The general transcription factor TFIIB is a target for transcriptome control

during cellular stress and viral infection

Leah Gulyas[1] and Britt A. Glaunsinger[1,2,3]

[1]Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

[2]Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

[3]Howard Hughes Medical Institute, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94709, USA

Corresponding Author: Britt A. Glaunsinger

Email: glaunsinger@berkeley.edu

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Graphical Abstract

Abstract

Many stressors, including viral infection, induce a widespread suppression of cellular RNA

polymerase II (RNAPII) transcription, yet the mechanisms underlying transcriptional repression

are not well understood. Here we find that a crucial component of the RNA polymerase II

holoenzyme, general transcription factor IIB (TFIIB), is targeted for post-translational turnover

by two pathways, each of which contribute to its depletion during stress. Upon DNA damage,

translational stress, apoptosis, or replication of the oncogenic Kaposi's sarcoma-associated

herpesvirus (KSHV), TFIIB is cleaved by activated caspase-3, leading to preferential

downregulation of pro-survival genes. TFIIB is further targeted for rapid proteasome-mediated

turnover by the E3 ubiquitin ligase TRIM28. KSHV counteracts proteasome-mediated turnover

of TFIIB, thereby preserving a sufficient pool of TFIIB for transcription of viral genes. Thus,

TFIIB may be a lynchpin for transcriptional outcomes during stress and a key target for nuclear

replicating DNA viruses that rely on host transcriptional machinery.

Keywords

TFIIB, general transcription factor, RNAPII transcription, KSHV, caspase-3 cleavage,

proteasomal turnover

Significance Statement

Transcription by RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) synthesizes all cellular protein-coding mRNA.

Many cellular stressors and viral infections dampen RNAPII activity, though the processes

underlying this are not fully understood. Here we describe a two-pronged degradation strategy by

which cells respond to stress by depleting the abundance of the key RNAPII general transcription

factor, TFIIB. We further demonstrate that an oncogenic human gammaherpesvirus antagonizes

this process, retaining enough TFIIB to support its own robust viral transcription. Thus,

modulation of RNAPII machinery plays a crucial role in dictating the outcome of cellular

perturbation.

Introduction

Cell stress is accompanied with rapid changes to the transcriptome. This involves the induction

of genes required for stress resolution (1), for example through post-translational regulation of

stress-responsive transcription factors like p53 and Rb (2, 3). Conversely, most stressors,

including DNA damage (4), pro-apoptotic signals (5), hyperosmotic stress (6), and some viral

infections, broadly downregulate basal gene expression by suppressing RNA polymerase II

(RNAPII) activity (7-10). This may focus gene expression on the stress response by freeing

resources for transcription and translation and may also restrict viral access to essential

transcription machinery akin to the well documented translational shutdown pathways (1, 11-13).

However, the mechanisms underlying this transcriptional repression remain unclear.

DNA viruses are valuable models for understanding stress response coordination, as they induce

cell stress yet also rely on core cellular gene expression pathways that are frequently inactivated

during stress. One DNA virus that induces a broad shutdown of host gene expression is Kaposi's

sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), an oncogenic gammaherpesvirus that is the most

common cause of cancer in individuals with HIV-associated immunosuppression. The KSHV

dsDNA genome resides as a largely transcriptionally quiescent episome that is tethered to host

chromatin in latently infected cells. Viral amplification and full viral gene expression occur only

upon reactivation into the lytic cycle. During lytic KSHV replication, the virus usurps RNAPII

for viral transcription, while dampening cellular gene expression both in the cytoplasm via

accelerated mRNA decay by a viral endonuclease and in the nucleus via suppression of RNAPII

transcription (7, 9, 14, 15). The cellular transcriptional repression is likely a consequence of

multiple virus-induced phenotypes, including a nuclear influx of RNA binding proteins as well as

altered levels of core transcription proteins (7-9, 16). Among these, a recent proteomics study

identified general transcription factor IIB (TFIIB, also known as GTF2B) as one of the most

prominently depleted transcription factors in gammaherpesvirus infected cells (7).

TFIIB is a core member of the RNAPII holoenzyme and is crucial for RNAPII recruitment and

initiation (17). It is a small, ~35 kD protein that stabilizes the TBP-containing general

transcription factor IID (TFIID) on promoter DNA near the TFIIB C-terminus (17, 18). TFIIB

serves as bridge between TFIID and RNAPII, with its N-terminal B-ribbon portion threading to

the RNAPII core complex and drawing it to the promoter. Once bound, TFIIB assists RNAPII in

unwinding DNA and identifying the transcription start site (18, 19). TFIIB also has a more

enigmatic role in 3′ transcript processing in yeast, involving gene looping via interactions with

the 3′ CPF complex and other termination machinery (20-22), as well as proper transcription

termination in mammalian cells (23). Acute PROTAC-driven loss of TFIIB protein has recently

been shown to have a broadly repressive effect on RNAPII activity (23).

TFIIB-dependent transcription is influenced by its phosphorylation, which is reduced during

DNA damage (24, 25). If and how TFIIB is otherwise regulated remains unknown. Here, we

show that TFIIB protein abundance is tightly controlled in both stressed and unstressed cells by

two distinct pathways. During DNA damage, apoptosis, and infection-induced stress, caspase-3

is activated and TFIIB undergoes rapid caspase-mediated cleavage. This caspase-mediated TFIIB

depletion suppresses RNAPII transcription, most prominently of pro-survival factors in cells

undergoing apoptosis. However, as is characteristic of tightly regulated proteins, TFIIB is short-

lived even in unstressed cells. The E3 ligase TRIM28 targets TFIIB for rapid turnover by the

ubiquitin proteasome pathway, keeping its half-life short both in the absence and presence of

stress. Finally, we demonstrate that KSHV, which requires RNAPII for transcription, counteracts

loss of TFIIB by impeding its proteasomal degradation. This work highlights how

posttranscriptional control of a core general transcription factor can influence the cellular

transcriptional response to stress and can be manipulated for viral benefit.

Results

Cellular stress depletes TFIIB via caspase cleavage, suppressing anti-apoptotic genes

To evaluate how KSHV influences TFIIB protein levels, we used a B cell lymphoma cell line

that is stably latently infected with KSHV (TRExRTA BCBL-1, henceforth referred to as BCBL-

1). These cells contain an inducible version of the viral lytic activator RTA, enabling viral

reactivation into the lytic cycle upon treatment with doxycycline (dox) (26).

Western blot of endogenous TFIIB protein showed that its levels declined upon lytic KSHV

reactivation (**Fig. 1A**), in agreement with prior observations with the related murine

gammaherpesvirus MHV68 (7). To determine whether this depletion was specific to lytic KSHV

reactivation or is also induced by other types of stress, we treated the latent cells with etoposide

to cause DNA damage or cycloheximide to inhibit translation. Both treatments also

downregulated TFIIB, suggesting that it may be commonly targeted during stress (**Fig. 1A**).

