CDK8/19 Inhibition Attenuates G1 Arrest Induced by BCR-ABL Antagonists and Accelerates Death of Chronic Myelogenous Leukemia Cells

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Abstract

Imatinib mesylate (IM) and other BCR-ABL tyrosine kinase inhibitors (BCR-ABLi)

are the mainstay of chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML) treatment. However, activation of

circumventing signaling pathways and quiescence may limit BCR-ABLi efficacy. CDK8/19

Mediator kinases have been implicated in the emergence of non-genetic drug resistance.

Dissecting the effects of pharmacological CDK8/19 inhibition on CML survival in response

to BCR-ABLi, we found that a selective, non-toxic CDK8/19 inhibitor (CDK8/19i) Senexin

B (SenB) and other CDK8/19i sensitized K562 cells to different BCR-ABLi via attenuation

of cell cycle arrest. In particular, SenB prevented IM-induced upregulation of genes that

negatively regulate cell cycle progression. SenB also antagonized IM-activated $p27^{Kip1}$

elevation thereby diminishing the population of G1-arrested cells. After transient G1 arrest,

cells treated with IM+SenB re-entered the S phase, where they were halted and underwent

replicative stress. Consequently, the combination of IM and SenB intensified apoptotic cell

death, measured by activation of caspase 9 and 3, subsequent cleavage of

poly(ADPriboso)polymerase 1, positive Annexin V staining and increase of subG1 fraction.

In contrast, IM-treated BCR-ABL-positive KU812 CML cells, which did not induce $p27^{Kip1}$,

readily died regardless of SenB treatment. Thus, CDK8/19i prevent the quiescence-mediated

escape from BCR-ABLi-induced apoptosis, suggesting a strategy for avoiding the CML

relapse.

Key words

CDK8/19; BCR-ABL; imatinib; chronic myelogenous leukemia; cell death.

List of abbreviations

BCR-ABLi, BCR-ABL inhibitor(s);

CDK, cyclin-dependent kinase;

CDK8/19i, CDK8/19 inhibitor(s);

CKI, cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor;

CML, chronic myelogenous leukemia;

Das, dasatinib;

DEG(s), differentially expressed gene(s);

Dox, doxycycline;

FC, fold change;

FDR, false discovery rate;

IM, imatinib mesylate;

LSC, leukemia stem cells;

Nilo, nilotinib;

PARP, poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase;

RS, replication stress;

SenB, Senexin B.

Introduction

The main genetic marker of chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML) is the Philadelphia chromosome generated by translocation t(9;22)(q34;q11). This translocation yields the oncogenic BCR-ABL fusion protein (1,2). The BCR-ABL chimeric tyrosine kinase activates a number of downstream pathways that drive the pathogenesis of CML as well as other tumor types including a subset of acute lymphoblastic leukemia, acute myelogenous leukemia, and mixed-phenotype acute leukemias (3,4).

Introduction of the tyrosine kinase inhibitor imatinib mesylate (IM, Gleevec) has drastically improved CML treatment outcomes (5). However, a significant proportion of patients eventually develop resistance to BCR-ABL inhibitors (BCR-ABLi). Such resistance was attributed to mutations that alter the drug-target interaction and/or to the involvement of BCR-ABL-independent signaling pathways (6). Second generation BCR-ABLi such as nilotinib, dasatinib and bosutinib, are used in the treatment of CML patients with certain mutations in the *ABL* gene, but can be inefficient in cells carrying the gatekeeper T315I mutation (7). While the third generation BCR-ABLi ponatinib, asciminib and PF-114 (vamotinib) are effective against specific *BCR□ABL* mutants including T315I, these drugs are limited in their ability to circumvent BCR-ABL-independent drug resistance (8).

BCR-ABL-independent resistance is mediated by signaling pathways that involve STAT3 (9,10), MAPK/ERK (11), β-catenin (12), as well as activation of autophagy (13). Dormant leukemia stem cells (LSC) capable of prolonged persistence as IM resistant cells (14) are especially refractory to BCR-ABLi. In CML, quiescence of LSCs is a mechanism that can prevent or delay the achievement of full clinical remission (15,16). Moreover, quiescent CML cells may re-enter the cell cycle, leading to a relapse after BCR-ABL targeted therapy (17). Cell cycle arrest and quiescence are regulated by cyclin dependent kinase

inhibitor (CKI) proteins of CIP/KIP (p27^{Kip1}, p57^{Kip2}, and p21^{Cip1}) and INK4 (p18^{INC4c} and

others) families (18,19). BCR-ABL abrogates the p27^{Kip1} function (20–23), and inhibition of

BCR-ABL by IM induces p57^{Kip2} followed by overexpression and stabilization of p27^{Kip1}

(24). These data indicate that CML resistance to BCR-ABLi associated with cell cycle

perturbations can be regulated by transcription and epigenetic regulation of CKI. Indeed,

pharmacological intervention into the mechanisms of epigenetic modulation has been shown

to be beneficial for the exit from quiescence, therefore increasing tumor cell death (25).

The cyclin dependent kinase 8 (CDK8) or its paralog CDK19, together with cyclin C,

MED12, and MED13, form a kinase module associated with the multiprotein Mediator

complex (26). This module regulates gene expression both positively and negatively by

tuning the transcriptional machinery via the Mediator and transcription factor function at

enhancers and promoters (27–29). The CDK8/19 module acts as a cofactor or modifier of

different cancer-relevant transcription factors and coordinates the response to exogenous

stimuli by reprogramming gene expression for optimal cell adaptation (reviewed in (28)).

