Cleavage of the RNA polymerase II general transcription factor TFIIB tunes transcription during stress

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Abstract

Cellular stressors often cause widespread repression of RNA polymerase II (RNAP II) activity, which is thought to facilitate a focused transcriptional output towards stress resolution. In many cases, however, the underlying regulatory mechanisms remain unknown. Here, we demonstrate that stress-induced downregulation of the general transcription factor TFIIB tunes the expression of specific stress response genes. In response to a variety of stressors, TFIIB is proteolytically cleaved at a conserved aspartic acid residue by caspases 3 and 7. Using both overexpression and endogenous base-editing, we find that B and T cells that are unable to cleave TFIIB fail to appropriately dampen transcription of short, stimulus-responsive and proto-oncogenic genes. The promoters of TFIIB-sensitive genes are bound by TFIIB and RNAP II, although their transcription is restrained until stimulated by stress. Subsequently, their expression is modulated through TFIIB cleavage. We further demonstrate that stress-induced TFIIB cleavage prevents aberrant lymphocyte proliferation and suppresses transcription from a pathogenic gammaherpesvirus. Hence, caspase targeting of TFIIB destabilizes transcription to tune gene expression, allowing for proper stress resolution.

Introduction

Cell stress is accompanied by rapid changes to the transcriptome. This involves the induction of genes required for stress resolution, but is also frequently associated with broad downregulation of basal gene expression by RNA polymerase II (RNAP II)

(Gulyas and Glaunsinger 2022). Suppression of RNAP II activity occurs during a variety

of stressors, including DNA damage (Tufegdžić Vidaković et al. 2020), hyperosmotic

stress (Rosa-Mercado et al. 2021), pro-apoptotic signals (Duncan-Lewis et al. 2021),

and viral infection (Abernathy et al. 2015; Bauer et al. 2018). Transcriptional repression

may focus gene expression on the stress response by freeing resources, as well as

restricting viral access to essential transcription machinery and/or permitting cells to

properly execute cell death pathways. While some drivers of stress-induced

transcriptional repression have been well studied, in many cases the underlying

mechanisms remain unknown. We previously found that transcriptional repression in

gammaherpesvirus-infected cells is coincident with reduced protein abundance of some

RNAP II machinery, most prominently the general transcription factor TFIIB (Hartenian

et al. 2020).

TFIIB is crucial for RNAP II recruitment and initiation. It stabilizes the general

transcription factor TFIID on promoter DNA, and its N-terminal B-ribbon threads to the

RNAP II core complex, drawing it to the promoter (Deng and Roberts 2007; Kostrewa et

al. 2009). TFIIB promoter binding is transient, with rapid dissociation and reassociation

observed *in vitro* (Zhang et al. 2016). Once stably bound, TFIIB assists RNAP II in

unwinding DNA and identifying the transcription start site (Kostrewa et al. 2009;

Sainsbury et al. 2013). TFIIB also has a more enigmatic role in 3′ transcript processing

in yeast (Singh and Hampsey 2007; O'Brien and Ansari 2022; O'Brien and Ansari 2023),

as well as in transcription termination in mammalian cells (Santana et al. 2022).

Acute global loss of TFIIB broadly represses gene expression, confirming its central role

in cellular transcription (Santana et al. 2022). However, several observations suggest

that it may be a point of control during stress. For example, its abundance fluctuates

during differentiation (Shiraishi et al. 2009) and retinal damage (Sang et al. 2013), it is

depleted during murine gammaherpesvirus infection as mentioned above (Hartenian et

al. 2020), and it is relocalized to the cytoplasm by Thogoto virus to alter immune gene

expression (Haas et al. 2018). TFIIB is further subject to regulation through protein

modifications including phosphorylation (Wang et al. 2010; Shandilya et al. 2012),

acetylation (Choi et al. 2003), and ubiquitination (Watanabe et al. 2020).

Here, we reveal that a variety of stresses converge on TFIIB, regulating its abundance

via a caspase-mediated cleavage event in B and T lymphocytes. Cleavage occurs at a

conserved residue located between the two cyclin folds of TFIIB that contact promoter

DNA. We used exogenous expression in B cells and endogenous base editing in T cells

to show that an uncleavable allele of TFIIB causes selective upregulation of short,

stress-response genes during apoptosis. Even though many TFIIB-sensitive genes are

not constitutively expressed in unstressed cells, we find their promoters are nonetheless

pre-loaded with TFIIB and RNAP II to enable rapid induction and subsequent

transcriptional regulation. Cells that cannot cleave TFIIB to dampen expression of these

genes aberrantly proliferate during chemical stress and upregulate transcription from an

oncogenic human herpesvirus. Together, our data suggest that TFIIB cleavage tempers

transcription at stress response and mitogenic genes in apoptotic lymphocytes,

functioning as a stress-activated mechanism to drive transcriptional repression.

Results

Cellular stress induces caspase cleavage of TFIIB at residue D207

We first evaluated whether TFIIB loss is a general feature of cellular stress. We focused

on immune cells, as B and T lymphocytes are highly sensitive to stress (Muralidharan

and Mandrekar 2013) and B cells are a primary infection target of several oncogenic

gammaherpesviruses. TFIIB protein levels were assessed in a B cell lymphoma line

(TRExRTA BCBL-1, henceforth referred to as BCBL-1) that latently harbors the human

herpesvirus Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) (Nakamura et al. 2003).

Cells were subjected to several stressors, including the DNA damage agent etoposide,

the translation inhibitor cycloheximide, or lytic reactivation of KSHV via doxycycline

(dox)-induced expression of the master viral lytic activator, RTA. Western blotting

revealed that all three treatments reduced endogenous TFIIB protein, suggesting that it

is commonly targeted during stress **(Fig. 1A)**.

