CPSF3 inhibition blocks pancreatic cancer cell proliferation through
disruption of core histone processing
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29 Abstract

30 Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is a lethal disease with limited effective treatment 31 options. This potentiates the importance of uncovering novel drug targets. We have discovered global dysregulation of the gene regulatory process alternative polyadenylation (APA) in PDAC. 32 33 APA is a pre-mRNA processing mechanism that generates mRNAs with distinct 3' ends, impacting gene expression and protein function. We revealed that APA dysregulation in PDAC 34 35 drives oncogenic signatures and predicts poor patient outcome. As APA directs widespread gene 36 expression dysregulation across the PDAC patient population, we hypothesized that inhibition of 37 APA has therapeutic potential. APA is controlled by a complex of proteins, including cleavage and polyadenylation specificity factor 3 (CPSF3). CPSF3 is the endonuclease catalyzing mRNA 38 cleavage, and a potentially druggable target. We now find that CPSF3 is highly expressed and 39 associated with poor prognosis in PDAC patients. CPSF3 knockdown decreases PDAC 40 proliferation and clonogenicity in vitro and tumor growth in vivo. We demonstrate that CPSF3 41 42 knockdown induces widespread APA alterations of oncogenes and tumor suppressors, and determine the contribution of one of these events to CPSF3-induced cell proliferation phenotype. 43 Furthermore, we find that PDAC, but not non-transformed pancreatic cells, are sensitive to the 44 45 CPSF3 small molecule inhibitor JTE-607. Mechanistically, JTE-607 impairs replication-dependent 46 histone processing, disrupting nucleosome assembly and destabilizing chromatin structure. 47 Finally, we determine that JTE-607 attenuates cell proliferation by arresting cells in early S-phase 48 of the cell cycle. Altogether, we identify CPSF3 as a druggable target in PDAC and reveal novel 49 mechanisms by which CPSF3 controls cancer cell growth.

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51 **Significance:** This work identifies CPSF3 as a potential drug target in pancreatic ductal 52 adenocarcinoma and reveals new mechanisms by which CPSF3 inhibition attenuates PDAC cell 53 proliferation through modulating alternative polyadenylation and histone processing.

54 Introduction

55 Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is the third leading cause of cancer deaths with a five-56 year survival rate of 11%, due in part to the lack of effective treatment options (1). PDAC is primarily driven by mutations in the oncogene KRAS and several tumor suppressors, including 57 TP53, CDKN2A and SMAD4 (2). However, as clinically effective modulators of activity of these 58 proteins are not currently available, identification of novel targets amenable to small molecule 59 60 inhibition is a critical undertaking. Recently, large-scale RNA sequencing efforts of PDAC tumors 61 have revealed widespread dysregulation of oncogenic gene expression, allowing the characterization of several PDAC subtypes and phenotypic states (3-6). These gene expression 62 63 changes are critical for driving tumor phenotypes, including metastatic progression (7-11). While these gene expression changes have been extensively catalogued, the mechanisms underlying 64 65 this transcriptional heterogeneity remain largely unknown (12). We propose that targeting these 66 drivers of dysregulated gene expression represents an opportunity to reverse widespread 67 oncogenic activity in transformed cells.

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69 One such gene regulatory process that has been implicated in cancer is alternative 70 polyadenylation, or APA (13–15). APA is a co-transcriptional mRNA processing mechanism that generates distinct transcript isoforms with different 3' untranslated region (UTR) lengths, 71 72 ultimately affecting mRNA stability, localization and translation (13). Recently, we identified widespread APA alterations in PDAC patients that are associated with functional changes in both 73 74 gene and protein expression of growth-promoting genes (16). We revealed APA as a new 75 mechanism that regulates PDAC gene expression, identified patterns of APA associated with 76 poor patient outcome, and uncovered novel APA-regulated therapeutic targets. As APA is widely 77 dysregulated across the PDAC patient population, and drives known pro-tumorigenic pathways, we propose that APA inhibition represents a promising therapeutic approach. 78

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Cleavage and polyadenylation specificity factor 3 (CPSF3) is the endonuclease responsible for 80 81 mRNA cleavage and is part of two distinct RNA processing complexes (17). One is the APA complex where CPSF3 cooperates with other APA factors to cleave the mRNA prior to the 82 83 addition of the poly(A) tail. The second is the histone cleavage complex (HCC) where pre-mRNAs 84 of replication-dependent core histories are cleaved by CPSF3 but not polyadenylated. Recently, 85 CPSF3 was identified as the target of the small molecule JTE-607 (18,19). JTE-607 is hydrolyzed 86 into an active compound that directly interacts with the CPSF3 interfacial cavity (19). This 87 interaction inhibits CPSF3 catalytic activity leading to accumulation of unprocessed newly

synthesized pre-mRNAs. JTE-607 induces apoptosis of human acute myeloid leukemia (AML)
and Ewing sarcoma cells *in vitro* and prolongs survival of tumor-bearing mice in xenograft models *in vivo* (20,21). Notably, administration of JTE-607 in healthy volunteers demonstrated the safety
of this compound in humans, with no severe adverse events reported (22). However, the role of
CPSF3 and the effect of JTE-607 in epithelial cancers remains largely unknown.

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94 Here, we show that knockdown and/or inhibition of CPSF3 attenuates PDAC cell proliferation in 95 vitro and in vivo. We find that CPSF3 is highly expressed in PDAC patients and is a predictor of 96 poor outcome. We conduct the first global analysis of CPSF3 loss in cancer, uncovering APA 97 events correlating with expression alterations in tumor suppressors and oncogenes. Additionally, we find that small molecule inhibition of CPSF3 by JTE-607 selectively attenuates proliferation of 98 99 PDAC cells but not non-transformed cells. Finally, we uncover a new mechanism by which JTE-607 attenuates cell proliferation, through disruption of replication-dependent histone mRNA 100 101 processing, thus altering chromatin stability and dysregulating the cell cycle.

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To our knowledge, our study is the first to pharmacologically target CPSF3 activity in epithelial cancers in general, and in PDAC specifically. We reveal that CPSF3 disruption blocks cell proliferation through multiple mechanisms, including APA-mediated gene expression alterations and disruption of proliferation-dependent histone mRNA processing. Furthermore, we provide the first connection between CPSF3 inhibition and chromatin stability. Overall, our findings uncover new functions of CPSF3 in cancer and nominate CPSF3 as a novel therapeutic target in PDAC.