While CDK8/19 potentiate the induction of transcription by several signals, these kinases

also inhibit Mediator-dependent transcription of super-enhancer associated genes which

underlies their role in a subset of leukemias (30). CDK8/19 can modulate the transcription

factors β-catenin (31), STAT1/3/5a (32,33), c-Myc (34), SMAD1/3 (35), NF-κB (36), and

others. Importantly, CDK8 depletion does not affect the viability of adult cells or organisms

(37,38), making these enzymes attractive drug targets.

The role of CDK8/19 in non-genetically acquired antitumor drug resistance has been

demonstrated by the ability of selective small-molecule CDK8/19 inhibitors (CDK8/19i) to

sensitize tumor cells or to prevent the emergence of resistance to chemotherapeutics

including inhibitors of EGFR, HER2 and MEK (39–42). Furthermore, CDK8/19i potentiated

growth inhibitory effects of the estrogen antagonist fulvestrant in breast cancer cells (43),

reversed castration resistance of advanced prostate cancers (44), stimulated tumor

surveillance by NK cells (45) and enhanced the antitumor effects of CAR-T cells (46). Thus,

CDK8/19i are considered as antitumor drug candidates in combination regimens (reviewed in

(47)). Several CDK8/19i have reached clinical trials in patients with solid tumors and

leukemias (clinicaltrials.gov NCT03065010, NCT04021368, NCT05052255,

NCT05300438).

An emerging role of CDK8/19 relates to S phase control in response to DNA

replication defects defined as replication stress (RS). CDK8/19 module deficiency was

reported to promote a premature entry into the S phase (48) and R-loop formation (49).

However, another group reported that the depletion of cyclin C or CDK8 decreased the

collisions between the transcription and replication machineries caused by inhibitors of RS

response (50). Activities of CDK8/19 in RS response might be context-dependent, an implicit

feature of these kinases (36).

In the present study, we discovered the ability of CDK8/19i to sensitize CML cells to

BCR-ABLi via prevention of BCR-ABLi-induced cell cycle arrest. Cells treated with the

combination of CDK8/19i and BCR-ABLi enter replication, leading to an increase of RS

markers and accelerating the onset and the rate of apoptosis. These results suggest that

inhibition of CDK8/19 may prevent quiescence-mediated resistance to BCR-ABLi.

Materials and Methods

Reagents

All reagents were from Sigma-Aldrich, Burlington, MA unless specified otherwise. IM (Gleevec®) was purchased from Novartis, Basel, Switzerland. Dasatinib and nilotinib were from Selleck Chemicals, Houston, TX. PF-114 (51), recently named vamotinib, was a gift of Dr. G. Chilov (Valenta Pharm, Moscow). CDK8/19i Senexin B (SenB) and SNX631 were from Senex Biotechnology, Columbia, SC. Drugs were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) as 10 mM stock solution and stored at -20°C. Dilutions in the culture medium were prepared immediately before experiments.

Cell lines and culture conditions

Human CML cell lines K562 (Russian Collection of Cell Cultures, Saint-Petersburg, Russia) and KU812 (CRL-2099-ATCC, Manassas, VA) were propagated in RPMI-1640 (PanEco, Moscow, Russia) with 10% fetal bovine serum (Biosera, Cholet, France), 2 mM *L*-glutamine, 100 U/mL penicillin and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (PanEco) at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in humidified atmosphere. Cells (2×10^5 cells/mL) in the logarithmic phase of growth were plated into 60 mm Petri dishes (SPL, Korea) and treated with CDK8/19i or BCR-ABLi alone (concentrations and time of exposure are indicated in respective experiments) or with the combination of the two agents (CDK8/19i added 1 h apart from BCR-ABLi). Control wells contained 0.02% DMSO (vehicle).

Flow cytometry

Cell cycle distribution was analyzed as described (52). After the completion of treatments cells were washed with cold saline, pelleted and lysed in a buffer containing 50

μg/mL propidium iodide (PI), 100 μg/mL RNAse A, 0.1% sodium citrate, 0.3% NP-40

(VWR Life Science, Radnor, PA) for 30 min in the dark. Apoptosis was analyzed with

Apoptotic, Necrotic & Healthy Cells Quantitation Kit Plus (Biotium, Fremont, CA) in

accordance with the manufacturer's recommendations. The MitoTracker® Red CMXRos

(Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) was used to evaluate the mitochondrial membrane potential.

Briefly, cells were stained with 500 nM MitoTracker solution in the medium for 40 min at

37□, 5% CO_2 in the dark, washed with warm medium and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Live/dead cells were determined by PI Nucleic Acid Stain (Thermo FS, Waltham, MA).

Survival fraction was calculated as the percentage of PI negative cells after normalizing to the

total cell count. To assess proliferation, cells were labeled with 10 μM 5-ethynyl-2'-

deoxyuridine (EdU) for 2 h and analyzed using ClickTech EdU Cell Proliferation Kit 488

(Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) according to the manufacturer's recommendations.

Fluorescence was measured on a Cytoflex flow cytometer 26 (Beckman Coulter,

Indianapolis, IN) in FITC, APC, PE-A and PerCP-A channels. At least 10,000 events were

collected per each sample. Data were analyzed using CytExpert Software (Beckman Coulter).

