The oncoprotein DEK affects the outcome of PARP1/2 inhibition during replication stress

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Short title: DEK and PARP in replication stress

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ABSTRACT

DNA replication stress is a major source of genomic instability and is closely linked to tumor formation and progression. Poly(ADP-ribose)polymerases1/2 (PARP1/2) enzymes are activated in response to replication stress resulting in poly(ADP-ribose) (PAR) synthesis. PARylation plays an important role in the remodelling and repair of impaired replication forks, providing a rationale for targeting highly replicative cancer cells with PARP1/2 inhibitors. The human oncoprotein DEK is a unique, non-histone chromatin architectural protein whose deregulated expression is associated with the development of a wide variety of human cancers. Recently, we showed that DEK is a high-affinity target of PARylation and that it promotes the progression of impaired replication forks. Here, we investigated a potential functional link between PAR and DEK in the context of replication stress. Under conditions of mild replication stress induced either by topoisomerase1 inhibition with camptothecin or nucleotide depletion by hydroxyurea, we found that the effect of acute PARP1/2 inhibition on replication fork progression is dependent on DEK expression. Reducing DEK protein levels also overcomes the restart impairment of stalled forks provoked by blocking PARylation. Non-covalent DEK-PAR interaction via the central PAR-binding domain of DEK is crucial for counteracting PARP1/2 inhibition as shown for the formation of RPA positive foci in hydroxyurea treated cells. Finally, we show by iPOND and super resolved microscopy that DEK is not directly associated with the replisome since it binds to DNA at the stage of chromatin formation. Our report sheds new light on the still enigmatic molecular functions of DEK and suggests that DEK expression levels may influence the sensitivity of cancer cells to PARP1/2 inhibitors.

INTRODUCTION

Poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation (PARylation) is an abundant protein posttranslational modification regulating numerous cellular functions among which the maintenance of genomic stability plays a prominent role [1]. The enzyme responsible for 85-90% of the cellular PAR synthesis activity is PARP1, with PARP2 accounting for the remainder [2]. PAR can be covalently linked to and/or interact non-covalently with target proteins. PARylation is highly dynamic and can be very transient in nature due to the activity of the de-modifying enzyme, the PAR glycohydrolase or PARG [3]. Inhibition of PARylation by small molecule compounds is a recently approved strategy for the treatment of ovarian cancer [4]. The rationale for the use of PARP1/2 inhibitors in chemotherapy is based on their synthetic lethal interaction with DNA damaging agents in cells which are deficient for recombinational DNA repair through mutations in BRCA1/2 [5, 6]. In these cells, inhibition of PARylation abrogates base excision repair thereby turning endogenous single strand breaks (SSBs) in highly toxic, non-repairable double strand breaks (DSBs). In addition, PARP1/2 inhibitors possess DNA trapping activity which causes DSBs on its own due to the collision of PARP-DNA complexes with the DNA replication and transcription machineries [7]. Impaired DNA replication has recently come into the focus as a further source of DNA lesions which can become lethal to cells treated with PARP1/2 inhibitors. If not removed timely, replication blocks lead to fork collapse leaving behind single ended DNA strand breaks as well as SSBs which require PARylation for their prompt repair. PARP1/2 was also shown to be directly involved in replication fork stabilization and protection. Thus, PARP is required for the restart of collapsed forks after prolonged exposure to hydroxyurea (HU) [8], protects transiently stalled forks from premature and extensive

resection [9] and regulates fork reversal induced e.g. by low doses of camptothecin

(CPT). More precisely, PARylation prevents RecQ helicase from resolving regressed

forks prematurely, thus avoiding fork run off across DNA lesions and DSB generation

[10, 11]. Finally, PARP1/2 was shown to play an important role also during

unperturbed DNA replication. Using pharmacological PARG inhibition to stabilize and

detect basal PAR levels, the polymer was shown to be required for sensing and

repairing a sub-set of unligated Okazaki fragments thus providing a back-up pathway

for the completion of lagging strand DNA synthesis [12].

DEK is a non-histone chromatin protein which is ubiquitously present in higher

eukaryotes [13]. Its binding to DNA is regulated by abundant post-translational

modifications, including phosphorylation [14, 15], acetylation [16, 17], and PARylation

[18-20]. Covalent PARylation of DEK is efficiently triggered by DNA damage leading

to the loss of its DNA binding and folding activities [20]. The DEK amino acid sequence

bears three PAR-binding motifs which mediate non-covalent PAR interaction *in vitro*,

thereby moderately reducing DNA binding but incrementing DEK multimerization [18].

A continuously increasing number of studies link DEK overexpression to cancer

development, pinpointing DEK as a "bona fide" oncogene [21]. DEK is considered a

potential therapeutic target and a biomarker for breast and ovarian cancer [22-24],

retinoblastoma [25], colorectal [26] and bladder cancer [27] as well as for melanoma

progression [28, 29]. DEK has a pleiotropic mode of action and can influence diverse

regulatory circuits in the cell, a notion supported also by the recent elucidation of its

interactome [30]. Downregulation of DEK expression increases the susceptibility to

DNA damage [20, 31], attenuates apoptosis [32] and senescence [21], and affects

proliferation and chemoresistance [23, 33, 34] . On the mechanistic level, DEK is

known to have DNA folding activity, principally via its ability to introduce positive

supercoils [35-37]. Thus, DEK has been involved in splicing [38], transcriptional

activation and repression, heterochromatin stability [39], DNA repair [40, 41] and DNA

replication [42, 43]. Concerning the latter, we recently proposed that DEK acts as a

tumour promoter by protecting cells from the deleterious consequences of DNA

replication stress. In particular, we showed that DEK facilitates replication fork

progression under stress, and counteracts DNA damage arising from impeded

replication as well as its transmission to daughter cells [43]. In this study, we set out

to examine a potential functional link between DEK and PARP1/2 in the context of

DNA replication stress. Our data reveal that for mildly stressed replication forks, the

consequences of PARP1/2 inhibition depend on DEK expression.

MATERIAL AND METHODS
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Cell culture
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U2-OS osteosarcoma cells were cultured in McCoy's 5a modified medium (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum (FCS; Capricorn

Scientific and PAA Laboratories), 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (both

Thermo Fisher Scientific). U2-OS control and shDEK cells [43] were additionally

supplemented with 2 µg/ml puromycin (Merck). Puromycin was omitted 36 h prior to

experiments. U2-OS shDEK cells stably express an shRNA targeting the human DEK

transcript, resulting in a permanent reduction of DEK protein levels of around 90 %

[43]. U2-OS wildtype cells were a kind gift of G. Marra, University of Zurich,

Switzerland. To generate U2-OS GFP-DEK cells, the eGFP sequence has been

inserted at the 5`end of the endogenous DEK coding sequence in wildtype cells via

TALEN-mediated genome editing (Vogel et al., in preparation). HeLa S3 cervical

adenocarcinoma cells were cultured in DMEM medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml

streptomycin and 6 mM L-glutamine (Thermo Fisher Scientific). BJ-5ta foreskin

fibroblasts were cultured in a 4:1 mixture of DMEM medium and Medium 199 medium

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum, 4 mM L-

glutamine and 10 µg/ml hygromycin B (Merck).