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110 Materials and Methods

111 Cell lines and *in vitro* culture

HEK293T, MiaPaCa2 and Panc1 were purchased from ATCC. Suit2 cells were obtained from Dr. 112 113 David Tuveson (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory). Human immortalized C7 CAFs and PancPat 114 CAFs cells were obtained from Dr. Edna Cukierman (Fox Chase Cancer Center). Cells were cultured in DMEM (Corning, DMEM [+] 4.5 g/L glucose, L-glutamine, sodium pyruvate) 115 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin. Non-116 117 transformed pancreatic cell lines HPNE and HPDE were obtained from Dr. Ethan Abel (Roswell 118 Park Comprehensive Cancer Center). HPNE cells were cultured in 75% DMEM+25% Medium M3 Base supplemented with 2mM L-glut, 1.5g/L sodium bicarbonate, 5% FBS, 10ng/mL hEGF and 119 120 5.5mM D-glucose. HPDE cells were cultured in Keratinocyte SFM (serum-free media) 121 supplemented with 25mg BPE, 2.5µg EGF, 1X anti-anti and 50µg/mL Gentamicin. HeLa-TI cells

- 122 were obtained from Dr. Katerina Gurova (Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center) and were
- 123 cultured in phenol red-free FluoroBrite DMEM complete Media (ThermoFisher). All cell lines were
- 124 cultured at 37°C with 5% CO₂ and tested negative for Mycoplasma.
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126 Generation of stable CPSF3 knockdown cells

Vectors expressing short-hairpin RNA (shRNA) targeting CPSF3 (sh1 Target sequence: GCTGAGATTGATCTCCTATTA; Clone ID: NM_016207.2-219s1c1, sh2 Target sequence: CCAGTGAATTTATTCGTGCTT; Clone ID: NM_016207.2-1240s1c1) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Cells were infected with lentivirus harboring pLKO.1-shNTC (non-targeting control) and pLKO.1-shCPSF3. Polybrene was used to increase the efficacy of infection. After 72 hours, cells were selected with 2.5µg/ml puromycin. Knockdown was confirmed by qPCR and immunoblotting.

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135 RNA isolation and quantitative PCR

Cells were lysed with TRIzol reagent (Thermofisher Scientific; Cat # 15596026). RNA was isolated 136 using Direct-zol RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research; Cat # R2050). cDNA was synthesized using 137 138 iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad; Cat# 1708891). gPCR was conducted with SYBR Green 139 PCR primers (CPSF3; Unique Assay ID: gHsaCID0007422, ACTB; Unique Assay ID 140 gHsaCED0036269, HIST1H3B; Unique Assay ID: gHsaCED0007746, HIST1H2BC; Unique 141 Assay ID: qHsaCED0007746, FHL1; Unique Assay ID: qHsaCED0038537) mixed with iTaq 142 Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad; Cat# 1725120) and run on CFX connect systems 143 (Bio-Rad). Data were analyzed in Microsoft Excel and graphed using GraphPad Prism (v 9.3.0).

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145 **RNA-sequencing and APA analysis**

Cells were trypsinized, washed with 1X PBS and sent frozen (-80°C) for RNA sequencing (RNA-146 147 seq). 500ng total RNA was used to prepare the sequencing libraries using KAPA RNA HyperPrep Kit with RiboErase (HMR) (Roche Sequencing Solutions) following manufacturer's protocol. 148 Briefly, ribosomal RNA (rRNA) was depleted from total RNA and DNase-digested to remove 149 gDNA contamination. RNA was purified, fragmented and first strand cDNA was synthesized using 150 random primers. cDNA:RNA hybrids were converted into double-stranded cDNA (dscDNA) using 151 152 dUTP incorporation. Adapters were added to the 3' ends, ligated to library insert fragments and 153 the library amplified in a strand-specific manner. Data were analyzed by the Bioinformatics Shared 154 Resource (Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center). APA analysis was done using Dynamic

Analysis of Alternative Polyadenylation from RNA-seq (DaPars) algorithm (23). Exact stepsfollowed for this analysis were previously described in (16).

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158 Immunoblotting

159 Samples were lysed using RIPA lysis buffer (50mM Tris. HCl pH 7.5, 150mM NaCl, 5mM EDTA pH 8, 1% Triton X-100, 0.5% NP-40) in the presence of 10ug/ml protease inhibitors (Aprotinin, 160 161 Leupeptin, PMSF), boiled at 95°C for 5min and resolved by SDS-PAGE. Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (0.2 µm, Bio-Rad, Cat. # 1620112) at a constant voltage of 100V for 162 163 70 minutes at 4°C using Mini Trans-Blot® Cell (Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked in TBST (Trisbuffered saline (TBS) with 0.1% v/v TWEEN-20; Sigma Aldrich) and 5% w/v nonfat dry milk 164 (Blotting-Grade Blocker #1706404, Bio-Rad). Primary antibodies were diluted in 3% BSA in TBST 165 and incubated overnight at 4°C (mouse monoclonal CPSF3 antibody, Abcepta, AT1610a: rabbit 166 polyclonal Histone H3 antibody, Cell Signaling Technology, 9715S; rabbit polyclonal Histone H2B 167 168 antibody, Cell Signaling Technology, 8135S; mouse monoclonal GAPDH antibody, Proteintech, 60004-1-Ig; rabbit polyclonal FHL1 antibody, Proteintech, 10991-1-AP). Membranes were 169 incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies at 1:2,000 dilution 170 171 (Donkey anti-rabbit; Fisher Scientific; Catalog number: 45-000-682, or Goat anti-mouse; Sigma-172 Aldrich; Catalog number: A4416) for 1 hour at room temperature. Pierce ECL Western Blotting 173 Substrate (Thermo Scientific, Catalog number; 32106) and Supersignal West Femto Maximum 174 Sensitivity substrate (Thermo Scientific, Catalog number: 34094) were used for chemiluminescent 175 detection. Signals were visualized and imaged using the ChemiDoc XRS+ System and Image 176 Lab Software (Bio-Rad).

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178 Proliferation and clonogenicity assays

For proliferation experiments, cells were seeded at a density of 250 cells/well (MiaPaCa2 and Panc1 cells) or 1000 cells/well (HPNE cells) into a white 96-well plate in triplicate. Cell proliferation was measured using CellTiter-Glo Luminescent Cell Viability Assay Kit (Promega) at days 0, 2, 4 and 6. For clonogenicity assays, cells were seeded at a density of 500 cells/well into a 6-well plate in triplicate. After 11 days, cells were fixed with 4% formalin, stained with 0.2% Crystal Violet and images were obtained for analysis. Colony area was measured using ImageJ software. Data were normalized to control data points.

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187 Cell cycle analysis

188 Cells were trypsinized and resuspended in 1X PBS, then fixed with ice-cold 70% ethanol for 1

hour at -20°C. Cells were then washed with cold 1X PBS and incubated with RNaseA (200µg/ml)

at 37°C for 1 hour. Propidium iodide (40µg/ml) was then added, incubated for 1 hour in the dark

- and analyzed by FACS at 488nm. Data were analyzed by FCS express software (v7.06.0015).
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193 BrdU incorporation assay

194 Cells were cultured under optimum conditions and incubated with 50µM BrdU (5-Bromo-2'deoxyuridine; Sigma-Aldrich; B5002) for 4 hours. Cells were then rinsed with 1X PBS, trypsinized, 195 196 permeabilized in 70% ice cold ethanol with gentle vortexing and stored at -20°C overnight. Next, cells were pelleted and DNA was hydrolyzed by incubating with 500µl of 2N HCI, 0.5% Triton X-197 198 100 in 1X PBS, incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature and then neutralized by adding 1.5ml of 0.1 M sodium tetraborate (pH 8.5) for 2 minutes. Cells were then pelleted, washed once 199 with 1% BSA in 1X PBS and resuspended in 50µl 0.5% Tween 20, 1% BSA in 1X PBS. Next, 10⁶ 200 201 cells were incubated with 1µg Anti-BrdU-FITC (FITC anti-BrdU Antibody; BioLegend; Cat#364104) for 1 hour at room temperature. Cell pellets were washed once with 150µl 1% BSA 202 in 1X PBS, resuspended in 500µL 1X PBS with RNaseA (200 µg/ml) and PI (40 µg/ml) and 203 204 incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes in the dark. Cells were analyzed by flow cytometry 205 immediately and a compensation step was performed. Data were analyzed by FCS Express 206 software (v7.06.0015).