RNA sequencing (RNASeq)

Preparation of cDNA libraries

K562 cells (2×10^5 cells/mL) were treated with the vehicle (0.02% DMSO), 1 μM

SenB, 1 μM IM or their combination (two replicates per each treatment) for 8 h. The vehicle

and SenB were added 1 h prior to TKI. Total RNA was extracted with TRI reagent. 4 μg

RNA was used to isolate poly(A)-enriched RNA with NEBNext® Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic

Isolation Module (NE Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) that was used to prepare RNASeq libraries with

NEBNext® Ultra™ II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NE Biolabs).

Actinomycin D (100 ng/mL) was used for first strand cDNA synthesis; cDNA libraries

ligated with the Illumina suitable adaptor sequences were generated and amplified with Q5

DNA polymerase (NE Biolabs). After purification from dimers by size selection in the

agarose gel the libraries were sequenced on a NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina, San Diego, CA).

Analysis of RNASeq data

Table S1 lists the references to the software and algorithms mentioned below. Quality

of short reads was checked using the FastQC software. Reads were trimmed (i.e., sequencing

adaptors removed) using cutadapt, reads with a Phred quality score < 20 and read

length < 30 bp were removed using the sickle. Mapping of trimmed reads to human

genome assembly GRCh37 (hg19) and calculation of per-gene read counts were performed

using STAR.

Statistical analysis was conducted using the edgeR package. Only genes with counts

greater than one per million (cpm>1) in both samples were included. Read counts were

normalized using the trimmed mean of values method implemented in edgeR to account for

differences in the library size. General linear models and the likelihood ratio test were used to

identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs). The Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate

(FDR) correction was applied to the test results (alpha=0.05).

Over-representation analysis (ORA) using both Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment

analysis of DEGs and Reactome Pathways Database were conducted using the WebGestaltR

package. The gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) for different comparisons was conducted

using the fgsea package with the specific gene sets downloaded from the Human Molecular

Signatures Database (MsigDB). The ggplot2 and clusterProfiler R libraries were used for data

visualization.

All raw RNASeq data have been uploaded to Sequence Read Archive (SRA,

SUB13787508) and BioProject (PRJNA1008677). Detailed information about RNASeq

samples is listed in Table S2.

Lentiviral transduction

To obtain pCW-p27 lentiviral plasmid carrying *CDKN1B*/p27^{Kip1} open reading frame

(ORF; RefSeq NM_004064.5), total RNA was isolated from IM-treated K562 cells. Primers

CDKN1B-for 5'-attagctagcATGTCAAACGTGCGAGTGTCTAA-3' and CDKN1B-rev 5'-

taatggatccTTACGTTTGACGTCTTCTGAGGC-3' (Evrogen, Moscow, Russia) containing

NheI and BamHI restriction sites were used for amplification of the complementary DNA.

The ORF was then cloned into the pCW vector replacing Cas9 in the pCW-Cas9 plasmid

(https://www.addgene.org/50661/). The K562p27tet-on subline with doxycycline inducible

CDKN1B/p27^{Kip1} overexpression was obtained by lentiviral transduction. The virus was

concentrated by ultracentrifugation (120 000 g) for 2 h at 4°C. Polybrene (20 µg/mL) was

added, and the supernatant was mixed with K562 cells in the fresh medium (1:1 v/v).

Selection was performed with 2 µg/mL puromycin. The exogenous p27^{Kip1} was induced by 1

µg/mL doxycycline.

Immunoblotting

K562 and KU812 cells (2×10^5 cells/mL) were treated with 0.02% DMSO or drugs,

harvested and lysed for 30 min on ice in a buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 150

mM NaCl, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 1% NP-40, 2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride

(VWR Life Science) and the protease inhibitor cocktail. Protein concentrations were

determined by the Bradford method. Lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE (30-50 µg total

protein per lane) and transferred onto a 0.2 µm nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad, Hercules,

CA). Membranes were blocked with 5% skimmed milk for 30 min and treated with primary

antibodies (listed in Table S3) diluted in Tris-borate saline/Tween 20 (TBST)/1% bovine

serum albumin (PanEco) overnight at 4°C. Then membranes were washed with TBST and

incubated with a secondary antibody conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (Table S3) for 1

h at room temperature. Proteins were visualized with the Clarity Western ECL Substrate

(Bio-Rad) using the iBright FL1500 Imaging System (Invitrogen).

Statistical analysis

Data are representative of at least three independent experiments. One-way or two-

way analyses of variance (ANOVA) followed by Sidak's post hoc test for multiple

comparisons were used (GraphPad Prism 9; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). The P

value <0.05 was taken as evidence of statistical significance.