For induction of replication stress, cells were treated with hydroxyurea (HU; Merck)

or camptothecin (CPT; Merck) as indicated. PARP1/2 activity was inhibited with ABT-

888 or AZD-2281 (both Selleckchem) as indicated.

Isolation of Proteins on Nascent DNA (iPOND)

iPOND was performed as described by Sirbu et al. [44], with minor modifications. At

least 1×10^8 HeLa S3 cells per sample were pulsed with 10 µM EdU (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) for the indicated times and either incubated with 10 µM thymidine (Merck)

for 0 - 30 min before fixation (chase experiments) or fixated immediately (pulse

experiments). For replication stress experiments thymidine containing medium was

supplemented with 2 mM HU and/or 1 µM ABT-888. Click reaction to label EdU-

containing DNA was performed using biotin-PEG3-azide (Jena Bioscience) for 90 min

and cells were sonicated in a Bioruptor sonicator (Diogenode) to solubilize chromatin

fragments. Biotin-linked fragments were precipitated overnight at 4 °C using

streptavidin-coupled magnetic beads (0.8 µm, Solulink). Chromatin bound proteins

("Capture") were subjected to Western blot analysis using the following antibodies:

polyclonal rabbit α-DEK K-877 (1:20,000; [20]), monoclonal mouse α-PCNA (1:9,000;

PC10, Cell Signaling Technology), polyclonal rabbit α-H3 (1:150,000; ab1791, Abcam).

DNA fiber assay

For the determination of tract length ratios, U2-OS shDEK and control cells were

labelled with 60 μM CldU (Merck) for 20 min and subsequently treated with 250 μM

IdU (Merck) for 20 min in the presence or absence of 25 mM CPT and/or 1 μM ABT-

888 as indicated. For the analysis of replication fork restart, cells were labelled with 60

μM CldU for 20 min and subsequently treated with 4 mM HU and 60 μM CldU for 4 h.

After washing, cells were labelled with 250 μM IdU for 20 min in the presence or

absence of 1 μM ABT-888.

DNA fiber spreads were prepared as described by Merrick et al. [45] with

modifications: After trypsination and resuspension in ice-cold PBS, labelled and

unlabelled cells were mixed in a 1:5 ratio. 12.5 μl of the mixture were diluted with 7.5

μl lysis buffer (200 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 50 mM EDTA, 0.5 % SDS) on a glass slide.

After 9 min the slides were tilted at 30-45° and the resulting DNA spreads were air-

dried and fixed overnight in a methanol:acetic acid mixture (3:1) at 4 °C. Following

denaturing and blocking with 2 % BSA in 0.1 % Tween 20, the slides were incubated

for 2.5 h with rat α-BrdU (1:200; BU1/75 (ICR1), Abcam; detects CldU) and mouse α-

BrdU (1:200; B44 from BD Biosciences; detects IdU) antibodies. Fibers were treated

with goat α-mouse AlexaFluor-488 and goat α-rat AlexaFluor-546 (both Thermo Fisher

Scientific) secondary antibodies for 1h at RT, allowed to air-dry and mounted in

ProLong Gold Antifade (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Widefield microscopy was

performed with a Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 equipped with a Plan Apochromat 63x/1.40

oil DIC objective lens. Data were evaluated using Fiji v1.49u (National Institutes of

Health, MD [46]) and the fiber tool of the BIC macro tool box [43].

Selection of DEK-GFP expressing cells

U2-OS shDEK cells were transfected with plasmids encoding DEK WT-GFP or DEK PBD2-Mut2-GFP. After 24 h, cells were sorted using a FACSAria IIlu (BD Biosciences). Low DEK GFP expressing cells were collected in McCoy's 5a modified medium supplemented with 20 % FCS. To determine expression levels of endogenous and ectopic DEK, total proteins were extracted with SDS lysis buffer. Cleared lysates were subjected to Western blotting with the following antibodies: polyclonal rabbit α-DEK K-877 (1:20,000; [20]), polyclonal rabbit α-PCNA (1:5,000; ab18197, Abcam).

Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescence detection of Rad51, U2-OS cells were preextracted using CSK-buffer (10 mM Hepes-KOH pH 7.4, 300 mM sucrose, 100 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 0.5 % Triton X-100, 10 mM NaF, 1 mM NaVO3, 11.5 mM Na-molybdat) for 5 min on ice after treatment and fixed using 4 % PFA/PBS supplemented with 10 mM NaF and 1 mM NaVO3 (20 min, RT). For immunofluorescence detection of 53BP1, γH2AX and RPA70, cells were fixed with 4 % PFA/PBS without preextraction. After permeabilization, cells were incubated with primary antibodies diluted in 1 % BSA/PBS (Rad51, 53BP1, γH2AX) or 10 % FBS/0.05 % Na-azide/culture medium (RPA70) overnight at 4 °C. The following primary antibodies were used: polyclonal rabbit α-53BP1 (1:200; H-300, Santa Cruz), monoclonal rabbit α-RPA70 (1:1000; ab79398, Abcam), monoclonal mouse α-γH2AX (1:500; Ser139, clone JBW301, Santa Cruz), polyclonal rabbit α-Rad51 (1:100; H-92, Santa Cruz). After washing with PBS, cells were incubated with secondary antibodies diluted in 1 % BSA/PBS at RT for 1 h. The following secondary antibodies were used: goat α-mouse AlexaFluor-488, goat α-

rabbit AlexaFluor-546 (both 1:400; both Thermo Fisher Scientific). For nuclear

counterstaining, cells were incubated in 200 ng/µl Hoechst 33342/PBS (Merck).

Coverslips were mounted on microscopy slides using Aqua Polymount (Polysciences).

Replicating cells were visualized by labelling with 10 µM EdU 10 min prior to replication

stress induction. Cells were fixed and immunostainings performed as described above.

After incubation with secondary antibodies, EdU was detected using the Klick-it EdU

Imaging Kit with AlexaFluor-488 or -647 azide (all Thermo Fisher Scientific) following

manufacturer´s instructions. Nuclear counterstaining and mounting of coverslips was

performed as described above.

