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## Whole genome RNAi screens reveal a critical role of REV3 in coping with replication stress

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### ABSTRACT

REV3, the catalytic subunit of translesion polymerase zeta ( $\text{pol}\zeta$ ), is commonly associated with DNA damage bypass and repair. Despite sharing accessory subunits with replicative polymerase  $\delta$ , very little is known about the role of  $\text{pol}\zeta$  in DNA replication. We previously demonstrated that inhibition of REV3 expression induces persistent DNA damage and growth arrest in cancer cells. To reveal determinants of this sensitivity and obtain insights into the cellular function of REV3, we performed whole human genome RNAi library screens aimed at identification of synthetic lethal interactions with REV3 in A549 lung cancer cells. The top confirmed hit was RRM1, the large subunit of ribonucleotide reductase (RNR), a critical enzyme of *de novo* nucleotide synthesis. Treatment with the RNR-inhibitor hydroxyurea (HU) synergistically increased the fraction of REV3-deficient cells containing single stranded DNA (ssDNA) as indicated by an increase in replication protein A (RPA). However, this increase was not accompanied by accumulation of the DNA damage marker  $\gamma\text{H2AX}$  suggesting a role of REV3 in counteracting HU-induced replication stress (RS). Consistent with a role of REV3 in DNA replication, increased RPA staining was confined to HU-treated S-phase cells. Additionally, we found genes related to RS to be significantly enriched among the top hits of the synthetic sickness/lethality (SSL) screen further corroborating the importance of REV3 for DNA replication under conditions of RS.

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**Abbreviations:** ANOVA, Analysis of variance; CDDP, Cisplatin; DDR, DNA damage response; HU, Hydroxyurea;  $\text{Pol}\zeta$ , Polymerase zeta; RNR, Ribonucleotide reductase; RPA, Replication protein A; RS, Replication stress; ssDNA, Single-stranded DNA; SSL, Synthetic sickness/lethality; TLS, Translesion synthesis.

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## 1. Introduction

Integrity and fidelity of the genomic material is constantly compromised in various ways but cells possess multiple mechanisms to cope with it (Jackson and Bartek, 2009). If DNA damage cannot be repaired, it can be tolerated in order to continue replication without formation of lethal intermediates. Translesion synthesis (TLS) is a key DNA damage tolerance pathway that allows bypass of different types of lesions. Dependent on the nature of the lesion and recruited enzymes, this process can result in faithful or error-prone, i.e. mutagenic, DNA replication (reviewed in (Knobel and Marti, 2011)).

Polymerase zeta ( $\text{pol}\zeta$ ), with its catalytic subunit REV3L (hereafter REV3), plays a unique role in TLS. REV3 is able to contribute to mutagenesis in two ways: by introducing mismatches or by extending from a mismatch introduced by another polymerase. Besides, in contrast to other TLS polymerases, REV3 belongs to the B-family and its knockout is embryonic lethal in mice (Esposito et al., 2000; Wittschieben et al., 2000). Despite the development of conditional knockout mice models (Lange et al., 2013; Wittschieben et al., 2010), the molecular basis for this developmental significance still remains elusive. Apart from its function in TLS,  $\text{pol}\zeta$  is known to play a role in homologous recombination (Sharma et al., 2012), non-homologous end-joining (Covo et al., 2009) and inter- and intrastrand crosslink repair (Enoiu et al., 2012; Hicks et al., 2010). Additionally, yeast  $\text{pol}\zeta$  is able to replicate undamaged DNA (Northam et al., 2010) and shares accessory subunits with polymerase  $\delta$  (Johnson et al., 2012; Makarova et al., 2012) emphasizing its tight relationship with normal DNA replication. Inhibition of REV3 expression in human cells leads to accumulation of DNA double strand breaks (DSB), activation of DNA damage response (DDR) and a reduced fraction of S-phase cells (Knobel et al., 2011), which results in increased formation of anaphase bridges and chromosomal breaks/gaps, expression of common fragile sites (CFS), genomic instability (Bhat et al., 2013) and ultimately cell cycle arrest or senescence (Knobel et al., 2011).

Cancer cells harbor multiple mutations in their genome, many of which affect DDR and lead to genomic instability but can be tolerated because of the redundant or complementary function of some of the DNA repair pathways (Jackson and Bartek, 2009). Thus, targeting genes whose function becomes essential due to mutations in cancer cells is an attractive approach to cancer therapy (Kaelin, 2005). This so-called principle of synthetic sickness/lethality (SSL) demonstrated its applicability for targeted cancer therapy of BRCA2-deficient breast cancer by PARP-inhibitors not only at the bench (Bryant et al., 2005; Farmer et al., 2005) but also at the bedside (Fong et al., 2009). Recent publications follow this example by discovering synthetic lethality between MSH2 and DNA polymerase  $\beta$  (POLB), MLH1 and polymerase  $\gamma$  (POLG) (Martin et al., 2010) as well as Chk1 and polymerase  $\lambda$  (POLL) (Zucca et al., 2013), confirming that SSL between DDR genes is a common phenomenon.

Loss-of-function genetic screening is a powerful approach for novel target gene discovery that can be employed for detection of synthetic lethal gene interactions in cancer cells

(reviewed in (Mullenders and Bernards, 2009; Nijman, 2011)). In particular, RNA interference technology was successfully used to identify vulnerabilities of cancers driven by certain oncogenes (Luo et al., 2009). Here, we took advantage of a whole human genome siRNA library to explore in an unbiased manner SSL in REV3-deficient cancer cells, in order to gain insight into cellular functions of REV3.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Cell culture, plasmid transfections, gene expression analysis

The non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) cell line A549 was authenticated by DNA fingerprinting of short tandem repeat loci (Microsynth, Switzerland). Stable cell lines used for the siRNA screening were generated by transfection of A549 cells with either the scrambled short hairpin RNA (shRNA) expressing plasmid shSCR or the REV3-silencing shRNA expression plasmid shREV3-4 (Knobel et al., 2011). Plasmid transfections were performed using Lipofectamine™ 2000 (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Subsequent selection of resistant clones was performed with 1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  puromycin. Gene knockdown was assessed by quantitative real-time PCR (rtPCR) measuring  $\Delta\Delta\text{Ct}$  values of the target gene versus control Histone H3 as described previously (Knobel et al., 2011). All cell lines were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) high glucose (Sigma) supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine, 10% fetal calf serum (FCS) and 1% (w/v) penicillin/streptomycin. Cells were grown at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ .

### 2.2. Reagents

For siRNA transfections, we used DharmaFECT 1 (DF) transfection reagent and siRNA duplexes acquired from Dharmacon (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). In the screen and the follow-up experiments, siGENOME non-targeting control pool#2 and the PLK1 SMARTpool siRNA were used as negative and positive control, respectively. For flow cytometry, immunoblotting and colony formation experiments, REV3 expression was silenced with ON-TARGETplus SMART pool REV3L (siREV3), while ON-TARGETplus non-targeting pool (siNT) was used as a negative control and buffer only treatment (buffer) was used to determine the effect of the transfection reagent.

Hydroxyurea (HU) was acquired from Applichem, Germany. CellTiter-Blue® Cell Viability Assay reagent was purchased from Promega, USA.

