*). Employing confocal microscopy, we characterised the relative localisation of
the dual-localising DDR proteins within the Golgi. Using a *cis*-Golgi marker, GM130, and a
trans-Golgi marker, TGN46, we performed a cross-correlation analysis of the distribution
patterns of DDR proteins at the Golgi **(Fig. 2A to E**; **fig. S3D; Supplementary Table S2**)
(*16*). DDR proteins were found to be distributed into three major localisation patterns
throughout the Golgi cisternae: a subset co-localising predominantly with the *trans*-Golgi
marker, TGN46 **(Fig. 2A, B and E**), a second subset co-localising with the *cis*-Golgi marker,
GM130 **(Fig. 2C, D and E**) and a third subset not having a strong preference for either
marker. Remarkably, these distribution patterns appear to correlate with the DDR pathways
in which these proteins participate (**Fig. 2E**). Although the limited number of proteins
identified so far prevents us from drawing definitive conclusions, there are notable trends.
For example, BER and MMEJ proteins TOPORS, LIG1, and POLQ exhibited co-localisation
with the *trans*-Golgi marker, TGN46, while HR factors NBN and RAD51C have a high
correlation with the *cis*-Golgi marker, GM130.
169
170 **Dual-localising DDR proteins dynamically redistribute between the Golgi and nucleus**
171 **in response to specific types of DNA injuries.**
172
We next examined whether Golgi-nuclear localising DDR proteins respond to DNA damage,
focusing on two genotoxic stressors: Double-Strand DNA Breaks (DSBs) and oxidative
stress. We induced the formation of DSBs by utilising doxorubicin (DOX), a widely used
therapeutic known to interact with DNA by intercalation (*17*), while oxidative DNA damage
was induced by hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) (*18*) or potassium bromate ($KBrO_3$) (*19*) **(Fig. 2F**
to H; fig. S3 to S5).
179
Using this experimental approach we monitored for any genotoxic stress-induced changes
in protein distribution pattern of the 15 Golgi-nuclear localising DDR proteins. Initial visual
inspection of these experiments revealed that all three genotoxic treatments induced
significant changes in both the subcellular localisation patterns and protein levels of the
majority of the tested candidates. Two predominant protein redistribution patterns were
observed, either in a Golgi-to-nuclear manner or conversely*,* in a nucleus-to-Golgi direction.
Additionally, we documented variations in the total fluorescence levels across numerous
candidates. In this context, we observed instances of both decrease or increase in the protein
levels for multiple candidates. To capture these changes quantitatively, we measured the
fluorescence levels in both the Golgi and nuclear compartments and then calculated a Golgi-
nuclear distribution ratio for each protein. This ratio provides a robust and quantitative
measurement of Golgi-nuclear distribution, while also accounting for potential protein level

fluctuations due to treatment or population heterogeneity. A ratio value below 1 signifies a
shift from Golgi-to-nucleus, whereas a value above 1 indicates nucleus-to-Golgi
redistribution.
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The quantifications of the Golgi-nuclear ratio revealed a correlation between the redistribution
patterns of these DDR proteins and their subcellular distribution with the Golgi complex.
Here, treatment with DOX **(Fig. 2F and G; fig. S3)** resulted in a predominantly uniform
localisation pattern change, where *cis*-Golgi DDR proteins (3 out of 4) shifted from the Golgi
to the nucleus, whereas *trans*-Golgi proteins (7 out of 8) displayed a redistribution pattern
from the nucleus to the Golgi. Conversely, exposure to H_2O_2 or $KBrO_3$ **(Fig. 2F and H; fig.**
S4 and S5) elicited the opposite response, with the majority of *trans*-Golgi DDR proteins (7
out of 8) displaying a redistribution from the nuclear compartment to the Golgi while 2 out of
the 4 *cis*-Golgi DDR proteins displayed a redistribution pattern from the nucleus to the Golgi.
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When examining these proteins within the context of their associated DNA repair pathways,
a distinct trend also emerged. Proteins participating in BER (TOPORS and LIG1) and MMEJ
(POLQ) exhibited opposing redistribution patterns compared to the MMR regulator (MSH6)
and HR proteins (RAD51C and NBN) **(Fig. 2G; fig. S3)**. Specifically, with DOX treatment,
BER and MMEJ proteins shifted from the nucleus to the Golgi, while MMR and HR proteins
relocated from the Golgi to the nucleus. Conversely, this trend was reversed with H_2O_2 or
$KBrO_3$ treatments **(Fig. 2H; fig. S4 and S5)**.
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214   **Redistribution of RAD51C Golgi fraction is required for the formation of RAD51C repair**
215   **nuclear foci and is dependent on the kinase ATM.**
216
To mechanistically dissect the novel link between the Golgi complex and the nucleus, we
characterised the Homologous Recombination (HR) repair protein RAD51C. As a member
of the RAD51 paralog family, RAD51C is essential for regulating HR-mediated repair of
double-strand breaks (DSBs). Various studies have demonstrated RAD51C's involvement
across multiple stages of HR repair: promoting the DNA damage checkpoint (*20*), aiding in
RAD51 filament formation, stabilising replication forks, and resolving Holliday junctions to
complete repair (*21–23*). This versatility in function, combined with a significant Golgi-
localised population compared to other DNA damage response (DDR) proteins, prompted us
to investigate RAD51C as an ideal candidate for understanding how Golgi-associated DDR
proteins might facilitate dynamic recruitment to various repair complexes. RAD51C contains
both a nuclear localisation signal (NLS) and a nuclear export signal (NES) (*24*), which may
enable it to shuttle between the Golgi and the nucleus in response to DNA damage, thereby
supporting its role in replication fork stabilisation and HR repair.
230
Following the validation of RAD51C localisation, we confirmed these results using antibodies
targeting different RAD51C epitopes across several cell lines (**Fig. 3A and B**). Our
observations revealed distinct subcellular localisation distribution for exogenous RAD51C.
We identified a juxta-nuclear compact localisation (**indicated by the yellow arrowhead**) co-
localised with the Golgi marker, GM130. Additionally, RAD51C displayed a dispersed nuclear
distribution with distinct foci (**highlighted by the white arrowhead**) and a diffused cytosolic
distribution. The specificity of the antibodies was confirmed by the depletion of RAD51C (**fig.**
S6A to C). To biochemically validate the subcellular localisation of RAD51C, we isolated
nuclear, membrane and cytoplasmic fractions from HeLa Kyoto (HK) protein extracts and

probed them for RAD51C presence in each compartment (**Fig. 3C and D**). The protein was
found to be present in all fractions with the majority of the protein being present in the
membrane and cytoplasmic compartment, in agreement with our immunofluorescence data.
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Having already established that RAD51C localisation changes with the introduction of DSBs
(**Fig. 2G; fig. S3**), we investigated the temporal dynamics of this redistribution by monitoring
RAD51C localisation over time following treatment with DOX. Upon drug addition (**Fig. 3E to
H**), we observed an overall decrease in RAD51C protein level, with the Golgi-localised
fraction (co-localised with GM130, **yellow arrows**) decreasing more rapidly than the nuclear
fraction. Concurrently, the diffused nuclear RAD51C pattern changed into very distinct
nuclear foci (**white arrows**), which become more pronounced with longer DOX exposure
(**Fig. 3E**).
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Quantitative analysis of these experiments allowed us to measure the changes in RAD51C
levels at both the Golgi (**Fig. 3F**) and the nuclear compartment (**Fig. 3G**), and to calculate a
RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution ratio (**Fig. 3H**). This redistribution was further validated
by subcellular fractionation (**Fig. 3I; fig. S6D**). Similarly, the total protein level of RAD51C is
observed to decrease after 3 h treatment, with a much larger reduction in the membrane
compartment when compared to the nuclear fraction. Additionally, we observed an increase
in RAD51C cytoplasmic fraction with DOX treatment. Overall, in both experiments, the
RAD51C Golgi-nucleus distribution ratio is seen to decrease significantly after 3 h DOX
treatment in both the immunofluorescence and biochemical assay (**Fig. 3H and I).**
262
To identify a mechanism for RAD51C redistribution between compartments, we induced
DSBs using DOX while inhibiting Importin-β-mediated nuclear import with the small peptide
inhibitor Importazole (IPZ) (*25*). IPZ treatment (**Fig. 3J to L, fig. S7A; Golgi fraction
marked with yellow arrows; nuclear foci marker with white arrows**) inhibited the DOX-
induced RAD51C redistribution. Instead, the majority of the protein population remained co-
localised with the Golgi marker, GM130, and nuclear foci formation was significantly inhibited
(Fig. 3J). While a reduction in the overall RAD51C protein level was measured with DOX
treatment alone, no significant change in the RAD51C distribution pattern was observed with
IPZ treatment (**fig. S7A**).
272
We next sought to test whether the phosphorylation of DDR kinases mediates RAD51C
redistribution in response to DSBs. The three master kinases that are active in response to
DNA damage are ataxia-telangiectasia mutated (ATM), Ataxia telangiectasia and Rad3-
related (ATR) and DNA-dependent protein kinase (DNA-PK) (*26*). Cells were treated with
phosphorylation inhibitors specific for each kinase and RAD51C redistribution was analysed
following DOX treatment (**Fig. 3M to O; fig. S7B; Golgi fraction marked with yellow
arrows**).
280
DOX combined with the ATM phosphorylation inhibitor, KU55933 (*27*) significantly inhibited
RAD51C redistribution, with the majority of the protein remaining co-localised with GM130
and nuclear foci formation blocked **(Fig. 3M)**. In contrast, the combined treatment of DOX
with ATR or DNA-PK phosphorylation inhibitors, VE-821 (*28*) and NU7441 (*29*) respectively,
had no apparent impact on the redistribution of RAD51C when compared with cells treated
with DOX only**.** Additionally, inhibitor-only treatments did not alter RAD51C localisation (**fig.
S7B**).