The depletion of TFIIB under all three stress conditions was associated with the appearance of

smaller molecular weight bands in the ~20 kD range. A stably introduced version of TFIIB fused

to a 2x C-terminal strep tag was similarly cleaved upon treatment with etoposide, dox, and

cycloheximide, suggesting that cleavage is proximal to the C-terminus of the protein (**Fig. 1A,**

black arrow, compared to gray arrow for the endogenous protein). Note that p27 serves as a

positive control for translation inhibition, KSHV SOX is an early protein used as a marker for

viral reactivation, and γH2AX indicates the level of DNA damage. TFIIB transcriptional

competence is associated with phosphorylation at residue S65 (25). However, cleavage does not

depend on this phosphorylation, as both unphosphorylatable S65A and phosphomimetic S65E

versions of TFIIB displayed the same degradation pattern (*SI Appendix*, **Fig. S1A).**

Stress-induced proteolytic cleavage is a hallmark of caspase activity. Indeed, treatment with the

TRAIL ligand to induce apoptosis caused the same TFIIB cleavage pattern (**Fig. 1B**).

Furthermore, each of the cellular stressors activated both initiator caspase-8 and executioner

caspase-3, as measured by a shift from inactive procaspases to their cleaved, active forms (**Fig.**

1C). Using the CaspSite database, an experimental repository for caspase substrates (27), we

found a putative caspase-3 cut site after TFIIB aspartic acid residue 207 (D207). Mutation of this

site to alanine (D207A) in the strep-tagged TFIIB rendered the protein resistant to cleavage,

confirming this as the primary cleavage site **(Fig. 1D)**. Furthermore, both the pan-caspase

inhibitor Z-VAD-OMe-FMK and the caspase-3 inhibitor Z-DEVD-FMK impaired TFIIB-

2xStrep cleavage during TRAIL-induced apoptosis, whereas the Z-FA-FMK negative control for

caspase inhibition did not (**Fig. 1E**). Similarly, siRNA-mediated depletion of caspase-3

decreased TFIIB cleavage during stress (*SI Appendix*, **Fig. S1B**).

To assess the functional role of TFIIB cleavage, we next measured gene expression in BCBL-1

cells containing wild-type TFIIB-2xStrep or TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep upon either mock buffer or

apoptosis induction by TRAIL treatment using RNA-seq (**Fig. 1F**). Because endogenous TFIIB

was still present in these cells, we anticipated this approach would identify only the genes that

were most sensitive to changes in TFIIB levels. Differential gene expression (DGE) analysis

identified 22 genes that differed significantly between wild-type and D207A mutant

overexpression, 16 of which were specifically upregulated in the TRAIL treated cells. Notably,

half of these genes have reported anti-apoptotic roles, including BCL2 (***SI Appendix*, S1 Table)**

(28-37). We therefore measured how expression of TFIIB-2xStrep or TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep

influenced the frequency of apoptosis and necrosis after 24 hours of etoposide treatment using

Annexin V and propidium iodide (PI) staining (38), respectively (**Fig. 1G**). While there was an

equivalent percentage of cells undergoing either form of cell death (i.e., Annexin V+/PI+) in each

of the samples, modest but significant differences emerged when we separated these into

populations undergoing either apoptosis (Annexin V+/PI-) or necrosis (Annexin V-/PI+).

Expression of TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep caused reduced levels of apoptotic cells, in agreement

with the increased expression of anti-apoptotic genes, and a compensatory increase in necrotic

cells compared to empty vector (**Fig. 1G**). Cells overexpressing caspase cleavable wild-type

TFIIB-2xStrep displayed an intermediate phenotype, as expected. Collectively, these data

suggest that some pro-survival/anti-apoptotic genes are particularly sensitive to TFIIB depletion

and cleavage of TFIIB by caspases facilitates apoptotic cell death.

TFIIB protein is rapidly degraded by the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway in both stressed

and unstressed cells

We noted that cycloheximide treatment to block translation induced more pronounced depletion

of full-length TFIIB compared to the other stresses (see **Fig. 1A; *SI Appendix*, Fig. S2A**). Given

that tightly regulated proteins often have short half-lives, we hypothesized that TFIIB abundance

might be controlled by an additional, caspase-independent mechanism in these cells.

We first tested this by measuring the half-life of the caspase-resistant TFIIB(D207A) mutant

using a pulse-chase experiment in unreactivated cells. BCBL-1 cells expressing TFIIB(D207A)-

2x strep were pulsed with the methionine analog L- Homopropargylglycine (L-HPG) to label

newly synthesized protein, then chased with media lacking L-HPG. At the indicated time points,

we measured TFIIB(D207A) abundance by purifying it over strep beads and performing Click

chemistry to fluorescently label the L-HPG-containing protein (**Fig. 2A**). The half-life of

caspase-resistant TFIIB was less than 4.5 hours (**Fig. 2A**). We observed similarly rapid turnover

in a cycloheximide time course of TFIIB(D207A)-expressing BCBL-1 cells (**Fig. 2B**) and of

endogenous TFIIB in a renal carcinoma cell line, iSLK, that is also latently infected with KSHV

(**Fig. 2C**). iSLK cells lack the ability to robustly activate caspases and thus do not appreciably

cleave TFIIB upon lytic reactivation (***SI Appendix,* Fig. S2B**) or cycloheximide treatment (***SI***

***Appendix*, Fig. S2C**). Together, these results indicate that TFIIB is subject to rapid basal

turnover, consistent with a previous report in cycloheximide-treated HEK293T cells (39).

The other major proteolysis pathway is the ubiquitin proteasome system, and treatment of cells

with carfilzomib, a potent and irreversible inhibitor of the 26S proteasome (40), fully restored

TFIIB levels in cycloheximide-treated cells (**Fig. 2D**). However, it also inhibited caspase

cleavage of TFIIB, making it difficult to determine if TFIIB rescue is due to proteasomal

inhibition or indirect inhibition of caspase activity. We therefore tested the caspase-resistant

TFIIB(D207A) mutant and found it to be similarly stabilized in cells treated with cycloheximide

and carfilzomib (**Fig. 2E**), establishing proteasomal turnover as an additional protein degradation

mechanism for full-length TFIIB. TAK-243, a UBA1-targeting inhibitor of the ubiquitin cascade

(41), also increased the levels of full-length TFIIB without impairing caspase cleavage, further

supporting a ubiquitin-dependent TFIIB degradation pathway (**Fig. 2F**). A recent substrate-

trapping study identified TFIIB as a target of the E3 ligase TRIM28, also known as KAP-

1/TIF1β (39). To evaluate whether the TRIM28 E3 ligase reduces the levels of full-length TFIIB

in BCBL-1 cells, we used siRNAs to knock down TRIM28. Indeed, compared to control siRNA

treated cells, TFIIB protein stability was significantly extended in BCBL-1 cells lacking TRIM28

(**Fig. 2G**). TRIM28 depletion did not impact caspase cleavage, indicating that it operates

independently of the caspase-mediated depletion pathway. This effect was specific to TRIM28,

as knockdown of TRIM24, a related protein that complexes with TRIM28 (42), did not impact

TFIIB levels (***SI Appendix,*** **Fig. S2D**). Thus, TFIIB abundance is controlled by a combination of

TRIM28-mediated proteasomal turnover and caspase cleavage.