Oligonucleotides used for cloning and primers for rtPCR were ordered from Microsynth, Switzerland. Sequences of the rtPCR primers for REV3 and Histone H3 mRNA were disclosed previously (Knobel et al., 2011). The following primers were used for detection of RRM1 mRNA levels by qPCR: forward 5'- CCTGGGAACCATCAAATGCAGCAA-3' and reverse 5'- GGGCCAGGAAGCCAAATTACAAA-3'.

### 2.3. Vector cloning and transfection

shREV3-4 and shSCR were introduced previously (Knobel et al., 2011). The short hairpin RRM1 oligos: 5'-GATCCCGCAC AGAAATAGTGAGTATTCAAGAGATACTCCACTATTTCTGTG CTTTTTA-3' and 5'-AGCTTAAAAAGCACAGAAATAGTGAGT ATCTCTGAATACTCCACTATTTCTGTGCGGG-3' were annealed and ligated into pSuperior.puro as described by the manufacturer (OligoEngine, Seattle, WA). The shRNA and H1 promoter fragments were subsequently transferred into the constitutive expressing lentiviral vector pLVTHM (Addgene, Cambridge, MA). Replication-deficient lentiviral particles were produced and titrated as described previously (Knobel et al., 2011).

### 2.4. Lentiviral transduction and colony formation assay

Lentiviral transduction and subsequent colony formation assay were performed as described previously (Knobel et al., 2011). For combined siRNA transfection, lentiviral transduction and subsequent colony formation, the procedure was as follows; 25,000 cells per well were seeded in 6-well plates and transfected 24 h later with 50 nM siRNA (targeting REV3 or non-targeting control) using 80-times diluted DF. The medium was exchanged 24 h after transfection. Another 24 h later, cells were trypsinized, counted and 500 cells per well were seeded in 6-well plates for shRRM1 lentiviral transduction and colony formation assay, which was performed as described previously (Knobel et al., 2011).

### 2.5. Genome-wide siRNA screening and follow-up experiments

High-throughput screening (HTS) was done essentially as described previously (Siebring-van Olst et al., 2013). One day before siRNA transfection, S1C6 or R1B6 cells (750 cells per well) were seeded in 272 transparent flat-bottom 96-well plates (TPP, Switzerland) in 80  $\mu$ l of complete culture medium. The next day, 10  $\mu$ l of DF diluted 250-fold in DMEM was dispensed into 384-well siRNA library plates comprising the siARRAY human genome library and negative and positive control siRNAs at 2.5 pmol in 10  $\mu$ l siRNA buffer (Dharmacon) prepared in advance. The resulting 20  $\mu$ l transfection mixes were transferred to the cell culture plates, resulting in a final siRNA concentration of 25 nM. After transfection, cells were grown for 5 days before adding 20  $\mu$ l per well CellTiter-Blue Reagent. The plates were incubated for 4 h at 37 °C following which 50  $\mu$ l of 3% SDS solution was added to stop the reaction. Fluorescence was measured at 540 nm excitation and 590 nm emission wavelengths.

For the deconvolution of the siRNA pools, the experimental conditions were identical, i.e. 25 nM of siRNA and 0.04  $\mu$ l of DF per well in 96-well plates. For double transfections, 25 nM of each siRNA and 0.08  $\mu$ l of DF were used.

### 2.6. Data and statistical analysis

For reading, pre-processing and normalization of the raw fluorescence data, the *cellHTS2* Bioconductor package was employed (Boutros et al., 2006). The data were per plate normalized to the negative control and log-transformed. To

generate the differential viability list, genes were sorted by the absolute difference of the mean viability scores for the two cell lines, each screened in two independent screens. Bayesian statistics for linear models in *limma* package (Smyth, 2004) was used to calculate the *p*-value for each gene. For gene set enrichment analysis we employed ROMER from *limma* (Majewski et al., 2010).

To assess statistical significance of treatment effects (siREV3, shREV3, shRRM1 and HU) and their interactions, two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed. The effect of siRNA transfection was inferred from the comparison of buffer only and siNT treated samples. To isolate the effects associated with silencing REV3 expression (iREV3) from the total effect of siREV3 transfection (siREV3) we presented the latter as a combination of pure silencing (iREV3) and other transfection effects that can be estimated from the effects of control non-targeting siRNA transfection (siNT). Both REV3 silencing (iREV3) and control siRNA transfection (siNT) effects were assigned to the samples subjected to siREV3 transfection, thereby allowing estimation of the pure effect of REV3 silencing (iREV3). Following established methodology (Slinker, 1998), *p*-values of ANOVA interaction effects (e.g. HU:iREV3) were used as criteria for the statistical significance of treatments synergy. For pairwise comparisons, two-tailed Student's *t* test was employed.

### 2.7. Flow cytometry

For flow cytometry 25,000 cells per well were seeded in 6-well plates and transfected as described above (50 nM siRNA and 80-fold diluted DF). 24 h after transfection, the medium was exchanged and another 24 h later, cells were treated with 0.25 mM HU. After 24 h, cells were labeled with 10  $\mu$ M 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) for 60 min (according to the manufacturer's instructions (C35002; Invitrogen)), harvested by trypsinization, and fixed for 20 min with ice-cold 70% Ethanol at room temperature. Cells were washed with 1% BSA/PBS, pH 7.4, permeabilized with 0.5% saponin/1% BSA/PBS for 10 min, and stained in the fixation buffer with anti- $\gamma$ H2AX antibody (05-636, EMD Millipore) or anti-RPA32/RPA2 antibody (ab2175, Abcam) overnight at 4 °C, followed by incubation with a secondary antibody (a31553, Invitrogen) for 30 min at room temperature. Subsequently, cells were treated with 20  $\mu$ g/ml RNase A and DNA was stained with 0.5  $\mu$ g/ml propidium iodide (Sigma–Aldrich). Cell fluorescence was measured on an Attune flow cytometer (Applied Biosystems) and analyzed with the Attune cytometric software v1.2.5 (Applied Biosystems). Buffer treated controls were used to set the gating threshold for  $\gamma$ H2AX (and RPA) to 1% as described before (Kataoka et al., 2006).

### 2.8. Immunoblotting

Immunoblotting was performed essentially as described earlier (Knobel et al., 2011). The following primary antibodies were used: ATM-pS1981 (Epitomics, 2152-1, 1:1000), ATM (GeneTex GTX70103, 1:1000), Chk1-pS345 (Cell Signaling, 2348, 1:1000), Chk1 (Santa Cruz, sc-8408, 1:100).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Generation and characterization of an isogenic pair of cell lines for REV3 synthetic sickness/lethality (SSL) screening