To confirm that these observations were a direct result of DSBs and not an off-target drug
effect, we tested other DSB-causing agents (*30*): camptothecin (CPT) (**fig. S8A to C**),
etoposide (ETO) (**fig. S8D to F**), and mitomycin C (MMC) (**fig. S8G to I**). All treatments led
to significant RAD51C redistribution from the Golgi to the nuclear compartment. Notably,
CPT treatment (**fig. S8A**) caused a shift in nuclear RAD51C from a **diffuse distribution to**
distinct foci, while ETO or MMC treatments (**fig. S8D and G**) increased the nuclear RAD51C
population without obvious foci formation.

Golgi localisation of RAD51C and NBN is dependent on the Golgins Giantin and
GMAP210, respectively.

To identify potential Golgi membrane anchors for RAD51C, we analysed data from two
genome-wide siRNA screens aimed at identifying regulators of HR and DDR (*31, 32*).
Interestingly these studies highlighted the Golgin protein family as potential candidate genes,
where the knockdown of Giantin and GMAP210 led to a significant reduction in HR repair
rates (*32*) (**Golgin results summarised in fig. S9A**), and the depletion of Giantin
significantly inhibited H2AX phosphorylation, a crucial event in DDR signalling regulation (*31*)
(**Golgin results summarised fig. S9B**). Given the structural properties of Golgins (**Fig. 4A**),
which are predominantly coiled-coil proteins anchored to the Golgi membrane by their
carboxy terminus and projected into the surrounding cytoplasm (*33*), they are ideally suited
for capturing or tethering nearby membranes and potentially retaining DDR proteins such as
RAD51C.

To investigate whether RAD51C localisation is dependent on these Golgins, we performed
siRNA-mediated depletion of Giantin and GMAP210, and compared their effects on RAD51C
distribution to a control siRNA treatment (**Fig. 4B to E**). GMAP210 depletion had no
significant effect on RAD51C distribution, whereas Giantin knockdown led to a notable
redistribution of RAD51C (**Fig. 4B**). Specifically, we observed a marked decrease in RAD51C
co-localisation with the Golgi marker GM130 (**yellow arrows**) and an increase in nuclear
RAD51C localisation with distinct bright nuclear foci appearing (**white arrows**) (**Fig. 4B**).
Quantifications revealed a significant reduction of the RAD51C Golgi population, (**Fig. 4C**)
and the distribution ratio (**Fig. 4D**) reduced by more than half. The number of RAD51C foci
(**Fig. 4E**) increased by more than two-fold upon depletion of Giantin with either siRNAs. There
was no significant difference in either RAD51C Golgi intensity, distribution ratio or foci
number (**Fig. 4C to E**) between the GMAP210-depleted and control cells. The effective
knockdown of Giantin (**fig. S9C**) and GMAP210 was tested by immunofluorescence. Sub-
Golgi cisternae localisation analysis confirmed that Giantin and RAD51C are distributed in a
similar manner throughout the organelle (**Fig. 4F and G**).

To determine if RAD51C physically interacts or forms a complex with Giantin we performed
an immunoprecipitation (IP) assay (**Fig. 4H and I**). . Endogenous Giantin and RAD51C were
found to co-IP from HK protein extracts (**Fig. 4H**). To explore the dynamics of this interaction
in response to DNA damage, we induced DSBs and performed co-IP experiments (**Fig. 4I**).
Our results showed that RAD51C and Giantin dissociate upon DSB induction. However, co-
treatment with either an ATM inhibitor or IPZ, alongside doxorubicin, prevented this
dissociation, corroborating our earlier immunofluorescence observations (**Fig. 3E to O**).

To gain insight into the nature of RAD51C foci induced by Giantin depletion, we carried out
co-localisation assays to determine whether these structures contain standard HR markers,
phosphorylated H2AX (γ-H2AX) (**Fig. 4J and K**) and phosphorylated ATM (p-ATM) (**Fig. 4L**
and M) under physiological conditions and induction of DSBs by ETO. Both proteins are well-
established markers for DSB repair sites and are important for the recruitment of the HR
repair machinery (*34*). In cells treated with a control siRNA, we observed that approximately
half of the RAD51C nuclear foci were decorated with either γ-H2AX or p-ATM (**Fig. 4J to M**;
colocalising foci are denoted with an arrow), as previously described (*34*). RAD51C foci
induced by the depletion of Giantin however showed significantly lower co-localisation with
both markers both with or without the induction of DSBs. Overall, Giantin-depleted cells
showed fewer γ-H2AX and p-ATM nuclear foci, consistent with previous reports (*31*) (**fig.**
S9B).
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Having confirmed that RAD51C Golgi localisation depends on Giantin, we tested whether the
other identified HR factor at the Golgi, NBN (also known as NBS1 or Nibrin), is similarly
dependent on Giantin or GMAP210. While Giantin depletion did not affect NBN distribution,
GMAP210 knockdown caused a significant reduction in the NBN Golgi population (**yellow**
arrow; Fig. 4N and O). Specifically, NBN co-localisation with GM130 decreased to about
one-third of the original level **(yellow arrows)**. No significant differences were seen in
Giantin-depleted cells. We further confirmed an interaction between NBN and GMAP210
through IP assays (**Fig. 4P**). Endogenous NBN and GMAP210 co-immunoprecipitated in
HeLa Kyoto extracts, supporting their functional association.
358
359   **GMAP210 anchors NBN at the Golgi, facilitating ATM-mediated phosphorylation and**
360   **RAD51C release**
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362   NBN is a critical regulator of HR (*35*) and is essential for recruiting RAD51C to nuclear foci
363   during the DDR (*20*). Given its pivotal role in initiating and activating ATM and HR pathways,
364   we hypothesised that the Golgi-localised population of NBN might be crucial for the
365   redistribution of RAD51C from the Golgi to the nucleus following DSB induction.
366
Since knockdown of NBN disrupts the ATM and HR signalling, complicating our analysis, we
instead targeted its Golgi anchor, GMAP210, and examined the effects on RAD51C
recruitment (**Fig. 5A to C**). Under control conditions, RAD51C redistributes from the Golgi to
the nucleus upon DSB induction (**Fig. 5A; yellow arrows denote the Golgi**). However, in
GMAP210-depleted cells, this redistribution was blocked, resulting in the retention of
RAD51C at the Golgi and a diminished nuclear population. These findings suggest that
GMAP210 and potentially NBN are required for RAD51C's release from Giantin and
subsequent nuclear translocation, likely involving a complex where these proteins are in
close proximity. To explore this further, we tested whether endogenous GMAP210 and
Giantin interact through co-IP (**Fig. 5D**). The results confirmed their interaction, suggesting
they may be part of a larger DDR Golgi complex.
378
NBN is a known substrate of ATM (*36*), and that ATM activity is crucial for RAD51C's release
from the Golgi, we hypothesised that ATM mediates this release via NBN phosphorylation at
the Golgi. To test this, we investigated the presence of ATM at the Golgi membranes through
a biochemical Golgi enrichment approach (**Fig. 5E to G**). By fractionating and enriching *cis*-
and *trans*-Golgi fractions, we detected ATM in the *cis*-Golgi fraction under control conditions,

(**Fig. 5E**) with phosphorylated ATM (pATM) appearing after DSB induction (**Fig. 5F and G**).
Anticipating that ATM would be proximal to Giantin, we performed a co-IP experiment to
determine if ATM is part of a complex with Giantin (**Fig. 5H**). Our results confirmed that ATM
co-IP with Giantin, further supporting the notion that ATM is active on the Golgi membranes
to facilitate the release of RAD51C.
389
To further substantiate this, we monitored ATM activity during early DSB induction by staining
for phosphorylated SQ/TQ motifs, which recognise ATM/ATR substrates, we observed
increased phosphorylation of these substrates in both the nucleus and the Golgi after 30
minutes of DSB induction (**Fig. 5I**). Although this phosphorylation was more prominent in the
nucleus, there was a significant increase at the Golgi as well (**denoted by yellow arrows**).
We then investigated whether NBN is phosphorylated at the Golgi (**Fig. 5J**). After inducing
DSBs for 30 minutes, we observed an increase in phosphorylated NBN (pNBN S343)
predominantly at the nucleus with a lesser but still significant increase at the Golgi (**denoted
by yellow arrows**). To determine whether NBN phosphorylation at the Golgi depends on
GMAP210, we conducted GMAP210 knockdown and monitored NBN phosphorylation levels
at the Golgi under steady-state conditions and after DNA damage induction. In all conditions,
we observed a significant reduction of NBN phosphorylation at the Golgi (**Fig. 5K; fig. S9D;
yellow arrows denote the Golgi**).
403
Finally, we investigated whether this phosphorylation is ATM-dependent and requires nuclear
signal transduction (**Fig. 5L; fig. S9D; yellow arrows denote the Golgi**). Using an ATM
inhibitor and blocking nuclear export with leptomycin B (LMB) (*37*), we observed a significant
reduction of NBN phosphorylation at the Golgi under both control conditions and after DNA
damage induction. These results suggest that the NBN population anchored by GMAP210 is
phosphorylated by ATM as a crucial step in facilitating the release of RAD51C from the Golgi.
410
411 **Spatial dysregulation of RAD51C by depletion of Giantin leads to genomic instability,**
412 **inhibition of ATM signalling and accelerated cell proliferation.**
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To determine whether the spatial dysregulation of RAD51C, NBN, and potentially other HR
factors by Giantin and GMAP210 depletion influences genomic stability and DNA repair, we
first measured the incidence of micronuclei formation (**Fig. 6A and B**), a standard biomarker
for genotoxic damage (*38*). Depletion of Giantin or RAD51C significantly increased the
percentage of cells displaying micronuclei and aberrant nuclear structures compared to
controls, while GMAP210 knockdown had no significant effect (**Fig. 6B**).
420
To further confirm that Giantin depletion compromises genomic integrity, we performed
comet assays (*39*) to measure levels of fragmented genomic DNA (**Fig. 6C and D**). Cells
with defective DNA repair or exposed to DNA-damaging agents display long comet tails,
whereas healthy cells show shorter or no tails. Knockdown of Giantin or RAD51C resulted in
notably longer comet tails compared to control siRNA treatment (**Fig. 6C**). Quantification
revealed a 2.5-fold increase in tail length and fluorescence intensity for RAD51C-depleted
cells, and 1.8- to 1.6-fold increases for Giantin-depleted cells (siGiantin#1 and siGiantin#2,
respectively) (**Fig. 6D**).
429
Having established that Giantin depletion leads to genomic instability, we next examined the
long-term consequences on cell proliferation and colony formation in HK and U-2 OS cells

