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## FANCI at the FORK

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### FANCI, identified as a BRCA1-interacting partner

The story of *FANCI* (*BACH1/BRIP1*) is similar to that of the first hereditary breast cancer genes, *BRCA1* and *BRCA2*. Initially characterized for function in DNA break repair and breast cancer suppression, their roles now extend to multiple activities in the DNA damage response and suppression of several cancers. *FANCI* was the first *BRCA1*-interacting partner with known enzymatic activity and thus was considered a mediator of *BRCA1* DNA repair function. It was thought that *BRCA1* leveraged *FANCI* helicase activity to unwind DNA in the vicinity of DNA damage. Consistent with this model, *FANCI* was shown to function in double strand break repair in a manner dependent on *BRCA1* binding<sup>1</sup>. Moreover, *FANCI* clinical mutations were identified that disrupt its helicase activity and DNA repair function<sup>2</sup>. These findings, along with more comprehensive clinical analysis, suggested that breast cancer could arise from inherited mutations in *FANCI*<sup>3,4</sup>. However, as the cast of *BRCA*-interacting partners has grown, the unfolding tale is that *FANCI* is one of many factors functioning in *BRCA*-DNA repair and tumor suppression pathway.

### FANCI is a Fanconi anemia gene

Aside from breast and ovarian cancer<sup>5,6</sup>, bi-allelic mutations in the hereditary breast cancer genes cause the rare genetic disorder Fanconi anemia (FA) that is responsible for birth anomalies, anemia, and cancer. Just two years after *BRCA2* was found mutated in the FA-D1 complementation group<sup>7</sup>, *FANCI* was identified as the gene mutated in the FA-J complementation group<sup>8,10</sup>. Joining the FA circle, *BRCA1* was recently uncovered as the FA gene, *FANCS*<sup>11</sup>. This link between hereditary breast cancer and FA exemplifies the fact that the hereditary breast cancer proteins are multifunctional; important not only for DNA repair and tumor suppression, but also for normal proliferation and development (for a recent review see<sup>12</sup>). FA cells are very sensitive to agents that interfere with DNA replication, such as DNA interstrand crosslinks (ICLs). Thus, the link between *BRCA* proteins and FA also demonstrates that *BRCA* proteins function beyond DNA break repair to processing of stalled replication forks<sup>13</sup>. More recently, additional replication stress-associated functions have been uncovered. In particular, *BRCA* proteins protect stalled DNA

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replication forks from nuclease digestion<sup>14,15</sup>. Marching in step, FANCD1 also functions at the replication fork, as outlined here, which likely contributes to genome stability and tumor suppression.

## FANCD1 interfaces with replication

In support of replication fork-associated functions, FANCD1 is present at forks in a replication-dependent manner. Localization studies reveal that FANCD1 tracks with BRCA1 not only in nuclear foci and at DNA lesions, but also to sites coincident with proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) and at DNA replication forks<sup>1,16,21</sup>. Similar to BRCA1, FANCD1 localization to DNA crosslinks or chromatin following crosslink induction is dependent on replication<sup>22,23</sup>. An interface with replication is also suggested by proteomic analysis of proteins associated with nascent DNA. FANCD1 is found directly at active-, stalled-, and collapsed replication forks<sup>20,21</sup>. One could speculate that the BRCA1-FANCD1 interaction is uniquely required for some aspect of the replication stress response. Indeed, FANCD1 and BRCA1 interact most robustly during S phase<sup>24</sup>. Moreover, not all BRCA1-associated partners localize to replication forks or chromatin in a replication dependent manner. For example, BRCA1-associated CtIP weakly accumulates in chromatin following an ICL in a replication independent manner<sup>23</sup>.