Results

Senexin B increases IM-induced apoptosis in K562 cells

We tested whether a selective CDK8/19i SenB (43,53) affects CML cell viability in

response to BCR-ABLi IM. Hereafter, cells were pre-treated with 1 μM SenB for 1 h

followed by the addition of BCR-ABLi. Figure 1A, *left* shows that SenB sensitized K562

cells to IM. By 72 h of exposure the percentage of viable cells was larger in the IM-treated

cohort than in the combination. The portion of propidium iodide (PI) positive (late apoptosis)

cells greatly increased from 15.0±0.3% (IM alone) to 54.0±0.6% in the combination of IM

and SenB (Figure 1A, *right*; p<0.0001). The time course showed that, already by 24 h, 1 μM

SenB strongly increased the percentage of subG1 events (cells with fragmented DNA) after

treatment with low concentrations of IM (Figure 1B, *left*; compare 11.6±2.2% in cells treated

with 0.25 μM IM *vs* 24.6±1.4% after 0.25 μM IM and 1 μM SenB (p<0.0001)). Because the

maximum difference between IM alone and IM+SenB was detected by 24 h, this time point

was used in the next experiments. Potentiation of apoptosis was observed even with

submicromolar concentrations of SenB (Figure 1B, *right*). SenB alone did not increase the

percentage of Annexin V-positive cells but cooperates with IM in elevating this fraction

(Figures 1C, *left*, S1). In contrast to K562 cells, the BCR-ABL positive KU812 CML cell line

was intrinsically hypersensitive to IM; SenB had no significant effect on the already very

high apoptotic fraction in cells treated with IM alone (Figures 1C, *right*, S1).

Next, we found that the combined inhibition of CDK8/19 and BCR-ABL increased

the proteolytic cleavage of poly(ADPriboso)polymerase 1 (PARP1) in K562 cells (Figure

1D). Furthermore, the time course of cell death markers (Figure 1E) showed that PARP1

cleavage was more readily inducible by the combination of IM and SenB than by IM only.

Finally, SenB significantly increased IM-induced decrease of the mitochondrial membrane

potential (MMP) already by 16 h (Figure 1F), further indicating that SenB accelerated the

onset and the rate of IM-induced apoptosis in K562 cells.

SenB potentiated cell death induced not only by IM but also by BCR-ABLi of

different chemical classes such as nilotinib, dasatinib, PF-114/vamotinib (Figures 2A-B).

Additionally, the interaction with IM was observed for a chemically unrelated CDK8/19i

SNX631 (41,54), suggesting that the sensitization is a general effect of CDK8/19 inhibition

(Figures 2C-D).

The S727 site of STAT transcription factors is a known target of CDK8 that regulates

STAT-mediated transcription (32,33,55). SenB or IM alone had no major effect on the

amount of total STAT1 or pSTAT1 S727 in K562 cells, but both pSTAT1 S727 and total

STAT1 were strongly decreased by the combination of IM and SenB (Figure 2E). Combined

treatment with SenB and IM also reduced STAT3 S727 phosphorylation but not total STAT3.

IM and SenB affect the expression of cell cycle related genes

RNASeq revealed changes in gene expression patterns after 8 h treatment with SenB

or IM alone or in combination. We therefore analyzed the transcripts before the activation of

cell death machinery to avoid apoptotic mRNA degradation. Comparisons between the

effects of different treatments are shown in the volcano plots in Figures S2-S5. DEGs are

listed in Tables S4-S5. IM induced downregulation of 2 100 genes and upregulation of 1 756

genes, whereas SenB downregulated 679 genes and upregulated 1 017 genes (Figures S2,

S3). The combination of SenB and IM induced downregulation of 2 394 genes and

upregulation of 2 073 genes (Figure S4). The addition of SenB changed the expression of 1

185 (downregulation) and 1 492 mRNAs (upregulation) compared to IM alone (Figure S5).

Among the most affected genes (FC (fold change) > 1.5, FDR < 0.01) that significantly

changed in response to IM, 6.1% (163 genes) were differentially expressed in IM *vs*

IM+SenB groups (Figure 3A). Interestingly, among the genes most strongly affected by IM,

SenB most often enhanced their upregulation but counteracted their downregulation (Figure

3B). GSEA and ORA (Table S1) showed that many of the genes downregulated by IM were

related to cell proliferation and interferon/STAT signaling (Figures 3C), coding for pro-

proliferative proteins and cell cycle inhibitors. The addition of SenB evoked no major

changes in the overall effects of IM on the hallmark pathways (Figure 3C), but many genes

differentially affected by IM+SenB *vs* IM alone were associated with cell proliferation

(Figure 3D, S6). Notably, 17.1% of all DEGs downregulated by the combination *vs* IM alone

were genes related to negative regulation of cell cycle (according to GO terms, Table S6),

while only 2.9% of genes related to cell cycle regulation were upregulated (Table S7). The

top five cell cycle genes upregulated by IM (*VASH1*, *PCBP4*, *GPNMB*, *INHA* and *BTN2A2*)

were all related to negative regulation (i.e., arrest) of the cell cycle, and were downregulated

in IM+SenB treated cells (Figure S7). Therefore, a major effect of SenB in the combination

was an attenuation of IM-induced negative cell cycle regulation.

CDK8/19 inhibition abrogates IM-induced G1 arrest and elevates the markers of

replication stress

According to the results of RNASeq analysis, the cell proliferation driver c-Myc was

downregulated by IM, but upregulated by SenB; *MYC* expression in cells treated with IM +

SenB remained the same as in untreated control (Figure 4A, *left*). In contrast, the cell cycle

inhibitor *CDKN1B* (p27^{Kip1}) was strongly upregulated by IM and downregulated by SenB,

and the IM+SenB combination did not change *CDKN1B* expression (Figure 4A, *right*).

p27^{Kip1}, a major regulator of G1 checkpoint, is known to be involved in the response to IM

(56,57). Figure 4B shows that IM treatment increased p27^{Kip1} protein in K562 cells in a dose-

dependent manner whereas SenB strongly suppressed this effect. IM also upregulated two

other CDK inhibitors, p57^{Kip2} and p18^{INC4c}; the increase in p57^{Kip2} and p18^{INC4c} was barely

sensitive to SenB (Figure 4C). Similarly, SenB only slightly reduced the effect of IM on the

c-Myc protein (Figure 4C, *left*), similarly to the changes of c-Myc dependent transcripts

(Figure 3C).