(**Fig. 6E to H**). Giantin knockdown significantly enhanced both proliferation and colony
formation. To determine whether these effects were associated with cell cycle changes, we
analysed the cell cycle profiles of Giantin-depleted cells via FACS (**fig. S9E**). No significant
cell cycle alterations were detected, suggesting that the increased proliferation is not due to
major cell cycle perturbations.
437
Given the critical roles that DDR proteins interacting with Giantin and GMAP210 play in HR
activation and DNA repair, their spatial dysregulation could significantly impact HR signalling.
To explore this, we assessed the ability of cells depleted of Giantin and GMAP210 to initiate
HR by measuring ATM phosphorylation, the master regulator of this pathway (**Fig. 6I and J**).
In control siRNA treated cells, DOX treatment increased phosphorylated ATM levels in
response to DSBs. However, Giantin-depleted cells (**Fig. 6I**) showed significantly lower ATM
phosphorylation levels under the same conditions, whereas GMAP210 depletion (**Fig. 6J**)
had no observable effect on ATM activation.
446
To investigate whether the redistribution of HR factors from the Golgi to the nucleus plays a
role in ATM signalling, we used Importazole (IPZ) to inhibit Importin-β-mediated nuclear
import and subsequently induced DSBs with doxorubicin (DOX) (**Fig. 6K**). Here, we found
that IPZ treatment did not significantly alter ATM signalling, regardless of the induction of
DSBs. These findings suggest that the regulated redistribution of HR factors is less impactful
on ATM signalling than their mislocalisation, implying that Giantin's spatial regulation of HR
factors is crucial for proper ATM activation, whereas GMAP210's role may operate
downstream within the DDR pathway.
455
To further substantiate the role of RAD51C spatial dysregulation in ATM signalling inhibition,
we conducted co-depletion of RAD51C and Giantin, along with individual depletions (**Fig. 6L**
and M). Consistent with previous observations, Giantin knockdown led to a significant
decrease in ATM phosphorylation levels, while RAD51C knockdown increased ATM
phosphorylation. Interestingly, co-depletion of RAD51C and Giantin restored ATM
phosphorylation levels to those comparable to control cells. To validate the restoration of
DDR signalling through co-depletion, we assessed genomic stability via micronuclei
incidence (**Fig. 6N**). Individual knockdowns of Giantin and RAD51C elevated micronuclei
formation, indicative of genomic instability, whereas co-depletion significantly reduced
micronuclei incidence, approaching levels observed in control cells. Lastly, we evaluated cell
proliferation (**Fig. 6O**). While Giantin knockdown enhanced cell proliferation and RAD51C
knockdown diminished it, co-depletion resulted in proliferation rates comparable to control,
further highlighting the interplay between these proteins in regulating cellular responses to
DNA damage.
470
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472 **Discussion**
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In this study, we reveal a novel and significant spatiotemporal regulatory system connecting
the Golgi complex and the nucleus, with direct implications for homologous recombination
(HR) and other DNA repair pathways. Our analysis of Human Protein Atlas (HPA) localisation
data (*14*) and experimental validation via siRNA knockdowns uncovered a surprisingly high
number of double-localising Golgi-nuclear proteins. Among these, we identified a cluster of
DNA repair proteins that exhibit steady-state localisation in both compartments. This cluster

encompasses crucial regulatory proteins involved in various DNA repair pathways (**Fig. 1D**),
not only specific for HR-mediated DNA repair but also Mismatch Repair (MMR), Base
Excision DNA Repair (BER) and Microhomology-Mediated End Joining (MMEJ), as well as
other integral regulators of DNA repair cellular responses such as chromatin cohesion,
ubiquitination, cell cycle regulation and signalling. To our knowledge, this is the first report
demonstrating a DNA repair protein network that localises to both the Golgi complex and the
nucleus, potentially linking Golgi-associated cytoplasmic events to DNA repair pathways.
487
Our systematic analysis revealed that these DNA repair proteins are enriched in distinct sub-
Golgi regions. This suggests a compartmentalised platform where components of related
DNA repair pathways gather, potentially facilitating protein–protein interactions and
enhancing the specificity of downstream signaling. The enriched association of the Golgins
Giantin and GMAP210 with HR factors, suggesting a structural or scaffolding role in
organising these repair proteins. These Golgi-resident proteins may stabilise DDR factors at
the Golgi and help regulate their release to the nucleus. The close association between
Golgins and DNA repair kinases, such as ATM, further supports the notion that the Golgi can
orchestrate finely tuned phosphorylation events. Through these events, DDR proteins might
be properly assembled and activated before being dispatched to DNA lesions. This spatial
organisation likely preserves pathway fidelity by preventing premature or ectopic activation
of repair proteins and by supporting the timely recruitment of DDR components.
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In response to genotoxic stress, we observed dynamic shuttling of DNA repair factors
between the Golgi and the nucleus, dependent on the type of DNA damage. The correlation
between DDR protein localisation pattern at the Golgi and their redistribution patterns upon
DNA damage underscores the Golgi's role in temporally coordinating DDR activation. We
propose that the Golgi clusters DDR proteins during steady-state conditions and releases
them to the nucleus when damage is detected. This mechanism ensures that repair proteins
are delivered to DNA lesions at the right time and context, regulating protein stoichiometry,
optimizing repair efficiency and fidelity**.** The dynamic localisation of these proteins parallels
the behaviour of known shuttling proteins like BRCA1, whose movement between the
nucleus and cytoplasm modulates its roles in DNA repair, cell cycle regulation, and apoptosis
(*40–42*). Similarly, Golgi-mediated spatiotemporal regulation of RAD51C, NBN, and other
DDR proteins may be essential for maintaining genomic stability and potentially linking Golgi-
associated cytoplasmic events.
514
To dissect this spatiotemporal regulation, we detailed a pathway linking the Golgi to HR repair
(**Fig. 6P**). Based on our findings and existing literature, we propose that the pathway begins
with the detection of double-strand DNA breaks (DSBs) in the nucleus by the MRN complex,
which activates ATM kinase. ATM then transduces the signal to the Golgi membranes, where
it phosphorylates the Golgi population of NBN. Anchoring of NBN by GMAP210 at the Golgi
supports a structural role for Golgins in facilitating this signal transduction. Our data suggest
an organelle-based checkpoint mechanism wherein ATM phosphorylates the Golgi-localised
NBN, which in turn triggers the release of RAD51C from Giantin. This ensures a
spatiotemporal gating of HR factors based on the damage context. The presence of ATM on
the Golgi membranes supports the idea that phosphorylation events occur in a spatially
controlled manner at the Golgi before repair proteins are dispatched to the nucleus. Our data
suggest that Importin-β or active recycling between the Golgi and nucleus may facilitate this
spatiotemporal release of RAD51C. This mechanism is consistent with the previously

observed function of importin-α at the Golgi, which competes with p115 for interaction with
the Golgin GM130, regulating vesicle fusion and Golgi disassembly during mitotic
progression (*43*, *44*). Once released, RAD51C, potentially with its binding partners,
translocates to DNA damage sites to engage in HR and regulate DDR signaling.

Disruption of this finely-tuned system through Giantin depletion leads to the premature
release of RAD51C into the nucleus. This mislocalisation bypasses the regulated mechanism
involving ATM-dependent phosphorylation of NBN, resulting in defective HR signalling.
Without the spatial and temporal control imposed by the Golgi, RAD51C may not assemble
correctly into functional repair complexes or may arrive at damage sites without proper
activation cues. Consequently, HR efficiency is compromised, leading to increased genomic
instability and uncontrolled cell proliferation. These findings align with previous studies
showing that knockdowns of Giantin and GMAP210 inhibit HR repair rates (*32*) and interfere
with H2AX phosphorylation (*45*).

RAD51C is a pivotal component of the RAD51 paralog complexes BCDX2 and CX3,
executing essential roles in stabilising replication forks, promoting RAD51 filament assembly,
and resolving Holliday junctions (*46*, *47*). Consequently, its mislocalisation undermines these
processes, impairing the recruitment of repair factors and DDR signalling with downstream
effects on other factors such as CHK2 (*20*, *48*). Importantly, several interconnected
mechanisms explain why mislocalisation of RAD51C produces such strong phenotypic
consequences. As a central member of HR, RAD51C orchestrates RAD51 filament formation
and subsequent strand invasion steps essential for faithful DSB repair (*21*, *49*). If prematurely
released to the nucleus or improperly retained at the Golgi, RAD51 filaments may be
disorganised or suboptimally assembled, leading to error-prone repair events. RAD51C also
influences checkpoint signaling by stabilising replication forks and interacting with ATR–RPA,
enabling proper CHK2 phosphorylation and cell-cycle arrest upon DNA damage (*20, 50*).
Dysregulation of these checkpoint pathways can encourage cells to progress through the cell
cycle despite harboring DNA lesions. The Golgi appears to act as a "coordinator" that
maintains correct stoichiometry of RAD51C and potentially other RAD51 paralogs until ATM-
mediated phosphorylation of NBN signals a controlled release. Bypassing this spatial gating
results in faulty HR complex assembly at damage sites, culminating in replication stress,
chromosome aberrations, and proliferative advantages often associated with oncogenesis.