## FANCD1 shares functions with BRCA1 in the replication stress response

Although the localization of FANCD1 to replication forks does not foretell its function, the consequence of FANCD1 deficiency provides clues that, similar to BRCA1, FANCD1 has function outside of break repair. While data vary from cell system analyzed, FANCD1 deficient cells typically have a broad sensitivity to replication inhibitors, such as ICL-inducing agents, mitomycin C (MMC), melphalan and cisplatin as well as to hydroxyurea (HU), which depletes deoxyribonucleotide pool, and to aphidicolin, which inhibits DNA polymerases. In contrast, FANCD1 deficient cells have minor sensitivity to agents that induce DNA double strand breaks (DSBs), such as ionizing radiation (IR) and camptothecin. The mild sensitivity to DSB-inducing agents and lack of sensitivity to ultraviolet light (UV) irradiation distinguishes FANCD1 deficient cells from BRCA1-deficient cells<sup>8,18,25,27</sup> (see Supplemental Table 1). Nevertheless, IR-induced DNA double strand breaks and UV-induced DNA intrastrand crosslinks are repaired with reduced kinetics in BRCA1- or FANCD1-deficient cells<sup>17,18,28</sup>. Moreover, RPA-coating of ssDNA in S phase cells following UV irradiation and subsequent checkpoint responses are defective in these cells. Likewise UV induced mutations are enhanced by deficiency in either FANCD1 or BRCA1<sup>18,28</sup>. In the response to IR, evidence also suggests that similar to BRCA1, FANCD1 promotes checkpoint activation and maintenance<sup>16,29,30</sup>. Failure to elicit proper checkpoint responses could underlie the defective replication restart in FANCD1 or BRCA1 deficient cells after release from aphidicolin treatment<sup>31-33</sup>. Functions in the replication stress response could protect the genome beyond S phase given that both BRCA1 and FANCD1 impacts centromere amplification following replication stress<sup>34,35</sup>.

While FANCD1 deficient cells resemble BRCA1 deficient cells in several respects, it remains to be determined what key functions are shared. This understanding could clarify why unlike

BRCA1 deficient mice, FANCD2 deficient mice are viable<sup>36-40</sup>. In particular, it will be important to address if FANCD2 functions with BRCA1 in protecting stalled forks from nuclease digestion, loading of the 9-1-1 complex, checkpoint activation, recruitment of repair factors such as FANCD2 or evicting the CMG (Cdc45, MCM2-7, and GINS) replicative DNA helicase from chromatin in ICL repair<sup>41-43</sup>. In support of the possibility that FANCD2 helicase or translocase activities could support one or more of these fork-processing activities, in FANCD2 deficient cells Cdc45 remains aberrantly loaded on chromatin after IR<sup>16</sup>, and FANCD2 foci are reduced<sup>44,45</sup>.

## FANCD2 resolves secondary structures at stalled forks

It also remains unexplored as to if BRCA1 functions with FANCD2 in its metabolism of replication-associated structures. In particular, FANCD2 counteracts fork stalling and genomic instability by resolving secondary structures such as G-quadruplexes (G4s) that form in guanine-rich DNA<sup>13,40,46-49</sup>. In accordance, loss of FANCD2 in *Xenopus* egg extract system leads to persistent replication stalling at G4s<sup>50</sup>. Likewise, cells deficient in FANCD2 are sensitive to G4 binding drugs<sup>47,51</sup>. Suggesting that G4s are abnormally accumulating even in the absence of exogenous replication stress, FANCD2 deficient chicken cells have a delay in S phase progression that correlates with decreases in replication fork velocity and ssDNA induction<sup>51</sup>. Moreover, unchallenged FANCD2 null mouse or deficient human cells show slower replication fork extension rates and slower progression through S phase consistent with increased replication fork stalling<sup>40,52</sup>. Whereas FANCD2 deficient cells have an elevated S-phase accumulation in response to low dose aphidicolin, FANCD2 null cells show signs of DNA break induction with high dose aphidicolin suggesting replication fork collapse<sup>16,33</sup>. The nature of the genomic instability may be species specific given that FANCD2 deficiency confers loss of G4s in *C. elegans*, telomere abnormalities in human cells, and microsatellite instability (MSI) in mouse and human cells<sup>40,46,53-56</sup>. Resolving secondary structures could maintain chromatin structure given that FANCD2 deficient DT40 cells have increased heterochromatin formation, localized changes in histone modifications, and gene expression<sup>49,51</sup>. It remains to be determined how replication fork preservation functions relate to one or more of FANCD2 described in vitro enzyme functions. FANCD2 is an ATPase/helicase/translocase that unwinds DNA in a 5'-3' direction and is active on a range of substrates such as 5' flaps, forked DNA duplexes, D loops, and G4s and can displace protein/DNA interactions<sup>2,46,47,57,58</sup>.