KSHV mitigates TFIIB RNA and protein loss by preventing TFIIB proteasomal

degradation

Upon reactivation, KSHV broadly restricts host gene expression by expressing a viral nuclease

(SOX) that promotes widespread degradation of cytoplasmic mRNA (14, 15), including TFIIB

mRNA (**Fig. 3A**). Thus, KSHV reactivation should in theory lead to similarly robust TFIIB

depletion as cycloheximide treatment since the reduced mRNA abundance would restrict new

protein synthesis. Yet, lytically reactivated BCBL-1 cells maintain modest levels of TFIIB

protein (**Fig. 3B**), suggesting that KSHV has a mechanism to preserve a pool of TFIIB for viral

use.

Indeed, we found that the steady state levels of TFIIB protein increased across a time course of

KSHV reactivation in the iSLK cells (**Fig. 3C**), even though TFIIB mRNA abundance decreased

(**Fig. 3D**). These iSLK cells are latently infected with KSHV and contain an integrated, dox-

inducible copy of the RTA lytic transactivator that, together with sodium butyrate treatment,

promotes viral reactivation into the lytic cycle. To validate this phenotype using an orthogonal

assay, we stably transduced iSLK cells with Halo-tagged TFIIB or a Halo only control for

visualization by flow cytometry and confocal microscopy. Upon KSHV lytic reactivation, TFIIB-

Halo signal increased ~25-fold, whereas no change was detected for Halo alone (**Fig. 3E**). The

increased TFIIB-Halo signal during reactivation was localized to the nucleus, while expression

of the Halo control protein was unchanged and localized diffusely throughout the cell (**Fig. 3F**).

Both endogenous TFIIB and Halo-TFIIB levels remained largely unchanged upon dox and

sodium butyrate treatment of control uninfected iSLK cells (that still contained dox-inducible

RTA) (***SI Appendix*, Fig. S3A-B**). Thus, lytic reactivation is the main driver of increased TFIIB

abundance.

We next compared the half-life of TFIIB protein in unreactivated versus lytically reactivated

cells upon inhibiting new protein synthesis with cycloheximide. The stability of full-length

TFIIB was markedly increased upon lytic viral reactivation in both iSLK and BCBL-1 cells (**Fig.**

4A-B). This was specifically induced by KSHV reactivation, as etoposide treatment did not

similarly extend TFIIB's half-life (***SI Appendix*, S4A).** The increase in TFIIB levels upon

reactivation was maintained in cells treated with the KSHV DNA replication inhibitor

phosphonoacetic acid (PAA), which also blocks all subsequent lytic cycle events (**Fig. 4C;** *SI*

Appendix, **Fig. S5A**). Thus, TFIIB stabilization occurs during the early phase of the lytic

cascade. TFIIB stabilization was not a consequence of impaired caspase cleavage, as we also

observed stabilization of the caspase- resistant TFIIB(D207A) mutant (**Fig. 4D**). This instead

suggests that reactivation leads to a defect in its proteasomal decay. While we favor the

hypothesis that this stabilization involves counteracting TRIM28, we have observed neither

differences in TRIM28 abundance in reactivated cells nor a role for specific KSHV-induced

TRIM28 phospho-regulation in the TFIIB stabilization phenotype (*SI Appendix*, **Fig. S4B-F**).

Thus, more complex regulation with other modifications and/or E3 ligases may be involved and

will be the focus of future work.

KSHV gene expression is impaired upon TFIIB depletion

Finally, since KSHV requires RNAPII activity for viral transcription, we asked whether

retention of a pool of TFIIB was important for KSHV gene expression. We reduced the TFIIB

levels during KSHV lytic reactivation using TFIIB-targeting siRNAs in BCBL-1 cells (**Fig. 5A;**

SI Appendix, **Fig. S5A-B**). RNA-seq revealed decreased expression of nearly all KSHV genes

compared to a control siRNA at 48 h post-lytic reactivation (**Fig. 5B-C**; *SI Appendix* **Fig. S5C-**

D). This was not simply due to decreased viral reactivation, since even at 24 h post- reactivation

in TFIIB knockdown conditions KSHV gene expression appeared mis-regulated, with reduced

transcript levels of genes normally expressed early and increased levels of some genes usually

expressed only late in infection (*SI Appendix,* **Fig. S5D**). As anticipated, the majority of

differentially expressed cellular genes were also decreased upon TFIIB knockdown compared to

control siRNAs, which we were able to evaluate as samples were normalized to spike-in controls

(**Fig. 5B**; *SI Appendix*, **Fig. S5C**). Conversely, expression of the majority of the KSHV genes

was modestly increased in RNA-seq data from cells stably expressing the cleavage-resistant

TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep versus those expressing cleavable, wild-type TFIIB-2xStrep (**Fig. 5D**; *SI*

Appendix, **Fig. S5E**). Though no individual gene varied significantly, the ensemble of relative

changes in the viral transcriptome was significantly upregulated in TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep

expressing cells over TFIIB-2xStrep (**Fig. 5E**). TFIIB knockdown also led to lower levels of

viral DNA replication, as measured by viral DNA qPCR at 48 hours post-reactivation (**Fig. 5F**).

Thus, KSHV requires sufficient TFIIB levels for proper viral gene expression and has evolved a

mechanism to preserve a pool of TFIIB under conditions where it would normally be depleted.

Discussion

Here we uncovered a two-pronged mechanism by which cells control abundance of the RNAPII

general transcription factor TFIIB. In unstressed cells, TFIIB is continually turned over through

ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis. A labile core GTF may facilitate rapid transcriptional tuning as

cells encounter environmental perturbations. In response to cell stress, TFIIB is further depleted

by caspase activity, which we hypothesize leads to preferential suppression of the most TFIIB-

dependent genes. In apoptotic cells, these include genes involved in basal pro-growth and pro-

survival pathways. This may also be a strategy by which cells can limit DNA viruses' access to

gene expression machinery. However, KSHV counteracts this response by inhibiting TFIIB

proteasomal degradation, enabling robust viral gene expression.

Stress reshapes transcription by targeting RNAPII protein machinery

Rapid responses to environmental stimuli are essential for cell viability. Canonically, this

involves dramatic alterations to transcription and translation. In the cytoplasm, there is a general

arrest of translation initiation and sequestration of mRNA into stress granules (reviewed by

Advani and Ivanov(43)). Similarly, in the nucleus, repression of bulk transcription may play a

key role in shifting resources to hyper-activate stress response or antiviral genes, as well as

potentiate cellular shutdown when cell death is triggered. Several mechanisms exist to post-

translationally target and control the RNAPII holoenzyme, including ubiquitin-mediated

degradation of the RNAPII catalytic subunit (RPB1/POLR2A) during genotoxic stress (4, 44,

45). This promotes temporary transcriptional shutdown of short genes, which are often pro-

growth factors and oncogenes (4).

Analogously, we found that TRAIL-treated cells expressing a caspase-resistant version of TFIIB

upregulated several factors that favor cell survival, including the anti-apoptotic BCL2 regulator.