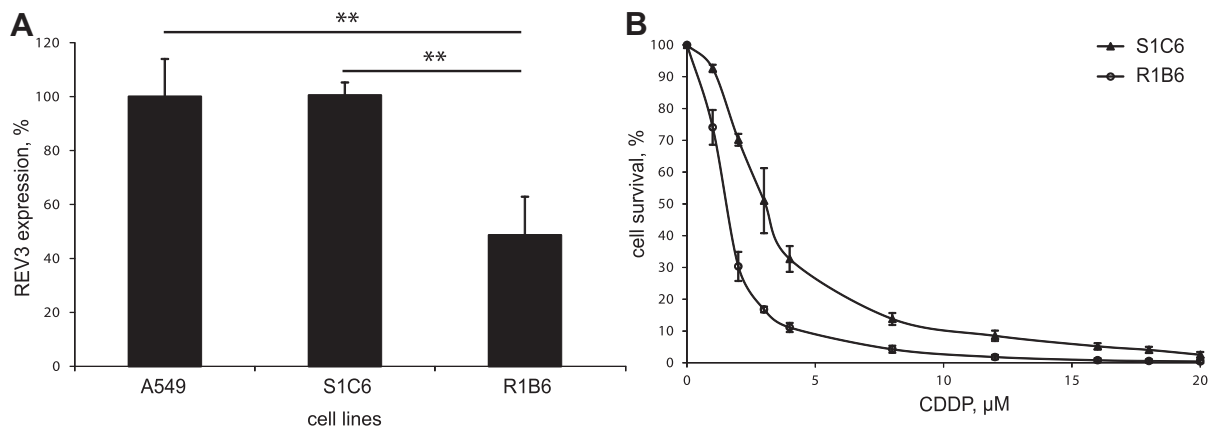
In order to define synthetic lethal gene interactions with REV3, we generated A549 NSCLC cell lines expressing short hairpin RNAs targeting REV3 and control cell lines expressing a shRNA with scrambled sequence. Multiple independent clones were made and tested. Translesion synthesis is a major pathway involved in bypass and repair of DNA crosslinks and it is known that reduction of REV3 levels is associated with increased sensitivity to DNA crosslinking agents (Enoiu et al., 2012; Hicks et al., 2010). Therefore, we based selection of the most suitable cell lines for screening on their REV3 expression levels and their cisplatin sensitivity as a functional readout. Two cell lines R1B6 and S1C6, expressing REV3 shRNA and a scrambled shRNA respectively, were selected for use in HTS. Compared to the parental cell line A549, the REV3 mRNA expression level in S1C6 cells was identical, whereas REV3 expression in R1B6 cells was decreased to 49% (Figure 1A). The cisplatin sensitivity assessed by quantitation of cell viability 5 days after continuous drug treatment, differed significantly for the two cell lines. The REV3 deficient cell line R1B6 was up to 2.7 times more sensitive than its proficient counterpart S1C6 (43% versus 16% at 3  $\mu$ M, t-test  $p < 0.01$ ; Figure 1B), indicating that the decrease of REV3 mRNA expression in R1B6 cells has functional consequence.

#### 3.2. Genome-wide siRNA screening for REV3 SSL interactions

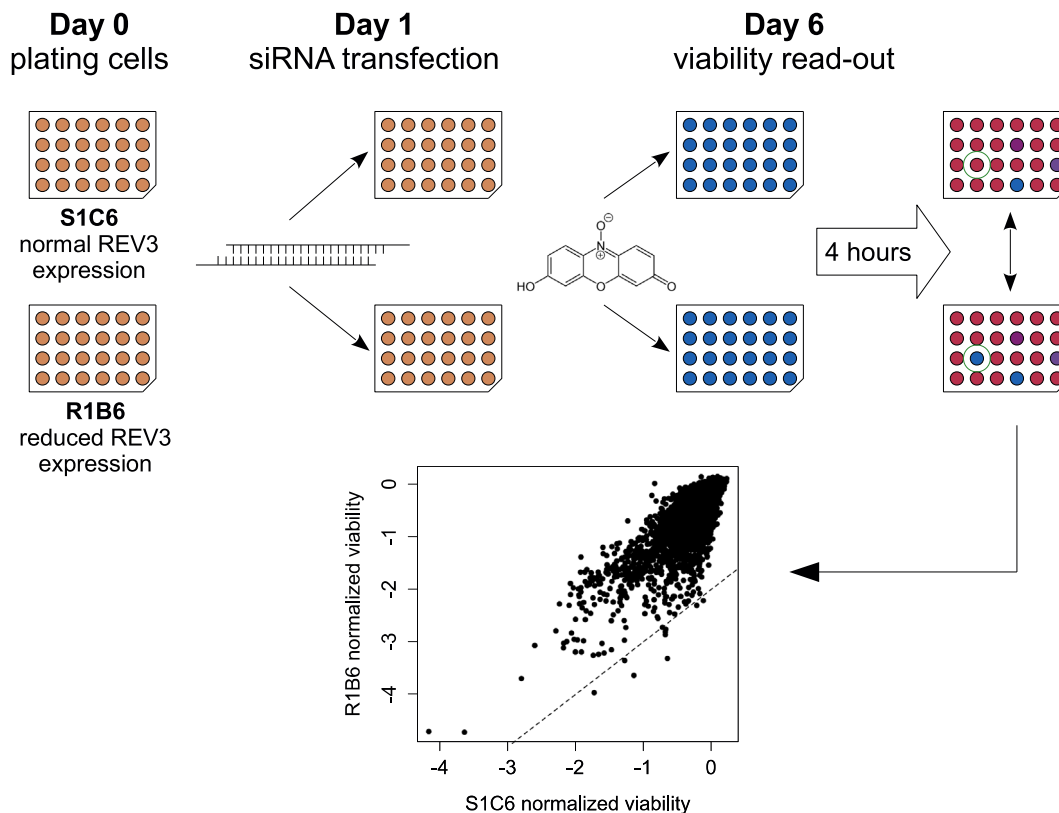
First, we optimized the HTS setup, with respect to number of seeded cells per well, suitable conditions for automated forward siRNA transfection and incubation time after transfection before assessing cell viability. The optimized transfection conditions resulted in efficient gene knockdown (Figure A. 1) and were used for primary HTS and secondary confirmation experiments.

Next, whole human genome siRNA library screens were carried out with the pair of REV3 knockdown and control cell lines and cell viability as readout (Figure 2). In detail, R1B6 or S1C6 cells were seeded in 96-well plates and transfected with the arrayed library comprising pooled siRNAs (4 siRNA per gene) targeting more than 20,000 human transcripts. The number of viable cells was assessed using CellTiter-Blue Cell Viability Assay and resulting values were normalized to non-targeting siRNA (siNT) controls included on every plate, log-transformed and scored. Both cell lines were screened twice. The screens showed high correlation between replicates, i.e. Pearson correlation coefficients between replicates was 0.87 for S1C6 and 0.84 for R1B6 (Table A. 1). Assay quality metrics were excellent, with  $Z'$  factors (Zhang et al., 1999) for positive (siPLK1) versus negative (siNT) controls generally exceeding 0.5. To identify genes whose silencing induced SSL specifically in REV3-deficient cells, the gene list with the corresponding values of viability was sorted by the absolute difference of the mean viability robust scores between S1C6 and R1B6 (Dataset B. 1). Genes were considered as primary hits when satisfied one of the following criteria: a differential viability score  $>2.0$  and  $p < 0.05$  (genes with the strongest differential effect, Table 1) or  $p < 5 \times 10^{-4}$  and differential viability score  $> 0.8$  (high confidence genes, Table 2). Table 1 gives the 9 genes that were selected this way and two additional genes – UBE2N and RRM2. UBE2N, which ranked 30 in the screen, was included in Table 1 and the further analysis based on its known connection to TLS. UBE2N is the human homolog of UBC13 that is required for PCNA poly-ubiquitination promoting REV3-independent post-replication DNA repair in yeast (Ball et al., 2009).