The reduction of TFIIB under 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 in BCBL-1 cells was similarly cleaved and

yielded a ~14 kD strep-tagged product, suggesting that TFIIB proteolysis occurs closer

to the C-terminus of the protein (**Fig. 1A**). TFIIB phosphorylation is not linked to the

appearance of these smaller species, as phosphomimetic S65E and

unphosphorylatable S65A TFIIB displayed the same degradation pattern as wild-type

(WT) TFIIB (Shandilya et al. 2012) **(Supplemental Fig. S1A)**.

Stress-induced proteolytic cleavage is a hallmark of caspase activity. To test the

involvement of caspases in TFIIB cleavage, we treated with the apoptosis-inducing

TRAIL ligand, which causes a shift from inactive, executioner procaspase-3 to its

cleaved, active form. TRAIL causes the same appearance of smaller TFIIB bands as

other stressors (**Fig. 1B**). This was also observed in Jurkat T cells, a model system for

studying apoptosis (**Fig. 1C**). We identified a putative caspase-3 cleavage site after

TFIIB aspartic acid residue 207 using CaspSites, a repository for caspase substrates

(Wang and Julien 2023). Mutation of this site to alanine (D207A) in strep-tagged TFIIB

rendered the protein resistant to cleavage, confirming this as the primary cleavage site

(Fig. 1D). Both the pan-caspase inhibitor Z-VAD-OMe-FMK and the caspase-3/7

inhibitor Z-DEVD-FMK impaired TFIIB-2xStrep cleavage during TRAIL-induced

apoptosis relative to the Z-FA-FMK negative control (**Fig. 1E**). Caspase-3 and caspase-

7 share overlapping substrate motifs, and we thus assessed their relative contribution to

TFIIB cleavage (McStay et al. 2008; Julien and Wells 2017). Individual siRNA

knockdown of caspase-3 or caspase-7 extended the half-life of full-length TFIIB, with a

more pronounced effect observed for caspase-3 and the strongest effect upon co-

depletion of both caspases (**Fig. 1F**). Thus, TFIIB cleavage by caspases-3 and 7 at

D207 decreases its protein levels during a variety of cellular stresses.

TFIIB cleavage controls the expression of stress response pathway elements in lymphocytes

Sequences surrounding the TFIIB caspase cleavage site are highly conserved across metazoans, and D207 is maintained in fruit flies through humans, though not yeast, hydra, or nematodes (**Fig. 2A**). D207 is in a short, unstructured region bridging the two positively charged cyclin folds of TFIIB that contact promoter DNA (**Fig. 2B, Supplemental Fig. S2A**). Thus, caspase cleavage at this site could destabilize TFIIB promoter binding and pre-initiation complex (PIC) formation, leading to repressed transcription.

To determine if TFIIB D207 cleavage regulates gene expression during pro-apoptotic stress in lymphocytes, we tested the effects of both D207A overexpression in B cells and D207G editing at the endogenous TFIIB locus in T cells. We first generated BCBL-1 cells stably expressing strep-tagged WT or uncleavable D207A TFIIB. These cells were mock-treated or treated with TRAIL to induce apoptosis, a condition in which mRNA synthesis is broadly decreased **(Supplemental Fig. S2B)** (Duncan-Lewis et al. 2021), and then subjected to RNA-seq. Endogenous TFIIB was still present in these cells, and thus, this approach should preferentially identify genes that are highly sensitive to TFIIB levels. We performed an exon-intron split analysis (Gaidatzis et al. 2015) to quantify differential expression of nascent transcripts (**Fig. 2C**), which identified 61 upregulated and 2 downregulated genes specific to TRAIL treatment in D207A-expressing cells. Upregulated genes were associated with stress response pathways like TNF-α signaling

via NF-κB, UV response, and mTORC1 (**Fig. 2D**). Several of these genes were

immediate early/delayed early genes with roles in modulating cell proliferation and

apoptosis (e.g., *MYC*, *FOSB, ZFP36*) (Tullai et al. 2007). Analysis of the bulk RNA

levels similarly yielded a restricted set of 16 genes upregulated by D207A upon TRAIL

treatment, several of which have reported oncogenic or pro-survival roles, including

BCL2 (**Supplemental Fig. S2C**).

Since BCBL-1 cells are infected with KSHV, we were also able to assess the impact of

D207A expression on viral transcription. As a nuclear replicating dsDNA virus, KSHV is

dependent on host transcription machinery for viral gene expression. In line with this,

the expression of nearly all KSHV genes was modestly increased in lytically reactivated

BCBL-1 cells containing the uncleavable version of TFIIB (**Fig. 2E**). These data suggest

that host targeting of TFIIB not only regulates lymphocyte responses but can also act in

an anti-viral manner during viral replication.

To extend the above results to T cells in a more native context, we base edited cells

(Gaudelli et al. 2017) to introduce a D207G mutation into endogenous TFIIB in Jurkat

cells. Two different guides were used (D207G-#1 and D207G-#2); a guide targeting the

AAVS1 safe locus served as a control (Lombardo et al. 2011; Li et al. 2019). All guides

yielded efficient ($\geq$ 85%) editing with minimal bystander effects, and the D207G

mutation was stably maintained (**Supplemental Fig. S3A-D**). Clonal lines with pristine

edits were also derived from each guide, although we primarily focused on the pooled

lines as clones are known to exhibit variation in gene expression due to drift (Meir et al.

2020). The D207G mutation substantially reduced cleavage of TFIIB in pooled

populations and abolished cleavage in clonal lines treated with TRAIL relative to control

(Fig. 3A, Supplemental Fig. S4A).

To rigorously quantify changes to both bulk and nascent RNA, each of the edited lines

and matched controls were mock- or TRAIL-treated and subjected to SLAM-seq (thiol

(SH)-Linked Alkylation for the Metabolic Sequencing of RNA) **(Fig. 3B)** (Jürges et al.

