

NUCLEOTIDE EXCISION REPAIR

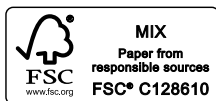
THROUGH THE LOOKING GLASS



**CRISTINA
RIBEIRO-SILVA**

Nucleotide excision repair through the looking glass

Cristina Ribeiro-Silva



Colophon

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Nucleotide excision repair through the looking glass

Nucleotide excisierепaratie onder de loep

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Introduction

DNA damage

DNA lesions are a fact of life. It is estimated that, daily, each of our cells is confronted with approximately 10^4 - 10^5 new DNA lesions^{1,2}. Left unrepaired, these lesions can interfere with essential genome processes, such as transcription and replication^{3,4}, having immediate and long term consequences. For instance, lesions in the transcribed strand of genes halt transcription and directly interfere with gene expression, which, on the long term, favors progeria following damage-induced senescence or apoptosis. Meanwhile, erroneous replication of a damaged DNA template can introduce mutations that alter genetic information and can lead to aberrant chromosome segregation, both contributing to genome instability⁴⁻⁷. Although very rarely mutations turn out to be beneficial to the organism, i.e., when they favor biodiversity and adaptive evolution, most often mutations are the hallmark for genetic disease and tumorigenesis. DNA integrity and the proper functioning of the genome are liable to insults arising from multiple sources that directly damage the DNA, among which are: 1) (by)products of our cellular metabolism, such as reactive oxidative and nitrogen species, alkylating and lipid peroxidation products; 2) spontaneous chemical instability of DNA under physiological conditions, such as base hydrolysis and deamination; and 3) external/environmental agents such as ultra-violet (UV) light, ionizing radiation and numerous harmful chemicals^{1,7,8}. Because DNA is the only biomolecule that is never completely renewed throughout a cell's lifetime, its integrity relies solely on the repair of existing molecules to safeguard its faithful expression and the transmission of genetic information to the next generations.

DNA repair: a multiplex response to numerous constant threats

Cells utilize a range of specialized DNA damage repair mechanisms, signaling pathways, tolerance processes and cell cycle checkpoints, collectively called the DNA damage response (DDR), to cope with DNA injuries⁹. Depending on the type of damage, the location of the damage in the genome, the type of cell and the cell cycle stage, a specific pathway of the DDR is activated. By transiently halting cell cycle progression, these genome caretaking tools can provide cells with a time window for repair to prevent lesion-induced mutagenesis and chromosome missegregation

during replication and mitosis, respectively. Alternatively, rather than halting the cell cycle, replication-blocking lesions can be temporarily ignored to allow cell cycle progression if that is more convenient to cell survival. Under these circumstances, the activation of DNA damage tolerance pathways allows alternative DNA polymerases, in a process called translesion synthesis (TLS), to bypass the lesion at the expense of fidelity. In addition, to prevent tumorigenesis, cells with too extreme damage load can be directed into apoptosis. Genetic diseases, neurological degeneration, premature aging and increased cancer susceptibility are severe fallouts of inherited DDR defects that illustrate the human's health reliance on an operational DDR^{3,4,9,10}.

The crux of the cell's defense against DNA damage is embodied by a range of complementary DNA repair mechanisms able to recognize and remove most types of DNA damage (Fig. 1)^{4,9}. DNA mismatch repair (MMR), base excision repair (BER) and nucleotide excision repair (NER) have similar strategies to remove DNA lesions that affect only a single DNA strand, relying on the excision of one or more bases by nucleases including the damaged base(s). The ensuing gap is filled and closed by DNA polymerases and ligases, respectively, with newly synthesized DNA using the complementary and undamaged strand as template. MMR is mainly active during replication and prevents mutagenesis by removing misincorporated bases or small insertion or deletion loops caused by replicative slippage^{11,12}. BER protects organisms from accumulating endogenous DNA damage induced by free radicals and other reactive chemicals derived from the cell's metabolism and environment sources. Particularly, BER can repair oxidized, deaminated or alkylated nucleotides that do not significantly disturb Watson-Crick base pairing^{1,13}. In BER, lesion-specific DNA glycosylases recognize and excise the damaged base by cleaving the N-glycosidic bond between the base and the deoxyribose, leaving an apurinic/apyrimidinic (AP) site. Subsequent incision of the deoxyribose by APE1 generates a single-strand break that is repaired by DNA synthesis of a single nucleotide (short-patch BER) or a longer stretch of nucleotides (long-patch BER)^{14,15}. Single-strand breaks are repaired in a similar manner involving BER proteins. Helix-distorting lesions, such as UV-induced photoproducts and intrastrand crosslinks are repaired by NER, described below in more detail as this process is the main focus of

this thesis.

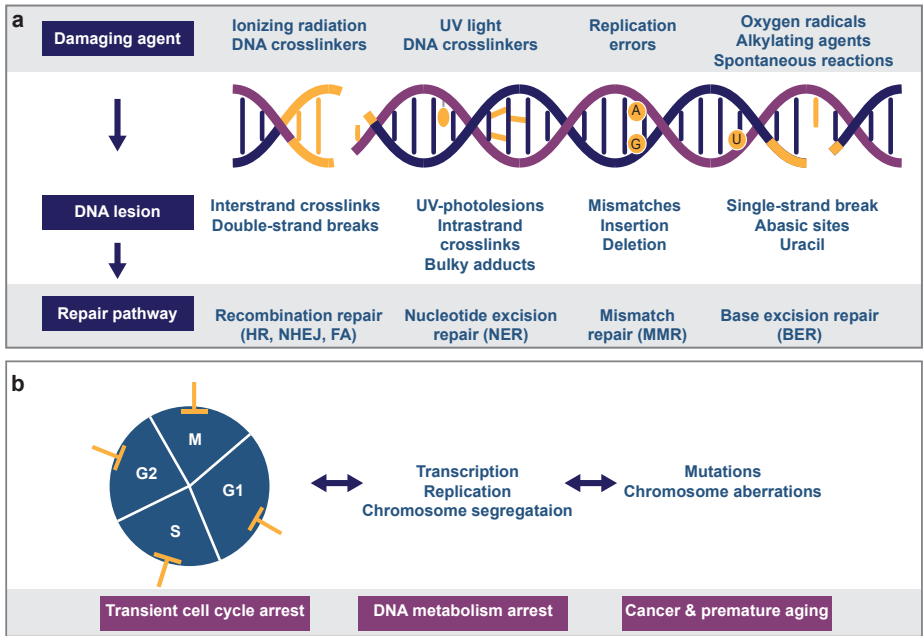


Figure 1. DNA damage, repair pathways and DNA damage consequences. (a) Overview of common endogenous and environmental DNA damaging agents, examples of DNA lesions induced by these and the most relevant repair pathways cells used to remove each type of lesion. Abbreviations: HR, homologous recombination; NHEJ, non-homologous end-joining; FA, fanconi anaemia; NER, nucleotide excision repair; MMR, mismatch repair; BER, base excision repair. (b) DNA damage-induced transient arrest of cell-cycle phases, G1, S, G2 or M, interruption of DNA metabolism processes, e.g., transcription, replication and chromosome segregation, and long-term consequences of DNA damage, including mutations and chromosome aberrations and their biological effects.

Two major pathways facilitate the repair of more destructive lesions, such as double-strand breaks (DSBs). These lesions affect both strands of the DNA helix and can arise, for instance, from replication fork stalling or collapse (e.g., after chemotherapeutic drug treatment), enzymatic incisions (e.g., by Cas9 or during class switch recombination in developing lymphocytes), or exposure to ionizing radiation (IR, e.g., X-rays). DSBs are resolved mainly by homologous recombination (HR) or non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ), depending on the cell cycle stage and the genomic location of the break. While NHEJ re-ligates broken ends throughout all phases of the cell cycle^{16,17}, this process is considered to be error-prone since the two strands are processed before ligation, which may result in the removal

or addition of several nucleotides. HR is only active during the S and G2 phases of the cell cycle as it employs the intact sister chromatid as a repair template to repair the break in an error-free manner. During HR, trimming the two DNA ends creates 3' overhangs that invade the sister chromatid which is then used as a template to synthesize any missing DNA. Specific endonucleases help resolve the Holliday junction structure and the nicks are finally ligated back together¹⁶⁻¹⁸.

Other destructive and more complex lesions are interstrand crosslinks (ICLs), which form covalent bonds between the two DNA strands. ICLs can be induced by chemicals such as the chemotherapeutic drug cisplatin, and are extremely toxic as they block transcription and replication¹⁹. Moreover, because repair of these lesions requires the repair of both strands, they are particularly challenging for cells to deal with and collaborative efforts of multiple DDR repair mechanisms are therefore required¹⁶. The cell cycle stage dictates the choice of a particular repair response, but the exact mechanisms in place are still poorly understood. In S phase, stalled replication forks due to ICLs are recognized by the Fanconi anemia (FA) pathway proteins that orchestrate, via incision, the unhooking of the ICL from one of the DNA strands. The repair reaction is finalized by the activities of other DDR mechanisms, including TLS²⁰, HR²¹ and NER²². TLS fills the gap in the complementary DNA strand opposite of the unhooked crosslink, which is then used by HR as template to repair the DSB in the incised DNA²³. NER is thought to repair the unhooked crosslink, and has also been implicated, together with TLS, in the removal of ICLs in non-replicating cells^{24,25}.

Nucleotide excision repair

NER is unique in its ability to repair a wide range of lesions that arise from diverse and different genotoxic insults because, in contrast to most other DNA repair pathways, NER detects the structural consequences of DNA damage, i.e., helix-destabilization, instead of the DNA lesion itself²⁶. These helix-distorting lesions include the UV-induced cyclobutane pyrimidine dimers (CPDs) and pyrimidine-pyrimidone (6-4) photoproducts (6-4PPs), ROS-induced cyclopurines, chemically-induced bulky adducts and chemotherapy drug-induced (e.g., cisplatin) intrastrand crosslinks^{27,28}. More than 30 proteins are involved in the intricate network of NER,

and cooperate to perform four essential steps: 1) damage detection; 2) damage verification; 3) excision of a single-stranded DNA segment; and 4) DNA synthesis and ligation to restore the gap. Depending on where in the genome lesions occur, two different damage detection sub-pathways can initiate NER. Transcription-coupled repair (TC-NER) detects lesions in the transcribed strand of active genes^{10,28}, whereas global genome repair (GG-NER) detects lesions anywhere in the genome. The biological significance of the NER pathway is clinically evident from a range of different cancer-prone, developmental and/or progeroid disorders that arise from specific hereditary NER deficiencies^{10,28}.

DNA damage detection by TC-NER

Transcription blocking lesions compromise cellular viability and function and promote premature (DNA-damage induced) aging, as a consequence of lower gene expression and increased apoptosis^{10,28,29}. To counteract the cytotoxic effects of these lesions that stall RNA Polymerase II (Pol II) molecules, TC-NER is activated with the recruitment of CSB, CSA and UVSSA proteins^{28,30} (Fig. 2a). The transient interaction between CSB and Pol II during transcription is stabilized when Pol II cannot be pushed forward by the helicase/translocase activity of CSB due to a transcription-blocking lesion^{31,32}. CSA, which is part of the larger E3 ubiquitin ligase CRL4^{CSA} complex, is recruited to the lesion by CSB and directs the poly-ubiquitylation and proteasomal degradation of CSB following UV irradiation^{33,34}. Subsequent binding of UVSSA, assisted by the histone chaperone FACT and stabilized by CSA, counteracts CSB degradation and stabilizes its binding to the lesion site by recruiting the de-ubiquitylation enzyme USP7^{30,35–37}. UVSSA also recruits transcription factor IIH (TFIIH) via direct interaction with TFIIH's subunit GTF2H1 (also known as p62)^{35,38}.

DNA damage detection by GG-NER

The great majority of helix-destabilizing DNA lesions are detected by GG-NER, which examines the entire genome, coding and non-coding, for severe DNA damage-induced helix distortions^{27,28}. XPC, as part of the heterotrimeric XPC-CETN2-RAD23B complex^{39–41}, is capable of detecting a broad range of structurally unrelated lesions. XPC employs an indirect, stepwise damage recognition and binding mode, in which transient interactions with DNA precede the formation of a stable and immobile

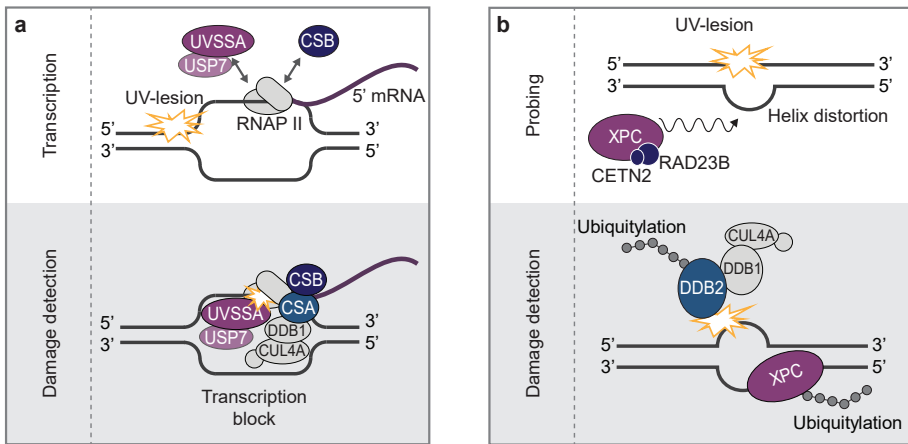


Figure 2. DNA damage detection in NER. (a) TC-NER is initiated when an elongating RNA Pol II molecule is stalled by a lesion in the transcribed strand of an active gene, leading to the increased binding and recruitment of TC-NER factors CSB, CSA (as part of the CRL4^{CSA} complex), UVSSA and USP7. (b) In GG-NER, damage detection is carried out by XPC which probes the DNA for helix-distorting lesions, in complex with RAD23B and CETN2 proteins. DDB2, in complex with DDB1 as part of the CRL4^{DDB2} complex, binds specifically to UV-induced lesions and facilitates recognition of DNA damage by XPC, in particular CPDs, which only mildly destabilize the DNA helix. The E3 ubiquitin ligase CRL4^{DDB2} ubiquitylates DDB2 and XPC to regulate their affinity and binding to damaged DNA.

DNA-bound complex^{42–45}. While XPC diffuses through the nucleus, it probes the DNA for lesions that thermodynamically destabilize the DNA double helix and disrupt Watson-crick pairing. Without contacting the lesion directly, XPC becomes fully and stably bound to the extruding nucleotides in the undamaged strand^{44,46,47}. TFIIH is recruited by interactions between its helicase XPB and core GTF2H1 subunits with XPC^{38,48,49}. Because XPC also detects mismatches and aberrant DNA structures that are not processed by NER, examination by TFIIH of whether genuine DNA damage is present plays a crucial role in ensuring the fidelity of the NER reaction (described in more detail below).

Despite being the main damage sensor in GG-NER, XPC requires the auxiliary function of the UV-DDB complex, comprising DDB1 and DDB2, to efficiently recognize UV-induced photolesions^{47,50,51}. In particular, UV-induced CPDs are poor substrates for XPC since they only mildly destabilize the DNA helix^{40,52,53}. To enable their repair, DDB2 stimulates XPC recruitment by directly binding and flipping out the damaged bases, which

then become a suitable substrate for XPC⁵⁴ (Fig. 2b). The UV-DDB complex is part of a larger E3 ubiquitin-ligase complex (CRL4^{DDB2}), containing CUL4A, RBX1, and the COP9 signalosome⁵⁵. The binding of DDB2 to UV-lesions triggers the COP9 signalosome dissociation, which stimulates the E3 ubiquitin-ligase activity of the complex^{33,55,56}. The main targets of the E3 ubiquitin-ligase activity of the complex are core histones H2A, H3 and H4, XPC and DDB2 itself^{55,57–59}. While ubiquitylation of DDB2 decreases its affinity to UV-DNA lesions and targets DDB2 for proteasomal degradation, ubiquitylation of XPC increases XPC's affinity to DNA lesions *in vitro*^{58,60}. DNA damage binding of both DDB2 and XPC is tightly regulated by post-translational modifications (PTMs), such as SUMOylation⁶¹, ubiquitylation⁶² and PARylation^{63–65}. DNA damage handover from DDB2 to XPC and TFIIH is further described and studied in more detail in Chapter 3.

Core NER reaction: damage verification, dual incision and gap filling

Once damage has been detected by either TC- or GG-NER, both pathways converge into the same repair mechanism by recruiting TFIIH. TFIIH is loaded on the damaged strand 5' to the lesion, through a direct interaction with either XPC (via GG-NER) or UVSSA (via TC-NER)^{35,38,48,49}. TFIIH is a multifunctional complex that opens the DNA helix in both NER⁶⁶ and transcription initiation⁶⁷. The helicase XPB facilitates recruitment of TFIIH to DNA damage^{68,69}, whereas the XPD helicase verifies the presence of genuine NER substrates by unwinding the DNA in 5'–3' direction while scanning for helicase blocking lesions^{66,70}. In the absence of damage-stalled XPD, repair is aborted^{66,71}. The TFIIH complex is composed of ten subunits, all of which are necessary for its stability^{72–75}. In Chapter 2⁷⁶, we describe how SWI/SNF ATPases BRM and BRG1 promote transcription of TFIIH subunit GTF2H1, thus enabling TFIIH function in transcription and NER.

Damage verification is stimulated by the DNA damage binding protein XPA, which binds to nucleotides with altered chemical structures in ssDNA⁷⁷. XPA stimulates the release of the transcription-associated CAK subcomplex from TFIIH, consequently stimulating the helicase activity of XPD^{70,78,79}. Besides stimulating lesion verification by TFIIH, XPA also interacts with many core NER proteins^{27,80}, likely for optimal positioning of the NER endonucleases for incision⁸¹. For this reason, XPA is considered

to be a central coordinator of the NER reaction. The RPA protein complex, after damage verification, binds to single-stranded DNA to protect the non-damaged DNA strand from endonucleases. Together, XPA and RPA orient the two structure-specific endonucleases ERCC1-XPF and XPG to the damaged strand⁸²⁻⁸⁴. XPG recruitment (independently or simultaneously with TFIIH^{83,85}) enables the first incision, 5' to the lesion, by ERCC1-XPF, and the dual incision is then finalized by XPG itself, 3' to the lesion⁸⁴. The generated 22-30 nucleotide ssDNA is released, most likely together with TFIIH, and degraded⁸⁶. The final DNA gap filling step involves the recruitment of RFC, PCNA, either DNA polymerase δ (non-replicating cells), ϵ (mainly in replicating cells) or κ (non-replicating cells)⁸⁷⁻⁹⁰ for de novo DNA synthesis using the undamaged strand as template, and the recruitment of either DNA ligase I or III to seal the gap⁸⁸ (Fig. 3).

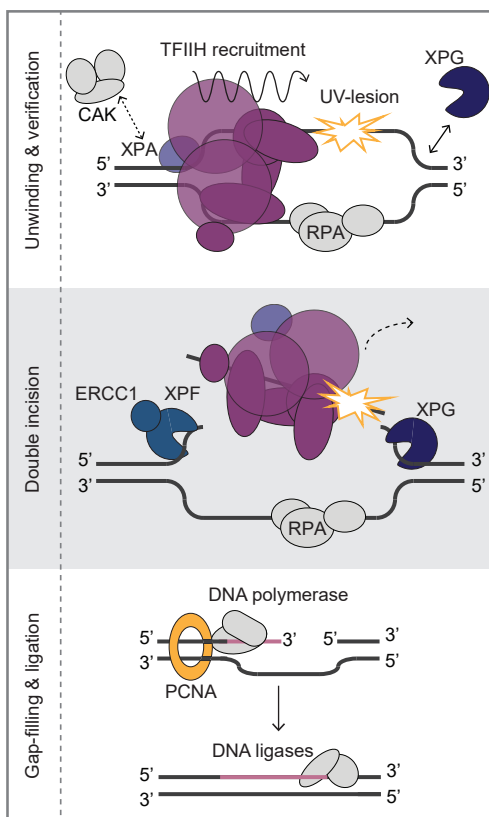


Figure 3. Core NER mechanism. After detection of DNA damage by either GG- or TC-NER, both pathways converge to a common core mechanism. The recruitment of TFIIH, via an interaction with XPC (in GG-NER) or with UVSSA (in TC-NER), results in the release of its transcription-associated CAK subcomplex, stimulated by XPA. The active helicase activity of TFIIH opens the double helix and verifies the presence of a lesion. XPA and RPA binding to the altered nucleotides in the single-stranded DNA and to the undamaged strand, respectively, facilitate the loading of the structure specific endonucleases ERCC1-XPF and XPG (recruited independently or simultaneously with TFIIH) to the damaged strand. ERCC1-XPF incision 5' of the lesion is followed by XPG 3' incision, resulting in the excision of a 22-30 oligonucleotide containing the DNA lesion. The first incision, by ERCC1-XPF, enables the PCNA-assisted gap-filling by DNA polymerases δ , ϵ or κ . DNA ligases I or III seal the nick and complete the DNA repair reaction.

Chromatin as an integral player in the DDR

Mammalian cells are capable of storing our genome in the constricted volume of their nucleus by condensing DNA and wrapping it around nuclear proteins in a DNA-protein complex defined as chromatin. Every 146/147 bp of DNA wrapped by a histone octamer with two copies of histones H2A, H2B, H3 and H4⁹¹ forms the basic unit of chromatin, the nucleosome. The electrostatic interactions between the phosphate backbone of the DNA and positively charged histones stabilize nucleosomes, while the linker DNA segments connect nucleosomes together. Additional short- and long-range interactions and histone H1 play an important role in stabilizing coiled higher-order chromatin structures⁹¹. In addition to its role in condensing and storing the DNA in the nucleus, chromatin serves as a way to control how DNA is used. For instance, processes such as transcription and replication require the access of specialized proteins to specific parts of the DNA. It is thus important that chromatin is modified to regulate the access of proteins to DNA during these processes, while it simultaneously serves as a transaction platform that regulates signaling events and protein docking during DNA transacting events.

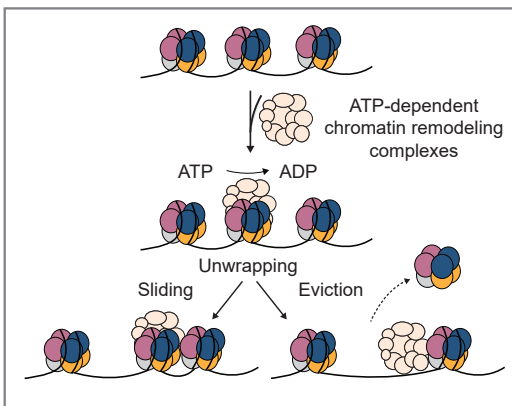


Figure 4. Schematic representation of ATP-dependent chromatin remodelling mechanisms. ATP-dependent chromatin remodelling complexes use distinct ways to rearrange chromatin at the expense of ATP. To alter the contacts between DNA and nucleosomes, these remodelers can unwrap, reposition (sliding) or evict nucleosomes, or alter their histone composition by replacing or ejecting histones.

Generally speaking, two major mechanisms control wrapping of DNA into nucleosomal units. The first involves histone modifiers that catalyze the covalent attachment or removal of functional groups or small proteins to protruding histone tails. These PTMs change the chemical properties of histones and/or change how histones interact with the DNA⁹² or other proteins. The many flavors and forms of PTMs combined serve as docking

and signaling sites for many chromatin related proteins. Examples of these chemical PTMs on histones include methylation, acetylation, phosphorylation, ubiquitylation, SUMOylation and PARYlation, which also play important roles in the DDR⁹³. The second major mechanism in DNA wrapping involves ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling proteins/complexes that catalyze the disruption of DNA-histone contacts using the energy from ATP hydrolysis to slide, evict, unwrap nucleosomes or alter their composition⁹⁴⁻⁹⁶ (Fig. 4). In mammals, many structurally related chromatin remodeling proteins and complexes have been identified, including the SWI/SNF, CHD, ISWI and INO80 families. The SWI2/SNF2 superfamily of ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers is characterized by an ATPase domain consisting of two subdomains, DExx and HELICc⁹⁴. In addition to the split SWI2/SNF2 ATPase domain, each member of these

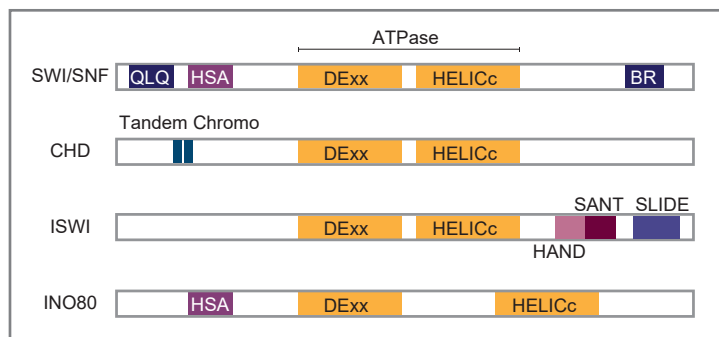


Figure 5. Schematic representation of the mammalian SWI2/SNF2 superfamily of ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers. The SWI2/SNF2 superfamily is characterized by an ATPase domain split in two parts: DExx and HELICc. The unique additional domains each subfamily member harbors within or adjacent to its ATPase domain, determines its specificity and classification into SWI/SNF, CHD, ISWI or INO80. The HSA and BR domains allow the SWI/SNF family to bind nuclear actin-related proteins as well as acetylated lysines, respectively. CHD chromatin remodelers contain a tandem chromodomain positioned at the N-terminus, which enables the binding to methylated lysines. The ISWI family has three domains (HAND, SANT and SLIDE) which mediate interactions with proteins and DNA. The INO80 family has a longer insertion between the split ATPase domains.

families contains specific but different additional functional domains within or adjacent to the ATPase domains^{94,96,97} (Fig. 5). The composition of these protein complexes is highly dynamic and may vary according to cell type, cell cycle stage or the event in place.

Many studies have shown that both chromatin modifying and ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling enzymes are involved in the mammalian DDR. In the past years, the number of chromatin remodelers that are implicated in the DDR has substantially increased, indicating that (re)-organization of chromatin structure is an intricate and essential component of the DDR *in vivo*^{93,98–101}. In Chapter 2⁷⁶, we study the specific involvement of SWI/SNF proteins in NER, while in Chapter 5¹⁰² we review their known functions in the DDR. In addition, a novel role for CHD1 in NER is described in Chapter 4. Deficiencies in both ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers¹⁰³ and DDR⁴ are linked to tumorigenesis, but the interplay between these two deficiencies and how they contribute to cancer development is still an active field of research.

The access, repair and restore model revised

A central question in the field of DNA repair is how, within the dynamic structure of chromatin where the lesion occurs, multi-subunit complexes can recognize and repair DNA lesions at any given moment and genomic location^{104–106}. Conversely, chromatin itself is subject to regulation during DNA repair. Approximately four decades ago, the observations by Smerdon and colleagues laid the foundations for a model of DNA repair within the context of chromatin, referred to as “access, repair and restore” (ARR)^{107,108}. The model suggested that chromatin changes are required for repair to take place, first by becoming more accessible to facilitate DNA damage recognition and second, after DNA repair is completed, to restore its original conformation^{107–110}. Pioneer observations of increased DNA accessibility following UV-C irradiation of human fibroblasts compelled a thorough examination of the phenomenon. Regions undergoing repair by NER were found to be transiently more sensitive to MNase digestion^{108,111} and to only recover their nuclease resistance over time¹⁰⁸. Similar results were observed with restriction enzymes¹¹² and DNase I digestion of UV-damaged chromatin^{113,114}. Although the initial major observations of nucleosome rearrangements were done in the context of repair by NER following UV-C irradiation, similar chromatin changes were soon observed following exposure to different kinds of DNA damaging agents^{115,116}. Follow-up efforts showing that nucleosomes were refractory to NER^{117–119} but also to DSB repair¹²⁰ and that both local and global relaxation of chromatin takes place upon DSB induction^{121–124} solidified the premise of

the ARR model, that is of active chromatin remodeling before DNA repair. Since then, the principles of repair within chromatin have broadened to include other DNA repair mechanisms.

