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5 **Multiplexed identification of RAS paralog imbalance as a driver of lung cancer growth**
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ABSTRACT

Oncogenic *KRAS* mutations occur in approximately 30% of human lung adenocarcinoma.

Despite tremendous effort over the past several decades, oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer

remains difficult to treat, and our understanding of the positive and negative regulators of RAS

signaling is incomplete. To uncover and corroborate the functional impact of diverse KRAS-

interacting proteins on lung cancer growth *in vivo*, we integrate somatic CRISPR/Cas9-based

genome editing in genetically engineered mouse models with tumor barcoding and high-

throughput barcode sequencing (Tuba-seq). Through a series of *in vivo* CRISPR/Cas9 screens,

we identified HRAS and NRAS as key suppressors of $KRAS^{G12D}$-driven lung tumor growth *in*

vivo and confirmed these effects in oncogenic KRAS-driven human lung cancer cell lines.

Mechanistically, we find that these RAS paralogs interact with oncogenic $KRAS^{G12D}$, suppress

$KRAS^{G12D}$-$KRAS^{G12D}$ interaction, and reduce downstream ERK signaling. Patient-derived

mutations $HRAS^{T50M}$ and $HRAS^{R123C}$ partially abolished this effect. Comparison of the tumor-

suppressive effects of HRAS and NRAS in $KRAS^{G12D}$- and $BRAF^{V600E}$-driven lung cancer

models confirmed that these RAS paralogs are specific suppressors of oncogenic KRAS-driven

lung cancer *in vivo*. Our study outlines a technological avenue to specifically uncover positive

and negative regulators of oncogenic KRAS-driven cancer in a multiplexed manner and

highlights the role of RAS paralog imbalance in oncogenic KRAS-driven cancers.

INTRODUCTION

The RAS gene family, which consists of *KRAS*, *HRAS* and *NRAS*, is the most frequently mutated across all cancers, and *KRAS* mutations occur in approximately 30% of all lung adenocarcinomas (1-3). RAS proteins are small GTPases that switch between a GTP-bound active state and GDP-bound inactive state in response to upstream growth signaling (4). Active RAS proteins drive downstream signaling such as MAPK and PI3K pathways, thereby promoting cell growth. In cancer, hotspot oncogenic mutations in codons 12, 13, and 61 reduce GTP hydrolysis and increase the fraction of RAS proteins in the GTP-bound state, which results in constitutive activation and significant changes in RAS protein-protein interactions (5,6). These changes result in hyper-activation of RAS effector pathways, driving cellular transformation and tumorigenesis (7,8). Oncogenic KRAS therefore represents a critical target for therapeutic intervention in lung adenocarcinoma. However, despite tremendous effort, the development of targeted therapies for oncogenic KRAS-driven tumors has proven challenging (9). RAS-interacting proteins include many important regulators and effectors that remain poorly understood in the context of oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer, and a better understanding of these interactions could enable the identification of indirect therapeutic strategies to counteract oncogenic KRAS activity (10).

Much of our understanding of RAS signaling has stemmed from diverse cellular and cell-free systems (11-13). Recent advances have led to the mapping of KRAS protein-protein interaction networks, as well as identified synthetic lethal interactions with oncogenic KRAS in human cell lines (14-16). Nevertheless, it is still difficult to relate these *in vitro* findings to human cancer. Genetically engineered mouse models of oncogenic KRAS-driven cancer uniquely recapitulate autochthonous tumor growth and have contributed greatly to our

understanding of KRAS signaling, but the development and use of such models has traditionally

been insufficiently scalable to model the diverse genetics of human cancer. The ability to

multiplexed identification of novel key components in RAS signaling in mouse lung cancer

models would thus greatly enhance our understanding of RAS biology and aid in the

development of pharmacological strategies to counteract hyperactivated KRAS.

To enable the analysis of modifiers of oncogenic KRAS-driven growth, we recently

integrated somatic CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing with tumor barcoding and high-

throughput barcode sequencing (Tuba-seq) (17-19). This approach allows precise quantification

of the impact of inactivating panels of genes of interest in promoting lung tumor initiation and

growth in a multiplexed manner. By employing Tuba-seq to assess the functions of KRAS-

interacting proteins captured by unbiased affinity purification/mass spectrometry (AP/MS), we

show that wild-type HRAS and NRAS suppress the growth of oncogenic KRAS-driven lung

adenocarcinoma. Competitive binding between oncogenic KRAS and wild-type HRAS

diminishes KRAS-KRAS interaction that is required for RAS effector recruitment and

consequently suppresses downstream signaling. *In vivo* screening across multiple oncogenic

contexts revealed that HRAS and NRAS specifically suppress oncogenic KRAS-driven tumor

growth. Our study reveals RAS paralog imbalance as a driver of oncogenic KRAS-driven lung

cancer.

RESULTS

Selection of candidate KRAS-interacting proteins to assess *in vivo*

Oncogenic KRAS represents a key node downstream of growth factor-induced signaling,

and oncogenic KRAS is sufficient to initiate tumor growth in several different tissues (20,21).

Genetic and proteomic mapping have revealed that KRAS interacts with a large network of

proteins outside of its canonical effectors and regulators (14,15). To identify putative KRAS-

interacting proteins that could affect oncogenic KRAS-driven lung tumor growth *in vivo*, we

integrated proteomics data from AP/MS studies with gene expression data from cancer cells

from autochthonous mouse models **(Figure 1a)**. We prioritized a list of candidate genes

according to the probability of their protein products binding to KRAS, their abundance of

homolog mRNA in mouse models of oncogenic KRAS[G12D]-driven lung cancer, and the

probability of their protein products binding to other small GTPases **(Figure 1b-c)** (14,22). We

selected 13 proteins that represent diverse aspects of RAS biology, including RAS paralogs

(HRAS, NRAS), RAS regulators (RASGRF2, RAP1GDS1) (23,24), a RAS modifier (FNTA)

(25), and RAS effectors (RAF1, RGL2) (14,26), as well as other proteins whose functions in

RAS signaling are understudied. Interestingly, some of these proteins bound preferentially to

either GTP- or GDP-bound KRAS, while others seemed to interact with KRAS independent of

its nucleotide state **(Figure 1c)**.

Identification of KRAS-interacting proteins that impact lung tumor growth *in vivo*

Given that KRAS-interacting proteins could have either positive or negative effects on

signaling and tumor growth, we first assessed whether Tuba-seq is capable of detecting gene-

targeting events that have deleterious effects on tumor fitness. We initiated tumors in *Kras[LSL-*

G12D/+];Rosa26[LSL-tdTomato];H11[LSL-Cas9] (*KT;H11[LSL-Cas9]*) and control *KT* mice with a pool of

barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors encoding sgRNAs targeting two essential genes (*Pcna* and

Rps19) and a known tumor suppressor (*Apc*), in addition to several inert sgRNAs (Lenti-

sgEssential/Cre; **Figure S1a**). After 12 weeks of tumor growth, we performed Tuba-seq on bulk

tumor-bearing lungs and quantified the number and size of tumors initiated with each Lenti-

sgRNA/Cre vector (**Figure S1b**). By incorporating measures of tumor number and tumor size

across each tumor size distribution, we could confidently identify genetic deficiencies that

reduced tumor fitness (**Figure S1c-g and Methods**).

To quantify the impact of inactivating our panel of KRAS-interacting proteins on

oncogenic KRAS^{G12D}-driven lung tumor growth *in vivo*, we generated a pool of barcoded Lenti-

sgRNA/Cre vectors targeting the genes that encode each protein, as well as sg*Inert* control

vectors (Lenti-sg*KrasIP/Cre*; **Figure 1d**). Given the importance of farnesylation in KRAS

localization and signaling, we included a vector targeting *Fnta* as a control dependency (27,28).

We initiated tumors with the Lenti-sg*KrasIP/Cre* pool in *KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* and *KT* mice and

calculated metrics of tumor size and number after 12 weeks of tumor growth (**Figure 1e**). To our

surprise, inactivation of the *Kras* paralogs *Hras* and *Nras* had the most dramatic effect on tumor

growth. Inactivation of *Cand1* also increased tumor size, while deficiencies in *Nme2*, *Rapgds1*,

and *Aldh1a* decreased tumor size (**Figure 1f**). Several other genes decreased tumor number

and/or size suggesting reduced cancer cell fitness (**Figure 1f** and **S2a-c**). Consistent with our

findings using the Lenti-sgEssential/Cre pool, inactivation of *Pcna* and *Fnta* dramatically

reduced tumor number (**Figure 1f** and **S2d**).

Given the fundamental importance of the p53 tumor suppressor in oncogenic KRAS-

driven lung cancer, as well as previous data suggesting crosstalk between RAS and p53

signaling(18,29), we determined whether p53 deficiency dramatically changes the impact of

inactivating KRAS-interacting proteins on tumor growth. We initiated tumors with the Lenti-

sg*KrasIP/Cre* pool in *Kras$^{LSL-G12D/+}$;Trp53$^{flox/flox}$;Rosa26$^{LSL-tdTom}$;H11$^{LSL-tdTom}$* (*KPT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$*)

mice and performed Tuba-seq after 12 weeks of tumor growth. The effects of inactivating each

gene encoding a KRAS-interacting protein on tumor size, tumor number, and overall tumor

burden were generally consistent between the p53-proficient and -deficient settings (**Figure 1g,**

Figure S2e-h). Notably, the inactivation of either *Hras* or *Nras* also significantly increased

growth of p53-deficient tumors (**Figure S2e).** Collectively, these results suggested that HRAS

and NRAS have the strongest tumor-suppressive functions within *in vivo* models of oncogenic

KRAS-driven lung cancer, while the other four KRAS-interacting proteins, including CAND1,

ALDH1A, FNTA, and NME2, have consistent positive or negative effects on tumor growth

(**Figure S2e-h)**.

Validation of HRAS and NRAS as suppressors of oncogenic KRAS-driven lung tumor

growth

To further validate the impact of inactivating the six top candidate genes (*Hras, Nras,*

Cand1, Aldh1a, Fnta, and Nme2) on oncogenic KRAS-driven tumor growth *in vivo* and confirm

that these results are driven by on-target effects, we generated and barcoded three Lenti-

sgRNA/Cre vectors targeting each gene. To put the impact of *Hras* and *Nras* inactivation on lung

tumor growth in context, we included vectors targeting three established tumor suppressors

(*Lkb1, Rbm10,* and *Rb1*) in this pool (Lenti-sgValidation/Cre; **Figure 2a**) (17,19,30). We

initiated tumors with the Lenti-sgValidation/Cre pool in *KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* and *KT* mice and

assessed metrics of tumor initiation and growth 12 weeks after tumor initiation (**Figure 2b-c,**

Figure S3). Targeting *Fnta* with all three sgRNAs consistently reduced growth fitness while the

impact of inactivating *Aldh1a* and *Nme2* was more variable (**Figure 2d, Figure S3**). Most

importantly, all three sgRNAs targeting *Hras* and all three sgRNAs targeting *Nras* significantly

increased tumor growth (**Figure 2d-e, Figure S3**). Notably, the impact of *Hras* inactivation was

similar in magnitude to that of *Rb1* and *Rbm10* tumor suppressors (**Figure 2d, Figure S3**). These

results suggest a potentially pivotal role for wild-type HRAS and NRAS in constraining

oncogenic KRAS-driven lung tumor growth *in vivo*.

In addition, we validated the tumor-suppressive function of HRAS and NRAS in

oncogenic KRAS-driven lung tumor growth by initiating tumors in $KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice with

individual sg*Inert*-, sg*Hras*- and sg*Nras*-encoding Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors (**Figure 2f**).

Inactivation of either *Hras* or *Nras* increased tumor growth as assessed by direct fluorescence

and histology (**Figure 2g-i**). Collectively, these results suggest that RAS paralogs constrain the

growth of oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer growth.

