A Sequential Triple-Drug Strategy for Selective Targeting of p53-Mutant Cancers.

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SUMMARY

The tumor suppressor *TP53* gene (p53) is mutated in most human malignancies but existing

treatment options are largely ineffective, lack selectivity, and cause toxic side effects. To address

these clinical problems, we have developed a two-drug treatment that induces lethal DNA

damage and G2-arrest in p53 mutant cancer cells. Here, we present a triple-drug therapeutic

strategy that combines our two-drug regimen with a G2-checkpoint kinase inhibitor. The two-

drug treatment with TAS102 plus PARP inhibitor (PARPi) acts as an *inducer-amplifier* pair to

induce DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) and a prolonged G2-arrest specifically in p53 mutant

cells. Subsequent inhibition of the G2-checkpoint kinases, such as WEE1 or ATR, releases these

G2-arrested cells into mitosis, leading to cell death. The delayed administration of a G2-kinase

inhibitor provides p53 wild-type cells with time to repair DNA, thereby minimizing toxicity to

normal tissues. This sequential triple-drug strategy exhibited robust efficacy in preclinical

models of colorectal and pancreatic cancers. Together, our findings illustrate a promising

inducer-amplifier-terminator triple-drug strategy for targeting p53 mutant malignancies.

KEYWORDS: pancreatic cancer, colorectal cancer, poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase, DNA

damage, 5-fluorodeoxyuridine, PARP inhibitor, TAS102, trifluorothymidine

ABBREVIATIONS: BER, base excision repair; CRC, colorectal adenocarcinoma; DSB,

double-strand break; EdUrd, 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyrudine; TFT, trifluorothymidine; HR,

homological recombination; MMR, mismatch repair; mPFS, median progression-free survival;

OS, overall survival; PDAC, pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma; SSB, single-strand break.

INTRODUCTION

Colorectal (CRC) and pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) cancers are among the

leading causes of cancer-related mortality worldwide, posing significant global health

challenges[1]. Despite improvements in early detection [2], CRC remains a considerable clinical

burden, as the majority of patients are diagnosed at advanced stages or progress to metastatic

disease after initial treatment[3]. The 5-year overall survival (OS) rate for patients with metastatic

disease is less than 15% [4, 5]. Similarly, PDAC is an aggressive cancer characterized by rapid

disease progression, early metastasis, and limited response to conventional therapies[6]. The 5-year

OS rate for PDAC for all stages combined remains under 10% despite the use of multi-agent

chemotherapy regimens [6, 7]. For patients with chemotherapy-refractory CRC or PDAC, there are

currently no FDA-approved therapies that extend overall survival beyond 3 months[5, 7]. These

poor clinical outcomes argue for more effective therapeutic strategies that target the molecular

vulnerabilities of these cancers.

The tumor suppressor *TP53* gene is mutated in most cancers, including CRC and PDAC, and

mutant p53 (p53mut) contributes to cancer progression and poor response to therapy[8, 9]. The p53

protein is critical for maintenance of genomic stability by regulating DNA repair and cell cycle

control at the G1/S checkpoint in response to DNA damage[10]. Despite ample knowledge on the

functional consequences of p53 mutations, therapeutic approaches targeting p53mut cancers

have been largely unsuccessful, and the p53 status is largely ignored in the clinical management

of patients[11]. Cancer cells with mutant p53 show a greater reliance on the G2 checkpoint due to

loss of G1-checkpoint control. This vulnerability of p53mut tumors has been explored with

agents targeting the G2 checkpoint alone or in combination with chemotherapeutics, such as

doxorubicin and carboplatin[12-14]. The major limitations of these approaches are the low

selectivity of these therapeutics for p53 status and high hematologic and organ toxicities in

combination therapy[15, 16]. The therapeutic strategies with enhanced selectivity towards p53mut

cancers are needed to improve treatments of these malignancies [10].

Recently, we developed a two-drug therapeutic strategy that induces DNA damage

selectively in p53mut cancer cells [17, 18]. This strategy combines a thymidine analogue TAS102,

acting as an inducer of DNA single-strand breaks (SSBs) through post-replicative DNA repair,

and PARP inhibitor (PARPi) which acts as an amplifier of DNA damage by converting SSBs to

more lethal double-strand DNA breaks (DSBs)[17, 18]. The TAS102-PARPi treatment induces G1-

arrest in wild-type p53 (p53WT) cells, while p53mut cells exhibit high DSB levels, G2-arrest,

and increased cell death [18]. The inducer-amplifier strategy showed greater efficacy in p53mut

cancer models, including CRC and PDAC, compared to either drug alone, while no major

toxicities were observed in mice [17, 18]. This two-drug strategy is being tested in a first-in-human

Phase I clinical trial for patients with refractory CRC using the TAS102-talazoparib combination

(NCT04511039)[19]. The preliminary data showed no significant signs of toxicity and improved

median progression-free survival (mPFS) compared to historical mPFS for TAS102 alone[19].

Here, we show that TAS102-PARPi treatment induces prolonged G2-arrest in p53mut cancer

cells even after drug washout, while non-tumor p53WT cells rapidly repair their DNA and

reenter the cell cycle. The ATR-WEE1 signaling axis is critical for G2-arrest in response to

TAS102-PARPi in p53mut cancer cells. Following TAS102-PARPi treatment, a selective

inhibitor of WEE1 kinase releases p53mut cells with unrepaired DNA into mitosis, leading to

cell death. This sequential approach combining TAS102-PARPi treatment with a WEE1 inhibitor

showed greater tumor control in preclinical models compared to either treatment alone. The

sequential triple-drug regimen was well-tolerated in animals even after extended administration.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture models

Human CRC cell lines HT29 (RRID:CVCL_0320) and DLD1 (RRID:CVCL_0248); human non-tumor breast epithelial MCF10A (RRID: CVCL_0598), human breast cancer MDA-MB-231 (RRID:CVCL_0062) were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) and cultured as recommended by ATCC. Human CRC cell lines HCT116, HCT116-p53(-/-; KO), and HCT116-p53(R248W/-), SW48, SW48-p53(-/-; KO) were from Dr. Bert Vogelstein, Johns Hopkins University. Human CRC RKO and RKO-p53(-/-, KO) cell lines were from Dr. Alessandro Carugo, IRBM European School of Molecular Medicine, Italia. The genetics information details for the cell line and PDX models are presented in **Key Resources Table**. All human cell lines were authenticated using short tandem repeat profiling by ATCC or the Roswell Park Genomic Shared Resource within the last three years. The cells were routinely screened for mycoplasma, and all studies made use of mycoplasma-free cells. Cell cultures were maintained in media and incubated as recommended by ATCC.

Xenograft animal models

Female SCID/CB17 mice (6-7-week-old) were obtained from a colony of SCID/CB17 mice bred and maintained at the Animal Facility of the Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center. Pancreatic patient derived xenografts (Panc-PDX-14312-4p) were implanted sc into SCID mice, while colorectal patient derived xenografts (CRC PDX-3B1-29-3p) were grown in NOD.Cg-Prkdc^{scid} Il2rg^{tm1Wjl}/SzJ mice (Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME), also known as NOD SCID gamma (NSG). Animals were kept in microinsulator units and provided with food and water *ad libitum* according to a protocol and guidelines approved by the Institute Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). The facility is certified by the American Association for Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC) and in accordance with current regulation and standards of the US Department of Agriculture and the US Department of Health and Human Services.

Cell-derived xenografts in mice

Female SCID/CB17 mice (6−8-week-old) were obtained from a colony of SCID/CB17 mice bred

and maintained at the Animal Facility of the Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center.