## Loss of FANCD2-BRCA1 interaction alters the replication stress response

Despite restart defects in BRCA1 deficient cells, it is unlikely that BRCA1 binding to FANCD2 is required for FANCD2 function in resolving replication-blocking structures given that resistance to replication stress is enhanced in cells lacking the FANCD2-BRCA1 interaction<sup>31,33,59</sup>. Notably, expression of a BRCA1-interaction defective mutant, FANCD2<sup>S990A</sup> in FANCD2-null FA patient cells confers greater resistance to cisplatin, MMC, melphalan and UV as compared to expression of wild-type FANCD2<sup>60</sup>. Likewise in chicken cells the FANCD2-BRCA1 interaction is not required for ICL resistance, nor appear to be conserved<sup>25</sup>. Thus, one could speculate that in human cells, the FANCD2-BRCA1 interaction has a distinct replication stress associated function. Consistent with this idea, cells deficient

in the FANCI-BRCA1 interaction have defects in checkpoint and repair responses<sup>59</sup>. Resembling BRCA1- or FANCI-deficient cells, FANCI<sup>S990A</sup> cells fail to arrest DNA synthesis following IR and show reduced double strand break repair by homologous recombination (HR)<sup>16,60</sup>. Not only are cells expressing FANCI<sup>S990A</sup> more sensitive to agents that induce DSBs, HR is reduced to the level found in cells expressing the helicase inactive mutant, FANCI<sup>K52R</sup><sup>60</sup>. Resistance to replication-stress inducing agents such as MMC and UV is managed through enhanced DNA damage tolerance pathways including increased reliance on the translesion synthesis (TLS) polymerase, pol $\eta$ <sup>60</sup>. Thus, in human cells, the FANCI-BRCA1 interaction could serve to coordinate the HR and TLS pathways to facilitate repair and recovery of replication with minimal error induction. While the interaction may not be required to restart replication, it will be worth considering if the FANCI-BRCA1 interaction preserves fragile sites under replication stress given that BRCA1 and FANCI share this function<sup>40,61,62</sup>.