However, the view of chromatin as a mere obstacle to DNA repair is evolving¹²⁵. Many chromatin proteins whose function is associated with chromatin condensation, including polycomb proteins and heterochromatin proteins 1 (HP1), are transiently recruited to DSB and stimulate repair^{109,126–128}, partly by repressing transcription at DSBs^{129–131}. HP1 proteins are also recruited to UV-induced DNA damage and their loss results in increased sensitivity to UV irradiation¹³². Although this challenged the original idea of the ARR model, it is consistent with studies showing that heterochromatin is not refractory to the diffusion of large proteins¹³³ and presented grounds for considering chromatin – and chromatin-associated factors/enzymes – as an integral part of the DDR. A recent

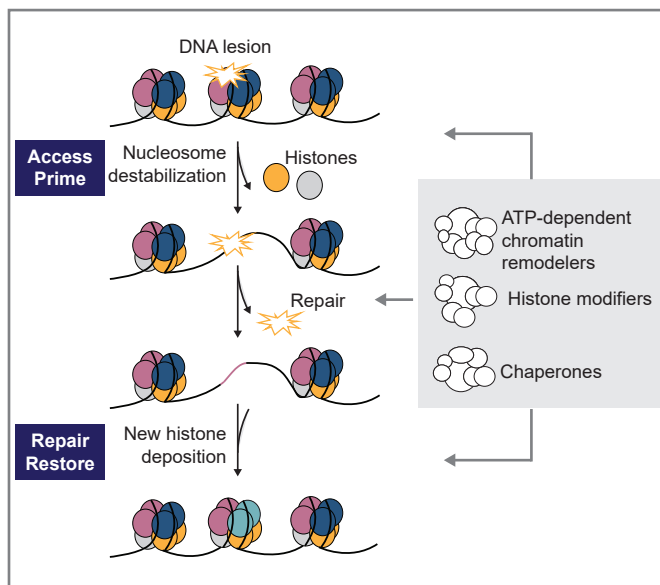


Figure 6. The revised access/prime-repair/restore model. In this simplified model representation, histone modifiers, chaperones and ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers reshape damaged chromatin by unfolding, refolding and repositioning of nucleosomes during repair.

proposed model revises the “access” step as an “access & priming” step instead, where chromatin also acts as a platform promoting the assembly of signaling and repair machineries in competent DDR regions^{109,125} (Fig. 6). This priming step may contribute to the regulation of DNA repair pathway choice or coordination between the DDR and nuclear events to suppress

mutagenic events and limit their oncogenic potential^{93,109,125}.

Many histone modifiers, chaperones and chromatin remodeling complexes have been suggested to promote or, at least to some degree, modulate repair of UV-damaged DNA. Although SWI/SNF proteins confer UV-resistance to the model organism *C. elegans*¹³⁴ and mammalian cells, literature presents discrepant evidence regarding which step in NER SWI/SNF proteins regulate^{135–139}. BRG1 and SNF5 are the most researched subunits; therefore, in Chapter 2⁷⁶, we investigated the putative role of BRM in NER. The mammalian INO80 complex was reported to facilitate the repair of 6-4PPs and CPDs¹⁴⁰ and, like the ALC1 chromatin remodeler⁶⁴, may function to facilitate damage detection by GG-NER, while the ISWI subunit SMARCA5 is required for TC-NER¹⁴¹. Surprisingly, not much is known regarding CHD proteins and the UV-DDR¹⁴². Consequently, in Chapter 4 we explored a putative function for CHD1 in NER. The histone chaperones FACT¹⁴³, HIRA¹⁴⁴ and CAF-1^{145–147} were also shown to be recruited to UV-C damaged chromatin. Interestingly, the direct interaction between CAF-1 and PCNA couples histone deposition (i.e., chromatin re-assembly) with repair-associated DNA synthesis¹⁴⁶, as part of a concerted process.

How the individual - and likely cooperative - action of these chromatin-modifying proteins contributes to the UV-DDR is still, unfortunately, unclear. The lack of clear follow-up studies leaves many questions open. Although studies in yeast have clearly shown that chromatin remodeling facilitates NER^{142,148,149}, it remains to be investigated whether the function of ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling enzymes during mammalian NER is actual chromatin remodeling activity or an uncharacterized activity. ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers have many cellular functions, making it a challenge to disentangle those functions from their activities in the DDR. Furthermore, they appear to act differently in different repair pathways⁹⁹. A current and future challenge, therefore, lies in decoding the precise activities, at the molecular level, of the many different chromatin modifying and remodeling proteins proposed to act in DDR and to understand how these act together at the same lesion to facilitate DNA repair.

Scope of this thesis

Likely most essential NER enzymes have been identified and the basic NER steps are accurately defined. Nevertheless, NER is thought to be tightly regulated by multiple PTMs and chromatin-modifying enzymes *in vivo*, of which the precise mechanisms are still largely not understood. The research presented in this thesis combined cell biology, biochemistry and microscopy methods to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of NER in intact and living cells, by studying the interplay between NER factors themselves and with ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling proteins.

Inactivating mutations in SWI/SNF proteins are amongst the most common mutations across chromatin remodeling enzymes in all human cancers. SWI/SNF proteins have been implicated in different DDR pathways, but conflicting observations have made it difficult to define a unified mechanism by which SWI/SNF acts in NER. In **Chapter 2**, we describe why the two SWI/SNF ATPases, BRM and BRG1, are necessary for efficient NER. Both BRM and BRG1 promote the expression of the essential TFIIH subunit GTF2H1 and, consequently, the stability and functionality of the TFIIH complex itself, both in transcription and in NER. In this chapter, we furthermore contemplate the potential of this finding, suggesting that SWI/SNF-deficiency-induced DDR-vulnerability could be exploited for precision cancer therapy.

The dynamic arrangement of NER factors entails temporal and spatial coordination for each NER protein and step, in order for efficient restoration of damaged DNA to take place. Despite the fact that multiple PTMs have been found to regulate the activity of GG-NER damage sensor proteins DDB2 and XPC, it remained unclear how their activity in detecting and handing over DNA damage to TFIIH is coordinated. In **Chapter 3**, we studied the interplay between the recruitment and dissociation of DDB2, XPC and TFIIH to UV-induced DNA damage. We show that timely DDB2 dissociation, after damage recognition by XPC, is as important as its recruitment to DNA lesions. Dissociation of DDB2 is required for DNA damage handover to XPC, and coincides with the arrival of the TFIIH complex and the formation of a stable XPC-TFIIH complex, which further stimulates DDB2 dissociation. CRL4^{DDB2}-mediated ubiquitylation of DDB2 following UV irradiation plays a major role in this damage handover, as

it promotes DDB2 dissociation and extraction from chromatin, DDB2 proteolytic degradation and, ultimately, prevents excessive DDB2 binding to lesions. Overall, our results demonstrate how the elegant interplay between GG- and core NER factors - which cooperate but also compete with one another - contributes to the correct spatiotemporal control of NER.

Several ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling proteins from the CHD family have been implicated in DSB repair, but their role in NER has hardly been investigated. Loss of CHD1 sensitizes cells to a range of DNA damage agents that induce helix-distorting DNA crosslinks mainly processed by NER. Due to the high mutation frequency of CHD1 in prostate cancer, a better understanding of CHD1 function in tumorigenesis and DDR may provide a rationale for new therapeutic avenues exploiting CHD1 vulnerabilities caused by CHD1 loss. Therefore, in **Chapter 4**, we sought to explore the putative role of CHD1 in NER. We found that CHD1 is likely a novel regulator of NER as its activity is required for optimal survival following UV irradiation. Furthermore, CHD1 is required for the DNA damage loading of late NER factors, such as XPF, but not earlier proteins such as DDB2, XPC, TFIIH and XPA. Instead of favoring damage handover in the early steps of the reaction, CHD1 appears to promote the progression from lesion verification to excision. Our findings endorse further research to clarify CHD1's specific contributions in NER and their overall impact on DDR and health.

Defects in both ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers and DDR are linked to tumorigenesis, but how the interplay between these defects promotes cancer development is only partially understood. In **Chapter 5**, we review the emerging functions of SWI/SNF ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers in DSB repair and NER, in light of our findings in Chapter 2, the DDR-related vulnerabilities that arise from SWI/SNF dysfunction and their potential application in precision cancer therapy.

In **Chapter 6**, we summarize and discuss the main findings of the experimental work described in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 and provide future directions to study in-depth the implications of fine-tuning GG-NER, as well as to dissect CHD1's molecular function in NER.

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DNA damage sensitivity of SWI/SNF- -deficient cells depends on TFIID subunit p62/GTF2HI

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Abstract

Mutations in SWI/SNF genes are amongst the most common across all human cancers, but efficient therapeutic approaches that exploit vulnerabilities caused by SWI/SNF mutations are currently lacking. Here, we show that the SWI/SNF ATPases BRM/SMARCA2 and BRG1/SMARCA4 promote the expression of *p62/GTF2H1*, a core subunit of the Transcription Factor IIH (TFIIH) complex. Inactivation of either ATPase subunit downregulates GTF2H1 and therefore compromises TFIIH stability and function in transcription and nucleotide excision repair (NER). We also demonstrate that cells with permanent BRM or BRG1 depletion have the ability to restore *GTF2H1* expression. As a consequence, the sensitivity of SWI/SNF-deficient cells to DNA damage induced by UV irradiation and cisplatin treatment depends on GTF2H1 levels. Together, our results expose GTF2H1 as a potential novel predictive marker of platinum drug sensitivity in SWI/SNF deficient cancer cells.

Introduction

Compiled sequencing efforts have revealed the high prevalence of mutations in chromatin remodeling genes across many different types of cancer^{1,2}. Inactivating mutations in subunits of the SWI/SNF ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complexes are amongst the most frequently mutated genes in human cancers^{3,4}, which argues for a major role in cancer pathogenesis. SWI/SNF complexes contain one of two mutually exclusive catalytic ATPase subunits, BRM/SMARCA2 or BRG1/SMARCA4, and multiple core and accessory subunits that together form a variety of functionally distinct complexes⁵. BRM and BRG1 use the energy of ATP to remodel chromatin, through which they regulate transcription, DNA damage repair (DDR) and replication and impact a variety of cellular processes including cell differentiation and growth^{1,5,6}.

Mutations in SWI/SNF subunits result in aberrant chromatin structures, increased genomic instability and perturbation of transcriptional programs, which are all hallmarks of cancer that can contribute to cell transformation and tumorigenesis^{1,5-7}. Because the products of these typically loss-of-function mutations do not constitute obvious drug targets, efficient therapeutic strategies to target tumor cells with mutant SWI/SNF genes are still lacking. Detailed insight into the molecular mechanisms of the many anti-tumorigenic cellular functions of SWI/SNF is required in order to develop such strategies.

SWI/SNF proteins have been implicated in multiple DDR mechanisms, including double strand break (DSB) repair and nucleotide excision repair (NER), and are thought to coordinate signaling and efficient recruitment of repair proteins to chromatin^{6,8,9}. NER removes a wide range of structurally unrelated helix-distorting DNA lesions, including cyclobutane pyrimidine dimers (CPDs) and 6-4 photoproducts (6-4PPs) induced by UV-light, ROS-induced cyclopurines and intrastrand crosslinks generated by chemotherapeutic platinum drugs^{10,11}. If not repaired, these lesions interfere with transcription and replication, which can result in cell death or lead to mutations and genome instability that contribute to oncogenesis. Depending on the location of DNA lesions, two distinct DNA damage detection mechanisms can trigger NER. Transcription-

coupled NER (TC-NER) is initiated when RNA Polymerase II is stalled by lesions in the transcribed strand and requires the CSB/ERCC6, CSA/ERCC8, and UVSSA proteins^{11,12}. Global-genome NER (GG-NER) detects lesions anywhere in the genome by the concerted action of the damage sensor protein complexes UV-DDB, comprised of DDB1 and DDB2, and XPC-RAD23B-CETN2¹³. XPC and CSB are essential for the subsequent recruitment of the core NER factors to damaged DNA, starting with the transcription factor IIH (TFIIH)^{12,14}, a 10-subunit complex involved in both transcription initiation and NER¹⁵. In NER, the XPB/ERCC3 ATPase and the structural component p62/GTF2H1 of the TFIIH complex are thought to anchor the complex to chromatin, via an interaction with XPC^{14,16,17}, while the XPD/ERCC2 helicase is believed to unwind DNA and verify the presence of proper NER substrates¹⁸. Subsequent recruitment of XPA and RPA stimulates damage verification and facilitates the recruitment and correct positioning of the endonucleases XPF/ERCC4-ERCC1 and XPG/ERCC5, which excise the damaged strand¹⁹. After excision, the resulting single-stranded 22-30 nucleotide DNA gap is restored by DNA synthesis and ligation¹¹.

In vitro, NER is more efficient on naked DNA templates than on chromatinized DNA²⁰, on which it was found to be stimulated by yeast SWI/SNF²¹, suggesting that chromatin remodeling is necessary to facilitate access to damaged DNA and efficient repair of lesions^{8,9,20}. Using SWI/SNF mutant *C. elegans*, we found that SWI/SNF proteins protect organisms against UV irradiation, implying a role for SWI/SNF in promoting NER *in vivo* as well²². Several additional studies in yeast and mammals further indicate that SWI/SNF proteins are important for the UV-induced DDR²³⁻²⁷. However, conflicting observations on whether SWI/SNF regulates damage detection or facilitates later repair steps have made it difficult to deduce the exact mechanism underlying SWI/SNF activity in NER. Furthermore, the majority of studies have focused on the role of the BRG1 ATPase or the SNF5 subunit, but a putative role for BRM has never been investigated in detail.

In this study, we show that both BRM and BRG1 are necessary for efficient NER by promoting the expression of TFIIH subunit GTF2H1. Furthermore, we find that cells with permanent BRM or BRG1 loss have the ability to

restore GTF2H1 levels. As a consequence, DNA damage sensitivity of BRM- or BRG1-deficient cells correlates with GTF2H1 protein levels, which could, potentially, be used to select SWI/SNF-deficient cancers that are more sensitive to platinum drug chemotherapy.

Results

SWI/SNF is required for efficient NER

To test for SWI/SNF involvement in GG-NER, we measured UV-induced unscheduled DNA synthesis (UDS) in C5RO primary fibroblasts depleted of BRM or BRG1 by siRNA. BRM and BRG1 knockdown cells showed a clear decrease in UDS, comparable to cells in which the core NER factor XPA was depleted (Fig. 1a,b; Supplementary Fig. 1a). In addition, we measured Recovery of RNA Synthesis (RRS) after UV-C irradiation in U2OS cells depleted of SWI/SNF, to test involvement in TC-NER. After irradiation, transcription levels in cells with BRM or BRG1 knockdown failed to recover to the same degree as in control cells (Fig. 1c,d; Supplementary Fig. 1b). These results indicate that both BRM and BRG1 are essential for a robust GG- and TC-NER activity after UV irradiation.

To date, most efforts to study SWI/SNF function in NER have focused on BRG1, which prompted us to direct our efforts to BRM and to determine in which NER step this SWI/SNF ATPase plays a role. We used immunofluorescence (IF) to monitor the recruitment of endogenous key NER proteins to local UV-C damage (LUD) - induced by irradiation through a microporous membrane-, 30 min after damage induction in siBRM treated U2OS cells. Recruitment of the early DNA damage sensors DDB2 and XPC to LUD, marked by CPD staining, was unaffected by BRM depletion (Fig. 1e,f, Supplementary Fig. 1c). We validated these results by real-time confocal imaging of XPC-GFP recruitment to LUD induced by a 266 nm microbeam laser, which confirmed that XPC assembly kinetics were unchanged after BRM depletion (Supplementary Fig. 1d). Also, recruitment of CSB, which is difficult to assess using IF, to microbeam LUD was unaffected by BRM depletion (Supplementary Fig. 1e). Strikingly, however, BRM depletion significantly reduced the recruitment to LUD of the TFIIH proteins XPB, XPD and GTF2H1 and downstream proteins XPA

and XPF, as measured by IF (Fig. 1e,f). These results show that BRM does not facilitate lesion detection in GG- and TC-NER but is required for the recruitment of the downstream NER damage verification and excision machinery, thus explaining why NER is compromised in its absence.

BRM is required for the recruitment of TFIIH to chromatin

To dissect how BRM depletion impairs NER, we focused on the TFIIH complex and measured real-time XPB-GFP accumulation at 266 nm laser induced LUD, which was significantly lower (more than 2 fold) after BRM knockdown (Fig. 2a,b, Supplementary Fig. 1f). We confirmed this result with an additional independent siRNA (siBRM#2) to exclude siRNA off-target effects (Supplementary Fig. 1g). Using Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP), we also measured UV-induced XPB-GFP immobilization. As previously observed²⁸, a fraction of XPB immobilized in response to UV-C irradiation in control conditions, as a result of TFIIH binding to UV-damaged DNA (Supplementary Fig.1h). However, this UV-induced XPB immobilization was substantially reduced when BRM was depleted by siRNA (Supplementary Fig. 1h and quantified in Fig. 2c). These results further corroborate our IF experiments (Fig. 1e,f) and suggest that BRM is needed for efficient damage loading of TFIIH.

We also assessed damage-induced chromatin loading of TFIIH in U2OS cells with cellular fractionation, which confirmed that UV-induced loading of TFIIH subunits XPB and XPD, but not of XPC, was strongly reduced after BRM depletion (Fig. 2d,e). Strikingly, even in the absence of DNA damage, TFIIH association with chromatin was reduced, whereas its non-chromatin bound pool did not change significantly after BRM knockdown (Supplementary Fig. 2a). This implies that TFIIH is unable to efficiently interact with DNA irrespective of whether there is DNA damage or not. In addition, we noticed that association of BRM itself with chromatin did not change after DNA damage (Fig. 2d). We also could not detect recruitment of BRM to LUD inflicted by irradiation through a microporous membrane on IF (Supplementary Fig. 2b) and did not observe recruitment of GFP-tagged BRM to LUD inflicted by 266 nm microbeam laser, as analyzed by real-time confocal imaging (Supplementary Fig. 2c). These results suggest that BRM is not actively recruited to sites of UV damage. Moreover, immunoprecipitation of XPB-GFP did not reveal an interaction of TFIIH

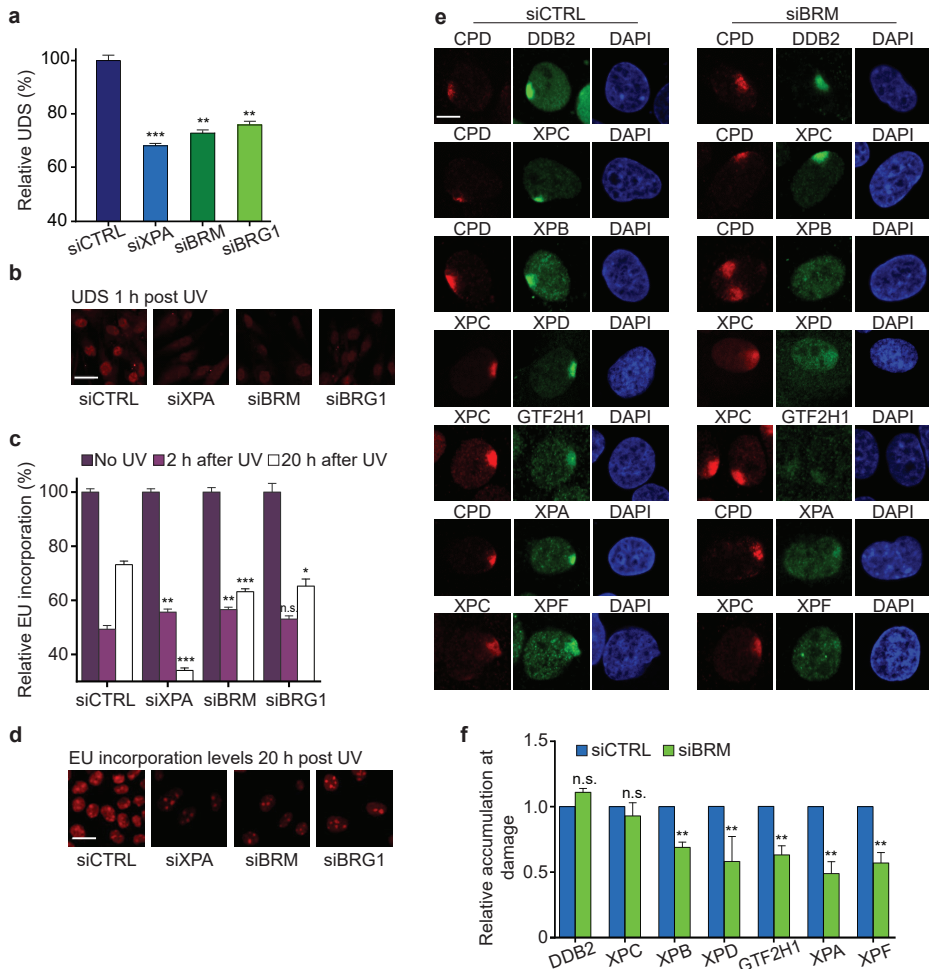


Figure 1. SWI/SNF is required for efficient NER. (a) Quantification of Unscheduled DNA Synthesis (UDS) in C5RO primary fibroblasts treated with non-targeting control (CTRL), XPA, BRM and BRG1 siRNAs (Supplementary Fig. 1a). UDS was determined by EdU incorporation for 1 h after UV-C (16 J/m²) irradiation followed by fluorescent staining of the incorporated EdU. Fluorescence was quantified and normalized to control, set to 100%. Mean & S.E.M. of >200 cells per sample from two independent experiments. **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, relative to siCTRL. (b) UDS representative pictures, 1 h after UV-C. Scale bar: 25 μ m. (c) Quantification of Recovery of RNA Synthesis (RRS) in U2OS cells treated with non-targeting control (CTRL), XPA, BRM and BRG1 siRNAs (Supplementary Fig. 1b). Transcription levels in non-irradiated cells and in cells 2 and 20 h after UV-C irradiation (6 J/m²) were determined by a 2 h pulse-labeling with the uridine analogue EU and subsequent fluorescent staining and measurement of incorporated EU. RRS levels were normalized to non-irradiated cells, set to 100%. Mean and S.E.M. of >200 cells per condition from at least two independent experiments. * P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001, relative to each siCTRL in each time point. (d) RRS representative pictures, 20 h after UV-C irradiation. Scale bar: 25 μ m. (e) Immunofluorescence (IF) showing recruitment of the indicated NER proteins (green channel) to local UV-C damage (LUD) in U2OS cells treated with control or BRM siRNAs (Supplementary Fig. 1c). Cells were fixed 30 min after inducing LUD with UV-C irradiation

(60 J/m²) through a microporous membrane (8 μm). UV lesions were marked with staining against CPD or XPC, red channel. DNA was stained with DAPI. Scale bar: 5 μm. (f) Quantification of NER proteins recruitment to LUD. Relative accumulation at LUD (over nuclear background) after siBRM was normalized to control, in which nuclear background was set at 0 and maximal signal at LUD set to 1.0 for each protein. Mean and S.E.M. of >100 cells per sample, of at least two independent experiments, except for GTF2H1 which was only performed once. ** P < 0.01, relative to siCTRL. n.s., non-significant.

with BRM, neither in the presence nor absence of UV-DNA damage (Supplementary Fig. 2d), while GTF2H1 was successfully co-purified with XPB-GFP, as expected. These observations indicate that BRM is not associated with TFIIH nor directly involved in its recruitment to chromatin, but suggest that BRM affects TFIIH chromatin binding in another way, possibly by regulating its general activity, stability or expression of its subunits.

BRM stabilizes TFIIH by promoting *GTF2H1* expression

The TFIIH complex consists of 10 subunits and becomes unstable if one of these is impaired^{15,29–31}. Given the fact that SWI/SNF acts in transcription regulation, we considered the possibility that BRM transcriptionally regulates one or more TFIIH genes. Therefore, we analyzed the individual expression of all TFIIH genes by real-time-qPCR (RT-qPCR) in U2OS cells after BRM knockdown. While expression of most TFIIH genes was unaffected by BRM knockdown, *GTF2H1* expression was strongly reduced (Fig. 3a). Immunoblot analysis revealed that this also resulted in lowered GTF2H1 protein levels (Fig. 3b), which we further corroborated by IF staining of GTF2H1 after BRM depletion using an independent siRNA (siBRM#2), to exclude siRNA off-target effects (Supplementary Fig. 3a,b). Besides GTF2H1, we also found mildly reduced expression of *XPB*, both at the mRNA and protein level. In contrast, protein levels of XPD and CCNH - whose mRNA levels were mildly increased -, and of TFIIIEβ, XPC and DDB2 were unaltered after BRM depletion (Fig. 3a,b). To verify that BRM can regulate *GTF2H1* transcriptionally, we re-analyzed published whole-genome BRM ChIP-seq data for HepG2³² and RWPE1³³ cells. In both cell types we observed an enrichment of BRM ChIP-seq signal at the *GTF2H1* promoter region, suggesting the association of BRM with active regulatory regions of the *GTF2H1* gene (Fig. 3c, Supplementary Fig. 3c). These results therefore suggest that BRM promotes *GTF2H1* expression and may explain why BRM depletion leads to defects in TFIIH chromatin loading, as GTF2H1 was shown to be essential for the structural integrity

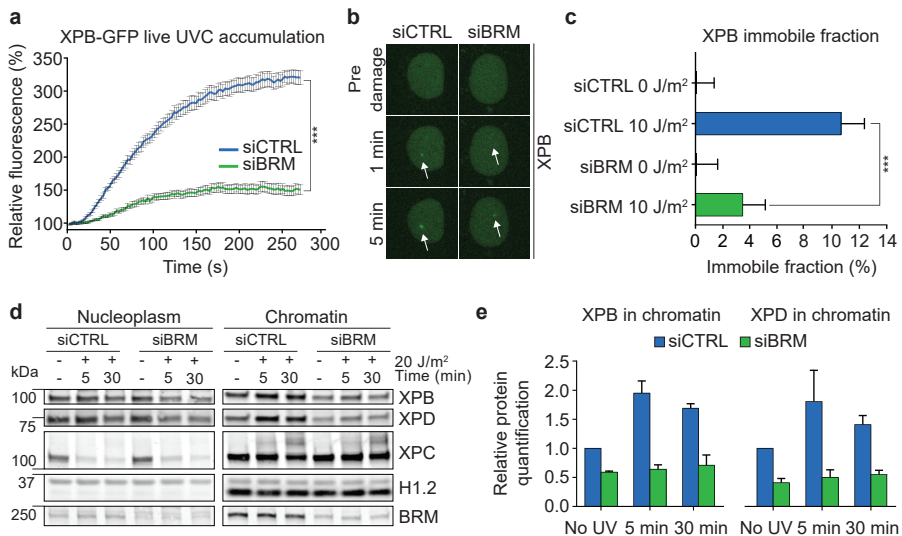


Figure 2. BRM is required for the recruitment of TFIIH to chromatin. (a) Real-time imaging of XPB-GFP accumulation at 266 nm UV-C laser-induced LUD in XPCS2BA cells treated with control and BRM siRNA (siCTRL and siBRM, respectively; Supplementary Fig. 1f). Pre-damage fluorescence intensity (nuclear background) was set to 100% ($t=0$). Mean & S.E.M. of three independent experiments each with more than 10 cells per condition. $P < 0.0001$, compared to siCTRL. (b) Representative images of real-time recruitment of XPB-GFP, which resides exclusively in the nucleus, to laser generated LUD. Arrows indicate LUD regions. (c) Quantification of XPB-GFP immobile fraction in XPCS2BA fibroblasts. The mobility of XPB-GFP was determined by Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP) in mock and UV-C irradiated (10 J/m^2) cells treated with non-targeting control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs, as depicted in Supplementary Fig. 1h. The UV-induced immobile fraction (mean & S.E.M. from three independent experiments, with at least 10 cells measured per condition each time) was determined as described in Supplementary Fig. 1h. $*** P < 0.001$ relative to UV-irradiated siCTRL. (d) Immunostaining of soluble (nucleoplasm) and chromatin-bound XPB, XPD, XPC, BRM and H1.2 (as loading control) in U2OS cells treated with non-targeting control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs. Cells were collected for protein fractionation at different time points after UV-C irradiation (20 J/m^2). (e) Relative quantification of chromatin-bound XPB and XPD, normalized to non-irradiated siCTRL, set to 1.0. Mean & S.E.M. of two independent experiments. Full-size immunoblot scans are provided in Supplementary Fig. 6a.

of the TFIIH complex³¹.