Confocal and superresolution microscopy

Confocal microscopy was performed with a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta and a Zeiss LSM

780 equipped with a Plan Neofluar 40x/1.30 oil or a Plan Apochromat 40x/1.40 oil

objective lens, respectively. Image analysis was done with Fiji v1.49u [46] using the

ImageJ BIC macro tool box [43]. For counting DNA damage foci, appropriate noise

parameters for each channel were determined manually and applied to all samples

within one experiment. For the determination of the number of cells positive for lesion

markers, the lower threshold for the number of foci per nucleus was set such to include

95 % of untreated control cells. The threshold was applied to all samples within one

experiment. Cells exceeding the threshold were classified as positive for the

respective lesion marker.

To test the efficiency of PARP inhibitor ABT-888, cells were left untreated or pre-

treated with 1 µM ABT-888 for increasing time points, followed by DNA damage

induction using 800 µM H_2O_2 (Merck) for 10 min. Detection of PAR was achieved after

fixation with methanol:acetic acid (3:1) using a monoclonal mouse α-PAR antibody

(10H, 1:300 in PBSMT (5 % milk powder, 0.05 % Tween 20, PBS) at 4 °C overnight.

Confocal microscopy was performed with a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta as described above.

PAR nuclear intensities were analysed using Fiji v1.49u.

For superresolution imaging by 3D structured illumination (SI), U2-OS GFP-DEK

cells were grown on high precision coverslips (# 1.5). Replication foci were labelled

via incubation with 10 µM EdU for 10 min prior fixation. For immunofluorescence

detection of PCNA, cells were fixed using 4 % PFA/PBS (10 min) and permeabilized

in methanol (5 min, -20 °C). After blocking with 2 % BSA/PBS, cells were incubated

with monoclonal mouse α-PCNA primary antibody (PC10, Cell Signaling Technology)

diluted 1:2,400 in 10 % NGS/PBS at 4 °C overnight. After washing with 0.05 %

Tween/PBS, cells were incubated with goat α-mouse AlexaFluor-568 secondary

antibody diluted 1:400 in 10 % NGS/PBS (1 h, RT).After washing with 0.05 %

Tween/PBS, cells were fixed again using 2 % PFA/PBS (10 min, RT). EdU was

detected using the Klick-it EdU Imaging Kit with azide AlexaFluor-647. Coverslips were

mounted on microscopy slides using Vectashield H-1000 (Vector Laboratories).

Images were acquired at a DeltaVision OMX Blaze v4 (GE Healthcare) using an

Olympus Plan Apochromat 60x/1.42 oil objective. A z-stack of at least 20 slices (0.125

µm step size) was acquired per image in SI mode. Reconstruction of SIM images and

image registration of the channels was performed using softWoRx v6.5.2 (GE

Healthcare). Pseudo-widefield images were generated with Fiji v1.51n and the

SIMcheck plugin (v1.0 [47]).

Super resolved imaging by stochastic optical reconstruction microscopy (STORM)

was carried out on U2-OS GFP-DEK cells cultured in McCoy's 5a modified medium

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum (FCS;

Capricorn Scientific and PAA Laboratories), 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml

streptomycin (both Thermo Fisher Scientific). For STORM imaging cells were plated on eight-well Lab-Tek coverglass chamber (Nunc), grown under standard conditions and fixed after 24 h. For STORM detection of DEK protein cells were fixed with methanol:ethanol (1:1) at -20 °C for 3 min, washed with PBS following blocking buffer for 2 h at RT (3 % BSA, 0.2% Triton X-100, PBS). After blocking and permeabilization, cells were incubated with primary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer, firstly for 2 h at RT and then overnight at 4 °C. The following primary antibodies were used: polyclonal chicken α-GFP (1:2000; ab13970, Abcam), polyclonal rabbit α-PCNA (1:50; HPA030522, Sigma-Aldrich). After six washing steps with blocking buffer for 5 min each, cells were incubated with secondary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer at RT for 1 h. Specific antibodies were used, namely: donkey α-chicken AlexaFluor405/AlexaFluor647 (1:50; IgG (703-005-155, Jackson ImmunoResearch) coupled to reporter and activator dyes – AlexaFluor405 #A30000, Invitrogen and AlexaFluor647 #A2006), and goat α-rabbit CF568 (1:1000; SAB4600084, Sigma-Aldrich).

Single-molecule localisation was performed using a Nikon N-STORM super-resolution microscope equipped with a 100x/1.40 oil-immersion objective lens and coupled to an Andor iXon DU-897E-CS0BV EMCCD camera (image pixel size 160 nm) with 30ms exposure time. To maintain the z-position a Nikon "perfect focus system" was used. The set-up included a 405 nm laser for activation (Coherent CUBE 405 nm; 100 mW) and a 647 nm readout laser (MPBC's CW Visible Fiber Laser). Imaging was performed using TIRF illumination. 30.000 frames at 25 Hz frame rate were acquired. For widefield imaging together with STORM, a 561 nm laser (Coherent Sapphire OPSL 561 nm; 100 mW) was used. Dichroic mirrors and band-pass filters allowed for selection of emitted signals (ZET405/488/561/647, Chroma). For super-resolution

measurements, STORM imaging buffer was used (prepared following Nikon's STORM

Protocol-Sample Preparation) containing GLOX solution as oxygen scavenging

system (40 mg/ml Catalase, Sigma; 0.5 mg/ml glucose oxidase; 10 % glucose in PBS)

and MEA 10 mM (Cysteamine MEA, Sigma-Aldrich, #30070-50G, in 360 mM Tris-HCl).

Single molecule localization and super-resolution image reconstruction were

performed using NIKON software (NIS elements) and a custom software (Insight3,

custom software developed by B. Huang, University of California). Molecules are

identified and x-y located by Gaussian fitting. The final image is reconstructed, after

drift correction, by plotting each identified molecule as a Gaussian spot with a width

corresponding to the achieved localization precision (9nm).

Site-directed mutagenesis

Nucleobase mutations of the DEK primary sequence were introduced via a modified

Quick ChangeTM site-directed mutagenesis protocol [48]. To generate the DEK-GFP

template for the mutagenesis PCR, the DEK WT sequence was inserted into an eGFP

reporter plasmid (peGFP-N1, Addgene 6085-1). PAR-binding domain 2 (bases 583 -

663) and the DEK shRNA target site (bases 1000 – 1020) were mutated using

overlapping primer pairs containing the desired base changes. For the PAR-binding

domain a total of 9 codons were mutated in four rounds of mutagenesis (primers

PBD2-Part1-4, see also Fig 7 B). For the shRNA target site a total of 8 nucleobases

were mutated in two rounds (primers shDEK-Part1-2), resulting in silent mutations and

diminished binding of the DEK shRNA. Primer sequences are listed in S1 Table.