2018). In line with the BCBL-1 data, the primary phenotype of TRAIL-treated D207G

Jurkat cells was significantly increased gene expression of a select group of genes,

despite global transcriptional repression (**Supplemental Fig. S5A-B**). This observation

was consistent between guide RNAs **(Fig. 3C-D** for D207G-#1, **Supplemental Fig.**

S5C-D for D207G-#2**)**. We observed nearly complete overlap in the set of significantly

upregulated genes (bulk RNA) from both edited pools **(Fig. 3E)**.

Enrichment analysis of this set of genes strikingly echoed that of D207A-expressing

BCBL-1 cells and was reproduced in sequencing from D207G clonal lines (**Fig. 3F**,

Supplemental Fig. S4B-E). Shared pathway associations included TNF-α signaling via

NF-κB and inflammatory responses, aligning with lymphocytes' role as professional

immune cells. Although there was stochasticity in the individual genes upregulated by

uncleavable TFIIB across sequencing sets, we nonetheless observed high coherence in

their attributes. As in BCBL-1 cells, genes involved in immunity, cell proliferation, and

stress were prevalent, including immediate and delayed early genes such as *IER5L*,

GFPT2, JUNB, SERPINE1, EGR4, ZFP36, and others (for full gene lists, see

Supplemental Table S1). Some other stimulus-responsive genes were also

upregulated in multiple analyses, including *FN1, IRF7,* and *SOCS* genes. Notably, the

upregulated genes in D207G Jurkats and in the D207A-overexpressing BCBL-1 cells

were significantly shorter than all genes and their downregulated counterparts,

indicating that TFIIB stabilization disproportionally upregulates short transcripts (**Fig.**

3G, Supplemental Fig. S2D). Such genes tend to be stimulus-responsive and are often

immune-related and/or proto-oncogenic (Tullai et al. 2007; Lopes et al. 2021).

TFIIB cleavage dampens expression of stress-induced genes with pre-assembled

RNAP II PICs

We were intrigued by the observation that TFIIB cleavage controls many stress-

responsive genes. In general, such loci are not constitutively expressed at high levels

but rather are rapidly induced following perturbation and need to be efficiently

downregulated as the cell resolves the stress or undergoes apoptosis (Bahrami and

Drabløs 2016). Holistically, genes upregulated in D207G-edited Jurkat cells indeed

exhibit lower or undetectable expression under basal conditions and are upregulated

after stimulation with TRAIL **(Fig. 4A-B, Supplemental Fig. S6A)**. We wondered if this

transcription induction required *de novo* PIC assembly or whether their promoters are

pre-loaded with TFIIB and RNAP II.

To measure TFIIB and RNAP II occupancy at TFIIB cleavage-sensitive genes, we

performed chromatin immunoprecipitation and sequencing (ChIP-seq) using antibodies

against the N-terminus of the RNAP II catalytic subunit RPB1 or against V5 in Jurkat

cells stably expressing V5-tagged TFIIB (TFIIB-V5). We used an siRNA-resistant TFIIB-

V5 under an inducible promoter, such that doxycycline induction with siRNA-mediated

depletion of endogenous TFIIB yielded tagged TFIIB protein expression at near-

endogenous levels (**Supplemental Fig. S6B-C**). As expected, there was broad

promoter occupancy of RPB1 and TFIIB in mock cells and a strong reduction in

occupancy of both upon TRAIL treatment, which corresponded well with a general

suppression of the transcriptome by RNA-seq (**Supplemental Fig. S6D-F**). The cleaved

TFIIB-V5 fragment did not appear to occupy DNA independently since the correlation of

RPB1 and V5 binding during TRAIL treatment did not differ substantially from mock, and

there were no V5-enriched loci in the absence of RPB1 binding (**Supplemental Fig.**

S6G).

Metagene profiles revealed that TFIIB D207G-sensitive genes contained both RNAP II

and TFIIB in unstressed (mock) cells (**Fig. 4C-D, Supplemental Fig. S7A-B**), even

though most genes were not strongly expressed under these conditions (**Fig. 4A,**

Supplemental Fig. S6A). However, upon TRAIL treatment — when their gene

expression was induced — TFIIB-V5 levels were diminished (**Fig. 4D**). This suggests

that rather than *de novo* PIC recruitment at these loci, cells maintain ongoing RNAP II

initiation and pausing for a swift transcriptional response upon perturbation, a

characteristic of rapid response genes (Tullai et al. 2007). The observation that the

TFIIB D207G mutation leads to enhanced levels of transcriptional induction indicates

that TFIIB cleavage at these loci dampens their transcription, perhaps to prevent an

over-exuberant response.

Some stress response genes are regulated by Negative Elongation Factor (NELF)-

mediated RNAP II promoter pausing, which prevents transcriptional elongation until

relieved during stimulation (Amir-Zilberstein et al. 2007; Gilchrist et al. 2008; Bahrami

and Drabløs 2016). Consistent with this model, we found that TFIIB cleavage-sensitive

genes in lymphocytes were significantly enriched for targets of NELFE **(Fig. 4E)**.

Analysis of published NELFE ChIP-seq in K562 cells (ENCODE 2012) confirmed a peak

of NELFE occupancy near transcription start sites of these loci **(Supplemental Fig.**

S7C).

These genes were also enriched for associations with other transcription factors,

including KLF4 **(Fig. 4E)**, a known regulator of several pathways that coincide with our

recurrent MSigDB enrichments, including TGF-β and NF-κB (Ghaleb and Yang 2017).