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208 3' RACE

3' RACE was performed as previously described (16). Briefly, first strand cDNA was synthesized 209 (5'-210 from the poly(A)tail using an adapter primer GACTCGAGTCGACATCGATTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT-3'). Gene specific PCR amplification was 211 212 then performed using a gene specific primer spanning the stop codon (FHL1: 5'-TCCACTGCAAAAAATGCTCCGTGA-3') 213 and an adapter-targeting primer (5'-GACTCGAGTCGACATCG-3'). The PCR products were run on a 1.2% agarose gel and visualized 214 and imaged using the ChemiDoc XRS+ System and Image Lab Software (Bio-Rad). 215

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217 Xenograft experiments

Animal experiments were approved by the Roswell Park Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. MiaPaCa2 cells infected with shNTC and sh1 CPSF3 constructs were trypsinized, washed with 1X PBS and counted. $5x10^5$ cells were resuspended in 50µl of 1X PBS/Matrigel (Corning Life Sciences, 356231) in a 1:1 ratio and injected subcutaneously into the flanks of 8-

week old NOD/SCID/IL2R $\gamma^{-/-}$ (NSG) mice. When palpable, tumor volume was determined by caliper measurements obtained in 2 dimensions and calculated as width² x length/2 twice a week. Mice were euthanized when the first tumor reached 1400 mm³, tumors were dissected, and tumor volumes were measured.

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227 JTE-607 studies

For dose-response measurements, cells were seeded at a density of 1000 cells per well in a 96-228 229 well white plate. The next day, JTE-607 was titrated over a range of concentrations using the 230 Tecan D300e Digital Dispenser and cell viability was measured 72 hours post drug titration using a CellTiter-Glo Luminescent Cell Viability Assay Kit (Promega). For cell proliferation experiments, 231 cells were seeded at a density of 250 cells per well in a 96-well white plate. DMSO control or JTE-232 233 607 was dispensed at varying concentrations and proliferation was measured using CellTiter-Glo Assay at days 0, 2, 4 and 6. For clonogenicity experiments, cells were seeded at a concentration 234 235 of 500 cells per well and treated with different concentrations of JTE-607. Cells were allowed to grow over a period of 11-14 days after which they were fixed in 4% formalin, stained with 0.2% 236 Crystal Violet and images were obtained for analysis. Colony area was measured using ImageJ 237 238 software. Data were normalized to DMSO control data points.

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240 Micrococcal digestion

241 Micrococcal Nuclease (MNase) was performed as previously described (24). Briefly, cells were 242 trypsinized, washed with 1X RSB buffer (10mM Tris HCL, pH7.6; 15mM NaCl; 1.5mM MgCl2) 243 and pelleted at 1000rpm for 4 minutes at room temperature. Cell pellets were resuspended in 1X RSB buffer with 1% TritonX-100, homogenized with a loose pestle (5 strokes) and centrifuged for 244 5 minutes at 2000rpm at 4°C. Pellets were washed two times with 1ml of buffer A (10mM Tris 245 246 HCL, pH7.6; 15mM NaCl; 60mM KCl; 0.34M Sucrose; 0.1% B-mercaptoethanol; 0.15mM Spermine; 0.5 mM Spermidine; 0.25mM PMSF) and nuclei were pelleted at 160g for 10 minutes 247 at 4°C. Nuclei were resuspended in 1.5ml of buffer A supplemented with 1mM of CaCl₂. Nuclear 248 suspensions (500µI) were digested with 200U/ml Micrococcal nuclease (NEB, cat#MO247S) at 249 250 37°C at different time points. Digestion was inactivated by 15mM EDTA. 10%SDS and 1M NaCl 251 were added to extract genomic DNA. DNA was run and visualized using TapeStation 4200 system 252 (Genomic Shared Recourse, Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center).

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254 Statistical analyses

- Experimental findings were obtained from three independent experiments unless stated otherwise. Statistics were performed in GraphPad Prism 9. In general, P< 0.05 was considered statistically significant. All statistical methods and P-values are provided in the figure legends. Asterisks in graphs denote statistically significant differences as described in figure legends.
 Code availability
 The code used to analyze the data is available at (<u>https://github.com/feiginlab/CPSF3_PDAC</u>).
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264 Results

265 **CPSF3** is upregulated in human PDAC and predicts poor patient outcome

266 To determine the clinical significance of CPSF3 expression in PDAC, we first analyzed gene expression data from the Clinical Proteomic Tumor Analysis Consortium (CPTAC) (25). CPSF3 267 268 expression was significantly higher in PDAC tumors (n=135), as compared with non-tumor adjacent tissues (n=18) and normal pancreata (n=7) (Fig. 1A). Consistent with this finding, CPSF3 269 270 expression was also significantly higher in the Pancreatic Adenocarcinoma (PAAD) dataset from 271 The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) (n=147) as compared to normal pancreata (n=165) from The 272 Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project (Fig. 1B). Next, we sought to assess the relationship between CPSF3 expression and PDAC patient outcome. Patients with high CPSF3 expression 273 had significantly worse overall survival than patients with low CPSF3 expression (p=0.00164, 274 hazard ratio 5.047 (1.842-13.827)). Specifically, patients in the top quartile of CPSF3 expression 275 had a median survival of 14.2 months, while those in the bottom guartile of CPSF3 expression 276 277 had a median survival of 33.5 months (Fig. 1C). We then sought to assess CPSF3 expression status in our cell line models. In agreement with the clinical data, we found that CPSF3 is 278 upregulated in PDAC cell lines (MiaPaCa2, Suit2, Panc1) as compared to non-transformed 279 280 pancreatic epithelial cells (HPNE, HPDE) by RT-gPCR and western blot (WB) (Fig 1D,E). 281 Therefore, CPSF3 is highly expressed in PDAC, high expression correlates with poor patient 282 outcome, and our cell models are appropriate for mechanistic studies.

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284 CPSF3 is required for PDAC cell proliferation and tumor growth

To define the functional role of CPSF3 in PDAC we first took a genetic approach and generated 285 stable CPSF3 knockdown MiaPaCa2 and Panc1 cells. We used two different short hairpin RNAs 286 (sh1 and sh2) targeting CPSF3, and a non-targeting control (shNTC). Successful knockdown of 287 CPSF3 was confirmed at the RNA and protein level by RT-qPCR and WB, respectively, with sh1 288 cells having the highest level of knockdown in both cell lines (Fig. 2A,B). We then examined the 289 effect of CPSF3 knockdown on cell proliferation and colony formation capability. CPSF3 290 knockdown significantly attenuated proliferation as compared with shNTC controls in both 291 292 MiaPaCa2 and Panc1 cells (Fig. 2C). CPSF3 knockdown also significantly decreased colony 293 formation (Fig. 2D,E). In both the proliferation and colony formation assays, and in both PDAC 294 cell lines, sh1 CPSF3 had the strongest phenotype, consistent with higher levels of CPSF3 295 knockdown.