Expression and purification of recombinant GST-tagged proteins from *E. coli*

The mutated DEK sequence (DEK PBD2-Mut2) was inserted into a GST expression plasmid. LB$_{amp}$ medium was inoculated with *E.coli* BL21(DE3) pGEX 4T-1 harbouring plasmids encoding GST only, GST-DEK WT, or GST-DEK PBD2-Mut2. Protein expression was induced using 0.5 mM IPTG (Merck) for 1.5 h. Bacteria were harvested via centrifugation (1,600 x g, 15 min, 4 °C), the pellet was resuspended in resuspension buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 1 M NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT) and shock frozen in liquid nitrogen. Cells were sonicated on ice, 0.5 % NP-40 (Merck) was added and the lysate was centrifuged (18,000 x g, 30 min, 4 °C). The supernatant was incubated with 200 µl Glutathion-Sepharose 4B-beads (GE Healthcare) equilibrated in wash buffer I (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 500 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 0.1 % NP-40) for 2 hours at 4 °C. Beads were washed with wash buffers of decreasing NaCl concentrations (500, 300 and 20 mM NaCl). For elution of GST-tagged DEK, beads were incubated with 200 µl of elution buffer (200 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 20 mM NaCl, 40 mM reduced glutathione, 10 % glycerol) for one hour at 4 °C. The GST-tagged protein containing supernatant was shock frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Protein concentrations were determined using the BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to manufacturer´s instructions.

Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA)

Purified recombinant proteins (GST-DEK WT and GST-DEK PBD2-Mut2) were dialyzed in nE100 buffer (20 mM Hepes-KOH pH 7.6, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM NaHSO$_3$, 1 mM EDTA, supplemented with 1 µg/ml BSA) using Millipore filters (VSWP 0.025 µm;

Merck) for 90 min at 4 °C. 175 ng of plasmid DNA were incubated with increasing

amounts of recombinant DEK in a total volume of 30 µl nE100 buffer for one hour at

37 °C. Samples were subjected to electrophoresis on a 0.6 % agarose gel in TBE

buffer (50 mM Tris base, 80 mM boric acid, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8). DNA-protein

complexes were visualized with 0.5 µg/ml ethidium bromide solution using a

fluorescence imager.

In-vitro synthesis of PAR

PAR was synthesized and purified according to Fahrer et al. [49]. Briefly, 50 µg/ml

'activator' oligonucleotide GGAATTCC and 60 µg/ml of both recombinant Histone H1

und H2A were diluted in buffer containing 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.8, 10 mM $MgCl_2$ and

1 mM DTT. To start the reaction, 1 mM NAD^+ (Merck) and 150 nM recombinant PARP1

were supplemented. PAR synthesis was stopped after 15 min by adding ice-cold

trichloroacetic acid (TCA) to a final concentration of 10 %. PAR was detached from

histones and PARP1 itself using 0.5 M KOH/50 mM EDTA. After neutralization, DNA

and proteins were digested using 110 µg/ml DNase and 220 µg/ml proteinase K (both

Merck), respectively. PAR was purified by phenol-chloroform-isoamylalcohol

extraction and ethanol precipitation. The concentration of the purified polymer was

determined via absorbance at 258 nm.

PAR overlay assay

60 pmol of custom synthesized PAR-binding domain peptides (for sequences see Fig

7 B and S 5 A Fig; biomers.net) or 25 pmol of recombinant GST-tagged proteins were

transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane using a slot blotting apparatus. The

membrane was allowed to air-dry and incubated overnight in 5 pmol PAR/TBST (100

mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5 % Tween 20) at 4 °C. Blots were blocked in 5 % milk

powder/TBST and membrane-bound PAR was detected using monoclonal mouse α-

PAR antibody (1:300; 10H). After washing, the membrane was incubated with

secondary antibody goat α-mouse Ig/HRP (1:2,000; Agilent). PAR was detected using

a chemiluminescence imager. To verify that equal amounts of proteins or peptides

were blotted onto membranes, the same protein solutions as used for the PAR overlay

were slot blotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane and allowed to air-dry. Samples were

fixed in 7 % acetic acid/10 % methanol for 15 min at RT. After fixation, proteins or

peptides were stained using Sypro Ruby Protein Blot Stain (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

for 15 min and visualized using a Gel Doc XR system (Bio-Rad).

Statistical analysis

Statistical tests were performed using GraphPad Prism 5.02 and applied as indicated

in the figure legends. *$p \leq 0.05$, **$p \leq 0.01$, ***$p \leq 0.001$.

RESULTS

The effect of short term PARP1 inhibition on mildly challenged replication forks is reverted in DEK knockdown cells

To investigate whether PARylation regulates the impact of DEK on the replication stress response, we set out from our previous observation that downregulation of DEK expression aggravates replication fork slowing induced by low concentrations of CPT. Inhibition of topoisomerase1 by CPT stabilizes Topo1-cleavable complexes (Top1ccs), thus causing torsional stress ahead of the replication fork. As a result, fork progression is impaired, eventually leading to replisome disassembly and DNA strand breaks. At very low doses (25 nM), CPT was shown to slow down, but not arrest, fork progression and trigger fork reversal in a PARP1/2-dependent manner [10, 11].

Firstly, we examined the effect of DEK and PARP1/2 activity on CPT-induced replication fork progression using DNA fiber assays (Fig 1). Cells bearing a stable, lentiviral mediated knockdown of DEK expression (shDEK cells) and the respective control cells [43] were treated with 25 nM CPT in the presence and absence of ABT-888. Both drugs were added simultaneously with the IdU-containing medium (Fig 1 A). In line with our previous results, knockdown of DEK expression slowed down replication fork progression *per se* as indicated by a highly significant reduction of the IdU tract lengths in untreated shDEK cells as compared to controls (Fig 1 C and [43]). Inhibition of PARP1/2 activity with ABT-888 had no significant effect on replication fork speed in both control and shDEK cells, measured as the ratio of the IdU-labelled tracts (green) vs the CldU-labelled tracts (red) (Fig 1 D, compare boxes 1 and 2). Notably,

in all our PARP1/2 inhibition experiments, we took care of minimizing DNA damage

due to trapping of the enzyme on DNA [7]. Therefore, we used ABT-888 as an inhibitor

with reportedly low trapping activity and limited the exposure to the duration of the IdU-

pulse. PARP1/2 activity is effectively inhibited under these conditions (S1 A, B Fig) but

does not trigger a DNA damage response, as indicated by the absence of 53BP1 foci

formation (S1 C, D Fig; see also [50, 51]).