Discriminative MEME analysis of regions upstream of these loci showed enrichment for

a GC-rich KLF and SP transcription factor family binding motif **(Supplemental Fig.**

S7D). We verified with available MCF-7 ChIP data that promoter regions of D207G-

induced genes exhibit occupancy of both KLF4 and SP1 **(Supplemental Fig. S7C)**

(ENCODE 2012). Like KLF4, SP1 is a modulator of NF-κB-driven gene expression and

of immediate response genes (Hirano et al. 1998; Fowler et al. 2011). Collectively, these

data highlight how stress response genes that are highly sensitive to TFIIB cleavage

may be regulated by specific transcription factor interactions with RNAP II machinery

constitutively present at their promoters.

Failure to cleave TFIIB causes aberrant proliferation of cells treated with

etoposide and antimycin A

Since TFIIB cleavage during stress dampens the transcription of some mitogenic and

pro-survival stress response genes, we hypothesized that failure to cleave TFIIB may

cause aberrant cellular proliferation. We therefore performed a cell growth assay in

which GFP-labelled control and mCherry-labelled D207G Jurkat cell pools were

competed against each other in the presence of stress-inducing agents, including drugs

with chemotherapeutic, anti-inflammatory, and neurological effects (**Fig. 5A**). The ratio

of mCherry to GFP was calculated as a proxy for D207G cell fitness.

Among the panel of chemical stressors tested, two candidates significantly altered the

D207G:control ratio **(Supplemental Fig. S8A-B)** — the topoisomerase inhibitor

etoposide, which is a chemotherapeutic agent used to treat various cancers, including

those caused by KSHV, and the mitochondrial stressor antimycin A. The D207G cells

outgrew the control cells in both cases and in a dose-dependent manner **(Fig. 5B,**

Supplemental Fig. S8C-D). This was not due to accelerated basal proliferation, as the

D207G:control ratio in untreated and DMSO-treated populations did not increase over

time. Thus, the inability to cleave TFIIB during stress can dispose cells to an abnormal

state of proliferation.

Discussion

Here, we uncover a mechanism by which cells dynamically alter protein abundance of

the basal RNAP II general transcription factor TFIIB during a variety of stresses,

including TRAIL treatment, DNA damage, translational stress, and KSHV lytic

reactivation. Executioner caspases-3/7 cleave TFIIB at a highly conserved site located

between its two cyclin folds that engage promoter DNA, which may impair its ability to

form and maintain stable pre-initiation complexes. This tunes the expression of a select

set of stress-responsive loci at which TFIIB-containing PICs are pre-assembled but

largely quiescent until stimulated. Stressed cells unable to cleave TFIIB exhibit

excessive transcription of these genes, a number of which are associated with pro-

survival and mitogenic signaling. Functionally, we demonstrate that this can result in

increased KSHV lytic gene expression and aberrant cellular proliferation **(Fig. 5C)**.

Stress selectively reshapes transcription by targeting RNAP II protein machinery

Rapid responses to environmental stimuli are essential for viability. Repression of bulk

transcription may play a key role in shifting resources to activate stress response or

antiviral genes, as well as potentiate cellular shutdown when cell death is triggered.

Several mechanisms exist to post-translationally regulate RNAP II, including ubiquitin-

mediated degradation of the RNAP II catalytic subunit RPB1 during genotoxic stress

(Wilson et al. 2013; Caron et al. 2019; Tufegdžić Vidaković et al. 2020). This promotes

temporary transcriptional shutdown of short, pro-growth and oncogenic transcripts

(Tullai et al. 2007; Tufegdžić Vidaković et al. 2020).

Analogously, caspase-mediated decay of TFIIB during cellular stress suppresses

improper activation of a subset of genes, many of which are short and have reported

oncogenic activity. Despite the broad requirement for TFIIB at cellular promoters

(Santana et al. 2022), we found that a restricted number of transcripts are highly

sensitive to TFIIB cleavage. The ability of a core component of the transcriptional

machinery to selectively impact specific genes has also been observed in the broader

scope of the RNAP II holoenzyme; for example, degron-tagging and depletion of RNAP

II complex subunits revealed considerable heterogeneity in transcriptional responses (Li

et al. 2022). Hence, while the integrity of basal RNAP II machinery is important for

cellular homeostasis, there are surprisingly specific regulatory effects from modulating

its individual components.

TFIIB cleavage sensitivity and gene expression kinetics

Our data indicate that genes sensitive to TFIIB cleavage in lymphocytes are

predominantly stress-induced, including immediate early response genes and those

associated with pro-survival and inflammatory responses. Basal occupancy of RNAP II

and TFIIB at many of these loci in unperturbed cells points to their being readied for

rapid activation upon stimulation but restrained until then by factors like NELFE that

prevent RNAP II elongation. Their expression may also be coordinated by transcription

factors such as KLF4 and SP1, which appear to bind the promoter regions of TFIIB-

responsive genes and have been linked to many of the same pathways. A previous

study of TFIIB knockdown in HeLa cells found that TFIIB-sensitive genes require *de*

novo RNAP II recruitment (Haas et al. 2018). Although we observe basal RNAP II

occupancy at TFIIB-sensitive genes in T cells, this does not preclude additional RNAP II

recruitment to TFIIB-sensitive promoters. Upon stimulation, we hypothesize that the pre-

assembled TFIIB-containing PICs initiate multiple rounds of transcription of stress

response genes. However, as caspase activation decreases TFIIB, this eventually leads

to downregulation of these promoters and perhaps shifts gene expression towards cell

death. In this way, TFIIB could serve as a rheostat, tuning transcription appropriately

based on its protein levels and the cell stress context.

The temporality of TFIIB cleavage may influence shifts in gene expression. Intriguingly,

the TSVD caspase-3/7 recognition motif within TFIIB does not adhere to the optimal

DEVD recognition motif, nor does it contain the canonical negatively charged residue in

the P4 position (Julien and Wells 2017). The non-canonical TS residues in the

respective P4 and P3 locations may attenuate caspase recognition efficiency (Julien

and Wells 2017) and potentially delay cleavage of TFIIB relative to other substrates.