Although the number of induced genes was relatively small, we nonetheless found this shifted a

proportion of cells from apoptotic cell death to necrotic death. Perhaps the inability to shut down

expression of these TFIIB-dependent genes prevents proper execution of apoptosis and results in

an inappropriate, more inflammatory (46) form of cell death. It is thus possible that the

abundance of TFIIB and other RNAPII machinery in a cell are balanced to determine cell fate. In

keeping with this idea, TFIIB-dependent metabolic genes are commonly dysregulated in cancer

cells (47), and rapid TFIIB proteasomal turnover also occurs during cellular differentiation of F9

cells, along with depletion of other RNAPII GTFs (48). We hypothesize that an appropriate

cellular stress response requires a tradeoff from normal TFIIB-dependent transcription to favor

expression of stress-responsive pathways.

TFIIB plays key roles during viral infection

Control of TFIIB, and more broadly RNAPII, is an important component of virus-host

interactions (8, 49). RNA viruses that do not use cellular RNAPII for gene transcription can

selectively cripple host gene expression by targeting core GTFs like TFIIB, thereby limiting

antiviral gene expression (50, 51). For example, during Thogoto virus infection, the viral ML

protein dramatically relocalizes TFIIB to the cytoplasm as an immune evasion strategy; this

impairs both the innate immune response and apoptotic pathways in HeLa cells (50), suggesting

a context-dependent regulatory role for TFIIB abundance. On the other hand, nuclear replicating

DNA viruses must hijack cellular transcriptional machinery for viral gene expression.

Downregulation of TFIIB here may be an antiviral response geared towards restricting viral

access to functional transcriptional machinery while maintaining sufficient levels to activate anti-

viral genes. To counter, DNA viruses must evolve mechanisms to preserve GTF access for viral

needs. Many DNA viruses encode proteins that interact with and recruit TFIIB to viral

promoters. Examples from other *Herpesviridae* include herpes simplex virus 1 VP16 (52, 53),

human cytomegalovirus IE2 (54), and Epstein-Barr virus EBNA2 (55). These interactions are

presumably important for viral fitness as knockdown of TFIIB significantly impairs HSV-1

replication (56), similar to our observations with KSHV. Whether these and other DNA viruses

also block proteasome-mediated turnover of TFIIB will be interesting to explore in the future.

A key open question is how KSHV coordinates TFIIB stabilization. While it is possible that an

early viral protein directly interacts with and stabilizes TFIIB during KSHV reactivation, a

previously published KSHV-human protein-protein interaction map failed to detect any such

interaction (57), suggesting the mechanism of stabilization is indirect. Given that TRIM28 has

E3 ligase activity that targets TFIIB for turnover (39), we favor a model in which one or more

KSHV genes antagonizes TRIM28 activity. TRIM28 is extensively modified by mammalian

viruses, with many examples from the *Herpesviridae* (58), where it has roles in both viral latency

and the switch to lytic replication (59-64). Protein abundance and phosphoregulation of TRIM28

do not appear to underly enhanced TFIIB stability during KSHV reactivation, but a more

extensive survey of TRIM28 modifications during the lytic viral cycle may yield other specific

modifications to examine. It is possible that additional E3 ligases also regulate TFIIB and may be

blocked during the KSHV lytic cycle. Future studies addressing these, and other possibilities

should further our understanding of TFIIB and RNAPII holoenzyme regulation, which is central

to how cells elicit broad transcriptional responses when under threat.

Figures

Figure 1

Figure 1. Cellular stress depletes TFIIB via caspase cleavage at D207, suppressing anti-

apoptotic genes. (A) TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells bearing the indicated constructs were treated with

25 μM etoposide (Etop; DNA damage agent) for 24 h, 2 μg/mL doxycycline (Dox; viral

reactivation) for 24h, or 100 μg/mL cycloheximide (Chx; translational inhibitor) for 6 h, or mock

treated with drug diluent and analyzed by western blotting. γH2AX is induced during DNA

damage response, KSHV SOX is a viral early protein and marker for infection, and p27 is a

short-lived control for translation inhibition. Vinculin is a loading control. Black arrow indicates

full length strep-tagged TFIIB and gray arrow indicated full-length endogenous TFIIB.

(B) Empty or TFIIB-2xStrep expressing TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells were treated with either 100

ng/mL TRAIL ligand or mock treated with TRAIL dilution buffer for 6 h before western blotting.

Caspase-3 cleavage is a control for induction of cell death. **(C)** Samples in (*A*) were probed for

Caspase-3 and Caspase-8 activation by cleavage. **(D)** TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing either

TFIIB-2xStrep or mutant TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep were treated with 100 ng/mL TRAIL ligand or

mock for 8 h, followed by western blotting. Black arrow indicates cleavage product. **(E)**

TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing TFIIB-2xStrep or mutant TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep were

pretreated with 80 μM of either the caspase-3 inhibitor Z-VAD-DEVD-FMK, the pan-caspase

inhibitor Z-VAD-OMe-FMK, or a negative control cysteine protease inhibitor Z-FA-FMK for 2

h. Cells were then treated with either 500 ng/mL TRAIL ligand or mock treated with TRAIL

dilution buffer for 7 h followed by western blotting. Boosted strep signal has gamma contrast

enhanced for visualization of the cleavage product and GAPDH probed with mouse antibody is a

loading control. **(F)** TFIIB-2xStrep or TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep expressing TRExRTA BCBL-1

cells were treated with 660 ng/mL TRAIL for 7 h and RNA extracted and sequenced with

ribodepletion and ERCC spike-in control RNA for normalization. Volcano plot shows

differentially expressed genes in cells containing TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep relative to cells

containing wild-type TFIIB-2xStrep. Genes in red are significantly differentially regulated in

TRAIL-treated cells with described links to apoptosis (see *SI Appendix*, **Table S1**), genes in

yellow are differentially expressed in both TRAIL-treated and untreated cells, and in blue are

genes with unknown function or no known link to apoptosis that are differentially expressed

during TRAIL-treatment. **(G)** Flow cytometry analysis of TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells treated with

25 μM etoposide for 24 h and then labelled with Annexin V-FITC and propidium iodide to assess

apoptosis and permeability. Percentages of each population for TFIIB-2xStrep and

TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep cells were normalized to empty vector control. ns- nonsignificant, **

$P_{TFIIB(D207A)} = 0.0061$, **$P_{TFIIB} = 0.0091$, *$P = 0.0424$; two-way ANOVA with Tukey correction.

Figure 2

Figure 2. TFIIB is rapidly degraded through the proteasome in both stressed and

unstressed cells. (A) TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep protein were

pulse-labelled for 18 h with L-HPG, harvested at the indicated timepoints post-chase for strep

pulldown, then labelled with picolyl-azide-sulfo-Cy5. For quantification, strep signal was

normalized to input signal and the 0 h timepoint and plotted. **** $P < 0.0001$, * $P = 0.0103$; one-

way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison test. **(B)** TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing

TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep were treated with 100 µg/mL cycloheximide (Chx) and harvested at

indicated timepoints for western analysis. p27 is a control for Chx activity and vinculin is a

loading control. **(C)** iSLK-KSHV(+) BAC16 cells were treated with 250 µg/mL Chx, harvested

at the given timepoints and western blotted for the indicated proteins. Vinculin and GAPDH

probed with mouse antibody serve as loading controls. **(D)** TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells or **(E)**

TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing TFIIB(D207A)-2xStep were treated with 100 µg/mL Chx

for 6h with or without 5 µM carfilzomib proteasome inhibitor (carf) and endogenous TFIIB and

strep-tagged protein analyzed by western blotting. p53 and p27 are positive controls for Chx

activity and FK2 marks poly-ubiquitylated protein as a positive control for proteasomal

inhibition; GAPDH probed with mouse antibody is a loading control. **(F)** TRExRTA BCBL-1

cells treated with 100 µg/mL Chx for 8 h with or without 10 µM TAK-243, a UBA1-targetting

inhibitor of ubiquitylation, and western blotted with the indicated antibodies. NRF2 is a control

for translation and ubiquitylation inhibition, and GAPDH probed with rabbit antibody is a

loading control. **(G)** Western blots of TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells treated with 18 h of TRIM28 or

nontargeting control (siNTC) siRNAs, followed by 100 µg/mL Chx treatment for the indicated

times. Same loading controls as in (*C*).