297 Next, we sought to determine the requirement for CPSF3 in PDAC tumor growth in vivo. We implanted MiaPaCa2 cells (either shNTC or sh1 CPSF3, 5x10⁵ per mouse) subcutaneously into 298 the flanks of NOD/SCID/IL2Ry^{-/-} (NSG) mice. CPSF3 knockdown tumors grew significantly slower, 299 300 and weighed significantly less at endpoint, than shNTC tumors (Fig. 2F-H). No changes in tumor 301 histopathology were noted by Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) staining (Fig. 21). Immunohistochemical (IHC) analysis revealed that CPSF3 knockdown was maintained in vivo 302 303 (Fig. 2J). Finally, IHC for Ki67 revealed a significant decrease in proliferation in CPSF3 304 knockdown tumors as compared with shNTC controls (Fig. 2K). Overall, these data support the 305 requirement for CPSF3 in PDAC cell proliferation and tumor growth.

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307 CPSF3 knockdown dysregulates global gene expression in PDAC cells

308 CPSF3 is an integral component of the polyadenylation complex: therefore, we hypothesized that CPSF3 knockdown would dysregulate APA, leading to global changes in mRNA expression. To 309 310 test this hypothesis, we subjected sh1 CPSF3 and shNTC Panc1 cells to RNA-sequencing (RNAseq). Differential expression analysis revealed 376 genes significantly upregulated and 98 genes 311 significantly downregulated (FDR<0.05; fold change >1.5) upon CPSF3 knockdown. To uncover 312 313 significantly altered changes in 3'-UTR length upon CPSF3 knockdown, we applied the DaPars 314 algorithm (23). DaPars identifies APA changes from standard RNA-seg data by generating a 315 Percentage Distal Usage Index (PDUI) score for each gene based on the relative abundances of 316 3'-UTR long and short forms. A negative PDUI indicates a shortening event, while a positive PDUI 317 indicates 3'-UTR lengthening. In accordance with our hypothesis, loss of CPSF3 resulted in global 318 APA dysregulation, with 402 genes having significantly shorter 3'-UTRs, and 292 genes having significantly longer 3'-UTRs in CPSF3 knockdown cells (-0.1>PDUI>0.1; P<0.05) (Fig. 3A). APA-319 mediated alterations in 3'-UTR length impact mRNA stability and thus, gene expression (13,26-320 321 28). To determine which CPSF3-mediated APA events might be driving individual changes in gene expression, we looked for genes that were significantly altered in both the DaPars and gene 322 323 expression analyses (Fig. 3B). Intriguingly, this list included multiple downregulated oncogenes, including SMAD Family Member 6 (SMAD6) and Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase Kinase 6 324 (MAP2K6), and upregulated tumor suppressors, including Four And A Half LIM Domains 1 (FHL1) 325 326 and CKLF-Like MARVEL Transmembrane Domain Containing 3 (CMTM3). Therefore, these data support a role for CPSF3 in controlling cell proliferation via APA-mediated dysregulation of a suite 327 328 of cancer-associated genes.

329

330 We next sought to determine if any of the APA-regulated oncogenes or tumor suppressors were 331 directly responsible for CPSF3 knockdown-mediated attenuation of cell proliferation. We focused 332 on FHL1, as it has been reported to possess tumor suppressor activity in non-PDAC cancers (29-32), but has no known roles in PDAC biology. FHL1 interacts with transcription factors and 333 signaling proteins, thus modulating gene transcription and signaling pathways (29,33). FHL1 334 suppresses tumor growth through several mechanisms, including interaction with tumor-335 336 regulating estrogen receptors and SMAD family proteins, and reduction of PI3K/AKT signaling (29,34,35). The FHL1 3'-UTR was significantly lengthened (P=0.029), and FHL1 gene expression 337 was significantly enriched, in CPSF3 knockdown cells, as compared with shNTC controls (Fig. 338 3B,C). FHL1 was also significantly overexpressed in CPSF3 knockdown MiaPaCa2 cells, as 339 compared with shNTC controls (Fig. 3D). We validated the shift in APA patterns of FHL1 by 3' 340 RACE (rapid amplification of 3' ends), revealing an increase in the long 3'-UTR form of FHL1 in 341 CPSF3 knockdown cells, and a concomitant decrease in the abundance of the short 3'-UTR form 342 343 (Fig. 3E). As APA can impact mRNA stability and translation, we determined FHL1 protein expression in shNTC and CPSF3 knockdown cells by WB (Fig. 3F). We found that FHL1 protein 344 levels were much higher in CPSF3 knockdown cells. We then asked whether the CPSF3-345 346 mediated upregulation of FHL1 was responsible for the effect of CPSF3 knockdown on PDAC cell 347 growth. We transiently knocked down FHL1 using siRNA in both shNTC and CPSF3 knockdown 348 cells and assessed the effect on proliferation. Knockdown of FHL1 was greater than 90% effective 349 (Fig. 3G). Knockdown of FHL1 in shNTC cells had no effect on cell viability over the 7-day time 350 course of the experiment (Fig. 3H). However, knockdown of FHL1 significantly rescued the 351 CPSF3 knockdown-induced proliferation phenotype. Therefore, CPSF3 knockdown reduces PDAC cell viability at least in part through upregulation of FHL1. Finally, we sought to determine 352 if there was a correlation between CPSF3 and FHL1 gene expression levels in PDAC patients. 353 354 We observed a significant negative correlation (R=-0.36, P<0.0001) between CPSF3 and FHL1 levels within the CPTAC database (Fig. 3I), supporting our conclusion that FHL1 levels are 355 mediated by CPSF3 expression in PDAC. 356

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358 PDAC cells are sensitive to chemical inhibition of CPSF3

359 CPSF3 was recently identified as the target for the small molecule JTE-607. JTE-607 is a prodrug 360 that, when metabolized by the ester hydrolyzing enzyme carboxylesterase 1 (CES1), binds to 361 CPSF3 and inhibits its catalytic activity, impairing the processing of newly synthesized mRNAs 362 (19). As genetic depletion of *CPSF3* attenuated PDAC cell proliferation (Fig. 2), we hypothesized 363 that pharmacologic inhibition of CPSF3 with JTE-607 could represent a novel therapeutic

364 approach in PDAC. We therefore examined the sensitivity of multiple human pancreatic cell lines. 365 both non-transformed and PDAC, to JTE-607 in a 72-hour dose-response cell viability assay. 366 Non-transformed pancreatic epithelial cells (HPNE, IC50=130.4µM; HPDE, IC50=60.11µM) and human cancer associated fibroblast cell lines (C7 CAF, IC50=70.04µM; PancPat CAFs, 367 IC50=114.2 µM) were not sensitive to JTE-607 (Fig. 4A-C). In contrast, human PDAC cell lines 368 displayed a range of sensitivities to JTE-607, with Panc1 cells being the most sensitive 369 370 (IC50=2.163µM) (Fig. 4A.C). Next, we determined the effect of JTE-607 on cell proliferation by treating cells with increasing concentrations of JTE-607 and assessing cell viability in a time-371 372 dependent fashion (Fig. 4D,E). JTE-607 had no effect on proliferation in non-transformed HPNE cells (Fig. 4D). However, proliferation of MiaPaCa2 and Panc1 PDAC cells was significantly 373 attenuated by JTE-607, in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 4E). Finally, we tested the effect of 374 JTE-607 on colony formation in PDAC cell lines. JTE-607 significantly decreased colony formation 375 in all PDAC cell lines tested (Fig. 4F,G). Therefore, JTE-607 selectively attenuates proliferation 376 377 of PDAC cells over non-transformed pancreatic cells.