To assess whether TFIIH indeed becomes unstable in the absence of BRM, we determined the half-life of XPB in BRM-depleted U2OS cells after blocking protein synthesis with cycloheximide (CHX) treatment. Quantification of XPB protein levels, normalized to DDB2, revealed a strongly accelerated proteasome-dependent degradation of XPB in the absence of BRM (Fig. 3d,e; Supplementary Fig. 3d). Importantly, XPB was similarly less stable in cells depleted of GTF2H1 by siRNA (Fig. 3d,e). To confirm that BRM

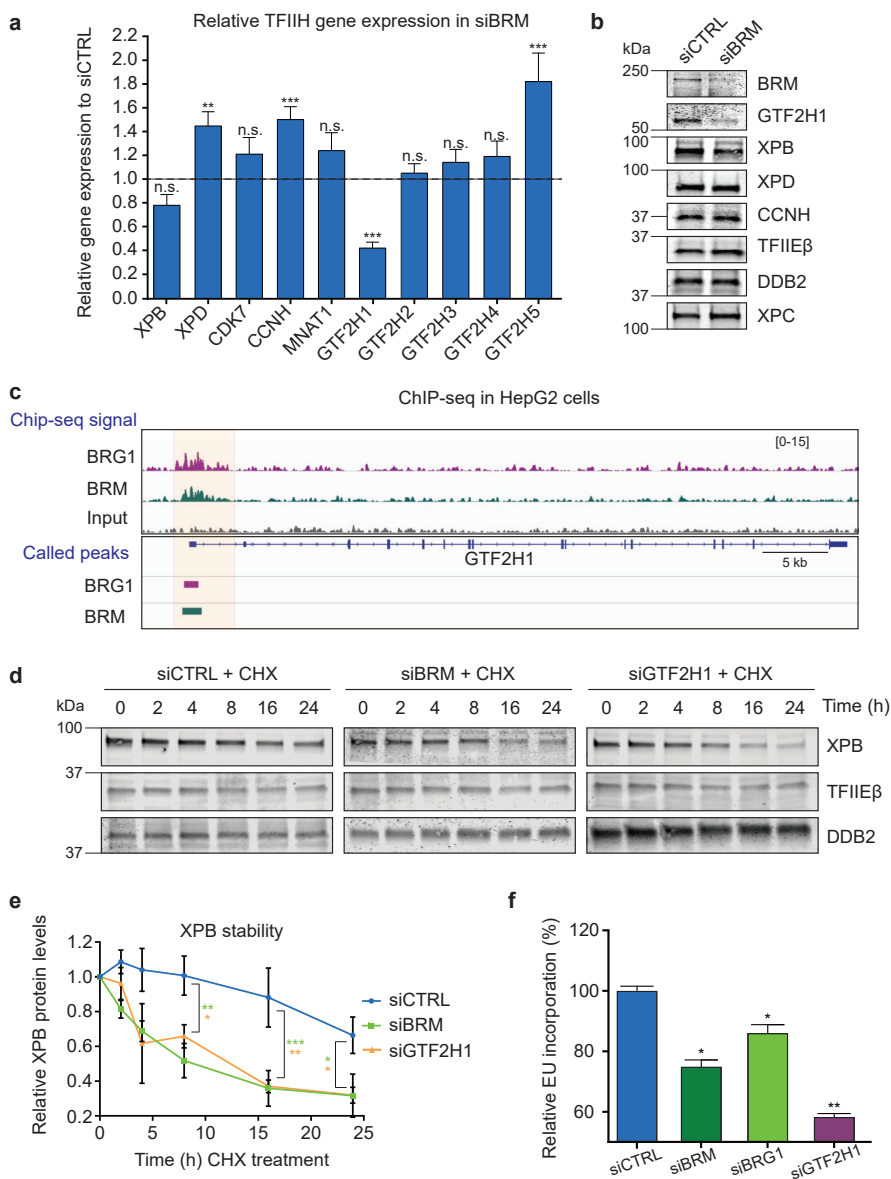


Figure 3. BRM stabilizes TFIIH by promoting GTF2H1 expression. (a) Relative quantification of individual TFIIH genes expression in U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs, as determined with RT-qPCR. Individual basal gene expression in BRM knockdown was normalized to siCTRL levels, which were set to 1.0 (dotted line in graph). *GAPDH* expression was used for normalization. Mean & S.E.M. of at least three independent experiments. ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$ relative expression in each gene to siCTRL. n.s., non-significant. (b) Immunoblot analysis of TFIIH protein levels (GTF2H1, XPB, XPD, CCNH), TFIIIE β , DDB2 and XPC from whole cell extracts of U2OS treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs. Representative immunoblots of two independent experiments. (c) BRG1 and BRM co-occupancy of *GTF2H1* promoter. Re-analysis of

published ChIP-seq data in which ChIP-seq signal density (top) and respective peaks (bottom) illustrate BRG1 (purple) and BRM (green) enrichment at the promoter of *GTF2H1* in HepG2 cells (upon shNS transfection³²). Promoter region of interest highlighted in light orange, signal density in reads per million. **(d)** XPB protein stability was evaluated in U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs at different time points after addition of 100 μ M cycloheximide (CHX) to inhibit protein synthesis. Immunostainings of TFIIE β and DDB2 were used as negative and loading controls, respectively. **(e)** Quantification of XPB protein levels normalized to DDB2 in time after addition of CHX. The total amount of XPB in whole cell lysates was set to 1.0 at t=0. Mean & S.E.M. of at least three independent experiments. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001 for each time point of siBRM (green) or siGTF2H1 (orange) relative to siCTRL. **(f)** Relative quantification of transcription levels in U2OS cells treated with non-targeting control (CTRL), BRM, BRG1 or GTF2H1 siRNAs. Transcription was determined by measuring EU incorporation in non-irradiated cells 48 h after siRNA treatment. EU relative fluorescence intensity was set to 100% in siCTRL treated cells. Mean & S.E.M. of >200 cells from two (siGTF2H1) and three (siBRM and siBRG1) independent experiments. Full-size immunoblot scans are provided in Supplementary Fig. 6b,c.

depletion specifically affected TFIH and not other transcription factors as well (whose DNA-binding might be regulated by BRM^{5,34}), we tested the stability of subunit beta of transcription initiation factor IIE (TFIIE β). TFIIE β is involved in recruiting TFIH to the transcription initiation complex³⁵, but its stability was not affected by BRM knockdown (Fig. 3d, Supplementary Fig. 3e). These results, therefore, suggest that the TFIH complex is less stable in the absence of BRM because of reduced amounts of GTF2H1 that limit the stable assembly of functional TFIH complexes. This likely impairs the stability of TFIH subunits and TFIH function in transcription and NER. Indeed, either BRM or GTF2H1 depletion also reduced transcription levels in U2OS cells, likely due to limiting amounts of TFIH (Fig. 3f).

GTF2H1 expression rescues TFIH function in BRM/BRG1 depleted cells

To demonstrate that impaired TFIH function in BRM knockdown cells is mainly a consequence of GTF2H1 downregulation, we tested if ectopic expression of GFP-GTF2H1 or XPB-GFP (as control) reversed impaired TFIH DNA damage recruitment. Overexpression of both TFIH subunits did not affect XPD recruitment to LUD in control U2OS cells (Fig. 4a,b). However, overexpression of GFP-GTF2H1, but not of XPB-GFP, rescued XPD accumulation to LUD in BRM and GTF2H1 depleted cells, confirming that reduced GTF2H1 expression, as a consequence of BRM depletion, impairs TFIH function.

Since BRG1 depletion also resulted in GG- and TC-NER defects (Fig. 1a-d), similar to BRM, we tested whether BRG1 knockdown also affected

TFIIH function via GTF2H1. Depletion of BRG1 led to lower overall transcription (Fig. 3f) and reduced GTF2H1 protein levels, as assessed by both immunoblot (Supplementary Fig. 3f) and IF using independent siRNAs to exclude off-target effects (Supplementary Fig. 3g,h). BRG1 was furthermore found to co-occupy the *GTF2H1* promoter together with BRM (Fig. 3c, Supplementary Fig. 3c). Also, BRG1 depletion led to reduced XPD recruitment to LUD (Supplementary Fig. 3i), which was rescued by ectopic expression of GTF2H1, but not of XPB (Fig. 4b,c). BRG1 did not localize to LUD induced by irradiation through a microporous membrane (Supplementary Fig. 2b) or by 266 nm microbeam laser (Supplementary Fig. 2c), implying that the protein itself does not directly participate in the NER reaction. Moreover, both siBRM and siBRG1 did not alter cell cycle distribution (Supplementary Fig. 3j) nor did they further decrease reduced XPD recruitment following GTF2H1 depletion (Supplementary Fig. 3k), indicating that BRM and BRG1 do not impair TFIIH recruitment due to indirect effects on the cell cycle or independently of GTF2H1. Overall, these results indicate that the activity of both BRM and BRG1 is necessary to ensure normal GTF2H1 levels and TFIIH function, and, therefore, NER performance.

Chronic BRG1-deficient cancer cells restore GTF2H1

Because BRM and BRG1 are frequently mutated in cancer³, we investigated if cancer cell lines with SWI/SNF mutations showed low GTF2H1 protein levels, as these cells would then likely be more susceptible to DNA damaging chemotherapeutic drugs. Unexpectedly, BRG1-deficient non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) lines A549 and H1299^{36–38} showed normal GTF2H1 levels in comparison to U2OS (Fig. 5a,b). Strikingly, however, BRM knockdown in these NSCLC cell lines resulted in lower GTF2H1 expression, demonstrating that SWI/SNF-mediated expression of GTF2H1 is not cell type-specific. BRG1 knockdown only resulted in lower GTF2H1 levels in U2OS cells, which are wild-type for BRG1, but not in the BRG1-deficient A549 and H1299 cell lines (Fig. 5a,b), confirming again that GTF2H1 downregulation in U2OS cells is not due to an siRNA-mediated off-target effect. We next tested GTF2H1 protein levels by IF in additional BRG1 and/or BRM deficient cancer cell lines. However, also BRG1-deficient Panc-1 and Hs 700T cells, BRM deficient A2780 cells and BRM/BRG1-deficient SW13 and C33A cells, all consistently showed normal or even increased GTF2H1

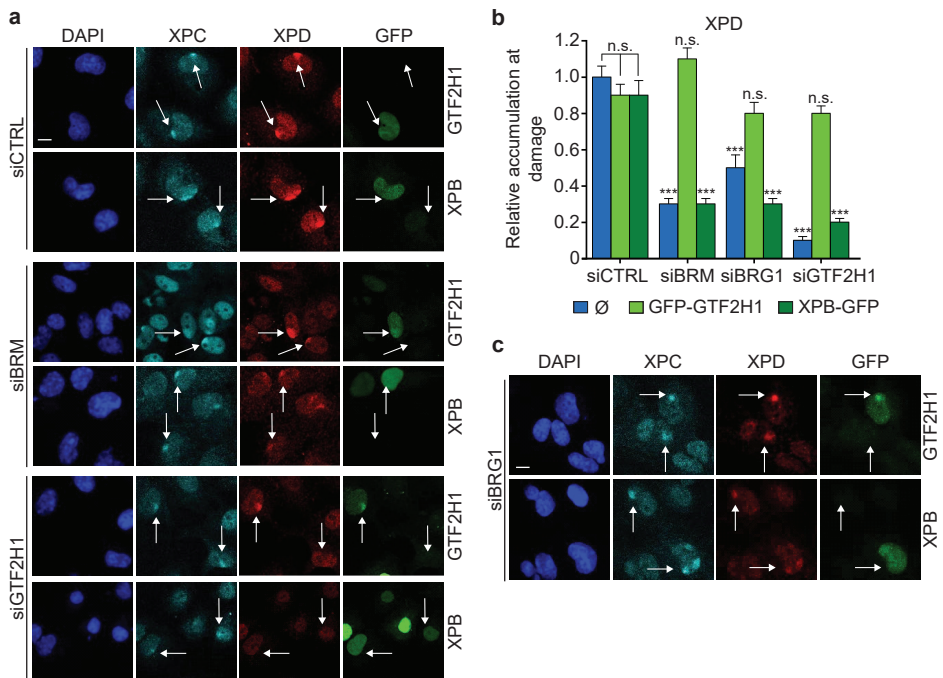


Figure 4. GTF2H1 expression rescues TFIIH in BRM/BRG1 depleted cells. Representative IF of XPD recruitment (red channel) to LUD marked by XPC (cyan channel). U2OS cells were fixed 30 min after local UV-C irradiation (60 J/m²) through a microporous membrane (8 μm). **(a)** U2OS cells were treated with control (CTRL), BRM or GTF2H1 siRNAs and transiently transfected with TFIIH subunits XPB or GTF2H1 fused to GFP (green channel). Scale bar: 10 μm. **(b)** Quantification of XPD recruitment to LUD. Relative accumulation at LUD (over nuclear background) in each condition was normalized to control (siCTRL without transient transfection of TFIIH subunits, indicated by “empty” symbol), in which nuclear background was set at 0 and maximal signal at LUD set to 1.0 (> 50 cells per sample, mean & S.E.M. from four independent experiments). *** P < 0.001, relative to siCTRL without transient transfection of TFIIH subunits. **(c)** U2OS cells were treated with siRNA against BRG1 and transiently transfected with TFIIH subunits XPB or GTF2H1 fused to GFP (green channel). Scale bar: 10 μm. Arrows highlight LUD in a mixed population of non-transfected and transfected cells with GFP-GTF2H1 or XPB-GFP (green cells in the right panel). n.s., non-significant.

levels, as compared to MRC5, Hs 578T and U2OS cells (Supplementary Fig. 4a,b). The puzzling finding that chronic BRG1 and/or BRM deficiency in these cancer cell lines does not lead to permanent downregulation of GTF2H1, whereas transient depletion does, indicates that there might be an adaptive, compensatory mechanism in these cells that restores GTF2H1 expression to prevent chronic TFIIH dysfunction.

BRM and BRG1 have been shown to be able to compensate for some of each other’s functions^{36,39} and in many BRG1-deficient cancer cells including

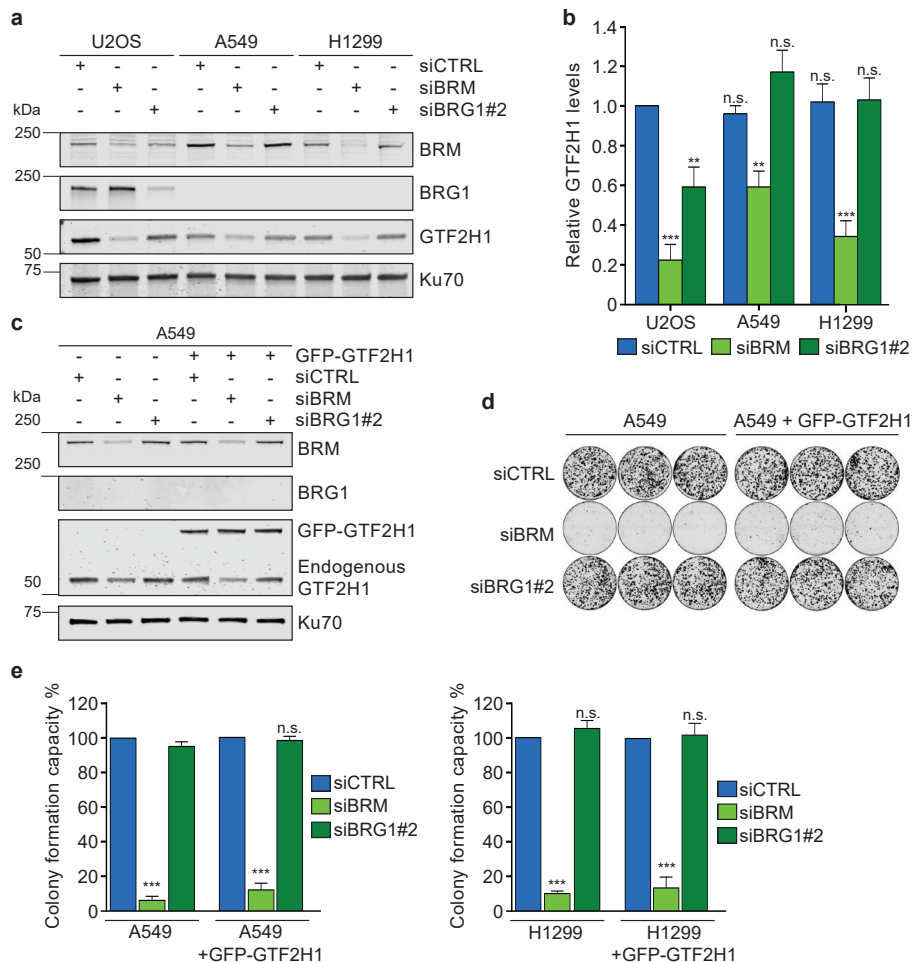


Figure 5. Cancer cells with chronic BRG1 deficiency restore GTF2H1 expression. (a) Immunoblot showing total protein levels of BRM, BRG1 and GTF2H1, in cell lysates of U2OS and BRG1-deficient non-small lung cancer cell (NSCLC) lines A549 and H1299 treated with control (CTRL), BRG1 or BRM siRNAs. Ku70 was used as loading control. (b) Relative quantification of GTF2H1 protein levels in U2OS, A549 and H1299 cells transfected with control (CTRL), BRG1 or BRM siRNA. GTF2H1 levels were normalized to Ku70 and the total relative amount of GTF2H1 in whole cell lysates was set to 1.0 in U2OS siCTRL. Mean & S.E.M. from at least three independent experiments ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, n.s., non-significant. (c) A549 cells with and without stable expression of GFP-GTF2H1, driven by the ectopic PGK promoter, were treated with control (CTRL), BRM or BRG1 siRNAs. Cell lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting against BRM and GTF2H1. Ku70 was used as loading control. (d) A549 cells, with or without stable expression of GFP-GTF2H1 were seeded 48 h after transfection with control (CTRL), BRM or BRG1 siRNAs, in triplicate, at a density of 1000 cells per well and grown for 12 before fixation and staining. (e) Quantification of colony forming capacity of A549 (shown in d) and H1299 (shown in Supplementary Fig. 4e) cell lines with or without stable GFP-GTF2H1 expression and treated with control (CTRL), BRM or BRG1 siRNAs. Clonal capacity was normalized to 100% in control conditions (CTRL). Mean & S.E.M. of three independent experiments, each performed in triplicate. *** $P < 0.001$, n.s., non-significant, relative to siCTRL. Full-size immunoblot scans are provided in Supplementary Fig. 7a,b.

A549 and H1299, BRM has even become essential for cellular growth^{36,38,40}. To test if regulation of GTF2H1 levels are in part responsible for BRM having become essential in BRG1-deficient cells, we generated A549 and H1299 cell lines stably expressing GFP-GTF2H1 (Fig. 5c, Supplementary Fig. 4c). siRNA-mediated BRM knockdown in these cells only reduced the expression of endogenous GTF2H1 (Fig. 5c, Supplementary Fig. 4c,d), guaranteeing that expression of the *GFP-GTF2H1* transgene, driven by the ectopic PGK promoter, is preserved even in the absence of both SWI/SNF ATPases. We then performed colony forming assays and found that siRNA-mediated depletion of BRM led to profound growth inhibition of BRG1-deficient A549 and H1299 cells. This, however, was not rescued by stable GFP-GTF2H1 expression (Fig. 5c-e, Supplementary Fig. 4e). As expected, control and BRG1 siRNA did not affect the proliferation capacity of these BRG1 deficient cells. These results indicate that synthetic lethality induced by BRM depletion in BRG1-deficient cancer cells is not dependent on GTF2H1 expression and likely involves other functions of these ATPases.

DNA damage sensitivity of BRM cells correlates with GTF2H1 levels

To confirm that cells can restore GTF2H1 expression as adaptation to chronic SWI/SNF dysfunction and to investigate the functional consequences, we permanently knocked out BRM and BRG1 in immortalized MRC5 fibroblasts, by transfection with sgRNAs targeting either *BRM* (sgBRM) or *BRG1* (sgBRG1). After careful selection of transfected cells, we confirmed by immunoblotting that this heterogeneous pool of transfected cells showed an overall highly efficient depletion of BRM or BRG1 and a concomitant downregulation of GTF2H1 levels (Fig. 6a,b). However, after culturing cells for multiple passages, IF of the heterogeneous pool of BRM and BRG1 knockout cells revealed that individual cells had either retained the low GTF2H1 expression or restored it to wild-type level (Supplementary Fig. 5a). Establishment of multiple clonal cell lines from the MRC5 sgBRM pool of cells showed that many clones exhibited normal GTF2H1 levels, despite having no detectable BRM expression (Supplementary Fig. 5b). These striking findings show that cells are often able to adapt to the loss of one of the ATPase SWI/SNF subunits by restoring normal GTF2H1 expression levels.

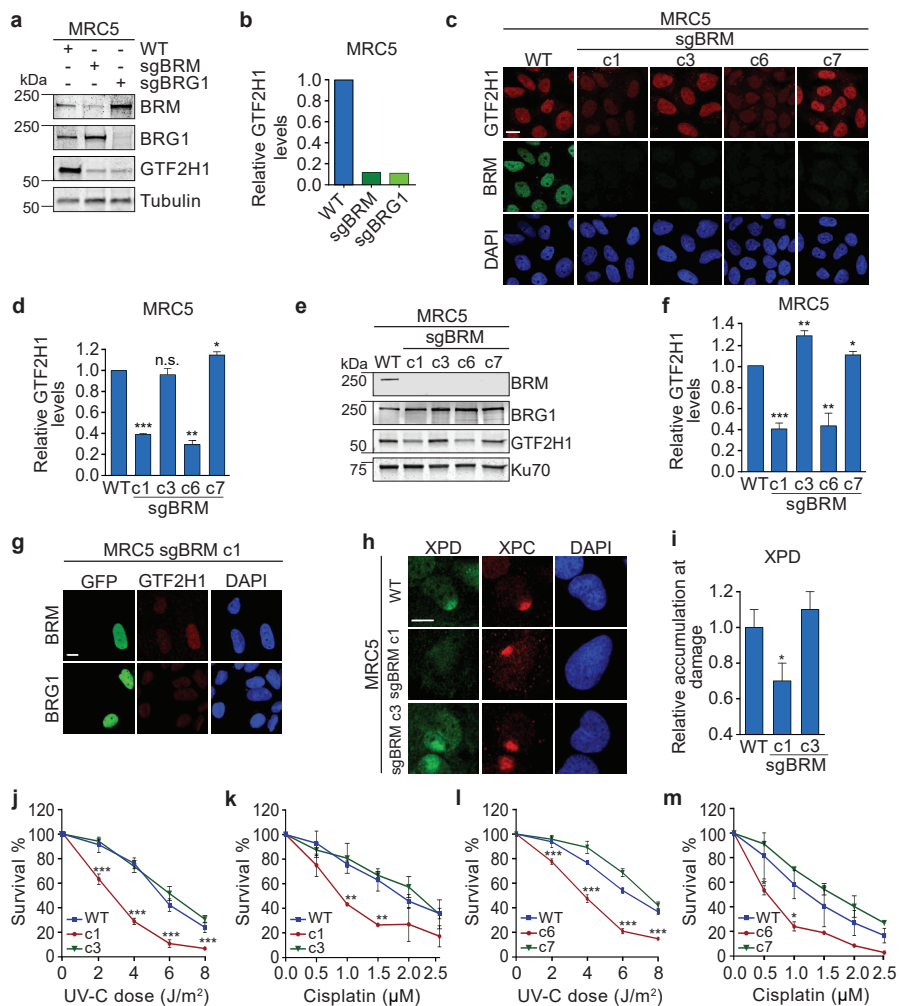


Figure 6. DNA damage sensitivity of BRM deficient cells correlates with GTF2H1 expression. (a) Immunoblot of BRM, BRG1 and GTF2H1 in MRC5 wild-type (WT) cells and cells transfected with sgRNA against BRM or BRG1. (b) Quantification of GTF2H1 levels in immunoblot shown in (a), corrected by Tubulin loading control, and set to 1.0 in MRC5 WT. (c) IF of total GTF2H1 and BRM levels in MRC5 WT and sgBRM knockout clones c1, c3, c6 and c7. Scale bar: 10 μm. (d) Quantification of GTF2H1 IF signal (shown in c). Total GTF2H1 levels were normalized to MRC5 WT, set to 1.0. Mean & S.E.M. of >200 cells from two independent experiments (e) Immunoblot of BRM, BRG1 and GTF2H1 levels in MRC5 WT and sgBRM clones c1, c3, c6 and c7. (f) Quantification of GTF2H1 levels shown in (e), as described in (b), using Ku70 as loading control. Mean & S.E.M. from four independent experiments. (g) GTF2H1 levels in a mixed population of MRC5 sgBRM knockout clone c1 cells non-transfected or transfected with BRM-GFP or BRG1-GFP. Scale bar: 5 μm. (h) XPD recruitment to LUD in MRC5 WT and sgBRM knockout clones c1 and c3, 30 min after damage. Scale bar: 5 μm. (i) Relative quantification of XPD recruitment to LUD (shown in h) in MRC5 WT and sgBRM knockout clones c1 and c3, normalized to WT, as described in the methods. Mean & S.E.M. of >65 cells per sample. (j) UV-C colony survival of MRC5 WT cells and sgBRM knockout clones c1 and c3. (k) Cisplatin colony

survival of MRC5 WT and BRM knockout clones c1 and c3. **(l)** UV-C colony survival of MRC5 WT cells and BRM knockout clones c6 and c7. **(m)** Cisplatin colony survival of MRC5 WT cells and BRM knockout clones c6 and c7. Colony number was normalized to untreated conditions. Mean & S.E.M. of four (UV-survival) and two (cisplatin-survival) independent experiments, each performed in triplicate, are presented. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, relative to WT, n.s., non-significant. Full-size immunoblot scans are provided in Supplementary Fig. 7c,d.

We next selected two clones with low (c1 and c6) and two clones with normal (c3 and c7) GTF2H1 expression and confirmed the reduced and rescued GTF2H1 levels and BRM knockout by IF and immunoblot (Fig. 6c-f) and by sequencing the sgBRM target region (Supplementary Fig. 5c). Transient expression of BRM-GFP in c1 cells increased GTF2H1 expression (Fig. 6g), clearly demonstrating not only that the lower GTF2H1 levels are caused by BRM depletion but also that these are reversible. Transient BRG1-GFP expression, however, did not increase GTF2H1 protein levels in these cells (Fig. 6g). Likewise, stable ectopic expression of GFP-tagged BRG1 in U2OS cells did not prevent the reduction in GTF2H1 levels after siBRM treatment (Supplementary Fig. 5d). These results suggest that restoration of GTF2H1 levels, as observed in cells with chronic BRM/BRG1 deficiency, is likely not due to compensation by the other ATPase.