Fig 1. Combined inactivation of DEK and PARP1/2 prevents fork slowing by

387   **low doses of CPT and HU**

(A) Scheme of the DNA fiber assay. U2-OS control and shDEK cells were pulse-

labelled with CldU for 20 min, followed by incubation with IdU for 20 min in the

presence or absence of replication stress inducers (25 nM CPT or 10 µm HU) and 1

µM ABT-888. (B) Representative microscopic images of DNA fibers after spreading.

Thymidine analogues were visualized via indirect immunofluorescence. CldU-labelled

tracts were visualized in the red channel, IdU-labelled tracts in the green channel.

Scale bar: 5 µm. (C-D) Quantification of CldU and IdU tract lengths of at least 250

fibers per experimental condition. The experiment was performed in triplicates. The

bands inside the boxes display the median, whiskers indicate the 5th to 95th percentile

and black dots mark outliers. t-test: ns: not significant, *** $p \leq 0.001$. ABT-888 treated

cells: hatched bars. (C) Lengths of IdU-labelled tracts. (D) IdU/CldU tract length ratios.

Treatment with low doses of CPT reduced fork progression, as expected, in control

cells and, to a greater extent, in shDEK cells (Fig 1 D, compare boxes 3 and 9). When

exposure to CPT occurred in the presence of ABT-888, the two cells lines, however,

showed opposite responses: in control cells, the replication fork was further retarded

as compared to treatment with CPT only, while in shDEK cells, fork speed recovered

to the basal level measured in the absence of any perturbation (Fig 1 D, compare

boxes 4 and 10). Further, in the presence of CPT, the extent of fork slowing obtained

by inhibiting PARP1/2 in control cells equalled that resulting from downregulation of

DEK expression (Fig 1 D, compare boxes 4 and 9), which is suggestive of DEK and

PARP1/2 acting in the same regulatory pathway.

We sought to validate these observations in a different replication stress model and

performed fiber assays using low doses of hydroxyurea (HU). At 10 μm, HU slows

down but does not stall the replication fork as observed at higher concentrations (e.g.

2mM, compare Fig 1 D with S2 Fig). Again, additional PARP1/2 inhibition positively

impacted on fork progression in shDEK cells, but not in control cells (Fig 1 D, compare

boxes 6 and 12). Interestingly, this modulatory effect was detectable only under mild

replication stress conditions. At a concentration of HU of 2 mM, combined exposure

to ABT-888 did not alter fork speed, although in general, replication forks of shDEK

cells were significantly more sensitive to HU-mediated stalling than those of control

cells (S2 Fig). Finally, the fork acceleration observed in mildly stressed, PARylation

inhibited shDEK cells was not sufficient to compensate for the fork impairment caused

by DEK downregulation itself, because the IdU tract length in stressed and PARP1/2-

inhibited shDEK cells remained shorter than in control untreated cells (Fig 1 C).

As replication stress is a source of DNA damage, we evaluated whether DEK

downregulation would also affect the formation of DNA strand breaks caused by

exposure to replication inhibitors and ABT-888. We assessed replication-associated

DSBs by counting γH2AX/53BP1 double-positive foci in EdU-positive S-phase shDEK

and control cells. In the case of CPT, DNA strand breaks are known to arise when the

transcription and/or replication machineries collide with unrepaired Top1ccs. At 25 nM

CPT, the overall response was very moderate as expected at this subtoxic dose [11].

Only 7 foci were observed on average in control cells (Fig 2 A, B). This low number

was nevertheless significantly higher in shDEK cells, in line with our previous data

showing that DEK downregulation sensitizes cells to CPT treatment [20]. The

combination of CPT and PARP1/2 inhibition led to an increase in DSBs in control cells,

while shDEK cells showed a significant reduction, resembling the pattern observed

with our fiber assays. These data suggest that the restoration of fork speed observed

in CPT-treated, DEK-depleted cells when PARP1/2 is inhibited is not a manifestation

of fork run off. Most likely, this effect reflects the ability of shDEK cells to either

withstand the action of CPT or better cope with its consequences, if PARP1/2 activity

is blocked. Unfortunately, this assumption could not be confirmed in the HU-model of

replication stress, since exposure to 10 μM HU did not result in a measurable DNA

damage response in our experimental setting (Fig 2 A, B).

Fig 2.   Combined inactivation of DEK and PARP1/2 counteracts DNA damage

444   **induced by low doses of CPT**

U2-OS control and shDEK cells were pulse-labelled with EdU, then either left

untreated or treated with replication stress inducers (25 nM CPT or 10 µm HU) for one

hour, in the presence or absence of 1 µM ABT-888. 53BP1 (red) and γH2AX (green)

foci formation was visualized via indirect immunofluorescence analysis, EdU (magenta)

using click chemistry. DNA was counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (cyan). (A)

Representative confocal images. Scale bar: 5 µm. (B) Quantification of 53BP1/γH2AX

colocalization in S-phase cells. Foci were counted and colocalization determined using

the foci counter of the BIC macro tool box. At least 118 cells per experimental condition

were evaluated. The experiment was performed in triplicates. The bands inside the

boxes display the median, whiskers indicate the 5th to 95th percentile and outliers are

omitted for clarity. t-test: *** p≤0.001.

Altogether, these data show that the outcome of acute PARP1/2 inhibition on

challenged replication forks is dependent on DEK expression levels and suggest the

existence of a regulatory network involving DEK and PARP1/2 that modulates fork

speed. This interaction is only detectable under mild stress levels, when the fork is still

processive.

463 DEK is not part of the replisome but binds to newly

464 replicated DNA as it matures to chromatin

The marked effects of DEK expression on fork progression let us explore whether DEK

directly associates to replication forks. To this end, we performed iPOND (isolation of

proteins on nascent DNA) assays [44]. Firstly, we treated HeLa S3 cells with EdU for

increasing time periods (2.5 min – 30 min) to label newly synthesized DNA and

subsequently monitored the occurrence of DEK in the pool of enriched proteins by

Western Blot (Fig 3 A-C). We used PCNA to monitor the active replisome while histone

H3 served as marker for maturing chromatin. PCNA was detected at early time points

(5 min and 10 min) representing nascent DNA. DEK lagged behind and appeared after

an EdU pulse of 15 min duration, concomitantly with H3. We corroborated this result

with an iPOND pulse-chase experiment, in which we sought to observe the dynamics

of DEK binding to nascent chromatin (Fig 3 D-F). EdU was applied for 10 min to pulse-

label nascent DNA and then replaced with thymidine for increasing time periods before

the isolation of proteins crosslinked to DNA. Proteins binding directly and exclusively

at the replication fork diminish in the enriched protein fraction as the EdU labelled DNA

stretch moves away from the fork, as exemplified by PCNA. In line with the pulse-only

experiment, DEK was found to bind at later time points, with relative Western Blot

signal intensities increasing to significance at 15 to 30 min after thymidine addition.

