

Nucleosides

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Intragenomic Decarboxylation of 5-Carboxy-2'-deoxycytidine

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Abstract: Cellular DNA is composed of four canonical nucleosides (dA, dC, dG and T), which form two Watson–Crick base pairs. In addition, 5-methylcytosine (mdC) may be present. The methylation of dC to mdC is known to regulate transcriptional activity. Next to these five nucleosides, the genome, particularly of stem cells, contains three additional dC derivatives, which are formed by stepwise oxidation of the methyl group of mdC with the help of Tet enzymes. These are 5-hydroxymethyl-dC (hmdC), 5-formyl-dC (fdC), and 5-carboxy-dC (cadC). It is believed that fdC and cadC are converted back into dC, which establishes an epigenetic control cycle that starts with methylation of dC to mdC, followed by oxidation and removal of fdC and cadC. While fdC was shown to undergo intragenomic deformylation to give dC directly, a similar decarboxylation of cadC was postulated but not yet observed on the genomic level. By using metabolic labelling, we show here that cadC decarboxylates in several cell types, which confirms that both fdC and cadC are nucleosides that are directly converted back to dC within the genome by C–C bond cleavage.

5-Formyl-dC (fdC) and 5-carboxy-dC (cadC) are nucleosides that are found in significant amounts in neurons and stem cells.^[1] They are formed by oxidation of 5-methyl-dC (mdC) by the action of Tet enzymes via 5-hydroxymethyl-dC (hmdC).^[2,3] hmdC is found in these genomes in large quantities. The initial methylation of dC to mdC is performed by the dedicated methyltransferases Dnmt1, -3a and -3b.^[4–7] The higher oxidized mdC derivatives, fdC and cadC are known to be removed by the repair glycosylase Tdg, which cleaves the glycosidic bond between the sugar and the corresponding base.^[8,9] The result is the formation of abasic sites that are further processed by AP endonuclease, and finally replaced by an unmodified dC (Figure 1a).^[10]

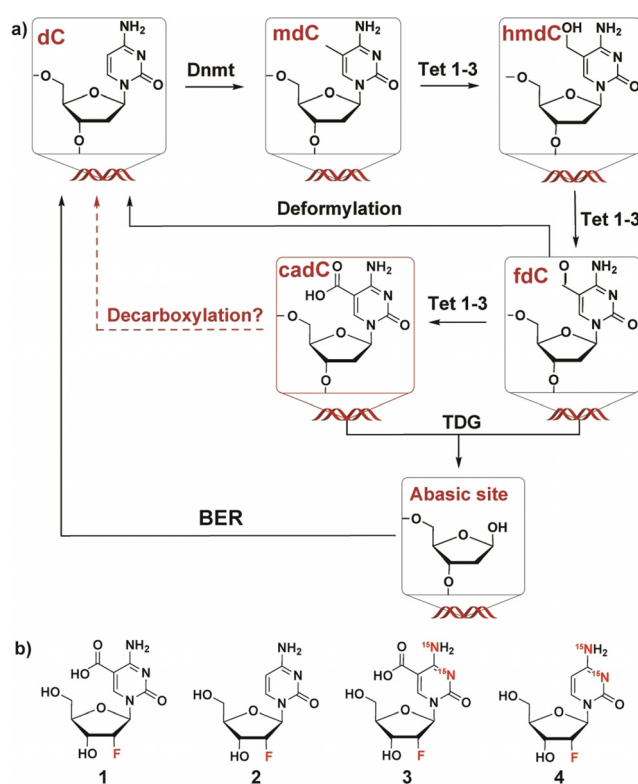


Figure 1. a) Active demethylation pathways via Tdg-mediated excision or direct deformylation and decarboxylation. b) Metabolically fed nucleoside 2'-F-cadC (1) and product nucleoside 2'-F-dC (2) formed after decarboxylation. MS reference compound [¹⁵N]₂-2'-F-cadC (3) and [¹⁵N]₂-2'-F-dC (4).^[17]

Since the discovery that methylation of dC is followed by oxidation chemistry, it was postulated that fdC and cadC might directly deformylate or decarboxylate to give dC. Chemically, these C–C bond cleavage reactions have the advantage that potentially harmful abasic site intermediates formed during Tdg-mediated active demethylation will not be generated.^[11] While for fdC, deformylation was shown to occur in vivo, for cadC just a putative decarboxylation mechanism was postulated in vitro so far.^[12,13] It is still unknown whether decarboxylation of cadC occurs in stem cells.^[13–16] Here we use our previously described metabolic labelling approach to prove that cadC, if present in the genome of stem and somatic cells, does decarboxylate.^[17,18]