Animals were kept in microinsulator units and were provided with food and water *ad libitum*

according to a protocol and guidelines approved by the Institute Animal Care and Use

Committee (IACUC). The facility is certified by the American Association for Accreditation of

Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC) and is in accordance with current regulations and standards

of the US Department of Agriculture and the US Department of Health and Human Services.

Mice were inoculated subcutaneously into the left flank with exponentially growing HT29 tumor

cells at (1×10^6/mouse). Tumor growth was monitored by measuring tumor diameters with

electronic calipers twice/a week. Volumes were calculated using the formula (length) ×

(width)^2/2. Mouse weights were measured twice/week. Once the tumor volume reached 50-100

mm^3, mice were randomly assigned (n = 8-10/group) into four treatment arms: (1) vehicle

control, (2) WEE1 inhibitor (WEE1i, adavosertib, MK-1775, 40-60 mg/kg), (3) TAS102-

talazoparib (TAS102: 50 mg/kg, talazoparib: 0.150 mg/kg), and (4) sequential regimen

(TAS102-talazoparib for one week followed by WEE1i in the second week). TAS102 and

talazoparib were dissolved in 12% HPCD (2-hydroxypropyl)-β-cyclodextrin in DPBS, while

MK-1775 was prepared in 5% DMSO, 40% PEG300, 5% Tween-80, and 50% saline. All drugs

were freshly prepared and administered via oral gavage on a 5-days-on, 2-days-off schedule. At

the tumor diameter of 2cm^3, mice were euthanized and subjected to necropsy and organ

collection. Tumor growth assessment was stopped once a mouse reached the endpoint (typically

in a vehicle-treated cohort) while the survival data were still collected in the study. Tumor tissues

were collected by snap-freezing in liquid nitrogen for RNA and protein analyses. Blood was

collected for CBC by cardiac puncture.

Patient Derived Xenograft (PDX)

Donor and experimental pancreatic patient-derived xenografts (PDAC-PDX-14312-4p) were

implanted subcutaneously into SCID mice, while colorectal patient-derived xenografts (CRC

PDX-3B1-29-RP-3p; APC E1353*, KRAS-G12D, TP53-R213*, PIK3CA-E545K) were grown

in NOD-Cg-Prkdcscid Il2rgtm1Wjl/SzJ mice (Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME), also known

as NOD SCID gamma (NSG). Tumors were grown in donor mice to a volume of ~1500mm^3,

harvested rapidly after euthanasia, cut into 2×2×2 mm^3 pieces under sterile conditions, and

surgically implanted into the left flank. Surgical staples were removed about ten days post

implantation, and tumor growth and mouse weights were measured two times a week. At the

average tumor volume of 100mm^3, mice were randomized and treated as described above.

Complete Blood Counts

Blood was collected by cardiac puncture into a tube containing EDTA to prevent coagulation at

the endpoint of the study. Analysis was performed using the HemaTrue Analyzer and

HeskaView Integrated Software version 2.5.2. The graphs for the blood compounds were

generated using GraphPad Prism8 (Version 8.4.2).

Immunoblotting

Whole-cell lysates were prepared using NP40 Lysis Buffer (0.88% NP-40, 132 mM NaCl, 44

mM HEPES, and 8.8 mM NaF) supplemented with 2 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1 mM PMSF,

and Protease Inhibitor Cocktail. Protein concentrations were quantitated using the Bio-Rad DC

Protein Assay (Cat# 5000111). An equal concentration of protein from each sample was

calculated, boiled at 100°C for 5 minutes, and resolved by SDS-PAGE at a constant voltage of

100V. Proteins were then transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane (0.2-µm pore size) at a

constant voltage of 100V for 120 minutes at 4°C. Membranes were blocked in 1X TBS-T (Tris-

buffered saline (TBS) with 0.1% v/v TWEEN-20) and 5% w/v non-fat dry milk. Primary

antibodies (listed in Table 2) were diluted in 5% BSA or 5% of milk in 1X TBS-T and incubated

overnight at 4°C. The membranes were washed three times with 1X TBST for 10 minutes each,

then incubated with secondary mouse or rabbit HRP-conjugated antibody for 1 hour at room

temperature (listed in Table 2). The membranes were washed three times with 1X TBST for 15

minutes each. Pierce ECL Western Blotting Substrate was used for chemiluminescent detection.

Signals were visualized and imaged using radiographic films.

Cell cycle analysis by Flow Cytometry

Cells were seeded at 300,000 cells/well in 6-well plates and then treated with various amounts of

talazoparib for 24 h. Collected cells were fixed with ice-cold 70% ethanol for 1 hour at -20°C

and stained for 1 hour at 4°C in Krishan DNA Buffer (propidium iodide, sodium citrate, RNase

A, NP40, and 0.1 mM HCl). The samples were analyzed on a BD LSR Fortessa cytometer

running FACS Diva (Version 6.1.3), and the data were processed using FCS Express 7 (Version

7.06.0015). Experiments were repeated twice, and representative histograms are shown.

Cytotoxicity

Cells were seeded at a density of 5,000 cells per well in a 96-well plate. After 24 hours, cells

were treated with TAS102 at a range of concentrations in the presence of 100nM talazoparib,

and/or the G2 kinase inhibitors at various concentrations for 72 hours. Cells were stained with

1% methylene blue for 30 minutes, rinsed with water, and dried overnight. The next day, cells

were solubilized in 5% SDS prepared in PBS, and absorbance was measured at 650 nm. IC50

values were calculated using GraphPad Prism (Version 10.0.3). Combination Index (CI) values

were calculated based on the Loewe Additivity Model as implemented in the SynergyFinder R

package using the following formula: $CI = D1/IC50_1 + D2/IC50_2$, where D1 and D2 are the

concentrations of drugs 1 and 2 used in the combination, while $IC50_1$ and $IC50_2$ are the

concentrations of drugs 1 and 2 inhibiting 50% of the activity when used individually. Each dot

in the Scatter plot represents the drug interaction in the combination at specific concentrations,

plotted against the fraction affected (Fa). The CI values are distributed below, at, or above the

threshold of 1, indicating synergy (CI < 1), additivity (CI = 1), or antagonism (CI > 1).

Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Freshly isolated tumors were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat.

#HT501128) for 48 hours, then transferred to 70% ethanol for dehydration, before embedding in

paraffin by Roswell Park's Pathology Network Shared Resources (PNSR) into formalin-fixed

paraffin-embedded (FFPE) blocks. Staining for hematoxylin & eosin (H&E) and for p-Y15-

CDK1, Cyclin B1, and p-S10-HH3 were performed by the PNSR. Antibodies and reagents are

listed in **Key Resources Table.** Slides were scanned by Aperio ImageScope version 12.4.0.5043,

and representative images were captured at 20x magnification. Three representative tumors from

each treatment group were used for quantification. A minimum of eight fields of view (FOV)

were analyzed for each tumor sample. Entire stained tissue sections were scanned, and the areas

of highest density for immunoreactivity ("hot spots") were manually selected for quantification.

Each "hot spot" was recorded at 20x magnification. The positive area was calculated using the

formula: Negative area – Positive area × 100) in ImageJ. Data were reported as mean and

standard error (mean +- SE). Data were presented using GraphPad Prism8 (Version 8.4.2).

Annexin-V staining

Following drug exposure, cells were trypsinized, washed with PBS, and resuspended

in Annexin-binding buffer. Dead cells were stained for annexin-V (surface marker) and DNA

with propidium iodide according to the manufacturer's instructions (Dead Cell Apoptosis Kit

with Annexin-V-FITC and PI, for flow cytometry, ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat. No.: V13242).