Due to the central function of TFIIH in NER, we considered whether GTF2H1 levels in BRM knockout cells correlate with NER capacity and thus with sensitivity to DNA damaging agents. XPD recruitment to LUD was severely impaired in c1 cells with low GTF2H1 levels, but not in c3 cells with normal GTF2H1 levels (Fig. 6h,i). Clonal UV-survival assays corroborated these observations, showing that only c1 cells were UV-hypersensitive (Fig. 6j). These intriguing results could imply that cancer cells that have lost the activity of SWI/SNF subunit(s) may be differentially sensitive to DNA damaging chemotherapeutics depending on their GTF2H1 levels. Platinum-based drugs such as cisplatin are widely administered to treat various types of solid tumors⁴¹ and kill cells by inducing DNA intra- and interstrand crosslinks that are mainly repaired by NER⁴² and interstrand crosslink repair. Therefore, we tested cisplatin sensitivity of c1 and c3 cells to evaluate if this also correlates with their GTF2H1 expression levels. Markedly, c1 cells, but not c3 cells, showed increased sensitivity to cisplatin (Fig. 6k). To verify these findings, we also tested DNA damage sensitivity of BRM knockout clones c6 and c7, exhibiting respectively low and restored GTF2H1 levels (Fig. 6c-f). UV and cisplatin survival of these

clones (Fig. 6l,m) confirmed that indeed GTF2H1 levels in BRM knockout cells determine NER capacity and sensitivity to DNA damage. These results indicate that loss of BRM sensitizes cells to cisplatin only if GTF2H1 protein levels are lowered, and imply that GTF2H1 levels could be used as a predictive marker for platinum drug sensitivity of SWI/SNF-deficient cancers.

Discussion

Inactivating mutations in SWI/SNF subunit genes are amongst the most recurrent mutations found in all human cancers^{3,4}. For instance, *BRG1* is mutated in 90% of small cell ovarian, 27% of skin and 5% of small cell lung cancers^{1,7,37}. The homologous SWI/SNF ATPase *BRM* is also recurrently lost in multiple primary tumors and cancer cell lines, such as in over 15% of lung, ovarian and breast cancers⁴³ and was found to protect mice against UV-induced skin cancer⁴⁴. It is thus advantageous to identify general vulnerabilities caused by SWI/SNF deficiency in pathways with anti-tumorigenic function, to create opportunities for the development of effective therapeutic approaches.

In this study, we show that both BRM and BRG1 promote normal TFIIH function in transcription and NER by regulating the expression of the *GTF2H1* gene (Fig. 7). Both RT-qPCR and immunoblot analysis revealed significantly lower expression of GTF2H1 and mildly lower expression of XPB after BRM knockdown. Both these TFIIH subunits are required for recruitment of the TFIIH complex to damaged DNA^{14,16}, but only the ectopic expression of GTF2H1 - not of XPB - rescued the binding of TFIIH to DNA damage in BRM and BRG1 depleted cells. This shows that lowered levels of GTF2H1, caused by BRM or BRG1 knockdown, act as a limiting factor for the assembly of functional TFIIH complexes, in agreement with recent literature describing GTF2H1 as essential for TFIIH complex integrity and stability^{31,45}. Limiting amounts of functional TFIIH complexes likely impair overall TFIIH functions, in accordance with the observed decreased transcription levels and lower NER performance (Fig. 7).

ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers like SWI/SNF are thought to make

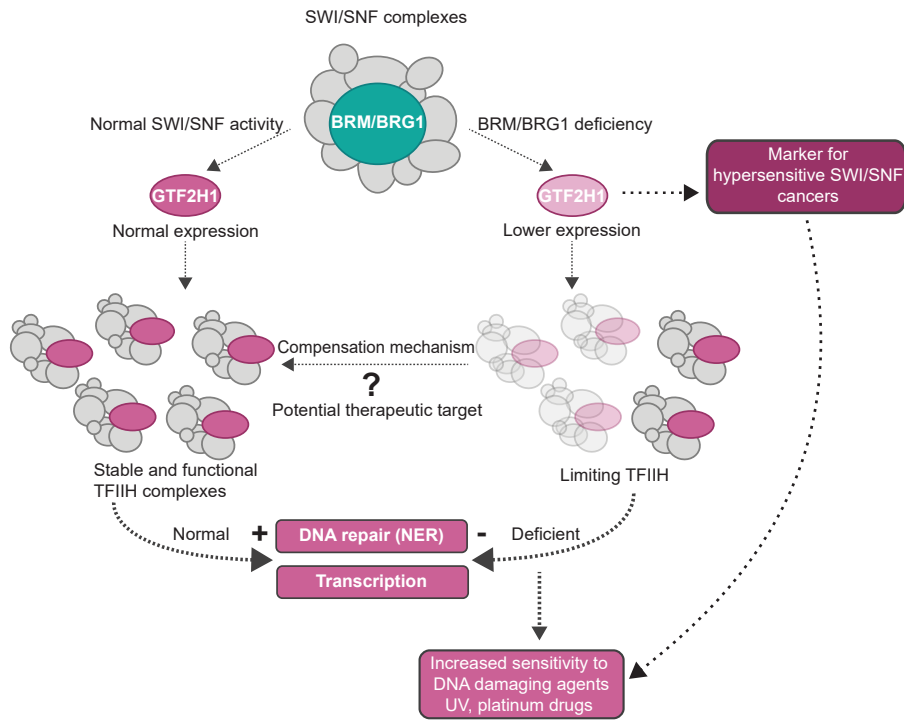


Figure 7. Low GTF2H1 expression as a predictive marker for DNA damage hypersensitive SWI/SNF cancers. BRM- and BRG1-containing SWI/SNF complexes promote the expression of the *GTF2H1* gene, a subunit of the TFIIH complex. In BRM- and BRG1-wild-type cells, normal expression of GTF2H1 allows the assembly of stable and functional TFIIH complexes, proficient in transcription and NER. When BRM or BRG1 are deficient, expression of GTF2H1 is lower, limiting the assembly of functional TFIIH complexes. As a consequence, transcription levels and NER capacity are lower, and cells become more sensitive to DNA damaging agents like UV and chemotherapeutic platinum drugs. Therefore, low GTF2H1 levels can likely be used as a marker to identify SWI/SNF cancers with increased sensitivity to chemotherapeutic drugs. However, cells with permanent loss of either BRM or BRG1 subunit can also adapt and restore the expression of GTF2H1, thus presenting normal transcription and NER activity. The mechanism underlying this adaption response is currently unknown, but if elucidated could be therapeutically exploited to specifically target SWI/SNF cancers with restored GTF2H1 expression, leaving surrounding non-tumor tissues intact.

chromatin more accessible to DNA repair proteins^{8,9,20}. In line with this idea, the yeast Snf5 and Snf6 SWI/SNF subunits were shown to bind XPC and mediate UV-induced nucleosome remodeling²³, while in humans BRG1 was reported to facilitate XPC recruitment to damaged DNA²⁵. However, in another study, a different role for human BRG1 in NER was proposed, in facilitating XPG and PCNA - but not DDB2 and XPC - recruitment to sites of damaged DNA²⁴. Our data, indeed, shows that both BRG1 and BRM are essential for efficient recruitment of late NER factors (TFIIH

and downstream NER proteins) rather than for binding of the early DNA damage sensing factors (XPC, DDB2, and CSB) to DNA lesions. Impaired recruitment of the late NER factors in the absence of SWI/SNF is, however, not caused by reduced chromatin accessibility, but an indirect result of limiting amounts of functional TFIIH. Furthermore, we did not observe BRM and BRG1 recruitment to UV-damaged DNA, further corroborating that SWI/SNF's main involvement in the UV-DDR is not in the control of chromatin accessibility at sites of UV damage.

SWI/SNF complexes are thought to be recruited to chromatin to remodel nucleosomes in enhancer and promoter regions to regulate transcription^{7,46}. In line with this, we observed in two different cell types that BRM and BRG1 ChIP-seq signals are enriched at the *GTF2H1* promoter. SWI/SNF's influence on gene expression is, however, contextual, in that it represses some promoters while it stimulates others⁵, which may also be evident from the differential effect of BRM knockdown on transcription of TFIIH genes that we observed. One major way through which SWI/SNF promotes transcription is by antagonizing the repressive activity of Polycomb complexes, as loss of SWI/SNF was shown to lead to repression of Polycomb target genes^{47,48}. Nevertheless, we were unable to alleviate downregulation of *GTF2H1* upon knockdown of BRM or BRG1 with specific inhibitors targeting EZH2, a functional enzymatic component of the Polycomb repressive Complex 2. This suggests that other mechanisms, possibly involving repressive chromatin structures or epigenetic marks, account for the diminished *GTF2H1* expression.

Besides NER, SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complexes are also involved in other DDR pathways^{8,9,49}, including regulation of DSB repair by non-homologous end-joining and/or homologous recombination^{50,51}. It is, thus, likely that SWI/SNF mutations found in cancer contribute to increased genomic instability by disrupting multiple DDR pathways. As the majority of BRG1-deficient tumors are negative for mutations in other genes that can be targeted by existing therapies⁴⁰, it would be advantageous to exploit DDR deficiencies in SWI/SNF cancers therapeutically. Based on our analysis, one such DDR deficiency could be impaired NER due to downregulation of *GTF2H1* expression, rendering SWI/SNF cancers more sensitive to DNA damaging chemotherapeutic drugs such as cisplatin

(Fig. 7). However, we observed that in multiple established BRG1 and/or BRM-deficient cancer cell lines, GTF2H1 levels were not lowered, which is probably due to an, yet unknown, adaptation mechanism to compensate for the loss of BRM/BRG1 activity (Fig. 7). Previous studies showed partial mutual compensation between both ATPases^{36,38,40}. Nevertheless, the fact that normal GTF2H1 levels were observed in cells lacking both BRG1 and BRM and that overexpression of BRG1 did not increase GTF2H1 levels in BRM deficient cells suggests that BRM and BRG1 do not compensate for each other in regulating GTF2H1 expression. Our experiments with MRC5 BRM knockout cell lines confirm that cells can adapt to the loss of one of the SWI/SNF ATPases. Although knockout of BRM led to an initial overall reduction in GTF2H1 levels, after prolonged culturing and clonal selection we observed that many clones displayed normal GTF2H1 expression. Importantly, cells exhibited hypersensitivity to DNA damage induction by UV irradiation and cisplatin treatment only when GTF2H1 levels were low.

Recently, it was suggested that BRG1 expression could be used as a predictive biomarker for platinum-based chemotherapy response in NSCLC lines^{52,53}. However, as we here demonstrate, sensitivity of SWI/SNF-deficient cells to DNA damaging agents such as cisplatin mainly depends on GTF2H1 expression levels. Therefore, reduced GTF2H1 expression may be a better predictive marker for platinum-drug sensitivity of SWI/SNF-deficient cancers (Fig. 7). Moreover, given the importance of TFIIH for transcription and repair, elucidating the mechanisms underlying SWI/SNF regulation of GTF2H1 expression and those that allow cells to adapt and restore GTF2H1 levels will be key to develop new strategies targeting SWI/SNF cancers. Such knowledge could potentially reveal how to revert the adaptation response to lower GTF2H1 levels, rendering SWI/SNF-deficient cells more susceptible to platinum drug chemotherapy.

Methods

Cell lines, culture conditions and treatments. U2OS (ATCC), SV40-immortalized human fibroblasts MRC5 (ATCC) and XP4PA⁵⁴ (XPC-deficient, with stable expression of XPC-GFP), XPCS2BA (XPB-deficient, with stable expression of XPB-GFP²⁸) and CS1AN (CSB-deficient, with stable expression

of GFP-CSB⁵⁵) were cultured under standard conditions in a 1:1 mixture of DMEM (Lonza) and Ham's F10 (Lonza) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS). C5RO primary fibroblasts (established in our laboratory) were cultured in Ham's F10 supplemented with 12% FCS; H1299 NSCLC (provided by Dr. Bert van der Horst), A549 NSCLC (provided by Dr. Suzan Pas), Hs 578T⁵⁶ breast cancer, A2780³⁸ ovarian cancer (provided by Corine Beaufort and Dr. John Martens), Hs 700T³⁶ and Panc-1⁵⁷ pancreatic cancer (provided by Dr. Bernadette van den Hoogen), SW13³⁶ adrenal cortex carcinoma and C33A³⁶ cervical carcinoma (provided by Dr. Jan van der Knaap) cells were cultured in a 1:1 mixture of DMEM (Lonza) and RPMI (Sigma) medium supplemented with 10% FCS. Stable XPC-GFP expressing XP4PA cells were generated using lentiviral transduction and selected with 0.3 µg/mL Puromycin and FACS. Stable GFP-GTF2H1 expressing cells (A549, H1299) were generated using lentiviral transduction and selection with 5-10 µg/mL Blasticidin. Stable BRM-GFP and BRG1-GFP expressing U2OS cells were generated using transfection and selection with 10 µg/mL Blasticidin. All cells were cultured in medium containing 1% penicillin-streptomycin at 37°C and 5% CO₂. siRNA transfections were performed using RNAiMax (Invitrogen) 2 days before each experiment, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Plasmids transfections were performed using FuGENE 6 (Promega), according to the manufacturer's instructions. All cell lines were regularly tested for mycoplasma contamination.

Plasmids, sgRNA, and siRNA. Full-length human cDNAs of GTF2H1, BRG1 and BRM (a kind gift from Dr. Kyle Miller⁵⁸), were fused to GFP and inserted into pLenti-PGK-Blast-DEST⁵⁹ to generate plasmids GFP-GTF2H1, BRG1-GFP and BRM-GFP. Full-length human XPC cDNA was fused to GFP and inserted into pLenti-CMV-Puro-DEST⁵⁹ to generate plasmid XPC-GFP. For the generation of knockout cell lines, sgRNA sequences targeting *BRM* (GTCTCCAGCCCTATGTCTGG) and *BRG1* (CAGCTGGTTCTGGTTAAATG) coding regions were cloned into pLenti-CRISPR-V1⁶⁰. Cloning and plasmid details are available upon request. siRNA oligomers were purchased from GE Healthcare: CTRL (D-001210-05), BRM#1 (J-017253-06), BRM#2 (J-017253-07), BRG1 (L-010431-00), BRG1#2 (J-010431-06), BRG1#3 (J-010431-07), GTF2H1 (L-010924-00) and XPA (MJAWM-000011).

UV-C irradiation. UV-C irradiation was inflicted using a germicidal lamp

(254 nm; TUV lamp, Phillips) with the indicated doses after washing cells with PBS. Local damage was generated using 60 J/m² of UV irradiation through an 8 µm polycarbonate filter (Millipore), as described in van Cuijk *et al*⁶¹.

Unscheduled DNA Synthesis and Recovery of RNA Synthesis.

Fluorescent UDS and RRS were performed as described before⁶². In short, for UDS C5RO primary fibroblasts were grown on coverslips and treated with siRNAs 48 h before UV-C irradiation (16 J/m²). After irradiation, cells were incubated for 1 h in medium containing 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU, Invitrogen). For RRS, U2OS cells were seeded on coverslips and 48 h after siRNA transfection irradiated with 6 J/m² UV-C and allowed to recover for 2 or 20 h. Irradiated and non-irradiated cells were incubated for 2 h in medium containing 5-ethynyl-uridine (EU, Jena Biosciences). Cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS. EdU or EU incorporation was visualized by incubating cells for 1 h at room temperature with Click-it reaction cocktail containing Atto 594 Azide (60 µM, Atto Tec.), Tris-HCl (50 mM, pH 7.6), CuSO₄*5H₂O (4mM, Sigma) and ascorbic acid (10 mM, Sigma). After washes in 0.1% Triton-X100 in PBS, DNA was stained with DAPI (Sigma), and slides were mounted using Aqua-Poly/Mount (Polysciences, Inc.). Images were acquired using an LSM700 microscope equipped with a 40x Plan-apochromat 1.3 NA oil immersion lens (Carl Zeiss Micro Imaging Inc.). UDS and RRS levels were quantified by measuring the total nuclear fluorescence intensities (in at least 100 cells per experiment) with FIJI image analysis software. Intensity levels were averaged and normalized to the fluorescence levels in control conditions, which were set at 100%.

Immunofluorescence. Cells were grown on coverslips, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and permeabilized in PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100. DNA was denatured for 5 min with 70 mM NaOH to allow CPD binding by the antibody. Next, cells were incubated for 1 h with blocking solution 3% BSA in PBS-T (0.1% Tween 20) and subsequently incubated with antibodies diluted in 1% BSA with PBS-T (0.1% Tween 20) for 1-2 h at room temperature or overnight at 4°C. To visualize primary antibodies, cells were incubated for 1 h at room temperature with secondary antibodies conjugated to Alexa fluorochromes 488, 555 or 633 (Invitrogen). DNA

was stained with DAPI (Sigma), and slides were mounted using Aqua-Poly/Mount (Polysciences, Inc.). Antibodies used are summarized in Supplementary tables 1 and 2. Images were acquired using an LSM700 microscope equipped with a 40x Plan-apochromat 1.3 NA oil immersion lens (Carl Zeiss Micro Imaging Inc.). Using FIJI image analysis software, we determined protein accumulation at lesion sites by dividing the overall fluorescence signal intensity at LUDs by the protein overall nuclear intensity. In Fig. 1f and Fig. 6g zero accumulation (nuclear background) was set at 0 and maximum accumulation (above nuclear background) in control conditions at 1.0.

Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP). FRAP experiments were performed as previously described^{61,63}, using a Leica TCS SP5 microscope (with LAS AF software, Leica) equipped with a 40x/1.25 NA HCX PL APO CS oil immersion lens (Leica Microsystems), at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Briefly, a strip spanning the nucleus width (512x16 pixels) at 1400 Hz of a 488 nm laser, with a zoom of 12x was used to measure the fluorescence signal every 100 ms until a steady-state was reached (pre-bleach). Fluorescence signals were then photobleached using 100% power of the 488 nm laser and recovery of fluorescence in the strip was monitored every 22 ms until a steady-state was reached. Fluorescence signals were normalized to the average pre-bleach fluorescence after background signal subtraction. Three independent experiments were performed, with the acquisition of 10 cells for each condition in each experiment. The immobile fraction (F_{imm}), shown in Fig. 2c, was determined using the fluorescence intensity recorded immediately after bleaching (I_0) and the average fluorescence signal after reaching steady-state from the unchallenged cells ($I_{final,unc}$) and UV-irradiated cells ($I_{final,UV}$)⁶¹:

$$F_{imm} = 1 - \frac{I_{final,UV} - I_0,UV}{I_{final,unc} - I_0,UV} .$$

Real-time protein recruitment to UV-C laser induced damage.

To induce local UV-C DNA damage in living cells, a 2 mW pulsed (7.8 kHz) diode pumped solid state laser emitting at 266 nm (Rapp Opto Electronic, Hamburg GmbH) coupled to a Leica TCS SP5 confocal microscope was used, as described previously⁶². Cells seeded on quartz coverslips were imaged and irradiated via a Ultrafluar quartz 100x/1.35 NA glycerol

immersion lens (Carl Zeiss Micro Imaging Inc.) at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Resulting accumulation curves were corrected for background values and normalized to the relative fluorescence signal before local irradiation.

Chromatin fractionation. U2OS cells were grown to confluency on 10 cm dishes, UV-C irradiated with the indicated dose and lysed in lysis buffer (30 mM HEPES pH 7.6, 1 mM MgCl₂, 130 mM NaCl, 0.5% Triton X-100, 0.5 mM DTT and EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)), at 4°C for 30 min. Non-chromatin bound proteins were recovered by centrifugation (10 min, 4°C, 16100 g). Chromatin-containing pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer supplemented with 250 U/μL of Benzonase (Merck Millipore) and incubated for 1 h at 4°C. Equal amounts of sample were used for SDS-PAGE gels and immunoblotting analysis.

Cycloheximide (CHX) protein stability assay. Protein synthesis was inhibited by adding 100 μM CHX (Enzo) to cells in culture. Concomitantly, for the experiment shown in Supplementary Fig. 3a, protein degradation was inhibited by adding 10 μM MG132 (Sigma) before the addition of CHX. Cells were lysed at the indicated time points after CHX addition, for 30 min at 4°C in RIPA buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 6mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 1% NP-40, supplemented with EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)). Whole cell extracts were recovered by centrifugation (20 min at 4°C and 1400 g) and quantified using the BCA Protein Assay Kit (Pierce, ThermoFisher Scientific). Equal amounts of protein from total cell lysates were used for immunoblot analysis.

Immunoblotting. Protein samples (whole cell extracts or cell fractionations) were 2 x diluted in sample buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 20% Glycerol, 10% 2-β-Mercaptoethanol, 4% SDS, 0.01% Bromophenol Blue) and boiled for 5 min at 98°C. Equal amounts of protein from whole cell lysates were separated in SDS-PAGE gels and transferred onto PVDF membranes (0.45 μm, Merck Millipore). After 1 h of blocking in 5% BSA in PBS-T (0.05% Tween 20), membranes were incubated with primary antibodies in PBS-T for 1-2 h at room temperature, or at 4°C overnight. Secondary antibodies were incubated for 1 h at room temperature. Membranes were washed 3 x 10 mins in PBS-T after antibody incubation. Probed membranes were visualized with the Odyssey CLx Infrared Imaging

System (LI-COR Biosciences). Antibodies are listed in Supplementary Table 1 and 2. Immunoblots were quantified using ImageStudio Lite (ver. 5.2, LI-COR Biosciences). Full-size immunoblot scans are provided in Supplementary Fig. 6,7.

Colony forming assays. For colony survival assays after DNA damage, cells were seeded in triplicate in 6-well plates (400 cells/well) and treated with increasing doses or concentrations of UV-C or cisplatin, respectively, 1 day after seeding. After 5-7 days, colonies were fixed and stained. For the colony forming assay shown in Fig. 5d,e and Supplementary Fig. 4e, cells were seeded in triplicate in 6-well plates (750-1000 cells/well) 48 h after siRNA transfection. After 12 days, cells were fixed and stained. Fixing and staining solution: 0.1 % w/v Coomassie Blue (Bio-Rad) was dispersed in a 50% Methanol, 10% Acetic Acid solution. Colonies were counted with the integrated colony counter GelCount (Oxford Optronix).

Real-Time Reverse Transcriptase PCR (RT-qPCR). Total RNA was isolated from siRNA-transfected U2OS cells using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen). cDNA was synthesized using iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad), accordingly to manufacturer's instructions. TFIIH genes and GAPDH expression levels were analyzed using RT-qPCR with the PowerUP SYBR Green Master Mix (ThermoFischer Scientific) in a Bio-Rad CFX96 device. Primers used are listed in Supplementary Table 3. The relative gene expression of TFIIH genes was calculated according to the comparative quantification cycle (Cq) method and normalized to *GAPDH* expression. The expression level of each TFIIH gene in BRM knockdown cells was normalized to expression in control siRNA treated cells. Expression levels were measured in triplicate in two independent experiments.

Re-analysis of public ChIP-seq data. To dissect BRG1/BRM enrichment in GTF2H1, we re-analyzed published BRG1/BRM ChIP-seq datasets from liver cancer HepG2 cells upon transfection with non-targeting shRNA (Fig. 3c; GEO accession GSE102559³²) and BRG1/BRM ChIP-seq datasets from RWPE1-SCHLAP1 cells (Supplementary Fig. 3c; GEO accession GSE114392³³). ChIP-seq raw data was obtained from the Sequence Read Archive repository (SRA, NCBI; SRP115303 and SRP145601) and uploaded to the Galaxy platform⁶⁴. Reads were aligned to the human genome (hg19

build) with BWA (Galaxy Version 0.7.17.4), poor quality alignments and duplicates were subsequently filtered with SAMtools (Galaxy Version 1.1.2) $-q$ 20. To visualize ChIP-seq signal density, replicate datasets were merged with SAMtools and further processed using bamcoverage tool (Galaxy Version 2.5.0.0), DeepTools suite⁶⁵ with binsize 30, reads extended to 150 bp and normalized to reads per kilobase per million (RPKM); resulting bigwig files were visualized using IGV genome browser⁶⁶. Peaks were determined with MACS2 peak caller (Galaxy Version 2.1.1.20160309.0⁶⁷) using the *predictd* function to estimate fragment size for all datasets and the following analysis parameters $-qval=0.01$ $-nomodel$ $-extsize=d$ $-broad$ $-broadcutoff$ 0.05 $-keepdup$ -all. Resulting peaks were filtered against the ENCODE blacklist regions and finally visualized in IGV browser. Promoter region annotation for *GTF2H1* gene was obtained from the Ensembl database (GRCh37 assembly, Chr11: 18,340,602-18,346,999).

Immunoprecipitation. The procedure for *in vivo* crosslink and immunoprecipitation was described previously¹² and applied with minor alterations. Briefly, after UV-C irradiation (20 J/m²), cells were cultured for 30 min before crosslinking in 1% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 5 min at room temperature. Crosslinking reaction was stopped with 0.125 M of glycine and cells were collected in ice cold PBS supplemented with 1 mM PMSF and 10% glycerol. All subsequent steps were performed at 4°C. Following centrifugation, cell pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES pH 7.8, 0.15 M NaCl, 0.5% NP-40, 0.25% Triton X-100, and 10% glycerol). After 30 min incubation, the suspension was spun down, and supernatant (soluble fraction) was removed. The pellet was washed with Wash buffer (0.01 M Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 0.2 M NaCl), spun down and resuspended in 1 × RIPA buffer (0.01 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 0.15 M NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 1% NP-40, 0.1% SDS). Chromatin was sheared using a Bioruptor Sonicator (Diagenode) using cycles of 30 s ON, 30 s OFF during 10 min, after which samples were centrifuged. The supernatant containing crosslinked chromatin was used for immunoprecipitation. All buffers were supplemented with 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 1 mM PMSF and a mixture of proteinase and phosphatase inhibitors. For immunoprecipitation, extracts were incubated with GFP-trap beads (Chromotek), overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, beads were washed 5 times in RIPA buffer and elution of the precipitated proteins was performed by extended boiling in 2x

Laemmli sample buffer for immunoblotting analysis.

Cell cycle profiling. For cell cycle analysis, cells were fixed in 70% ethanol, followed by DNA staining with 50 µg/ml propidium iodide (Invitrogen) in the presence of RNase A (0.1 mg/mL). Cell sorting was performed on a BD LSRFortessa™ flow cytometer (BD Bioscience) using FACSDiva software. Obtained data was quantified with Flowing software 2.5.1 (by Perttu Terho in collaboration with Turku Bioimaging).

Statistical Analysis. Mean values and S.E.M. error bars are shown for each experiment. Unpaired, two-tailed *t* tests were used to determine statistical significance between groups. In all experiments, between-group variances were similar and data were symmetrically distributed. For analysis of graphs in Fig. 2a and Supplementary Fig. 1g, a ROC curve analysis was performed with significance levels set to 0.05. All analysis were performed using Graph Pad Prism version 7.03 for Windows (GraphPad Software, La Jolla California USA). P values expressed as * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$ were considered to be significant. n.s., non-significant.