Given that IM potently upregulated p27^{Kip1} whereas SenB counteracted this effect, it

is plausible that SenB-mediated prevention of p27^{Kip1} elevation by IM could contribute to the

pro-apoptotic efficacy of the combination. In agreement with this hypothesis, a very different

pattern was observed in IM-hypersensitive KU812 cells: p27^{Kip1}, p18^{INC4c} and c-Myc were

not induced by IM; instead, disappearance of c-Myc and p21^{Cip1} was detectable already by 7

h with IM; these effects were insensitive to SenB (Figure 4C, *right*).

To investigate whether p27^{Kip1} can mediate the sensitization of K562 cells to IM by

SenB, we generated an inducible K562p27^{tet-on} derivative in which the exogenous *CDKN1B*

is expressed under the control of doxycycline-inducible promoter. Before the addition of

doxycycline, the percentage of K562p27^{tet-on} cells in G1 phase was 35.3±1.6%; by 24 h of

doxycycline treatment, this value increased up to 64.8±0.7%, p<0.0001. SenB attenuated

p27^{Kip1}-induced G1 arrest in a dose dependent manner (Figure S8); 1 µM SenB decreased the

G1 fraction to 52.4±2.2%. IM+doxycycline further elevated the G1 fraction, whereas SenB

abrogated this increase (Figure 5A, *left*). This effect of SenB was paralleled by the increase of

subG1 events (Figure 5A, *right*) and the fractions of cycling cells (S and G2/M phases)

(Figure S9). As shown in Figure 5B, doxycycline-induced p27^{Kip1} partially prevented IM-

induced apoptosis in K562p27^{tet-on} cells: 17.3±2.7% subG1 events in the 'no doxycycline'

group *vs* 11.6±0.4% in the 'doxycycline' cohort, p<0.01. In contrast, the addition of SenB

increased the percentage of the subG1 events to 26.4±3.4%, thereby overcoming the

protective effect of p27^{Kip1} induction. SenB also partially decreased p27^{Kip1} levels with and

without doxycycline (Figure 5C). Nevertheless, SenB did not fully abrogate the protective

effect of p27^{Kip1} which can point to an alternative explanation that p27^{Kip1} is downregulated

in cells entering replication. Hence, CDK8/19i acts through decreasing G1 arrest by

alternative mechanisms.

Next, we investigated the fate of cells that remained cycling upon treatment with IM

or IM+SenB combination. As shown in Figure 6A (*top left*), by 10 h of treatment, K562 cells

treated with IM also underwent G1 arrest similarly to IM+SenB treated counterparts.

However, while G1 arrest by IM alone was maintained for the entire 32 h period of

observation, this arrest was transient in cells treated with IM+SenB, and subsequently a

portion of cells re-entered the cycle. The cell cycle re-entry in combination-treated cells was

paralleled by an increased apoptosis rate than in cells treated with IM alone (Figure 6A,

bottom left). In contrast to K562 cells, the highly IM sensitive KU812 cells did not undergo

G1 arrest in response to IM (Figure 6A, *top right*) and readily died regardless of SenB

treatment (Figure 6A, *bottom right*).

We used EdU labeling of replicating cells to test whether K562 cells treated with IM

or IM+SenB died after entering the S phase after G1 arrest or directly in G1. The fraction of

EdU-positive cells was determined every 2 h over 12 h, starting at the 12 h point after the

addition of drugs. As shown in Figure 6B, *left*, EdU-positive fraction increased in cells

treated with IM+SenB relative to IM-treated cells at 14-20 h. After 20 h the amounts of EdU

were similar in IM and IM+SenB groups, but the percentage of EdU-negative cells identified

as arrested in the S phase by DNA ploidy (DAPI staining) was increased by the combination

(Figure 6B, *right*). The arrest in the S phase coincided with an increased apoptosis induced by

IM+SenB treatment (Figure 6A).

These results suggested that cells treated with IM+SenB could not undergo IM-

induced cell cycle arrest and entered the S phase, apparently causing RS that contributed to S

phase arrest and cell death. To investigate this hypothesis, we measured RS markers in IM- *vs*

IM+SenB-treated K562 cells at 12 h (the beginning of cell cycle arrest) and 24 h (the time

point with the increased S phase arrest and apoptosis). Figure 6C shows the increase of

phosphorylated RPA32, a RS marker which binds single-strand DNA (ssDNA) and is

hyperphosphorylated upon DNA damage or replication stress (58). Elevation of pRPA32

coincided with increased S345 phosphorylation of Chk1, a key kinase in the DNA damage

response activated by ssDNA damage and stalling of replication forks. Interestingly, the

DNA repair proteins BRCA1 and Rad51, which are recruited to ssDNA sites, were

downregulated by IM and further downregulated by IM+SenB at 24 h, indicating inhibition

of DNA repair by these treatments (Figure 6C).

Discussion

Treatment of CML with IM remains one of the most efficient anticancer therapies to

date. Despite its success, patients receiving BCR-ABLi must continue treatment to avoid

relapse, due to persistence of resistant quiescent LSC (59). While BCR-ABL mutants are

successfully treated with new generations of target inhibitors, non-mutational resistance, and

in particular quiescence-driven resistance remains a challenge (60).