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379 JTE-607 inhibits expression of replication-dependent histones

380 To determine the gene regulatory alterations underlying the ability of JTE-607 to attenuate PDAC 381 cell proliferation, we performed RNA-seq on Panc1 cells treated with DMSO or JTE-607 for 24 382 hours. Differential gene expression and alterations in 3'-UTR length were analyzed as described 383 above. Differential expression analysis revealed 1270 genes significantly upregulated and 646 384 genes significantly downregulated (FDR<0.05; fold change >1.5) upon JTE-607 treatment. We 385 predicted that inhibition of CPSF3 would result in a global shift towards lengthened 3'-UTRs. In accordance with our hypothesis, JTE-607 resulted in global APA dysregulation, with 1242 genes 386 having significantly longer 3'-UTRs, and 429 genes having significantly shorter 3'-UTRs in JTE-387 388 607 treated cells (-0.1>PDUI>0.1; P<0.05) (Fig. 5A). To determine which JTE-607-mediated APA events might be driving individual changes in gene expression, we looked for genes that were 389 390 significantly altered in both 3'-UTR length and gene expression (Fig. 5B). This revealed multiple downregulated oncogenes, including N-Acetyltransferase 10 (NAT10) and Casein Kinase 1 Delta 391 (CSNK1D), and upregulated tumor suppressors, including Elongation Factor For RNA 392 393 Polymerase II 2 (ELL2) and Cyclin Dependent Kinase Inhibitor 1A (CDKN1A). Next, we compared global APA alterations between the CPSF3 knockdown and JTE-607 treatment conditions. This 394 analysis revealed an overlap in APA altered genes upon CPSF3 knockdown and JTE-607 395 396 treatment (120 genes altered in both conditions; -0.1>PDUI>0.1; P<0.05), supporting the 397 contention that JTE-607 suppresses CPSF3 activity (Fig. 5C). However, many APA events were

distinct between the two conditions, suggesting that long term CPSF3 knockdown may bemechanistically distinct from short term CPSF3 inhibition.

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Next, we sought to determine how short term JTE-607 treatment attenuates PDAC proliferation. 401 402 We were intrigued to find that numerous histone genes were significantly downregulated upon JTE-607 treatment in Panc1 cells (Fig. 5D). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) demonstrated 403 404 a dysregulation in many histone-related pathways, including histone methylation, acetylation and deacetylation (Fig. 5E). Interestingly, the majority of the differentially expressed histories were 405 406 replication-dependent histones, including HIST1H2AD, HIST1H2BJ, HIST1H3A and HIST1H4E. 407 We validated the JTE-607-induced decrease in replication-dependent histories in MiaPaCa2 cells 408 (Fig 5F). Therefore, JTE-607 treatment decreases the expression of proliferation-dependent 409 histones.

410

411 Replication-dependent histone genes are not polyadenylated and undergo pre-mRNA processing 412 via the histone cleavage complex (HCC) (36). CPSF3 is the endonuclease component of the HCC 413 (17,37,38); while CPSF3 knockdown studies have demonstrated a role for CPSF3 in histone 414 processing, the effect of inhibiting CPSF3 activity on histone mRNA processing has never been 415 determined. We reasoned that lack of CPSF3-mediated cleavage activity would result in 416 transcriptional read-through extending beyond the boundaries of the 3'-UTR. Indeed, we found 417 that replication-dependent histones underwent transcriptional read-through upon JTE-607 418 treatment (Fig. 6A). Improperly processed mRNAs fail to be exported into the cytoplasm for 419 translation, leading to decreased protein levels (17,39,40). Therefore, we examined replication-420 dependent histone protein levels upon JTE-607 treatment and found that JTE-607 reduced both 421 H3 and H2B protein levels in a dose- and time-dependent fashion (Fig. 6B). In contrast, 422 replication-independent histones did not undergo transcriptional read-through upon JTE-607 423 treatment, and did not decrease in gene expression levels (Fig. 6C,D). Finally, we sought to 424 determine if there was a correlation between CPSF3 and histone gene expression levels in PDAC patients. We calculated the Spearman's correlation for CPSF3 and 98 histone genes from the 425 CPTAC database (Spearman = -0.15>R>0.15, P<0.05) (Fig. 6E-G). In accordance with our 426 427 experimental findings, there were significantly more positive correlations (43 genes) between 428 CPSF3 and histone gene expression than negative correlations (3 genes) among replication-429 dependent histones (Fig. 5F). In contrast, there were few significant correlations between CPSF3 430 and replication-independent histories (only 8 genes), and those significant alterations were

equally positive and negative (Fig. 5G). Collectively, these results indicate that JTE-607 inhibits
the function of CPSF3 in both the APA and histone mRNA processing complexes.

433

434 JTE-607 destabilizes chromatin and blocks cell cycle progression

As replication-dependent histories are required for nucleosome assembly (36,41-43), we 435 436 hypothesized that JTE-607 would dysregulate chromatin dynamics. First, we performed a 437 Micrococcal Nuclease (MNase) assay to assess relative chromatin condensation. In this assay, protein-free DNA is digested by MNase, producing DNA fragmentation patterns that are indicators 438 of whether chromatin is in a condensed or relaxed state. The chromatin destabilizing agent 439 440 CBL0137 was used as a positive control (44). Panc1 cells treated with JTE-607 or CBL037 441 displayed rapid and complete chromatin digestion, as compared with DMSO-treated cells (Fig. 442 7A, guantification in 7B). To assess chromatin destabilization in a living cell, we utilized the HeLa-443 TI cell line model that has a silenced GFP reporter within a heterochromatic region of the genome. 444 Treatment of these cells with chromatin destabilizing agents, including CBL0137, allows derepression of GFP silencing. Therefore, we monitored GFP expression in HeLa-TI cells upon 445 JTE-607 treatment by both florescence microscopy and flow cytometry. Cells treated with JTE-446 447 607 induced GFP expression to levels comparable with CBL0137 in a dose- and time-dependent 448 manner (Fig. 7C-E).

449

450 Finally, we sought to determine how JTE-607-mediated depletion of replication-dependent 451 histones led to defects in cell viability. As replication-dependent histones are required for cell cycle 452 progression, we assessed the effects of JTE-607 on cell cycle distribution. In non-transformed 453 HPNE cells, JTE-607 had no impact on cell cycle distribution (Fig. 8A). In contrast, JTE-607 arrested Panc1 and MiaPaCa2 PDAC cells in S-phase of the cell cycle within 24 hours (Fig. 8B). 454 To more specifically investigate the timing and extent of S-phase arrest, we examined BrdU 455 456 incorporation upon JTE-607 treatment in a time-dependent manner (Fig. 8C). We found that JTE-457 607 arrests cells in early to mid S-phase of the cell cycle as early as 8 hours (Fig. 8C). Therefore, 458 JTE-607 destabilizes chromatin and attenuates PDAC cell viability through S-phase cell cycle 459 arrest.