HRAS and NRAS can be growth-suppressive in human lung cancer cells

To assess the relevance of HRAS and NRAS as tumor suppressors in human lung cancer,

we tested the function of HRAS and NRAS in oncogenic KRAS-driven human adenocarcinoma

cell lines. Previous genome-scale CRISPR/Cas9 screens revealed a variable effect of inactivating

these genes on cancer cell line growth under standard culture conditions (**Figure S4a**).

Interestingly, HRAS and NRAS suppressed the growth of oncogenic $KRAS^{G12S}$-driven A549

cells and had a greater effect on the growth of several oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer cell

lines when grown in 3D culture conditions (**Figure S4b-c**) (14,16). To further assess the

functions of HRAS and NRAS in oncogenic KRAS-driven human adenocarcinoma cell lines, we

performed gain and loss of function studies on H23 ($KRAS^{G12C}$) and H727 ($KRAS^{G12V}$) cells.

We inactivated *HRAS* and *NRAS* using CRISPR/Cas9 and generated variants with doxycycline-

inducible wild-type *Hras* re-expression. Inactivation of *Hras* or *Nras* in oncogenic KRAS-driven

cells increased proliferation when cells were grown with limited serum and increased clonal

growth potential when cells were grown in anchorage-independent conditions (**Figure 3a, c, d**).

Conversely, re-expression of HRAS in these *Hras*-null cells impaired proliferation and clonal

growth (**Figure 3b, e, f**). H23 cells with inactivated *Hras* or *Nras* also formed larger and more

proliferative tumors after intravenous and subcutaneous transplantation (**Figure 3g-k, Figure**

S5). These results demonstrate that wild-type HRAS and NRAS can also function as tumor

suppressors in oncogenic KRAS-driven human lung cancer cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*. This

consistency between human cell culture and autochthonous mouse models further suggests that

HRAS and NRAS are tumor suppressors in oncogenic KRAS-driven lung adenocarcinoma.

Inactivation of RAS paralogs increases signaling downstream of oncogenic KRAS

Wild-type KRAS has been shown to be tumor-suppressive in multiple experimental

models of oncogenic KRAS-driven cancer, likely due to its ability to directly bind and

antagonize oncogenic KRAS (31-33). We have demonstrated that wild-type HRAS and NRAS

suppress oncogenic KRAS^{G12D}-driven lung cancer growth *in vivo*. Thus, to further explore the

molecular mechanism driving this effect, we assessed whether HRAS and NRAS alter signaling

downstream of oncogenic KRAS. We initially performed pERK immunohistochemistry on lung

tumors initiated with sg*Inert*, sg*Hras* or sg*Nras* containing Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors in

KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice. Inactivation of HRAS or NRAS increased the number of pERK-positive

cells in KRAS^{G12D}-driven lung cancer (**Figure 4a**). Subcutaneous tumors from transplanted H23

cells with inactivated *HRAS* or *NRAS* also contains more pERK-positive cells comparing to

tumors from transplanted wildtype (sg*SAFE*) H23 cells (**Figure 4b**). In addition, sorted cancer

cells from *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice with lung tumors initiated with Lenti-sg*Hras*/Cre also expressed

more pERK comparing to those from tumors initiated with Lenti-sg*Inert*/Cre (**Figure 4c**). At last,

inactivation of either *Hras(HRAS)* or *Nras(NRAS)* in mouse or human oncogenic KRAS-driven

cell lines increased ERK phosphorylation (**Figure 4d-e**). Conversely, re-expression of wild-type

HRAS in HRAS-null H23 human lung cancer cells reduced ERK phosphorylation (**Figure 4g**).

Previous publications have shown that inactivating wild-type KRAS increases sensitivity to

MEK inhibitors. Consistent with these studies of wild-type KRAS, we found that inactivation of

HRAS in H23 cells increases sensitivity to the MEK inhibitor trametinib while re-expression of

HRAS made cells more resistant (**Figure 4f, h**). These data suggest that inactivation of *HRAS* or

NRAS hyper-activates MAPK signaling in KRAS mutant cancer cells (34-36).

RAS paralogs competitively suppress KRAS^{G12D}-KRAS^{G12D} interaction

RAS proteins interact with themselves and forms functional clusters on membrane to efficiently

recruit downstream effectors (37-39). Homodimers of all RAS paralogs have been reported (40-

42). However, there was relatively little evidence supporting the existence of RAS heterodimers

and their biological functions. AP/MS data suggested that both HRAS and NRAS strongly

interacted with KRAS, supporting the existence of heterotypic RAS-RAS interactions (**Figure**

5a). To assess the ability of RAS paralogs to bind oncogenic KRAS^{G12D}, we adapted a recently

published luminescent reporter system (ReBiL2.0 system), which relies on luciferase

complementation to quantify RAS-RAS interactions in living cells (43). Through expression of

wild-type KRAS, HRAS, or NRAS paralogs in KRAS^{G12D}-KRAS^{G12D} reporter cells or control

reporter cells, we found that all wild-type RAS paralogs are able to disrupt KRAS^{G12D}-

KRAS^{G12D} interaction **(Figure 5b)**. These findings are consistent with a model in which wild-

type RAS paralogs competitively bind to oncogenic KRAS and thus suppress KRAS^{G12D}-

KRAS^{G12D} interaction and downstream signaling.

236 Patient-derived HRAS^{T50M} and HRAS^{R123C} mutations impair interaction of HRAS with

237 oncogenic KRAS and abrogate its tumor suppressive function

Given that our findings suggest that the tumor-suppressive function of wild-type HRAS is

mediated by competitive binding to oncogenic KRAS, we hypothesized that there could be

HRAS mutations in lung adenocarcinoma samples with oncogenic *KRAS* that confer a fitness

benefit by impairing interaction with oncogenic KRAS. To evaluate this possibility, we analyzed

data from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) and AACR's Genomics Evidence Neoplasia

Information Exchange (Project GENIE). As expected, mutations in *HRAS* were rare and the

majority were oncogenic mutations (occurring in codons 12, 13 or 61) in samples lacking

oncogenic *KRAS*. We did, however, identify multiple rare non-oncogenic *HRAS* mutations that

occurred in samples with oncogenic KRAS. To test our hypothesis that some or all of these

mutations lack the ability to interact with oncogenic KRAS, we used the ReBiL2.0 system to

measure the ability of four of these *HRAS* mutations and a known dimerization-deficient control

(Y64A) to reduce KRAS^{G12D}-KRAS^{G12D} interaction (41). This assay identified two mutations,

T50M and R123C, that are unable to disrupt KRAS^{G12D}-KRAS^{G12D} binding to an extent similar

to Y64A (**Figure 5c**). Previous publications have shown that HRAS has low affinity binding to

RAF proteins and other RAS effectors and thus functions as a sterile end in RAS-RAF-MEK

signaling. Furthermore, by re-analyzing a previously published AP-MS dataset, we found that

GTP-bound HRAS is more similar in its affinity for RAS effectors to GDP-bound KRAS and

NRAS than to their GTP-bound forms, suggesting a lack of oncogenic signaling downstream of

HRAS in lung adenocarcinoma (**Figure 5d**) (14). To test our hypothesis that the disruption of

$KRAS^{G12D}$-$KRAS^{G12D}$ interaction by HRAS suppresses downstream oncogenic signaling, we re-

expressed wild-type HRAS, dimerization deficient $HRAS^{Y64A}$, or the two novel patient-derived

$HRAS^{T50M}$ and $HRAS^{R123C}$ in *HRAS*-null lung cancer cells. Re-expression of wild-type HRAS,

but not any of these three known or novel mutants suppressed ERK phosphorylation and cell

proliferation (**Figure 5e-f**). These results further suggest that RAS paralog imbalance fine tunes

oncogenic KRAS signaling via disrupting oncogenic KRAS-wildtype RAS paralog interaction

and thus is a driver of lung cancer growth.

HRAS and NRAS are specific suppressors of oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer growth

266   Our *in vivo* data demonstrate that HRAS and NRAS function as tumor suppressors, and

our cell culture results suggest that these effects may be mediated by interaction of these RAS

paralogs with oncogenic KRAS. If the tumor-suppressive mechanism by which HRAS and

NRAS act requires interaction with oncogenic KRAS, then these genes should not be tumor

suppressors in a model of lung adenocarcinoma in which activation of the RAS signaling

pathway occurs downstream of KRAS. To test this prediction of our model directly in

autochthonous tumors, we initiated tumors with a sub-pool of barcoded lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors

(Lenti-sgMultiGEMM/Cre) in mouse models of $KRAS^{G12D}$-driven and $BRAF^{V618E}$ (the mouse

equivalent of $BRAF^{V600E}$)-driven lung cancer (44). In addition to vectors targeting *Hras* and

Nras, this pool included vectors targeting several known tumor suppressors (*Apc, Rbm10*, and

Cdkn2a), other KRAS-interacting proteins (*Aldh1a, Cand1, Nme2*), and control vectors (**Figure**

6a). We initiated tumors with the Lenti-sgMultiGEMM/Cre pool in *KT, KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and

Braf^{CA/+}T;H11^{LSL-Cas9} mice and assessed tumor initiation and growth 15 weeks after tumor

initiation (**Figure 6b**). Consistent with previously published results, delivery of identical

lentiviral titers resulted in visibly increased tumor mass and greater lung weight in

$Braf^{CA/+}T;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice than in $KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice (**Figure 6c-d**). Comparison of the

distribution of sgInert tumor sizes in the two models using Tuba-seq allows us to directly

compare the effects of the $Braf^{V618E}$ and $Kras^{G12D}$ oncogenes on tumor growth. $Braf^{V618E}$ tumors

are larger than $Kras^{G12D}$ tumors (median size of ~3500 cells vs ~1000 cells), but the two

distributions have similar right tails and maximum tumor sizes, suggesting that the observed

increase in tumor burden is driven by a shift in density towards larger tumors of relatively

uniform size, rather than by the emergence of a small number of very large tumors (**Figure 6e-f**).

Importantly, while inactivation of *Hras* or *Nras* increased the growth of oncogenic KRAS-driven

lung tumors, inactivation of *Hras* or *Nras* had no impact on the growth of oncogenic BRAF-

driven lung cancer (**Figure 6g**). Thus, these data further support our model in which HRAS and

NRAS function as specific suppressors of oncogenic KRAS-driven tumor growth, likely through

direct interaction with oncogenic KRAS but not RAS effectors. The pathways that suppress

oncogenic BRAF-driven lung cancer are less well-studied as compared to those that impact

oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer. Thus, the effects of *Apc*, *Cdkn2a*, and *Rbm10* inactivation

not only represent controls for the success of this *in vivo* counter-screen but also identified

instances of oncogene-tumor suppressor epistasis. For example, inactivation of *Apc* has a

significantly greater effect on tumor growth in BRAF-driven lung cancer than in KRAS-driven

lung cancer, whereas the effect of inactivation of *Rbm10* is diminished (**Figure 6h**). Finally,

inactivation of *Nme2*, *Fnta*, and *Aldh1a* reduced tumor initiation and growth in both oncogenic

KRAS-driven and oncogenic BRAF-driven lung cancer (**Figure S6**), suggesting that they are

tumor-promoting and/or essential genes that are shared by multiple pathways during lung cancer

growth. Thus, this counter-screen not only localized the effect of *Hras* and *Nras* inactivation but

also clarifies the general requirement for these genes, highlighting the value of this approach in

uncovering alterations that are synthetic lethal within and/or across oncogenic contexts.

DISCUSSION

Oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer is a leading cause of cancer-related deaths.