Here too, DEK behaved similarly to histone H3. From these experiments we conclude

that DEK is not a component of the active replisome but rather binds to DNA as it

assembles into mature chromatin.

Fig 3.   DEK is not a component of the replisome

(A-C) HeLa S3 cells were pulse-labelled with EdU for 2.5 – 30 min and biotin-azide

was covalently attached via click chemistry. After cell lysis, EdU-biotin containing DNA

fragments were precipitated using streptavidin-coupled magnetic beads. Bound

proteins (capture) were identified by Western blot analysis. (A) Scheme of iPOND

pulse experiment. (B) Representative Western blots of input and capture samples

using antibodies specific for DEK, PCNA and histone H3. (C) Densitometric analysis.

The fold change of captured protein is displayed relative to the value of the 30 min

time point. Band intensities of capture samples were normalized to the respective input

smaples. Shown are mean values from five independent experiments. One-sided error

bars represent the S.D. 2way ANOVA with Bonferroni posttest: * p≤0.05, ** p≤0.01,

*** p≤0.001.

(D-F) HeLa S3 cells were pulse-labelled with EdU for 10 min, followed by a chase into

thymidine containing medium for 0 – 30 min. iPOND was performed as in (A-C). (D)

Scheme of iPOND chase experiment. (E) Representative Western blots of input and

capture samples using antibodies specific for DEK, PCNA and histone H3. (F)

Densitometric analysis. The fold change of captured protein is displayed relative to the

value of the 0 min time point. Band intensities were normalized as in (C). Shown are

mean values from five independent experiments, one-sided error bars represent the

S.D. 2way ANOVA with Bonferroni posttest: * p≤0.05, ** p≤0.01, *** p≤0.001.

To complement this biochemical approach we studied the localization of DEK in

replicating cells by superresolution microscopy (Fig 4). To this purpose, we took

advantage of a U2-OS knock-in cell line expressing GFP-DEK from its endogenous

promoter (Vogel et al, in preparation). Firstly, we employed structured illumination

microscopy [52] and combined EdU labelling of nascent DNA with immunolabeling of

PCNA. The images showed that DEK does not colocalize with sites of active

replication (Fig 4 A). This finding was corroborated by stochastic optical reconstruction

microscopy (STORM, Fig 4 B) [53]. This approach offers a key chance to investigate

the distribution of nuclear proteins at the nanoscale level [54]. Also at this higher

resolution, DEK is not found colocalizing with PCNA. Presently, we cannot exclude

that the localization of DEK with respect to active replication foci may vary during S-

phase progression, thus accounting for a partial enrichment of DEK in late chromatin

fractions in iPOND experiments. Altogether, based on these data, we can exclude that

DEK is part of the replisome making it very unlikely that its function in promoting

replication fork progression occurs via a direct interaction.

Fig 4. DEK does not colocalize with replication foci in superresolution images

(A) 3D-SIM superresolution microscopy images of DEK, EdU and PCNA distribution

in early/mid S-phase. U2-OS GFP-DEK cells were treated with EdU for 10 min to label

nascent DNA via click chemistry, and PCNA was visualized via indirect

immunofluorescence. Shown is a single z-slice from the super-resolved image stack

with two magnified insets. Red: GFP-DEK, green: PCNA (green), magenta: EdU.

Upper left corner: Pseudo-widefield representation of the same nucleus by

superimposition of all z-slices. (B) STORM superresolution microscopy images of DEK

and PCNA distribution in early S-phase. DEK (red) and PCNA (green) were visualized

via indirect immunofluorescence in U2-OS GFP-DEK cells with Alexa405/Alexa647

photoswitchable dye pairs respectively CF568. Shown is a single z-slice with two

magnified insets. Top left corner: Widefield image of the same nucleus.

Fork restart impairment observed under PARP1/2 inhibition depends on DEK expression

As we had observed that the effect of PARP1/2 inhibition on mildly impaired replication

forks depended on DEK expression, we asked whether DEK levels would also impinge

on the recovery of replication forks after stalling. PARP1/2 was shown to protect

replication forks stalled by HU treatment and promote their effective restart [8, 9, 55],

providing a suitable experimental paradigm to evaluate the effect of DEK

downregulation.

We performed DNA fiber assays in shDEK and control cells in which forks were

completely blocked using a prolonged exposure to a high dose of HU (4 mM for 4 h,

see also S3 Fig), followed by removal of HU and release in fresh medium in the

presence and absence of ABT-888 (Fig 5 A). Downregulation of DEK alone had no

effect on the resumption of DNA synthesis after removal of HU, with about 80% of

forks restarting in both control and shDEK cells. In the former, PARP1/2 inhibition led

to a marked decrease of fork restart efficiency to about 60%, in line with published

results [8]. In contrast, shDEK cells were completely protected from restart impairment,

displaying a slightly higher number of restarting forks as compared to control cells not

exposed to ABT-888 (Fig 5 C). These data reflect the same phenotype of DEK

downregulation counteracting PARP1/2 inhibition as observed in the context of fork

slowing by CPT, and underscore its functional relevance.

Fig 5. DEK depletion counteracts fork restart impairment due to PARP1/2

inhibition

(A-C) U2-OS control and shDEK cells were pulse-labelled with CldU for 20 min,

followed by incubation with 4 mM HU for four hours to arrest replication forks. Forks

were released in fresh IdU-containing medium in the presence or absence of 1 μM

ABT-888. (A) Scheme of the fork restart experiment. (B) Representative confocal

images for each experimental condition. CldU-labelled tracts were visualized in the

red channel, IdU-labelled tracts in the green channel. Scale bar: 5 μm. (C)

Quantification of results. The mean percentage of restarting forks from three

independent experiments is shown. At least 300 fiber tracts were scored per

experimental condition. Error bars represent the S.E.M. t-test: ns: not significant, *

p≤0.05, ** p≤0.01. ABT-888 treated cells: hatched bars.