460

461 Discussion

Dysregulation of gene expression is a fundamental driver of cancer (45). This dysregulation can be driven by non-mutational epigenetic reprogramming, a mechanism that is now recognized as a hallmark of cancer (46). Emerging evidence has implicated dysregulation of one such non-

465 mutational gene regulatory process, APA, in the pathogenesis of cancer (23,47-49). Pan-cancer 466 analyses have revealed global changes in APA across the cancer landscape, and mechanistic 467 studies have characterized how these alterations promote oncogenesis (23,50–52). Recently, we reported the first large-scale, single cancer study of APA and discovered widespread alterations 468 in 3'-UTR length across the PDAC landscape. Importantly, many of these APA alterations were 469 associated with expression changes in growth-promoting genes, highlighting the importance of 470 471 APA in driving PDAC pathogenesis (16). Therefore, we hypothesized that therapeutically 472 targeting APA in PDAC would alleviate this global repatterning of 3'-UTR usage, normalizing the expression of oncogenes and tumor suppressors, and attenuating tumor growth. To directly test 473 474 this hypothesis, we focused on CPSF3, an enzymatic component of the APA machinery that catalyzes the endonucleolytic cleavage of the pre-mRNA. While CPSF3 has known roles in the 475 476 regulation of APA and histone mRNA processing, our study defines the first roles of CPSF3 activity in an epithelial cancer, with implications for therapeutic intervention in intractable 477 478 pancreatic cancer. We demonstrate that high CPSF3 expression is a predictor of poor patient 479 outcome and uncover the requirement for CPSF3 in PDAC cell proliferation in vitro and tumor 480 growth in vivo. We characterize the global APA alterations driven by loss of CPSF3, revealing the 481 dysregulation of numerous tumor suppressors and oncogenes. We then determine the direct 482 connection between a CPSF3-mediated APA event in the tumor suppressor FHL1 and PDAC cell 483 proliferation. Finally, we reveal dysregulation of histone processing downstream of CPSF3 484 inhibition, regulating cell cycle progression. These results demonstrate the potential for targeting 485 CPSF3 as a novel therapeutic approach in PDAC.

486

487 Our study has several clinical implications. First, we show that CPSF3 expression is dysregulated 488 in PDAC and high expression correlates with poor prognosis. This is consistent with similar 489 findings across the cancer landscape, where CPSF3 has been reported to be a predictor of 490 unfavorable prognosis in lung and liver cancers (53,54). While several studies have 491 experimentally manipulated various APA factors and determined the phenotypic impacts, little is known about the function of CPSF3 in disease, particularly cancer. This is noteworthy for several 492 493 reasons. First, CPSF3 is the enzymatic component of the APA machinery, and is thus a potentially 494 druggable target. Second, despite acting in the same complex, knockdown of specific APA factors 495 can have opposing impacts on APA and cellular phenotypes (50,51,55–58). Therefore, 496 understanding the role of CPSF3 specifically in PDAC cell proliferation is critical for elucidating its 497 potential as a novel therapeutic target. Recently, homozygosity in CPSF3 missense variants was

498 found to cause intellectual disability and embryonic lethality in humans. However, these 499 phenotypes were completely absent in the heterozygous carriers (59). In cancer cell line models, 500 CPSF3 is essential for cell proliferation when knocked out completely by CRISPR; however, CPSF3 is not an essential gene upon shRNA-mediated partial knockdown (www.depmap.org). 501 502 This suggests that pharmacological targeting of such an essential gene may be biologically feasible. In support of this hypothesis, we show that knockdown of CPSF3 blocks PDAC cell 503 504 proliferation and tumor growth, and that the efficiency of knockdown is a determinant of 505 phenotypic strength. Furthermore, CPSF3 inhibition does not impair cell cycle progression or 506 proliferation of non-transformed pancreatic epithelial cells, and the CPSF3 inhibitor JTE-607 is 507 non-toxic in humans. Therefore, inhibition of CPSF3 may preferentially target transformed cells.

508

509 Genetic manipulation of APA factors has been shown to alter APA patterns, dysregulate gene and protein expression and drive cancer phenotypes (50,51,63,64,52,53,55-57,60-62). While 510 511 several recent reports have linked CPSF3 loss to defects in tumor cell growth, no study has 512 mechanistically connected CPSF3 to global dysregulation of APA, gene expression and cell 513 phenotype. We and others have previously shown the direct effect of cancer-associated APA 514 alterations on gene expression and cancer cell proliferation and tumor growth (16.23.47.48). 515 Adding to that body of literature, we now demonstrate that CPSF3 knockdown alters 3'-UTR 516 length of multiple tumor suppressors and oncogenes, including FHL1, CMTM3, SMAD6 and 517 MAP2K6. To understand if these gene expression changes are responsible for driving CPSF3 knockdown-mediated phenotypes, we determined the requirement for FHL1 expression in 518 519 mediating cell proliferation. FHL1 possesses tumor suppressing activity in different cancer types 520 but has not been investigated in the context of PDAC (29–32). We find that silencing of FHL1, in 521 the context of CPSF3 knockdown, sufficiently rescues the defect in cell proliferation. Therefore, 522 we uncover a novel mechanism by which CPSF3 loss attenuates PDAC cell growth. We also 523 provide the first global view of the contribution of CPSF3 activity to PDAC gene expression, 524 revealing widespread control of genes implicated in cell growth. While dysregulation of FHL1 is at least partially responsible for the CPSF3 knockdown cell proliferation phenotype, we propose 525 526 that CPSF3 loss dysregulates the expression of a suite of cell growth genes through altering 3'-527 UTR length, thereby attenuating PDAC cell growth.

528

Recently, two groups independently demonstrated that CPSF3 is the target of the small molecule
 JTE-607 (18,19). JTE-607 was first identified over 20 years ago as a cytokine synthesis inhibitor;

531 however, the direct molecular target remained elusive. Despite the lack of a defined mechanism, 532 JTE-607 was tested in a Phase I dose-escalation trial in healthy human volunteers, with no serious 533 adverse effects (22). Therefore, despite inhibiting an essential enzyme responsible for processing >70% of polyadenylated mRNAs, JTE-607 is not uniformly toxic in humans. This property, coupled 534 with our data demonstrating JTE-607's anti-proliferative effects on cancer cells, supports the 535 contention that targeting CPSF3 is a feasible prospect in PDAC. In humans, endotoxin-induced 536 537 production of C-reactive protein, IL-10 and IL-1ra was inhibited by JTE-607 (22). In animal models, JTE-607 inhibited the production of proinflammatory cytokines, prevented endotoxin 538 539 shock and attenuated artificially induced lung and heart injury (65-67). JTE-607 has also been 540 used in models of acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and Ewing sarcoma and showed growth 541 inhibitory activity both in vitro and in vivo (xenograft models) (19-21). However, these studies 542 were limited to leukemia and sarcoma models, with no efficacy shown for epithelial-derived 543 tumors. Therefore, the potential for CPSF3 as a therapeutic target in adenocarcinoma was an 544 open question. Now, we show that JTE-607 preferentially blocks proliferation of PDAC cell lines, sparing non-transformed cell lines, including epithelial cells and fibroblasts. The mechanisms 545 underlying this difference in sensitivity are currently unknown, but may relate to variability in basal 546 547 proliferation rate. Finally, even though JTE-607 was first described as an inhibitor of cytokine 548 synthesis, our RNA-seg analysis did not show an enrichment of such pathways. One possible 549 explanation is that JTE-607 action is cell type dependent. Many of the studies assessing cytokine 550 levels were performed using measurements from blood, and therefore the cell type responsible 551 for the changes in cytokine secretion is unknown. It is possible that the effect of JTE-607 on 552 proliferating epithelial cells is distinct from its effect on cells within the circulation, many of which are non-proliferative when terminally differentiated. The effects of JTE-607 in different cellular 553 554 contexts and cell states warrants further investigation.