The samples were processed on a BD LSR Fortessa cytometer running FACS Diva (Version

6.1.3), and the data were analyzed using FCS Express 7 (Version 7.06.0015). Experiments were

repeated twice, and representative histograms were shown.

Immunofluorescence microscopy

Cells were grown on glass coverslips for 24 hours and then treated with 500nM TAS102, 100nM

talazoparib, or their combination for the indicated time; alternatively, cell were treated with

TAS102-talazoparib for 25 hours following drug withdrawal in incubation for indicated time.

Cells were fixed with 4% PFA and permeabilized with 0.05% Triton X-100. Samples were

blocked with 3% milk in PBS and probed with γH2AX and RAD51 antibodies in 1% milk,

followed by a wash in PBS and incubation with fluorescent secondary antibodies in 0.5% milk.

Samples were washed with PBS three times and DNA was labeled with Hoechst 33342 before

mounting on glass slides. Fluorescence images were taken with a Plan Apochromat 100x

objective (1.40 NA mineral oil) at ambient temperature using a Nikon TE2000-E inverted

microscope equipped with a charge-coupled device camera (CoolSNAP HQ; Photometrics). The

levels of γH2AX and RAD51 were assessed by measuring cellular fluorescence intensity as the

Corrected Total Cellular Fluorescence (CTCF). Briefly, a minimum of six random fields per

treatment group were evaluated using MetaVue imaging software (Version 7.7.3, Molecular

Devices). Three background readings were measured for each field of view and individual cells

that were positively stained with γH2AX and RAD51 were selected with a region freehand tool.

For each treatment group, >40 cells were evaluated and the CTCF values were calculated using

the formula: integrated density – (area of cell × average background fluorescence). The CTCF

values were reported as mean and standard error (mean +- SE). Data was presented using

GraphPad Prism8 (Version 8.4.2).

RNA sequence

Cells were seeded at a density of 1×10^6 cells in a 100mm dish, and the following day media was

replaced with base media containing 5% FBS for 6 hours. Cells were then treated with 500nM

TAS102, 100nM talazoparib or their combination for 24 hours. Next day, cells were lysed with

TRIzol reagent (Thermofisher Scientific; Cat # 15596026). RNA was isolated using Direct-zol

RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research; Cat # R2050). The sequencing libraries are prepared from

500ng total RNA using the mRNA HyperPrep kit (Roche) and following manufacturer's

instructions. The polyA+ RNA population was captured using the mRNA Capture Beads and

then utilized for cDNA synthesis using random primers and reverse transcriptase. cDNA was

converted into blunt-ended double-strand DNA using Taq pol (overhanging A) and purified

using Pure Beads (Roche). Multiple indexing adapters with overhanging T at the 3' end were

ligated to the ds-cDNA ends. Adapter ligated ds-cDNA libraries were amplified by PCR,

purified using Pure Beads, and then were validated for appropriate size on a 4200 TapeStation

D1000 Screentape (Agilent Technologies, Inc.). The DNA libraries are quantitated using KAPA

Biosystems qPCR kit, and are pooled together in an equimolar ratio, following experimental

design criteria. Each pool is denatured and diluted to 200pM with 1% PhiX control library

added. The resulting pool is then loaded into the appropriate NovaSeq Reagent cartridge, as

determined by the desired sequencing depth and number of samples. 100-cycle paired-end

sequencing is then performed on a NovaSeq6000 following the manufacturer's recommended

protocol (Illumina Inc.).

Raw count files were generated from FASTQ files using UB CCR's HPC nr-core/rnaseq pipeline

(https://nf-co.re/rnaseq/3.12.0). Raw sequencing reads passed quality filters from Illumina RTA

were first pre-processed by using FASTQC (v0.11.8) for sequencing base quality control. The

reads were mapped to GRCh38 human reference genome and the GENCODE (v38) (128)

annotation database using STAR (v2.7.9a). Counts from RSEM were filtered and then upper

quartile normalized using R package edgeR. Gene Ontology analysis of biological processes

pathways was selected based on adjusted p-values, and the NES was calculated by ranking all

genes based on their differential expression, calculating the Enrichment Score (ES) for each gene

set, and normalizing the ES by dividing it by the mean ES values from random permutations.

Cell-cycle genes in the heatmap were derived from the Cyclebase 3.0 database.

Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism software (Version 10.0.3) unless

otherwise indicated. The data represent biological replicates (n) as mean value with standard

error (mean ± SE). Statistical significance of data comparisons was determined using the

Student's unpaired *t*-test with a two-tailed distribution, one way ANOVA, or two-way ANOVA

with a Tukey multiple comparisons test or with Sidak's multiple comparisons test as indicated in

figure legends. Statistical significance was achieved when $P<0.05$. The correlation analysis was

performed using Pearson correlation approach in RStudio. Survival was evaluated using the

Kaplan-Meier estimator with the log-rank test, based on time-to-arrive at a defined tumor volume

using GraphPad Prism. Cytotoxicity data were normalized to control and IC50 was calculated

using three-parameter nonlinear regression.

RESULTS

The TAS102-talazoparib treatment activates DNA damage response and arrests cells in G2.

Prior studies have shown that incorporation into DNA of thymidine analogues (i..e., ethynyl-

deoxyuridine, EdU, or trifluorothymidine, a component of TAS102) triggers post-replicative

repair that results in single-strand DNA break (SSB) intermediates [17, 18]. Addition of PARP

inhibitor (PARPi) greatly increases formation of double-strand breaks (DSBs) [17, 18]. DNA

damage activates p53-dependent G1 checkpoint and DNA repair in non-tumor p53WT cells,

whereas p53mut cells (exhibiting a compromised G1 checkpoint) accumulate DSBs and respond

with the G2 checkpoint [17, 18]. To define the molecular mechanisms of the G2 checkpoint response

to TAS102-PARPi treatment, isogenic CRC cell lines were utilized with p53WT, p53mut or p53-

deletion (KO, knockout). Treatment with talazoparib (PARPi) for 24 hours increased the G2

population in p53mut and p53KO cells while had little effects in p53WT cells, whereas TAS102

alone increased the G2 population in p53mut/p53KO cells and a moderate G2 increase in p53WT

cells (**Fig. 1a-b**). TAS102-talazoparib treatment (TAS-Tal) exerted in p53mut/p53KO cells a

strong increase in the G2 population and a reciprocal decrease in G1-population, and these

changes were statistically significant (**Fig.1a-b**). In p53WT cells, the combination did not

increase G2-population compared to TAS102 alone. The immunoblot analysis of cell cycle and

DNA damage response (DDR) markers showed that TAS102 and TAS102-PARPi decreased an

activating phosphorylation of PLK1, a kinase mediating mitotic transition, independent of p53

status (**Fig.1c-d**). The TAS102-PARPi treatment increased an inactivating phosphorylation of

CDK1 at Tyr15 (**Fig. 1c-d**), a site known to be phosphorylated by WEE1 kinase. Protein levels

of cyclins A2 and B1, partners of CDK1, were also elevated (**Fig.1c-d**). In contrast,

phosphorylation of histone H3 was not induced, showing no entry to mitosis (**Fig.1c-d**).