The link between Golgin dysfunction (particularly Giantin) and elevated breast cancer risk
(*51–56*), as well as decreased patient survival (**fig. S9F and G**) (*57, 58*) underscores the
clinical importance of Golgi-regulated DDR. The involvement of other Golgin family members
in various cancers (*59, 60*) further suggests a broad role for Golgi scaffolding and signaling
processes in controlling genomic integrity. These observations raise the intriguing possibility
of exploiting Golgi-based DDR regulation as a biomarker or therapeutic target in cancer
management.

Finally, our observation that many other proteins dually localise to the Golgi and nucleus—
spanning membrane trafficking, RNA metabolism, and lipid regulation—suggests the Golgi
is a dynamic integration hub for multiple essential pathways. Its newly recognised role in
DNA repair orchestration may extend beyond HR to additional DDR networks. Altogether,
these findings encourage a reevaluation of how the Golgi contributes to genome

maintenance and cell proliferation control, opening new avenues for both fundamental
research and translational approaches in DNA repair and cancer biology.
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579 **Materials and Methods**
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Antibodies and chemicals. Several commercially antibodies and chemical were used in the
paper, including RAD51C (ab72063, Abcam; 1:500 for immunostaining) & (ab95069, Abcam,
1:2000 for western blotting; 1:500 for immunoprecipitation), GOLGB1/Giantin (AF8159, R&D
systems; 1:500 for immunostaining and immunoprecipitation, 1:2000 for western blotting) &
(G1/M1, Enzo Life Sciences, 1:500 for immunostaining), GM130 (610822, BD Biosciences;
1:500 for immunostaining, 1:2000 for western blotting), TGN46 (AHP500GT, Bio-Rad; 1:1000
for immunostaining; 1:2000 for western blotting), ATM (MA1-23152, Invitrogen; 1:2000 for
western blotting), ATM (MA1-23152, Invitrogen, 1:1000 for western blotting), pATM Ser1981
(MA1-2020, Invitrogen; 1:500 for immunostaining; 1:2000 for western blotting), CHK2 pThr68
(PA5-17818, Invitrogen; 1:2000 for western blotting), DNA-PKcs (Ser2056) (PA5-78130,
Invitrogen, 1:2000 for western blotting), gamma-H2AX pSer139 (613402, Biolegend; 1:500
for immunostaining, 1:2000 for western blotting), alpha-tubulin (MS-581, Thermo Fisher;
1:10,000 for western blotting) Lamin B1 (ab16048, Abcam; 1:2000 for western blotting)
vinculin (ab219649, abcam; 1:2000 for western blotting), HSP60 (ab46798, abcam; 1:10000
for western blotting), MRE11 (NB100-142, Novus Biologicals; 1:2000 for western blotting);
pSer343 NBN (ab226066, abcam; 1:500 for immunostaining; 1:2000 for western bloting), p-
(Ser/Thr) ATM/ATR Substrate (#2851, Cell signalling; 1:500 for immunostaining),
doxorubicin (ab120629, Abcam); Importazole (SML0341, Sigma-Aldrich), KU55933 (ATMi,
SML1109, Sigma-Aldrich); ve-821 (ATRi, HY-14731; MedChemExpress) NU7441 (DNA-PKi,
HY-11006; MedChemExpress), etoposide (ab120227, Abcam), mitomycin C (M7949, Sigma-
Aldrich), hydrogen peroxide (H1009, Sigma-Aldrich), potassium bromate (104912, Merck
Millipore), camptothecin (ab120115, Abcam), SYBR Gold (S11494, Invitrogen), crystal violet
(C0775-100G, Sigma-Aldrich).
604
Cell lines, cell culture and siRNA transfection. HeLa Kyoto, U-2 OS, MCF7, were cultured
in DMEM (Life Technologies) supplemented with 10% FBS (Invitrogen) and 1% L-glutamine
(Invitrogen). Cells were checked for mycoplasma contamination by PCR. siRNA transfections
were performed with Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) using SilencerSelect siRNAs (Ambion)
according to the manufacturer's instructions. Transfections were carried out for 72 h and the
final siRNA concentrations used were 15nM for all siRNAs. Giantin siRNA-1: 5951 & siRNA-
2: 5953; GMAP210 siRNA-1: s17811 & siRNA-2: s17812; RAD51C siRNA: s11737; ATM
siRNA: s532284; NBN siRNA: s9291.
613
Localisation validation siRNA assay. A custom-designed siRNA library targeting our
proteins of interest (Ambion) was designed and prepared in 96-well glass bottom plates
(Miltenyi Biotec) using a protocol for solid phase reverse transfection as previously described
(*15*, *61*). Non-targeting siRNA was used as a negative control. 72 hours after cell seeding,
cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), permeabilised with 0.1% Triton-X100 and
immunostained against the HPA antibodies of interest and a Golgi marker, GM130. Hoechst
33342 was used as a nuclear stain. siRNAs and antibodies details are available in
Supplementary Table S1. Images were acquired on a fully automated Molecular Devices IXM
with a 10x/0.45 NA P-APO objective. The resulting images were analysed using Cell Profiler

software (*62*) for quantitative and automated measurements of fluorescence from the
antibodies as previously described (*15*). Briefly, nuclei were segmented in the nuclear
channel, the Golgi complex was segmented in the Golgi marker channel and using the
segmented nuclei as seeds, the two structures were associated. Intensity profiles of each
compartment were acquired. A reduction of 25% or more of the antibody staining in both
Golgi and nuclear compartments was considered as a validation of the antibody specificity
(fig. S1 and S2; Supplementary Table S1).

Golgi cisternal localisation analysis. As previously described (*16*), HK cells were treated
with nocodazole (33 µM) or the solvent control methanol for 3 h. After treatment, cells were
fixed with 4% PFA, permeabilized with 0.1% Triton-X100 and immunostained using
antibodies against *trans*-Golgi marker, TGN46, *cis*-Golgi marker, GM130 and the protein of
interest. Images of the Golgi mini-stacks were acquired using a confocal microscope
Olympus Fluoview FV3000 with a 60x/1.3 NA silicon oil immersion apochromatic objective.
Golgi mini-stacks were visually inspected, and those that were in the same plane were
selected for analysis. Images were analysed using Fiji (*63*); the relative position of the
fluorescence profile of the protein of interest against the *trans*- and *cis-Golgi* markers was
measured using a plot profile tool. The measured distances were used to calculate Pearson's
correlation coefficient (PCC) between *cis*-Golgi and *trans*-Golgi markers and proteins of
interest.

Drug treatments. Cells were treated 24 h after seeding. For camptothecin, etoposide and
mitomycin C experiments, cells were treated for 16 h at a concentration of 0.1 µM, 50 µM
and 5 µM, respectively. After treatment cells were incubated with fresh medium for 2 hours.
H_2O_2 experiments were performed by treating cells for 20 min at a concentration of 50 µM,
followed by change with fresh medium and 15 min recovery. For nocodazole and $KBrO_3$
experiments cells were treated for 3 h at the concentration of 33 µM and 5 mM, respectively.
Doxorubicin was used at a concentration of 40 µM for 3 h unless indicated otherwise. For
kinase and importin-β inhibitor treatments, cells were pretreated for 30 min with the described
inhibitor prior to the addition of doxorubicin. The inhibitors were used at the following
concentrations: importazole (IPZ) (20 µM), KU55933 (ATMi) (30 µM), NU7441 (DNA-Pki) (10
µM) and ve-821 (ATRi) (10 µM).

Immunofluorescence assay. Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS and
permeabilised with 0.1% Triton X-100 for 15 min at room temperature, then cells were
blocked with 5% bovine serum albumin in 0.05% Triton X-100 for 60 min and incubated with
primary antibodies in blocking buffer at room temperature for 3 h. Following 3 washes with
PBS, cells were incubated with fluorescent dye-conjugated secondary antibodies diluted in
a blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature.

Image and data analysis. Confocal microscopy experiments were performed with fixed and
immunostained cell samples on a microscope FV3000, Olympus. Z stacks of images
covering the entire cell thickness were acquired. All image analysis was performed using Cell
Profiler (*62*) and Fiji (*63*). Briefly, first nuclei were segmented in the Hoechst channel. When
appropriate, the Golgi complex was segmented in the Golgi marker channel and using the
segmented nuclei as seeds, the two structures were associated. Intensity profiles,
morphology features and structuring counting analysis were performed when required using
Cell Profiler.

Comet assay. The assay was carried out as previously described (*64*). Briefly, cells were trypsinised, pelletised and resuspended in ice-cold PBS at a concentration of 25×10^4 cells per ml. The cells were resuspended in 2% low melting agarose (Sigma) and spread quickly onto gel bond film (Biozym) covered in 1% agarose (Sigma). Samples were immersed into a lysis buffer (100 mM EDTA, 2.5 M NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl and 1% Triton-X100; pH 10) overnight at 4°C. Followed by a wash with ice-cold water and run in an electrophoresis chamber (alkaline buffer: 1 mM EDTA, 300 mM NaOH; pH 13) at 15 V, 300 mA for 60 min at 4°C. Slides were first washed in a Tris-HCl neutralisation buffer (0.4 M; pH 7.5) followed by water, stained with SYBR Gold (Thermo Fisher Scientific) (1:10000) and finally dried. Comets were imaged by an automated Olympus Scan^R screening microscope and comet tails were scored using OpenComet plugin (*65*).