555

A previous report demonstrated that JTE-607 attenuates cell proliferation in AML and Ewing 556 557 sarcoma through increasing R-loop formation and downregulating the expression of DNA damage response genes. R-loops are DNA:RNA hybrids that form as a result of aberrant transcription, a 558 559 characteristic of cancers with genetic rearrangements such as AML and Ewing sarcoma (68,69). 560 Of note, R-loops increase in models with mRNA cleavage and polyadenylation defects (70), 561 suggesting that sensitivity of AML and Ewing sarcoma to JTE-607 may be a consequence of high 562 basal levels of R-loops, which eventually accumulate leading to DNA damage and genomic 563 instability. In our study, gene set enrichment analysis did not reveal changes in DNA damage

564 response pathways upon CPSF3 knockdown or inhibition in PDAC cells. Therefore, we propose 565 that CPSF3 regulates cell proliferation through distinct mechanisms in AML and Ewing sarcoma 566 relative to PDAC. In PDAC cells, we find that JTE-607 impairs processing of proliferationdependent histone mRNAs. This is consistent with the role of CPSF3 in the HCC (17,38,71–73). 567 568 Defects in the HCC have been shown to reduce the availability of replication-dependent histones (17,40,74,75). However, prior to now, no studies have described the effect of CPSF3 inhibition on 569 570 HCC activity. Depletion of many HCC genes led to an accumulation of histone read-through 571 transcripts in the nucleus (37,39). Similarly, we find extensive transcript read-through in 572 proliferation-dependent histone mRNAs, but not proliferation-independent histone mRNAs upon 573 JTE-607 treatment. Histone read-through transcripts accumulate in the nucleus, thus failing to be 574 exported into the cytoplasm and translated into protein. In accordance with this model, we find 575 that JTE-607 depletes core histone protein levels in PDAC cells. Limited histone supplies destabilize chromatin integrity through disruption of nucleosome assembly (43). We find that JTE-576 577 607 destabilizes chromatin stability, as demonstrated by increased sensitivity to MNase digestion, and derepression of heterochromatin-mediated gene expression silencing. These findings reveal 578 a novel mechanism of JTE-607 activity: dysregulation of proliferation-dependent histone mRNA 579 580 processing.

581

582 Expression of replication-dependent histories increases ~30-50 fold during DNA synthesis (76,77). The life cycle of these core histone genes starts late in G1 through mid S phase of the 583 cell cycle and degradation occurs at late S phase (36,78). Silencing of the HCC core component 584 FLASH induces S phase arrest in HeLa cells (79). We find that JTE-607 arrests cells in the S 585 586 phase of the cell cycle, with cells slowly cycling through early-mid S phase but failing to progress 587 through late S phase. This is consistent with a previous study where depletion of the histone chaperone ASF1, an important gene for histone deposition during DNA replication, disrupts 588 589 progression through mid to late S-phase (80). In addition, knockdown of CSTF2, a gene with dual 590 functions in APA and histone pre-mRNA processing, delays progression through S phase, but its expression is highly dependent on cell cycle stage (39). The same study showed that CPSF3 591 592 expression is not cell cycle regulated, suggesting that the histone phenotype we observe is driven 593 by CPSF3 loss and not merely a consequence of cell cycle arrest. Our findings strongly suggest 594 that JTE-607 mediates its growth attenuating phenotype by reducing histone supplies during S 595 phase, thereby blocking cell cycle progression.

596

597 This newly discovered mechanism of JTE-607 represents a potential window for new combination 598 therapy. One possibility is that JTE-607-mediated cell cycle arrest may promote synergism with 599 cell cycle check-point inhibitors. For instance, the chromatin remodeling histone deacetylase 600 (HDAC) inhibitors have shown synergistic effect when combined with checkpoint kinase 1 (Chk1) 601 inhibitors in lung cancer models (81). Histone disruption by JTE-607 may also promote synergism with chromatin modifying drugs. For example, CBL0137 has shown synergistic effect when 602 603 combined with HDAC inhibitors by exacerbating chromatin destabilization (44). These discoveries 604 may improve the efficacy of approved chromatin remodeling agents and suggest a path forward 605 for use of JTE-607 in the clinic.

606

The mechanistic differences underlying the CPSF3 knockdown and inhibition phenotypes raises 607 several important questions. As CPSF3 is an integral subunit of both the APA and histone 608 609 processing complexes, CPSF3 knockdown may disrupt proper recruitment of other complex 610 components. This dysregulation of complex formation may alter complex function in different ways than inhibition of CPSF3 activity, resulting in divergence in APA patterns and gene expression 611 612 alterations. Furthermore, the process of generating stable cells for long-term CPSF3 knockdown 613 can result in upregulation of compensatory mechanisms, allowing cell growth in the absence of 614 an essential gene. These mechanisms will not be accounted for upon pharmacological CPSF3 615 inhibition, again resulting in differences in APA patterns and gene expression alterations. However, it should be noted that both CPSF3 knockdown and inhibition led to decreased cell 616 617 proliferation and global dysregulation of APA, including that of known tumor suppressors and oncogenes. Therefore, our results support the development of CPSF3 targeting agents, including 618 619 those that can specifically degrade CPSF3.

620

In conclusion, our study has revealed the role of CPSF3 in pancreatic cancer and uncovered new mechanisms by which CPSF3 mediates cell proliferation. CPSF3 knockdown or inhibition induces APA changes that alter the expression of known tumor suppressors and oncogenes. CPSF3 inhibition disrupts the processing of proliferation-dependent histones, destabilizing chromatin structure and inhibiting cell cycle progression. Our findings reveal novel insight into how CPSF3 inhibition blocks cell proliferation and provides a new therapeutic target in pancreatic cancer.

627

628 Authors' Disclosures

629 The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest.

630

631 Authors' Contributions

A.A. Alahmari: Conceptualization, methodology, investigation, data analysis, writing–original
draft, writing–review and editing. A.H. Chaubey: Investigation. A.A. Tisdale: Investigation. C.D.
Schwarz: Investigation. A.C. Cornwell: Investigation. K.E. Maraszek: Investigation. E.J.
Paterson: Investigation. M. Kim: Investigation. S. Venkat: Investigation, bioinformatics analysis.
E.C. Gomez: Bioinformatics analysis. J. Wang: Bioinformatics analysis. K.V. Gurova:
Resources. M.E. Feigin: Conceptualization, supervision, funding acquisition, project
administration, writing–review and editing.

639

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887 Figure Legends

888 Figure 1. CPSF3 is highly expressed in PDAC patients and predicts poor prognosis. A, 889 CPSF3 expression from CPTAC PDAC patient data. Whiskers indicate minimum and maximum data points. ***, P<0.0001, Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparisons test. B, 890 891 CPSF3 expression from PDAC patient data (TCGA) as compared to normal pancreas (GTEx). Whiskers indicate minimum and maximum data points. ***, P<0.0001, unpaired t test with Welch's 892 correction. C, Kaplan Meier survival curves of PDAC patients with high and low CPSF3 mRNA 893 894 levels. Data were obtained from CPTAC database. D, Quantitative RT-PCR showing CPSF3 895 mRNA expression levels in non-transformed pancreatic epithelial and PDAC cells. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM.*, P < 0.05, unpaired t test with Welch's correction. **E**, Immunoblotting of 896 CPSF3 in non-transformed pancreatic epithelial cells and PDAC cells. CPSF3 protein levels were 897 normalized to its corresponding GAPDH levels. Fold change compares normalized data of 898 899 different cell lines to HPNE.