Together, these results showed induction of the G2 checkpoint and DDR in p53-deficient cells

upon treatment with TAS102 alone and, more robustly, in combination with PARPi (**Fig.1g**). To

validate this observation *in vivo*, the G2 markers were examined by immunohistochemistry

(IHC) in tumor tissues from the CRC PDX models (generated within the Phase I clinical

NCT04511039 study), that were treated with vehicle or the drugs (talazoparib, TAS102, or

combination) as described [18]. The IHC analysis showed that TAS102 and TAS102-PARPi

increased levels of phospho-Tyr15-CDK1 and Cyclin B1 in p53^{H179R} mutant model (PDX-02-07-

RP), whereas levels of phospho-H3 were reduced (**Fig. 1e** and **Suppl. Fig.1a-b**). Similar results

were obtained using PDX-01-03-RP model carrying p53WT, although the effects of the drug

combination were lower in the p53WT model (**Fig. 1f** and **Suppl. Fig.1c-d**). These findings

indicate that the TAS102-PARPi combination primarily activated the G2 checkpoint in p53mut

cancers, while p53WT cells respond with activation of both G1 and G2 checkpoints (**Fig. 1g**).

TAS102-talazporib alters the transcriptomic program in p53WT and p53mut cells.

To better define the response to the two-drug combination, the transcriptomic analysis was

performed on isogenic HCT116 p53WT and p53KO cell lines treated with drug monotherapies

or their combination for 24 hours. Talazoparib alone induced minimal transcriptomic changes in

both cell lines (**Fig. 2a, d**). In contrast, TAS102 exerted strong effects by inducing expression of

774 genes and downregulating expression of 367 genes in p53WT cells and 614 upregulated and

418 downregulated genes in p53KO cells relative to vehicle-treated controls (**Fig. 2b, e**). The

drug combination in p53WT cells increased expression of 897 genes and decreased expression of

368 genes, while in p53KO cells expression of 698 genes was induced and for 615 genes was

decreased (**Fig. 2d, f**). The Venn diagrams demonstrated a notable overlap in altered gene

expression between TAS102 monotherapy and the TAS102-PARPi combination, with 936 shared

in p53WT and 770 shared in p53KO cells (**Fig. 2g-h**).

To infer the biological processes affected by the drug treatments, the gene ontology (GO)

enrichment analysis was conducted on the differentially expressed genes (**DEGs**). The GO

analysis showed that in both p53WT and p53KO cells treated with TAS102, the up-regulated

genes were enriched in processes associated with cell cycle regulation and extracellular matrix

(ECM) organization (**Suppl. Fig. 2a-b**). However, among the down-regulated genes distinct

processes were affected in p53WT *vs*. p53KO cells. In p53WT cells, the down-regulated genes

were mainly associated with processes related to mRNA splicing and pyrimidine metabolism,

whereas in p53KO cells with processes related to ribosome biogenesis, rRNA processing and

maturation (**Suppl. Fig. 2a-b**). In TAS102-talazoparib treatment, the top upregulated biological

processes in p53KO cells were related to DNA replication and the G2/M transition, while

downregulated processes were related to ribosome biogenesis (**Suppl. Fig. 2c-d**). The dot plots

summarize the top significantly enriched processes related to cell cycle regulation, ECM

organization, and ribosome biogenesis for p53WT and p53KO cells (**Fig. 2i**). The upregulation

of processes related to ECM organization suggests a contribution of matrix to cell division, while

repression of ribosome biogenesis is consistent with a reduced ribosome biogenesis at the G2

checkpoint in preparation for mitosis [20].

To reveal the response differences related to cell cycle and DNA repair in p53WT *vs*. p53KO

cells, the heatmaps were built for p53 targets, cell cycle, and DNA repair genes identified in the

GO analysis. The regulation of p53 target genes was clearly different between p53WT and

p53KO cells (**Fig. 2j, k**). Treatment of p53WT cells with TAS102 (TAS) or TAS102-PARPi

(TAS+Tal) strongly induced the expression of p53 targets (i.e., p21/CDKN1A, MDM2, BTG2),

in contrast their regulation was markedly lower in p53KO cells (**Fig. 2j, k**, p53 Targets). In

p53KO cells the expression of homologous recombination (HR) DNA repair genes (i.e., BRCA1,

BRCA2, RAD51) was robustly induced by TAS102-PARPi treatment, while the effect was lower

in TAS102 alone (**Fig. 2j, l**, HR genes). This finding is consistent with higher double-strand

breaks (DSBs) induced by TAS102-PARPi treatment in p53KO cells compared to TAS102 alone

[17, 18]. The genes involved in G1/S transition (CDK4, E2F1, E2F3) and DNA replication (MCM6,

PRIM2) were reduced in p53WT cells treated with TAS102 and TAS102-PARPi (**Fig. 2j, m**). In

contrast, treatment of p53KO cells with TAS102 or TAS-PARPi increased expression of genes

mediating G1->S transition (E2F1, E2F3, TFDP1) and DNA replication (CCNE1, CDK2,

MCM10, ORC1), **Fig. 2j, m**, G1/S and S/G2 genes. These effects show that neither TAS102 nor

TAS-PARPi repress DNA replication in p53-deficient cells, whereas the treatments of p53WT

cells induce a p53-dependent G1-arrest. Importantly, treatment with TAS-PARPi of p53KO cells

strongly reduced expression of genes involved in mitosis (AURKA, BUB1, CDC20, CENPF,

PLK1, PIF1), an effect that was lower in TAS102 alone (**Fig. 2j**, **n**, M phase). In contrast, the

expression of these genes was not reduced in p53WT cells. We further verify the transcriptome

effects in the HT29 CRC cell line carrying mutant p53^{R273H}. The RNAseq analysis showed that

TAS102-PARPi treatment downregulates expression of M-phase genes and upregulates

expression of HR-related genes comparable to the effects observed in HCT116-p53KO cells

(**Suppl. Fig. 3**). The TAS102-PARPi effects were greater than those exerted by TAS102 alone.

Together, these data showed the TAS102-PARPi treatment causes distinct transcriptome changes

in p53-deficient *vs*. p53WT cells, consistent with G2-arrest and activation of HR-mediated DSB

repair in p53mut cells, but G1-arrest in p53WT cells.

Targeting G2 checkpoint kinases and cytotoxicity of TAS102-PARPi treatment.

We have shown that TAS102-PAPRi treatment activates signaling by ATM and ATR kinases

[18], which are known to mediate DNA repair and G2-arrest [21, 22]. Therefore, we examined whether

blockade of these kinases can enhance the toxicity of TAS102-PARPi in p53mut cells. Selective

ATM inhibitor (KU55933; ATMi) did not enhance toxicity of TAS102-talazoparib in p53WT

and p53-deficient (p53KO, p53$^{R248W/-}$) HCT116 cell lines (**Suppl. Fig. 4a-c**). Instead, ATMi

reduced sensitivity to TAS102-talazoparib in all tested lines, potentially due to ATM function in

the G1/S checkpoint [23] and/or recovery of replication fork after DNA repair [21, 22]. In contrast, the

selective ATR inhibitor (AZD6738/ceralasertib; ATRi) markedly enhanced toxicity of TAS102-

talazoparib in p53KO and p53mut cell lines (**Fig. 3a-d**). In p53-deficient cells the IC50 was

enhanced 4-10-fold by 100nM ATRi (**Fig. 3b-d, n**), whereas only 1.5-fold increase was observed

in p53WT cells (**Fig. 3a, n**). This result is consistent with our prior finding that, in cells treated

with TAS102-talazoparib, blockade of ATR increases levels of γH2AX (a DNA damage marker)

[18]. Further, blockade of ATR, but not ATM, increased phosphorylation of histone H3 (phospho-

H3, a marker of mitosis) (**Suppl. Fig.4i**). These data are aligned with the role of ATR in

resolving replication stress and activating the G2/M checkpoint, thus ensuring proper cell cycle

progression and DNA repair [24]. Blockade of ATR kinase allows cells with unrepaired DSBs to

enter mitosis, leading to cell death [22].