Western blotting analysis. HK cells were lysed using RIPA buffer (Thermo Scientific) with a complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche). SDS-PAGE was performed on pre-cast Tris-Acetate gels followed by transfer to PVDF transfer membrane (Merck Millipore). Proteins were detected using primary antibodies as described followed by incubation with secondary antibodies coupled with HRP (Invitrogen). Detection of protein was performed using Pierce ECL Plus Western Blotting Substrate reagent (Thermo Scientific) and visualised on Azure 280 chemiluminescent imaging system. Golgi enrichment assay was performed using Minute™ Golgi Apparatus Enrichment Kit (GO-037, Invent Biotechnologies) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The purity of the cis and trans-Golgi fractions was confirmed by using Golgi markers GM130 for the *cis*-Golgi and TGN-46 for the *trans*-Golgi. Subcellular fractionation was performed using a subcellular protein fractionation kit for cultured cells (78840, Thermo Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Fractions were verified using well-established markers (GM130 for Golgi membranes, Lamin B1 for the nuclear compartment, and alpha-tubulin for the cytoplasmic fraction) and probed for proteins of interest presence in each compartment. Protein membrane:nuclear distribution ratio was calculated by first dividing the protein level in each fraction by the protein level of the appropriate control, the resulting membrane ($M_{protein} / M_{GM130}$) and nuclear ($N_{protein} / N_{laminB1}$) ratios were further divided to give the ratio = ($M_{protein} / M_{GM130}$) / ($N_{protein} / N_{laminB1}$). The ratios obtained from the control were normalised to 1 and compared to the treated group.

Immunoprecipitation. HK cells were lysed using a lysis buffer (50 mM Hepes, 130 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT 1% NP-40) with a complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche). Cell lysates were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 mins at 4°C. For immunoprecipitation, the lysates were incubated with the primary antibody described and rotated overnight at 4°C. Next, the lysates were incubated with G-agarose beads (Roche) and rotated for 4 h at 4°C. The samples were washed with cold lysis buffer and then precipitated proteins were eluted by 2x SDS sample buffer and analysed by Western blotting.

Colony formation assay. HK or U-2 OS cells, transfected with either a Giantin or control siRNA were seeded on a 6-well plate (500 cells/well) and allowed to grow for 12 days in a complete culture medium. Where indicated, 24h after seeding the cells were treated with a DNA damaging agent, DOX (1 µM) or a solvent control, DMSO for 24h. Subsequently, the medium was replaced, and it was refreshed every 4 days. The resulting colonies were washed twice with PBS, followed by fixing and staining for 30 min with a solution containing 0.1% (w/v) crystal violet and 20% (v/v) ethanol. Then the colonies were washed again to

719 remove excess crystal violet with PBS. Finally, after the dishes were dry, digital images of
720 the colonies were acquired using a camera and quantified.
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Statistical analysis. All data were obtained from at least three independent experiments if
not otherwise stated. Statistical analyses were performed using a two-tailed t-test for pairwise
comparison and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for multiple comparisons on
GraphPad Prism 9. Data are expressed as the standard error of the mean (s.e.m.). n values
indicate biologically independent samples and experiments. $P < 0.05$ was considered
statistically significant.
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736 **Figure legends**
737
Fig. 1. Antibody-based analysis identifies a network of DNA damage response (DDR)
proteins at the Golgi complex. (**A**) Schematic diagram of the screening process for the
shortlisting, validation and characterisation of Golgi-nuclear localisation proteins, as a
strategy to identify linking pathways. (**B**) Experimentally-based protein-protein interaction
network displaying the DNA repair and membrane trafficking Golgi-nuclear localisation
proteins validated in this study; categorised by functional pathways. (**C**) Pathway enrichment
analysis of the Golgi-nuclear localisation proteins identified in this study. (**D**) Experimentally-
based STRING protein-protein interaction network showing the DDR proteins identified to
localise to both the Golgi complex and nucleus; yellow nodes indicate double-localising
proteins, and grey nodes are filler untested proteins. (**E**) Representative images of HeLa
Kyoto cells stained with antibodies against Golgi-nuclear DDR proteins (green), and the Golgi
marker GM130 (red). DNA was stained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Yellow arrowheads
denote the Golgi complex. Scale bar, 10 µm.
751
Fig. 2. Systematic analysis of Golgi-nuclear localisation DDR proteins. (**A** to **E**) Golgi-
cisternal localisation analysis of Golgi-nuclear DDR proteins. HK cells were treated with
Nocodazole (33 µM, 3 h), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins. (**A** and **C**)
Enlarged view of single isolated mini-stack, where cells were stained with antibodies against
TOPORS, CCAR1 and Golgi markers GM130 (*cis*-Golgi) and TGN46 (*trans*-Golgi); scale bar,
1 µm; (**B** and **D**) white lines across the stack depict the line-plot analysis. (**E**) Quantification
of Pearson's correlation coefficient (PCC) between *cis*-Golgi and *trans*-Golgi markers and
DDR proteins; n ≥ 36 mini-stacks. (**F**) Localisation changes of dual-localising DDR proteins
upon induction of DNA damage. HK cells were treated with the DNA damage-inducing drug,
doxorubicin (DOX) (40 µM, 3 h) or oxidative stress-inducing agent hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)
(50 µM for 20 min, followed with 15 min recovery), fixed and stained with antibodies against
DDR proteins LIG1, POLQ, CCAR1 and the Golgi marker, GM130; yellow arrows denote the
Golgi membranes. Scale bars, 10 µm. (**G**) A ratio of DDR protein Golgi-nuclear distribution
after treatment with DOX and (H) H_2O_2. Data represent the mean ± standard error of the

mean (s.e.m.) ($n = 3$ biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells analysed for
each protein in control and treatment conditions). The proteins are classified according to
their Golgi localisation patterns (**E**). Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed
unpaired Student's *t*-test; ns P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to
untreated control.
771
Fig. 3. Redistribution of RAD51C Golgi fraction is required for the formation of RAD51C
nuclear foci and is dependent on the kinase ATM. (**A**) Representative images of HK, U-2
OS and MCF7 cells stained with antibodies against RAD51C (green) and GM130 (red). DNA
stained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). (**B**) Quantification of RAD51C distribution across the
Golgi, nucleus and cytoplasm in various cell lines quantified from immunofluorescence
images. (**C**) WB analysis showing the subcellular membrane (M), nuclear (N) and
cytoplasmic (C) fractions of RAD51C (markers: GM130 for Golgi membranes, Lamin B1 for
the nuclear compartment, alpha-tubulin for the cytoplasmic fraction). (**D**) Quantification of
western blot analysis showing the distribution of RAD51C in 3 cell fractions: membrane,
nuclear and cytoplasmic; ($n = 3$ biologically independent experiments) data represent the
mean ± s.e.m. (**E**) HK cells treated with the DNA damage-inducing drug, doxorubicin (DOX),
for increasing lengths of time. Yellow arrows denote the Golgi membrane; white arrows
denote nuclear foci. (**F**) Quantification of sum intensity of RAD51C Golgi population, (**G**)
RAD51C nuclear population, and (**H**) a ratio of RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution after
treatment with DOX. Data represent the s.e.m ($n = 3$ biologically independent samples with
a total of 2343 cells analysed). (**I**) Quantification of RAD51C membrane-nuclear distribution
ratio after treatment with DOX, calculated from isolated fractions (fig. S6E). HK cells were
stained with antibodies against RAD51C and GM130. (**J**) Cells were treated with DMSO or
IPZ prior to a 3-hour treatment with DOX. Yellow arrows denote the Golgi membrane; white
denote nuclear foci. Results were quantified as (**K**) ratio of RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution
and (**L**) relative sum intensity of RAD51C at the Golgi Data represents s.e.m. ($n = 3$
biologically independent samples with a total of 445 cells analysed). (**M**) HK cells were
treated with DMSO (control) alone or with ATM inhibitor (KU55933) or ATR inhibitor (VE-821)
or DNA-PK inhibitor (NU7441) prior to a 3-hour treatment with doxorubicin. Results were
quantified as (**N**) ratio of RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution and (**O**) relative sum intensity of
RAD51C at the Golgi. Data represents s.e.m. ($n = 3$ biologically independent samples with a
total of 1679 cells analysed). Scale bars, 10 µm. Statistical significance was determined using
a two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test.
800
Fig. 4. RAD51C and NBN Golgi localisation is dependent on the Golgin proteins Giantin
and GMAP210, respectively. (**A**) Graphical representation of Giantin protein configuration.
(**B**) HK cells transfected with control or Giantin siRNAs for 72 hours, stained with antibodies
against RAD51C and Golgi marker GM130. Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi and white
arrows indicate nuclear foci. Quantification of the localisation changes of RAD51C quantified
as (**C**) relative sum intensity of RAD51C at the Golgi, (**D**) fluorescent intensity ratio of the
RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution and (**E**) relative number of RAD51C foci per cell. Data
represent the mean ± s.e.m. ($n = 3$ biologically independent samples with a total of 1445 cells
analysed). (**F**) Golgi-cisternal co-localisation analysis. HK cells treated with Nocodazole (33
µM, 3 h), fixed and stained with antibodies against Giantin and RAD51C. (**G**) Zoom enlarged
view of single isolated mini-stack; scale bar, 1 µm; white line across the stack was used for
line-scan analysis. (**H**) Immunoprecipitation of endogenous Giantin and RAD51C under
control conditions and (**I**) after treatment with DOX or co-treatments ATMi and IPZ from HK