Data availability

The raw ChIP-seq data sets analyzed during the current study were obtained via the Sequence Read Archive repository (SRA, NCBI), [<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>], with the data set identifiers SRP115303 and SRP145601. Other relevant data generated during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request. Individual data points are provided in Supplementary data file 1.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests

Author contributions

CRS, HL, JS and AH performed all experiments. OZA initiated this study

and contributed reagents. RMR, JAM and JHJH analyzed data and advised. CRS, HL, and WV designed experiments, analyzed data and wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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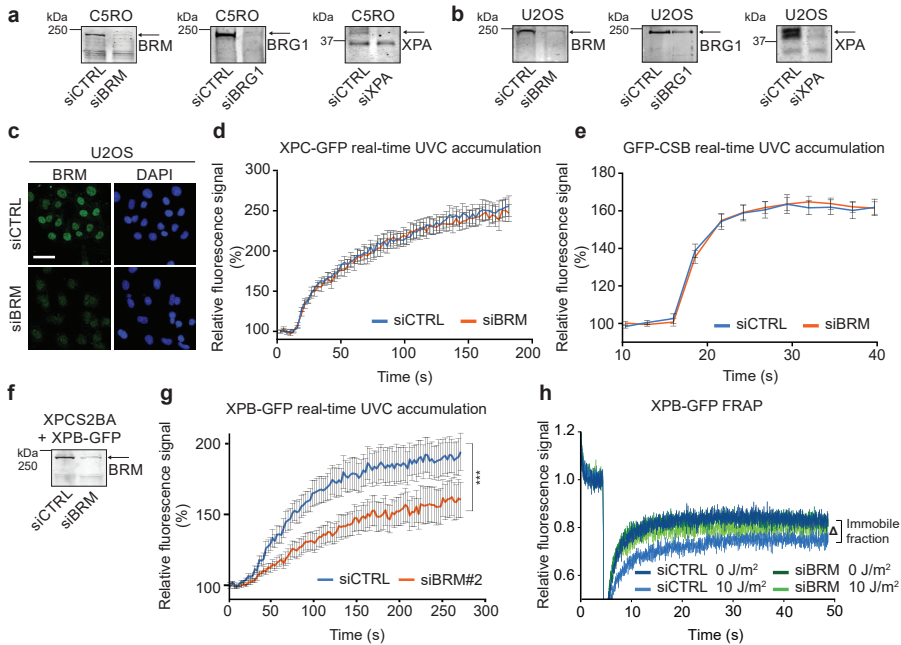
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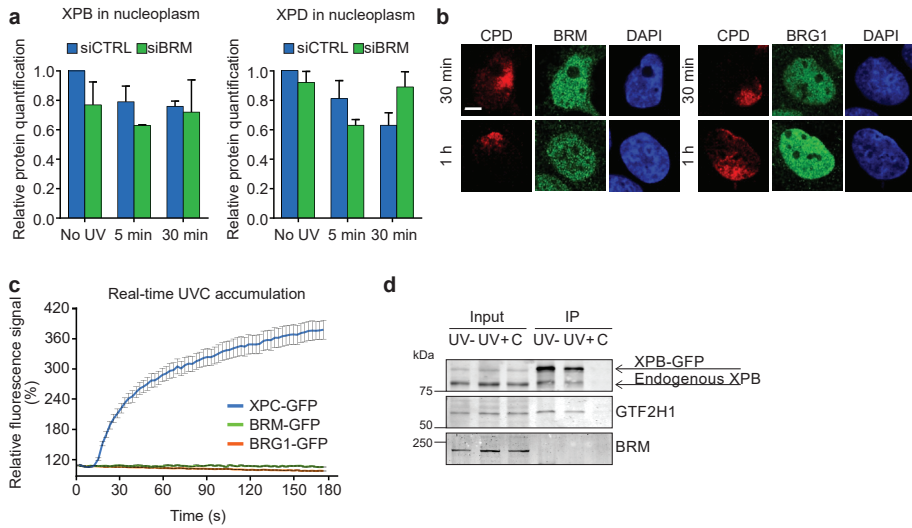
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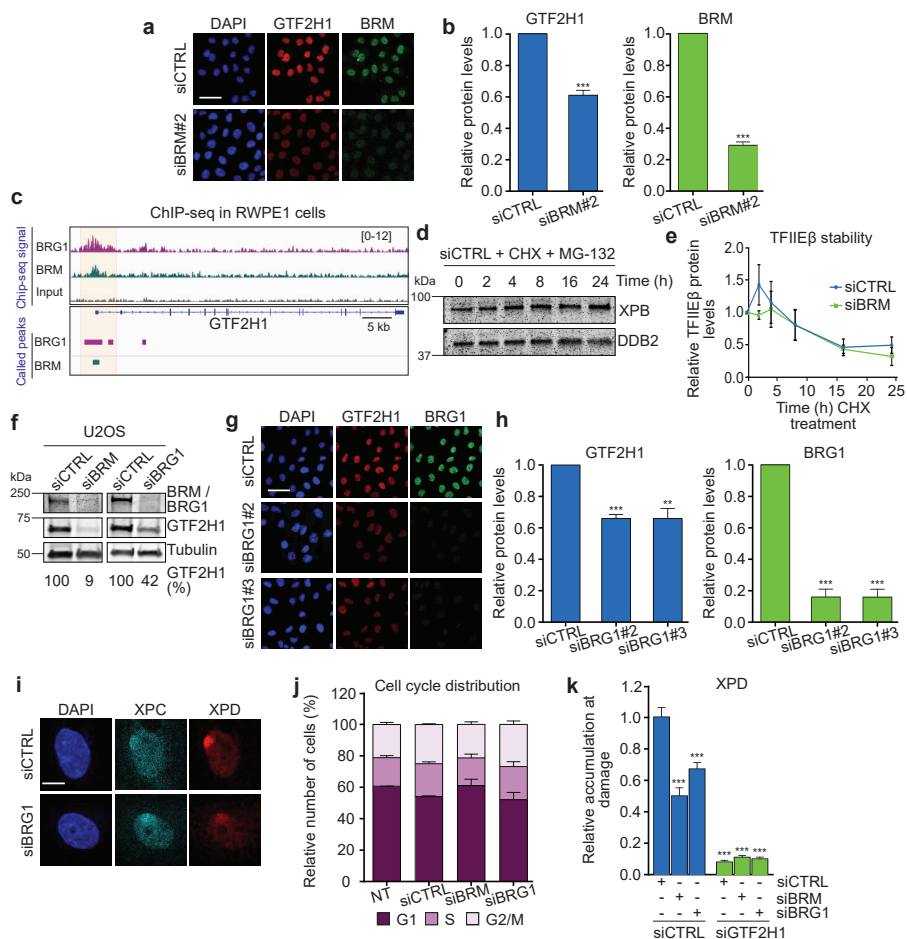
Supplementary data



Supplementary Fig. 1. BRM is required for recruitment of XPB but not of GG- and TC-NER damage sensor proteins XPC and CSB. (a,b) Immunoblot analysis of total cell lysates demonstrating siRNA-mediated downregulation of BRM, BRG1 and XPA in (a) C5RO (related to Fig. 1a,b) and (b) U2OS cells (related to Fig. 1c,d). The same total amount of protein from each cell lysate was loaded in each lane. (c) Immunofluorescence images demonstrating BRM siRNA-mediated depletion in U2OS cells (related to Fig. 1e,f). Scale bar: 50 μ m. (d) XPC-GFP and (e) GFP-CSB accumulation at LUD, induced with a 266 nm UV-C laser, measured in real time by confocal imaging. Pre-damage relative fluorescence intensity was set to 100% (t=0). (d) XP4PA with stable XPC-GFP expression were treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs. Representative results of three independent experiments with similar results (mean & S.E.M., at least 10 cells per condition in each experiment). (e) CS1AN cells with stable GFP-CSB expression were treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs (mean & S.E.M. of at least 10 cells per condition). (f) Immunoblot analysis of total cell lysates demonstrating siRNA-mediated downregulation of BRM in XPCS2BA patient cell lines complemented with XPB-GFP, referring to Fig. 2a,b. The same total amount of protein from each cell lysate was loaded in each lane. (g) XPB-GFP accumulation at LUD, induced with a 266 nm UV-C laser, measured in real time by confocal imaging. Pre-damage relative fluorescence intensity was set to 100% (t=0). XPCS2BA cells with stable expression of XPB-GFP were treated with control (CTRL) and BRM siRNAs. Mean & S.E.M. of at least 10 cells per condition, $P < 0.0001$, relative to siCTRL. (h) FRAP analysis of XPB-GFP in mock treated or UV-irradiated (10 J/m²) XPCS2BA cells transfected with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs. XPB-GFP was bleached in a strip across the nucleus and fluorescence recovery was measured over 50 s and normalized to pre-bleach. The immobile XPB-GFP fraction depicted in Fig. 2c was calculated after subtracting the bleach-depth intensities, by dividing the average recovered fluorescence intensity of UV-irradiated cells by the average recovered fluorescence intensity of mock treated cells, over the last 10 s of the measurements as explained in the methods. FRAP graph is the average of 3 independent experiments, with at least 10 cells measured per condition each time.



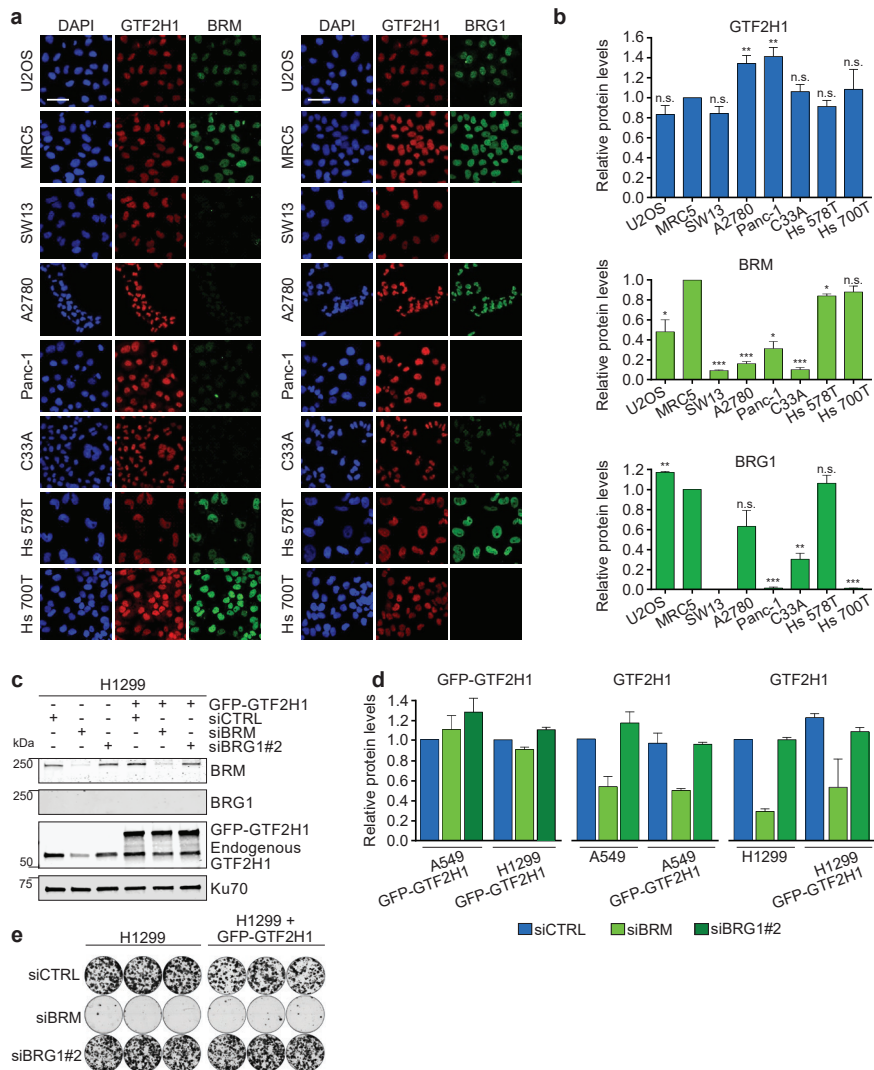
Supplementary Fig. 2. BRM and BRG1 are not localized to sites of UV damage. (a) Relative quantification of the immunostaining of soluble (nucleoplasm) XPB and XPD (shown in Fig. 2d) from U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs before and after (5 and 30 min) UV-C irradiation (20 J/m²). Mean & S.E.M. of two independent experiments. (b) Immunofluorescence showing absence of recruitment of BRM and BRG1 to LUD in U2OS cells. Cells were fixed 30 min and 1 h after inducing LUD with UV-C irradiation (60 J/m²) through a microporous membrane (8 μm). UV lesions were marked with staining against CPD (red channel). Scale bar: 5 μm. (c) XPC-GFP (in XP4PA), BRM-GFP and BRG1-GFP (in U2OS) accumulation at LUD, induced with a 266 nm UV-C laser, measured in real time by confocal imaging. Pre-damage relative fluorescence intensity was set to 100% (t=0). Mean & S.E.M. of at least 15 cells per condition. (d) Immunoblot analysis of input and GFP immunoprecipitation (IP) from XPB-GFP expressing XPCS2BA cells, 30 min after mock (UV-) or global UV-C (20 J/m²; UV+) treatment and from non-treated XPCS2BA control cells, without XPB-GFP (C). Samples were analyzed with antibodies against XPB, GTF2H1 and BRM.



Supplementary Fig. 3 | Lower GTF2H1 expression after BRM or BRG1 knockdown affects TFIIH

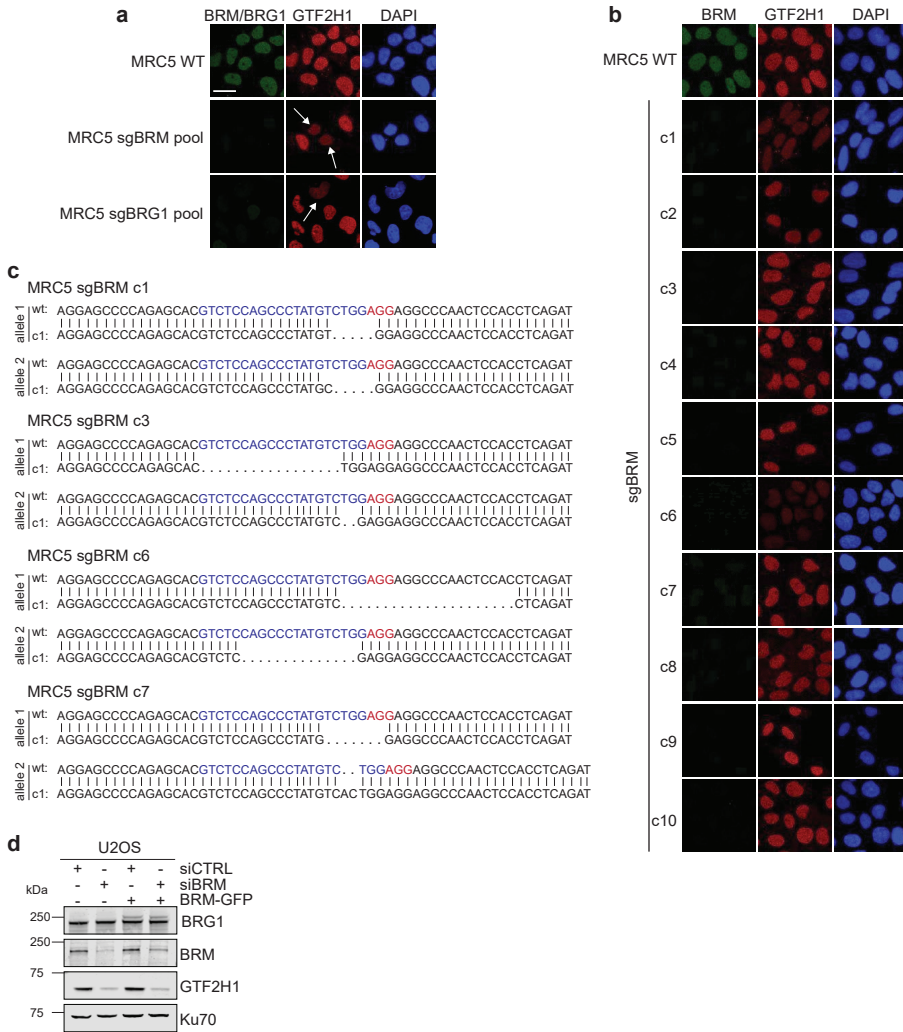
stability and function. (a) Immunofluorescence of GTF2H1 and BRM protein levels in U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNA RNA. For BRM, an independent siRNA (BRM#2) was used to exclude off-target effects. Scale bar: 50 μ m. (b) Quantification of GTF2H1 and BRM fluorescence intensity, shown in (a). Total levels of GTF2H1 and BRM were normalized to control (CTRL) siRNA, set to 1.0 (mean & S.E.M. of three independent experiments, with > 110 cells per sample per experiment). ***P < 0.001, relative to siCTRL. (c) BRG1 and BRM co-occupancy of GTF2H1 promoter in RWPE1 cells. Re-analysis of published BRG1 and BRM ChIP-seq data from RWPE1 cells (overexpressing lncRNA SCHLAP1) in which ChIP-seq signal density (top) and respective peaks (bottom) illustrate BRG1 (purple) and BRM (green) enrichment at the promoter of GTF2H1 (GEO accession GSE114392). Promoter region is highlighted in light orange, signal density in reads per million. (d) XPB stability was analyzed in U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL) siRNA and with 100 μ M cycloheximide (CHX) to inhibit protein synthesis. Cells were pretreated with 50 μ M of proteasome inhibitor MG-132, 45 min prior to CHX addition. DDB2 immunostaining was used as loading control. Representative immunoblots of two independent experiments with similar results. (e) Quantification of TFIIH β protein levels normalized to DDB2 in time after addition of cyclohexamide (CHX) in U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs (as shown in Fig. 3d). The total amount of TFIIH β in whole cell lysates was set to 1.0 at t=0 in

each condition. Mean & S.E.M. of two independent experiments. **(f)** Immunoblots of BRM, BRG1 and GTF2H1 protein levels from whole cell lysates of U2OS cells treated with non-targeting (CTRL), BRM or BRG1 siRNAs. Tubulin was used as a loading control to normalize quantified GTF2H1 protein levels, indicated below the blot (normalized to siCTRL, set to 100%). **(g)** Immunofluorescence of GTF2H1 and BRG1 protein levels after BRG1 siRNA-mediated depletion with two additional independent siRNAs (BRG1#2, BRG1#3) in U2OS cells, to exclude off-target effects. Scale bar: 50 μm . **(h)** Quantification of GTF2H1 and BRG1 fluorescence intensity, shown in (g). Total levels of GTF2H1 and BRG1 were normalized to control (CTRL). Mean & S.E.M. of three independent experiments with > 110 cells per sample per experiment. ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, relative to siCTRL. **(i)** Immunofluorescence of XPD recruitment (red channel) to LUD marked by XPC (cyan channel) in U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL) or BRG1 siRNAs. U2OS cells were fixed 30 min after local UV-C irradiation (60 J/m^2) through a microporous membrane (8 μm) Scale bar: 5 μm . **(j)** Knockdown of BRM or BRG1 does not affect cell cycle distribution. U2OS cells were transfected with the indicated siRNAs or mock treated (NT). The average percentage of cells in G1 (dark purple), S (lighter purple) and G2/M (light pink) phase is presented. Mean & S.E.M. of at least two independent experiments. **(k)** Quantification of XPD recruitment to UV-lesions within 30 mins after UV-C irradiation (60 J/m^2) in U2OS cells treated with control (CTRL), BRM, BRG1 and GTF2H1 siRNAs. Relative accumulation of XPD at LUD (over nuclear background) in each condition was normalized to cells treated only with siCTRL, in which nuclear background was set as 0 and maximal signal at LUD set to 1.0 (>47 cells per sample, mean & S.E.M.). *** $P < 0.001$, relative to cells treated only with siCTRL.

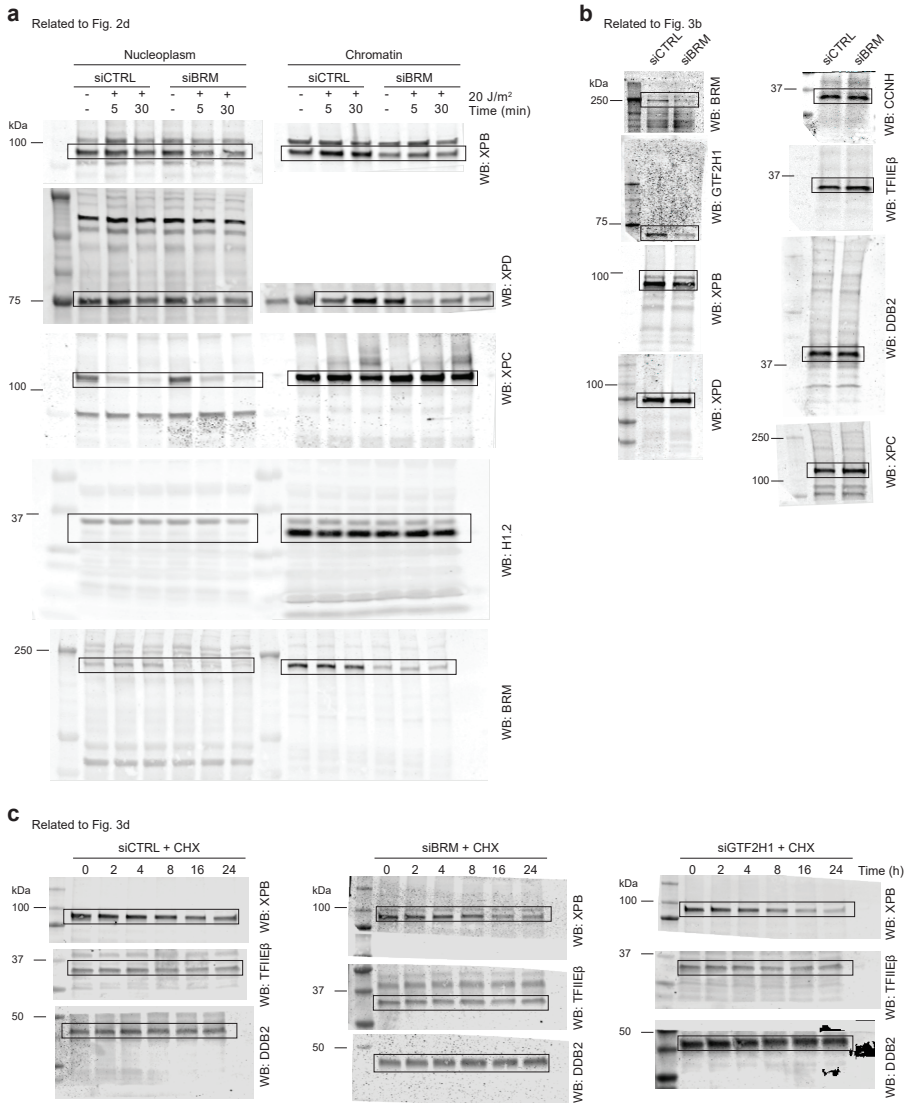


Supplementary Fig. 4. GTF2H1 expression in SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cell lines. (a) Immunofluorescence analysis of GTF2H1, BRM and BRG1 levels in SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cell lines SW13 (adrenal cortex), A2780 (ovarian), Panc-1 (pancreatic), C33A (cervix), Hs 578T (breast) and Hs 700T (pancreatic). As reference, U2OS (osteosarcoma) and MRC5 (human fibroblasts) were used. Scale bar: 50 μ m. (b) Quantification of GTF2H1, BRM and BRG1 fluorescence intensity, shown in (a). Total protein levels were normalized to MRC5, set to 1.0. Mean & S.E.M. of four (GTF2H1) and two (BRM, BRG1) independent experiments with > 100 cells per sample per experiment. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, relative to MRC5. n.s., non-significant. (c) Whole cell lysate of H1299 cells with and without stable expression of GFP-GTF2H1, treated with control (CTRL), BRM or BRG1 (BRG1#2) siRNAs, were analyzed by immunoblotting against BRG1, BRM and GTF2H1. Ku70 was used as loading control. (d) Relative quantification of ectopic GFP-GTF2H1 and endogenous GTF2H1 levels in H1299 (depicted in c) and A549 (depicted in Fig. 5c) cells, with and without stable expression of GFP-GTF2H1, treated with control (CTRL), BRM or BRG1 (BRG1#2) siRNAs. GFP-GTF2H1 and GTF2H1 levels

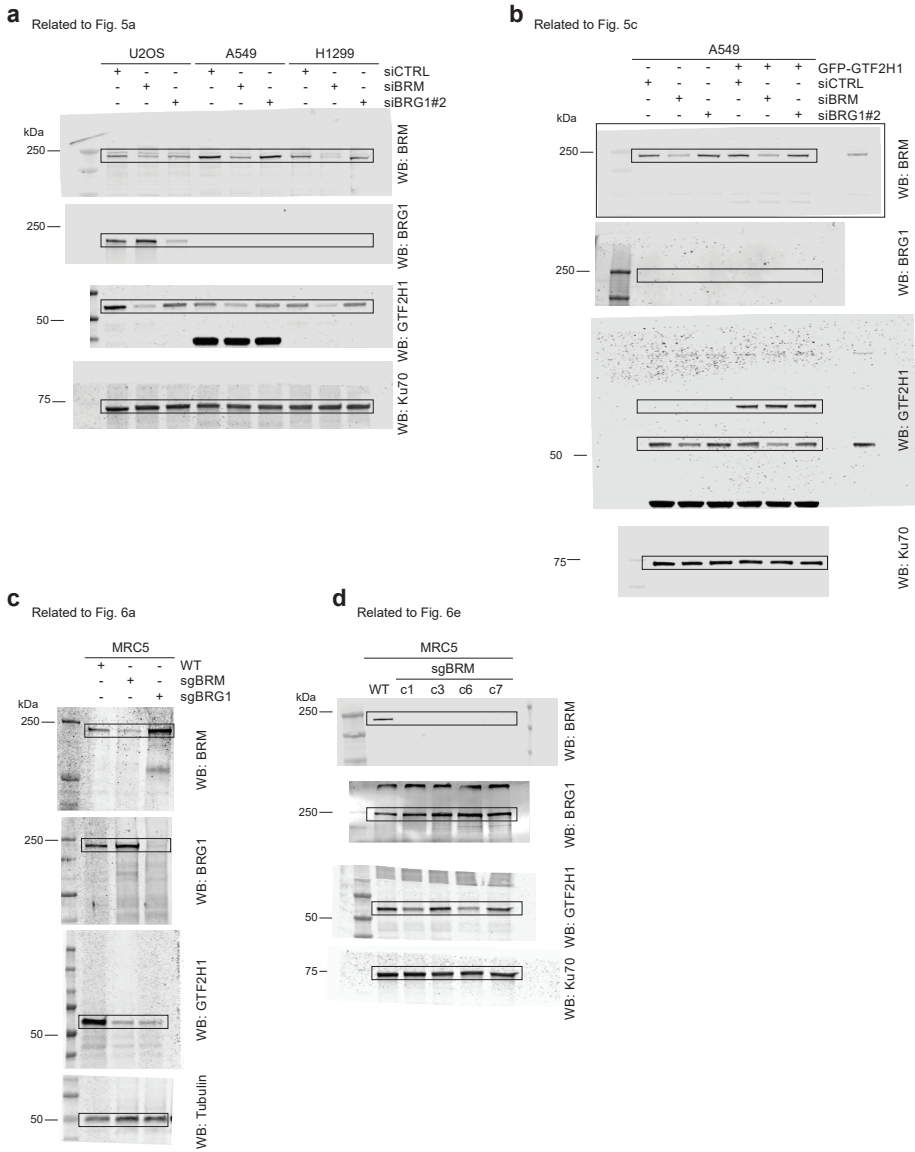
were normalized to Ku70 and to siCTRL, set to 1.0 (mean & S.E.M. from two independent experiments).
(e) H1299 cells, with or without stable expression of GFP-GTF2H1 were seeded 48 h after transfection with control (CTRL), BRM or BRG1 (BRG1#2) siRNAs, in triplicate, at a density of 750 cells per well and grown for 12 before fixation and staining.



Supplementary Fig. 5. Cells with permanent loss of BRM or BRG1 can restore GTF2H1 expression levels. (a) Immunofluorescence analysis of GTF2H1 levels in MRC5 WT cells and heterogeneous pool of sgBRM or sgBRG1 transfected cells. Arrows depict cells that have retained low GTF2H1 levels. To verify the knockouts, specific antibodies against BRM or BRG1 were used (green channel). Scale bar: 25 μ m. (b) Immunofluorescence analysis of BRM and GTF2H1 levels in MRC5 WT and single BRM knockout (sgBRM) clones. (c) Sequence of the sgBRM target region in MRC5 BRM knockout clones c1, c3, c6 and c7. Blue indicates the sgBRM target sequence. Red indicates the PAM sequence. All deletions (in alleles of c1, c3, c6 and c7) and the insertion (in one of the alleles of c7) are predicted to severely truncate BRM. (d) Immunoblot analysis of GTF2H1 levels in U2OS cells without and with stable ectopic expression of BRG1-GFP, treated with control (CTRL) or BRM siRNAs. Immunoblots were stained against GTF2H1, BRM, BRG1 and Ku70 as loading control.



Supplementary Fig. 6. Full-size immunoblot scans shown in Fig. 2d (a), Fig. 3d (b) and Fig. 3d (c).



Supplementary Fig. 7. Full-size immunoblot scans shown in Fig. 5a (a), Fig. 5c (b), Fig. 6a (c) and Fig. 6e (d).