The Mediator kinases CDK8/19 regulate effects of a variety of exogenous stimuli.

CDK8/19i have been established as anticancer drugs, active either alone or in combination

with different therapies. In the present article, we demonstrated that CDK8/19i SenB and

SNX631 sensitized K562 CML cells to various BCR-ABLi (Figures 2A-D). The most

significant effect of this sensitization was the increase in the rate of apoptosis (Figure 1). It

was previously reported that CDK8 is downregulated by dasatinib but not by IM, and that

siRNA knockdown of *CDK8* sensitizes K562 cells to IM but not to dasatinib (61). In the

present study, we observed no changes of CDK8 levels by 24 h treatment with IM (Figure

S10), and we found that CDK8/19i sensitized K562 to all BCR-ABL antagonists including

dasatinib (Figure 2). A likely cause for the different results obtained with *CDK8* siRNA and

CDK8/19i is that the latter also inhibits CDK19, which exerts the same effects as CDK8 (29).

IM inflicted global changes in gene expression affecting several pathways, especially

those controlling cell proliferation and interferon/STAT signaling (Figure 3C). While the

combination had no dramatic effect on pathways most sensitive to IM alone (Figure 3C), the

addition of CDK8/19i markedly shifted the effects of IM on gene expression, counteracting

the downregulation but enhancing the upregulation of gene expression caused by the BCR-

ABLi (Figures 3A-B). These results resemble the effects of CDK8/19i on castration-induced

changes in gene expression in prostate cancers (44), reflecting both the positive and the

negative effects of CDK8/19 on transcription (29).

Activation of pro-survival pathways contributes to tumor cell persistence.

Importantly, in at least 25% of cases and up to 60% of resistance to BCR-ABLi stems from

mechanisms independent of the structure of the *BCR-ABL* indicating BCR-ABL-independent

mechanisms (60). The major pro-survival pathways activated in response to BCR-ABL

inhibition are STAT3 and STAT1 (62). In turn, inhibition of these pathways can increase the

potency of BCR-ABLi. We found that the combination of SenB and IM reduced the amounts

of total STAT1 and S727-phosphorylated STAT1 and STAT3 (Figures 2B,D,E).

JAK2/STAT3 is a major contributor to BCR-ABLi resistance, activated by autocrine

signaling (10) and bone marrow-secreted cytokines(9). BCR-ABL dependent STAT3 S727

phosphorylation that augments STAT3 transcriptional activity contributes to resistance to

BCR-ABLi (63). STAT3 inhibition can overcome resistance to BCR-ABLi and induce

synthetic lethality in STAT3-dependent CML including LSCs (64). The effect on STAT3

phosphorylation could serve as one of the mechanisms of the combinatorial effect of BCR-

ABLi and CDK8/19i.

However, the most dramatic effect of the addition of CDK8/19i to BCR-ABLi

revealed in this study was the effect on the induction of quiescence. From the onset of the

TKI era in CML treatment, it became clear that non-dividing cells are much less sensitive to

these drugs than the proliferating counterparts. Subpopulations of quiescent LSCs survived

the exposure to BCR-ABLi resulting in disease relapse (65). IM induced apoptosis primarily

in S and G2/M phases (66), therefore investigational strategies focused on eliminating

quiescent cells or inhibitor-induced G1 cell cycle arrest. Altered response of CML cells to IM

via quiescence has been reported (15,65). Quiescence has been implicated in the delay of full

clinical remission (15,16) and in the disease relapse (17).

Our major mechanistic finding is the identification of IM-induced G1 cell cycle arrest

as a critical factor in CML cell sensitization by CDK8/19i. IM treatment of K562 cells led to

G1 accumulation (Figure 6A, *top left*) and elevation of CKIs $p27^{Kip1}$ and $p18^{INK4c}$ (Figures

4B-C). Of note, $p27^{Kip1}$ and $p57^{Kip2}$ were inducible within the initial hours of treatment with

IM (24). Furthermore, CKIs have been mechanistically related to LSC persistence (19,67).

Strikingly, combining IM with a CDK8/19i released the cells from G1 arrest, prevented

$p27^{Kip1}$ accumulation (Figures 4A, *right*, 4B, 4C, *left,* 5C) and enhanced the pro-proliferation

driver c-Myc mRNA and protein levels (Figures 4A, *left* and 4C, *left*) and c-Myc-dependent

transcripts (Figure 3C). This observation was supported by the results that the inducible

$p27^{Kip1}$ expression in K562 cells increased the G1 fraction and attenuated IM-induced

apoptosis. Although both effects were reversible by combining IM with SenB (Figure 5),

protection from $p27^{Kip1}$ induction was not completely abrogated by CDK8/19i. This points to

an alternative explanation – that downregulation of p27^{Kip1} is correlated with an increase of

replication rate and could be the consequence of cells entering replication, rather than its

cause, suggesting that CDK8/19i counteracts cell cycle arrest through alternative

mechanisms. The addition of SenB to IM elevated the fraction of cells entering replication

(Figure 6B, *left*, S9), but the ensuing replication was halted and RS markers such as

pRPA32/RPA2 and pChk1 were induced, concurrently with the onset of apoptosis.