However, despite having been identified almost half a century ago, most knowledge of KRAS is

still limited to canonical RAS pathways such as RAF-MEK-ERK and PI3K-AKT, while the

functions of other RAS-interacting proteins are still largely unknown. In this study, by

integrating AP/MS data from human cancer cells with somatic cell CRISPR/Cas9-editing in

autochthonous mouse models, we assess the functional impact of inactivating a panel of KRAS-

interacting proteins on lung cancer *in vivo* in a multiplexed manner. Our results suggest a model

in which heterotypic interactions between RAS paralogs suppress oncogenic RAS-driven lung

cancer progression.

All RAS family proteins, HRAS, NRAS and KRAS (including both the KRAS4A and

KRAS4B splice isoforms), have been reported as dimers and nanoclusters (40-43). Importantly,

both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies suggest that KRAS dimerization is required for effector protein

activation, cellular transformation, and tumor progression (39). Furthermore, a recent study

emphasized the role of oncogenic KRAS-wildtype KRAS heterodimers in lung cancer initiation,

progression, and therapeutic sensitivity (32). Multiple lines of evidence, including oncogenic

KRAS copy number gain, and loss of the wild-type *KRAS* allele in human tumors, as well as

functional studies in mouse models, suggest that wild-type KRAS is tumor-suppressive (also

called "RAS allelic imbalance"), although the exact role of wild-type RAS in lung cancer is still

controversial (3,33,35,45,46). Recent data have also suggested that interactions among H-, N-

and KRAS proteins exist, thus raising the question of the roles of wild-type HRAS and NRAS in

oncogenic KRAS-driven cancer (14,15,43).

In this study, we identified wild-type HRAS and NRAS as potent KRAS-specific tumor

suppressors that directly interact with oncogenic KRAS, disrupt KRAS-KRAS interaction, and

suppress RAS/MAPK signaling. Knockout of *HRAS* or *NRAS* in the context of oncogenic KRAS

led to an increase in downstream MAPK signaling (**Figure 4**). Critically, this was also associated

with an increase in sensitivity to treatment with a MEK inhibitor (**Figure 4**). Interestingly, our *in*

vitro experiments also identified two rare, patient-derived *HRAS* mutations, HRAS^{T50M} and

HRAS^{R123C}, which are incapable of disrupting KRAS^{G12D}-KRAS^{G12D} interaction, and would

therefore offer fitness advantages to oncogenic KRAS-driven cancer. These results suggest that

modulating RAS protein interactions, such as by skewing the usage of wild-type RAS and

forcing inter-paralog competition, could lead to novel therapeutic strategies in the future.

Moreover, analysis of mutations in non-oncogenic RAS proteins may be informative in

evaluating effective treatments. However, the specific dynamics of intracellular RAS homo- and

heterodimer switching, as well as the importance of these dimerization-deficient mutations in

oncogenesis, may require further study.

Given the complexity of RAS signaling, other non-mutually exclusive mechanisms

should be considered. For example, it has been reported that upstream regulators, such as SOS1,

could bridge the interaction between oncogenic and wild-type RAS (47). Given that wild-type

RAS has 5-10 times more GTPase activity than oncogenic RAS, it is possible that wild-type

HRAS and NRAS could compete for upstream guanine nucleotide exchange factors with

oncogenic KRAS and thus reduce RAS signaling (48). In addition, although we provide evidence

that inactivation of *Hras* and *Nras* have no impact on BRAF^{V618E}-driven lung cancer, it is possible that they can compete with other BRAF-independent downstream effectors of oncogenic KRAS. Whether HRAS and NRAS also function through these alternative routes, and how different mechanisms are synchronized to execute their tumor-suppressive functions, will require additional investigation.

In 2015, the National Cancer Institute released the "RAS Pathway V2.0", containing more than 200 proteins involved in RAS signaling, and representing more than a half-century of research. Building on this work, our study outlines a technological avenue to study KRAS-specific signaling components in a multiplexed manner. First, by harnessing the power of AP/MS and Tuba-seq, we can quantitively define tumor suppressor genes, tumor promoting genes, and essential genes in RAS signaling. Second, by placing novel candidate proteins in the context of a known reference "ladder" of tumor suppressors, we provide a platform in which the tumor-suppressive effects of different RAS signaling components can be measured on the same scale, and different studies can corroborate each other. Third, by performing a pairwise dropout screen in Kras^{G12D}-driven and Braf^{V618E}-driven mouse lung cancer models, we are able to identify KRAS-specific signaling components in a multiplexed manner. These novel technologies will facilitate weighting different component genes in their relationship with RAS and their effects in RAS-driven oncogenicity, which may be highly informative for the future creation of the RAS Pathway V3.0.

In conclusion, via *in vivo* CRISPR/Cas9-mediated somatic genome editing, we outline a technological avenue to study the function of KRAS-interacting proteins in lung cancer in a multiplexed manner, and we highlight the role of RAS paralog imbalance in oncogenic KRAS-driven cancers.

 FIGURE LEGEND:

 Figure 1. Multiplexed identification of KRAS-interacting proteins that impact
 KRASG12D-driven lung cancer growth *in vivo*.

 a. Candidate mediators of KRAS-driven lung tumor growth were identified on the basis of their

 interactions with GTP- and GDP-locked KRAS in multiple AP/MS-based protein-protein

 interaction screens and their expression in a mouse model of Kras-driven lung adenocarcinoma.

 b. Selected KRAS-interacting proteins interact with either GTP- or GDP-locked KRAS (shown

 as NSAF in A549 cells) and their homolog is expressed in KRAS^{G12D}-driven lung cancer (shown

 as TPM).

 c. Bubble plot of two AP/MS experiments with GTP- and GDP-locked mutant GTPases as baits

 (rows), showing the enrichment of selected candidate KRAS-interacting proteins (columns).

 Dark borders indicate FDR < 0.05.

 d. Schematic of tumor initiation with a pool of barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors (Lenti-

 sgKrasIP-Pool/Cre). The lentiviral pool includes four Inert sgRNAs that are either non-targeting

 (NT) or target a functionally inert locus (Neo1-3, targeting NeoR in the *R26$^{LSL-tdTomato}$* allele).

 Each barcoded lentiviral vector contains an sgRNA, Cre, and a two-component barcode

 composed of an sgRNA identifier (sgID) and a random barcode (BC). This design allows

 inactivation of multiple target genes in parallel followed by quantification of the resulting tumor

 size distributions through high-throughput sgID-BC sequencing.

 e. Tumors were initiated in cohorts of *KT, KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* and *KT;p53$^{flox/flox}$;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* mice

 through intratracheal delivery of Lenti-sgKrasIP-Pool/Cre. Tuba-seq was performed on each

tumor-bearing lung 12 weeks after initiation, followed by analyses of sgID-BC sequencing data

to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene.

f. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing

tumors at the corresponding percentiles in $KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice. Genes are ordered by 95th

percentile tumor size, with sgInerts on the left. sgInerts are in gray, and the line at y=1 indicates

no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are

significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted $p < 0.05$) are in color. Confidence

intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

g. Comparison of 95th percentile tumor size for each sgRNA relative to the size the 95th

percentile tumor size of sgInert-containing tumors in $KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice versus

$KT;p53^{flox/flox};H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by

bootstrap resampling.

Figure 2. HRAS and NRAS are potent suppressors of KRASG12D-driven lung cancer

growth *in vivo*

a,b. A pool of barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors (Lenti-sgValidation/Cre) targeting candidate

mediators of KRAS-driven lung tumor growth identified in the initial KRAS-interacting protein

Tuba-seq screen was used to initiate tumors in validation cohorts of *KT and KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice.

This lentiviral pool includes four Inert sgRNAs, as well as sgRNAs targeting *Lkb1, Rb1*, and

Rbm10 as tumor suppressor controls. Each candidate gene from the initial screen is targeted with

three sgRNAs. Tumors were initiated through intratracheal delivery of Lenti-sgValidation/Cre,

and Tuba-seq was performed on each tumor-bearing lung 12 weeks after initiation, followed by

analyses of sgID-BC sequencing data to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene (b).

c. Fluorescence images of representative lung lobes 12 weeks after tumor initiation. Scale bars =

5 mm. Lung lobes are outlined with a white dashed line.

d. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing

tumors at the corresponding percentiles *in KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice. Genes are ordered by 95th

percentile tumor size, with sgInerts on the left. Note that sgLkb1 is plotted on a separate scale to

facilitate visualization of sgRNAs with lesser magnitudes of effect. Dashed line indicates no

effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. 95% confidence intervals

and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling. Percentiles that are significantly different

from sgInert (2-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color.

e. Targeting Hras and Nras significantly increases mean tumor size relative to sgInerts, assuming

a log-normal distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals

calculated by bootstrap resampling.

f. Schematic of tumor initiation with individual Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors. Mouse number and

titer of the lentiviral vectors are indicated.

g. Representative fluorescence images of lungs from *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice after tumor initiation

with Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Scale bar = 5 mm.

h. Representative H&E images of lungs from *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice after tumor initiation with

Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Tumor area (percentage of total lung area) from each

mouse is shown as Mean ± SD. *: p<0.05; Scale bar = 5 mm.

i. Representative BrdU staining images of lungs from *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice after tumor initiation

with Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Number of Brdu^{pos} cells per field is shown as Mean

± SD. **: p<0.01; Scale bar = 100 μm.

Figure 3. Wild-type HRAS or NRAS constrain the growth of human KRAS-driven cancer cell lines.

a. Inactivation of wild type HRAS or NRAS increases growth of KRAS-mutant H23 (G12C) and H727 (G12V) cells. Wild-type (sgSAFE) or HRAS- or NRAS-knockout cells were seeded in 96 well plates and cultured under limited serum (1%). Cell numbers were measured via CCK8 assay. Points are Mean±SD of 12 wells normalized to Day 0. **: $p < 0.01$

b. Re-expression of wild type HRAS suppresses proliferation of HRAS-null H23 and H727 cells. TRE-HRAS cells were seeded in 96 well plates and cultured under limited serum (1%) with or without 50 ng/ml Doxycycline (Dox) and cell numbers were measured via CCK8 assay. Points are Mean±SD of 12 wells normalized to Day 0. **: $p < 0.01$

c-d. Inactivation of HRAS or NRAS increases H23 colony formation. Wild-type (sgSAFE), HRAS-knockout (sgHRAS), or NRAS-knockout (sgNRAS) H23 cells were seeded at 1000 cells/well in 6-well plates and grown for two weeks. Cells were stained with crystal violet. **c**. Representative images. Scale bar = 5mm. **d**. Mean±SD of colony number of 12 fields. **: $p < 0.01$

e-f. Re-expression of wild type HRAS suppresses HRAS-null H23 cell colony formation. TRE-Ctrl or TRE-HRAS H23 cells were seeded at 1000 cells/well in 6-well plates and grown with or without 50 ng/ml Doxycycline (Dox) for two weeks. Cells were stained with crystal violet. **e**. Representative images. Scale bar = 5mm. f. Mean±SD of colony number of 12 fields. **: $p < 0.01$

g-k. Inactivation of wild type HRAS or NRAS increases H23 cell growth after transplantation. **g**. Schematic of tumor initiation with subcutaneous (SubQ) or intravenous (IV) transplantation of H23 cells with inactivation of HRAS or NRAS in NSG mice. Mouse number, cell number, and

tumor growth time after transplantation are indicated. **h**. Tumor weight from SubQ

transplantation of indicated cells. Each dot represents a mouse. Mean value was shown. **i**. Ki67^{pos}

cell number in tumor section from SubQ transplantation of indicated cells was shown as

Mean±SD value of 20 view fields. **j**. Tumor area (percentage of h-mitochondria[pos] area) from IV

transplantation of indicated cells. Each dot represents a tumor. Mean value was shown. **k**.

Ki67[pos] cell number in tumor section from IV transplantation of indicated cells is shown as

Mean±SD value of 20 view fields (200x). *: $p<0.05$; **: $p<0.01$; ns: not significant.