Cells with less potent cell death pathways may consequently retain greater TFIIB

abundance. Conversely, not all caspase activity results in apoptosis (Nakajima and

Kuranaga 2017), and thus, caspase-mediated regulation of TFIIB may also influence

processes unrelated to cell death.

Physiological context of TFIIB regulation

Physiological context of TFIIB regulation

B and T lymphocytes exhibit high rates of turnover (Young et al. 1995) and are strictly

controlled by cell death at various stages, including during maturation and in the post-

immune response "contraction" phase (Zhang et al. 2005; Shah et al. 2021). These cells

exist under a fine balance of cell death and survival pathways (Thome and Tschopp

2001; Sen 2006), the dysregulation of which can lead to lymphoproliferative disorders

(Justiz Vaillant and Stang 2025). In this regard, our finding that TFIIB(D207G)-edited

cells have a competitive growth advantage during mitochondrial stress and DNA

damage underscores the physiological importance of this mechanism of TFIIB

regulation.

We also found that viral gene expression in KSHV-reactivated B cells was boosted in

the presence of uncleavable TFIIB. Control of TFIIB, and more broadly RNAPII, is an

important component of virus-host interactions (O'Brien and Ansari 2021; Gulyas and

Glaunsinger 2022). RNA viruses that do not use cellular RNAPII for gene transcription

can selectively cripple host gene expression by targeting core general transcription

factors like TFIIB, thereby limiting antiviral gene expression (Vogt et al. 2008; Haas et

al. 2018). However, nuclear replicating DNA viruses must hijack cellular transcriptional

machinery for viral gene expression. Caspase regulation of TFIIB may therefore also be

an antiviral response geared towards restricting viral access to functional transcriptional

machinery while maintaining sufficient levels to activate anti-viral genes. Future

research on the biophysical and temporal control of this process should yield key

insights into how cells and viruses tune gene expression through modulation of TFIIB.

Materials and Methods

Methods for supplemental data are found in **Supplemental Materials and Methods**.

Cloning

The TFIIB sequence (synthesized by Twist Bioscience) for cloned constructs was

modified to preserve the amino acid sequence but be resistant to Dharmacon OnTarget

and Accell human *GTF2B* siRNAs. For strep-tagged constructs, TFIIB was Infusion

(Takara Bio) cloned into XhoI site of pcDNA4/TO-2xStrep (pCDNA4/TO Invitrogen

vector modified to include a C-terminal 2xStrep tag). TFIIB-2xStrep was Infusion cloned

into the Sfi1 site of a sleeping beauty plasmid pSBbi-GP (Addgene #60511, gift from

Eric Kowarz) derivative lacking EGFP to make the TFIIB-2xStrep expression vector

(Addgene #213919). Derivative point mutant plasmids D207A, S65A, and S65E

(Addgene # pending) were made by inverse PCR as described previously (Silva et al.

2023). The siRNA resistant 6xHis-TFIIB-V5 construct was synthesized by Twist,

amplified, and InFusion subcloned with a PCR-amplified sleeping beauty plasmid

pSBtet-BB backbone (Addgene #60505, gift from Eric Kowarz) (Addgene # pending).

Sleeping beauty vectors and the sleeping beauty transposase plasmid were provided by

Nicholas Ingolia (UC Berkeley); the sleeping beauty system was described previously

(Kowarz et al. 2015).

All plasmids were validated by full-plasmid sequencing and deposited on Addgene.

Primer and DNA sequences are available in **Supplemental Table S2**.

Cell line generation, maintenance, and reactivation

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

and cell density was kept at 0.5- 2 × 10^6 cells/mL. TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells (generously

provided by the lab of Jae Jung) (Nakamura et al. 2003) 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). Unless otherwise noted, cell concentration was ~1 × 10^6 cells/mL when

reactivated with 1 μg/mL doxycycline or drug-treated. Jurkat cells (obtained from the UC

Berkeley Cell Culture facility) were maintained in RPMI 1640 media (Gibco) with 1X

GlutaMAX (Gibco), 10 % Tet-free FBS (via UC Berkeley Cell Culture Facility), 1mM

sodium pyruvate, and 1X Pen-Strep (Gicbo).

BCBL-1 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 (1350 V, 1 × 40 ms pulse-length)

with 2 μg DNA in a 100 µL tip. The TFIIB-2xStrep vector and point mutant derivatives

       were

delivered with a 1:20 mass ratio of transposase to delivery vector. Cells were selected

with 1 μg/mL puromycin 24 h post-nucleofection. 6xHis-TFIIB-V5 expressing Jurkat

cells were generated identically but with 2.5 μg DNA (1700 V, 1 × 20 ms pulse-length)

and 10 μg/mL blasticidin HCl (Gibco) selection.

Jurkat base-editing and labeling

Cells were base edited by nucleofecting (Neon Transfection System per manufacturer's

instructions; 1700 V, 1 × 20 ms pulse-length, 10 μL tip) 1×10^6 low passage Jurkat cells

with 1.63 μg A•G base editor RNA and 1 μg sgRNA (IDT) containing target sequences

(**Supplemental Table S2**) predicted by the UCSC Genome Browser (Perez et al. 2025).