cell extracts. (**J** to **M**) Co-localisation experiment of cells treated with control siRNA, or Giantin
siRNA under control conditional or after treatment with ETO. Cells stained with antibodies
against RAD51C (green) and HR DDR markers (red): (**J**) γ-H2AX, and (**L**) p-ATM. Co-
localisation of structure is denoted by an arrowhead. Quantification of percentage RAD51C
foci co-localising with (**K**) γ-H2AX and (**M**) p-ATM. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. ($n = 3$
biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells and at least 550 RAD51C nuclear
foci analysed for the co-localisation experiments for each condition). (**N**) HK cells were
transfected with control, Giantin or GMAP210 siRNAs for 72 hours and stained with
antibodies against NBN and Golgi marker, GM130. Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi. (**O**)
Quantification of the localisation changes of NBN were quantified as relative sum intensity of
NBN at the Golgi and nucleus. (**P**) Co-immunoprecipitation of endogenous GMAP210 and
NBN. Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test.
Scale bars, 10 μm.
827
Fig. 5. GMAP210 is required for RAD51C nuclear redistribution in response to DSBs.
(**A**) HK cells transfected with control or GMAP210 siRNAs and treated with solvent control
DMSO or ETO (10 μM), stained with antibodies against RAD51C and Golgi marker, GM130.
Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi. RAD51C redistribution changes after treatment with ETO
were quantified for (**B**) the Golgi and (**C**) nuclear compartment. (**D**) Co-immunoprecipitation
of endogenous Giantin with GMAP210 from HK cell extracts. (E to G) Western blot analysis
of HK *cis-* and *trans-*Golgi enriched protein fractions, probing for (**E**) ATM, and (**F**) pATM
under control conditions and (**G**) pATM after treatment with DOX (40 μM) (markers: GM130
for *cis-*Golgi, TGN46 for *trans-*Golgi, HSP60 for mitochondria, H2AFX for nuclei). (**H**) Co-
immunoprecipitation of endogenous Giantin with ATM from HK cell extract. (**I** and **J**) HK cells
treated with solvent control, DMSO or ETO (10 μM) for 30 min. Cells stained with antibodies
against GM130 and (**I**) phosphorylated SQ/TQ (pS/TQ) motifs, which recognise ATM/ATR
substrates, the intensity of the image was intentionally increased, resulting in some structures
being oversaturated. This was done to enhance the visibility of Golgi signal; (**J**) pNBN (S343).
Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi. Quantification of the relative change in NBN
phosphorylation level at the Golgi in response to (**K**) GMAP210 depletion, (**L**) nuclear export
block by leptomycin B (LMB) and ATM inhibition (ATMi), at steady state or after induction of
DNA damage by ETO for 30 min. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m.
846
Fig. 6. Spatial dysregulation of RAD51C by depletion of Giantin leads to genomic
instability, inhibition of DDR signalling and accelerated cell proliferation. (**A** and **B**)
Representative images and quantification of cells displaying micronuclei after siRNA
treatment; white arrows denote micronuclei structures. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m.
($n = 3$ biologically independent samples with over 10,000 cell analysed). (**C**) Representative
images of comet assay detection genomic DNA fragmentation in HK cells treated with
control, Giantin, or RAD51C targeting siRNA. (**D**) Quantification of comet OliveMoment. Data
represent the mean ± s.e.m. ($n = 3$ biologically independent samples). (**E** to **H**)
Representative images of colony formation ability for (**E**) HK and (**G**) U-2 OS cell lines.
Quantitative analysis of colony area coverage for (**F**) HK and (**G**) U-2 OS cell lines. Statistical
significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. Scale bars, 10 μm.
(**I** and **J**) WB analysis showing HK cells transfected with control, Giantin and GMAP210
siRNA and treated with DOX (40 μM) for 3 h. after 72 h transfection, the extracts were
prepared and immunoblotted as indicated ($n = 2$ biologically independent samples). (**K**) WB
showing HK cell extracts treated with DOX (40 μM) and IPZ (20 μM) for 3h. (**L**) WB analysis

showing HK cells transfected with siRNAs against Giantin, RAD51C or a combination of
Giantin and RAD51C for 72 h; and treated with DMSO, DOX (40 µM; 3h) or ETO (10 µM; 3
h). (**M**) Quantification of WB analysis showing the relative levels of pATM; (n=3 biological
independent experiments), data represent the mean ± s.e.m. Quantification of (**N**) cells
displaying micronuclei and (**O**) fold change in cell number after siRNA treatment (n=3
biological independent experiments with at least 1000 cells analysed per condition), data
represent the mean ± s.e.m. (**P**) Proposed model for the regulation of HR-mediated repair at
the Golgi complex. In response to double-strand DNA breaks, DDR is activated at the
nucleus, ATM signal transduction from the nucleus to the Golgi leads to the phosphorylation
of the Golgi population of NBN, anchored by GMAP210. This leads to the dissociation of
RAD51C which is anchored to the Golgi through its interaction with the cytoplasmic tail of
Giantin, this RAD51C Golgi population redistributes to form nuclear foci. This transport step
requires Importin-beta-mediated nuclear import. The spatiotemporal regulation of RAD51C
is required for the correct activation of HR DNA repair and the regulation of DDR response.
876
fig. S1. Representative images of HK cells stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and
the Golgi marker, GM130. Cells were treated with a control or an siRNA against the protein
of interest to validate the specificity of the antibody. The changes in intensity measurements
in the Golgi and nuclear compartment were quantified (n=2, biological independent samples
with at least 500 cells analysed for each treatment). Scale bar, 10 µm. Continued on **fig.**
S2A.
883
fig. S2. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells stained with antibodies against DDR proteins
and the Golgi marker, GM130. Cells were treated with a control or an siRNA against the
protein of interest to validate the specificity of the antibody. The changes in intensity
measurements in the Golgi and nuclear compartment were quantified. (n=2, biological
independent samples with at least 500 cells analysed for each treatment). (**B**)
Experimentally-based protein-protein interaction networks displaying the Golgi-nuclear
localisation proteins validated in this study. Proteins are categorised by functional pathways
annotated using gene ontology terms (**Supplementary Table S1**).
892
fig. S3. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against DDR
proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. HK cells were treated with DOX (40 µM, 3 h), fixed
and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130 (**A** to **C**);
yellow arrows denote the Golgi membranes. Scale bar, 10 µm. Quantification of the relative
intensity of DDR proteins at the Golgi (**B**) and the nucleus (**C**) DOX treated normalised to
untreated control. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (*n* = 3 biologically independent samples
with at least 200 cells analysed for each protein in control and treatment conditions). The
proteins are classified according to their Golgi localisation patterns (**Fig. 2E**). Statistical
significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test; ns P > 0.05, **P <
0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to untreated control. (**D**) Golgi-cisternal
localisation analysis of Golgi-nuclear DDR proteins. HK cells were treated with Nocodazole
(33 µM, 3 h), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins. Quantification of
Pearson's correlation coefficient (PCC) between *cis*-Golgi and *trans*-Golgi markers and DDR
proteins; N ≥ 4 cells; n ≥ 36 mini stacks.
907
fig. S4. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against DDR
proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. HK cells were treated with H_2O_2 (50 µM, for 20 min

followed by 15 min recovery), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and
the Golgi marker, GM130 (**A** to **C**); yellow arrows denote the Golgi membranes. Scale bar,
10 µm. Quantification of the relative intensity of DDR proteins at the Golgi (**B**) and the nucleus
(**C**) H_2O_2 treated normalised to untreated control. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. ($n = 3$
biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells analysed for each protein in control
and treatment conditions). The proteins are classified according to their Golgi localisation
patterns (**Fig. 2E**). Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired
Student's t-test; ns P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to untreated
control.
919
fig. S5. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against DDR
proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. HK cells were treated with $KBrO_3$ (5 mM, 3h), fixed
and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130 (A to D);
yellow arrows denote the Golgi membranes. Scale bar, 10 µm. (**B**) A ratio of DDR protein
Golgi-nuclear distribution after treatment with $KBrO_3$. Quantification of the relative intensity
of DDR proteins at the Golgi (**C**) and the nucleus (d) $KBrO_3$ treated normalised to untreated
control. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. ($n = 3$ biologically independent samples with at
least 200 cells analysed for each protein in control and treatment conditions). The proteins
are classified according to their Golgi localisation patterns (**Fig. 2E**). Statistical significance
was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test; ns P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P <
0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to untreated control.
931
fig. S6. (**A**) Representative images showing the RAD51C antibody specificity. HK cells were
stained with antibodies against RAD51C and GM130; DNA was stained with Hoechst 33342.
(**B**) Quantification of RAD51C sum intensity after RAD51C depletion. Data represent the
mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with a total of 831 cells analysed). (**C**)
Western blot analysis showing the level of RAD51C protein level, in RAD51C-depleted and
control cells (n = 3 biologically independent samples). Statistical significance was determined
using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. (**D**) Western blot showing the subcellular
localisation of RAD51C treated with the DMSO and doxorubicin. The protein levels
normalised against the respective fraction control (RAD51C^{mem}/GM130; RAD51C^{nuc}/Lamin
B1; RAD51C^{cyt}/tubulin). Data represent the mean ± s.e.m; (n = 2 biologically independent
samples). (**E**) Quantification of RAD51C membrane-nuclear distribution ratio after treatment
with DOX, calculated from isolated fractions.
944
945 **fig. S7**. Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against RAD51C
946 and GM130. (**A**) Cells were treated with DMSO or IPZ prior to a 3-hour treatment with DOX.
947 (**B**) HK cells were treated with DMSO (control) alone or with ATM inhibitor (KU55933), ATR
948 inhibitor (VE-821) or DNA-PK inhibitor (NU7441) prior to a 3-hour treatment with doxorubicin.
949 Yellow arrows denote the Golgi membrane; white denotes nuclear foci. Scale bars, 10 µm.
950
fig. S8. HK cells stained with antibodies against RAD51C and GM130. Cells were treated
with (**A**) Camptothecin (CPT), (**D**) etoposide (ETO) and (**G**) mitomycin C (MMC) for 16 h
followed by media change for 2 h; scale bar 10 µm. Quantification of RAD51C distribution
between the Golgi and nuclear compartment after (**B**) CPT, (**E**) ETO and (**H**) MMC
treatments. Quantification of RAD51C distribution between the Golgi and nuclear
compartment after (**C**) CPT, (**F**) ETO and (**I**) MMC treatments. Data represent the
mean ± s.e.m. ($n = 3$ biologically independent samples with more than 600 cells analysed per

treatment). Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test. **P<0.01; ***P<0.001.