A

TRExRTA BCBL-1

Relative mRNA abundance/18s

Hours post-reactivation: 0, 16, 24, 40, 48

*** ****

B

TRExRTA BCBL-1

Unreact. | Reactivation
Time (h): 18 21 24 27 | 18 21 24 27

TFIIB
KSHV SOX
Vinculin

C

iSLK-KSHV (+)

Unreact. | React.
Time (h): 24 40 48 60 | 24 40 48 60

TFIIB
KSHV SOX
Vinculin
GAPDH

D

iSLK

Relative mRNA abundance/18s

Hours post-reactivation: 0, 40

*

E

iSLK-KSHV(+) + Halo

Normalized To Mode
Halo (APC-A)

Dark control
Unreact.
48h React.

iSLK-KSHV(+) + TFIIB-Halo

Normalized To Mode
Halo (APC-A)

Dark control
Unreact.
48h React.

Average Halo signal (units)

ns **

Unreact. 48h React. | Unreact. 48h React.
Halo | Halo-TFIIB

F

Halo | Hoescht | Merge

Halo — Unreact.
Halo — React.
TFIIB-Halo — Unreact.
TFIIB-Halo — React.

Figure 3

Figure 3. KSHV infection buffers against TFIIB loss.

(A) RT-qPCR of TFIIB normalized to 18S RNA harvested from reactivated TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells at the given timepoints. **** P < 000.1, *** P = 0.0008; one-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison test. **(B)** Western analysis of endogenous TFIIB in TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells or **(C)** iSLK-KSHV(+) BAC16 cells at timepoints post-reactivation or mock. KSHV SOX is an early gene and vinculin, and GAPDH probed with mouse antibody is a loading control. **(D)** As in (*A*) but in iSLK-KSHV(+) BAC16 cells. * P = 0.01636; Student's t-test. **(E)** Flow analysis of iSLK-KSHV(+) BAC16 cells transduced with Halo or TFIIB-Halo and mock or 48 h reactivation with doxycycline (dox) and sodium butyrate; Halo was labeled with JF646-Halo dye and measured by signal in the APC-A channel. Fluorescence distributions are shown for a representative replicate and mean APC-A quantification for all samples is shown on the right. ns- nonsignificant, ** P = 0.0057; One-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison test. **(F)** Confocal microscopy of iSLK-KSHV(+) BAC16 cells transduced with Halo protein or TFIIB-Halo, +/- viral reactivation. Hoescht 3342 delineates nuclei. Scale bar = 20 μm.

A

iSLK-KSHV (+)

	Unreact.				36h React.			
Chx (h):	0	6	9	12	0	6	9	12

TFIIB

KSHV SOX

p27

GAPDH

B

TRExRTA BCBL-1

	Unreact.				18h React.			
Chx (h):	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9

TFIIB

KSHV SOX

Vinculin

p27

Vinculin

C

TRExRTA BCBL-1
Endogenous TFIIB

	Unreact. +PAA				18h React. +PAA			
Chx (h):	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9

TFIIB

Vinculin

KSHV SOX

KSHV K8.1

p27 ►

Vinculin

D

TRExRTA BCBL-1
+ TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep

	Unreact.				18h React.			
Chx (h):	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9

Strep

Vinculin

KSHV SOX

Vinculin

p27

Vinculin

Figure 4

Figure 4. KSHV infection impairs TFIIB proteasomal degradation early in infection.

(A) iSLK-KSHV(+) BAC16 cells +/- reactivation for 36 h, treated with 250 μg/mL

cycloheximide (Chx) for the indicated timepoints, then western blotted with the indicated

antibodies. KSHV SOX is a control for infection, p27 is a control for translation inhibition, and

GAPDH probed with rabbit antibody is a loading control. **(B)** TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells were

mock-treated or reactivated for 18 h, treated with 100 μg/mL Chx, and western blotted for the

indicated proteins. Vinculin is a loading control. **(C)** Western blots of TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells

+/- 18 h reactivation and treatment with 1mM of the viral DNA replication inhibitor

phosphonoacetic acid (PAA) followed by a timecourse with 100 μg/mL Chx. Early viral gene

SOX expression is not affected by inhibition of DNA replication, but late gene K8.1 is dependent

on DNA replication and thus not expressed. Black arrow indicates appropriate p27 band under

non-specific antibody signal. GAPDH probed with mouse antibody is a loading control.

TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep were mock-treated or reactivated

for 18 h, treated with 100 μg/mL Chx, and western blotted for the indicated proteins. Vinculin is

a loading control. **(D)** As in (*B*) but with TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing TFIIB(D207A)-

2xStrep.

Figure 5

Figure 5. KSHV requires TFIIB for optimal gene expression.

(A) Western blotting to confirm TFIIB knockdown in TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells nucleofected with

TFIIB siRNA (siTFIIB) or non-targeting siRNA (siNTC) followed by 24 h or 48 h of

doxycycline (dox)-induced reactivation or mock. SOX is a viral early gene and K8.1 is a viral

late gene. GAPDH probed with mouse antibody is a loading control. **(B)** Volcano plot of

differentially expressed genes from the RNA-seq analysis of TRExRTA BCBL-1 treated with

either TFIIB siRNA (siTFIIB) or nontargeting siRNA (siNTC) and reactivated for 48 h. Cellular

genes are in gray and KSHV genes are highlighted in blue. **(C)** Relative gene expression for

KSHV genes in TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells treated with siNTC or siTFIIB knockdown +/-

doxycycline (dox)-induced reactivation. Calculations were derived from viral RNA-seq gene

counts normalized to siNTC with 48 h reactivation (siNTC 48 h reactivation was normalized to

1). ns- nonsignificant, **** $P < 0.0001$; one-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison test.

(D) Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes from the RNA-seq analysis of TRExRTA

BCBL-1 expressing either TFIIB-2xStrep or TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep and reactivated for 48 h.

Cellular genes are in gray and KSHV genes are highlighted in blue. **(E)** Relative gene expression

for KSHV genes in TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing either TFIIB-2xStrep or TFIIB(D207A)-

2xStrep +/- dox-induced reactivation. Calculations were derived from viral RNA-seq gene counts

normalized to TFIIB-2xStrep with 48 h reactivation (which itself was normalized to 1). ns-

nonsignificant, **** $P < 0.0001$; one-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison test. **(F)**

Relative viral DNA abundance was measured by qPCR in siNTC or siTFIIB treated TRExRTA

BCBL-1 cells with 48 h post dox-induced reactivation as measured by viral late gene K8.1

promoter amplification normalized to cellular TLDC1 promoter amplification by qPCR. **** P

< 0.0001, ** $P = 0.0060$; one-way ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparison test.