Fork impairment and stalling by HU treatment has been shown previously to elicit the

robust formation of RPA-positive foci [56], reflecting RPA binding to single stranded

DNA (ssDNA) which is extensively generated when polymerase and helicase activity

are uncoupled. RPA protects this ssDNA from nucleolytic attack and serves multiple

important functions in the repair and restart of damaged forks [57, 58]. To further

investigate the effect of DEK expression on impaired replication forks we determined

the formation of RPA-positive foci under conditions of replication stress combined with

PARylation inhibition (Fig 6). We applied 2 mM HU for 80 min, as this dose and time

of exposure was shown to elicit a maximal HU response in U2-OS cells [56], and

measured RPA foci in EdU positive cells (see also S4 Fig for the quantification method).

As observed for fork slowing and DSB formation, shDEK cells showed a significantly

increased RPA response as compared to control cells. In the latter, additional

PARP1/2 inhibition reduced the formation of RPA foci with respect to HU treatment

only. This finding is in line with data from Bryant et al. [8] who reported reduced RPA

foci in PARP-inhibited cells. Again, shDEK cells reacted differently, displaying a small,

but significant increase in RPA-positive cells when exposed to HU in combination with

ABT-888 (Fig 6 B). These data suggest that DEK plays a role in limiting the formation

of long ssDNA stretches upon stalling or collapse of replication forks, and that its

downregulation compensates for the previously described requirement for PARP1/2

activity for RPA binding at a subpopulation of stalled forks. These results further

corroborate the existence of a reciprocal functional link between DEK and PARP1/2 in

the response to replication stress.

Fig 6. DEK counteracts the effect of ABT-888 on RPA foci formation under HU

treatment

(A-B) U2-OS control and shDEK cells were pulse-labelled with EdU, then either left

untreated or treated with 2 mM HU for 80 min in presence or absence of 1 µM ABT-

888. RPA foci (green) were visualized via indirect immunofluorescence, EdU (magenta)

using click chemistry. DNA was counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (cyan). (A)

Representative confocal images for each experimental condition. Scale bar: 5 µm. (B)

Percentage of RPA positive S-phase cells as determined using the automated foci

counter of the BIC macro tool box (see also S4 Fig). Mean values from three

independent experiments are shown. At least 97 cells were scored per experimental

condition. Error bars represent the S.E.M. t-test: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01.

605 **A DEK mutant with impaired PAR-interaction ability**

606 **counteracts the effect of DEK downregulation on the**

607 **response to replication fork stalling**

In our previous work we described that DEK is modified by PAR covalently and non-

covalently [18, 20, 49]. Interestingly, DEK shows a remarkably high affinity for long

PAR chains exceeding that of histone H1. Therefore, we hypothesized that

noncovalent DEK-PAR interaction would be important to mediate the effect of DEK on

challenged replication forks. To verify this hypothesis, we sought to obtain a PAR-

binding deficient mutant of DEK. We performed a systematic mutational study of the

three previously described PAR-binding domains (PBDs) in the DEK primary

sequence (PBD1: aa 158-181, PBD2: aa 195-222; PBD3: aa 329-352; Fig 7 A and S1

Table). Previous *in vitro* studies showed that they have different affinities for purified

PAR. The strongest PAR binding domain in the DEK primary sequence is PBD2 at

amino acid positions 195-222, partially overlapping with the SAP-box of DEK, which

is its major DNA-binding domain [18]. Mutant peptides corresponding to the three

PAR-binding domains of DEK were subjected to PAR-overlay assays to assess the

effect of single and multiple amino acid exchanges on PAR binding *in vitro* (Fig 7 B,

C; S5 Fig). We were able to identify mutations within the high-affinity PBD2 peptide

which completely abrogated non-covalent PAR interaction (Fig 7 B, C, Mut1-3).

Moreover, when peptides corresponding to the three PBDs were incubated

simultaneously with purified PAR in the same slot blot, only peptide 195-222 gave rise

to PAR-specific signals, suggesting that this domain is the predominant PAR-acceptor

in DEK, outcompeting the weaker PBDs (data not shown). We then generated purified

recombinant DEK carrying a mutated PBD2 (Mut2) and tested the effect of the

identified mutations in the context of the full-length protein (Fig 7 D). By densitometric

analysis we observed a reduction in PAR-binding affinity of about 50% as compared

to the corresponding wildtype DEK sequence, confirming the data obtained with the

isolated peptides. The overall DNA binding ability of the PBD2-Mut2 mutant was only

slightly reduced as compared to the wildtype DEK. A band shift in EMSA assays

became detectable at a molar ratio of DEK:DNA of 112 instead of 84. At higher molar

ratios the binding behaviour of the two proteins was undistinguishable (Fig 7 E).

Fig 7. Non-covalent interaction of DEK with PAR is important for RPA foci

formation upon HU treatment

(A) Schematic of the DEK protein with PAR-binding domains and DNA interaction sites.

(B) Mutational analysis of PBD2 using recombinant peptides. Basic (green) and/or

hydrophobic (blue) amino acids were exchanged for alanine (red) as indicated. (C)

Peptides were analysed in a PAR overlay assay to assess PAR-binding. PAR was

detected by chemiluminescence using a specific antibody (α-PAR-10H). Equal

membrane loading of peptides was verified using Sypro Ruby. One representative blot

is shown. The experiment was performed in triplicate with similar results. (D)

Recombinant full-length GST-DEK WT and GST-DEK PBD2-Mut2 were purified from

E.coli and analysed using PAR-overlay assays. One representative blot out of two

replicates is shown. (E) Analysis of the DNA binding ability of GST-DEK WT and GST-

DEK PBD2-Mut2 via EMSA. Recombinant proteins were incubated with plasmid DNA

in increasing molar ratios. DEK/DNA complexes were separated on agarose gels and

visualized using ethidium bromide. One representative gel out of two replicates is

shown. (F) Analysis of RPA foci formation. U2-OS shDEK cells were transfected with

plasmids encoding GFP fused to either WT-DEK or DEK PBD2-Mut2. GFP-positive,

low-level expressing cells were isolated by FACS. U2-OS control and shDEK cells

expressing GFP-DEK fusion proteins were treated with 2 mM HU for 80 min. RPA foci

formation was analysed by immunofluorescence as described in Fig 6, S-phase cells

were identified by EdU labelling. The percentage of RPA positive S-phase cells was

determined using the automated foci counter of the BIC macro tool box. The mean

values from three independent experiments are shown. At least 100 cells were scored

per experimental condition. Error bars represent the S.E.M. t-test: ns: not significant,

* p≤0.05.

We then used the PDB2-Mut2 mutant to analyse the influence of PARylation of DEK

on the formation of RPA foci upon fork stalling. Wildtype or PBD2-Mut2-DEK fused to

GFP were expressed in shDEK and control cells and the number of RPA-positive cells

after HU treatment was determined as above. Both GFP fusion proteins were

expressed at comparable levels as verified by Western blot (S6 Fig).