fig. S9. (**A**) siRNA screen data (*32*) showing the relative Homologous Recombination (HR) repair rate upon systematic knockdown of the Golgin protein family (grey) and HR complex proteins (black). (**B**) siRNA screen data (*31*) showing the relative percent cell population with phosphorylation of H2AX upon systematic knockdown of the Golgins. The datasets are normalised to the negative control set at 1. (**C**) HK cells were transfected with control, or Giantin siRNAs for 72 hours. The cells were stained with antibodies against Giantin and nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342; scale bar 10 µm. (**D**) HK cells stained with antibodies against pNBN (s343) and GM130. Various treatments were applied to the cells: GMAP210 knockdown, ATM inhibitors, and leptomycin B (LMB) to block nuclear export. These treatments were conducted under both control conditions and following a 30-minute induction of DNA damage using etoposide. (**E**) Cell cycle profile of HK cell treated with Giantin or control siRNA. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (*n* = 3 biologically independent samples). (**F** and **G**) Kaplan-Meier survival plots in patients with high and low mRNA (f) (*57*) and protein (**G**) (*58*) Giantin expression in Breast Cancer patients. The graph was generated using the kmplot database (https://kmplot.com).

fig. S10. Western blot analysis showing the level of proteins in siRNA-depleted and control cells for the validation of antibody specificity for (**A**) ATM and (**B**) NBN. The changes in protein level were quantified as relative protein level normalised to alpha-tubulin.

Supplementary Table S1. Set of tables listing the antibodies and siRNA used for the analysis of Human Protein Atlas dataset for the identification and validation of dual-localising Golgi-nuclear proteins. Table 1 presents the antibodies and siRNA used; Table 2 presents the identified and validated Golgi-nuclear protein. Table 3 presents the gene ontology and enrichment terms of the validated Golgi-nuclear proteins.

Supplementary Table S2. Table listing the cross-correlation measure for analysis of Golgi cisternal localisation analysis of dual-localising DDR proteins.

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FIGURE 1

Fig. 1. Antibody-based analysis identifies a network of DNA damage response (DDR) proteins at the Golgi complex. (**A**) Schematic diagram of the screening process for the shortlisting, validation and characterisation of Golgi-nuclear localisation proteins, as a strategy to identify linking pathways. (**B**) Experimentally-based protein-protein interaction network displaying the DNA repair and membrane trafficking Golgi-nuclear localisation proteins validated in this study; categorised by functional pathways. (**C**) Pathway enrichment analysis of the Golgi-nuclear localisation proteins identified in this study. (**D**) Experimentally-based STRING protein-protein interaction network showing the DDR proteins identified to localise to both the Golgi complex and nucleus; yellow nodes indicate double-localising proteins, and grey nodes are filler untested proteins. (**E**) Representative images of HeLa Kyoto cells stained with antibodies against Golgi-nuclear DDR proteins (green), and the Golgi marker GM130 (red). DNA was stained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Yellow arrowheads denote the Golgi complex. Scale bar, 10 μm.

FIGURE 2

Fig. 2. Systematic analysis of Golgi-nuclear localisation DDR proteins. (**A** to **E**) Golgi-cisternal localisation analysis of Golgi-nuclear DDR proteins. HK cells were treated with Nocodazole (33 μM, 3 h), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins. (**A** and **C**) Enlarged view of single isolated mini-stack, where cells were stained with antibodies against TOPORS, CCAR1 and Golgi markers GM130 (*cis*-Golgi) and TGN46 (*trans*-Golgi); scale bar, 1 μm; (**B** and **D**) white lines across the stack depict the line-plot analysis. (**E**) Quantification of Pearson's correlation coefficient (PCC) between *cis*-Golgi and *trans*-Golgi markers and DDR proteins; n ≥ 36 mini-stacks. (**F**) Localisation changes of dual-localising DDR proteins upon induction of DNA damage. HK cells were treated with the DNA damage-inducing drug, doxorubicin (DOX) (40 μM, 3 h) or oxidative stress-inducing agent hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) (50 μM for 20 min, followed with 15 min recovery), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins LIG1, POLQ, CCAR1 and the Golgi marker, GM130; yellow arrows denote the Golgi membranes. Scale bars, 10 μm. (**G**) A ratio of DDR protein Golgi-nuclear distribution after treatment with DOX and (**H**) H_2O_2. Data represent the mean ± standard error of the mean (s.e.m.) (n = 3 biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells analysed for each protein in control and treatment conditions). The proteins are classified according to their Golgi localisation patterns (**E**). Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test; ns P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to untreated control.

FIGURE 3

Fig. 3. Redistribution of RAD51C Golgi fraction is required for the formation of RAD51C nuclear foci and is dependent on the kinase ATM. (**A**) Representative images of HK, U-2 OS and MCF7 cells stained with antibodies against RAD51C (green) and GM130 (red). DNA stained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). (**B**) Quantification of RAD51C distribution across the Golgi, nucleus and cytoplasm in various cell lines quantified from immunofluorescence images. (**C**) WB analysis showing the subcellular membrane (M), nuclear (N) and cytoplasmic (C) fractions of RAD51C (markers: GM130 for Golgi membranes, Lamin B1 for the nuclear compartment, alpha-tubulin for the cytoplasmic fraction). (**D**) Quantification of western blot analysis showing the distribution of RAD51C in 3 cell fractions: membrane, nuclear and cytoplasmic; (n = 3 biologically independent experiments) data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (**E**) HK cells treated with the DNA damage-inducing drug, doxorubicin (DOX), for increasing lengths of time. Yellow arrows denote the Golgi membrane; white arrows denote nuclear foci. (**F**) Quantification of sum intensity of RAD51C Golgi population, (**G**) RAD51C nuclear population, and (**H**) a ratio of RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution after treatment with DOX. Data represent the s.e.m (n = 3 biologically independent samples with a total of 2343 cells analysed). (**I**) Quantification of RAD51C membrane-nuclear distribution ratio after treatment with DOX, calculated from isolated fractions (**fig. S6E**). HK cells were stained with antibodies against RAD51C and GM130. (**J**) Cells were treated with DMSO or IPZ prior to a 3-hour treatment with DOX. Yellow arrows denote the Golgi membrane; white denote nuclear foci. Results were quantified as (**K**) ratio of RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution and (**L**) relative sum intensity of RAD51C at the Golgi. Data represents s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with a total of 445 cells analysed). (**M**) HK cells were treated with DMSO (control) alone or with ATM inhibitor (KU55933) or ATR inhibitor (VE-821) or DNA-PK inhibitor (NU7441) prior to a 3-hour treatment with doxorubicin. Results were quantified as (**N**) ratio of RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution and (**O**) relative sum intensity of RAD51C at the Golgi. Data represents s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with a total of 1679 cells analysed). Scale bars, 10 μm. Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test.

FIGURE 4

Fig. 4. RAD51C and NBN Golgi localisation is dependent on the Golgin proteins Giantin and GMAP210, respectively. (**A**) Graphical representation of Giantin protein configuration. (**B**) HK cells transfected with control or Giantin siRNAs for 72 hours, stained with antibodies against RAD51C and Golgi marker GM130. Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi and white arrows indicate nuclear foci. Quantification of the localisation changes of RAD51C quantified as (**C**) relative sum intensity of RAD51C at the Golgi, (**D**) fluorescent intensity ratio of the RAD51C Golgi-nuclear distribution and (**E**) relative number of RAD51C foci per cell. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with a total of 1445 cells analysed). (**F**) Golgi-cisternal co-localisation analysis. HK cells treated with Nocodazole (33 μM, 3 h), fixed and stained with antibodies against Giantin and RAD51C. (**G**) Zoom enlarged view of single isolated mini-stack; scale bar, 1 μm; white line across the stack was used for line-scan analysis. (**H**) Immunoprecipitation of endogenous Giantin and RAD51C under control conditions and (**I**) after treatment with DOX or co-treatments ATMi and IPZ from HK cell extracts. (**J** to **M**) Co-localisation experiment of cells treated with control siRNA, or Giantin siRNA under control conditional or after treatment with ETO. Cells stained with antibody against RAD51C (green) and HR DDR markers (red): (**J**) y-H2AX, and (**L**) p-ATM. Co-localisation of structure is denoted by an arrowhead. Quantification of percentage RAD51C foci co-localising with (**K**) y-H2AX and (**M**) p-ATM. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells and at least 550 RAD51C nuclear foci analysed for the co-localisation experiments for each condition). (**N**) HK cells were transfected with control, Giantin or GMAP210 siRNAs for 72 hours and stained with antibodies against NBN and Golgi marker, GM130. Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi. (**O**) Quantification of the localisation changes of NBN were quantified as relative sum intensity of NBN at the Golgi and nucleus. (**P**) Co-immunoprecipitation of endogenous GMAP210 and NBN. Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. Scale bars, 10 μm.