The AAVS1 safe sequence was previously published (Li et al. 2019). The *in vitro* ABE8e

base editor RNA from Addgene #138489 (gift of David Liu) was generously provided by

Dr. Fyodor Urnov (UC Berkeley).

mCherry (pLVX-mCherry-P2A-Blasticidin) and GFP (pLVX-GFP-P2A-Blasticidin)

(Haakonsen et al. 2024) labelling plasmids were generously provided by Michael Rapé

(UC Berkeley). Labelling of base-edited pooled populations was performed via 2nd

generation lentiviral transduction: 1×10^6 Lenti-X 293T cells (Clonetech/Takara via the

UC Berkeley Tissue Culture Facility) maintained in DMEM (Gibco) with 10% FBS were

transfected (manufacturer's protocol) using Mirus *Trans*IT-293 Transfection Reagent

with 250 ng pCMV-VSV-G (Addgene #8454, gift of Bob Weinberg), 1250 ng psPAX2

(Addgene #12260; gift of Didier Trono), and 1250 ng lentivector. Lentivirus was

harvested at 48 h, 0.45 μm filtered, and 3 mL of viral product was mixed with 5 × 10^6

base edited Jurkat cells in 2 mL of media (D207G guide populations received mCherry;

AAVS1 control received GFP), and 10 μg/mL polybrene (Sigma). Cells were spinfected

at 800 × g for 2 h at 32ºC, resuspended in 5 mL fresh media, recovered for 48 h, and

selected with 5 μg/mL blasticidin HCl.

siRNA knockdowns

After 24h of doxycycline-induction (2.5 μg/mL) of siRNA-resistant 6xHis-TFIIB-V5 in

Jurkat cells, endogenous protein was knocked down by siRNA. 3 × 10^6 Jurkat cells

were prepared in 100 μL of resuspension buffer T (Invitrogen) and 3 μM 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 (1700 V, 1 × 20 ms pulse-length) with the Neon Transfection System

(Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. siRNA treatments for ChIP-

sequencing were performed identically on 10 × 10^6 Jurkat cells with 10 μM each of On-

Target Plus human *GTF2B* siRNA SmartPool and Accell human *GTF2B* siRNA

SmartPool.

Caspase-3/7 knockdowns were performed with the following modifications: 3 × 10^6

BCBL-1 cells were nucleofected (1350 V, 1 × 40 ms pulse-length) in 3 μM of either

Dharmacon human *Casp3* and/or *Casp7* Accell SmartPool siRNA and 3 uM Dharmacon

human OnTarget *Casp3* and/or *Casp7* SmartPool. Non-targeting Accell and OnTarget

siRNA (siNTC) was used as a control.

Western blotting

Cells were 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), followed by sonication (1 min, 100

A, 3 s on/17 s off), 1% Benzonase (Millipore) treatment, and centrifugation (21,000 x g,

10 min, 4°C). Diluted samples were quantified by Pierce 660 assay with 0.8% Triton-X.

10-30 μg lysate was denatured in Laemmli Buffer (Bio-Rad), resolved by SDS-Page and

transferred to PVDF membrane with a Trans-Blot Turbo apparatus (Bio-Rad, Mixed

Molecular Weight protocol). Western blotting was performed with Tris-buffered saline

and 0.2% Tween-20 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), Vinculin (Abcam- ab91459, 1:1000), Caspase-3 (Cell Signaling-9662, 1:1000),

Caspase-7 (Cell Signaling-9492, 1:1000), V5 (clone D3H8Q, Cell Signaling-13202),

Goat Anti-Mouse IgG(H+L) or 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). Blots were developed with 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 v. 6.0.1 with 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.

RNA-sequencing

RNA-seq experiments were conducted in triplicate as follows with the noted

specifications. Cells were washed and pelleted, then total RNA was collected in 1 mL

TRIzol (Invitrogen) and isolated by 1 × 200 uL chloroform extraction as outlined

previously (Toni et al. 2018), including precipitation in 500 uL isopropanol with 1%

glycogen and 10% 3 M sodium acetate. RNA concentration was quantified by Qubit 3

Fluorometer with High Sensitivity RNA Kit (Invitrogen). Prior to library prep, ERCC RNA

Spike-in mix (Invitrogen) was added to all input samples per the manufacturer's

instructions. TFIIB-2xStrep/TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep libraries were prepped by the KAPA

RNA Hyperprep Kit with RiboErase (Roche) using 1,000 ng input RNA, with

fragmentation at 94°C for 6 min, ligation with KAPA Unique Dual-Indexed adaptors

(Roche), and amplification for 7 cycles. Library quality was confirmed 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-2xStrep/TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep libraries were sequenced on 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 the UC Davis Bioinformatics Core RNA-seq workflow.

Sequencing quality was assessed with MultiQC, and reads were preprocessed with

HTStream v. 1.3.0, including deduplication. Genome indices were prepared using STAR

v. 2.7.1a (Dobin et al. 2013). 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 parent viral

transcript in a custom gene annotation. Preprocessed reads were aligned with STAR,

and count files were generated for 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 averaged. Any transcript with no

reads in some or all replicates and conditions was eliminated from further analysis.

Heatmaps were generated using the matplotlib, pandas, and seaborn packages in

Spyder v. 5.3.3. Nascent cellular RNA counts were estimated by the eisaR package as

described (Gaidatzis et al. 2015). Library size normalization (TMM method) was used

since bulk RNA of the same treatment showed minimal variance. Differential gene

expression analysis for bulk and nascent RNA was conducted in RStudio v.

2024.12.1+563 with the Bioconductor package using edgeR with limma/voom

developed and described by Law et al. (Law et al. 2018). Bulk RNA was normalized to

ERCC Spike-In and multiple testing was compensated for using the Benjamini-

Hochberg correction. Gene annotations are from the BioMart Ensembl Genes 109

database. Plots and statistics were generated with R ggplot2 and VennDiagram.

Enrichment analyses are from Molecular Signatures Database Hallmark 2020 and

Encode and ChEA Consensus TFs from ChIP-X via EnrichR (Liberzon et al. 2011; Chen

et al. 2013; Kuleshov et al. 2016; Xie et al. 2021).

Raw data and counts tables for RNA-seq experiments are available on the GEO

database (accession numbers pending).