Figure 4. Wild-type RAS paralogs finetune RAS signaling

a. Representative image of pERK staining in *KTC* mice with tumors initiated with Lenti-

sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Quantification of pERK^{pos} cells per tumor was shown as

Mean±SD of 20 tumors. *: $p<0.05$; **: $p<0.01$; Scale bar: 100 μm

b. Representative image of pERK staining in subcutaneous tumor transplanted with H23 cells as

indicated. Quantification of pERK^{pos} cells per field was shown as Mean±SD of 20 fields. **:

$p<0.01$; Scale bar: 100 μm

c. Western blot analysis of sorted cancer cells from *KTC* mice transduced with Lenti-sgRNA

vectors as indicated. Each mouse was transduced with 300k Lenti-sgRNA for 15 weeks. Multiple

tumors from same mice (ear tag as indicated) were pooled for sorting and protein extraction.

d. Western blot analysis of cultured HC494 (*KPTC*) cells transduced with Lenti-sgRNA vectors

as indicated. HC494 cells were transduced with lentiviral vector expressing indicated sgRNA

and selected with puromycin to generate stable knockout cell lines. Wild-type cell (sgNeo) or

HRAS- or NRAS-knockout cells (sgHras, sgNras) were cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2

days before protein extraction.

e. Western blot analysis of cultured H23 (left) and HOP62 (right) cells transduced with Lenti-sgRNA vectors as indicated. All human cells were transduced with lentiviral vector expressing indicated sgRNA and selected with puromycin to generate stable knockout cell lines. Wild-type cell (sgSAFE) or HRAS- or NRAS-knockout cells (sgHRAS, sgNRAS) were cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2 days before protein extraction.

f. Comparison of GI50 values to MEK inhibitors trametinib among wild-type and HRAS-null H23 cells under treatment of indicated dose of trametinib for four days. Cell number were measured via CCK8 assay and normalized to cells treated with vehicle. Each data point was shown as Mean±SD of 12 wells.

g. Western blot analysis of cultured HRAS-null H23 cells (H23-sgHRAS) re-expression HRAS (TRE-HRAS) under Doxycycline (Dox) treatment. HRAS-null H23 cells were generated from previous experiment as described in Figure 3a. HRAS-null H23 cells were re-transduced with lentiviral vector expressing TRE-HRAS at high MOI (>5) to generate stable HRAS re-expression cells (H23-sgHRAS-TRE-HRAS). To re-express HRAS, cells were treated with low dose (0, 1, and 2ng/ml) Dox and cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2 days before protein extraction.

h. Comparison of GI50 values to MEK inhibitors trametinib among HRAS-null H23 cells (H23-sgHRAS) re-expressing HRAS in presence (HRAS+Dox) or absence (HRAS) of Doxycycline plus indicated dose of trametinib for four days. Cell number were measured via CCK8 assay and normalized to cells treated with vehicle. Each data point was shown as Mean±SD of 12 wells.

Figure 5. Wild-type RAS paralogs finetune RAS signaling through direct interaction with oncogenic KRAS.

a. HRAS and NRAS are shared KRAS-interacting proteins in two protein-protein interaction

datasets (Kelly, Kostyrko, Han et al. 2020; Broyde, Simpson, Murray et al. 2020). Shared

KRAS-interaction proteins are shown as their $\log_{10}$NSAF and SigMap Score.

b. All three RAS proteins are able to disrupt KRAS^{G12D}-KRAS^{G12D} interaction. U2OS-764 (nl-

KRAS^{G12D}/cl-KRAS^{G12D}) or U2OS-794 (nl-CVIM/cl-CVIM) cells expressing KRAS, HRAS, or

NRAS were cultured in limited serum (1%) under 100 ng/ml Doxycycline (Dox) for 24 hours.

ReBiL2.0 assay was performed as previously described and detailed in Methods. Points are

Mean±SD ReBiL2.0 score of 36 wells normalized to cells transduced with empty lentiviral

vector. **: $p<0.01$,

c. HRAS^{T50M} and HRAS^{R123C} are novel dimerization deficient mutations. U2OS-764 (nl-

KRAS^{G12D}/cl-KRAS^{G12D}) cells expressing wild-type or rare mutant HRAS were cultured in

limited serum (1%) under 100 ng/ml Dox for 24 hours. Points are Mean±SD ReBiL2.0 score of

12 wells normalized to cells transduced with empty lentiviral vector. **: $p<0.01$; ns: not

significant.

d. Cluster map of RAS effector prey proteins enriched in each experiment with the indicated

baits in A549 cells (for K-, H-, or N-RAS) or HEK293 cells (for KRAS). Both GTP- and GDP-

bond HRAS behave like GDP-bond KRAS in their RAS effector interactions.

e. Western blot analysis of cultured HRAS-null HOP62 cells (HOP62-Cas9-sgHRAS) re-

expressing wild-type or dimerization deficient mutations (T50M, Y64A, or R123C) under Dox

treatment. Cells were cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2 days before protein extraction. Re-

expression of dimerization deficient mutations have no effects on ERK phosphorylation.

f. Cell proliferation of cultured HRAS-null HOP62 cells (HOP62-Cas9-sgHRAS) re-expressing

wild-type or dimerization deficient mutations (T50M, Y64A, or R123C) under Dox treatment.

Cells were cultured in limited serum (1%) with or without Dox for 4 days. Cell viability was

measured via CCK8 assay and normalized to cells treated with vehicle. Re-expression of

dimerization deficient mutations have no effects on cell proliferation.

Figure 6. Paired screen in KRAS-driven and BRAF-driven lung cancer models validates

Hras and Nras as Kras-specific tumor suppressors.

a-b. Schematic of pairwise screen of tumor suppressive function in Kras- and Braf-driven lung

cancer. A pool of barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors targeting top mediators of Kras-driven

lung tumor growth (Lenti-sgMultiGEMM/Cre) was used to initiate tumors in cohorts of

KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$ and *Braf$^{LSL-V600E/+}$T;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* (*BrafT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$*) mice. Each mediator of

KRAS-driven tumor growth (*Hras, Nras, Nme2* and *Fnta*) was targeted by two sgRNAs (those

with the largest effect size in the validation screen). The pool also included four Inert sgRNAs,

as well as sgRNAs targeting *Apc, Cdkn2a,* and *Rbm10* as tumor suppressor controls (**a**). Tumors

were initiated through intratracheal delivery of Lenti-sgMultiGEMM/Cre, and Tuba-seq was

performed on each tumor-bearing lung 15 weeks after initiation, followed by analysis of sgID-

BC sequencing data to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene (**b**).

c. Fluorescence images of representative lung lobes 15 weeks after tumor initiation. Scale bars =

5 mm. Lung lobes are outlined with a white dashed line.

d. Total lung weight in *KT; H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* and *BrafT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* mice 15 weeks after tumor

initiation. Each dot is a mouse and mean value is indicated. **: p<0.01

e-f. Size distribution of sgInert tumors in *KT; H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* and *BrafT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* mice. In **e**., each

dot represents a tumor, and the area of each dot is proportional to the number of cancer cells in

that tumor. To prevent overplotting a random sample of 1,000 tumors from each of five

representative *KT; H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice are plotted. In **f.**, the empirical

cumulative distribution function of tumor sizes across all *KT; H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}*

mice is plotted. Tumors >500 cells in size are shown.

g. Inactivation of Hras and Nras increases tumor size in *KT; H11^{LSL-Cas9}* but not *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}*

models. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-

containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT; H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (left, white background)

and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (right, gray background) mice. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to

sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are significantly different

from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values

were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

h. Comparison of the effects of inactivation of known tumor suppressors (*Rbm10, Apc*, and

Cdkn2a) on tumor size in *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* models. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each

sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT;*

H11^{LSL-Cas9} (left, white background) and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (right, gray background) mice. Line at

y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Percentiles that are significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in

color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

i. Schematic of wild-type RAS paralogs function as tumor suppressors in oncogenic KRAS

signaling. Left panel, in oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer cells, wild-type RAS paralogs

competitively interact with oncogenic KRAS and suppress oncogenic KRAS-KRAS interaction.

Right panel, inactivation of wild-type RAS allele, or "RAS paralog imbalance", hyper-activated

oncogenic KRAS signaling and promotes lung cancer growth.

Supplemental Figure 1. Tumor barcoding coupled with barcode sequencing (Tuba-seq) can uncover engineered alterations that reduce tumor number and growth.

a-b. Schematic of the Tuba-seq approach to measure the effects of essential gene inactivation on tumor growth. Lentiviral-sgRNA/Cre vectors with inert sgRNAs (gray) or sgRNAs targeting known essential genes (navy) were diversified with a two component sgID-BC. A vector targeting known tumor suppressor Apc was included as a positive control (**a**). Tumors were initiated with this barcoded Lenti-sgEssential/Cre pool in *KT and KT;H11*$^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice. Tuba-seq was performed on each tumor-bearing lung 12 weeks after initiation, followed by analyses of sgID-BC sequencing data to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene (**b**).

c. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-corrected p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on mean tumor size relative to sgInerts, assuming a log-normal distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). sgRNAs with two-sided P<0.05 after FDR-adjustment are in bold.

e. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden (number of neoplastic cells aggregated across all tumors of a genotype) relative to sgInerts and normalized to the same statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative burdens significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-corrected p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

f. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number relative to sgInerts and normalized to the same

statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in

gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Relative tumor numbers significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-corrected p<0.05)

are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

g. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number plotted against its impact on LNmean tumor size.

The lines at y=1 and x=1 indicate no effect relative to sgInert on tumor number and size,

respectively. sgRsp19 and sgPcna cluster in the lower left quadrant near x=1, indicating that

targeting essential genes strongly reduces tumor number but only moderately decreases average

tumor size. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by bootstrap resampling.

Supplemental Figure 2. Inactivation of KRAS-interacting proteins has similar impacts on

tumor growth in p53-proficient and p53-deficient contexts.

a. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing

tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT* mice. *KT* mice lack Cas9, thus all sgRNAs are

functionally equivalent to sgInerts. Genes are ordered as in Figure **1f**. Line at y=1 indicates no

effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Confidence intervals and

P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling. As expected, no percentiles were significantly

different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05).

b. The impact of each sgRNA on mean tumor size relative to sgInerts in $KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$,

assuming a log-normal distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). sgRNAs with two-sided P<0.05

after FDR-adjustment are in bold. P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

c-d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden (c) and number (d) relative to sgInerts in

KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in *KT* mice to account for

representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates

no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor burdens and numbers

significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence

intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

e. Tumor sizes at the indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-

containing tumors in *KT;p53$^{flox/flox}$;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* mice. Genes are ordered as in Figure **1f**. Dashed

line indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Percentiles that are significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in

color. Confidence intervals and P-values calculated by bootstrap resampling.

f-h. Comparison of the impact of each sgRNA on relative LNmean tumor size (**f**), tumor burden

(**g**) and tumor number (**h**) in *KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* and *KT;p53$^{flox/flox}$;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$* mice. Error bars

indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by bootstrap resampling.

Supplemental Figure 3. Top candidate KRAS-interacting proteins from initial Tuba-seq

screen impact multiple metrics of tumor growth in validation cohort.

a. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing

tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT* mice. *KT* mice lack Cas9, thus all sgRNAs are

functionally equivalent to sgInerts. Genes are ordered as in Figure **2d** but note the change in axis

scaling. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInerts. Error bars indicate 95% confidence

intervals. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling. As

expected, no percentiles were significantly different from sgInert (FDR-adjusted p < 0.05).

b. The impact of each sgRNA on mean tumor size relative to sgInerts, assuming a log-normal

distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). Two-sided P-values were calculated by bootstrap

resampling. sgRNAs with P<0.05 after FDR-adjustment are in bold. Note that this data for the

sgInerts, sgHras#1-3 and sgNras#1-3 is also plotted in Figure 2e.

c. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden relative to sgInerts in $KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice,

normalized to the corresponding statistic in KT mice to account for representation of each

sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars

indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor burdens significantly different from sgInert

(two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were

calculated by bootstrap resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number relative to sgInerts in $KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice,

normalized to the corresponding statistic in KT mice to account for representation of each

sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars

indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor numbers significantly different from sgInert

(two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were

calculated by bootstrap resampling.