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Figure 2. CPSF3 is required for PDAC cancer cell proliferation. A, mRNA expression of 901 CPSF3 in shNTC, sh1 CPSF3 and sh2 CPSF3 knockdown cells by qPCR. Graphs are 902 903 representative of at least two independent experiments. Data are shown as mean±SEM of 904 technical duplicates. **, P < 0.01, Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons 905 test. B. Immunoblotting of CPSF3 in shNTC. sh1 and sh2 CPSF3 knockdown cells. C. Proliferation rates at days 0, 2, 4 and 6 of shNTC, sh1 and sh2 CPSF3 knockdown cells. **, P < 906 907 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; 2way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. **D**, Clonogenic growth assay of shNTC, sh1 and sh2 CPSF3 knockdown cells. E, Normalized colony area percentage of 908 shNTC, sh1 and sh2 CPSF3 knockdown cells from (D). *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; 909 Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. F, Volume of CPSF3-910 knockdown and control MiaPaCa2 tumors. ***, P < 0.001, 2way ANOVA. G, Endpoint tumor 911 weight. *, P < 0.05, unpaired t test with Welch's correction. H, Gross images of shNTC (n=7) and 912 shCPSF3 (n=6) dissected tumors. I, Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) staining of xenograft tumors. 913 J and K. IHC for CPSF3 and Ki67, respectively. Box and whisker plots indicate the percentage of 914 CPSF3- and Ki67-positive areas in the tumors. **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; unpaired t test. 915

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Figure 3. CPSF3 knockdown drives global APA dysregulation in PDAC. A, PDUI score of
each gene in shNTC and shCPSF3 cells. Dashed lines represent 0.1 cutoffs. Blue dots represent
3'-UTR-lengthened genes, and red dots represent 3'-UTR-shortened genes. B, Genes showing
lengthening (right) or shortening (left) events (-0.1> PDUI > 0.1; P<0.05) and are differentially

921 expressed (FDR<0.05; fold change >1.5) as color coded. Up=upregulated gene expression. 922 Down=downregulated gene expression. **C**, FHL1 DSeg2 normalized counts. ***, P < 0.0001. **D**, 923 FHL1 mRNA levels in CPSF3 knockdown MiaPaCa2 cells. *, P < 0.05, unpaired t test. E, 3'-RACE of FHL1 in shNTC, sh1 and sh2 CPSF3 Panc1 cells. Approximate length of the 3'-UTR 924 925 form is denoted beside each band. F, Western blot of FHL1 protein levels in shNTC, sh1 and sh2 CPSF3 Panc1 cells. G, FHL1 mRNA levels in sh2 CPSF3 Panc1 cells transfected with siRNA 926 against FHL1 (siFHL1). *, P < 0.05, unpaired t test. H, Proliferation assay of siFHL1 in CPSF3 927 knockdown and control Panc1 cells. **, P < 0.01; 2way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparisons 928 929 test. I, Correlation of FHL1 with CPSF3 mRNA levels from the CPTAC database. Spearman's correlation= -0.36. *P* < 0.0001. 930

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932 Figure 4. PDAC cell lines are sensitive to CPSF3 inhibition by JTE-607. A, IC50 of JTE-607 on non-transformed and PDAC cell lines. **B**, IC50 of JTE-607 on human fibroblast C7 and PancPat 933 934 CAFs. C, IC50 values. D and E, Proliferation rates at days 0, 2, 4 and 6 of non-transformed and PDAC cell lines after treatment with escalating concentrations of JTE-607. *, P < 0.05; 2way 935 ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. Data are shown as mean±SEM. F, Clonogenic 936 937 growth assay of PDAC cell lines after treatment with increasing concentration of JTE-607. G. 938 Normalized colony area percentage of PDAC cell lines from (F). *, P < 0.01; **, P < 0.001; ***, P939 < 0.0001; Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. Data are shown 940 as mean±SEM.

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Figure 5. JTE-607 induces global APA dysregulation and decreases histone expression in 942 **PDAC cells. A,** Changes in PDUI score (-0.1 > PDUI > 0.1; P<0.05) denoting 3'-UTR-shortened 943 (red) and lengthened (blue) genes. **B**, Genes showing lengthening (right) or shortening (left) 944 945 events (-0.1> PDUI > 0.1; P<0.05) and are differentially expressed (FDR<0.05; fold change >1.5) as color coded. Up=upregulated gene expression, Down=downregulated gene expression. C, 946 Venn diagram showing overlapping genes with significant APA alterations between JTE-607-947 treated and CPSF3 knockdown cells. **D.** Heatmap of differentially expressed genes in Panc1 cells 948 treated with JTE-607. Expression is plotted as transformed expression value. Blue triangles 949 950 denote replication-dependent histone genes. E, Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of RNAseq data from (D). F, mRNA expression of H2B and H3 in MiaPaCa2 cells treated with JTE-607. 951 *, P < 0.05, **, P < 0.01, ***, P < 0.001, Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple 952 953 comparisons test.

955 Figure 6. JTE-607 induces replication-dependent histone transcription read-through. A. 956 IGV-generated density plots of replication-dependent histories highlighting the differences of 3'-957 UTR coverage between DMSO (red) and JTE-607 (blue) treated cells. B, Western blot of H2B and H3 protein levels in Panc1 cells treated with 0-10µM JTE-607 for 24 and 48hrs. C, IGV-958 959 generated density plots of replication-independent histories highlighting the differences of 3'-UTR coverage between DMSO (red) and JTE-607 (blue) treated cells. D, DSeq2 normalized counts of 960 H2AFZ and H3F3A histone variants in Panc1 cells treated with JTE-607. **, P < 0.001. E-G, 961 Volcano plots of Spearman's correlation of CPSF3 and: E, all histone genes; F, replication-962 963 dependent histone genes; G, replication-independent histone genes. Each dot represents a histone gene. Blue and red dots denote positive and negative correlation, respectively. 964 965 (Spearman = -0.15 > R > 0.15, P < 0.05).

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Figure 7. JTE-607 induces chromatin instability. A, Micrococcal Nuclease assay of Panc1 cells 967 968 treated with JTE-607 or CBL0137. B, Quantification of nucleosome fragments after 30 minutes of MNase digestion. Data are shown as mean \pm SEM of two technical repeats. *, P < 0.05, unpaired 969 970 t test with Welch's correction. C, GFP+ HeLa-TI cells following JTE-607 or CBL0137 treatment. **D**, Fold change of GFP+ HeLa-TI from (**C**). ***, *P* < 0.0001; 2way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple 971 972 comparisons test. E, Flow cytometry analysis of GFP+ HeLa-TI cells following JTE-607 or 973 CBL0137 treatment. Fold change is shown as mean±SEM of two independent experiments. **, P 974 < 0.01, ***, P < 0.0001, Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. 975

Figure 8. JTE-607 induces S-phase arrest. A and B, Cell cycle distribution and quantification
of Panc1, MiaPaCa2 and HPNE cell lines. *, *P* < 0.05, **, *P* < 0.001, ***, *P* < 0.0001, 2way ANOVA
with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. C, BrdU incorporation assay showing cell cycle
population upon JTE-607 treatment.















P=0.05

Figure 6

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0.00

-0.4 -0.2 0.0

R (Spearman's Correlation)

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