Such a direct demethylation reaction in DNA by C–C bond cleavage will give a product that is identical with natural dC. Therefore, it is important to incorporate a reporter nucleoside (cadC*) into the genome of the cells, which generates a decarboxylated dC*. This product must be detectable with high accuracy in the presence of an overwhelming amount of natural dC. In the past we successfully

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experimented with 2'-fluoro-labelled nucleosides. Thus, for this study we decided to use 2'-F-cadC (**1**) as cadC* (Figure 1b).^[17] The synthesis of **1** and its triphosphate was reported by us previously.^[19,20] The 2'-F-atom ensures that the formed decarboxylated product 2'-F-dC (**2**) is readily detectable by UHPLC-MS due to the $m/z = +19$ Da mass shift relative to dC. The specific shift in retention time for fluorinated compounds also allows to distinguish them from canonical dC. This reduces an overlap of 2'-F-dC with dC, which avoids ion suppression that makes quantification of even very small quantities of product possible. The 2'-F-atom served also a second purpose. Natural cadC is barely detectable in wildtype cells.^[8] The levels, however, increase by almost two orders of magnitude, when the base excision repair (BER) pathway is interrupted by knocking out the *TDG* gene (Figure SI-6).^[21] The 2'-F substitution has the same effect. It blocks the BER process, which leads to higher amounts of detectable, incorporated 2'-F-cadC (**1**).^[19]

As a reference compound for exact quantification of **1**, we synthesized the isotopologue [¹⁵N]₂-2'-F-cadC (**3**) as an internal standard. Quantification of **2** required the standard [¹⁵N]₂-2'-F-dC (**4**, Figure 1b).

A disadvantage of using 2'-F-cadC for studying natural decarboxylation is of course the unnatural character of the nucleoside. In order to investigate if the 2'-F-atom influences the decarboxylation reaction, we saturated the C5-C6 bond of the cadC- and 2'-F-cadC-methylesters and studied the spontaneous decarboxylation behavior after ester cleavage.^[13] To our delight we found that both compounds decarboxylate in a similar manner, which lets us conclude that the effect of the 2'-F-atom is small (Figure SI-8). When we started to experiment with 2'-F-cadC **1** in cellulo, we learned that it is problematic to label the cellular genome with this compound.^[22] The negatively charged 2'-F-cadC was only taken up by cells to a small extent and in addition, its intracellular conversion to the triphosphate, as needed for incorporation into the genome, happened to be inefficient as well. It is known that the phosphorylation of cadC by kinases is inefficient.^[23]

Although we detected 2'-F-cadC (**1**) in the cytosol, we were unable to detect incorporated **1** in the genome. We had to continuously feed the cells for 3 days with **1** to reach detectable, but unquantifiable levels of **1**. After intensive experimentation with different 2'-F-cadC delivery methods, we finally succeeded with the help of a cyclodextrin transporter which was modified with a cell-penetrating peptide derivative (Figure 2).^[22] This transporter encapsulates nucleoside triphosphates and allows them to be transferred across the cell membrane. Application of this transporter was indeed successful. It allowed us to deliver the **1**-TP with only one 30 min feeding pulse in tricine buffer. After the feeding, the cells were washed, and fresh medium was applied (Figure 2).

In the first experiment, we fed Neuro-2a cells for 30 min with the **1**-TP loaded transporter. The cells were harvested after 24 hours. We then isolated the free nucleotide pool and investigated it regarding the presence of 2'-F-cadC (**1**) and 2'-F-dC (**2**). In the cytosol, we detected to our delight the presence of delivered **1**. In addition, we saw no **2** (Figure 3a). Together the data show that **1** is a stable compound that, based on our