Supplementary Table 1. Primary Antibody list and working dilutions.

Source, Reference	Antibody	Dilutions	
		Immunoblotting	Immunofluorescence
Abcam, ab181136	DDB2	1/1000	1/1000
Bethyl, A301-121A	XPC	1/2000	1/2000
Santa Cruz, sc-293	XPB	1/1000	1/1000
Abcam, ab54676	XPD	1/1000	1/150
Abcam, ab55199	GTF2H1	1/500	1/500
Sigma, WH0002965M1	GTF2H1	1/500	1/500
Novus Biologicals, NBP2-38556	GTF2H1	1/500	1/200
Santa Cruz, sc-853	XPA	1/250	1/50
Santa Cruz, sc-136153	XPF	N.A.	1/100
MBL international, TDM-2	CPD	N.A.	1/1000
Abcam, ab15597	BRM	1/800	1/250
Santa Cruz, sc-6450	BRM	N.A.	1/200
Sigma Aldrich, B8184	BRG1	1/3000	1/1000
Abcam, ab110641	BRG1	1/10000	1/500
2D4 clone	CCNH	1/1000	N.A.
Abcam, ab17677	Histone H1.2	1/1000	N.A.
Abcam, ab187143	TFIIE β	1/1000	N.A.
Santa Cruz, sc-1487	Ku70	1/1000	N.A.
Santa Cruz, sc-17789	Ku70	1/1000	N.A.
Sigma Aldrich, B512	Tubulin	1/10000	N.A.

Supplementary Table 2. Secondary Antibody list and working dilutions.

Source, Reference	Antibody	Dilutions	
		Immunoblotting	Immunofluorescence
Sigma, sab4600215	Anti-rabbit, CF IRDye 770	1/10000	N.A.
Sigma, sab4600200	Anti-rabbit, CF IRDye 680	1/10000	N.A.
Sigma, sab4600214	Anti-mouse, CF IRDye 770	1/10000	N.A.
Sigma, sab4600199	Anti-mouse, CF IRDye 680	1/10000	N.A.
Sigma, sab4600375	Anti-goat, CF IRDye 770	1/10000	N.A.
Invitrogen, A11034	Anti-rabbit, Alexa Fluor 488	N.A.	1/1000
Invitrogen, A21429	Anti-rabbit, Alexa Fluor 555	N.A.	1/1000
Invitrogen, A21207	Anti-rabbit, Alexa Fluor 594	N.A.	1/1000
Invitrogen, A21072	Anti-rabbit, Alexa Fluor 633	N.A.	1/1000
Invitrogen, A11001	Anti-mouse, Alexa Fluor 488	N.A.	1/1000
Invitrogen, A21424	Anti-mouse, Alexa Fluor 555	N.A.	1/1000
Invitrogen, A21467	Anti-goat, Alexa Fluor 488	N.A.	1/1000

Supplementary Table 3. List of primers used for RT-qPCR.

Gene	Sense primer	Antisense Primer	Amplicon size (bp)
CCNH	5'- TCACCCAGGATAATAATGCTCA-3'	5'-CAGTATCTGTTCAAGTGCCTTCT-3'	136
CDK7	5'-GGAGCCCCAATAGAGCTTATACA-3'	5'-TCCACACCTACACCATACATCC-3'	97
GTF2H1	5'-GACCTTGTTGTGAGTCAAGTGA-3'	5'-CCTGCTTATGATTGGATGTGGAA-3'	100
GTF2H2	5'-CGTATGGGATTTCCCTCAGCAC-3'	5'-AGCCTCCTAATGTAAGCCCTG-3'	115
GTF2H3	5'-GAATGGCAGACTTGGAGACTTC-3'	5'-GCAAAGTTTCTGTATGTTGACCC-3'	176
GTF2H4	5'-ACCCCATTTTCCGCCAGAAC-3'	5'- CGGCGTACTTGTCAAGGGAG-3'	126
GTF2H5	5'-AAGACATTGATGACACTCACGTC-3'	5'-GGGAAAAAGCATTTTGGTCCATT-3'	96
MNAT1	5'-GGTTGCCCTCGGTGAAGAC-3'	5'-AGTTGCTCTTCTGAGTGGAGT-3'	160
ERCC3	5'-CTAACTGCCTACTCCTTGTATGC-3'	5'-TCCATAGCTGACAGTACACAAC-3'	141
ERCC2	5'-AGAAGGTGATTGAAGAGCTTCG-3'	5'-ACCTCAGGGTGAATACACAAGT-3'	121
GAPDH	5'-AAGGTGAAGGTCGGAGTCAA-3'	5'-ACCATGTAGTTGAGGTCAATG-3'	125

SWI/SNF: Complex complexes in genome stability and cancer

5

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1. Introduction

On a daily basis, each of our cells accumulates up to 10^4 - 10^5 DNA lesions that, if not adequately dealt with, can interfere with vital cellular processes such as transcription and replication, promoting genomic instability and eventually leading to tumorigenesis and premature aging^{1,2}. DNA lesions are a fact of life as they originate, to a large extent, from the spontaneous chemical instability of DNA in the cell's aqueous milieu, such as hydrolysis of bases, or from chemical attack by intracellular metabolites, such as reactive oxygen species derived from oxidative respiration. Genomic stress is further aggravated by exposure to a range of environmental chemicals and radiation. Some of the best studied environmental genotoxic agents are ultra-violet (UV) light, ionizing radiation (IR) and inter-strand crosslinking agents, due to their relevance for cancer development. Paradoxically, the latter two are also commonly used to treat cancer in radiotherapy and chemotherapy, respectively. Because DNA cannot be replaced, removal of damage is vital to protect cells against genetic erosion and transcription and replication stress. Evolution equipped cells with a sophisticated portfolio of specialized DNA repair and DNA damage signaling pathways, collectively called the DNA damage response (DDR), to cope with the different types of DNA lesions^{1,3}. A few of the different DNA repair pathways, relevant for this review, will be discussed in more detail below. The type of DNA lesion, its genomic location and chromatin environment, and the cell cycle phase determine which repair pathway is activated. Moreover, like all DNA-associated processes, DNA repair pathways have to overcome the physical barrier imposed by the condensed packaging of DNA into chromatin to efficiently access, detect, and repair lesions at any genomic location^{4,5}. In recent years, the number of chromatin modifying and remodeling enzymes found important for efficient DNA repair has increased tremendously, evidencing that (re-)organization of the highly dynamic chromatin structure is an intricate and essential component of the DDR *in vivo*⁶.

The nucleosome is the basic unit of chromatin, comprising approximately 146/147 bp of DNA wrapped around a histone octamer containing two copies of histones H2A, H2B, H3 and H4⁷. Each nucleosome is stabilized by electrostatic interactions between the phosphate backbone of DNA and

positively charged residues on histones, while short linker DNA segments link nucleosomes together. Folding and compaction of DNA into high-order structures is achieved by short and long-range interactions between nucleosomes, linker histone H1 and additional non-histone proteins. Dynamic rearrangement of the chromatin structure, via the concerted action of histone modifiers, histone chaperones, and ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complexes, regulates the access and activity of DNA-transacting enzymes, including that of DDR proteins⁸. In eukaryotes, many structurally related ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling proteins and complexes have been identified, including the four major families, SWI/SNF, INO80, CHD, and ISWI, many of which have been implicated in DDR^{9–11}. Importantly, defects in both ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers¹² and DDR² are associated with tumorigenesis, but the interplay between these two with respect to cancer development is unfortunately only partially understood and currently an active field of research. In particular, the family of SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complexes is frequently mutated in a wide variety of human cancers¹³. Therefore, we focus in this review on their emerging function in the DDR, specifically on their role in DNA double-strand break (DSB) repair and nucleotide excision repair (NER) and speculate on how this gained insight could be exploited for the development of new cancer prognostic markers, and therapeutic interventions.

2. SWI/SNF ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers

2.1 SWI/SNF complex composition and chromatin remodeling function

SWI/SNF (switching defective/sucrose non-fermenting) complexes were named after the two phenotypes in yeast that led to their discovery, through genetic screening for genes that regulate mating type switching and activate sucrose fermentation pathways^{14–16}. Evolutionary homologs of these multi-subunit protein complexes were later identified in *Drosophila* and mammals, and their role as major global regulators of transcription through ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling was firmly established^{17–19}.

SWI/SNF are heterogeneous complexes with the necessary skillset

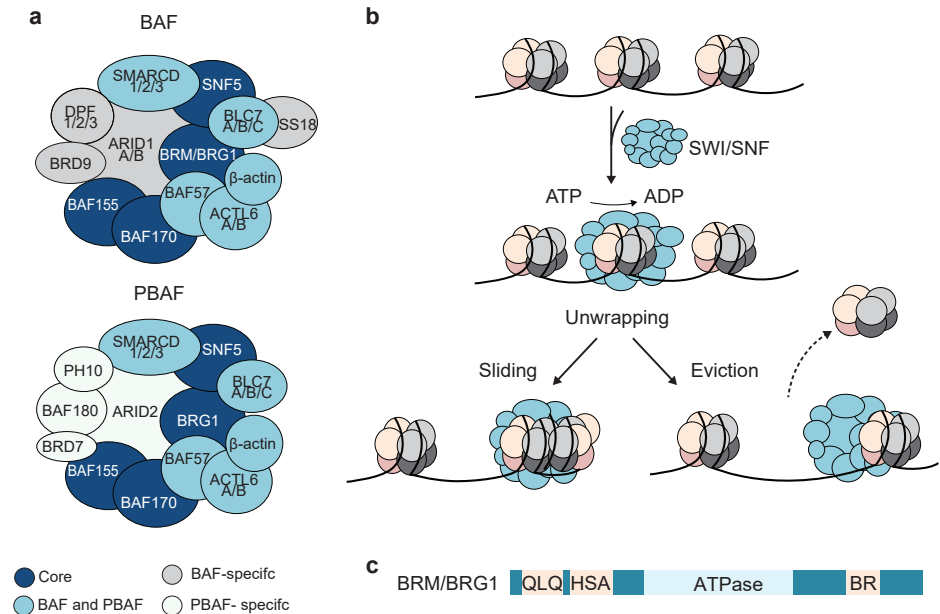


Figure 1. SWI/SNF ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complexes. (a) BAF and PBAF complexes are the two major subtypes of SWI/SNF complexes and are determined by their subunit composition^{12,13,28,29,106,107}. (b) ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling activity of SWI/SNF complexes couples ATP-hydrolysis with directional movement of SWI/SNF that disrupts histone-DNA interactions at local nucleosomes^{8,22}. (c) BRM and BRG1 share the same functional domains that regulate sequence-specific DNA (BR, Bromo, and HAS, Helicase/SANT-associated) and protein (QLQ, Gln-Leu-Gln motif) interactions.

for diverse and specialized functions required in different cellular and developmental contexts^{20,21}. Mammalian SWI/SNF complexes always contain one of two mutually exclusive, though structurally highly related ATPases: BRM/SMARCA2 or BRG1/SMARCA4 (Fig. 1a, Table 1). These proteins couple ATP hydrolysis with directional translocation over DNA, thereby either repositioning nucleosomes, exchanging nucleosomes histone dimers or evicting entire histone octamers^{8,22} (Fig. 1b). In addition to the defining ATPase domain, BRM and BRG1 harbor domains for binding to actin and other proteins, such as the HSA and QLQ domains²³, and a bromodomain (BROMO) for binding to acetylated histones²⁴ (Table 1, Fig. 1c). Although BRG1 or BRM alone are sufficient for remodeling of nucleosomes *in vitro*²⁵, in the context of the cell the additional SWI/SNF core and accessory subunits play essential roles in targeting and regulating their remodeling activity^{26,27}. Depending on their subunit composition, SWI/SNF complexes are divided into two main categories, BAF and PBAF

(Fig. 1a). In humans, SNF5/SMARCB1, BAF155/SMARCC1, and BAF170/SMARCC2 are core SWI/SNF subunits found in every SWI/SNF complex (Fig. 1a, dark blue ovals)²⁵. BAF250A/ARID1A or BAF250B/ARID1B, BRD9 and SS18 are found exclusively in BAF complexes (Fig. 1a, grey ovals), while BAF200/ARID2, BAF180/PBRM1, PH10 and BRD7 are found solely in PBAF (polybromo BRG1-associated factor) complexes (Fig. 1a, white ovals)^{13,28}. Also, some accessory (family of) proteins are shared by BAF and PBAF, e.g., BAF57, β -actin, ACTL6 (A/B), BLC7(A/B/C) and DPF(1/2/3) (Fig. 1a, light blue ovals). Most subunits harbor one or more unique domain (Table 1), with which they tightly coordinate SWI/SNF function. For instance, subunits such as BAF180 and BRD7 harbor BROMO domains that allow SWI/SNF to interact with acetylated histones, while ARID and Zinc finger domains in ARID1A/B and ARID2 provide SWI/SNF with the ability to interact with specific DNA sequences^{28–30}.

In BAF complexes either BRM or BRG1 can be the catalytic subunit, whereas in PBAF that function is exclusively performed by BRG1. Many accessory subunits are encoded by sets of paralogs that are mutually exclusive and thus not present within the same complex: ACTL6A/B, DPF1/2/3, SMARCD1/2/3, and ARID1A/B^{13,28}. Thus, the combination of different SWI/SNF subunits, encoded by at least 29 genes from 15 gene families²⁹ can potentially give rise to an undetermined number of distinct complexes of different biological functions, with specific combinations being unique to certain cell types. Cellular transitions, for instance during differentiation, can lead to dynamic reconfiguration of SWI/SNF complex composition. One example of this is the replacement of ACTL6A by ACTL6B, which is essential for proper neuron function during neuronal differentiation³⁰. However, the impact of changes in subunit composition to the various functions of SWI/SNF complexes, in particular also to their function in the DDR, is far from understood.

2.2 Tumor suppressor functions of SWI/SNF

Mutations in genes encoding for SWI/SNF subunits are found in approximately 20% of all human cancers of various types^{13,31} (Table 1). This suggests that SWI/SNF may act as a tumor suppressor, thus protecting against cancer development, likely by regulating processes that safeguard cellular homeostasis. It is therefore relevant to understand how SWI/SNF

Table 1. SWI/SNF subunits, domains and frequency of alteration in cancer.

Subunit	HUGO name	Synonyms	Domains	% Alteration in cancer
BRG1	SMARCA4	-	Bromo, ATPase, HAS, QLQ	Ovarian cancer (>10%), medulloblastoma (5-10%), melanoma (5-10%), small cell cancer of the ovary (100%)
BRM	SMARCA2	-	Bromo, ATPase	Rhabdoid tumor (60%); lung (4.8-10%), breast (15%), gastric (15%) and bladder (15%) cancers
SNF5	SMARCB1	INI1, BAF47	COIL	Rhabdoid tumor (>98%), epithelioid sarcomas (>55%), familial schwannomatosis (30-45%)
BAF155	SMARCC1	-	CHROMO, SANT, COIL	Prostate cancer (30-31%)
BAF170	SMARCC2	-	CHROMO, SANT, COIL	Rarely mutated
ARD1A	ARD1A	BAF250A	ARID	Clear cell ovarian (50%), endometrioid ovarian (21-48%), breast (2.5%), liver (15%), bladder (17%), gastric (14-18%), lung (9.8%) cancer
ARD1B	ARD1B	BAF250B	ARID	Childhood neuroblastoma (7%), clear cell ovarian (>10%), gastric, colorectal and liver cancer (5-10%)
ARID2	ARID2	BAF200	ARID, Zinc finger	Melanoma (5-15%), lung and colorectal (5-10%) and liver (5-14%) cancer
BAF180	PBRM1	-	Bromo, HMG	Renal cancer (41%), epithelioid sarcoma (83%)
BRD7	BRD7	-	Bromo	Breast cancer
BRD9	BRD9	-	Bromo	Rarely mutated
PH10	PH10	BAF45A	PHD finger	Rarely mutated
DPF1/2/3	DPF1/2/3	BAF45B/C/D	PHD finger	Rarely mutated
BAF57	SMARCE1	-	HMG, COIL	Familial spinal meningiomas (45%)
SMARCD1/2/3	SMARCD1/2/3	BAF60A/B/C	SWIB	Rarely mutated
BCL7A/B/C	BCL7A/B/C	-	-	Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (19.7%)
ACTL6A/B	ACTL6A/B	BAF53A/B	Actin	Rarely mutated
SS18	SS18	SSXT	-	Synovial sarcoma (100%)

SWI/SNF subunits contain different protein domains to coordinate protein-protein or protein-DNA interactions²². Bromodomain (Bromo), important for the binding of acetylated histones. Coiled coil region (COIL) is a homodimerization domain. Chromatin organization modifier (CHROMO) domain is important for chromatin targeting. The Helicas/SANT-associated (HAS), SANT, ARID and HMG domains regulate sequence-specific DNA interactions, while the Gln-Leu-Gln (QLQ) motif, Zinc finger and PHD domains are involved in protein-protein interactions. SWI/SNF subunits alterations in cancer summarized here are extensively described in recent reviews^{13,28,39,105}.

activity contributes to the tumorigenesis process. The first uncovered and most studied function of SWI/SNF is its intricate regulation of transcription. Mammalian SWI/SNF complexes regulate transcription by binding in close vicinity to promoters but also near other regulatory regions, such as enhancers^{26,32}. By promoting or repressing the expression of specific genes, SWI/SNF complexes control vital cellular processes³², including pluripotency of embryonic stem cells, cell cycle regulation and neuronal and hematopoietic cell differentiation³³. Not only the ATPases BRG1 or BRM are needed for transcription regulation, but other SWI/SNF subunits play an important role in transcription by directly stimulating or inhibiting other transcriptional regulators. For instance, ARID1A/B and SNF5 can interact with the proto-oncogenic MYC protein to regulate the expression of its target genes, but can also modulate the expression of *MYC* itself^{34,35}. Because *MYC* is an oncogene frequently overexpressed in cancer, tight control of its activity is desired, which could be potentially compromised in SWI/SNF-deficient cancers. Similarly, direct binding of BRM or BRG1 to the tumor suppressor RB1³⁶ facilitates the repression of RB1 targets, such as E2F transcription factors, and promotes G1 arrest³⁷. Thus, inactivation of SWI/SNF leading to loss of RB1 activity may result in uncontrolled cell cycle progression and favor the appearance of malignant phenotypes.

SWI/SNF has additional functions beyond the regulation of gene expression, which are vital to safeguard genome function and stability and to prevent cancer, as described extensively in recent reviews^{28,31,38–40}. Examples include the regulation of alternative splicing, by favoring recruitment of the splicing machinery⁴¹, and the regulation of decatenation activity of topoisomerase II α (TOPII α)⁴². Furthermore, the PBAF complex assists in sister chromatid cohesion by localizing at kinetochores of mitotic chromosomes⁴³ and by regulating centromeric cohesion in a transcription-independent manner⁴⁴. Because centromeric cohesion is crucial for chromosome orientation and proper segregation, loss of not only BAF180 but also BRG1 results in cells with abnormal anaphase events, aneuploidy, and micronuclei^{44,45}. All of these aberrant events are typical features of many cancers, suggesting that SWI/SNF-mediated centromere cohesion is required for tumor suppression.

3. SWI/SNF and the DNA damage response

SWI/SNF has been implicated in multiple DNA repair pathways, which may have significant repercussions for tumorigenesis of SWI/SNF-deficient cancers since DDR deficiencies often lead to genomic instability. Furthermore, knowing which SWI/SNF factors are actively involved in protecting cells against DNA damage would allow us to have a more comprehensive understanding of which DDR-related cancer vulnerabilities could be targeted as a consequence of SWI/SNF deregulation. Moreover, it would help to predict chemotherapy sensitivity of SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cells in precision medicine procedures.

3.1 Double-strand break repair

SWI/SNF deficiency has been found to render yeast, *C. elegans* and human cells hypersensitive to DNA-damaging agents, including chemotherapeutic drugs such as doxorubicin and cisplatin, UV light and IR^{46–51}. IR and chemotherapeutic drugs, the latter by interfering with replication, cause DSBs. When not properly repaired, these DSBs can result in mutations and chromosomal aberrations (e.g., translocations) that underlie oncogenic transformation. DSBs are predominantly repaired by non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ) and homologous recombination (HR)⁵². NHEJ takes place during any stage of the cell cycle and is initiated when broken DNA ends are bound by the KU70/KU80 heterodimer, which recruits and orchestrates the activity of subsequent repair factors that process and join DNA ends by ligation. Alternatively, in late S or G2 cell cycle phase, DSB ends are bound by the MRE11-RAD50-NBS1 (MRN) complex, which, together with CtIP and EXO1, resects one strand to create 3' single stranded DNA overhangs to direct repair towards HR. In contrast to NHEJ, HR is more accurate and principally error-free, as it makes use of the sister chromatid as a template for homology-directed repair. MRN also recruits the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase ATM, which phosphorylates histone H2AX (γ H2AX) and many other proteins involved in repair and checkpoint signaling. RPA binds the resected single-stranded DNA and is subsequently replaced by the recombinase RAD51. The RAD51-nucleoprotein filament facilitates strand invasion to the homologous double-stranded DNA template of the sister chromatid, allowing DNA synthesis from the sister template and subsequent resolution of the recombined DNA strands.

Yeast and mammalian SWI/SNF complexes have been implicated in both NHEJ and HR, as is also discussed in several previous reviews^{9,10,38,53}.

Depletion or inactivation of SWI/SNF subunits, including the ATPases BRG1 and BRM and core and accessory subunits, such as BAF155, BAF170, ARID1A/B and ARID2, sensitizes cells to DSB-inducing agents and reduces HR and/or NHEJ efficiency in fluorescent reporter assays^{49,50,54–56}. Both BRM and BRG1 also rapidly localize to DSB sites, either induced enzymatically or by laser irradiation, in a manner that appears to be dependent on ATM-mediated signaling and post-translational modification of histones. ATM promotes the damage localization of SWI/SNF by phosphorylating histone H2AX⁵⁰ and by directly phosphorylating BRG1 and BAF170⁵⁷. In turn, BAF170 phosphorylation increases the interaction of SWI/SNF subunits with the early DDR protein BRIT1/MCPH1⁵⁸, a protein that too helps recruiting SWI/SNF. Furthermore, recruitment of BRG1 to damaged sites was found to depend on an interaction with the tumor suppressor RB1 and the E2F1 transcription factor, which also localize to DSBs in an ATM phosphorylation-dependent manner⁵⁶. Besides phosphorylation of histone H2AX, also H2B phosphorylation and H3 and H4 acetylation have been implicated in promoting the damage localization of SWI/SNF. For instance, BRG1 binds to damage induced γ H2AX-containing nucleosomes by interacting with acetylated H3 histones through its bromodomain⁵⁹. In addition, BRM recruitment to DSBs was reported to be stimulated by the activity of AMP-activated protein kinase, which phosphorylates H2B⁶⁰, and by the activity of acetyltransferases CBP/CREBBP and p300/EP300, which acetylate histones H3 and H4 at DSBs⁵⁴. Next to the catalytic subunits, also other components of SWI/SNF are implicated in targeting SWI/SNF to damaged sites. For example, BRM recruitment to damage was found to depend on the SNF5, SMARCD3 and ARID1A/B subunits⁴⁹. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that multiple mechanisms orchestrate, likely in a cooperative manner, the efficient recruitment to and function of SWI/SNF complexes at sites of DNA damage. Besides BRG1 and BRM, other mutually exclusive SWI/SNF subunits were shown to localize to DSB sites. For instance, ARID1A recruitment to DSBs depends on ATM signaling and direct interaction with ATR⁵⁵. On the other hand, BAF180 is recruited independently of ATM.

The exact roles of SWI/SNF complexes in DSB repair remain convoluted, in part because of the multiple and sometimes even ambiguous activities that have been reported. For example, SWI/SNF may promote efficient damage signaling, as depletion of BRG1 and BRM was shown to reduce γ H2AX levels early after IR⁵⁰. However, other studies have reported increased⁶¹ or persistent⁶² γ H2AX levels after BRG1 loss, indicative of a genuine repair defect. Indeed, SWI/SNF proteins are implicated in both NHEJ and HR, in yeast as well as mammals^{31,38}, which further confounds the dissection of their precise function in DSB repair. For instance, BRM and ARID1A/B were shown to stimulate recruitment of NHEJ factors, such as KU70/KU80^{49,54,60}, while BRG1 and ARID1A appear to promote HR-associated DNA end resection and RPA and RAD51 loading^{55,56}. However, another study suggested that BRG1, rather than affecting resection, by interacting with RAD52, stimulates HR by promoting the exchange of RPA for RAD51⁶³. Moreover, the PBAF subunit ARID2 was reported to interact with RAD51 and thereby to stimulate its loading onto DNA, independently of BRG1, but still in complex with BAF180 and other SWI/SNF proteins⁶². These studies suggest that SWI/SNF subunits may have functions in DSB repair beyond its motor function.

Despite a large amount of evidence suggesting that SWI/SNF stimulates DSB repair, it is unclear if this necessarily involves chromatin remodeling to provide access for repair factors to DNA. Some observations suggest that SWI/SNF activity promotes chromatin relaxation after DNA damage, such as increased H3 occupancy observed at DSB sites after ARID1A depletion⁵⁵ and reduced MNase sensitivity of genomic DNA seen after BRM or BRG1 depletion⁵⁸. However, it was also reported that deficient RAD51 loading due to BRG1 deficiency could be rescued by ATPase-mutant BRG1⁶³, suggesting that this BRG1 function is independent of chromatin remodeling. Interestingly, instead of facilitating chromatin access, the PBAF complex was found to mediate transcription silencing near DSBs, involving polycomb complexes PRC1 and PRC2, and ATM-dependent mono-ubiquitylation of H2A, which promotes rapid NHEJ of a subset of DSBs⁶¹. Strikingly, this process required the catalytic activity of BRG1. Thus, considering that BRM and ARID1A/B are not part of PBAF, the different SWI/SNF complexes may have multiple functions in DSB repair, including promoting NHEJ by stimulating KU70/KU80 recruitment

(via BAF) and chromatin remodeling-mediated transcription silencing (via PBAF). Moreover, SWI/SNF may promote HR by facilitating DNA end resection and/or RAD51 loading (via both BAF and PBAF) (Fig. 2). It thus seems possible that a BAFFling collection of different SWI/SNF complexes, some of which may even have opposing functions, are localized to or near DNA damage and simultaneously stimulate HR as well as NHEJ in the same cell. It could be that SWI/SNF complexes act in parallel at distinct sites dependent on the chromatin status or in concert at different distances with respect to the lesion. Obviously, more and innovative research is necessary to better understand how the proposed different mechanisms of recruitment and multiple activities at sites of damage are coordinated and which exact activities distinguish each separate SWI/SNF complex at sites of DSBs.

3.2 Nucleotide excision repair

Depletion or inactivation of SWI/SNF subunits significantly increases cellular sensitivity to UV and platinum drugs such as cisplatin^{48,51,64}, suggesting the involvement of SWI/SNF in NER. This versatile repair process detects and removes a wide range of unrelated helix-distorting lesions, such as bulky-adducts and drug-induced (e.g., cisplatin) crosslinks, as well as the main UV-induced photoproducts, cyclobutane-pyrimidine dimers (CPDs) and 6-4 pyrimidine-pyrimidone photoproducts (6-4PPs)^{65,66}. This unique ability of the NER pathway not only protects cells against cancer and aging by preventing mutagenesis and genomic instability, but it also provides cancer cells with a defense line against chemotherapeutic platinum drugs^{67,68}.

Two distinct DNA damage recognition routes can trigger NER, depending on the location of DNA lesions. When RNA Polymerase II gets stalled by lesions in the transcribing strand of active genes, transcription-coupled NER (TC-NER) is initiated by the recruitment of CSB/ERCC6, CSA/ERCC8 and UVSSA proteins⁶⁶. Lesions located anywhere in the genome are detected by global genome NER (GG-NER), which is initiated by the damage sensor complex XPC-RAD23B-CETN2^{65,66,69}. Although XPC can recognize a wide range of helix-distorting lesions, it requires the auxiliary function of the UV-DDB complex, consisting of DDB1 and DDB2, to specifically and efficiently recognize UV-induced photolesions, in particular CPDs.