Subsequently, selected primary screen hits were stratified by performing confirmation screens using S1C6 and R1B6 cells and the parental A549 lung cancer cells. First, we performed a secondary confirmation screen testing the siRNA pools used in the primary screens (Figure 3A). Positive control siPLK1 included in this experiment exhibited a similar killing effect on the three cell lines, with residual viability in the range of 10–15%, indicating that transfection and knockdown was effective in all three cell lines. The REV3-deficient cell line



**Figure 1** – Characterization of the cell lines used in synthetic sickness/lethality screens. (A) REV3 mRNA level determined by rtPCR in the parental cell line A549, clone R1B6 carrying a short-hairpin RNA targeting REV3 mRNA and the control cell line S1C6 carrying a scrambled control construct.  $**p < 0.01$ . Shown are means  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD),  $n = 3$ . (B) Sensitivity of the generated cell lines to continuous cisplatin (CDDP) treatment. Cell viability was determined after 5 days of CDDP treatment. Shown are means  $\pm$  SD,  $n = 3$ .



**Figure 2** – Schematic representation of the screening procedure. 24 h after plating, cells are transfected with siRNA from the Dharmacon siARRAY human genome library targeting > 20,000 transcripts. Cells are incubated for 5 days and CellTiter Blue viability assay is used to assess the number of viable cells in every well. Fluorescent signal is normalized and compared between the two cell lines – S1C6 with normal and R1B6 with reduced REV3 expression – to find the genes whose silencing predominantly affects REV3-deficient cells. The dashed line represents the hit selection threshold applied to generate the hit list shown in [Table 1](#) (viability difference score greater than 2).

R1B6 was more sensitive to silencing of the tested genes than the two control cell lines, confirming the validity of the results obtained by the high throughput screen. Next, we retested some of the genes by separately transfecting the 4 individual siRNAs targeting these genes. [Figure A. 2](#) represents the data for 10 selected genes (RRM1, LMTK3, CACNA1A, COPZ1, TXN, A1BG, KPNB1, CFLAR, GPR27 and UBE2N) that showed a synthetic lethal/proliferation defect phenotype with REV3 silencing in A549 NSCLC cells, confirmed in multiple independent experiments using 2 or more different siRNAs.

Silencing of RRM1, the large subunit of ribonucleotide reductase (RNR), showed the second strongest differential effect in the primary screen and a very robust profile in the deconvolution analysis, i.e. all four tested siRNAs had a more pronounced cytotoxic effect on REV3-deficient cells ([Figure A. 2](#)). To validate this finding, and to exclude that the observed SSL was due to a clonal effect in R1B6 cells, we silenced REV3 with siRNA and RRM1 using a lentiviral vector expressing a short hairpin RNA (LV-shRRM1) in the parental A549 cells. Cell survival and proliferation capacity was measured by colony formation assay. [Figure 3B](#) shows that siREV3 transfection in combination with lentiviral RRM1 silencing synergistically reduced colony formation (ANOVA, siREV3:LVshRRM1  $p = 0.024$ , [Table A. 2](#)).

### 3.3. Silencing REV3 in combination with inhibition of nucleotide synthesis synergistically reduces cancer cell growth

RRM1 encodes the large subunit of ribonucleotide reductase (RNR). Notably, silencing of the small subunit of RNR, RRM2, also scored in the top 2% (rank 292). This suggests that inhibition of the catalytic function of RNR, rather than a subunit-specific effect, is involved in the observed reduction of the number of cells in a REV3-deficient background. To corroborate this, we investigated if we could reproduce the REV3 SSL with a drug that inhibits RNR catalytic activity. Hydroxyurea (HU) is a drug used in the treatment of myeloproliferative disorders that inhibits RNR by scavenging tyrosyl free radicals of the small subunit required for reduction of ribonucleotides to deoxyribonucleotides. We performed colony formation assays after lentiviral transduction (with LV-shSCR or LV-shREV3) followed by continuous HU treatment ([Figure 4](#)). To account for the effect of lentiviral transduction we included it in the ANOVA model for both LV-shSCR and LV-shREV3 transduced samples allowing calculation of the pure REV3 silencing effect (iREV3). While the colony formation was reduced by REV3 silencing alone ( $p = 2.3e-13$ ), its combination

**Table 1** – Highest ranking genes with a stronger effect on viability of REV3-deficient cells compared to control cells. All the genes in the screen were scored based on the normalized viability of the cells after silencing. Genes are ranked according to the difference of scores for control and REV3-deficient cell lines. A filter of  $p < 0.05$  is applied to exclude low-confidence genes. Results are from four whole-genome RNAi screens (two on each cell line) as described in the material and methods section. The genes with the viability difference score greater than 2 are given in the table. Additionally, UBE2N and RRM2 are included (see details in the text).

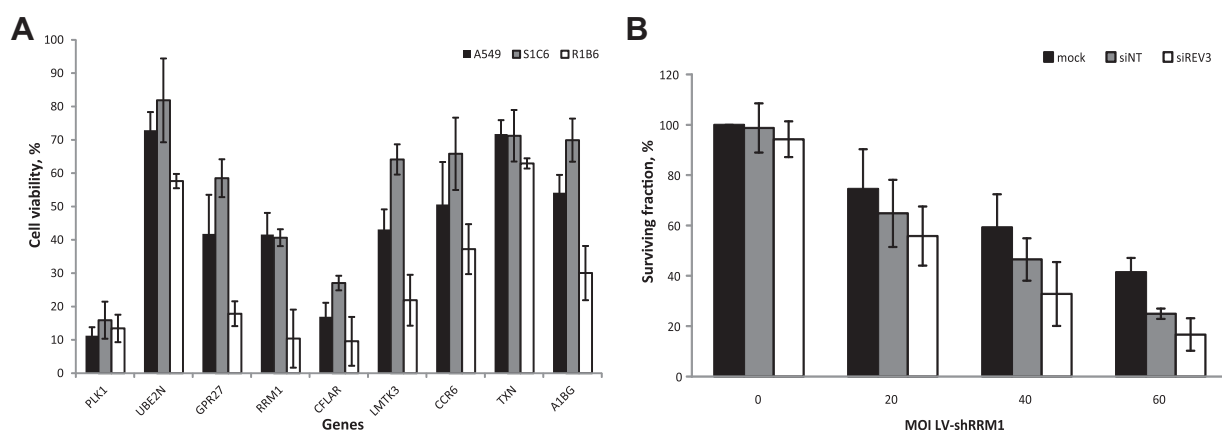
Rank	Gene	<i>p</i> -value	Viability difference score	Gene name
1	GPR27	1.7E-03	2.67	G protein-coupled receptor 27
2	RRM1	1.6E-02	2.49	Ribonucleotide reductase M1
3	CFLAR	4.9E-05	2.24	CASP8 and FADD-like apoptosis regulator
4	LMTK3	1.2E-02	2.19	Lemur tyrosine kinase 3
5	CCR6	4.6E-04	2.13	Chemokine (C–C motif) receptor 6
7	CACNA1A	2.3E-03	2.10	Calcium channel, voltage-dependent, P/Q type, alpha 1A subunit
8	COPZ1	9.4E-03	2.09	Coatamer protein complex, subunit zeta 1
9	CDY1	2.4E-02	2.09	Chromodomain protein, Y-linked, 1
10	CSAD	2.2E-02	2.08	Cysteine sulfinic acid decarboxylase
...	...	...	...	...
30	UBE2N	8.4E-04	1.63	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2N (UBC13 homolog)
292	RRM2	4.9E-03	0.85	Ribonucleotide reductase M2

**Table 2** – Highest ranking genes with the lowest *p*-values for the effect on viability of REV3-deficient cells compared to control cells. Genes are ranked according to the *p*-values of the score differences for control and REV3-deficient cell lines. Only genes with *p*-values lower than 5E-4 and viability difference score greater than 0.8 are included.