ATR kinase induces G2-checkpoint through downstream effector kinases such as CHK1 and

WEE1; CHK1 kinase phosphorylates and inactivates CDC25 phosphatase, which controls

CDK1, while WEE1 kinase inactivates CDK1 by phosphorylating Tyr15 [21, 25-30]. Therefore, we

explored whether blockade of these kinases will result in cytotoxic effects comparable to ATRi.

Selective CHK1 inhibitor (AZD7762; CHK1i) showed comparable increase in cytotoxicity of

TAS102-talazoparib in both p53WT and p53-deficient cells, about 8-10-fold at 100nM CHK1i

(**Fig. 3e-i**). In contrast, a WEE1 inhibitor (MK1775; WEE1i) enhanced the cytotoxicity of

TAS102-talazoparib preferentially in p53mut cells, 8-15-fold in p53mut *vs* 3-4-fold in p53WT

cells at 100nM WEE1i (**Fig. 3j-m, o**).

Next, we examined the cytotoxicity of G2-kinase inhibitors in non-tumor p53WT MCF10A

cells. ATRi and WEE1i showed only a moderate (2-3-fold) enhancement of toxicity of TAS102-

talazoparib in non-tumor cells (**Suppl. Fig. 4d, f**). In contrast, CHK1i strongly enhanced toxicity

of TAS102-talazoparib (nearly 10-fold) in non-tumor cells (**Suppl. Fig. 4e**). Immunoblotting

verified the activities of CHK1 and WEE1 inhibitors on DNA damage response (DDR) markers

in p53WT MCF10A and p53mut MDA-MB-231 cells (**Suppl. Fig. 4g, h**). Consistent with the

effects of CHK1i *in vitro*, clinical trials have shown significant toxicities associated with CHK1i,

resulting in discontinued early trials [31, 32]. Conversely, drugs targeting ATR and WEE1 have

shown tolerable toxicity in clinical trials [33, 34], positioning them as potential therapeutic

candidates. Given that both ATRi and WEE1i enhanced efficacy of TAS102-talazoparib

preferentially in p53mut cells, we evaluated the drug interaction using the Loewe Additivity

Model [35, 36]. The analysis revealed synergism of TAS102-talazoparib with both ATRi and

WEE1i in p53mut cell models, with cooperativity index (CI) values ranging from 0.21 to 0.30

for ATRi (**Fig. 3n**, **Suppl. Fig. 5a-d**) and 0.16-0.30 for WEE1i (**Fig.3o**, **Suppl. Fig. 5f-i**). In

contrast, in non-tumor p53WT cells, ATRi and WEE1i did not show substantial cooperativity

with TAS102-talazoparib with the CI values of 0.73 and 0.69, respectively (**Fig. 3n-o** and **Suppl.**

Fig. 5e, j). Thus, in this simultaneous drug regimen, TAS102-talazoparib synergized in

cytotoxicity with ATRi and WEE1i in p53mut cancer cells, while exerting only moderate

interaction in p53WT cells.

TAS102-talazoparib induces persistent DNA damage in p53-mutant cancer cell models.

A clinical drug regimen for TAS102 and TAS102-talazoparib includes cycles of 5-days On-

treatment plus a 9-day Off period [37]. To explore the response dynamics, the cell-cycle analysis

was performed on p53WT and p53-deficient cells treated with TAS102-talazoparib followed by

drug washout. In p53WT cells, an increase in the G2 population was observed following the two-

drug treatment and remained elevated up to 24 hours after drug washout, then followed by a

gradual increase in the G1 population, with a small fraction of sub-G1 cells (**Fig. 4a**). In contrast,

p53KO and p53R248W cells responded to TAS102-talazoparib with a prolonged G2-arrest even

after drug withdrawal. Moreover, the sub-G1 population was increased at 48-72 hours after drug

withdrawal, indicating cell death in p53-deficient cells (**Fig. 4b-c**).

To verify the cell cycle effects and to assess DNA damage, the molecular markers of DDR

and cell cycle were examined by immunoblotting in cells treated with TAS102-talazoparib for

24hours followed by drug washout. In HCT116-p53WT cells, 24hr-treatment with TAS102-

talazoparib (T0) induced the markers of G2-checkpoint (phospho-CHK1 and phospho-CDK1)

and DNA damage (γH2AX) (**Fig. 4d**). The levels of these markers decreased after 24hours of

drug washout. Protein levels of p21/CDKN1A (a p53 target) followed this trend with a reduction

at 36hours (**Fig. 4d**). Cyclin D1 levels increased at 36hours, indicating a recovery of cell cycle

capacity (**Fig. 4d**). Together, these findings align with the cell cycle data (**Fig. 4a**). In contrast,

HCT116-p53KO and HCT116-p53$^{R248W/-}$ cells exhibited sustained phospho-CHK1, phospho-

CDK1, and γH2AX levels after the TAS102-talazoparib treatment, indicating a prolonged G2-

arrest with high DNA damage (**Fig. 4e-f**). In support, cyclin D1 protein levels remained low, not

recovering within 72 hours (**Fig. 4e-f**). Comparable results were observed in HT29-p53^{R273H} cells

(**Fig. 4g**), where a prolonged increase in DNA damage and G2 markers mirrored the data in

HCT116 p53KO and p53R248W/- cell lines.

To validate the recovery of cell proliferation following treatment with TAS102-talazoparib

for 24hours and drug withdrawal, cell growth was examined using live-cell imaging. The

analysis showed that p53WT non-tumor MCF10A cells quickly recovered growth capacity after

drug washout, while growth recovery was delayed by ~48hours in p53WT HCT116 cells (**Suppl.**

Fig. 6a, b). In contrast, p53KO and p53mut cancer cells did not regain the growth capacity

within the 92hr timeframe of the experiment (**Suppl. Fig. 6c-d**).

Together these data showed that TAS102-talazoparib induced in p53-deficient cells a long

G2-arrest and persistent DNA damage observed even after 72hours of drug withdrawal, and a

sizable proportion of p53mut cells underwent cell death within 48-72hours (sub-G1 fraction). In

contrast, p53WT cells were able to repair DNA and recover the cell cycle capacity within

48hours of drug withdrawal.

The dynamics of DNA repair following TAS102-talazoparib treatment in p53mut cells

To evaluate the dynamics of DNA damage repair, changes in DSB markers γH2AX and

RAD51 were examined in MCF10A (p53WT), DLD1 (p53^{S241F}), and HT29 (p53^{R273H}) cell lines

using immunofluorescence. Cells were treated with TAS102-talazoparib for 24hours followed by

drug washout. Immediately after 24hr-treatment (at T0), the levels and the foci formation of

γH2AX and RAD51 were increased in all tested cell lines (**Fig. 5a, d, e, g, j, k, m, n**). In

MCF10A cells, the nuclear area was increased by nearly 2-fold (from $130\mu m^2$ to $250\mu m^2$)

(**Fig.5c, f**), indicating enlargement of the nucleus in a significant proportion of cells (about 77%

with area of $200\text{-}580\mu m^2$, insert). Following drug withdrawal, the γH2AX and RAD51 signals

and the nuclear sizes were decreased within 24-48 hours in MCF10A cells (**Figs. 5c-f**). These

data show that DNA damage by TAS102-talazoparib was repaired, and cells completed the

mitotic cell division. In contrast, the γH2AX/RAD51 signals were not reduced in p53mut DLD1

and HT29 cell lines within 72 hours of drug washout (**Fig. 5g-h, j-k, m-n**). The nuclear area was

also increased at T0, and a sustained enlargement was observed at 24-48 hours of drug washout

(**Fig. 5i, l, o**). These results indicate that p53mut cells replicate DNA but do not undergo cell

division resulting in enlarged nucleus, and DSBs are not repaired up to 72hours of drug washout.