Supplemental Figure 4. Dependency of RAS family member across human LUAD cell lines.

a. Distribution of dependency scores for each RAS family member across human LUAD cell

lines divided by KRAS mutation status. **** (p <0.0001), ns (not significant).

b. Volcano plot showing effects of RAS gene knockouts in A549 cells. (Data source: Marcus

Robert Kelly, Kaja Kostyrko, Kyuho Han, et al. 2020)

c. Volcano plot showing effects of RAS gene knockouts in KRAS-mutant human LUAD cells

(left: H2009, mid: H23, right: H1975) in 3D culture. (Data source: Kyuho Han, et al. 2020)

Supplemental Figure 5. Inactivation of wild type HRAS or NRAS increases H23 cell growth

after transplantation.

a. Representative image of subcutaneous tumor size four weeks after transplantation with H23

cells as indicated. Quantification was shown in Figure **3h**. Scale bar: 2 mm

b. Representative image of Ki67 staining from subcutaneous tumor four weeks after

transplantation with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification was shown in Figure **3i**. Scale bar:

100 μm

c. Representative image of HE (upper) and human mitochondria (lower) staining from lung

tumor four weeks after intravenous transplantation with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification

was shown in Figure **3j**. Scale bar: 200 μm

d. Representative image of Ki67 staining from lung tumor four weeks after intravenous

transplantation with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification was shown in Figure **3k**. Scale bar:

200 μm

Supplemental Figure 6. Additional data from paired screen of Kras-interacting modulators

of tumor growth in Kras-driven and Braf-driven lung cancer models

a-c. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-

containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KTC* (a), *BrafTC* (b) and *KT* mice (c).

Genes are ordered by 95th percentile tumor size in *KTC* mice, with sgInerts on the left. sgInerts

are in gray, and line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95%

confidence intervals. Percentiles that are significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-

adjusted p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap

resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden relative to sgInerts in *KTC* (top) and *BrafTC*

(bottom) mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation

of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error

bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor burdens significantly different from

sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were

calculated by bootstrap resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number relative to sgInerts in *KTC* (top) and *BrafTC*

(bottom) mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation

of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error

bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor numbers significantly different from

sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were

calculated by bootstrap resampling.

METHODS

Cells, Reagents and Plasmids:

H23, H727, and HOP62 cells were originally purchased from ATCC; HC494(*KPT*) lung

adenocarcinoma cells were generated in the Winslow Lab; U2OS-134-764np (nl-KRAS^{G12D} cl-

KRAS^{G12D}; KRAS^{G12D} was fused to the N-termini of split luciferase proteins) and U2OS-134-

794p (nl-CVIM cl-CVIM; CVIM represents the C-terminal last 20 amino acids of KRAS4B)

cells were generated in the Wahl lab by Dr. Yao-Cheng Li (Salk Institute for Biological Studies).

HC494 cells were cultured in DMEM containing 10% FBS, 100 units/mL penicillin and 100

μg/mL streptomycin. A549, H460 and H82 cells were cultured in RPMI1640 media containing

10% FBS, 100 units/mL penicillin and 100 μg/mL streptomycin. U2OS cells were cultured in

DMEM/F12 (Thermo Fisher; phenol-red free), 10% (vol/vol) FBS, and 10 μg/mL ciprofloxacin.

All cell lines were confirmed to be mycoplasma negative (MycoAlert Detection Kit, Lonza).

Trametinib was purchased from MedChemExpress (HY-10999); 5-Bromo-2′-deoxyuridine

(10280879001) and D-Luciferin (L9504-5MG) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

Design, generation, barcoding, and production of lentiviral vectors

The sgRNA sequences targeting the putative tumor suppressor genes were designed using

CRISPick (https://portals.broadinstitute.org/gppx/crispick/public). All sgRNA sequence are

shown in Supplementary Table 2. Each desired sgRNA vector was modified from our previously

published pll3-U6-sgRNA-Pgk-Cre vector via site-directed mutagenesis (New England Biolabs,

E0554S). The generation of the barcode fragment containing the 8-nucleotide sgID sequence and

20-nucleotide degenerate barcode, and subsequent ligation into the vectors were performed as

previously described.

Lentiviral vectors were produced using polyethylenimine (PEI)-based transfection of 293T cells

with the plasmids indicated in Supplementary Table 1, along with delta8.2 and VSV-G

packaging plasmids in 150-mm cell culture plates. Sodium butyrate (Sigma Aldrich, B5887) was

added 8 hours after transfection to achieve a final concentration of 20 mM. Medium was

refreshed 24 hours after transfection. 20 mL of virus-containing supernatant was collected 36,

48, and 60 hours after transfection. The three collections were then pooled and concentrated by

ultracentrifugation (25,000 rpm for 1.5 hours), resuspended overnight in 100 µL PBS, then

frozen at -80°C and were thawed and pooled at equal ratios immediately prior to delivery to

mice.

Mice and tumor initiation

The use of mice for the current study has been approved by Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee at Stanford University, protocol number 26696.

$Kras^{LSL-G12D/+}$ (RRID:IMSR_JAX:008179), $R26^{LSL-tdTomato}$ (RRID:IMSR_JAX:007909),

and $H11^{LSL-Cas9}$ (RRID:IMSR_JAX:027632) mice have been previously described. They were on

a C57BL/6:129 mixed background. The B6.129P2(Cg)-$Braf^{tm1Mmcm}$/J ($BRAF^{F-V600E}$) mice

were initially generated by Dankort et al. and obtained from the Jackson Laboratory

(RRID:IMSR_JAX: 017837). Tumors were initiated by intratracheal delivery of 60 µl of

lentiviral vectors dissolved in PBS.

For the initial experiments in Figure 1 and 2, tumors were allowed to develop for 12 weeks after

viral delivery of a lentiviral pool that contained 19 barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors (Lenti-

sgKrasIP/Cre). Tumors were initiated in Kras$^{LSL-G12D}$; R26$^{LSL-tdTomato}$ (*KT*), *KT;*H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$; or

*KT;p53$^{fl/fl}$;*H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice with 1.95x10^5 infectious units (ifu)/mouse.

For the validation experiments in Figure 3, tumors were allowed to develop for 15 weeks after

viral delivery of a lentiviral pool that contained 26 barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors (Lenti-

sgValidation/Cre). Tumors were initiated in Kras$^{LSL-G12D}$; R26$^{LSL-tdTomato}$ (*KT*) or *KT;*H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$;

mice with 3x10^5 ifu/mouse.

For the individual sgRNA tumor initiation experiments in Figure 3, tumors were allowed to

develop for 12 weeks after viral delivery of individual sgRNA expressing lentiviral vector that

targeting Neo2, Hras, or Nras. Tumors were initiated in *KT;*H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$; mice with 1x10^5

ifu/mouse.

For the paired screen experiments in Figure 6, tumors were allowed to develop for 15 weeks

after viral delivery of a lentiviral pool that contained 15 barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors

(Lenti-sgMultiGEMM/Cre). Tumors were initiated in *KT;*H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$ or Braf^{V600E}; R26^{LSL-}

^{tdTomato}; H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice with 3x10^5 ifu/mouse.

Tuba-seq library generation

Genomic DNA was isolated from bulk tumor-bearing lung tissue from each mouse as previously

described. Briefly, benchmark control cell lines were generated from LSL-YFP MEFs

transduced by a barcoded Lenti-sgNT3/Cre vector (NT3: an inert sgRNA with a distinct sgID)

and purified by sorting YFP^{pos} cells. Three benchmark control cell lines (500,000 cells each)

were added to each mouse lung sample prior to lysis to enable the calculation of the absolute

number of neoplastic cells in each tumor from the number of sgID-BC reads. Following

homogenization and overnight protease K digestion, genomic DNA was extracted from the lung

lysates using standard phenol-chloroform and ethanol precipitation methods. Subsequently, Q5

High-Fidelity 2x Master Mix (New England Biolabs, M0494X) was used to amplify the sgID-

BC region from 32 μg of genomic DNA in a total reaction volume of 800 μl per sample. The

unique dual-indexed primers used were Forward: AAT GAT ACG GCG ACC ACC GAG ATC

TAC AC-8 nucleotides for i5 index-ACA CTC TTT CCC TAC ACG ACG CTC TTC CGA

TCT-6 to 9 random nucleotides for increased diversity-GCG CAC GTC TGC CGC GCT G and

Reverse: CAA GCA GAA GAC GGC ATA CGA GAT-6 nucleotides for i7 index- GTG ACT

GGA GTT CAG ACG TGT GCT CTT CCG ATC T-9 to 6 random nucleotides for increased

diversity-CAG GTT CTT GCG AAC CTC AT. The PCR products were purified with Agencourt

AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, A63881) using a double size selection protocol. The

concentration and quality of the purified libraries were determined using Agilent High

Sensitivity DNA kit (Agilent Technologies, 5067-4626) on the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer

(Agilent Technologies, G2939BA). The libraries were pooled based on lung weight to ensure

even reading depth, cleaned up again using AMPure XP beads, and sequenced (read length

2x150bp) on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 or NextSeq 550 platform (Admera Health Biopharma

Services).

Generation of Stable Cell Lines:

Parental cells were seeded at 50% confluency in a 6-well plate the day before transduction (day

0). The cell culture medium was replaced with 2 mL fresh medium containing 8 μg/mL

hexadimethrine bromide (Sigma Aldrich, H9268-5G), 20 μL ViralPlus Transduction Enhancer

(Applied Biological Materials Inc., G698) and 40 µL concentrated lentivirus and cultured

overnight (Day 1). The medium was then replaced with complete medium and cultured for

another 24 hours (Day 2). Cells were transferred into a 100 mm cell culture dish with appropriate

amounts of antibiotic (Blasticidin doses: U2OS: 10 µg/mL; HOP62: 50 µg/mL; H727: 10

µg/mL; H23: 15 µg/mL; Puromycin doses: HC494: 5 µg/mL; U2OS: 1 µg/mL; HOP62: 5

µg/mL; H727: 5 µg/mL; H23: 5 µg/mL) and selected for 48 hours (Day 3).

Western Blot

Cells were lysed in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl, 1% Nonidet P-40,

and 0.1% SDS) and incubated at 4 °C with continuous rotation for 30 minutes, followed by

centrifugation at 12,000 × rcf for 10 minutes. The supernatant was collected, and the protein

concentration was determined by BCA assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 23250). Protein extracts

(10–50 µg) were dissolved in 10% SDS-PAGE and transferred onto PVDF membranes. The

membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat milk in TBS with 0.1% Tween 20 (TBST) at room

temperature for one hour, followed by incubation with primary antibodies diluted in TBST

(1:1000) at 4 °C overnight. After three 10-minutes washes with TBST, the membranes were

incubated with the appropriate secondary antibody conjugated to HRP diluted in TBST

(1:10000) at room temperature for 1 hour. After three 10-minutes washes with TBST, Protein

expression was quantified with enhanced chemiluminescence reagents (Fisher Scientific,

PI80196).

Antibodies used in this study: HSP90 (BD Biosciences, 610418), pAKT (Cell Signaling, 4060S),

pERK (Cell Signaling, 4370L), ERK (Cell Signaling, 9102S), AKT (Cell Signaling, 4691S),

HRAS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 18295-1-AP), NRAS (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-31), HA-

tag (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-7392).