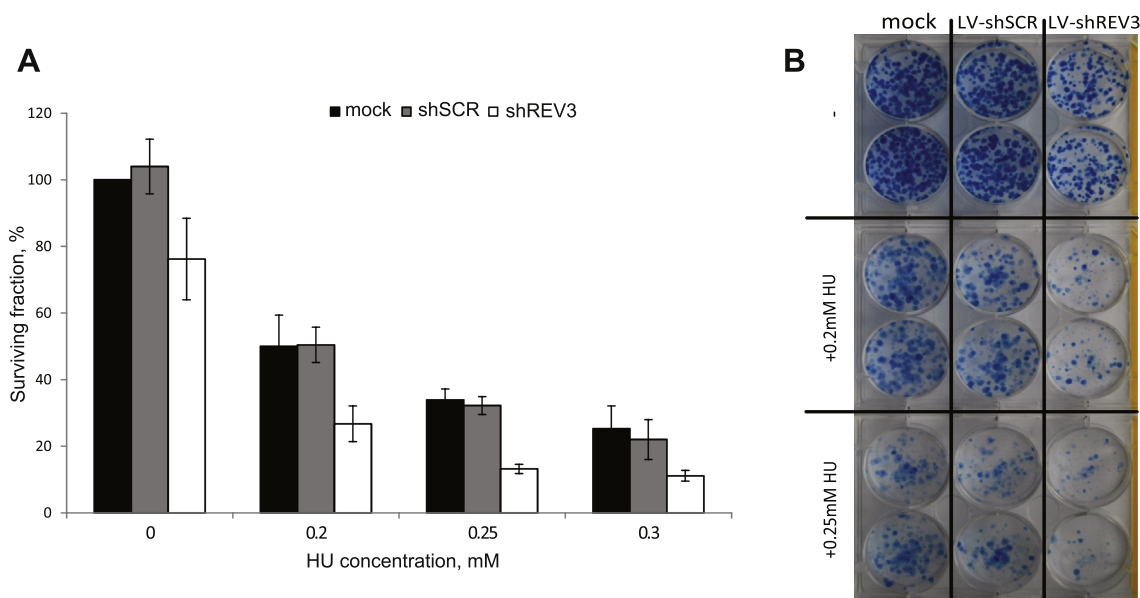
Rank	Gene	<i>p</i> -value	Viability difference score	Gene name
1	TXN	2.8E-05	1.50	Thioredoxin
2	CFLAR	4.9E-05	2.24	CASP8 and FADD-like apoptosis regulator
3	ATAD1	5.1E-05	0.88	ATPase family, AAA domain containing 1
4	A1BG	9.9E-05	1.83	Alpha-1-B glycoprotein
5	SLC16A10	1.7E-04	1.24	Solute carrier family 16 (aromatic amino acid transporter), member 10
6	FAM107A	2.1E-04	0.82	Family with sequence similarity 107, member A
9	RFXAP	3.3E-04	0.84	Regulatory factor X-associated protein
14	CCR6	4.5E-04	2.13	Chemokine (C–C motif) receptor 6

with HU treatment caused a more pronounced decrease in the number of cells than could be expected by mere superposition of the individual effects, the interaction effect (HU:iREV3) being statistically significant (ANOVA,  $p = 0.018$ , Table A. 2).

RNR is a critical enzyme in *de novo* nucleotide synthesis. To assess whether alterations in nucleotide synthesis pathways in general are synergistic with REV3 silencing, we employed gene set enrichment analysis for linear models using rotation



**Figure 3** – Inhibition of ribonucleotide reductase (RNR) expression selectively reduces number of REV3-deficient cancer cells. (A) Confirmation screen with siRNA pools targeting genes with high specificity for reducing cell growth of REV3 deficient cells, performed on A549, S1C6 and R1B6 cells. Data for 9 selected genes including PLK1 control are represented. Shown are means  $\pm$  SD,  $n = 3$ . (B) Quantitation of colony formation in A549 cell line after REV3 silencing by siRNA transfection and RRM1 silencing by transduction with a lentiviral vector carrying a short hairpin RNA (LV-shRRM1) at varying multiplicities of infection (MOI). Shown are means  $\pm$  SD,  $n \geq 3$ .



**Figure 4** – HU treatment and REV3 silencing have synergistic growth inhibitory effect on cancer cells. (A) Quantitation of the colony formation after REV3 silencing by LV-shREV3 and subsequent HU treatment. Shown are means  $\pm$  SD,  $n \geq 3$ . (B) Image of a representative plate from a colony formation assay after REV3 silencing by LV-shREV3 and subsequent HU treatment.

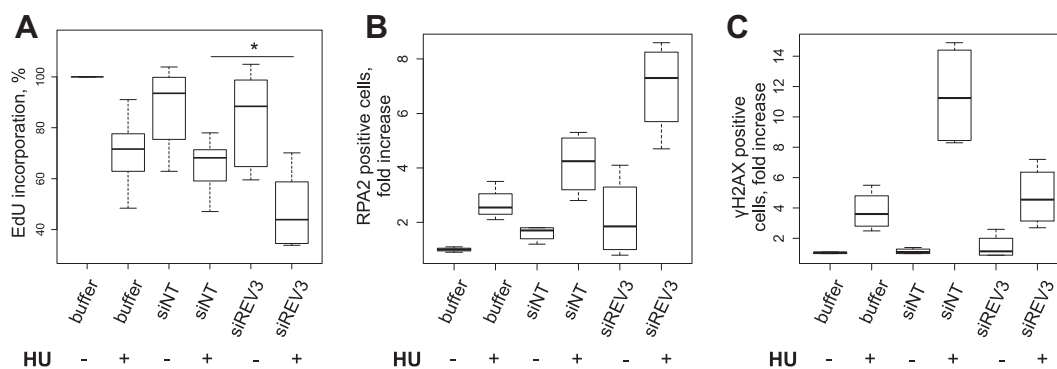
tests (ROMER) (Majewski et al., 2010), which is particularly suitable for the analysis of experiments with a small number of replicates (Dorum et al., 2009). We tested a set of KEGG pathways related to nucleotide metabolism (Table A. 3) and found that both purine and pyrimidine metabolisms were significantly enriched among the synthetic lethal genes ( $p$ -values 0.0041 and  $<1E-5$ , respectively). Since inhibition of RNR reduces the concentration of deoxyribonucleotides and leads to induction of replication stress (Feng et al., 2011), we tested whether the reduction in viability upon silencing of REV3 in combination with RNR inhibition can be extended to genes associated with replication stress. To guarantee an unbiased analysis, we generated a gene set by search of the NCBI human gene database with the term “replication stress” (Table A. 4). The replication stress gene set was also significantly enriched among the genes that had a high differential score in the screen ( $p = 0.00034$ ).

### 3.4. Down-regulation of REV3 expression enhances ssDNA formation induced by inhibition of ribonucleotide reductase

The SSL interaction of REV3-depletion with inhibition of the catalytic function of RNR and with silencing of genes associated with replication stress led us to hypothesize that REV3 might be involved in coping with nucleotide deprivation-induced replication stress in cancer cells. To test this hypothesis, we performed a series of flow cytometry experiments to investigate DNA synthesis, cell cycle distribution, DNA damage response and replication stress in A549 cells after REV3 silencing and HU treatment. The gating strategy for the flow cytometry experiments is illustrated in Figure A. 3.