Cells lacking the FANCI-BRCA1 interaction could have an altered replication stress response because FANCI is not functional. With respect to replication forks, data suggest FANCI localization is not dependent on BRCA1. In particular FANCI localizes to UV lesions in S phase before BRCA1 and independent of BRCA1 binding. Thus, in contrast to DNA breaks, FANCI localization to stalled forks appears to be independent of BRCA1<sup>16,18</sup>. Alternatively, FANCI could fail to be properly modified. In support of this idea, FA-J cells expressing the BRCA1-interaction defective mutant, FANCI<sup>S990A</sup> resemble FA-J cells expressing an acetylation-defective mutant, FANCI<sup>K1249R</sup>. In these cells, ICL resistance is conferred with reduced dependence on HR factors and enhanced reliance on TLS factors<sup>63</sup>. Acetylation at FANCI lysine K1249 promotes DNA end resection and checkpoint maintenance<sup>63</sup>. Thus, these functions could also be promoted by BRCA1 binding. Another possibility is that when unbound to BRCA1, FANCI fails to interact with other partners. For instance, loss of FANCI binding to BLM or RPA could derail FANCI's end processing or checkpoint functions<sup>27,64</sup>. As compared to wild-type FANCI, FANCI<sup>S990A</sup> precipitates less of the replication checkpoint factor, TopBP1 following IR suggesting that BRCA1 binding impacts the interactions of FANCI with other partners. The defective binding does not result from loss of a critical TopBP1 binding domain. Threonine 1133 of FANCI is phosphorylated following DNA damage and this mediates its direct interaction with the C-terminal BRCT repeats of TopBP1. Given that FANCI binding promotes TopBP1 stabilization at stalled forks, ATR activation and the intra-S phase checkpoint activation<sup>65</sup>, a reduction in this interaction could switch repair processing. Likewise, loss of BRCA1 or TopBP1 binding and reduced checkpoint responses could underlie the aberrant induction of new replication in FANCI deficient cells<sup>44</sup>. Loss of BRCA1 binding to FANCI could also unleash FANCI or its helicase activity to create a gain-of-function. For example, the enhanced TLS associated with BRCA1 deficiency in response to UV could stem from an increase in unregulated FANCI, mimicking the enhanced TLS found in cells expressing FANCI<sup>S990A</sup><sup>28,60</sup>. In addition, it will be important to consider if altered FANCI function is a contributing factor to replication fork protection defects that are found in BRCA1 deficient cells or when BRCA1 is in the heterozygous state<sup>66</sup>. If so, unregulated FANCI could also contribute to replication-stress associated defects in breast cancers in which FANCI is overexpressed<sup>67</sup>.

## The FANCF-MLH1 interaction is essential for replication restart

In contrast to the finding that FANCF binding to BRCA1 is indispensable for cells to recover from replication stress, FANCF binding directly to the mismatch repair (MMR) protein, MLH1 is essential. Not only does expression of an MLH1-interaction defective mutant, FANCF<sup>K141/142A</sup>, in FANCF-null patient FA-J cells fail to restore ICL resistance, but also as compared to FANCF-null cells, ICL sensitivity is enhanced. Moreover, expression of FANCF<sup>K141/142A</sup> exacerbates the abnormal ICL-induced G2/M accumulation in FANCF-null cells<sup>26</sup>. Correspondingly, a hereditary colon cancer mutation MLH1<sup>L607H</sup>, which is defective in FANCF binding, confers increased ICL sensitivity and checkpoint defects not previously detected in MLH1-null cells<sup>68</sup>. Thus, mutations in FANCF or MLH1 that disrupt the FANCF-MLH1 interaction sensitize cells to ICLs to a greater extent than deficiency in FANCF or MLH1<sup>26,68,69</sup>. A heightened replication stress response is also detected upon release from aphidicolin. Cells lacking the FANCF-MLH1 interaction remain arrested while FANCF-null cells re-enter the cell cycle. The arrest correlates with  $\gamma$ -H2AX and DNAPKcs phosphorylation, suggesting fork breakage. Collectively, these data indicate that deficiency in the FANCF-MLH1 interaction is worse for the restart of replication than deficiency in FANCF or MLH1 alone.

## MSH2 depletion suppresses replication restart defects in cells lacking the FANCF-MLH1 interaction

While the underlying cause of the replication restart defect and fork collapse in cells lacking the FANCF-MLH1 interaction is not known, it is linked to the mismatch repair protein, MSH2. Specifically, depletion of MSH2 suppresses not only MMC-induced sensitivity and chromosomal aberrations, but also aphidicolin-induced replication restart defects and break induction in cells lacking the FANCF-MLH1 interaction<sup>33</sup>. This finding supports a model in which FANCF, through its MLH1 interaction, unwinds DNA structures or displaces MSH2 from DNA structures to restart stalled replication forks. MMR proteins accumulate at replication forks<sup>20</sup> and are poised to bind DNA mismatches or secondary structures. Therefore, if not regulated, the MMR pathway could activate checkpoints, repair, and apoptotic responses that counteract the restart of stalled replication forks. There is precedent for the regulation of DNA repair pathways by helicases, such as yeast Srs2 and bacterial UvrD (helicase II)<sup>70,71</sup> and FANCF's closest human homologue, RTEL<sup>72</sup>. Alternatively, FANCF could promote MMR function at stalled forks in repair or checkpoint responses. In support of this point, MMR is required for FANCF localization to ICLs<sup>19</sup> and UV light-induced DNA crosslinks<sup>18</sup>. Moreover, an interaction between FANCF and MSH5 is important for repair of camptothecin-induced breaks<sup>73</sup>. Furthermore, a robust checkpoint response to DNA alkylation or UV damage requires FANCF, and the FANCF-MLH1 interaction<sup>18,68</sup>. Collectively, these findings suggest that FANCF regulates the MMR response to replication stress; without FANCF, MMR complexes could be detrimental as they block replication fork progression or fail to mount a productive response. In future studies, it will be important to understand if an ineffective MMR complex explains why similar to MMR deficiency, FANCF deficiency confers microsatellite instability (MSI) and lymphoma<sup>40</sup>.