Together, these observations show that the TAS102-PARPi treatment can induce DNA breaks

and G2-arrest in p53WT and p53mut cells. However, DNA repair and recovery of cell division

were remarkably different in p53WT and p53mut cells. Non-tumor p53WT cells repaired DNA

breaks and completed the mitotic cell division within 48hours, whereas p53mut cells could not

complete DNA repair and cell division, resulting in high levels of DNA breaks and G2-arrest

even at 72hours of drug withdrawal. These observations are aligned with the cell cycle and cell

growth data, which showed a lack of proliferation in p53mut cells within this timeframe (**Fig. 4,**

and Suppl. Fig.5). Thus, TAS102-PARPi treatment induced high DSB levels and long G2-arrest

in p53mut cancer cells, while p53WT cells repaired DNA and recovered cell cycle capacity.

A sequential triple-drug approach using TAS102-PARPi treatment followed by blockade of

WEE1 kinase elicits synergistic toxicity in p53mut cancer cells.

TAS102-PARPi treatment induced DNA breaks and sustained G2-arrest in p53mut cells even

after drug washout, whereas non-tumor p53WT cells recovered remarkably faster (**Figs. 4-5**).

Next, we examined whether toxicity of TAS102-PARPi treatment in p53mut cells can be further

enhanced by blockade of a G2-checkpoint kinase. Cells were treated with TAS102-talazoparib

for 24 hours, followed by drug washout for 24 hours and subsequent incubation with WEE1i

(MK1775) for 48 hours. Cytotoxicity assays showed that WEE1i did not synergize with

TAS102-PARPi in p53WT MCF10A cells, ~1.1-fold at 100nM WEE1i (**Fig. 6a, f**). In HCT116-

p53WT cells, WEE1i only modestly enhanced the IC50 of TAS102-talazoparib (by ~1.4-fold at

100nM WEE1i). In contrast, in HCT116-p53KO and HCT116-p53^{R248W} cell lines WEE1i at

100nM enhanced toxicity of TAS102-talazoparib by ~3.6-fold and ~2.5-fold, respectively (**Fig.**

6b-d, f). In HT29 (p53^{R273H}) cells, the toxicity of TAS102-talazoparib was enhanced by ~7-fold

at 100nM WEE1i (**Fig. 6e-f**). Evaluation of drug interactions in this sequential regimen showed

CI = 0.94 for MCF10A cells and CI = 0.57 for HCT116 cells (both p53WT), indicating no or

modest drug interactions, respectively (**Fig. 6f**). In contrast, p53-deficient cells, HCT116-p53KO

or p53mut cells (HCT116-p53^{R248W} and HT29-p53^{R273H}), showed CI values ranging 0.26-0.42,

indicating a synergistic interaction between TAS102-talazoparib and WEE1i (**Fig. 6f**).

Examination of cell death, using flow cytometry with Annexin V and propidium iodide (PI)

staining, showed that the sequential treatment of MCF10A cells with TAS102-PARPi followed

by 100nM WEE1i resulted in ~9% of double-positive (annexin-V^{+}/PI^{+}) dead cells, compared to

~8% dead cells by TAS102-PARPi treatment alone (**Fig. 6g-h**). In HCT116-p53WT cells, ~19%

of cells were double-positive after TAS102-talazoparib treatment and ~39% after the sequential

triple-drug combination (**Fig. 6g, i**). Approximately 29% of HCT116-p53KO cells were double-

positive in response to TAS102-talazoparib, and cell death was increased to ~68% after the

triple-drug treatment (**Fig. 6g, j**). In HT29 cells, treatment with TAS102-talazoparib resulted in

~30% double-positive cells, whereas the sequential drug combination resulted in ~76% double-

positive dead cells (**Fig. 6g, k**). Similar effects of a sequential triple-drug treatment were

observed in p53mut MDA-MB-231 cells compared to p53WT MCF10A cells (**Suppl. Fig. 7**).

Together, these data showed a synergistic toxicity of TAS102-talazoparib treatment followed by

WEE1i in p53mut cancer cells, whereas this sequential triple-drug regimen showed low toxicity

in non-tumor p53WT cells.

Anti-tumor efficacy of the sequential triple-drug combination

The therapeutic efficacy of the sequential combination of TAS102-talazoparib and WEE1i

was examined in tumor xenograft models. The drug regimen included repeats of the two-week

cycle with TAS102-talazoparib treatment in the first week followed by WEE1i treatment in the

second week, based on the clinical schedule for TAS102 and TAS102-talazoparib [37]. This two-

week regimen was initially tested in xenografts of HT29 cells (p53^{R273H}, BRAF^{V600E}) in SCID

mice. Treatment was initiated when tumors reached 100mm^3 using 5-days-ON, 2-days-OFF

schedule in four groups: vehicle, WEE1i (every week), TAS102-talazoparib (every week), and

the triple-drug combination (a sequential two-week cycle). Treatment with WEE1i showed a

limited effect on tumor growth with tumor growth inhibition (TGI) of 18%, whereas TAS102-

talazoparib was more effective with TGI of 43% (**Fig. 7a-b**), consistent with our previous

studies[18]. Importantly, a sequential combination of TAS102-talazoparib and WEE1i showed

greater tumor growth control compared to each treatment alone, with TGI of 63% (**Fig. 7a-b**).

The triple-drug regimen also improved survival to 39 days compared to 32 days for TAS102-

talazoparib, and 24 days for WEE1i alone (**Fig. 7c**). Neither of the treatments affected animal

weights compared to the control group (**Fig.7d**), indicating the absence of major toxic side

effects.

The efficacy of the triple-drug regimen was next tested in a patient-derived xenograft (PDX)

model (PDX-3B1-29-RP; p53^{R213*}) established from a colorectal cancer biopsy within a clinical

trial NCT04511039. The R213* truncating p53 mutation is commonly found in human tumors

and exhibits pro-tumor effects [38]. Treatment with TAS102-talazoparib reduced tumor growth by

~20% and WEEi1 alone had no effect, whereas the sequential drug combination reduced tumor

growth by ~50% (**Fig. 7e-f**) and extended survival from 24 to 43 days (**Fig. 7g**). No major toxic

side effects by the treatments were noted based on examination of mouse weights (**Fig.7h**), the

bone marrow histology, and peripheral cell blood counts (**Suppl. Fig. 8**). The efficacy was

further examined in pancreatic cancer PDX model (PDX-14312-5p) carrying p53^{R175H} and

KRAS^{G12R} mutations. It was observed that WEE1i monotherapy modestly reduced tumor growth

(~30%), whereas TAS102-talazoparib was more effective in tumor control with TGI of ~43% at

day 50 (**Fig.7i-j**). The triple-drug regimen showed remarkably greater tumor control than either

treatment alone (TGI ~80%, **Fig.7i-j**) and extended survival to >75days, compared to ~64 days

by TAS102-talazoparib and 48 days by WEE1i (**Fig.7k**). No major toxicity signs were noted

based on mouse weights (**Fig.7l**). Together, these data demonstrated that the triple-drug regimen

combining the two-drug TAS102-PARPi treatment followed by WEE1i is effective against

p53mut cancer models and the regimen is well-tolerated in mice.