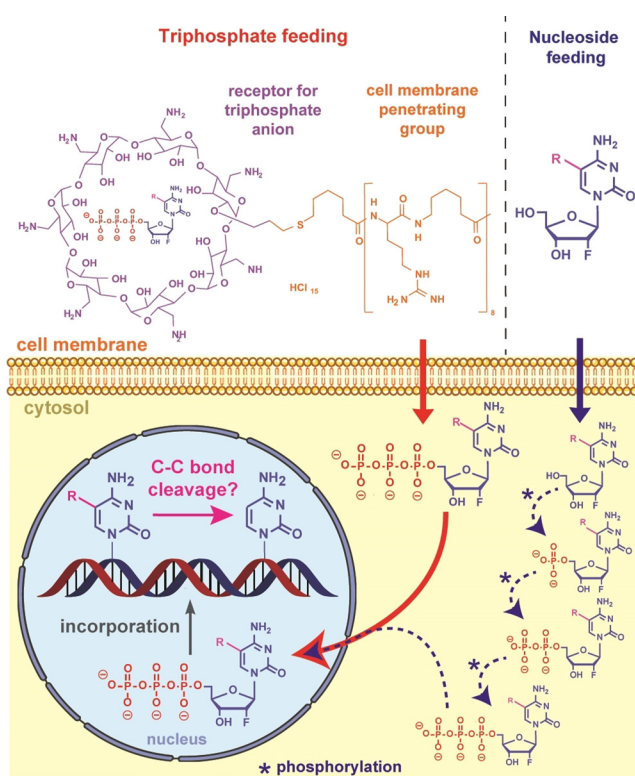


Figure 2. Experimental setup for the inefficient delivery of **1** (blue path) and the accelerated transfer of **1**-TP into cells with the help of the calixarene transporter (red path).

data, does not spontaneously decarboxylate during delivery or under physiological conditions in cells.

Next, we harvested the cells using RLT buffer (Qiagen) supplemented with 400 μM of 2,6-di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylphenol (BHT) and desferoxamine mesylate (DM) as well as β -mercaptoethanol (1:100). The genomic DNA was isolated using a spin column kit (Zymo Research) and digested according to our established method.^[18] In brief, the isolated DNA was incubated for 5 min at 95 °C, cooled down on ice and incubated with the Degradase digestion mixture (Zymo Research).

After addition of the isotope-labelled internal standards, the mixture was incubated for 4 h at 37 °C. Next, the samples were diluted with 450 μL of water and were extracted with chloroform. After lyophilization of the aqueous phase, the digested samples were resuspended in water, filtered and analyzed by UHPLC-MS/MS.^[18] In order to prove that this digestion method is efficient for 2'-F-cadC-containing DNA, we digested a short ssDNA containing a synthetically embedded **1** (Figure SI-1). Best results were obtained with the Degradase mix (Figure SI-1).^[24] We next tested the digestion using a 147-base long dsDNA (Widom 601)^[25] containing **1**. Using LC-MS, we detected all canonical DNA bases (dA, dC, dG, T) and in addition, **1** at the expected level, confirming that efficient digestion is possible using the Degradase method. In contrast to this, however, we noticed that when we added the same amount of a 2'-F-cadC-containing DNA strand to normal genomic DNA, we obtained an astonishingly small signal for 2'-F-cadC (**1**). Indeed, only 10% of the expected signal was