Histology and immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Lung lobes were fixed in 4% formalin and paraffin embedded. Hematoxylin and eosin staining

was performed using standard methods. IHC was performed on 4-µm sections with IHC was

performed using Avidin/Biotin Blocking Kit (Vector Laboratories, SP-2001), Avidin-Biotin

Complex kit (Vector Laboratories, PK-4001), and DAB Peroxidase Substrate Kit (Vector

Laboratories, SK-4100) following standard protocols.

The following primary antibodies were used: Ki-67 (BD Pharmingen, 550609), BrdU (BD

Pharmingen, 555627), human mitochondria (Abcam, ab92824), pERK (Cell Signaling, 4370L).

Total tumor burden (tumor area/total area × 100%), mitochondria^{pos} tumor burden

(mitochondria^{pos} area/total area × 100%), BrdU^{pos} cell number, Ki67^{pos} cell number, and pERK^{pos}

cell number were calculated using ImageJ. All ImageJ macros were uploaded.

Cell proliferation assay (CCK8)

For cell proliferation assays, cells were seeded in 96-well plates at a density of 5000 cells per

well and allowed to adhere overnight in regular growth media (Day 0). Cells were then cultured

in media as indicated on each figure panel for 7 days. Relative cell number were measured every

other day using Cell Counting Kit-8 (Bimake, B34304) according to the manufacturer's

instructions.

Colony formation assay

For clonogenic assays, cells were seeded in 6-well plates at a density of 500 cells per well

and allowed to adhere overnight in regular growth media. Cells were then cultured in media as

indicated on each figure panel for 14 days. Growth media with or without drugs was replaced

every 2 days. At the end point, cells were stained with 0.5% crystal violet in 20% methanol.

Colony numbers were calculated using ImageJ. All ImageJ macros were uploaded.

Allograft studies in immunocompromised mice

For intravenous transplants into immunocompromised NSG mice, 5×10^5 H23 cells were injected

into one of lateral tail veins. Mice were sacrificed 28 days post-injection and lung lobe were

fixed in 4% formalin and paraffin embedded. For subcutaneous transplants into

immunocompromised NSG mice, 2×10^6 of each H23 cells (sgSAFE, sgHRAS, and sgNRAS)

were re-suspended in 200uL Matrigel® Basement Membrane Matrix (Corning, 354234) and

injected into three parallel sites per mouse. Mice were sacrificed 28 days post-injection. Tumors

were dissected and the weight, height, width, and length, of each tumor was measured. Tumor

volume was roughly calculated via the formula: $V = (4/3) \times \pi \times (L/2) \times (L/2) \times (D/2)$.

Institute of Medicine Animal Care and Use Committee approved all animal studies and

procedures.

ReBiL2.0 assay

ReBiL2.0 assay was performed as previously descried. ReBiL cells (U2OS-134-764np or U2OS-

134-794p with overexpression of KRAS4b, HRAS or NRAS) were seeded in i) 96-well plates at

density of 2×10^4, and ii) 6-well plates at density of 1×10^6 and allowed to adhere overnight in

regular growth media (DMEM/F12, 10% FBS, and 10 µg/mL ciprofloxacin). The next day, cells

were then cultured in serum limited media (DMEM/F12, 1% FBS, and 10 µg/mL ciprofloxacin)

containing 100 ng/mL doxycycline for 24 hours. Upon termination of the ReBiL assay, i) to

measure raw luciferase activity, 300 µM D-luciferin was added to 96-well plate culture and

incubate in 37°C for 30mins and raw luminescent data collected by a Tecan microplate reader; ii)

to measure viable cell numbers, CCK-8 assay were performed in the same 96-well plate culture

and raw cell number data collected by a Tecan microplate reader; iii) to quantify the 1/2luc

fusion proteins, ReBiL cells from 6-well plate culture were harvested with RIPA lysis buffer for

protein extraction and western blot was performed for HA-tag and HSP90 expression. Then the

ReBiL2.0 score was calculated via the formula:

ReBiL2.0 score = ([Raw Luminescence]/[Cell number]) / ([1/2luc Least]/[HSP90])

Analysis of human lung adenocarcinoma cancer genome sequencing data (for HRAS rare

mutations)

To assess evidence that *HRAS* functions as a Kras-specific tumor suppressor in human

cancer, we queried publicly available cancer genomic datasets. GENIE Release 9.1-public was

accessed through the Synapse platform and data on somatic mutations

(data_mutations_extended.txt), sample- and patient-level clinical data (data_clinical_sample.txt

and data_clinical_patient.txt), and genotyping panel information (genomic_information.txt) were

downloaded. TCGA data were accessed through the GDC hub of the UCSC Xena Browser.

MuTect2 somatic mutation calls for all cancer types and sample- and patient-level clinical data

(GDC-PANCAN.basic_phenotype.tsv) were downloaded. Both datasets were filtered to only

include lung adenocarcinoma samples, and each sample was assigned to its patient of origin.

There were 597 lung adenocarcinoma samples with genotype information in TCGA and

Samples were then annotated for the presence of an oncogenic Kras mutation (a missense

mutation in Kras exons 12, 13 or 61) and for the presence of potentially functional Hras

mutations (variants that were silent, intergenic, intronic, or fell in the 3' or 5' UTRs were

excluded from this analysis). From this information we produced a list of the frequency of all

Hras variants in lung adenocarcinoma samples with and without oncogenic Kras in both datasets.

The genotyping panel information was used to identify GENIE samples that were not genotyped

at Hras and exclude these from the frequency calculation.

While it is unclear how our findings may extrapolate to other cancer types, Hras

mutations are exceedingly rare (occurring at a frequency of ~0.008 in GENIE samples and

~0.005 in TCGA samples) so we therefore also performed a pair of pan-cancer analyses where

the steps described above were performed without first filtering to include only lung

adenocarcinoma.

Process paired-end reads to identify the sgID and barcode

Sequencing of Tuba-seq libraries produces reads that are expected to contain an 8-

nucleotide sgID followed by a 30-nucleotide barcode (BC) of the form

GCNNNNNTANNNNNGCNNNNNTANNNNNGC, where each of the 20 Ns represent random

nucleotides. Each sgID has a one-to-one correspondence with an sgRNA in the viral pool; thus,

the sgID sequence identifies the gene targeted in a given tumor. Note that all sgID sequences in

the viral pool differ from each other by at least three nucleotides such that incorrect sgID

assignment (and thus, inference of tumor genotype) due to PCR or sequencing error is extremely

unlikely. The random 20-nucleotide portion of the BC is expected to be unique to each lentiviral

integration event, and thus tags all cells in a single clonal expansion. Note that the length of the

barcode ensures a high theoretical potential diversity ($\sim 4^{20} > 10^{12}$ barcodes per vector), so while

the actual diversity of each Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vector is dictated by the number of colonies

generated during the plasmid barcoding step, it is very unlikely that we will observe the same BC

in multiple clonal expansions.

FASTQ files were parsed using regular expressions to identify the sgID and BC for each

read. To minimize the effects of sequencing error on BC identification, we required the forward

and reverse reads to agree completely within the 30-nucleotide sequence to be further processed.

We also screened for barcodes that were likely to have arisen due to errors in sequencing the

barcodes of genuine tumors. Given the low rate of sequencing error, we expect these spurious

"tumors" to have read counts that are far lower than the read counts of the genuine tumors from

which they arise. While it is impossible to eliminate these spurious tumors, we sought to

minimize their effect by identifying small "tumors" with barcodes that are highly similar to the

barcodes of larger tumors. Specifically, if a pair of "tumors" had barcodes that were within a

Hamming distance of two, and if one of the tumors had less than 5% as many reads as the other,

then the reads associated with the smaller tumor were attributed to the larger tumor.

After these filtering steps, the read counts associated with each barcode were converted to

absolute neoplastic cell numbers by normalizing to the number of reads in the "spike-in" cell

lines added to each sample prior to lung lysis and DNA extraction. The median sequencing depth

across experiments was ~1 read per 6.4 cells.

For statistical comparisons of tumor genotypes, we applied a minimum tumor size cutoff

of 100 cells. In selecting a cutoff, we sought to include tumors that are large enough to be

consistently detected despite differences in sequencing depth among mice, while using as many

tumors as possible to maximize the statistical power. Importantly, we analyzed each Tuba-seq

dataset with multiple minimum tumor size cut-offs (50, 100, 200, 500 cells) and found that our

findings were robust.

Summary statistics for overall growth rate

To assess the extent to which a given gene (*X*) affects tumor growth, we compared the

distribution of tumor sizes produced by vectors targeting that gene (sg*X* tumors) to the

distribution produced by our negative control vectors (sg*Inert* tumors). We relied on two

statistics to characterize these distributions: the size of tumors at defined percentiles of the

distribution (specifically the 50th, 60th, 70th, 80th, 90th, and 95th percentile tumor sizes), and the

log-normal mean size (LN mean). The percentile sizes are nonparametric summary statistics of

the tumor size distribution. In considering percentiles corresponding to the right tail of the

distribution, we focus on the growth of larger tumors, thereby avoiding issues stemming from

potential variation in cutting efficiency among guides. The LN mean is the maximum-likelihood

estimate of mean tumor size assuming a log-normal distribution. Previous work found that this

statistic represents the best parametric summary of tumor growth based on the maximum

likelihood quality of fit of various common parametric distributions.

To quantify the extent to which each gene suppressed or promoted tumor growth, we

normalized statistics calculated on tumors of each genotype to the corresponding inert statistic.

The resulting ratios reflect the growth advantage (or disadvantage) associated with each tumor

genotype relative to the growth of *sgInert* tumors.

For example, the relative i^{th} percentile size for tumors of genotype X was calculated as:

$$\text{Relative size at } i^{th} \text{ percentile}_{sgX} = \frac{i^{th} \text{ percentile of sgX distribution}}{i^{th} \text{ percentile of sgInert distribution}}$$

966   Likewise, the relative LN mean size for tumors of genotype X was calculated as:

$$\text{Relative LNmean}_{sgX} = \frac{LNmean \text{ of sgX distribution}}{LNmean \text{ of sgInert distribution}}$$

Summary statistics for relative tumor number and relative tumor burden

In addition to the tumor size metrics described above, we characterized the effects of

gene inactivation on tumorigenesis in terms of the number of tumors and total neoplastic cell

number ("tumor burden") associated with each genotype. Unlike the aforementioned metrics of

tumor size, tumor number and burden are linearly affected by lentiviral titer and are thus

sensitive to underlying differences in the representation of each Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vector in the

viral pool. Critically, each Tuba-seq experiment included a cohort of *KT* control mice. *KT* mice

lack expression of Cas9, thus all Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors are functionally equivalent in these

mice, and the observed tumor number and burden associated with each sgRNA reflects the

make-up of the viral pool.

To assess the extent to which a given gene (*X*) affects tumor number, we therefore first

normalized the number of sgX tumors in *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice (also *KT;p53^{flox/flox};H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and

Braf^{LSL-V600E/+}T; H11^{LSL-Cas9} mice in the initial Kras-interacting protein screen and the paired

screen, respectively) to the number of sgX tumors in the *KT* mice:

$$Tumor\ number_{sgX} = \frac{Number\ of\ sgX\ tumors\ in\ KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}\ mice}{Number\ of\ sgX\ tumors\ in\ KT\ mice}$$

987 As with the tumor size metrics, we then calculated a relative tumor number by normalizing this

988 statistic to the corresponding statistic calculated using sgInert tumors:

$$Relative\ tumor\ number_{sgX} = \frac{Tumor\ number_{sgX}}{Tumor\ number_{sgInert}}$$

Genes that influence relative tumor number modify the probability of tumor initiation

and/or the very early stages of oncogene-driven epithelial expansion, which prior work suggests

are imperfectly correlated with tumor growth at later stages. Relative tumor number thus

captures an additional and potentially important aspect of tumor suppressor gene function.