Methods

466 A comprehensive list of materials and identifiers may be found in *SI Appendix;* **Table S2**

Plasmids and primers

469 Primers and relevant DNA sequences are listed in *SI Appendix;* **Table S3**.

Cloning

TFIIB constructs were cloned from TRExRTA BCBL-1 cell cDNA. The DNA sequence was

modified to preserve the amino acid sequence but render constructs resistant to Dharmacon

OnTarget and Accell human GTF2B siRNAs; this sequence was synthesized for cloning by Twist

Bioscience and used for all subsequent plasmid generation. For strep-tagged constructs, TFIIB

was subcloned into XhoI site of pcDNA4/TO-2xStrep (pCDNA4/TO Invitrogen vector modified

to include a C-terminal 2xStrep tag) using InFusion cloning (Takara Bio). TFIIB-2xStrep was

then amplified and subcloned into the Sfi1 site of a sleeping beauty plasmid pSBbi-GP (Addgene

#60511, gift from Eric Kowarz) derivative lacking EGFP (gift from Nicholas Ingolia, UC

Berkeley) by InFusion cloning to make the TFIIB-2xStrep expression vector. Derivative point

mutant plasmids D207A, S65A, and S65E were generated by inverse PCR (described in Silva et

al.(65)). Sleeping beauty vectors were used with sleeping beauty transposase plasmid (gift from

Nicholas Ingolia, UC Berkeley); the sleeping beauty system was described in Kowarz et al.(66).

Lentivectors driving HaloTag or TFIIB-Halo expression were generated by amplifying TFIIB

and HaloTag for C-terminal insertion by InFusion cloning into EcoRV-digested pLJM1

(Addgene plasmid #19319, gift of David Sabatini, modified to remove EGFP and replace

puromycin resistance with a blasticidin resistance gene from pSBtet-Bla, Addgene plasmid

#60510, gift of Eric Kowarz). TFIIB was immediately followed by a short, flexible GGSGGGS

linker before the HaloTag protein. Halo only vector was made by cloning out TFIIB with inverse

PCR and T4 PNK/T4 ligase religation. Lentivectors were co-transfected with packaging

plasmids pMD2.G (Addgene plasmid #12259) and psPAX2 (Addgene plasmid #12260), gifts of

Didier Trono.

All plasmids constructed in this study and the HA-Kaposin B and HA-EGFP vector were

validated by full-plasmid sequencing and have been deposited on Addgene (accession numbers

pending).

Cell line generation, maintenance, and reactivation

All cell lines were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in a humidity-controlled incubator.

TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells (generously provided by the lab of Jae Jung) contain a doxycycline-

inducible copy of the KSHV lytic transactivator RTA.[26] Cells were maintained in RPMI 1640

media (Gibco) supplemented with 10% Tet-free fetal bovine serum (FBS; via UC Berkeley Cell

Culture Facility), 1X GlutaMAX (Gibco), and 10 µg/mL hygromycin B (Invitrogen). TRExRTA

BCBL-1 derivative cell lines were also passaged with 1 µg/mL puromycin (Gibco) for selection.

Cells were kept at densities between $0.5-2x10^6$ cells/mL in non-tissue culture treated dishes.

Unless otherwise noted, cell concentration was ~$1x10^6$ cell/mL when reactivated with 1 µg/mL

doxycycline or administered other drug treatment. TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells line derivatives were

generated by nucleofection with the Neon Transfection System (Invitrogen) according to the

manufacturer's instructions with the following parameters: 5×10^6 low-passage cells were pulsed

(1350V, 1x40ms pulse-length) with 2 µg DNA in a 100 uL tip. Sleeping beauty plasmids

containing TFIIB-2xStrep and point mutant derivatives were delivered with a 1:20 ratio of

transposase to delivery vector. Cells were recovered for 24 h prior to commencing 1 µg/mL

puromycin selection.

iSLK-BAC16 cells(67-69) are renal carcinoma cells that contain the KSHV genome on bacterial

artificial chromosome (BAC) and a doxycycline-inducible copy of RTA. Control iSLK cells

similarly contain dox-inducible RTA but lack the KSHV BAC. Cells were maintained in DMEM

media supplemented with 10% FBS (Peak Serum), 1 mg/mL hygromycin B, and 1 µg/mL

puromycin (iSLK cells without BAC16 were propagated identically but without hygromycin).

iSLK-BAC16 derivatives were also maintained in 10 ug/mL blasticidin (Gibco). For lytic

reactivation, cells were plated at $\sim$0.25-0.5 $\times 10^6$ cells per well the day before treatment and

reactivated at 70-80% confluency with 5 µg/mL doxycycline (Millipore Sigma) and 1 mM

sodium butyrate (Sigma). iSLK and iSLK-BAC16 cell line derivatives were generated using 2nd

generation lentivirus as follows: 1×10^6 Lenti-X 293T cells (Clonetech/Takara via the UC

Berkeley Tissue Culture Facility; maintained in DMEM media (GIBCO) with 10% FBS) were

transfected using *Trans*IT-X2 or *Trans*IT-LT1 Transfection Reagent (Mirus; using the

manufacturer's protocol) with 250 ng pCMV-VSG, 1250 ng psPAX2, and 1250 ng lentivector.

Lentivirus was harvested at 48 h post-transfection with a 0.45 µM filter and frozen at -80°C in a

total volume of 5 mL of media. iSLK-BAC16 cells at $\sim$80% confluency were incubated with 2

mL regular media and 1 mL of thawed lentivirus for 24 h, at which point the media was

refreshed. Cells recovered for 24 h prior to selection with 10 μg/mL blasticidin.

siRNA knockdowns and nucleofections

$3x10^6$ TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells in 100 μL of resuspension buffer T (Invitrogen) were mixed with

3 μL of 100 μM siRNA stock of the following Dharmacon siRNAs: On-Target Plus Non-

targeting control pool and Accell Non-targeting control pool for non-targeting control cells, or

On-Target Plus human GTF2B siRNA SmartPool and Accell human GTF2B siRNA SmartPool

for TFIIB knockdown cells. Cells were nucleofected with the Neon Transfection System

(Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions at 1350V, 1x40ms pulse-length. Two

rounds of siRNA delivery were performed on each pool of cells, 24 h apart. Further

experimentation (e.g., reactivation) took place 24 h after the last siRNA delivery.

Caspase-3 knockdown was performed as described for TFIIB using the following Dharmacon

siRNAs: Accell Human CASP3 siRNA SmartPool and ON-Target plus Human CASP3 siRNA

SmartPool, with appropriate control pools. This experiment was modified with only one siRNA

treatment administered 48 h prior to cycloheximide treatment and further experimentation.