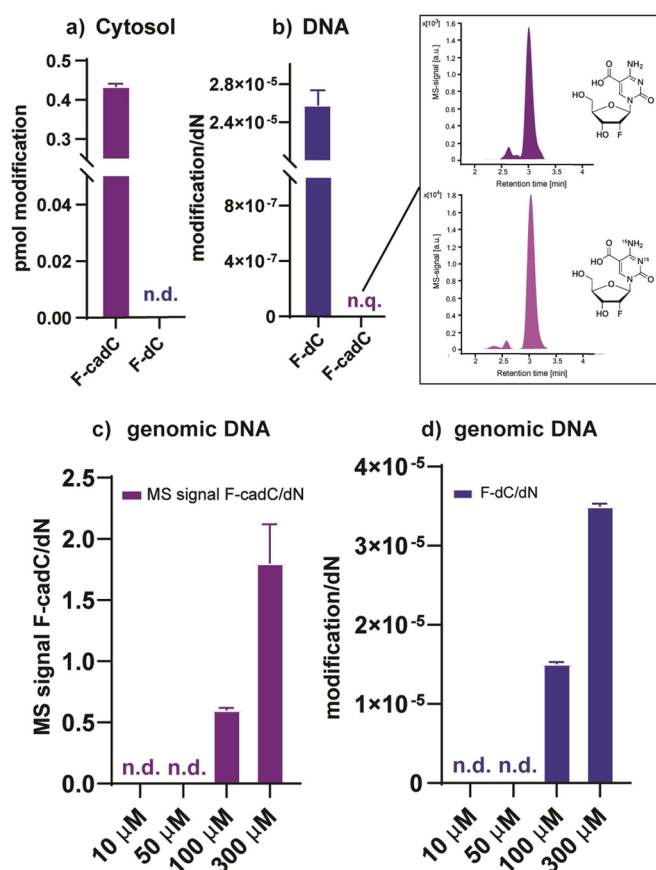


Figure 3. Metabolic feeding of 2'F-cadCTP to Neuro-2a cells. Investigation of the decarboxylation reaction a) in the cytosol and b) in genomic DNA. Dose–response data showing increased MS signal of levels of c) **1** and d) **2** after 24 h with increasing feeding concentration.

detected, arguing that the detectability of **1** is strongly reduced in a complex environment (Figure SI-2). Due to this strong signal suppression, we therefore abstained from exact quantification of **1**, using internal standard **3** in all further experiments.

To investigate the decarboxylation process, we isolated and digested genomic DNA from Neuro-2a cells fed with **1**-TP. In the above-described method, indeed we clearly detected a signal for **1** in the genome of cells fed with **1**-TP based on its retention time, which was identical with the reference compound **3** and its fragmentation pattern, which was indistinguishable from **3** (Figure 3b). To our delight, we also detected the decarboxylated product **2**, which was not seen in the cytosolic fraction. Compound **2** was detected at levels of 2.4×10^{-5} per dN, 24 h post feeding. The result shows that while the decarboxylated product **2** does not form in the cytosol by spontaneous decarboxylation, it is present in the genome, arguing that decarboxylation takes place when 2'F-cadC (**1**) is incorporated into genomic DNA.

Next, we investigated if the decarboxylation signals form in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 3c). Feeding Neuro-2a cells with final concentrations of 100 μM and 300 μM of the **1**-TP-loaded transporter gives indeed an increasing signal for

2'F-dC (**2**, Figure 3d). We also see an increase in the MS signal intensity of 2'F-cadC (**1**, Figure 3c), as expected.

Then, we performed a time-course experiment to investigate at which timepoint decarboxylation becomes detectable (Figure SI-5). We discovered that **2** is detectable only after about 8 h at the earliest, which shows that the C–C bond cleavage has a late onset (Figure SI-5a). As a control experiment, to further exclude that we detect the incorporation of an impurity, we co-fed a 100 μM solution of **1**-TP with a 1 % impurity of 2'F-dCTP (**2**-TP, Figure SI-5b). In this experiment, we see again genome-incorporated **1** and **2**, but now, **2** appeared already after 30 min.^[17] Together, the data show that the detected 2'F-dC (**2**) is formed from 2'F-cadC (**1**) by C–C bond cleavage.

In the next experiment, we analyzed deformylation of 2'F-fdC (**5**) and decarboxylation of 2'F-cadC (**1**) side by side (Figure 4a). We fed Neuro-2a cells with 2'F-fdC-TP in one experiment and with 2'F-cadC-TP in the second. We used the same amount (400 μM) of both materials and of the transporter. We then exchanged the medium and allowed the cells to recover for 24 h. Afterwards, the cells were harvested, the genomic DNA was isolated, digested and analyzed by UHPLC–MS/MS using the synthetic internal standards **4** as well as [¹⁵N]₂-2'F-fdC (**6**) for quantification (Figure 4c).

We detected clearly the fed starting material 2'F-fdC (**5**) and again only just traces (due to ion suppression and/or low incorporation) of 2'F-cadC (**1**). Despite this, the amount of the C–C bond cleavage product 2'F-dC (**2**) was higher when we fed **1**-TP compared to **5**-TP (Figure 4a). The exact quantification of **2** in both experiments, using the isotopically labelled material **4**, clearly showed more **2** derived from decarboxylation than deformylation. This interesting result