Analogous to the calculation of relative tumor number, we characterized the effect of each gene

on tumor burden by first normalizing the sgX tumor burden in Cas9-expressing mice to the

burden in KT mice:

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$$Tumor\ burden_{sgX} = \frac{Total\ neoplastic\ cell\ number\ for\ sgX\ in\ KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}\ mice}{Total\ neoplastic\ cell\ number\ for\ sgX\ in\ KT\ mice}$$

1002

1003 We then calculated a relative tumor burden by normalizing this number to the corresponding

1004 statistic calculated using sgInert tumors:

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1006 $$Relative\ tumor\ burden_{sgX} = \frac{Tumor\ burden_{sgX}}{Tumor\ burden_{sgInert}}$$

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1008    Tumor burden is an integration over tumor size and number, and thus reflects the total

1009 neoplastic load in each mouse. Tumor burden is thus more strongly related to morbidity than are

1010 our metrics of tumor size and is closely related to traditional measurements of tumor progression

1011 such as duration of survival and tumor area. While intuitively appealing, tumor burden is notably

1012 nosier than our metrics of tumor size as it is strongly determined by the size of the largest

1013 tumors.

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1015 *Calculation of confidence intervals and P-values for tumor growth and number metrics*

1016    Confidence intervals and *P*-values were calculated using bootstrap resampling to estimate

the sampling distribution of each statistic. To account for both mouse-to-mouse variability and

variability in tumor size and number within mice, we adopted a two-step, nested bootstrap

approach where we first resampled mice, and then resampled tumors within each mouse in the

pseudo-dataset. 10,000 bootstrap samples were drawn for all reported P-values. 95% confidence

intervals were calculated using the 2.5^{th} and 97.5^{th} percentile of the bootstrapped statistics.

Because we calculate metrics of tumor growth that are normalized to the same metrics in sgInert

tumors, under the null model where genotype does not affect tumor growth, the test statistic is

equal to 1. Two-sided p-values were thus calculated as followed:

1025   $$p = 2 * \min\{\Pr(T > 1), \Pr(T < 1)\}$$

1026 Where T is the test statistic and Pr(T>1) and Pr(T<1) were calculated empirically as the

1027 proportion of bootstrapped statistics that were more extreme than the baseline of 1. To account

1028 for multiple hypothesis testing, p-values were FDR-adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg

1029 procedure as implemented in the Python package stats models.

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AP-MS data visualization

AP-MS data was analyzed as described (Ding et al 2016). Briefly, protein spectral

matches (PSMs; Kelly et al 2020) were normalized by protein length and total spectral matches

per experiment. These normalized spectral abundance factors (NSAFs) were then normalized to

NSAFs of matched prey proteins from a large cohort of unrelated AP/MS experiments to

produce a Z-score. Z-scores are proportional to the areas of circles in bubble plots. In cluster

diagrams, NSAFs are binarized by statistical significance (FDR > 0.5), similarities between

interactome profiles are determined by cosine distance, and dendrogram topology is determined

by UPGMA.

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Figure 1. Multiplexed identification of KRAS-interacting proteins that impact KRAS^G12D-driven lung cancer growth *in vivo*.

a. Candidate mediators of KRAS-driven lung tumor growth were identified on the basis of their interactions with GTP- and GDP-locked Kras in multiple AP/MS-based protein-protein interaction screens and their expression in a mouse model of Kras-driven lung adenocarcinoma.

b. Selected KRAS-interacting proteins interact with either GTP- or GDP-locked KRAS (shown as NSAF in A549 cells) and their homolog is expressed in KRAS^G12D-driven lung cancer (shown as TPM).

c. Bubble plot of two AP/MS experiments with GTP- and GDP-locked mutant GTPases as baits (rows), showing the enrichment of selected candidate KRAS-interacting proteins (columns). Dark borders indicate FDR < 0.05.

d. Schematic of tumor initiation with a pool of barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors (Lenti-sgKrasIP-Pool/Cre). The lentiviral pool includes four Inert sgRNAs that are either non-targeting (NT) or target a functionally inert locus (Neo1-3, targeting NeoR in the *R26^LSL-tdTomato* allele). Each barcoded lentiviral vector contains an sgRNA, Cre, and a two-component barcode composed of an sgRNA identifier (sgID) and a random barcode (BC). This design allows inactivation of multiple target genes in parallel followed by quantification of the resulting tumor size distributions through high-throughput sgID-BC sequencing.

e. Tumors were initiated in cohorts of *KT*, *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* and *KT;p53^flox/flox;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice through intratracheal delivery of Lenti-sgKrasIP-Pool/Cre. Tuba-seq was performed on each tumor-bearing lung 12 weeks after initiation, followed by analyses of sgID-BC sequencing data to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene.

f. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice. Genes are ordered by 95th percentile tumor size, with sgInerts on the left. sgInerts are in gray, and the line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

g. Comparison of 95th percentile tumor size for each sgRNA relative to the size the 95th percentile tumor size of sgInert-containing tumors in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice versus *KT;p53^flox/flox;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by bootstrap resampling.

Supplemental Figure 1. Tumor barcoding coupled with barcode sequencing (Tuba-seq) can uncover engineered alterations that reduce tumor number and growth.

a-b. Schematic of the Tuba-seq approach to measure the effects of essential gene inactivation on tumor growth. Lentiviral-sgRNA/Cre vectors with inert sgRNAs (gray) or sgRNAs targeting known essential genes (navy) were diversified with a two component sgID-BC. A vector targeting known tumor suppressor *Apc* was included as a positive control (**a**). Tumors were initiated with this barcoded Lenti-sgEssential/Cre pool in KT and KT;H11$^{LSL-Cas9}$ mice. Tuba-seq was performed on each tumor-bearing lung 12 weeks after initiation, followed by analyses of sgID-BC sequencing data to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene (**b**).

c. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are signficantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-corrected p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on mean tumor size relative to sgInerts, assuming a log-normal distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). sgRNAs with two-sided P<0.05 after FDR-adjustment are in bold.

e. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden (number of neoplastic cells aggregated across all tumors of a genotype) relative to sgInerts and normalized to the same statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sg*Inert*s are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative burdens significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-corrected p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

f. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number relative to sgInerts and normalized to the same statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sg*Inert*s are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor numbers significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-corrected p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

g. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number plotted against its impact on LNmean tumor size. The lines at y=1 and x=1 indicate no effect relative to sgInert on tumor number and size, respectively. sgRsp19 and sgPcna cluster in the lower left quadrant near x=1, indicating that targeting essential genes strongly reduces tumor number but only moderately decreases average tumor size. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by bootstrap resampling.

Supplemental Figure 2. Inactivation of KRAS-interacting proteins has similar impacts on tumor growth in p53-proficient and p53-deficient contexts.
a. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT* mice. *KT* mice lack Cas9, thus all sgRNAs are functionally equivalent to sgInerts. Genes are ordered as in Figure 1f. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling. As expected, no percentiles were signficantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05).
b. The impact of each sgRNA on mean tumor size relative to sgInerts in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9^*, assuming a log-normal distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). sgRNAs with two-sided P<0.05 after FDR-adjustment are in bold. P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.
c-d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden (**c**) and number (**d**) relative to sgInerts in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9^*mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor burdens and numbers significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.
e. Tumor sizes at the indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors in KT;p53^flox/flox^;H11^LSL-Cas9^ mice. Genes are ordered as in Figure 1f. Dashed line indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are signficantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values calculated by bootstrap resampling.
f-h. Comparison of the impact of each sgRNA on relative LNmean tumor size (**f**), tumor burden (**g**) and tumor number (**h**) in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9^*and *KT;p53^flox/flox^K-T;H11^LSL-Cas9^;H11^LSL-Cas9^* mice. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by bootstrap resampling.

Figure 2. HRAS and NRAS are potent suppressors of KRAS^G12D-driven lung cancer growth *in vivo*

a,b. A pool of barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors (Lenti-sgValidation/Cre) targeting candidate mediators of KRAS-driven lung tumor growth identified in the initial KRAS-interacting protein Tuba-seq screen was used to initiate tumors in validation cohorts of *KT* and *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice. This lentiviral pool includes four Inert sgRNAs, as well as sgRNAs targeting *Lkb1*, *Rb1*, and *Rbm10* as tumor suppressor controls. Each candidate gene from the initial screen is targeted with three sgRNAs. Tumors were initiated throuh intratracheal delivery of Lenti-sgValidation/Cre, and Tuba-seq was performed on each tumor-bearing lung 12 weeks after initiation, followed by analyses of sgID-BC sequencing data to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene (**b**).

c. Fluorescence images of representative lung lobes 12 weeks after tumor initiation. Scale bars = 5 mm. Lung lobes are outlined with a white dashed line.

d. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice. Genes are ordered by 95th percentile tumor size, with sgInerts on the left. Note that sgLkb1 is plotted on a separate scale to facilitate visualization of sgRNAs with lesser magnitudes of effect. Dashed line indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. 95% confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling. Percentiles that are signficantly different from sgInert (2-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color.

e. Targeting Hras and Nras significantly increases mean tumor size relative to sgInerts, assuming a log-normal distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by bootstrap resampling.

f. Schematic of tumor initiation with individual Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors. Mouse number and titer of the lentiviral vectors are indicated.

g. Representative fluorescence images of lungs from *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice after tumor initiation with Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Scale bar = 5 mm.

h. Representative H&E images of lungs from *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice after tumor initiation with Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Tumor area (percentage of total lung area) from each mouse is shown as Mean ± SD. *: p<0.05; Scale bar = 5 mm.

i. Representative BrdU staining images of lungs from *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice after tumor initiation with Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Number of Brdu+ cells per field is shown as Mean ± SD. **: p<0.01; Scale bar = 100 μm.

Supplemental Figure 3. Top candidate KRAS-interacting proteins from initial Tuba-seq screen impact multiple metrics of tumor growth in validation cohort.

a. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT* mice. *KT* mice lack Cas9, thus all sgRNAs are functionally equivalent to sgInerts. Genes are ordered as in Figure 2d, but note the change in axis scaling. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInerts. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling. As expected, no percentiles were signficantly different from sgInert (FDR-adjusted p < 0.05).

b. The impact of each sgRNA on mean tumor size relative to sgInerts, assuming a log-normal distribution of tumor sizes (LNmean). Two-sided P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling. sgRNAs with P<0.05 after FDR-adjustment are in bold. Note that this data for the sgInerts, sgHras#1-3 and sgNras#1-3 is also plotted in Figure 2e.

c. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden relative to sgInerts in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor burdens significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number relative to sgInerts in *KT;H11^LSL-Cas9* mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in KT mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor numbers significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

Figure 3. Wildtype HRAS or NRAS constrain the growth of human KRAS-driven cancer cell lines.
a. Inactivation of wild type HRAS or NRAS increases growth of KRAS-mutant H23 (G12C) and H727 (G12V) cells. Wildtype (sgSAFE) or HRAS- or NRAS-knockout cells were seeded in 96 well plates and cultured under limited serum (1%). Cell numbers were measured via CCK8 assay. Points are Mean±SD of 12 wells normalized to Day 0. **: p<0.01
b. Re-expression of wild type HRAS suppresses proliferation of HRAS-null H23 and H727 cells. TRE-HRAS cells were seeded in 96 well plates and cultured under limited serum (1%) with or without 50 ng/ml Doxycycline (Dox) and cell numbers were measured via CCK8 assay. Points are Mean±SD of 12 wells normalized to Day 0. **: p<0.01
c-d. Inactivation of HRAS or NRAS increases H23 colony formation. Wildtype (sgSAFE), HRAS-knockout (sgHRAS), or NRAS-knockout (sgNRAS) H23 cells were seeded at 1000 cells/well in 6-well plates and grown for two weeks. Cells were stained with crystal violet. **c**. Representative images. Scale bar = 5mm. **d**. Mean±SD of colony number of 12 fields. **: p<0.01
e-f. Re-expression of wild type HRAS suppresses HRAS-null H23 cell colony formation. TRE-Ctrl or TRE-HRAS H23 cells were seeded at 1000 cells/well in 6-well plates and grown with or without 50 ng/ml Doxycycline (Dox) for two weeks. Cells were stained with crystal violet. **e**. Representative images. Scale bar = 5mm. **f**. Mean±SD of colony number of 12 fields. **: p<0.01
g-k. Inactivation of wild type HRAS or NRAS increases H23 cell growth after transplantation. **g.** Schematic of tumor initiation with subcutaneous (SubQ) or intravenous (IV) transplantation of H23 cells with inactivation of HRAS or NRAS in NSG mice. Mouse number, cell number, and tumor growth time after transplantation are indicated. **h**. Tumor weight from SubQ transplantation of indicated cells. Each dot represents a mouse. Mean value was shown. **i**. Ki67pos cell number in tumor section from SubQ transplantation of indicated cells was shown as Mean±SD value of 20 view fields. **j**. Tumor area (percentage of h-mitochondriapos area) from IV transplantation of indicated cells. Each dot represents a tumor. Mean value was shown. **k**. Ki67pos cell number in tumor section from IV transplantation of indicated cells is shown as Mean±SD value of 20 view fields (200x). *: p<0.05; **: p<0.01; ns: not significant.