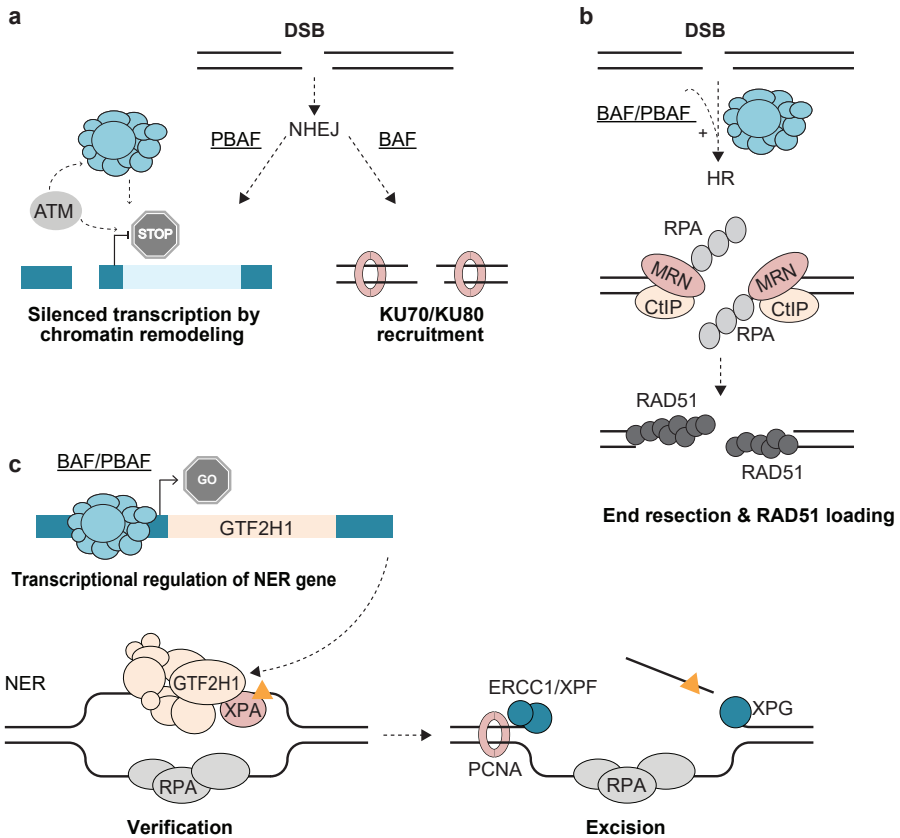


Figure 2. SWI/SNF ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complexes functions in DDR. (a) PBAF complexes, via their chromatin remodeling activity, were found to mediate transcription silencing near DSBs, in an ATM-dependent way. On the other hand, BAF complexes seem to have a distinct function in promoting NHEJ, by stimulating the recruitment of KU70/KU80. (b) Both BAF and PBAF complexes are implicated in promoting HR-associated end resection and/or RPA and RAD51 loading. (c) Unlike for NHEJ and HR, SWI/SNF activity only indirectly affects NER. BRM- and BRG1-containing SWI/SNF complexes promote the expression of the NER gene, GTF2H1, which is essential for damage verification by TFIIH. In turn, verification is required for the assembly of late NER proteins on UV damage (XPA, RPA, ERCC1, XPF, XPG and PCNA).

Following lesion detection, the ten subunit Transcription Factor IIIH (TFIIH) complex is recruited to damage by interacting with XPC or UVSSA⁷⁰ and anchored through its XPB/ERCC3 and p62/GTF2H1 subunits. Using its XPD/ERCC2 helicase subunit, TFIIH then verifies the presence of genuine NER substrates^{66,69}, assisted by XPA. XPA and RPA stabilize this intermediate and adequately orient the structure-specific endonucleases XPF/ERCC4-ERCC1 and XPG/ERCC5. After dual incision, a stretch of 22-30 nucleotides is excised and the resulting single-stranded gap is filled by DNA synthesis

and finally ligated^{65,66,69}.

Rearrangement of the nucleosome structure following UV damage⁷¹ has triggered intense research on a possible function of ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers in NER by facilitating access to DNA. Numerous studies based on *in vitro* excision repair assays have shown that nucleosomes form a barrier to an efficient NER reaction and that DNA lesions are more easily repaired on naked than on chromatinized DNA^{72–74}. Furthermore, the yeast SWI/SNF complex was found to increase accessibility and incision of damaged DNA within *in vitro* reconstituted mononucleosomes^{75,76}, suggesting that SWI/SNF could stimulate repair via chromatin remodeling activity. This idea is further supported by several studies in yeast and mammalian cells. For instance, yeast SWI/SNF subunits Snf5 and Snf6 were found to interact in a UV-dependent manner with Rad4, the yeast orthologue of XPC, and to stimulate UV-induced chromatin relaxation⁷⁷. Studies using mammalian cells have also provided evidence that SWI/SNF and NER proteins interact, suggestive of a conserved function. Unfortunately, these studies have not been unambiguous in providing a precise mechanism of how mammalian SWI/SNF might be involved in NER. One study reported that BRG1 interacts with DDB2 in chromatin to facilitate XPC recruitment, suggesting that SWI/SNF might stimulate lesion detection, possibly by facilitating chromatin access⁷⁸. However, this model is challenged by several other studies showing that SWI/SNF promotes late NER steps rather than early lesion detection. For instance, BRG1 itself was reported to be recruited to UV damage, in an XPC-dependent way, to promote the recruitment of late NER factors XPG and PCNA but not of XPC⁷⁹. Accordingly, knockdown of BRG1 and BRM was described to impair recruitment of the late NER factor ERCC1 to cisplatin lesions without affecting XPC⁵¹. Moreover, SNF5 was found to interact with XPC, but not to regulate its recruitment but rather that of ATM⁸⁰. Finally, depletion of ARID1A/B was found to reduce XPA recruitment, but not XPC recruitment, to damaged DNA⁶⁴. Thus, there is substantial evidence supporting an evolutionarily conserved role of SWI/SNF in NER, even though contradicting findings obscure a clear deduction on its exact involvement.

The already challenging dissection of SWI/SNF function in NER is even

further convoluted since several studies have suggested that loss of SWI/SNF subunits (BRM, BRG1, SNF5) impairs the removal of CPDs, but not of 6-4PPs⁷⁸⁻⁸¹. It is difficult to envision how SWI/SNF deficiency could only impair CPD removal when SWI/SNF promotes the recruitment of NER factors, such as XPC and XPG, which are crucial for the repair of both CPDs and 6-4PPs. However, it has been observed that a specific mutation in the NER gene (XPD) affects the repair of CPDs more than that of 6-4PPs⁸². In addition, DNA damage is not distributed randomly and the repair kinetics of 6-4PPs and CPDs are dramatically different^{83,84}. Since 6-4PPs are predominantly formed in internucleosomal DNA, they may not require chromatin remodeling by SWI/SNF to be efficiently processed. On the other hand, in another study it was shown that 6-4PPs removal is impaired after ARID1A/B depletion⁶⁴.

In an attempt to gain more insight into the main role of SWI/SNF in the response to UV-induced DNA damage, and because most studies have focused on BRG1 or SNF5, we recently investigated a putative role of BRM in NER⁸⁵. This study was also triggered by our previous finding that in the model organism *C. elegans* multiple SWI/SNF subunits, including BRG1/BRM, SNF5, BAF180, BAF155, and ARID1A/B, are essential for optimal UV survival⁴⁸ (and unpublished results). We found that knockdown of BRM in human cells impaired both GG- and TC-NER activity, to the same extent as did BRG1 depletion. Importantly, while recruitment of DDB2, XPC, and CSB to local UV damage sites was unaffected by BRM depletion, recruitment of proteins downstream of these damage sensors, i.e., TFIIH, XPA, and XPF, was severely impaired. These results are in line with the previously reported reduced recruitment of XPA, XPG, ERCC1, and PCNA following BRG1 or BRM depletion^{51,64,79,85}. These observations thus indicate that SWI/SNF activity mainly facilitates late NER steps, rather than damage detection. Consequently, after depletion of SWI/SNF, the overall damage excision is reduced.

Strikingly, we were unable to observe BRM or BRG1 recruitment to local sites of UV damage, even using a dedicated UV-C laser to induce a high local concentration of DNA damage to which regular NER proteins localize⁸⁶. Moreover, we could also not confirm the proposed interactions of BRM and BRG1 with TFIIH⁸⁵, nor with DDB2 and XPC (unpublished

results). However, following BRG1 or BRM knockdown we observed a significant reduction in mRNA and protein levels of the TFIIH subunit GTF2H1, resulting in impaired TFIIH complex assembly. These observations suggest that the affected NER function upon SWI/SNF depletion is merely an indirect consequence of impaired *GTF2H1* gene expression, rather than a direct role of SWI/SNF in NER. Indeed, we found that both BRG1 and BRM associate with the promoter of *GTF2H1*, irrespective of whether there is UV damage or not, corroborating the idea that SWI/SNF promotes the expression of *GTF2H1*. Since assembly and functionality of the TFIIH complex were shown to depend on the cellular concentration of its subunits^{87–89}, it is therefore likely that reduced GTF2H1 protein levels limit the availability of fully assembled functional TFIIH complexes to act in transcription initiation and NER. Damage verification by TFIIH is crucial to the assembly of late NER proteins on UV damage. Thus, reduced damage verification as a consequence of SWI/SNF inactivation explains the reduced recruitment of XPA, ERCC1, XPF, XPG and PCNA to DNA damage and consequent hypersensitivity of cells to UV^{51,64,79,81,85}.

It is surprising to note that the role of SWI/SNF chromatin remodelers in both DSB repair and NER is rather convoluted, making it difficult, if not impossible, to draw a uniform mode of their action in the DDR. However, given the fact that the function of SWI/SNF in transcription regulation is also fairly ambiguous, with even opposing gene-dependent and chromatin-context-dependent effects, this may not be entirely unforeseen. Transcription regulation depends on the intricate interplay between cis-acting transcription-regulatory elements in the template DNA, availability of general and gene-specific transcription factors, activation by cell-intrinsic and environmental cues, post-translational chromatin modifications and chromatin compaction. This multi-layered control over gene expression likely explains the ambiguity of SWI/SNF (and possibly of other chromatin modifiers alike) in this process and its diverse and likely dynamic composition. However, unlike transcription that is commonly scheduled and takes place at a defined genomic locus, DNA repair has to occur at any given moment and anywhere in the genome⁹⁰ due to the stochasticity of DNA damage. This likely adds another degree of complexity, making it even more challenging to elucidate the multiple functions of SWI/SNF in the DDR.

4. SWI/SNF, DDR and cancer

4.1 SWI/SNF and NER deficiency in cancer

Since SWI/SNF is often mutated in cancer, we aimed at understanding whether cells with chronic SWI/SNF deficiency also have NER defects. Strikingly, we noticed that GTF2H1 levels were not altered in several established SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cell lines regularly used in lab research⁸⁵. To understand the cause of this unexpected observation, we generated CRISPR/Cas9-mediated BRM and BRG1 knockout human fibroblasts. Surprisingly, upon extended culturing, we found that most cells with a permanent knockout of either SWI/SNF ATPase have the ability to restore expression of GTF2H1. However, we noticed that in some sub-populations of cells GTF2H1 expression remains low. Accordingly, we noticed that sensitivity to DNA damaging agents of BRM-knockout cells was directly linked to the expression levels of GTF2H1, as only cells that retained lowered GTF2H1 expression were hypersensitive to UV and cisplatin. Thus, SWI/SNF inactivation creates a potential vulnerability of cells to DNA damaging agents, as a consequence of GTF2H1 downregulation (Fig. 2). Therefore, we propose that GTF2H1 expression levels could serve as a potential biomarker to screen SWI/SNF cancers for increased sensitivity to chemotherapeutic drugs, such as cisplatin, even before therapy begins. However, efforts are needed to test if indeed GTF2H1 levels are reduced across primary SWI/SNF cancers and to determine its suitability as a predictive marker for cisplatin sensitivity.

The ability of chronic BRM- and/or BRG1-deficient cells to adapt and upregulate GTF2H1 levels likely explains why established SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cell lines do not show reduced GTF2H1 levels. Also, it could explain why contradicting observations exist regarding cellular sensitivities to DNA damage of SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cells^{91,92}. Similar adaptation to the loss of one or more SWI/SNF ATPases or subunits has been described for other regulatory functions of SWI/SNF outside DNA repair. It appears that BRG1 and BRM can at least partially compensate for each other's essential functions^{93–96}, as cells with inactivating mutations in BRG1 strongly rely on BRM to sustain a minimal degree of SWI/SNF functionality to support cellular viability^{93,94}. Also, the viability of ARID1A mutant cancer cells strongly depends on the, otherwise non-

essential, ARID1B subunit⁹⁷. How cells compensate for the loss of BRM and/or BRG1, ARID1A and/or ARID1B, is yet unknown. BRM and BRG1 are similarly distributed across regulatory regions of the genome where they act either cooperatively or competitively to regulate transcription⁹⁸. Interestingly, loss of either ATPase at certain regions often leads to concomitant loss of the other ATPase as well. Depending on which other transcriptional regulators are associated with these regions, which can be either activating or repressing, transcription of genes can be up- or downregulated when SWI/SNF is inactivated. The existence of such multiple transcriptional control layers, including other families of ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers, could explain why cells are able to (partially) compensate for the loss of SWI/SNF activity. Possibly, in time, GTF2H1 is also upregulated in chronic SWI/SNF-deficient cells due to the activity of such yet unidentified secondary transcriptional activator(s). In any case, identification of the compensatory mechanisms and chromatin regulators that lead to GTF2H1 upregulation is fundamental. Hopefully, such insight would allow us to exploit these compensatory mechanisms therapeutically by rendering SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cells specifically hypersensitive to DNA damaging treatments.

Thus far, the relevance of only a selected group of SWI/SNF subunits to the DDR has been studied while many more subunits are found to be mutated or silenced in cancer (Table 1). The involvement of these subunits in DNA repair is not yet known, but dissecting their precise function in response to DNA damage could contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of SWI/SNF-deficiency in cancer. Therefore, future studies should consider whether additional subunits are relevant to DNA repair as well. In addition, it is also interesting to study whether SWI/SNF is involved in additional DNA repair pathways as well and what its precise activity in each repair pathway is. For instance, besides DSB repair and NER, BRG1 has been found to support repair of inter-strand crosslinks, together with BRCA1 and FANCD2, to help maintain the differentiation status of human mammary epithelial cells and suppress breast cancer⁹⁹. Also, a stimulatory function in base excision repair *in vitro* and yeast cells was proposed¹⁰⁰. However, its exact involvement in these repair pathways is even less clear and scrutinized than in DSB repair and NER.

4.2 Therapeutic perspectives

Given the high incidence of SWI/SNF mutations in different cancers and their involvement in multiple DDR pathways, it would be advantageous to aim future studies at therapeutically exploiting defects in DNA repair due to SWI/SNF-deficiency. For instance, the importance of SWI/SNF to HR suggests that SWI/SNF-deficient cancers could be specifically treated with PARP inhibitors (PARPi), which efficiently and specifically kill HR-deficient cancer cells and are currently also clinically applied against BRCA1-deficient cancers¹⁰¹. Indeed, it was shown that ARID1A-deficiency sensitizes cancer cells to PARPi both in cultured cells and *in vivo*⁵⁵. A recently published functional HR assay on *ex vivo* fresh tissue samples, RECAP¹⁰², has proven to reliably identify breast cancer tumors with HR-deficiency that are thus sensitive to PARPi treatment. Moreover, with this novel method, the use of PARPi could potentially be extended beyond cancers harboring germline mutations in *BRCA1/2*. Hence, it could be advantageous also to test the HR capacity of SWI/SNF-deficient tumors and to use this assay to predict their sensitivity to PARPi. To increase efficacy, such therapeutic strategies that exploit DDR defects may be combined with other recently discovered therapeutic approaches targeting other SWI/SNF-deficiency-induced susceptibilities. Interestingly, ARID1A-deficient cells are also vulnerable to other forms of treatment, such as small molecule inhibitors of HDAC6, whose upregulation in ARID1A-deficient ovarian cancers inactivates p53 and protects cancer cells from apoptosis¹⁰³. Also, ATR inhibitors selectively kill ARID1A-deficient cancer cells due to defects in TOPII α and cell cycle activity that activate ATR-dependent checkpoint signaling¹⁰⁴. Since SWI/SNF-deficient tumors may be hypersensitive to DNA damage due to defects in DNA repair pathways^{49,85}, it would thus be beneficial to consider combined therapeutic approaches utilizing PARP, ATR or HDAC6 inhibitors and cisplatin in SWI/SNF cancers.

5. Conclusions

Due to its many functions, it is highly plausible that SWI/SNF complexes affect the DDR besides merely facilitating access of repair factors to DNA damage. However, it is currently a challenge to disentangle their precise activities in DDR from their many other cellular functions, including general

maintenance of chromatin architecture. We cannot yet answer with certainty whether different SWI/SNF complexes are specific for different DDR pathways, why certain subunits are more frequently associated with specific tumor tissues than others and whether this is relevant to genome stability or not. Furthermore, loss of SWI/SNF activity can be compensated by, at least in part, other SWI/SNF complexes or redundant mechanisms that take over in the absence of SWI/SNF activity. SWI/SNF-deficient cancer cells likely rely on these “backup” mechanisms, which could allow them to acquire resistance to certain cancer therapies but will also make them specifically vulnerable to newly developed therapies. Mapping of the exact contributions of SWI/SNF in DDR and its functionally redundant backup mechanisms is therefore crucial to understand how SWI/SNF inactivation promotes tumorigenesis and to develop efficient and precise therapies for SWI/SNF cancers.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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**Concluding remarks &
future directions**

6

Functions of ATP-dependent chromatin remodelers in nucleotide excision repair

A competent DNA damage response (DDR) is vital to the maintenance of genome stability and human health, and defects in this response are intimately linked to tumorigenesis and age-related diseases. Chromatin often imposes a barrier to DNA-associated processes, including the repair of DNA. Still, DNA is accurately repaired in the chromatin environment, implying that chromatin provides a dynamic platform for controlled DNA accessibility, which allows timely changes in its structure that are crucial for DNA transactions to occur efficiently. Cooperatively, chromatin modifiers such as chromatin remodelers, histone modifiers and chaperones, change the chromatin landscape and transiently rearrange nucleosomal distribution to facilitate repair of lesions¹⁻⁴. Genetic defects in these chromatin modifiers, in particular in chromatin remodelers, are associated with different clinical disorders, including immunodeficiency, neurodevelopmental problems and cancer.

It seems certain that chromatin changes occur during the UV-induced DDR (UV-DDR), seeing that many different chromatin remodeling proteins and complexes are found to act concertedly at different steps of the repair process² and that changes in histone occupancy and modifications take place at sites of damage⁴⁻⁷. It is widely accepted in the field of DNA repair that chromatin remodelers play an important role in early chromatin rearrangement events that facilitate access of repair proteins to DNA lesions and their consequent removal^{2,4,8,9}. In this thesis, in **Chapters 2**¹⁰ and **4**, we studied how the SWI/SNF and CHD1 chromatin remodeling proteins might contribute to the maintenance of genome stability via their activity in promoting nucleotide excision repair (NER). Although their function in NER has been investigated before¹⁰⁻¹⁴, full understanding of the involvement and activity of these and other chromatin remodelers in the UV-DDR is still lacking. This is not surprising, given that likely most of these chromatin remodelers are not essential for NER but only have an (often redundant) regulatory role in promoting its activity. Also, most chromatin remodeler complexes have multiple cellular functions that can indirectly meddle with DNA repair mechanisms and make it challenging to define their function in repair. Furthermore, ATP-dependent chromatin

remodelers appear to have different functions in each DDR pathway². One of the major questions that is still unanswered, in particular in the field of mammalian NER, is whether each complex performs actual chromatin remodeling near the DNA lesion (before and/or after repair) or whether it can have other, as-of-yet uncharacterized functions.

In **Chapter 2**¹⁰ we provide evidence for a role of SWI/SNF in transcription that indirectly promotes NER. Both ATPase subunits of the SWI/SNF complexes, BRM and BRG1, promote the expression of the essential TFIID subunit GTF2H1, thereby facilitating the stability and functionality of the TFIID complex, both in transcription and in NER. We were unable to find evidence for a direct function of SWI/SNF during the repair of UV-induced DNA damage. However, our proposed transcriptional activity in promoting NER can explain observations described in literature after BRG1 loss that seemed until now incompatible, such as the observed reduced recruitment of XPC, XPA, ERCC1, XPG and PCNA to DNA damage after BRG1 loss which ultimately results in hypersensitivity to UV^{10,12,15–17}. The implications of our findings described in **Chapter 2**¹⁰ are more extensively discussed in **Chapter 5**¹⁸, where multiple emerging functions of SWI/SNF proteins in the DDR are described and discussed, and a link between SWI/SNF-deficiency-induced DDR-vulnerability and precision cancer therapy is explored.

Like SWI/SNF, proteins of the CHD family are well-known regulators of transcription^{19,20} and several proteins of this family have also been linked to the maintenance of genome stability through new roles in different DDR pathways^{21–23}. Curiously, only very recently it was shown that the CHD1 protein functions in the DDR, specifically in an early step of the response to double-strand breaks (DSBs) by facilitating the recruitment of homologous recombination proteins^{24–26}. Even though depletion of this chromatin remodeling protein was found to sensitize cells to helix-distorting DNA crosslinks recognized and repaired by NER²⁷, no role for CHD1 in the UV-DDR had been explored at the time we started our investigation. In **Chapter 4**, we show that the expression of CHD1 is required for optimal cell survival following UV-irradiation. Despite our extensive efforts, it remains unfortunately unclear how CHD1 is recruited to UV-C damage and whether this recruitment is related to a function in

NER, as is suggested by the diminished survival and unscheduled DNA synthesis (UDS) assays after CHD1 knockdown. Possibly, CHD1 recruitment precedes NER or happens independently of NER, while somehow still facilitating lesion excision by NER. During our investigation, a paper was published describing that CHD1 activity facilitates the recruitment of core NER factors via the displacement of XPC¹⁴. Based on our results and despite using similar techniques, we were unable to draw the same conclusions. Given these contradicting results, it would be interesting to investigate in more detail CHD1's function in NER. Possibly, CHD1 is only needed for repair of one type of photolesions, or only in a specific chromatin environment. Therefore, it should be tested whether CHD1 is required for the removal of CPDs or 6-4PPs, using specific antibodies in IF or ELISA procedures²⁸. If CHD1 is found to specifically affect only the repair of one type of photolesion, dedicated photolyases, specific for either CPDs or 6-4PPs, could be used to remove the non-relevant photolesion and to measure if detection and repair of the other photolesion depends on CHD1 activity. Photolyases are proteins that, using a mechanism known as photo-reactivation^{29,30}, can directly and precisely repair either CPDs or 6-4PPs lesions in a very short amount of time (≈ 1 ns)³¹. Their discovery has enabled the successful identification of specific cellular responses to either type of UV lesions in the past^{30,32} and it could also be coupled to the investigation of CHD1 function in NER.

In **Chapters 2** and **4**, we used recovery of RNA synthesis after UV-induced damage as a measure for a function of SWI/SNF and CHD1 proteins in transcription-coupled NER (TC-NER). However, because transcription and not repair itself is measured, this assay is only an indirect indication of DNA repair capacity. Given the transcriptional roles of both these chromatin remodelers, it may be better to confirm a role in TC-NER by measuring DNA repair more directly. A suited assay to directly measure their involvement in TC-NER is the recently modified single-cell unscheduled DNA synthesis (UDS) assay, which has increased sensitivity when compared to a traditional UDS. This amplified UDS method³³, performed in global-genome-NER (GG-NER) deficient cells, allows the quantification of TC-NER activity only. It would be useful to use this improved assay to test whether depletion of CHD1, SWI/SNF or any other chromatin remodeler affects repair by TC-NER and whether it also or only affects transcription restart.

Furthermore, using an unbiased proteomics approach, it should be investigated which proteins interact with CHD1 after UV irradiation. This might help to identify the histones and/or NER proteins that are regulated by CHD1 during the UV-DDR, such that its precise activity can be better understood. One possibility would be to perform stable isotope labeling of amino acids in culture, which our lab has applied successfully in the past to identify UV-dependent interactions within NER³⁴⁻³⁶. However, because our first attempt utilizing this approach did not yield any clear candidates (results not shown) and because chromatin remodelers like CHD1 may rather have transient than strong interactions, a better option could be to use biotin ligase catalyzed proximity labeling³⁷.

Perhaps the most interesting question would be to investigate whether CHD1 facilitates lesion removal by NER by making chromatin more accessible through chromatin remodeling. For other chromatin remodelers implicated in NER, like INO80³⁸, ALC1³⁹ and SMARCA5⁴⁰, this is also still an unanswered question. Specific mutations in CHD1 that inactivate its ATPase activity could be used to determine whether its chromatin remodeling activity is required for its recruitment to damaged DNA and the stimulation of UDS and survival. Besides, an assay should be developed which faithfully measures chromatin remodeling at sites of UV damage. For histone chaperones HIRA and FACT, SNAP-tag technology⁴¹ and quantitative fluorescence imaging techniques⁶ have been used to measure histone dynamics in chromatin after UV. Possibly, these technologies could be applied to study chromatin remodeling by CHD1 as well. Another possibility would be to measure chromatin accessibility in a locus-specific manner, which would be advantageous to determine whether CHD1 is needed in specific chromatin environments. For instance, using the chromatin accessibility by quantitative PCR (CHART-qPCR) assay⁴², chromatin remodeling events could be detected with high sensitivity in specific chromatin environments damaged by UV. The assay is based on the principle that accessible chromatin is more easily digested by nucleases, coupled with analysis of the nuclease- and mock-treated samples for a particular gene by qPCR⁴² (Fig. 1). In this assay, UV-induced chromatin remodeling, to create more accessible chromatin, would show a larger Cq shift between digested and undigested samples. It would be valuable to test the accessibility of different chromatin environments before and

after UV irradiation, in CDH1- proficient or deficient cells. If successfully implemented to observe local UV-induced chromatin changes, this approach could be used to screen for the involvement of other chromatin remodelers as well and scrutinize their potential chromatin remodeling functions in NER.

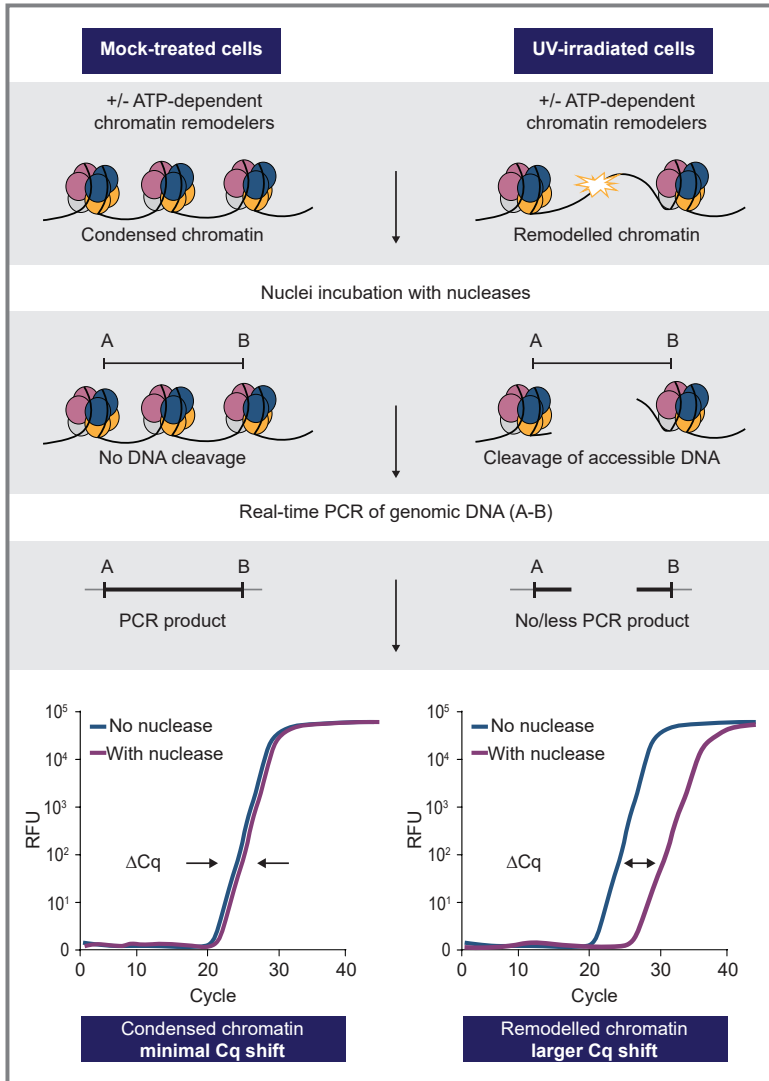


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the CHART-qPCR for the identification of chromatin remodelers with chromatin remodeling function in the UV-DDR. Nuclei extracted from cells either mock- or UV-treated, are incubated with nucleases. If UV-irradiation induces the remodeling of chromatin, DNA will be more accessible to cleavage near the lesion. This increased digestion can be detected by qPCR as an increase in the Cq value. Depletion of chromatin remodelers prior to UV-irradiation will show their participation in this

chromatin rearrangement event(s). The spheres in the top panel represent the nucleosomal core histones. The star depicts the position of the UV-induced DNA damage.