SLAM-sequencing

SLAM-seq was performed as above but with the following modifications. After 3 h

treatment of SUPERKILLER TRAIL (250 ng/mL; Enzo) or mock diluent, 300 μM of 4-

thiouridine (4sU) or PBS control was added to 3×10^6 cells. Cells were harvested 3 h

post-4sU for RNA or western blot. RNA extraction (2×200 uL chloroform extraction)

and alkylation were performed using the Lexogen SLAM-seq Anabolic Kinetics Kit

according to the manufacturer's instructions with 2 μL GlycoBlue (Invitrogen) as a co-

precipitant. RNA integrity was checked by TapeStation (Agilent) and quantified using

Qubit Broad Range Sensitivity RNA reagents. ERCC RNA Spike-in mix (Invitrogen) was

added to inputs per the manufacturer's instructions along with 5 ng of *in vitro*

transcribed mixture of both unlabeled and 4sU-labeled spike-ins (synthesized as

described previously (Schwalb et al. 2016; Gressel et al. 2019)).

Inputs for pooled (1000 ng) and clonal (700 ng) line sequencing were alkylated, then

samples were DNase-treated and repurified with RNA Clean and Concentrator kits

(Zymo). Quality and concentration were reassessed by TapeStation and Qubit (~500 ng

final input). Library preparation was performed with fragmentation at 94ºC for 6 minutes.

Pooled line samples were ligated with 3 μM adaptor and amplified for 9 PCR cycles;

clonal samples were ligated with 1.5 μM and amplified for 10 cycles. Samples were

sequenced on a Novaseq X Plus 25B with 150 bp paired-end reads. Incorporation of

4sU was validated by visualization on IGV (Robinson et al. 2011). Nascent RNA counts

were estimated using GRAND-SLAM with default parameters (Jürges et al. 2018). Total

count values were multiplied by the MAP statistic (nascent-to-total ratio) to yield

approximate nascent counts; inestimable values were considered 0. Nascent and bulk

RNA counts were analyzed using edgeR and limma/voom with ERCC Spike-in

normalization from bulk RNA. RNA coverage plots were generated using deepTools

(Ramírez et al. 2016) bamCoverage with spike-in normalized --scaleFactor inputs.

BigWig files for biological triplicates were averaged with bigwigAverage (--binSize 1)

and visualized in IGV.

ChIP-sequencing

Library preparation and sequencing

Jurkat cells expressing 6xHis-TFIIB-V5 were prepared and siRNA-treated as described.

After 24 h, 40×10^6 cells were dosed with 250 ng/mL SUPERKILLER TRAIL (Enzo) or

mock diluent for 4 h. Samples were prepared and DNA sequenced as described

previously (Lari et al. 2025) with the following modifications: during immunoprecipitation,

10 µg of purified chromatin was incubated with 5 µg rabbit monoclonal anti-RPB1 NTD

(clone D8L4Y; Cell Signaling 14958), rabbit polyclonal anti-V5 (Abcam ab15828), or

rabbit IgG (Abcam ab37415) overnight. During library preparation, yeast spike-in DNA

(Cell Signaling) was added for downstream normalization.

Data analysis and visualization

Sequencing quality was assessed with FastQC, and files were trimmed with

Trimmomatic v. 0.39 (Bolger et al. 2014). The human (hg38) and yeast (SacCer3)

genomes were manually indexed using the bowtie2-build command. Processed

sequencing files were aligned to the genomes with bowtie2 v. 2.5.2. Calculated spike-in

normalization factors were proportional to the number of spike-in reads per sample and

applied to generate BigWig files with bamCoverage (--binSize 10, --smoothLength 30, --

extendReads, --centerReads, --normalizeUsing None, and --scaleFactor with the

respective spike-in normalized scale factor). Biological duplicate files were averaged

with the deepTools bigwigCompare function.

Matrices for Rpb1 and V5 coverage profiles were made with deepTools computeMatrix

scale-regions command on the averaged BigWig files (-S), with --skipZeros, --

missingDataAsZero. Bedfiles were obtained from Ensembl BioMart transcript

coordinates. ChIP-seq signal was plotted with plotHeatmap as a histogram with 10bp

bins, 100 bins/gene. ChIP-seq data are deposited on the GEO database (accession

number pending)**.**

Competition assays

1.5 × 10^5 cells each of mCherry-labelled D207G pool and GFP-labelled control pool

were co-cultured in 1 mL media with the indicated times and drug concentrations

(dissolved in DMSO). Population fluorescence was assessed by flow cytometry on a BD

Bioscience LSR Fortessa. 10,000 events/sample were collected, and replicates

represent independent competitions on separate days. All data were analyzed using

FlowJo software (BD Bioscience) with gating for live cells and PE-Texas-Red or FITC

positivity. Normalization is indicated in figure legends.

Data analysis and data visualization

Data quantifications, statistical analyses, and/or visualization for competition assays and

enrichment were conducted in GraphPad Prism v. 9-10.10. The Multiple Sequence

Alignment (MSA) was generated from TFIIB protein sequences obtained through

UniProt (uniprot.org) and analyzed in JalView v. 2.11.4.1 (Waterhouse et al. 2009;

Troshin et al. 2011; Troshin et al. 2018) with a human reference and Clustal X

coloring/annotation. Protein structures were visualized in UCSF ChimeraX v. 1.9

(Pettersen et al. 2021). All schematics were made with BioRender.com (licenses to be

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Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests to report.

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Author contributions

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L.G., A.L., S.B.S; writing, L.G. and B.A.G.; formal analysis, L.G., A.L, S.B.S., and

B.A.G.; project administration, L.G. and B.A.G; supervision and funding acquisition,

B.A.G.