DISCUSSION

Treatment of p53mut cancers remains a significant clinical challenge mainly due to lack of

effective therapeutic options [9, 10]. Here, we introduce a triple-drug strategy for p53mut cancers

combining two-drug TAS102-PARPi treatment with blockade of the G2-checkpoint. TAS102-

PARPi treatment acts as an *inducer-amplifier* pair to induce DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs)

and G2-arrest selectively in p53mut cancer cells. Subsequent blockade of the G2-checkpoint

kinase WEE1 releases G2-arrested cells into mitosis leading to cell death, acting as a *terminator*.

We found that delaying WEE1i application until after TAS102-PARPi treatment allows normal

p53WT cells to repair their DNA, thus reducing the impact on normal cells (**Figs. 5-6**). This

sequential triple-drug approach is a promising therapeutic strategy for treatment of p53mut

cancers as it showed high efficacy in preclinical cancer models and was well-tolerated in mice.

Prior work has shown that TAS102-PARPi treatment induces high levels of DNA damage in

p53mut cells selectively, and this effect was linked to a compromised G1/S checkpoint [17, 18].

Thymidine (dT) analogues, such as trifluorothymidine (TFT, a component of TAS102) or

ethynyl-deoxyuridine (EdU), are incorporated into DNA during replication[17, 18]. These dT-

analogues also inhibit thymidylate synthase[39], leading to the incorporation of uridine residues

into DNA[17, 18, 40]. The incorporated analogues are removed from DNA by base-excision repair

(BER) resulting in single-strand breaks (SSBs) [17, 18, 40], which are repaired *via* a mechanism

involving PARP1[41]. PARP1 inhibitors (such as talazoparib) compromise SSB repair, increasing

levels of more lethal DSBs that further activate DDR signaling mediated by ATM and ATR

kinases. In p53WT cells, DDR signaling mediated by ATM activates the p53-p21 axis resulting

in G1-checkpoint activation [18]. p21/CDKN1A inhibits CDK2 and CDK4/6 leading to cell cycle

arrest in G1/S and/or inhibit CDK1-cyclin B1 contributing to G2-arrest [42-44]. This effect of

TAS102-PARPi treatment is consistent with the role of ATM-CHK2-p53 signaling in DNA

damage response [42, 43]. In p53mut cells with compromised G1/S checkpoint, TAS102-PARPi

treatment resulted in activation of the G2-checkpoint mediated by ATR and G2-arrest with high

DSBs (this study and [18]).

The distinct effects of TAS102-PARPi treatment in p53WT and p53-deficient cells are also

reflected in the transcriptomic program. In p53WT cells, TAS102-PARPi reduced expression of

genes involved in the G1/S transition (e.g., E2F1, E2F3), indicative of G1-arrest. However, in

p53-deficient cells, TAS102-PARPi increased expression of the G1/S transition factors (E2F1,

E2F3) and S/G2-phase genes (e.g., CCNE1, CCNE2, CDT1), consistent with the lack of G1/S

checkpoint in these cells. Moreover, TAS102-PARPi treatment reduced expression of M-phase

genes (i.e., AURKA, BUB1, CDC20, PLK1), consistent with G2-arrest in p53-deficient cells.

Thus, TAS102-PARPi treatment exhibits the distinct effects on p53WT and p53mut cells in the

global expression of genes related to the cell cycle control.

The transcriptome analysis also revealed a striking upregulation of HR-related DSB repair

genes (BRCA1, BRCA2, RAD51, RECQL, RBBP6) in p53-deficient cells. This distinct effect of

TAS102-PARPi treatment is likely to reflect DNA repair at the G2-checkpoint controlled by

ATR kinase [45]. In addition, ATM may also contribute to DNA repair by acting through H2AX

(γH2AX), RAD51, and BRCA1/2, thus promoting homologous recombination (HR) [46-48]. Thus,

in addition to G2-arrest, TAS102-PARPi treatment upregulates HR-mediated DNA repair.

Cytotoxicity studies showed a substantial dichotomy in the consequences of ATM and ATR

inhibition. Blockade of ATM reduced sensitivity to TAS102-talazoparib treatment in all tested

lines cells, independent of the p53 status. This effect of ATM blockade is likely related to the

function of ATM in the G1/S checkpoint [23] or replication fork recovery after DNA repair [21, 22]. In

contrast, ATR blockade greatly enhanced cytotoxicity of TAS102-talazoparib in p53mut cells,

and this effect is related to transition to mitosis with high DNA damage (elevated phospho-H3

and γH2AX levels). These results are consistent with the role of ATR in activation of the G2/M

checkpoint and in the control of replication completion before mitosis [24]. ATR can also control

an intrinsic S/G2 checkpoint, and the ATR blockade may deregulate the S/G2 transition allowing

early mitosis with under-replicated DNA and DNA damage [45]. Thus, ATR plays a critical role in

activation and control of the G2-checkpoint in p53mut cells treated with TAS102-PARPi,

making ATR a potential target to further enhance efficacy of TAS102-PARPi treatment.

To induce the G2 checkpoint, ATR activates downstream effector kinases, such as CHK1

and WEE1, that inactivate the CDC25-CDK1 axis that controls transition to mitosis [21, 25-30]. Here,

we found that CHK1 blockade in combination with TAS102-PARPi treatment was cytotoxic in

both non-tumor p53WT and p53mut cancer cells (**Fig. 3**). This effect may reflect CHK1 role in

S-phase and explain high toxicities of CHK1 inhibitors observed in clinical trials, leading to

discontinuation of early trials [31, 32]. In contrast, WEE1 blockade enhanced toxicity of TAS102-

talazoparib preferentially in p53mut cells, while having a limited toxicity in non-tumor models

(**Fig.3**). This effect is consistent with tolerable toxicities of WEE1i observed in early-phase

clinical trials [33, 34].

The drug response studies showed that the selectivity and efficacy of the drug combinations

can be enhanced in a sequential triple-drug regimen. TAS102-talazoparib treatment of p53mut

cancer cells resulted in prolonged G2-arrest and persistent DNA damage even at 72hours after

drug washout with a sizable amount of cell death (**Figs.4-5**). In contrast, p53WT cells were able

to repair DNA and re-enter the cell cycle within 48hours of drug withdrawal. Moreover, a 24hr-

delay in WEE1i treatment after TAS102-talazoparib washout was still highly effective against

p53mut cells but was markedly less toxic to normal cells (**Fig.6**). This sequential triple-drug

regimen (TAS102-talazoparib plus 24hr-delayed WEE1i) resulted in massive 80% cell death in

p53mut cancer cells, whereas cell death was not increased in non-tumor cells.

A sequential triple-drug regimen combining TAS102-talazoparib and WEE1i showed robust

anti-tumor effects in preclinical animal models (**Fig. 7**). Tumor growth was reduced by 63% in

the CRC HT29 tumor model and ~80% in the PDAC PDX-14312 model (p53^{R175H}) (**Fig.7**).

Further, the triple-drug treatment was also highly effective in reducing tumor growth in CRC

PDX model (~55%). No major toxic side effects were observed during assessment of mouse

weights, bone marrow, and peripheral blood.

In summary, this study presents a sequential triple-drug strategy combining the two-drug

TAS102-PARPi treatment with delayed application of a G2-kinase inhibitor (WEE1i), which

together work as an *inducer-amplifier-terminator trio* (**Fig.7m**). The TAS102-talazoparib

regimen was well-tolerated in patients with refractory CRC and showed promising median

progression-free survival (mPFS) of 5.7 months (NCT04511039) [37]. This study showed that a

sequential G2-kinase blockade with WEE1i strongly enhances efficacy of TAS102-talazoparib in

p53mut cancers. This sequential triple-drug strategy is a promising approach for management of

patients with p53mut cancers.