HU treatment inhibited DNA synthesis, as evidenced by a reduced median EdU incorporation (Figure 5A). Silencing of

REV3 significantly enhanced DNA synthesis inhibition by HU (siREV3 transfection and HU treatment compared to siNT transfection and HU treatment;  $t$ -test  $p < 0.05$ ). RPA2 is a subunit of replication protein A (RPA), a protein that binds single-stranded DNA (ssDNA). Detection of chromatin-bound RPA can be used to track the increase in cellular ssDNA (Forment et al., 2012), a characteristic feature of replication stress (Vassin et al., 2009). Down-regulation of REV3 expression did not change significantly the fraction of RPA2-positive cells, compared to siNT control transfection (Figure 5B). In contrast, HU treatment significantly increased the number of RPA2-positive cells. Both control and REV3 siRNA transfections augmented the increase in ssDNA in response to HU, but this effect was stronger upon REV3 silencing. The synergy between HU treatment and REV3 silencing was significant evidenced by the  $p$ -value for the interaction effect HU:REV3 (ANOVA,  $p = 0.048$ , Table A. 2). An increased RPA2 signal can not only be due to enhanced replication stress but also to increased DNA end-resection during the process of DSB repair. To differentiate between these two possible causes we investigated whether the observed increase in RPA staining was accompanied by changes in DNA damage response. Phosphorylated histone H2AX ( $\gamma$ H2AX) is a marker for the cellular response to various types of DNA damage including DSBs (Marti et al., 2006). HU treatment was associated with a moderate but significant increase in the fraction of  $\gamma$ H2AX positive cells (Figure 5C). Unexpectedly, siNT transfection increased  $\gamma$ H2AX induction by HU treatment (ANOVA, HU:siNT  $p = 0.016$ , Table A. 2), whereas siREV3 transfection did not lead to a significant change compared to HU-only treated cells ( $t$ -test, HU vs HU + siREV3 NS). Interestingly, comparison of siNT + HU and siREV3+HU revealed a significant decrease of H2AX phosphorylation after REV3 silencing and subsequent HU treatment (ANOVA, HU:REV3  $p = 8.8e-4$ , Table A. 2).



**Figure 5** – Effects of REV3 silencing and HU treatment on (A) EdU incorporation, (B) RPA2 and (C)  $\gamma$ H2AX levels determined by flow cytometry. The cells were seeded and transfected the next day. After 24 h, the medium was exchanged and after another 24 h 0.25 mM HU was added. After 24 h of treatment, EdU was applied for 1 h after which cells were harvested, fixed and stained. Shown are the standard box plots representing the median with interquartile range,  $n \geq 3$ .

Hence, REV3 silencing did not promote DSB induction in response to HU treatment. In fact, it seemed to inhibit HU-induced DNA damage accumulation as demonstrated by decreased H2AX phosphorylation. Nevertheless, this observation has to be interpreted with a certain caution due to the strong effect of the control transfection.

To further investigate in more detail the role of REV3 in counteracting replication stress, we analyzed the cell cycle distribution after inhibition of REV3 expression and HU treatment (Figure 6 A–C). In the absence of HU treatment, REV3 silencing significantly decreased the fraction of cells in S-phase, whereas the fraction of cells in the G<sub>2</sub>-phase of the cell cycle was significantly increased, confirming an earlier observation (Knobel et al., 2011). This is in agreement with a suggested function of REV3 outside of S-phase (Brondello et al., 2008). As expected, HU treatment induced a pronounced S-phase accumulation. This accumulation was not further enhanced by additional REV3 silencing, but notably also REV3-specific S-phase depletion was not detected. Combination of HU treatment and REV3 silencing lead to a significant synergistic increase in S- and decrease in G<sub>2</sub> cell fractions (ANOVA, HU:siREV3  $p = 0.0062$  and  $3.9e-5$  respectively, Table A. 2) reflecting that HU treatment perturbed the cell cycle distribution of REV3-deficient cells more than that of controls. Thus, the increase in the fraction of S-phase cells induced by HU treatment was more pronounced in REV3-deficient compared to REV3-proficient cells suggesting an increased role of REV3 in S-phase cells upon HU treatment. We observed that the fraction of sub-G<sub>1</sub> cells did not change upon HU treatment alone ( $3.5 \pm 0.4\%$ ,  $p = 0.54$ ) and combined REV3 silencing and HU treatment ( $3.3 \pm 1.4\%$ ,  $P = 0.50$ ) compared to control ( $4.2 \pm 1.7\%$ ) implying that observed synergy is rather due to proliferation defect than induction of apoptosis. We also compared the fractions of RPA positive cells in different cell cycle phases (Figure 6D–F). The S-phase fraction of siREV3 + HU treated cells contained a significantly larger proportion of RPA positive cells than the S-phase fractions of siNT + HU or HU treated cells (t-test,  $p < 0.05$ ). Such a difference was not observed in G<sub>1</sub>- and G<sub>2</sub>-phases. This indicates that the synergistic increase in cellular ssDNA upon combined siREV3 transfection and HU treatment (see Figure 5) occurs

mainly in the S-phase of the cell cycle. This is consistent with the role of pol $\zeta$  in DNA replication upon RS.

### 3.5. REV3 silencing enhances RS signaling

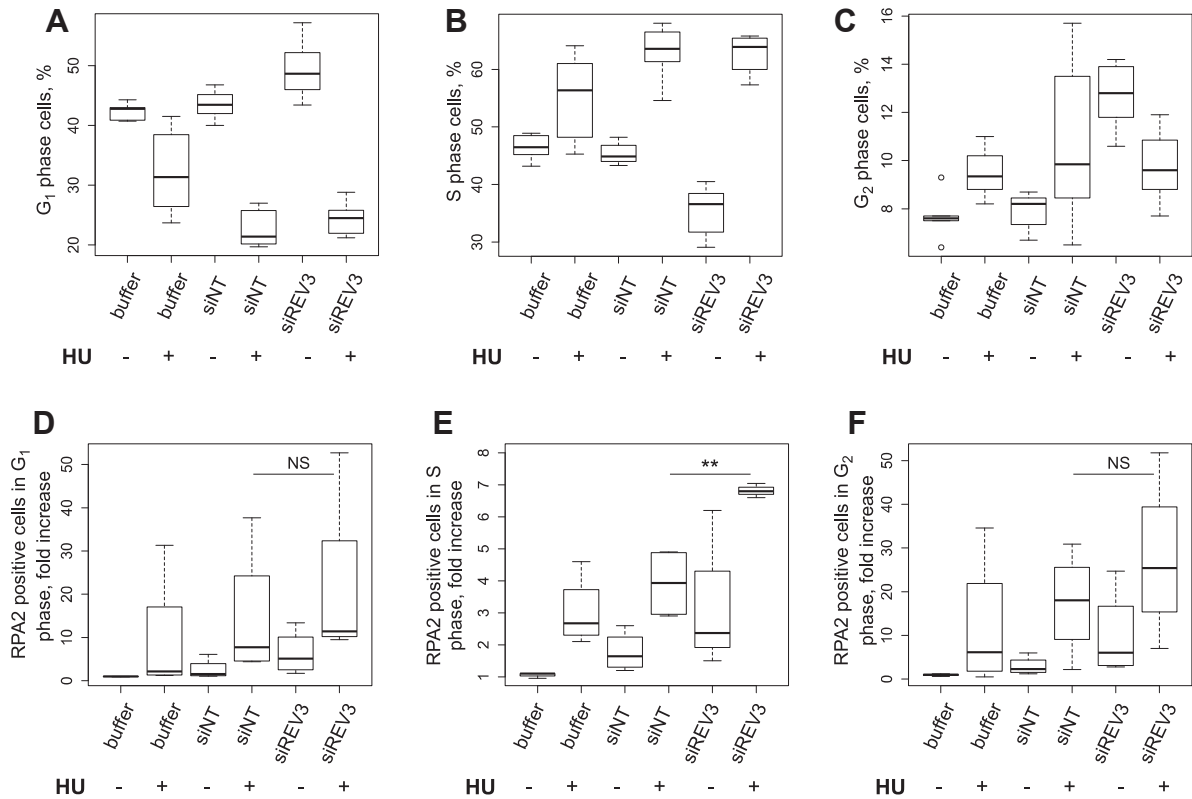
To investigate whether increased H2AX phosphorylation is due to RS-induced DSB formation, we performed immunoblotting analysis of ATM phosphorylation. ATM phosphorylation at serine 1981 is a specific marker for DSBs (So et al., 2009). In addition, CHK1 is phosphorylated by ATR in response to replication fork stalling and was used to assess the quantity of stalled but not resolved or collapsed replication forks. HU treatment solely induced CHK1 phosphorylation whereas ionizing radiation, as a positive control for DSBs, mainly induced ATM phosphorylation (Figure 7). Treatment with 2 mM HU for 80 min resulted in phosphorylation of both CHK1 and ATM. Immunoblotting analysis revealed that the response to HU treatment was affected by both preceding siNT and siREV3 transfections. In detail, preceding control transfection increased HU-induced p-ATM and decreased p-CHK1, which might be attributable to collapsed replication forks due to the increased effective HU concentration upon transfection, as discussed below. In comparison, HU treatment after siREV3 transfection leads only to a modest increase in ATM phosphorylation but further enhances CHK1 phosphorylation, which might indicate accumulation of stalled but intact replication forks.