Supplemental Figure 4. Dependency of RAS family member across human LUAD cell lines.
a. Distribution of dependency scores for each RAS family member across human LUAD cell lines divided by KRAS mutation status. **** (p <0.0001), ns (not-significant).
b. Volcano plot showing effects of RAS gene knockouts in A549 cells. (Data source: Marcus Robert Kelly, Kaja Kostyrko, Kyuho Han, et al. 2020)
c. Volcano plot showing effects of RAS gene knockouts in KRAS-mutant human LUAD cells (left: H2009, mid: H23, right: H1975) in 3D culture. (Data source: Kyuho Han, et al. 2020)

Supplemental Figure 5. Inactivation of wild type HRAS or NRAS increases H23 cell growth after transplantation.
a. Representative image of subcutaneous tumor size four weeks after transplantation with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification was shown in Figure 3h. Scale bar: 2 mm
b. Representative image of Ki67 staining from subcutaneous tumor four weeks after transplantation with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification was shown in Figure 3i. Scale bar: 100 μm
c. Representative image of HE (upper) and human mitochondria (lower) staining from lung tumor four weeks after intravenous transplantation with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification was shown in Figure 3j. Scale bar: 200 μm
d. Representative image of Ki67 staining from lung tumor four weeks after intravenous transplantation with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification was shown in Figure 3k. Scale bar: 200 μm

Figure 4. Wildtype RAS paralogs finetune RAS signaling

a. Representative image of pERK staining in KTC mice with tumors initiated with Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors as indicated. Quantification of pERK^{pos} cells per tumor was shown as Mean±SD of 20 tumors. *: p<0.05; **: p<0.01; Scale bar: 100 μm

b. Representative image of pERK staining in subcutaneous tumor transplantated with H23 cells as indicated. Quantification of pERK^{pos} cells per field was shown as Mean±SD of 20 fields. **: p<0.01; Scale bar: 100 μm

c. Western blot analysis of sorted cancer cells from KTC mice transduced with Lenti-sgRNA vectors as indicated. Each mice were transduced with 300k Lenti-sgRNA for 15 weeks. Multiple tumors from same mice (ear tag as indicated) were pooled for sorting and protein extraction.

d. Western blot analysis of cultured HC494 (KPTC) cells transduced with Lenti-sgRNA vectors as indicated. HC494 cells were transduced with lentiviral vector expressing indicated sgRNA and selected with puromycin to generate stable knockout cell lines. Wildtype cell (sgNeo) or HRAS- or NRAS-knockout cells (sgHras, sgNras) were cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2 days before protein extraction.

e. Western blot analysis of cultured H23 (left) and HOP62 (right) cells transduced with Lenti-sgRNA vectors as indicated. All human cells were transduced with lentiviral vector expressing indicated sgRNA and selected with puromycin to generate stable knockout cell lines. Wildtype cell (sgSAFE) or HRAS- or NRAS-knockout cells (sgHRAS, sgNRAS) were cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2 days before protein extraction.

f. Comparison of GI50 values to MEK inhibitors trametinib among wildtype and HRAS-null H23 cells under treatment of indicated dose of trametinib for four days. Cell number were measured via CCK8 assay and normalized to cells treated with vehicle. Each date point was shown as Mean±SD of 12 wells.

g. Western blot analysis of cultured HRAS-null H23 cells (H23-sgHRAS) re-expression HRAS (TRE-HRAS) under Doxycycline (Dox) treatment. HRAS-null H23 cells were generated from previous experiment as described in Figure 3a. HRAS-null H23 cells were re-transduced with lentiviral vector expressing TRE-HRAS at high MOI (>5) to generate stable HRAS re-expression cells (H23-sgHRAS-TRE-HRAS). To re-express HRAS, cells were treated with low dose (0, 1, and 2ng/ml) Dox and cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2 days before protein extraction.

h. Comparison of GI50 values to MEK inhibitors trametinib among HRAS-null H23 cells (H23-sgHRAS) re-expressing HRAS in presence (HRAS+Dox) or absence (HRAS) of Doxycycline plus indicated dose of trametinib for four days. Cell number were measured via CCK8 assay and normalized to cells treated with vehicle. Each date point was shown as Mean±SD of 12 wells.

Figure 5. Wildtype RAS paralogs finetune RAS signaling through direct interaction with oncogenic KRAS.

a. HRAS and NRAS are shared KRAS interacting proteins in two protein-protein interaction datasets (Kelly, Kostyrko, Han et al. 2020; Broyde, Simpson, Murray et al. 2020). Shared KRAS-interaction proteins are shown as their $\log_{10}$NSAF and SigMap Score.

b. All three RAS proteins are able to disrupt $KRAS^{G12D}$-$KRAS^{G12D}$ interaction. U2OS-764 (nl-$KRAS^{G12D}$/cl-$KRAS^{G12D}$) or U2OS-794 (nl-CVIM/cl-CVIM) cells expressing KRAS, HRAS, or NRAS were cultured in limited serum (1%) under 100 ng/ml Doxycycline (Dox) for 24 hours. ReBiL2.0 assay were performed as previously described and detailed in Methods. Points are Mean±SD ReBiL2.0 score of 36 wells normalized to cells transduced with empty lentiviral vector. **: p<0.01,

c. $HRAS^{T50M}$ and $HRAS^{R123C}$ are novel dimerization deficient mutations. U2OS-764 (nl-$KRAS^{G12D}$/cl-$KRAS^{G12D}$) cells expressing wildtype or rare mutant HRAS were cultured in limited serum (1%) under 100 ng/ml Dox for 24 hours. Points are Mean±SD ReBiL2.0 score of 12 wells normalized to cells transduced with empty lentiviral vector. **: p<0.01; ns: not significant.

d. Clustermap of RAS effector prey proteins enriched in each experiment with the indicated baits in A549 cells (for K-, H-, or N-RAS) or HEK293 cells (for KRAS). Both GTP- and GDP-bond HRAS behave like GDP-bond KRAS in their RAS effector interactions.

e. Western blot analysis of cultured HRAS-null HOP62 cells (HOP62-Cas9-sgHRAS) re-expressing wildtype or dimerization deficient mutations (T50M, Y64A, or R123C) under Dox treatment. Cells were cultured under limited serum (1%) for 2 days before protein extraction. Re-expression of dimerization deficient mutations have no effects on ERK phosphrylation.

f. Cell proliferation of cultured HRAS-null HOP62 cells (HOP62-Cas9-sgHRAS) re-expressing wildtype or dimerization deficient mutations (T50M, Y64A, or R123C) under Dox treatment. Cells werer cultured in limited serum (1%) with or without Dox for 4 days. Cell viability was measured via CCK8 assay and normalized to cells treated with vehicle. Re-expression of dimerization deficient mutations have no effects on cell proliferation.

Figure 6. Paired screen in KRAS-driven and Braf-driven lung cancer models validates Hras and Nras as Kras-specific tumor suppressors.
a-b. Schematic of pairwise screen of tumor suppressive function in Kras- and Braf-driven lung cancer. A pool of barcoded Lenti-sgRNA/Cre vectors targeting top mediators of Kras-driven lung tumor growth (Lenti-sgMultiGEMM/Cre) was used to initiate tumors in cohorts of *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *Braf^{LSL-V600E/+}T;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (*BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}*) mice. Each mediator of KRAS-driven tumor growth (*Hras, Nras, Nme2* and *Fnta*) was targeted by two sgRNAs (those with the largest effect size in the validation screen).The pool also included four Inert sgRNAs, as well as sgRNAs targeting *Apc*, *Cdkn2a*, and *Rbm10* as tumor suppressor controls (**a**). Tumors were initiated through intratracheal delivery of Lenti-sgMultiGEMM/Cre, and Tuba-seq was performed on each tumor-bearing lung 15 weeks after initiation, followed by analysis of sgID-BC sequencing data to characterize the effects of inactivating each gene (**b**).
c. Fluorescence images of representative lung lobes 15 weeks after tumor initiation. Scale bars = 5 mm. Lung lobes are outlined with a white dashed line.
d. Total lung weight in *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice 15 weeks after tumor initiation. Each dot is a mouse and mean value is indicated. **: p<0.01
e-f. Size distribution of sgInert tumors in *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice. In **e.**, each dot represents a tumor, and the area of each dot is proportional to the number of cancer cells in that tumor. To prevent overplotting a random sample of 1,000 tumors from each of five representative *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice are plotted. In **f.**, the empirical cumulative distribution function of tumor sizes across all *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* mice is plotted. Tumors >500 cells in size are shown.
g. Inactivation of *Hras* and *Nras* increases tumor size in *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* but not *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* models. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (left, white background) and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (right, gray background) mice. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are signficantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.
h.Comparison of the effects of inactivation of known tumor suppressors (*Rbm10*, *Apc*, and *Cdkn2a*) on tumor size in *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* models. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (left, white background) and *BrafT;H11^{LSL-Cas9}* (right, gray background) mice. Line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are signficantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.
i. Schematic of wildtype RAS paralogs function as tumor suppressors in oncogenic KRAS signaling. Left panel, in oncogenic KRAS-driven lung cancer cells, wildtype RAS paralogs competetively interact with oncogenic KRAS and suppress oncogenic KRAS clustering. Right panel, inactivation of wildtype RAS allele, or "RAS paralog imbalance", hyper-activated oncogenic KRAS signaling and promotes lung cancer growth.

Supplemental Figure 6. Additional data from paired screen of Kras-interacting modulators of tumor growth in Kras-driven and Braf-driven lung cancer models

a-c. Tumor sizes at indicated percentiles for each sgRNA relative to the size of sgInert-containing tumors at the corresponding percentiles in *KTC* (**a**), *BrafTC* (**b**) and *KT* mice (**c**). Genes are ordered by 95th percentile tumor size in *KTC* mice, with sgInerts on the left. sgInerts are in gray, and line at y=1 indicates no effect relative to sgInert. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Percentiles that are signficantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p < 0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor burden relative to sgInerts in *KTC* (top) and *BrafTC* (bottom) mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor burdens significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.

d. The impact of each sgRNA on tumor number relative to sgInerts in *KTC* (top) and *BrafTC* (bottom) mice, normalized to the corresponding statistic in *KT* mice to account for representation of each sgRNA in the viral pool. sgInerts are in gray and the line at y=1 indicates no effect. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. Relative tumor numbers significantly different from sgInert (two-sided FDR-adjusted p<0.05) are in color. Confidence intervals and P-values were calculated by bootstrap resampling.