FIGURE 5

Fig. 5. GMAP210 is required for RAD51C nuclear redistribution in response to DSBs. (**A**) HK cells transfected with control or GMAP210 siRNAs and treated with solvent control DMSO or ETO (10 μM), stained with antibodies against RAD51C and Golgi marker, GM130. Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi. RAD51C redistribution changes after treatment with ETO were quantified for (**B**) the Golgi and (**C**) nuclear compartment. (**D**) Co-immunoprecipitation of endogenous Giantin with GMAP210 from HK cell extracts. (**E** to **G**) Western blot analysis of HK *cis*- and *trans*-Golgi enriched protein fractions, probing for (**E**) ATM, and (**F**) pATM under control conditions and (**G**) pATM after treatment with DOX (40 μM) (markers: GM130 for *cis*-Golgi, TGN46 for *trans*-Golgi, HSP60 for mitochondria, H2AFX for nuclei). (**H**) Co-immunoprecipitation of endogenous Giantin with ATM from HK cell extract. (**I** and **J**) HK cells treated with solvent control, DMSO or ETO (10 μM) for 30 min. Cells stained with antibodies against GM130 and (**I**) phosphorylated SQ/TQ (pS/TQ) motifs, which recognise ATM/ATR substrates, the intensity of the image was intentionally increased, resulting in some structures being oversaturated. This was done to enhance the visibility of Golgi signal; (**J**) pNBN (S343). Yellow arrows indicate the Golgi. Quantification of the relative change in NBN phosphorylation level at the Golgi in response to (**K**) GMAP210 depletion, (**L**) nuclear export block by leptomycin B (LMB) and ATM inhibition (ATMi), at steady state or after induction of DNA damage by ETO for 30 min. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m.

Fig. 6. Spatial dysregulation of RAD51C by depletion of Giantin leads to genomic instability, inhibition of DDR signalling and accelerated cell proliferation. (**A** and **B**) Representative images and quantification of cells displaying micronuclei after siRNA treatment; white arrows denote micronuclei structures. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with over 10,000 cell analysed). (**C**) Representative images of comet assay detection genomic DNA fragmentation in HK cells treated with control, Giantin, or RAD51C targeting siRNA. (**D**) Quantification of comet OliveMoment. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples). (**E** to **H**) Representative images of colony formation ability for (**E**) HK and (**G**) U-2 OS cell lines. Quantitative analysis of colony area coverage for (**F**) HK and (**G**) U-2 OS cell lines. Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. Scale bars, 10 μm. (**I** and **J**) WB analysis showing HK cells transfected with control, Giantin and GMAP210 siRNA and treated with DOX (40 μM) for 3 h. after 72 h transfection, the extracts were prepared and immunoblotted as indicated (n = 2 biologically independent samples). (**K**) WB showing HK cell extracts treated with DOX (40 μM) and IPZ (20 μM) for 3h. (**L**) WB analysis showing HK cells transfected with siRNAs against Giantin, RAD51C or a combination of Giantin and RAD51C for 72 h; and treated with DMSO, DOX (40 μM; 3h) or ETO (10 μM; 3 h). (**M**) Quantification of WB analysis showing the relative levels of pATM; (n=3 biological independent experiments), data represent the mean ± s.e.m. Quantification of (**N**) cells displaying micronuclei and (**O**) fold change in cell number after siRNA treatment (n=3 biological independent experiments with at least 1000 cells analysed per condition), data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (**P**) Proposed model for the regulation of HR-mediated repair at the Golgi complex. In response to double-strand DNA breaks, DDR is activated at the nucleus, ATM signal transduction from the nucleus to the Golgi leads to the phosphorylation of the Golgi population of NBN, anchored by GMAP210. This leads to the dissociation of RAD51C which is anchored to the Golgi through its interaction with the cytoplasmic tail of Giantin, this RAD51C Golgi population redistributes to form nuclear foci. This transport step requires Importin-beta-mediated nuclear import. The spatiotemporal regulation of RAD51C is required for the correct activation of HR DNA repair and the regulation of DDR response.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1

Fig. S1. Representative images of HK cells stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. Cells were treated with a control or an siRNA against the protein of interest to validate the specificity of the antibody. The changes in intensity measurements in the Golgi and nuclear compartment were quantified (n=2, biological independent samples with at least 500 cells analysed for each treatment). Scale bar, 10 μm. Continued on **Fig. S2A.**

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 2

Fig. S2. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. Cells were treated with a control or an siRNA against the protein of interest to validate the specificity of the antibody. The changes in intensity measurements in the Golgi and nuclear compartment were quantified. (n=2, biological independent samples with at least 500 cells analysed for each treatment). (**B**) Experimentally-based protein-protein interaction networks displaying the Golgi-nuclear localisation proteins validated in this study. Proteins are categorised by functional pathways annotated using gene ontology terms **(Supplementary Table S1)**.

Fig. S3. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. HK cells were treated with DOX (40 µM, 3 h), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130 (**A** to **C**); yellow arrows denote the Golgi membranes. Scale bar, 10 µm. Quantification of the relative intensity of DDR proteins at the Golgi (**B**) and the nucleus (**C**) DOX treated normalised to untreated control. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells analysed for each protein in control and treatment conditions). The proteins are classified according to their Golgi localisation patterns (**Fig. 2E**). Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test; ns P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to untreated control. (**D**) Golgi-cisternal localisation analysis of Golgi-nuclear DDR proteins. HK cells were treated with Nocodazole (33 µM, 3 h), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins. Quantification of Pearson's correlation coefficient (PCC) between *cis*-Golgi and *trans*-Golgi markers and DDR proteins; N ≥ 4 cells; n ≥ 36 mini stacks.

Fig. S4. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. HK cells were treated with H_2O_2 (50 µM, for 20 min followed by 15 min recovery), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130 (**A** to **C**); yellow arrows denote the Golgi membranes. Scale bar, 10 µm. Quantification of the relative intensity of DDR proteins at the Golgi (**B**) and the nucleus (**C**) H_2O_2 treated normalised to untreated control. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells analysed for each protein in control and treatment conditions). The proteins are classified according to their Golgi localisation patterns **(Fig. 2E)**. Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test; ns P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to untreated control.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 5

Fig. S5. (**A**) Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130. HK cells were treated with KBrO₃ (5 mM, 3h), fixed and stained with antibodies against DDR proteins and the Golgi marker, GM130 (**A** to **D**); yellow arrows denote the Golgi membranes. Scale bar, 10 μm. (**B**) A ratio of DDR protein Golgi-nuclear distribution after treatment with KBrO₃. Quantification of the relative intensity of DDR proteins at the Golgi (**C**) and the nucleus (**D**) KBrO3 treated normalised to untreated control. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with at least 200 cells analysed for each protein in control and treatment conditions). The proteins are classified according to their Golgi localisation patterns **(Fig. 2E)**. Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test; ns P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P <0.0001, compared to untreated control.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 6

Fig. S6. (**A**) Representative images showing the RAD51C antibody specificity. HK cells were stained with antibodies against RAD51C and GM130; DNA was stained with Hoechst 33342. (**B**) Quantification of RAD51C sum intensity after RAD51C depletion. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with a total of 831 cells analysed). (**C**) Western blot analysis showing the level of RAD51C protein level, in RAD51C-depleted and control cells (n = 3 biologically independent samples). Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. (**D**) Western blot showing the subcellular localisation of RAD51C treated with the DMSO and doxorubicin. The protein levels normalised against the respective fraction control (RAD51C^{mem}/GM130; RAD51C^{nuc}/Lamin B1; RAD51C^{cyt}/alpha-tubulin). Data represent the mean ± s.e.m; (n = 2 biologically independent samples). (**E**) Quantification of RAD51C membrane-nuclear distribution ratio after treatment with DOX, calculated from isolated fractions.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 7

Fig. S7. Representative images of HK cells were stained with antibodies against RAD51C and GM130. (**A**) Cells were treated with DMSO or IPZ prior to a 3-hour treatment with DOX. (**B**) HK cells were treated with DMSO (control) alone or with ATM inhibitor (KU55933), ATR inhibitor (VE-821) or DNA-PK inhibitor (NU7441) prior to a 3-hour treatment with doxorubicin. Yellow arrows denote the Golgi membrane; white denotes nuclear foci. Scale bars, 10 μm.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 8

Fig. S8. HK cells stained with antibodies against RAD51C and GM130. Cells were treated with (**A**) Camptothecin (CPT), (**D**) etoposide (ETO) and (**G**) mitomycin C (MMC) for 16 h followed by media change for 2 h; scale bar 10 µm. Quantification of RAD51C distribution between the Golgi and nuclear compartment after (**B**) CPT, (**E**) ETO and (**H**) MMC treatments. Quantification of RAD51C distribution between the Golgi and nuclear compartment after (**C**) CPT, (**F**) ETO and (**I**) MMC treatments. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples with more than 600 cells analysed per treatment). Statistical significance was determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. **P<0.01; ***P<0.001.

Fig. S9. (**A**) siRNA screen data (Adamson et al. 2012) showing the relative homologous recombination (HR) repair rate upon systematic knockdown of the Golgin protein family (grey) and HR complex proteins (black). (**B**) siRNA screen data (Paulsen 2010) showing the relative percent cell population with phosphorylation of H2AX upon systematic knockdown of the Golgins. The datasets are normalised to the negative control set at 1. (**C**) HK cells were transfected with control, or Giantin siRNAs for 72 hours. The cells were stained with antibodies against Giantin and nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342; scale bar 10 μm. (**D**) HK cells stained with antibodies against pNBN (s343) and GM130. Various treatments were applied to the cells: GMAP210 knockdown, ATM inhibitors, and leptomycin B (LMB) to block nuclear export. These treatments were conducted under both control conditions and following a 30-minute induction of DNA damage using etoposide. (**E**) Cell cycle profile of HK cell treated with Giantin or control siRNA. Data represent the mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biologically independent samples). (**F** and **G**) Kaplan-Meier survival plots in patients with high and low mRNA (f) (Győrffy 2021) and protein (g) (Ősz, Lánczky, and Győrffy 2021) Giantin expression in Breast Cancer patients. The graph was generated using the kmplot database (https://kmplot.com).

Fig. S10. Western blot analysis showing the level of proteins in siRNA-depleted and control cells for the validation of antibody specificity for (**A**) ATM and (**B**) NBN. The changes in protein level were quantified as relative protein level normalised to alpha-tubulin.