RS in BCR-ABL-positive cells is increased without treatment (68) and contributes to

IM resistance (69). On the other hand, CML cells appear to be sensitive to the combination of

IM and DNA damaging treatments such as inhibition of NEDD8 activating enzyme (NAE1)

(70) and Rad51 (71). Similarly to our combinations, NAE1 inhibition increased the fraction

of EdU-negative cells in S phase, and the inhibitors of NAE1 and Rad51 in combinations

with IM significantly increased apoptosis. Also, RS in response to hydroxyurea sensitized

CML cells to IM (72). Interestingly, we found that DNA repair proteins Rad51 and active

(phosphorylated) BRCA1 were downregulated by the combination of IM+SenB (Figure 6C).

Supporting the role of cell cycle regulation in the sensitivity to IM and the

sensitization by CDK8/19i, IM influenced neither cell cycle progression nor CKI and c-Myc

protein expression (Figures 4C, *right*, 6A, *right*) in BCR-ABL-positive KU812 cells. Rather,

these cells readily underwent IM-induced death in a CDK8/19-independent manner.

Similarly to our results, Nakamura et al. demonstrated that CDK8/19i-induced

premature G1-S transition can promote DNA damage and RS (48). On the other hand, Xu et

al. reported that CDK8 acted as a negative regulator of p27^{Kip1} stability but did not affect its

mRNA level in breast cancer cells (73). Results that we obtained in CML cells differ from

these observations, suggesting that the effect of CDK8 on p27^{Kip1} is cell type-specific.

Altogether, we demonstrated that pharmacological inhibition of CDK8/19 promotes

apoptosis in CML cells treated with BCR-ABLi by attenuating BCR-ABLi-induced cell cycle

arrest thereby preventing the escape from apoptosis (Figure 6D). The mechanism of such

sensitization demonstrates an example of a general principle, where increase in the rate of

cell proliferation by CDK8/19i in combination with BCR-ABLi elicits a pro-apoptotic

response through inhibition of pro-survival properties of quiescence (58). Our results support

the perspective of combining the inhibitors of BCR-ABL and CDK8/19 for the treatment of

CML.

Author Contributions

A.I.K., M.Y., and V.T. conceived and conducted the study, performed the majority of

experiments, analyzed data, prepared figures and graphs, and wrote the original draft. A.B.

and M.Z. obtained the K562p27$^{\text{tet-on}}$ subline. C-U.L. and J.N. performed additional flow

cytometry experiments. N.V. prepared cDNA libraries for RNASeq, A.M.K., E.V., A.T., and

J.L. analyzed RNASeq data. E.I. and Y.A. performed additional immunoblotting

experiments. I.R., E.B., M.C., and A.S. discussed the project, reviewed and edited the

manuscript. The text was read and approved by all authors.

Conflict of Interest

I.R. is Founder and President, M.C. is an employee, and E.B. is a consultant of Senex

Biotechnology, Inc. Other authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Legends

Figure 1. SenB cooperates with IM in inducing apoptosis in K562 cells.

Cells were treated with SenB, IM (1 µM each) or their combination (I+S) for indicated time

intervals. Flow cytometry assisted analysis showed **(A)** a decreased total cell number in I+S

combination and a significant increase in PI+ cells compared to IM alone; **(B)** dependence of

subG1 fraction on concentrations of SenB and IM; **(C)** increase of Annexin V-positive cells

in I+S *vs* IM cohort in K562 cells (*left)* but not in KU812 cells (*right).* Immunoblotting

demonstrates **(D)** increased cleavage of PARP1, caspases 9 and -3 (apoptotic markers) in I+S

vs IM alone. B-actin, a loading control; **(E)** a faster onset of PARP1 cleavage in I+S

combination *vs* IM alone. Histone 3, a loading control. **(F)** Time course of MMP changes

determined by flow cytometry. Statistical analysis was performed using a two-way ANOVA.

***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$. Values are mean±SD, n=3.

Figure 2. Combinations of CDK8/19i and BCR-ABLi cooperatively induce apoptosis

and inhibit phosphorylated STAT1 and STAT3 S727 in K562 cells.

K562 cells were treated with CDK8/19i and/or BCR-ABLi for 24 h. **(A)** Cell cycle

distribution/PI staining followed by flow cytometry. Shown are the percentages of subG1

events in untreated cells (control) and cells treated with 1 µM IM, 1 nM dasatinib (das), 50

nM nilotinib (nilo) or 10 nM PF-114 alone or with 1 µM SenB. Note an increased subG1

fraction in combinations of all BCR-ABLi and SenB. **(B)** Immunoblotting showed that IM,

das, nilo and PF-114, each in combination with SenB, inhibited STAT1 S727

phosphorylation and induced the cleavage of PARP1, caspases 9 and -3. SenB and SNX631

(S631) in combination with IM elevated **(C)** subG1 proportion and **(D)** apoptotic markers **(E)**

SenB together with IM (I+S) decrease the amounts of pSTAT1 S727, STAT1 and pSTAT3

S727. GAPDH and β-actin are loading controls. Statistical analysis was performed using one-

way ANOVA. **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. Values are mean±SD, n=3.

Figure 3. RNASeq analysis identifies the genes associated with the cell cycle.