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Figure 1. Cellular stress depletes TFIIB via caspase-3/7 cleavage at the D207 residue. (A) BCBL-1 cells expressing the indicated constructs were mock-treated or treated with 25 µM etoposide (Etop) or 2 µg/mL doxycycline (Dox) for 24h, or 100 µg/mL cycloheximide (Chx) for 6 h and analyzed by western blotting. Black arrow indicates full length strep-tagged TFIIB and gray arrow denotes full-length endogenous TFIIB. **(B)** Western blot of BCBL-1 cells expressing the indicated constructs and treated +/- 100 ng/mL TRAIL ligand for 6 h. Caspase-3 cleavage shows induction of cell death. **(C)** Western blot of Jurkat cells +/- 166 ng/mL TRAIL for 6 h. **(D)** As in *(B)* for 8 h. Black arrow indicates cleavage product. **(E)** Western blots of BCBL-1 cells expressing the indicated constructs and treated with 80 µM of the indicated inhibitor for 2 h, followed by treatment +/- 500 ng/mL TRAIL ligand for 7 h. Contrast is enhanced as indicated for visualization of the cleavage product. **(F)** Cells were nucleofected with the indicated control (siNTC) or targeting siRNAs for 48 h followed by treatment with 100 µg/mL Chx for 0, 3, or 6 h and western blotting. Vinculin and GAPDH are loading controls.

Figure 2. Overexpression of uncleavable TFIIB in apoptosing B cells upregulates some pro-survival genes. (A) Multiple sequence alignment of the TFIIB protein near the D207 locus ranked by evolutionary time. The human sequence is used as a reference with dashes denoting missing areas of homology, and a black arrow indicates the precise location of the caspase cut site. Amino acids are colored with Clustal X scheme in Jalview to represent properties and conservation. **(B)** Structure of the RNAP II / Mediator pre-initiation complex from PDB:7NVR (Aibara et al. 2021) with TFIIB highlighted in green and promoter DNA in blue. Popout: D207 residue is highlighted in magenta between the TFIIB cyclin folds contacting DNA. **(C)** Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes following exon-intron split analysis from BCBL-1 cells containing TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep relative to cells containing wild-type TFIIB-2xStrep after 7 h 660 ng/mL TRAIL treatment. Significantly downregulated genes are in yellow and significantly upregulated genes are in purple. **(D)** Molecular Signatures Database Hallmark 2020 (MSigDB) enrichment from annotated genes in TRAIL-specific upregulated nascent RNA from *(C)*. Bars in pink are enrichments with a significant q-value while those in gray have significant p-values but nonsignificant q-values. **(E)** Heatmap of relative gene expression for KSHV genes in TRExRTA BCBL-1 cells expressing either TFIIB-2xStrep or TFIIB(D207A)-2xStrep +/- 24h dox-

Figure 3. Endogenous TFIIB D207G base editing in T cells dysregulates stress response signaling during apoptosis.
(A) Western blots of control and D207G based edited Jurkat cell pools following treatment +/- 250 ng/mL TRAIL ligand for 6 h. Contrast is enhanced as indicated and GAPDH is a loading control. **(B)** Schematic for SLAM-seq. **(C-D)** Volcano plot showing bulk *(C)* or nascent *(D)* RNA differential gene expression between the TFIIB D207G-#1 guide and the control guide populations. Significantly downregulated genes are in yellow and significantly upregulated genes are in purple. TRAIL-specific gene upregulations: 200 bulk, 55 nascent. **(E)** Venn diagram overlap of genes upregulated in bulk RNA from D207G-#1 and D207G-#2 versus control guide populations. Genes differentially changed under mock conditions are excluded. **(F)** MSigDB enrichment from the 55 gene overlap in *(E)* with significant q-values in pink and non-significant q- but significant p-values in gray. **(G)** Boxplot comparing gene lengths for all genes detectable in the dataset (n = 23,806) and genes downregulated (yellow) or upregulated (purple) in a TRAIL-specific manner in bulk RNA from D207G-#1 or #2 guide cells. Significance values (Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction) are relative to all genes; ***p < 0.001; n.s. is non-significant (p = 0.089).

Figure 4. TFIIB-containing pre-initiation complexes are constitutively assembled at the promoters of TFIIB cleavage-sensitive genes. (A) Boxplot showing log2 normalized expression values for the 21 loci nascently upregulated in both D207G-#1 and D207G-#2 pools relative to the control pool during TRAIL treatment. Values are from nascent RNA expression from SLAM-seq analysis. **(B)** Bulk RNA coverage track of *JUNB* in D207G-#1 or control cells during mock or TRAIL-treatment. **(C-D)** Metagene plot heatmaps and profiles for ChIP-seq signal of RPB1 *(C)* and TFIIB-V5 *(D)* at these transcript coordinates (n = 197). TSS = transcription start site, TES= transcription end site; kilobases plotted up and downstream are indicated. **(E)** Enrichment for transcription factors targeting genes nascently upregulated from TRAIL-treated TFIIB(D207A)-upexpressing BCBL-1 cells, clonal D207G Jurkat cells, or in the D207G-#1 and D207G-#2 Jurkat pool overlap relative to their respective controls was assessed with ENCODE and ChEA Consensus Transcription Factor sites from ChIP-X. All q-values are significant.

Figure 5. TFIIB D207G cells outcompete control cells in co-culture during chemical stress.
(A) Schematic of the cell growth competition assay. Fluorescence measurements quantifying the relative percentage of mCherry and GFP cells were made via flow cytometry. Differences in plating and basal growth were accounted for by normalizing mCherry:GFP ratios to that of a DMSO control measured on Day 3. **(B)** Log$_2$ normalized mCherry:GFP ratios for independent replicates of D207G-#1:control competitions (circles) and D207G-#2:control competitions (triangles). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01; one sample t-test with theoretical mean of 0. **(C)** Schematic of model hypothesizing how TFIIB occupancy and cleavage regulate stress-responsive genes.