TRIM28 and TRIM24 knockdowns were performed similarly with the following modifications:

$3x10^6$ TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells in 100 μL of resuspension buffer T (Invitrogen) were

nucleofected once with 2 μL of 100 μM of either Dharmacon human TRIM28 Accell SmartPool

siRNA or OnTarget Plus human TRIM24 SmartPool. Cycloheximide treatment and harvesting

took place 18 h after nucleofection.

HA-Kaposin B and HA-EGFP expression experiments were performed using the same

nucleofection parameters for one-time delivery of 3 µg HA-Kaposin B or 1.5 µg HA-EGFP

vectors (to better match protein expression levels) into 3×10^6 TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells for each

condition 16 h prior to further experimentation.

Western blotting

Cells were collected and washed by either centrifugation at 300-1,000 x g for 3 min (suspension

cells) or scraping in 1 mL of PBS. Cells were re-pelleted with a high spin for 20s in a microfuge

tube and lysed in 1% SDS RIPA buffer (1% SDS, 1% NP40, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH

8, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate by mass) with Halt Protease and Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail

(Thermo Scientific). Cell lysates were stored at -80°C until further processing. Lysates were

sonicated (qSonica Ultrasonicator with cuphorn for 1 min at 100A, 3 s on/17 s off) and treated

with 1% Benzonase nuclease (Millipore). Lysates were clarified by centrifugation at 21,000 x g

for 10 minutes at 4°C and quantified by Pierce 660 assay according to the manufacturer's cuvette

protocol, using 0.8% Triton-X (MilliQ H_2O was used to dilute lysates). 20-30 µg whole cell

lysate was denatured in Laemmli Buffer (Bio-Rad), resolved by SDS-Page, and transferred to

PVDF membrane (Bio-Rad) with a Trans-Blot Turbo (Bio-Rad, Mixed Molecular Weight

protocol). Western blotting was performed with Tris-buffered saline and 0.2% Tween-20 (TBS-

T) using PageRuler Prestained protein ladder (10-180 kDa formulation; ThermoFisher) and the

following primary and secondary antibodies: TFIIB (clone 2F6A3H4, Cell Signaling- 4169,

1:1000), GAPDH (anti-mouse, clone 6C5, Thermofisher-AM4300, 1:5000 or anti-rabbit, clone

14C10, Cell Signaling-2118, 1:1000), p27 (ProteinTech- 15086-1-AP, 1:1000), TRIM28 (Cell

Signaling-4123, 1:1000), TRIM28-P(S824) (Cell Signaling-4127, 1:1000), TRIM28-P(S473)

(clone 11G10SC, Biolegend-654101, 1:500-1:1000), TRIM24 (clone E93TN, Cell Signaling-

79030, 1:1000), Vinculin (Abcam- ab91459, 1:1000), FK2 (Enzo- BML-PW8810-0100, 1:1000),

HA (clone C29F4, Cell Signaling-3724, 1:1000), NRF2 (ProteinTech-16396-1-AP, 1:000),

Caspase-3 (Cell Signaling-9662, 1:1000), Caspase-8 (clone E7, Abcam-ab32397, 1:1000),

γH2AX (Bethyl- A300-081A-M, 1:1000), p53 (clone 1C12, Cell Signaling- 2524, 1:1000), Goat

Anti-Mouse IgG(H+L) Human ads-HRP (Southern Biotech, 1:5,000), Goat Anti-Rabbit

IgG(H+L) Human ads-HRP (Southern Biotech, 1:5000), Strep-Tag II Antibody HRP Conjugate

(Sigma Aldrich-71591-3, 1:2000). Rabbit anti-K8.1 (gift of Denise Whitby, 1:10000)(70) and

Rabbit anti-SOX (Yenzyme, YZ6540 (cycle 1), 1:5000)(71) were described previously. Blots

were developed with either Clarity Western ECL Substrate (Bio-Rad) or Radiance Plus

Femtogram-sensitivity HRP Substrate (Azure Biosystems). Blots were imaged on a Chemidoc

MP imager (Bio-Rad) and prepared for publication using Bio-Rad Image Lab (version 6.0.1)

using the autoscale feature to maintain consistency unless otherwise noted. Blots shown are

representative of a minimum of 3 biological replicates at the same conditions and/or timepoints.

qPCR

RNA

Cells were harvested as described for westerns and total RNA was collected in 1 mL TRIzol

(Invitrogen) and isolated by 1 x 200 uL chloroform extraction as outlined in Toni et al. (72),

including precipitation in 500 uL isopropanol with 1% glycogen and 10% 3 M sodium acetate.

Purified RNA was treated with Turbo DNase (Thermofisher) and reverse-transcribed with AMV-

RT (Promega) and random 9-mer primers. cDNA was quantified by qPCR with a QuantStudio3

Real-Time PCR machine and transcript-specific primers and iTaq UniverSYBR Green Supermix

(Bio-Rad). RNA was normalized to 18S rRNA levels and corrected for primer efficiency.

vDNA quantitation

DNA was isolated from cells using QiaAMP Blood Mini kit (Qiagen) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. Equivalent concentrations of total DNA were loaded for quantitation by

QuantStudio3 Real-Time PCR (Applied Biosystems) with iTaq UniverSYBR Green Supermix

(Bio-Rad). Fold viral DNA replication changes were assessed using primers specific to the

KSHV K8.1 promoter normalized to the human TLDC1 promoter. A dilution series of total DNA

verified that there was no inhibition of the PCR reaction at the concentrations tested.

L-Homoproparglyglycine and click labeling

TREx-RTA BCBL-1 cells were washed with DPBS (Gibco) and $10x10^6$ cells per condition were

seeded at $1 x10^6$ cells/mL in normal RPMI media with or without methionine. Cells without

methionine were pulsed with 50 μM Click-It L-Homopropargylglycine (L-HPG) (Thermofisher)

for 18h, which is a methionine analog with an alkyne for labeling via click chemistry. Next, cells

were pelleted, washed once with DPBS, and chased with 10 mL of fresh methionine-containing

RPMI. A 0 h sample and cells with continuous methionine were harvested at this point.

Additional samples were harvested at the indicated post-chase timepoints. Cells were lysed in

1% SDS RIPA buffer (1% NP40, 1% SDS, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 0.5% sodium

deoxycholate by mass) with 1x Halt Protease and Phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Thermo

Scientific) and rotated at 4°C for 1 h, followed by treatment with Benzonase Nuclease

(Millipore). Protein concentration was quantified with Pierce 660 as described for Western blots.