Spatiotemporal control of damage handover in GG-NER

More than 30 repair factors are involved in lesion removal by NER; their assembly into functional repair complexes and subsequent dissociation - once their job is done - must be tightly controlled both in time and space, for proper damage handover, efficient repair and to avoid illegitimate or uncontrolled action of repair enzymes, such as non-scheduled incisions. This dynamic repair complex assembly and disassembly likely involves regulation by post-translation modifications (PTMs) to control localization, interactions, timely function and/or stability of individual repair proteins. Ubiquitylation is one example of a PTM that is particularly important during damage detection in both TC- and GG-NER⁴³. In **Chapter 3**, we studied damage detection by and handover from the DDB2-associated CRL4 ubiquitin-ligase complex (CRL4^{DDB2}). This complex is a key player in the UV-induced ubiquitylation in GG-NER, whose main targets are XPC, the E3 ubiquitin ligase adaptor DDB2 itself and core histones⁴⁴⁻⁴⁷. Interestingly, ubiquitylation of both GG-NER sensors has distinct consequences, as it decreases DDB2's affinity for damaged DNA but increases that of XPC (*in vitro*)^{44,48}. Furthermore, CRL4^{DDB2}-mediated ubiquitylation was shown to promote DDB2 release from damaged chromatin via the recruitment of the segregase VCP, an ATP-driven molecular chaperone that interacts with K48-linked polyubiquitin chains and directs its clients to the proteasomal degradation machinery^{46,49-51}. Yet, it is surprising that only DDB2 - and not XPC as well - is degraded following CRL4^{DDB2}-mediated ubiquitylation⁴⁴. Thus, the same type of PTM can differentially regulate the activity and fate of DNA repair proteins.

PTMs other than ubiquitylation have also been reported to control both DDB2 and XPC activity, including SUMOylation⁵²⁻⁵⁴, phosphorylation⁵⁵ and PARYlation^{39,56-58}. For example, it has been proposed that the poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase 1 (PARP1) collaborates with DDB2 to increase the efficiency of lesion recognition by GG-NER; likely PARP1 directly PARYlates DDB2, thus regulating its binding capacity, interaction with XPC and/or degradation after UV damage^{39,57}. Because PARP1 inhibition was found

to block chromatin remodeling of UV-damaged chromatin⁵⁹, it is also conceivable that PARP1 activity promotes chromatin remodeling³⁹ during damage detection, which might influence the binding of DDB2 and XPC. Therefore, it would be interesting to investigate how these PTMs may be controlling the dynamic damage handover between NER initiation and verification factors. This could be achieved by using specific inhibitors, such as PARP inhibitors, or by identification of the modified residues by mass spectrometry, followed by their mutation.

Although it has been known for a long time that DDB2 is degraded upon DNA damage induction^{44,48,60}, the exact function of this degradation has thus far been unclear. Based on our results described in **Chapter 3**, we propose that a main function of DDB2 degradation is to prevent its excessive rebinding of lesions, which could potentially interfere with assembly of the downstream NER damage verification machinery. However, DDB2 degradation after DNA damage induction may also serve other purposes. Different views on the function of DDB2 degradation can be found in literature. For example, DDB2 degradation was suggested to be necessary for DDB1 release, so that DDB1 is available for its other (many) cellular functions⁶¹. Also, DDB2 was described to function as a molecular switch in the regulation of the cell cycle after DNA damage through the regulation of p21 levels⁶²⁻⁶⁴. Expression of both DDB2 and p21 is induced by p53⁶⁵⁻⁶⁷, yet p21 blocks cell cycle progression and inhibits apoptosis while DDB2 appears to attenuate this barrier by promoting p21 degradation after DNA damage^{62,64}. UV-induced DDB2 degradation has never been coupled to this proposed role in cell fate decision after DNA damage; however, it would be interesting to investigate a potential link between these two. In **Chapter 3**, we show that if lesions are not repaired, the continuous targeting of DDB2 molecules causes a reduction in total cellular DDB2 levels. Thus, DDB2 levels could serve as an indicator of the cell's capacity to repair UV-damage by GG-NER and accordingly favor apoptosis or cell cycle arrest. This hypothesis could be tested by inhibiting UV-induced DDB2 degradation, for instance using the DDB2 mutants described in **Chapter 3**, and testing whether this differentially impacts the cell cycle and/or apoptosis after UV irradiation.

Our hypothesis that DDB2 degradation is needed to facilitate the stable

access of XPC to DNA damage (and, thereafter, downstream NER proteins) appears most plausible as it is supported by multiple independent observations from different labs⁴⁶. For instance, experiments with NER proteins immobilized on chromatin have suggested that DDB2 and TFIIH association with XPC is mutually exclusive⁶⁸. Also, *in silico* modeling based on *in vitro* structures suggests that DDB2 and XPC cannot stably bind the same lesion simultaneously^{69–72}. In addition to the ubiquitylation of DDB2, which reduces its affinity for DNA and recruits VCP, we describe in **Chapter 3** that TFIIH recruitment promotes DDB2 dissociation. This exchange between DDB2 and TFIIH promotes the stable binding of XPC because actual recognition of DNA damage by XPC is likely reciprocally stimulated by its interaction with TFIIH and, in particular, by its damage verification activity. Our results, presented in **Chapter 3**, show that the stable binding of XPC also requires XPA, which stimulates the helicase activity of TFIIH subunit XPD via the dissociation of the CAK sub-complex⁷³. Therefore, in accord with literature, we propose the scenario in which TFIIH first interacts with XPC, via its XPB subunit, after which the blocking of XPD helicase activity by a lesion allows the TFIIH subunit GTF2H1 to interact with XPC⁷¹. This damage verification further stabilizes the XPC-TFIIH-DNA complex. It would be interesting to confirm this by investigating DDB2 and XPC recruitment and binding to DNA damage in cells with specific XPD helicase mutations that block the damage verification but leave XPB-mediated TFIIH recruitment still intact. With the advance of CRISPR/Cas9-based gene-editing technologies, it will be possible to introduce such mutations in cell lines expressing fluorescent XPC, DDB2, and XPB and investigate this using similar imaging technologies as described in **Chapter 3**.

DDB2 dissociation from DNA, to make room for downstream NER factors, is as essential as its association to DNA damage, because defects in both lead to similar impairment in XPC recruitment. Interestingly, in a similar manner, the dissociation of XPC from the damage verification complex, promoted by the RNF111-mediated ubiquitylation of XPC, is required for the loading of the downstream endonuclease XPG⁵³. These observations strongly indicate that the spatiotemporal organization of the repair reaction is regulated by a dynamic and intricate interplay between the comings and goings of different repair factors. Based on this, we believe

that cooperation and competition between NER factors and PTMs are inherent to the efficient step-by-step damage handover (and, ultimately, damage excision). Therefore, future research should focus on this interplay by determining whether similar cooperation/competition interactions exist between other NER factors. To this end, a multidisciplinary approach would be most advantageous, combining results from cell imaging experiments, as described in this thesis, with structural data from new emerging technologies such as crosslinking mass spectrometry and cryo-electron microscopy.

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Appendix



Summary

DNA, the carrier of genetic information, is vulnerable to chemical changes induced by endogenous and exogenous DNA damaging agents that compromise its integrity and functionality. Daily, each of our cells is confronted with over ten thousand new DNA lesions with immediate and long-term effects, if left unrepaired. In particular, DNA damage greatly contributes to genome instability by interfering with essential genome processes, such as replication and transcription. This can also result in mutations that alter our genetic information and favor tumorigenesis. Accumulation of DNA damage and their consequent disturbance of vital genome processes are also important contributors to aging. It is thus crucial to safeguard DNA's integrity by swiftly repairing damaged DNA at any genomic location and time.

Cells are equipped with a DNA damage response (DDR), which comprises several signaling pathways and specialized DNA repair mechanisms, to avoid the fallouts of DNA injuries. An overview of the different DNA repair mechanisms is presented in **Chapter 1**, with a focus on nucleotide excision repair (NER) - which is the main topic of this thesis. Additionally, the role of chromatin and chromatin-modifying enzymes as integral players in the UV-induced DDR is described. NER is an essential DNA damage repair mechanism that removes a wide variety of helix-distorting DNA lesions, including UV-light and platinum drug-induced lesions. NER thereby protects healthy cells against cancer and aging, but unfortunately also cancer cells against chemotherapy.

SWI/SNF chromatin remodelers, which are frequently found mutated in cancer, have been implicated in transcription and multiple DDR pathways, including NER. In particular, chromatin remodeling via the SWI/SNF ATPase BRG1 is hypothesized to stimulate NER, but the precise involvement of BRG1 and its less scrutinized cognate ATPase BRM in DDR remains unclear. In **Chapter 2**, we describe how SWI/SNF-promotes NER by regulating the transcription of GTF2H1, a subunit of the basal transcription and NER factor TFIIH, which is necessary for the stable assembly of functional TFIIH complexes. Intriguingly, we observed that cancer cells and fibroblasts with permanent loss or inactivation of BRM or BRG1 can adapt to restore

normal GTF2H1 expression (in a SWI/SNF-independent manner). The DNA damage sensitivity of SWI/SNF-deficient cells therefore correlates with GTF2H1 expression, i.e., only cells that retain low GTF2H1 are hypersensitive to DNA damaging agents. This finding exposes a vulnerability of SWI/SNF-mutated cancers which could be specifically targeted to increase chemotherapy effectiveness.

In **Chapter 3**, we investigated the mechanism of damage handover between NER factors during global genome NER (GG-NER). GG-NER is initiated by the DNA damage sensor XPC, which upon lesion detection recruits the TFIIH complex to verify the presence of the lesion. A second DNA damage sensor, DDB2, is required for XPC to efficiently detect and bind to highly cytotoxic UV-induced photolesions that only minimally distort the DNA helix. We show that the recruitment, stable binding and dissociation of DDB2, XPC and TFIIH is tightly coordinated for proper damage handover. Although DDB2 lesion binding assists XPC recruitment, its timely dissociation – not its UV-induced degradation –, is required for DNA damage handover to XPC and coincides with the arrival of the TFIIH complex and the formation of a stable XPC-TFIIH complex. At least three main events contribute to the timely dissociation of DDB2: 1) its ubiquitylation (by the CRL4^{DDB2} E3 ubiquitin ligase complex) upon binding to DNA damage; 2) active extraction from damaged DNA by the ubiquitin-dependent VCP/p97 segregase; and 3) the recruitment of TFIIH, which intriguingly appears to exchange with DDB2. Furthermore, DDB2 homeostasis is regulated by its proteasomal degradation upon ubiquitin-mediated dissociation, which lowers effective DDB2 concentrations, preventing the continuous DDB2 rebinding to lesions, which interferes with stable XPC and TFIIH binding. Finally, we found that XPC stable association with DNA damage is reciprocally stimulated by its interaction with and damage verification by TFIIH. Our study demonstrates that reciprocal and ubiquitin-controlled coordination between damage recognition and verification factors (i.e., their competitive and cooperative binding to DNA lesions) provides precise spatiotemporal control of damage handover in GG-NER.

It is widely accepted in the field of DNA repair that chromatin remodelers play an important role in early chromatin rearrangement events that

facilitate access of repair proteins to DNA lesions and their consequent removal. CHD1 is an ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling protein recently implicated in the repair of double-strand breaks. Interestingly, loss of this chromatin remodeler also sensitizes cells to a range of DNA damaging agents that induce helix-distorting DNA crosslinks mainly processed by NER. Thus, in **Chapter 4**, we sought to explore a putative role of CHD1 in NER. We found that CHD1 activity promotes resistance to UV-induced DNA damage likely by facilitating the loading of the NER-specific endonucleases onto damaged DNA. Because we did not find any defect in the recruitment of DNA damage detection and lesion verification proteins to UV-damaged DNA, we hypothesize that CHD1 promotes progression from lesion verification to excision. Intriguingly, CHD1 recruitment to UV-induced damage appears to be independent of NER and we were unable to identify how CHD1 promotes NER. Nonetheless, given the high mutation frequency of CHD1 in prostate cancer, it is important to channel further efforts into understanding the role of CHD1 in the DDR. Such efforts may be valuable for the detection of DDR vulnerabilities caused by CHD1 deficiency that can be exploited for therapeutic approaches.

In **Chapter 5**, we offer a broad overview of the emerging roles of the SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complexes in response to DNA damage. Here we also discuss how the interplay between defects in chromatin remodelers and DDR contribute to tumorigenesis. Additionally, we reflected on SWI/SNF's tumor suppressor functions, their deficiency in cancer and, perhaps most excitingly, the potential exploitation of DDR-related vulnerabilities that arise from SWI/SNF dysfunction for precision medicine.

Finally, in **Chapter 6**, the main data and results of Chapters 2, 3 and 4 are summarized and discussed, accompanied by contemplations of future research endeavors to gain more insight in the function and fine-tuning of GG-NER, as well as to dissect CHD1's molecular function in NER.

Samenvatting

DNA, de drager van genetische informatie, is vatbaar voor chemische veranderingen die door endogene en exogene DNA-beschadigende stoffen worden veroorzaakt en die de integriteit en de functionaliteit van DNA aantasten. Dagelijks worden al onze cellen geconfronteerd met meer dan tienduizend nieuwe DNA-beschadigingen die, als ze niet worden gerepareerd, zowel directe als meer langdurige consequenties hebben. DNA-schade veroorzaakt vooral genominstabiliteit doordat het essentiële genoomprocessen zoals replicatie en transcriptie verstoort. Hierdoor leidt DNA-schade tot het ontstaan van mutaties, die de genetische informatie veranderen, waardoor tumoren kunnen ontstaan. Ophoping van DNA-schade en langdurige verstoring van genoomprocessen dragen ook in belangrijke mate bij aan het proces van veroudering. Daarom is het erg belangrijk dat de integriteit van DNA continu wordt beschermd door beschadigd DNA snel te repareren, ongeacht de genomische locatie.

De DNA-schade respons (in het Engels: DNA damage response; DDR) is een belangrijk mechanisme in cellen om de negatieve effecten van DNA-schade te voorkomen en bestaat uit verschillende signaaltransductiepaden en gespecialiseerde DNA-reparatiemechanismen. In **hoofdstuk 1** wordt een overzicht van de verschillende DNA-reparatiemechanismen gepresenteerd, met een focus op nucleotide excisie reparatie (NER) - het hoofdonderwerp van dit proefschrift -, en wordt de rol van chromatine en chromatine-modificerende enzymen als integrale spelers in de UV-geïnduceerde DDR besproken. NER is een essentieel DNA-reparatiemechanisme en kan een scala van verschillende soorten helix-verstorende DNA-schade verwijderen, inclusief het type schade dat door UV-licht en door platina-bevattende medicijnen wordt veroorzaakt. Op deze manier beschermt NER gezonde cellen tegen kanker en veroudering, maar helaas ook kankercellen tegen chemotherapie.

SWI/SNF-chromatine-reorganisatiefactoren, die vaak gemuteerd zijn in kanker, zijn betrokken bij transcriptie en meerdere DDR-mechanismen, waaronder NER. Zo wordt gedacht dat de chromatine-reorganisatie SWI/SNF-ATPase BRG1 NER stimuleert, maar de precieze functie van BRG1 en van zijn minder goed onderzochte verwante ATPase BRM in de DDR blijft

onduidelijk. In **hoofdstuk 2** beschrijven we hoe SWI/SNF NER bevordert door de transcriptie van GTF2H1 te reguleren. Het GTF2H1 eiwit is onderdeel van de basale transcriptie- en NER-factor TFIIH en nodig voor de stabiele opbouw van functionele TFIIH-complexen. Tot onze verbazing vonden we dat kankercellen en fibroblasten met permanente inactivering of verlies van BRM of BRG1 zich kunnen aanpassen en de normale GTF2H1-expressie kunnen herstellen (op een SWI/SNF-onafhankelijke manier). Om die reden correleert de DNA-schadegevoeligheid van SWI/SNF-deficiënte cellen met het expressie niveau van GTF2H1; alleen cellen die een lage GTF2H1-expressie behouden, zijn overgevoelig voor DNA-schade-inducerende agentia. Deze bevinding onthult een kwetsbaarheid van SWI/SNF-gemuteerde kankers, die specifiek zou kunnen worden uitgebuit om de effectiviteit van chemotherapie te verhogen.

In **hoofdstuk 3** onderzochten we DNA-schadeoverdracht tussen NER-factoren tijdens globaal-genoom NER (GG-NER). GG-NER wordt geïnitieerd door de DNA-schadesensor XPC, die na detectie het TFIIH-complex rekruteert om de aanwezigheid van schade te verifiëren. Een tweede DNA-schadesensor, DDB2, is nodig om XPC op efficiënte manier cytotoxische UV-geïnduceerde typen DNA-schade te laten detecteren en binden, omdat deze typen DNA-schade de DNA-helix maar minimaal destabiliseren. We laten zien dat de rekrutering, stabiele binding en dissociatie van DDB2, XPC en TFIIH nauwkeurig worden gecoördineerd voor een optimale DNA-schadeoverdracht. Hoewel binding van DNA-schade door DDB2 XPC-rekrutering bevordert, is ook een tijdige dissociatie (maar niet de UV-geïnduceerde afbraak) nodig voor de overdracht van DNA-schade aan XPC en valt deze samen met de rekrutering van het TFIIH-complex en de vorming van een stabiel XPC-TFIIH-complex. Ten minste drie processen dragen bij aan de tijdige dissociatie van DDB2: 1) de ubiquitylatie van DDB2 (door het CRL4^{DDB2} E3 ubiquitine ligase complex) bij binding aan DNA-schade; 2) actieve extractie uit beschadigd DNA door de ubiquitine-afhankelijke VCP/p97 segregase; en 3) de rekrutering van het TFIIH-complex, dat lijkt uit te wisselen met DDB2. Verder wordt de DDB2-homeostase gereguleerd door proteasomale afbraak na de ubiquitine-gemedieerde dissociatie, waardoor de effectieve DDB2 concentratie wordt verlaagd. Hierdoor wordt het continu opnieuw binden van DDB2 aan DNA-schade voorkomen, dat mogelijk de stabiele binding

van XPC en TFIIH verstoort. Ten slotte hebben we gevonden dat stabiele binding van XPC aan DNA-schade wederzijds wordt gestimuleerd door interactie met en schade-verificatie door TFIIH. Onze studie toont het bestaan aan van een nauwkeurige ruimtelijke en tijdelijke coördinatie van schadeoverdracht tijdens GG-NER door de wederzijdse en door ubiquitine gecontroleerde coördinatie tussen schadedetectie- en -verificatiefactoren (d.w.z. door hun competitieve en coöperatieve binding aan DNA-schade).

In het DNA-reparatieveld wordt algemeen aangenomen dat chromatine-reorganisatiefactoren belangrijk zijn om al vroeg in het reparatieproces de toegang van reparatie-eiwitten tot DNA-schade te reguleren, om op die manier de verwijdering van DNA-schade te vergemakkelijken. CHD1 is een ATP-afhankelijke chromatine-reorganisatie-eiwit waarvan onlangs is gevonden dat het betrokken is bij de reparatie van dubbelstrengs DNA-breuken. Cellen zonder dit chromatine-reorganisatie-eiwit zijn echter ook gevoelig voor agentia die helix-destabiliserende DNA-crosslinks veroorzaken, die voornamelijk door NER worden gerepareerd. Daarom hebben we in **hoofdstuk 4** gezocht naar een mogelijke rol van CHD1 in NER. We vonden dat CHD1 beschermend werkt tegen door UV-geïnduceerde typen DNA-schade, waarschijnlijk doordat CHD1 helpt bij de rekrutering van NER-specifieke endonucleasen op beschadigd DNA. Omdat we geen enkel defect vonden in de rekrutering van DNA-schade-, en verificatie-eiwitten naar UV-beschadigd DNA, denken we dat CHD1 specifiek de voortgang van DNA-schade verificatie naar DNA-schade-verwijdering tijdens NER stimuleert. CHD1-rekrutering naar UV-geïnduceerde DNA-schade is echter onafhankelijk van NER en we konden ook niet vaststellen hoe CHD1 precies NER bevordert. Gezien de hoge mutatiefrequentie van CHD1 in prostaatkanker is het echter belangrijk om de rol van CHD1 in de DDR beter te begrijpen. Dit kan waardevol zijn voor het opsporen van DDR-gerelateerde zwakheden veroorzaakt door CHD1-deficiëntie die kunnen worden gebruikt voor therapeutische doeleinden.

In **hoofdstuk 5** geven we een algemeen overzicht van de recentelijk gevonden functies van SWI/SNF-chromatine-reorganisatiefactoren in de respons tegen DNA-schade. We beschrijven hoe defecten in chromatine-reorganisatiefactoren en in de DDR samen kunnen bijdragen aan het ontstaan van tumoren. Verder beschouwen we de tumorsuppressorfuncties

van SWI/SNF en hoe deficiënties daarin bijdragen tot het ontstaan van kanker. Tevens, en dat is misschien nog wel het meest opwindende, hebben we de mogelijke therapeutische exploitatie van DDR-gerelateerde zwakheden veroorzaakt door SWI/SNF-dysfunctie beschreven.

Ten slotte worden in **hoofdstuk 6** de belangrijkste data en resultaten van de hoofdstukken 2, 3 en 4 samengevat en besproken, samen met de mogelijkheden om in de toekomst verder onderzoek te verrichten om meer inzicht te verkrijgen in de functie en precieze coördinatie van GG-NER alsmede in de moleculaire functie van CHD1 in NER.

Curriculum vitae

Ana Cristina Ribeiro da Silva (Cristina Ribeiro-Silva)

Date of birth: 04.01.1988

Place of birth: Lisbon, Portugal

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Education

2009-2011	MSc in Biomedical Biochemistry Faculty of Sciences, University of Lisbon Lisbon, Portugal
2006-2009	BSc in Biochemistry Faculty of Sciences, University of Lisbon Lisbon, Portugal

Work experience

Oct 2017 – March 2020	Post-Doctoral Researcher Molecular Genetics Department, Erasmus MC Rotterdam, The Netherlands
Feb 2013 – July 2017	PhD candidate in Biomedical Sciences Fellowship: Marie-Curie ITN aDDress Molecular Genetics Department, Erasmus MC Rotterdam, The Netherlands
Jan – Dec 2012	Research fellow CQB, Faculty of Sciences, University of Lisbon Lisbon, Portugal
Dec 2008 – Dec 2009	Internship Fellowship: BII grant from FCT CCMM-Faculty of Sciences, University of Lisbon Lisbon, Portugal

International activities

2015	Lab visit as ESR trainee under the Marie-Curie ITN aDDress Prof. Evi Soutoglou, Institute of Genetics and Molecular and Cellular Biology (IGBMC) Strasbourg, France
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List of Publications

Ubiquitin and TFIIH-stimulated DDB2 dissociation drives DNA damage handover in nucleotide excision repair.

[Ribeiro-Silva C](#), Sabatella M, Helfricht A, Theil AF, Vermeulen W, Lans H. Submitted.

DNA damage sensitivity of SWI/SNF-deficient cells depends on TFIIH subunit p62/GTF2H1.

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SWI/SNF: Complex complexes in genome stability and cancer.

[Ribeiro-Silva C](#), Vermeulen W, Lans H. DNA Repair (Amst). 2019 May;77:87-95. Review.

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Human ISWI complexes are targeted by SMARCA5 ATPase and SLIDE domains to help resolve lesion-stalled transcription.

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PhD Portfolio

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Copromoter: Dr. Hannes Lans

Erasmus MC Department: Molecular Genetics

Research School: Biomedical Sciences, MGC

General courses

ML-I (work permit for GMOs)	2013
ML-II (work permit for Adenovirus and Lentivirus)	2013
Safely Working in the Laboratory	2013
Biostatistical methods I: basic principles part A	2013
Biochemistry and Biophysics	2013
Cell and Developmental Biology	2014
Genetics	2014
Research Integrity	2014
Biomedical English Writing and Communication	2016

Specialized Courses

Leica Confocal Introduction Course	2013
OIC Course Functional Imaging and Super Resolution	2013
The Microscope Image Analysis: from theory to practice	2014
MGC Epigenetic Regulation in Health and Disease	2014
MGC Genome Maintenance and Cancer	2014
MGC Technology Facilities: Proteomics	2014

Teaching Assistance and Project Supervision

Practical BSc Nanobiology, Erasmus MC and TU Delft	2013, 2015, 2016
BSc student internship supervisor	2014
Master student internship supervisor	2016

Seminars, Meetings and Workshops

Annual MGC PhD Workshop	2013, 2015, 2016
Monthly MGC DNA Repair Meeting, Rotterdam/Leiden	2013-2017
Weekly Molecular Genetics work discussions	2013-2017
Amy & Friends Patientendag	2014
Indesign CS6 Workshop	2014
Photoshop and Illustrator CS6 Workshop	2014

(Inter)national Conferences and Workshops

2nd International Chromatin Symposium 2013, Egmond and Zee, The Netherlands	2013
23rd MGC Symposium, Rotterdam, The Netherlands	2013
11 th Dutch Chromatin Meeting & NVBMB Fall Symposium, Rotterdam, The Netherlands Poster presentation	2013
1 st aDDress/CodeAge 1 st Training Workshop and Annual Meeting, Milan, Italy Oral presentation	2013
PTMs in Cell Signaling, Copenhagen Bioscience Cluster, Copenhagen, Denmark Poster presentation	2014
12 th Dutch Chromatin Meeting & NVBMB Fall Symposium, Utrecht, The Netherlands Poster presentation	2014
aDDress/CodeAGE Joint Summer School and Mid Term Review, Crete, Greece Oral presentation	2014

IMB Conference: DNA repair and genome stability in a chromatin environment, Mainz, Germany Poster presentation	2015
13 th Dutch Chromatin Meeting & NVBMB Fall Symposium, Nijmegen, The Netherlands Poster presentation	2015
3 rd aDDress Annual Meeting, Cologne, Germany Oral presentation	2015
14 th Dutch Chromatin Meeting & NVBMB Fall Symposium, Leiden, The Netherlands Oral presentation	2016
Responses to DNA Damage: from molecule to disease, Egmond aan Zee, The Netherlands Poster and short oral presentation	2016
CGC annual meeting: Genomic instability in Cancer, Amsterdam, The Netherlands Poster presentation	2016
The Final aDDress & CodeAge ITN Conference, Crete, Greece Oral Presentation	2016

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"If you hear a voice within you say 'you cannot paint', then by all means paint, and that voice will be silenced."

— Vincent van Gogh