## 4. Discussion

This study aimed to identify SSL gene interactions with REV3 in lung cancer cells. For screening, we used stable cell lines obtained from A549 NSCLC cells carrying a plasmid vector expressing a short hairpin against REV3 or a scrambled control shRNA. The approximately 50% decrease in REV3 mRNA expression in the cell line R1B6 is of physiological relevance since it conferred cisplatin sensitivity.

Screening with a whole human genome siRNA library allowed us to determine synthetic lethal interactions with REV3 in an unbiased way. Statistically significant hits were



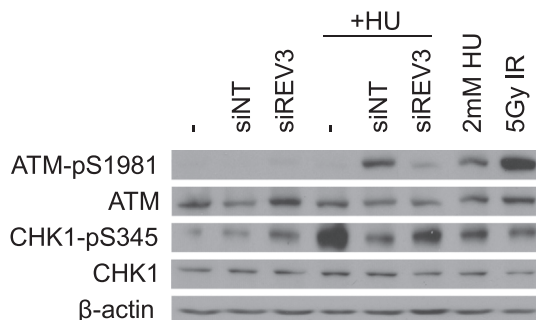


**Figure 6 – Effects of REV3 silencing and HU treatment on cell cycle distribution and RPA-positive cells. Panels show the percentages of cells in (A) G<sub>1</sub>, (B) S and (C) G<sub>2</sub>/M phase of the cell cycle; and the percentages RPA-positive cells in (D) G<sub>1</sub>, (E) S and (F) G<sub>2</sub>/M phase of the cell cycle. Shown are the standard box plots representing the median with interquartile range,  $n \geq 3$ .**

ranked according to their differential inhibition of cell viability in the pair of cell lines. Consequently, a top position of a gene in the primary hit list indicates that the proliferation of the NSCLC cells is heavily dependent on this gene in a REV3-deficiency dependent manner. Our analysis revealed that silencing of RRM1, the large subunit of RNR, had the second most pronounced effect in reduction of cell viability specifically in a REV3-deficient background. Additionally, RRM2,

the small subunit of RNR, also ranked among the top 2% genes in our screen, further corroborating that inhibition of RNR is synthetic lethal with REV3 depletion. RRM2 is overexpressed in many tumor types. For example, it was shown that RRM2 is highly ( $\sim 15\times$ ) overexpressed in NSCLC (Hou et al., 2010). Moreover, RRM2 was suggested to act in cooperation with a variety of oncogenes to increase their transformation and tumorigenic potential (Fan et al., 1998). It is well known that inhibition of RNR function affects proliferation of cancer cells to a greater extent than normal cells, which allows successful application of small molecule inhibitors targeting RNR in the clinic for cancer treatment (reviewed in (Cerqueira et al., 2005)). Together, these data suggest that cancer cells are frequently addicted to RNR overexpression. Therefore, we further focused our analysis on the synthetic lethal interaction of REV3 with RNR.

Downregulation of RRM1 expression and treatment with HU, a drug inhibiting small subunit RRM2 of RNR, in combination with transient siRNA-based depletion of REV3 resulted in synergistic inhibition of cell proliferation (i.e. synthetic sickness or proliferation defect) as indicated by reduced EdU incorporation. This indicates that the observed effects are not RNR-subunit specific but rather related to RNR catalytic function. Inhibition of RNR catalytic activity leads to deprivation of deoxyribonucleotides, reduced replication rate and stalling of replication forks (Petermann et al., 2010). Higher concentrations of HU ( $\sim 2$  mM) can induce complete cell cycle



**Figure 7 – Combination of REV3 silencing with HU-treatment induces CHK1 activation that is not accompanied by ATM phosphorylation. A549 cells were transfected and 2 days later treated with 0.25 mM HU for 24 h. Cells treated with 2 mM HU for 80 min and cells irradiated with 5 Gy of  $\gamma$ -radiation (IR) were used as controls.**

arrest, which is often exploited for synchronization of cultured cells. The concentrations that we used (0.2–0.3 mM) show very limited cytotoxicity and allow replication sufficient for colony formation experiments even upon long-term treatment (Figure 3). In addition, the absence of a significant increase in sub-G<sub>1</sub> cell fraction upon HU and HU + siREV3 treatments indicates that 24 h treatment with these HU concentrations does not induce apoptosis. However these concentrations are sufficient to create nucleotide pool imbalance (Skog et al., 1992), thereby generating conditions of mild replication stress. Therefore, we tested whether RS-related genes were overrepresented among the genes whose silencing induced SSL in the REV3-deficient background and found this enrichment to be significant.

We proceeded with detection of chromatin-bound RPA, an indicator for replication-associated ssDNA formation, and controlling levels of DNA damage measured by H2AX phosphorylation. Compared to individual treatments, combination of HU treatment with REV3 silencing synergistically increased the fraction of RPA positive cells, which was not accompanied by increased levels of  $\gamma$ H2AX. Thus, under conditions of HU-induced RS, silencing of REV3 in the lung cancer cell line A549 impairs DNA replication but does not lead to increased DNA damage accumulation, indicating that pol $\zeta$  is directly involved in DNA replication. This is further corroborated by our finding that the fraction of S-phase cells after siREV3+HU treatment is significantly higher than could be expected from a simple additive effect of HU treatment and REV3 silencing, which suggests an important role of REV3 in the DNA synthesis of HU-treated cells. Moreover, the significant increase in RPA positive cells upon combined HU treatment and REV3 silencing (HU + siREV3 vs HU + siNT) was found only in S phase and not in G<sub>1</sub> and G<sub>2</sub> phases of the cell cycle, whereas both G<sub>2</sub> and S phases would be affected if homologous recombination was involved.