In summary, FANCI has not receded from center stage. Rather, FANCI is part of a BRCA network whose function in the replication stress response is an evolving story that likely involves replication stress induced arrest and restart functions (Figure 1). Building a more complete picture will be fundamental to grasp not only a full understanding of its function in DNA repair and tumor suppression pathways, but also to recognize opportunities for future therapy intervention.

## Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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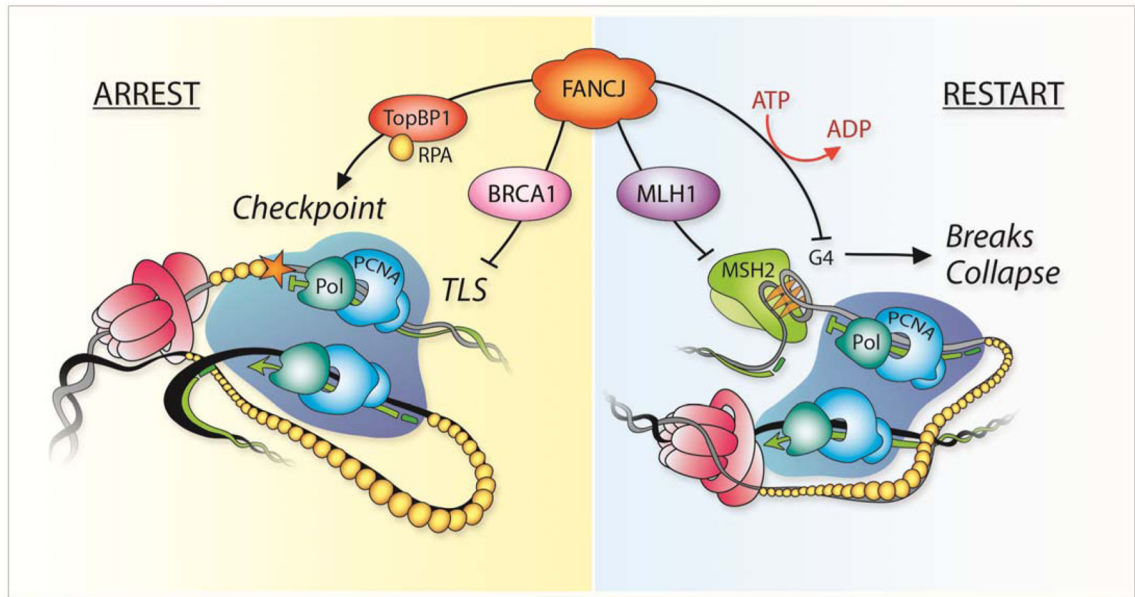
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**Figure 1.** Potential role for FANCD1 in the replication stress response: In response to replication arrest, FANCD1 interactions with TopBP1 and BRCA1 promote checkpoint activation and inhibit translesion synthesis (TLS). Following repair processing, FANCD1 interaction with MLH1 and helicase/translocase activities promote replication restart through displacement of MSH2 complexes and unwinding of secondary structures, such as G4s as shown.