1 mg of protein was diluted in Immunoprecipitation (IP) lysis buffer to 1 mL (50 mM Tris pH7.4,

150 mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA, 0.5% NP40, 1x Halt Protease and Phosphatase inhibitor cocktail

(Thermo Scientific)) and 1.5% inputs were removed, mixed with Laemmli Buffer (Bio-Rad), and

stored at -20°C. Strep protein was immunoprecipitated with 20 uL MagStrep "type3" XT beads

(IBA Lifesciences) pre-washed with IP wash buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl,

1mM EDTA, 0.05% NP40) and rotated overnight at 4°C. After washing beads with additional IP

wash buffer, protein was eluted by boiling beads in Laemmli buffer (Bio-Rad) at 95°C (10 min)

and resolved by SDS-PAGE as described for Western blots. The click reaction was performed on

the PVDF membrane as described by Ohata et al.(73) Briefly, the blot was rinsed twice with

methanol, twice with MilliQ H_2O, and then rocked in the dark, overnight at 4°C in click reagents

(1:1 DMSO/H_2O with 20 μM picolyl-azide-sulfo-Cy5 (Jena Bioscience), 300 μM $CuSO_4$, 60 μM

tris-hydroxypropyltriazolylmethylamine (THPTA), and 3.0 mM sodium ascorbate). The blot was

then washed with methanol, three 5 min DMSO rinses, methanol, and three 70% ethanol rinses

before imaging with a ChemiDoc MP (Bio-Rad). Data was quantified by dividing the strep band

click signal to overall IP click signal and prepared for publication using Bio-Rad Image Lab

(version 6.0.1). Data graphing and analysis were performed in GraphPad Prism 10.10 (264).

Fluorescence Microscopy

iSLK-BAC16 cell derivatives were plated on glass-bottom tissue culture-treated dishes and

reactivated as described earlier. Cells were labelled at least 30 minutes prior to imaging with

Halo ligand Janelia Fluor 646 (Promega) at a 1:1,000 dilution of 20 μM stock in DMSO and 10

μM Hoesct dye. 48 h post-reactivation or mock, cells were imaged live using an inverted Nikon

Eclipse Ti spinning disk confocal microscope driven by Nikon Imaging Systems (NIS) Elements

(v. AR 5.21.03) with a 60× oil immersion objective (Nikon Plan Apo VC 60× Oil DIC N2,

1.4 NA). Single representative images were selected from Z-stacks and image analysis was

performed in FIJI(74) (ImageJ v. 2.0.0-rc-69/1.52p), including image merging.

RNA sequencing and data analysis

For all sequencing experiments, samples were collected as indicated previously and RNA

extracted with TRIzol as described for RT-qPCR and quantified by Qubit 3 Fluorometer with

High Sensitivity Kit (Invitrogen). Prior to library prep, ERCC RNA Spike-in mix (Invitrogen)

was added to all input samples per the manufacturer's instructions (added for downstream

normalization; important for RNA samples with changes in bulk mRNA abundance, as in viral

infection.(9) TFIIB knockdown libraries were prepped with KAPA Stranded RNA-seq Kit with

RiboErase (HMR) (Roche) using 500 ng of input RNA and amplified for 9 cycles, and TFIIB-

2xStrep/TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep libraries were prepped with KAPA RNA Hyperprep Kit with

RiboErase (Roche) using 1,000 ng input RNA and amplified for 7 cycles. Both were fragmented

at 94°C for 6 min and ligated with KAPA Unique Dual-Indexed adaptors (Roche). Library

quality was checked on an AATI (now Agilent) Fragment Analyzer. Library molarity was

measured via quantitative PCR with the KAPA Library Quantification Kit (Roche KK4824) on a

BioRad CFX Connect thermal cycler. Libraries were then pooled by molarity and sequenced,

targeting at least 25M reads per sample. TFIIB knockdown sequencing was performed on one

lane of an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 S1 flowcell with 150 bp paired-end reads. TFIIB-

2xStrep/TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep libraries were sequenced across two lanes of an Illumina

NovaSeq X 10B with 150 bp paired-end reads. Fastq files were generated and demultiplexed

using Illumina bcl_convert and default settings, on a server running CentOS Linux 7.

Analysis was modified from UC Davis Bioinformatics Core RNA-seq workflow. Sequencing

quality was assessed with MultiQC and reads were preprocessed with HTStream version 1.3.0,

including deduplication. Genome indices were prepared using STAR (v. 2.7.1a) (75). The human

GRCh38.p13 genome assembly (ensembl.org) was indexed with Gencode v43 annotations. Due

to overlapping transcripts on the KSHV-BAC16 genome, individual exon coordinates were

assigned to the corresponding parent transcript for the virus in a custom gene annotation.

Preprocessed reads were aligned with STAR and counts files were generated for transcripts. Raw

data and counts tables will be available on the GEO database. For direct analysis of only viral

transcripts, viral counts were imported to Microsoft Excel and normalized to the sum of ERCC

spike-in counts. Replicates were then normalized to their corresponding mock condition and the

replicates averaged. Any transcript with no reads in some or all replicates and conditions was

eliminated from further analysis. Reads from *E.coli* genes on the BAC were also removed.

Heatmaps were generated using the matplotlib, pandas, and seaborn packages in Spyder (v.

5.3.3). Whole genome and differential gene expression (DGE) analysis was conducted in

RStudio (v. 2023.06.2+561) with the Bioconductor package using edgeR with limma/voom

developed and described by Law et al.(76). Samples were normalized to ERCC Spike-In and

compensated for multiple testing using the Benjamin-Hochberg correction. Genes were

annotated with the BioMart Ensembl Genes 109 database (Ensembl). Volcano plots were

generated using ggplot2.

Halo fluorescence measurements

Cells were reactivated or mock treated for 48 h and then labelled at least 30 minutes prior to

harvesting with Halo ligand Janelia Fluor 646 (Promega) at a 1:1,000 dilution of 20 μM stock in

DMSO. Cells were fixed for 15 min with 4% PFA and washed with DPBS. KSHV(-) iSLK cells

were washed in DPBS without fixing. After washing, cells were resuspended in DPBS. APC-A

signal (for JF 646) was quantified by flow cytometry on a BD Bioscience LSR Fortessa. 10,000

events were collected per sample, and replicates represent independent reactivations on separate

days. All data were analyzed using FlowJo software (BD Bioscience).

Apoptosis and necrosis measurements

TRExRTA BCBL-1s with either empty vector, TFIIB-2xStrep, or TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep were

seeded at 1×10^6 cells/mL and untreated or treated with 25 μM etoposide for 24 h. Cells were then

labelled and analyzed by flow as described in a protocol from Crowley et al. (38) Briefly, cells

were collected by centrifugation and resuspended in Annexin staining buffer (10 mM HEPES pH

7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM $CaCl_2$, in DPBS (GIBCO)) with 1:10 dilution of Annexin V-FITC

(fluorescein isothiocyanate; BD Biosciences) and 50 μg/mL propidium iodide (Sigma-Aldrich)

for 15 minutes in the dark. Signal was quantified by flow cytometry on BD Bioscience LSR

Fortessa using the FITC channel for Annexin-FITC, and PERCP channel for propidium iodide.

10,000 events were collected per sample and data were analyzed using FlowJo software (BD

Bioscience) including color compensation. Small fragments were excluded from analysis, but

gates were set to include both live and dead cells. Quadrants were set based on no dye and single

dye controls and the percent population was determined for each quadrant. Ratios of population

percentage normalized to empty vector were quantified.

Data visualization and analysis

Data quantifications and statistical analysis were conducted in GraphPad Prism (v. 9-10.10).

Statistical tests and significance values are noted in figure captions. The graphical abstract was

generated using BioRender.com.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, L.G. and B.A.G.; methodology, L.G. and B.A.G.; experimentation, L.G.;

writing, L.G. and B.A.G.; formal analysis, L.G. and B.A.G.; project administration, L.G. and

B.A.G; supervision and funding acquisition, B.A.G.

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