The K562 cells were treated for 8 h with SenB, IM (1 µM each) and their combination. (**A**) A

dot plot comparing the effects of IM *vs* untreated control and IM+SenB *vs* IM on the

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) affected by IM (FC (fold change) > 1.5, FDR (false

discovery rate) < 0.01) shows both SenB-sensitive (red dots) and -insensitive genes (blue

dots). 6.1% (163 genes) were differentially expressed in IM and IM+SenB groups. (**B**) The

heatmap of the effects of different treatments on the genes most strongly upregulated or

downregulated by IM demonstrates predominant upregulation of IM-induced genes and

downregulation of IM-inhibited genes by the addition of SenB. (**C**) Analysis of hallmark

pathways (GSEA). Combined treatment upregulated the majority of pathways compared to

IM alone but did not prevent the IM-induced changes in the majority of pathways. (**D**)

Netplot of genes downregulated in IM+SenB cohort *vs* IM alone. IM+SenB downregulates

cell cycle related genes (17.1 % of all DEG downregulated by the combination *vs* IM alone).

Figure 4. Combinations of IM and SenB affect cell cycle genes and proteins in K562
cells but not in KU812 counterparts.

K562 and KU812 cells were treated as indicated. Transcripts were analyzed by RNASeq, and

proteins by immunoblotting. (**A**) Cell proliferation and cell cycle markers analyzed by

RNASeq. SenB in combination with IM counteracts *MYC* and *CDKN1B* (p27^{Kip1})

upregulation by IM. The abundance of *MYC* and *CDKN1B* mRNAs is shown as normalized

counts per million (CPM) reads. False discovery rate (FDR) < 0.001. (**B**) SenB prevents IM-

induced p27^{Kip1} accumulation. (**C**) Immunoblotting of c-Myc, p57^{Kip2}, p18^{INC4c} in K562 (*left*)

and c-Myc, p27^{Kip1}, p21^{Cip1}, p18^{INC4c} in KU812 (*right*) at the indicated time points. IM

induces accumulation of CKIs and downregulation of c-Myc in K562 cells, SenB in

combination with IM (I+S) partially reverses this effect, but not in KU812 cells. β-actin is a

loading control.

Figure 5. SenB counteracts the effects of the exogenous *CDKN1B* (p27^{Kip1}) on cell cycle

and IM survival.

(A) K562p27^{tet-on} subline was treated with 1 µg/mL doxycycline (dox) and 1 µM IM for 24 h

in the absence or presence of indicated concentrations of SenB followed by flow cytometry.

SenB in a dose-dependent manner increases IM-induced apoptosis (subG1; *right*) and reduces

G1 arrest *(left)*. **(B)** K562p27^{tet-on} cells were treated with IM, SenB (1 µM each) or their

combination for 24 h in the absence or presence of vehicle (-dox) or 1 µg/mL doxycycline

(+dox) followed by flow cytometry. Induction of p27^{Kip1} reduces IM-induced apoptosis

(subG1 fraction). SenB partially alleviates the protective effect of p27^{Kip1} on IM-induced

apoptosis. **(C)** Immunoblotting of cleaved caspase 9 and p27^{Kip1} in K562p27^{tet-on} cells treated

with IM, SenB or their combination for 24 h in the absence or presence of vehicle (-dox) or 1

µg/mL doxycycline (+dox). Exogenous p27^{Kip1} overexpression decreases apoptosis marker

after treatment with IM, addition of SenB (I+S) increases active caspase 9 level relative to IM

alone. β-actin was used as a loading control. Statistical analysis was performed using one-

way ANOVA. **$p<0.01$, ****$p<0.0001$. Values are mean±SD, n=3.

Figure 6. SenB alleviates IM-induced G1 arrest and increases replication stress

markers.

(A) Time course of G1 and subG1 fractions of K562 *(left)* and KU812 *(right)* cells treated

with IM and SenB (1 µM each). Note that, in K562 cells, IM alone caused a sustained

accumulation in G1 whereas in the IM+SenB group a portion of cells in G1 gradually

decreased *(top left)*. Accordingly, cells treated with the combination died more readily than in

the 'IM alone' cohort (*bottom left*). Since KU812 cells were not arrested by IM, the

combination had no effect (*top & bottom right*). **(B)** Time course of EdU incorporation (2 h

pulse) in K562 cells treated with IM and IM+SenB (I+S). Cells treated with IM+SenB re-

started replication over 14-20 h (*left*), but at 18 h onward were arrested in the S phase (*right*).

Shown is one representative experiment out of three biological replicates (*bottom*). **(C)**

Immunoblotting of replication stress markers pChk1 S345, RPA32/RPA2, pRPA32/2 S4/8,

Rad51, pBRCA1 S1354. Combination IM+SenB exacerbated the effects of IM on replication

stress markers and inhibited the BRCA1-Rad51 DNA repair pathway. Histone 3 was a

loading control. **(D)** Proposed mechanism of action of IM+SenB combination. Statistical

analysis was performed using a two-way ANOVA. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$; ns, not

significant. Values are mean±SD, n=3.

A

MYC (c-Myc) gene

CDKN1B (p27^Kip1) gene

B

IM   0   0.05   0.1   0.25   0.5   1   2   0   0.05   0.1   0.25   0.5   1   2   µM

SenB 1 µM

p27 ^Kip1

β-actin

C

K562   10 h   24 h

con SenB IM I+S   con SenB IM I+S

c-Myc

p57 ^Kip2

p18 ^INK4c

β-actin

KU812   7 h

con SenB IM I+S

c-Myc

p27 ^Kip1

p21 ^Cip1

p18 ^INK4C

β-actin