We did not expect that the concentrations of HU that we used would strongly induce DNA damage since treatment of human cancer cells with 8 times higher HU concentration for the same time (24 h) resulted only in a moderate induction of DSBs as shown by pulse-field gel electrophoresis (Petermann et al., 2010). Also single stranded breaks were not detected by alkaline unwinding technique (Skog et al., 1992) after treatment with a comparably low concentration of HU (0.1 mM). Nevertheless, due to the high sensitivity of the flow cytometry method, we detected increased H2AX phosphorylation upon HU treatment that was further increased by preceding transfection with control siRNA. Lipid-mediated siRNA transfection is known to affect permeability of the cell membrane. In analogy, we speculate that the increased  $\gamma$ H2AX and RPA2 signals detectable after control transfection and subsequent HU treatment might be explained by the increased drug penetration and therefore a higher effective intracellular HU concentration even when cells were treated after removal of the transfection reagent.

It was previously reported that DNA damage induced H2AX phosphorylation is replication dependent and can be reduced by contact inhibition (Marti et al., 2006). Our analysis of EdU incorporation revealed that HU treatment significantly reduced the fraction of replicating cells in REV3-deficient cells compared to REV3-proficient cells. Thus, we speculate that the

reduced level of  $\gamma$ H2AX (by flow cytometry) and the diminished ATM phosphorylation (by immunoblotting analysis) in siREV3+HU treated cells compared to siNT + HU control cells might be attributed to the decreased DNA replication rate upon REV3 silencing and subsequent reduction of HU-induced replication fork breakage. Similarly, replication slowdown upon REV3 silencing and subsequent HU treatment might also explain the reduced rate of replication-associated fork collapse. However, due to strong influence of siNT transfection on cells, these data should be regarded as inconclusive. Consequently, it is a matter of further investigations to elucidate in more detail whether REV3 silencing inhibits replication fork collapse upon RS.

Nucleotide concentrations are tightly regulated throughout the cell cycle and perturbation of this regulation leads to increased mutation rate (Kumar et al., 2011). One of the key components of this regulation is the regulation of RNR activity. In yeast, upregulation of RNR activity increases replication fork speed, indicating that nucleotide pools are limiting for normal DNA replication (Poli et al., 2012). Both in yeast and mammalian cells, nucleotide pools are expanded upon entry in the S-phase. In mammalian cells, exit from S phase is associated with a decrease of dNTP pools, most notably of dCTP changing 3-fold (Leeds et al., 1985; Skoog et al., 1973). The absolute changes of nuclear nucleotide pools during the cell cycle are even more pronounced (Bjursell and Skoog, 1980) perhaps making them limiting for late DNA replication. Thus, in addition to the role of Pol $\zeta$  in replication after HU-generated nucleotide deprivation, we speculate that Pol $\zeta$  might also be involved in the late DNA replication. In this context, the recently discovered role of Pol $\zeta$  in the stability of fragile sites (Bhat et al., 2013) can be viewed as a particular case of late DNA replication, since fragile sites are known to be replicated late during the cell cycle and their stability is compromised by RS inducing agents (aphidicolin, hydroxyurea, low folate medium). In detail, common fragile sites (CFS) are replicated in late S phase and their replication is even further delayed by aphidicolin, causing the replication of CFS to persist in G<sub>2</sub> phase (Le Beau et al., 1998). In our study, upon REV3 silencing in the absence of HU treatment, an increase in the fraction of cells in the G<sub>2</sub>-phase was the most prominent effect (1.5 fold), suggesting that REV3 plays its most important role in this cell cycle phase, which is in agreement with the recently reported enrichment of REV3 on the chromatin in G<sub>2</sub>/M and its role in fragile site maintenance (Bhat et al., 2013). However, HU treatment increased the S-phase fraction of REV3 depleted cells more than that of cells without REV3 silencing, which suggests that REV3 has increased importance in S-phase upon HU treatment. Thus, we speculate that under our experimental conditions, the HU treatment induces in A549 cells the early onset of the “late DNA replication”, which typically occurs during G<sub>2</sub>-phase, already in S-phase by creating conditions of nucleotide shortage. In other words, REV3 function in replication does not seem to be confined to a certain cell cycle phase but it rather becomes important whenever replication problems are encountered.

Late replicating DNA regions were previously shown to be particularly prone to mutagenesis in both yeast (Agier and Fischer, 2012) and humans (Stamatoyannopoulos et al., 2009), indicating a likely conservation of the mechanism

underlying this phenomenon. In yeast, comparison of available catalytic  $K_m$  parameters of polymerases  $\zeta$ ,  $\delta$  and  $\eta$  (Table A. 5) suggests that in the conditions of nucleotide shortage ( $dN \ll K_m$ ) Pol $\zeta$  can bind nucleotides with the highest affinity, because its  $K_m$  values for incorporation of 3 nucleotides are 5–20 times lower than those of Pol $\delta$ . This is due to Pol $\zeta$  lysine residue K1061 that binds the triphosphate group of nucleotides, increasing the binding affinity, but decreasing replication fidelity (Howell et al., 2008; Zhong et al., 2006). This error-prone nature of Pol $\zeta$  suggests that it can contribute to the late replication mutagenesis by participating in this process as suggested above.

Nucleotide biosynthesis is commonly upregulated in cancer cells to cope with their increased metabolic requirements (Tong et al., 2009). Therefore, many oncogenes not only induce replication stress (Gorgoulis et al., 2005) (Halazonetis et al., 2008; Neelsen et al., 2013), but also activate nucleotide synthesis (Bester et al., 2011). Consequently, concentrations of the 4 dNTPs in tumor cells are on average 6–11 fold higher than in normal cells (Traut, 1994). But, if a cancer cell fails to adjust its metabolism, nucleotide deficiency promotes genomic instability (Bester et al., 2011) and also can lead to oncogene-induced senescence (Aird et al., 2013). Interestingly, cells lacking REV3 undergo senescence and accumulate persistent DNA DSBs at later time points (Knobel et al., 2011; Lange et al., 2013), possibly reflecting their inability to cope with RS (Feng et al., 2011). Based on our present findings it is tempting to hypothesize that oncogene-induced RS could be the unifying feature responsible for the observed cancer cell specific growth arrest upon REV3 silencing described earlier by our group (Knobel et al., 2011).

The function of Pol $\zeta$  in DNA replication under conditions of nucleotide deficiency-associated replication stress might also help in understanding its role in embryogenesis. Rev3 knockout is embryonic lethal in mice causing depletion of the hematopoietic compartment and embryonic stem cells (Esposito et al., 2000). A recent study showed that hematopoietic tissue is highly prone to RS associated with nucleotide pool imbalance (Austin et al., 2012). Besides, human embryonic stem cells are very sensitive to RS (Desmarais et al., 2012) and high levels of RS are observed upon stem cell induction (Pasi et al., 2011). Apparently, hematopoietic and embryonic stem cells overexpress REV3 in order to cope with excessive RS and suffer the most from REV3 depletion.

In summary, our study identifies a novel function of human pol $\zeta$  in coping with replication stress thereby broadening our understanding of its role in cell biology.

### Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.molonc.2014.07.008>.

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