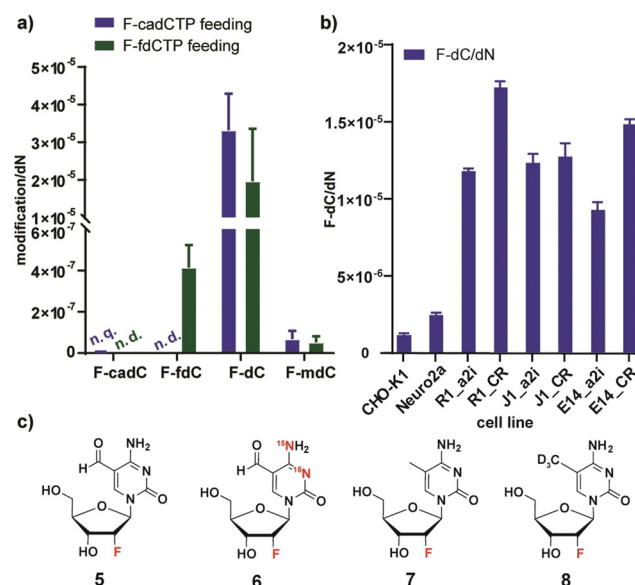


Figure 4. a) Comparison of deformylation and decarboxylation by feeding of 1-triphosphate and 5-triphosphate as well as investigation of the remethylation of the product **2**. b) Decarboxylation in different cells (J1, R1, E14). c) 2'F-fdC (**5**), 2'F-mdC (**7**), as well as the reference compounds [¹⁵N]₂-2'F-fdC (**6**) and [D₃]-2'F-mdC (**8**) needed for exact quantification.^[17]

shows that we either dramatically underestimate the genomic incorporation of **1** due to the large ion suppression, or that **1** decarboxylates to **2** more efficiently than **5** deformylates. Based on earlier chemical studies and our current knowledge of both processes, we speculate that faster decarboxylation is the factor contributing more.^[26]

We next asked the question if the product nucleoside 2'F-dC (**2**) is remethylated. To this end, we quantified the levels of 2'F-mdC (**7**) in both experiments using the internal standard [D₅] 2'F-mdC (**8**). To our delight, we clearly detected **7** in both experiments (Figure 4a). Again, higher amounts were detected from 2'F-cadCTP feeding. This result confirms that after deformylation or decarboxylation, the formed product **2** is remethylated, which suggests the presence of a putative regulatory chemical cycle that starts with methylation of dC by Dnmt enzymes to mdC, followed by oxidation of mdC to hmdC, fdC, and cadC and then deformylation and decarboxylation of fdC and cadC to dC, which could start a new circle.^[27] Interestingly, when we measured the levels of **7** formed by methylation of **2** 24 h post 1-TP feeding, we found only 0.2% methylation. When the same measurement was performed after 72 h, we measured 2.1%, very close to the natural methylation levels of Neuro-2a cells of about 2.5% (Figure SI-7). This result shows that while an early harvest allows us to detect higher amounts of 2'F-dC, the levels of 2'F-mdC are underestimated, potentially because the methyltransferases do not have sufficient time to achieve remethylation.

Finally, we studied how much decarboxylation is taking place in different cells (Figure 4b). We investigated the process in somatic (Neuro-2a, CHO-K1) and in mouse embryonic stem cells (J1, E14, R1). The stem cells were investigated at the pre-implantation and post-implantation stages, obtained by culturing the cells in either a2i or CR media as described in the SI. The data depicted in Figure 4b show that upon feeding 1-TP at 100 μM over 24 hours, **2** is clearly detectable in all cases but the levels vary between the different cell types. The highest levels of **2** were observed in stem cells cultured under CR conditions. These are the cells representing post-implantation embryos that naturally have the highest methylation levels due to epigenetic reprogramming during cell lineage differentiation.^[28] In general, stem cells show an about ten times higher decarboxylation activity than somatic cells, which underpins the potential epigenetic importance of the process.

In summary, the presented data show that next to deformylation of fdC, we also need to consider decarboxylation of cadC as a mechanism for active demethylation. All further efforts now need to be concentrated at finding the cellular entities or circumstances that enable these C–C bond cleavage reactions. Although the here reported data clearly point to the existence of decarboxylation we need to emphasize that cells are complicated entities and we feed an unnatural compound. Without clear identification of the biological entity responsible for the process, we cannot completely rule out that unknown processes other than intragenomic decarboxylation are responsible for the measured data. During the review process of this manuscript Feng and co-workers showed an incorporation of the F-carboxycy-

tosine as a nucleoside and interestingly managed to detect the decarboxylation of cadC to dC much earlier on.^[29]

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: active demethylation · carboxycytidine · C–C bond cleavage · decarboxylation · epigenetics

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