Treatment with 2 mM HU robustly triggered RPA foci formation, to a higher level in

shDEK cells as compared to controls, as already observed (Fig 7 F). Re-expression

of WT DEK abrogated this effect confirming its specificity and reducing the number of

RPA-positive cells to a level below that of HU-treated control cells. Importantly, the

DEK mutant with reduced PAR-binding ability was much less effective in counteracting

RPA-foci formation. We conclude from this result that the increase in HU-induced RPA

foci mediated by DEK requires its non-covalent interaction with PAR. We cannot rule

out, however, that other mechanisms and/or PAR-binding domains of DEK may be

involved too, because the PBD2-Mut2 did not fully restore the level of RPA foci

obtained in shDEK cells after HU treatment (Fig 7 F). Taken together, these data

strongly suggest that the non-covalent interaction with PAR plays a major role in

regulating how DEK affects the response to replication stress providing a first

mechanistic insight in the complex molecular interplay of PARP1/2 and DEK.

DISCUSSION
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In this study we have explored a potential functional relationship between DEK and

PARP1/2 in the context of DNA replication stress. For both proteins, there is consistent

evidence for their involvement in the response to impaired DNA replication. Both DEK

and PARP1/2 preferentially bind to unconventional non-B DNA structures like

cruciform and G4 DNA [36, 59-61]. These structures are difficult to replicate and

particularly abundant in heterochromatin. Both DEK and PARP1/2 are found enriched

in chromatin of S-phase cells [62-65] and have been associated with the formation

and maintenance of heterochromatin [39, 66]. DEK was shown to modulate the

efficiency of DNA replication *in vitro* [42], and, more recently, we showed that normal

DEK levels are necessary to sustain replication fork progression and to prevent fork

rearrangements in cells undergoing replication stress [43]. DEK is a target for covalent

modification by and non-covalent interaction with PAR. Covalent PARylation was

reported to occur at glutamic acid 136 [67] and 207 [68], arginine 208 [68] and, most

recently, at serine 279 [69]. Based on sequence alignment, DEK was further proposed

to harbour three non-covalent PAR-binding domains [18], of which the central one (aa

position 195-222) shows the strongest binding affinity and mediates about 50% of the

PAR-binding activity of the protein *in vitro* (this study and [70]).

Impaired replication forks can activate PARP1/2 and PAR has been involved in the

regulation of different types of fork processing and rearrangements. Thus, PARP1/2

can protect replication forks from extensive Mre11-dependent resection after HU

treatment [8, 9], or from untimely resolution of RecQ-mediated reversal in cells treated

with low doses of CPT [11]. Massive accumulation PAR, on the other hand, has

adverse consequences. HU-induced prolonged fork stalling in cells with

downregulated PAR glycohydrolase (PARG) leads to fork collapse and DSB formation

[71]. The molecular events orchestrated by PARP1/2 activation during DNA replication

therefore seem to depend, in a yet poorly understood fashion, on the type and extent

of the replication problem, which in turn determine the amount and possibly also the

structure of the polymer formed. Consequently, inhibiting PARylation during DNA

replication may have different outcomes, depending not only on the dose and the

duration of the inhibitor treatment but also on the status of the replication machinery.

As shown here, short term inhibition of PARP1/2 using ABT-888 aggravates fork

retardation and DNA damage induced by mild replication stress, while long term

exposure to AZD-2281 was shown to accelerate fork speed both in the presence and

in the absence of DNA replication inhibitors [10, 72]. Our data on fork progression in

shDEK cells suggest that challenged replication forks can switch between two

opposing responses to PARP1/2 inhibition depending on the level of DEK expression.

Interestingly, the restoration of fork speed observed in CPT-treated, PARP-inhibited

shDEK cells was accompanied by a reduction in the level of replication-associated

DSBs. This is in agreement with the finding that fork acceleration activates the DNA

damage response only if fork speed exceeds a critical threshold [72], and poses an

argument against replication fork runoff occurring in CPT-treated shDEK cells upon

treatment with ABT-888. The behaviour of forks stalled by high doses of HU followed

a similar pattern with respect to PARP-inhibition and DEK downregulation as CPT-

induced fork slowing, being most efficiently restored in PARP-inhibited shDEK cells,

which is suggestive of a common mechanism.

How DEK affects the sensitivity of replication forks towards PARP inhibition, is a matter

of speculation so far. Based on our iPOND and superresolution microscopy data it

seems unlikely that DEK acts directly at the fork, since we did not find it associated to

nascent DNA before the stage of nucleosome formation. Rather, the data presented

here lend credit to the hypothesis that DEK is part of a DNA replication regulatory

circuitry orchestrated by PAR that affects response to acute PARPi treatment.

Recently, a fork speed regulatory network has been proposed which controls

replication fork progression via PARylation and the p53-p21 axis [72]. Both p21 and

PAR act as suppressors of fork speed in an interdependent manner, as PARP1

additionally represses p21 expression. Intriguingly, downregulation of DEK expression

was shown to result in p53 stabilization and increased p21 levels [32], alterations

which may indirectly affect the response of fork speed to PARP1/2 inhibitors. Since a

PAR-binding defective mutant of DEK partially rescued fork restart impairment by

PARP inhibition we cannot exclude that DEK exerts its influence also by directly

participating in the PARylation mediated sensing of replication problems. Altogether,

this study pinpoints DEK as an important mediator of the PARP1/2-dependent

response of replicating cells to fork impairment, a previously unrecognized function of

DEK which has implications for tumor therapy and warrants further investigation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Eva Gwosch for providing U2-OS GFP-DEK cells, and Aswin Mangerich, Martin Stöckl and the whole BIC team for fruitful discussions. Further, we thank Anja Deutzmann for initial input in this study, and the FlowKon core facility at the University of Konstanz for cell sorting.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

S1 Table **Primer sequences for the site-directed mutagenesis of the DEK primary sequence**

S1 Fig. **AZD-2281 but not ABT-888 induces DNA damage in U2-OS cells**

S2 Fig. **Absence of combined positive effect of DEK downregulation and PARP1/2 inhibition on fork progression under high doses of HU**

S3 Fig. **HU-induced fork arrest**

S4 Fig. **Determination of RPA-positive cells**

S5 Fig. **Mutational analysis of PBD1 and PBD3 using recombinant peptides**

S6 Fig. **Reconstitution of U2-OS shDEK cells with DEK WT-GFP or DEK PBD2-Mut2-GFP**

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

widefield

3D-SIM
PCNA
DEK
EdU

3 μm

1 μm

1 μm

B

widefield

STORM
PCNA
DEK

3 μm

1 μm

1 μm

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7