Limitations of the Study

The study demonstrates an increased efficacy of TAS102-PARPi treatment in p53mut CRC and

PDAC models. Although, prior work showed that this combination blocks spontaneous breast

cancer metastases [17], the current study did not directly assess the effect of the combinatorial drug

treatment on metastatic burden (e.g., liver) in PDAC and CRC *in vivo* models. This question will

be the subject of future investigations.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
A.V.B. conceived the idea; A.V.B., R.M.S., J.Z., and M.M.A. designed the experiments; J.Z.,
M.M.A., A.V.B, M.N.N and B.G. performed the experiments and analyzed the data; A.V.B. and
C.F. analyzed and interpreted the data; T.M. and R.M.S. helped in the interpretation of the data;
B.G., B.F., S.C. helped with PDX generation; A.V.B., C.F., T.M., J.Z., M.M.A., R.M.S. and R.I.
contributed to preparing and writing the paper.

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ETHICS STATEMENT

The study protocol was approved by the Institute Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC).
The facility is certified by the American Association for Accreditation of Laboratory Animal
Care (AAALAC) and in accordance with current regulation and standards of the US Department
of Agriculture and the US Department of Health and Human Services.
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MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

Patient-derived xenograft colorectal cancer models are available from the lead contact (A.B.)
under a Material Transfer Agreement.
LEAD CONTACT

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be
fulfilled by the lead contact, prof. Andrei Bakin (Andrei.Bakin@roswellpark.org)
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FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 1. The combination of TAS102 and talazoparib induces DNA damage response and
the G2 checkpoint. (a-b)** Cell-cycle analysis of HCT116 p53WT and p53KO, and DLD1
(p53^{S241F}) cell lines treated with vehicle control (C), 100nM talazoparib (Tal), 500 nM TAS102
(TAS) or their combination (TAS+Tal) for 24 hours. Cells were stained with Hoechst for DNA
content and analyzed by flow cytometry. **(b)** Quantification of cell cycle data. Comparisons were
made using two-way ANOVA (∗$p < 0.05$, ∗∗$p < 0.01$, ∗∗∗$p < 0.001$, ∗∗∗∗$p < 0.0001$).
Experiments were repeated at least two times. **(c-d)** Immunoblots of whole-cell extracts from cell
lines treated with vehicle control (C), 100 nM talazoparib (T), 500 nM TAS102 (TAS), their
combination (TT), or 50 nM nocodazole (Nc) for 24 hours. **(e-f)** Quantification of phospho-
CDK1 and phospho-H3 levels in CRC PDX-02-07-RP (p53^{H179R}) tissues **(e)**, and PDX-01-03-RP
(p53WT) tissues **(f)**. PDX tumor bearing mice were treated by oral gavage with vehicle-control,
talazoparib, TAS102, or TAS102-talazoparib. Comparisons were done using one-way ANOVA
(*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ****$p < 0.0001$). **(g)** Working model.
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**Figure 2. Transcriptomic changes in p53WT and p53KO cells following TAS102 and
talazoparib treatment.** Volcano plots show differential gene expression between control and
treatment groups (talazoparib, TAS102, and combination) for both HCT116 p53WT **(a-c)** and
p53KO **(d-f)** cell lines. Red data points represent genes that meet both the adjusted p-value <0.05

and a pre-defined log2 fold change (FC) threshold. Blue data points indicate genes that only meet
the log2 FC threshold, gray dots show non-significant genes. (**g-h**) Venn diagrams show the
overlap of differentially expressed genes among the treatment groups in HCT116 p53WT (**g**) and
p53KO (**h**) cells. (**i**) Heatmaps show the expression profiles of select genes across the control and
treatment groups in HCT116 p53WT (left) and p53KO (right) cells. Gene lists are curated from
KEGG and Cyclebase_3.0 databases.
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Figure 3. G2 checkpoint kinase inhibitors enhance the cytotoxic effects of TAS102 and
talazoparib treatment. (**a-d**) Dose-response curves for a panel of colorectal cancer cell lines
treated with increasing concentrations of TAS102 in the presence of 100 nM talazoparib. Cells
were co-treated for 72 hours with varying concentrations of the ATR inhibitor AZD6738
(ATRi; 50nM, 100nM, 250nM, and 500nM). (**e-i**) Cells were treated as described above with the
CHK1 inhibitor, AZD7762 (CHK1i; 50, 100, 250, and 500 nM). (**j-m**) Cells were treated as
described above with the WEE1 inhibitor, MK-1775 (WEE1i; 50, 100, 250, and 500 nM). All
data were normalized to untreated control. The half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC50)
values were determined using three-parameter nonlinear regression. All experiments were
performed with at least two biological replicates and six technical replicates. (**n-o**) Cytotoxicity
parameters in p53WT and mutant cell lines. Combination Index (CI) values were calculated for
combinations with ATRi (**n**) and WEE1i (**o**) across several concentrations.
714
Figure 4. Combination treatment with TAS102 and talazoparib induces a prolonged G2
arrest in p53-mutant cancer cells. (**a-c**) Cell cycle analysis was performed on cell lines treated
with vehicle control (C), 500nM TAS102 and 100nM talazoparib for 24 hours (**T0**) followed by
incubation in drug-free medium. All experiments were done in at least two independent
biological replicates. (**d-g**) Immunoblotting on whole-cell extracts from HCT116-p53WT,
HCT116-p53KO, HCT116-p53$^{R248W/-}$ and HT29 cell lines treated as described above (**a-c**). The
experiments were repeated in at least two independent biological replicates and two technical
replicates. Blots were probed with antibodies to phopsho-CHK1, p53, cyclin D1, phospho-
CDK1, p21, phospho-H2AX (γH2AX), phospho-histone H3, and GAPDH as a loading control.
724
Figure 5. The dynamics of DNA damage repair in response to combined TAS102 and
talazoparib treatment. (**a**) Immunofluorescence microscopy images of p53WT cells stained for
γH2AX (green), a DNA damage marker, and RAD51 (red), a homologous recombination
component, along with Hoechst 33342 (blue; nucleus). Cells were treated with vehicle-control
(CTR) or 500nM TAS102 plus 100nM talazoparib (**T0**) for 24 hours, followed by drug
withdrawal and the cells were allowed to recover. All images were taken using 100x lens; scale
bar 10μm. (**b, h**) Enlarged images of regions highlighted in the main panels show the co-
localization of γH2AX and RAD51 foci at T0 in MCF10A cells and at 24 hours in DLD1 cells.
Arrows indicate the positions of these foci. (**c**) Enlarged images of Hoechst-stained cells at CTR,
T0, and 72hours. (**d-e, j-k, m-n**) Quantitative analysis of corrected total cellular fluorescence
(CTCF) for γH2AX (**d, j, m**) and RAD51 (**e, k, n**) was performed on a minimum 40 cells per
treatment group. The graphs show representative median scattered dot plots. Comparisons were
made using the two-way ANOVA (****, P<0.001). (**f, l, o**) The nuclear area was measured from
Hoechst-stained cells, with at least 40 cells/group. All experiments were done at least two times.
739

Figure 6. Sequential application of WEE1 inhibitor enhances the cytotoxicity of TAS102-
talazoparib treatment in p53-deficient cancer cells. (a-e) Cytotoxicity curves for p53 wild-
type (MCF10A and HCT116), and p53-deficient (HCT116-p53KO, HCT116-p53$^{R248W/-}$, HT29)
cells. Cells were treated with increasing concentrations of TAS102 plus 100nM talazoparib for
24 hours. After a 24-hour drug washout, cells were incubated with 50, 100, 250, or 500 nM of
the WEE1 inhibitor (WEE1i) for an additional 72 hours. (**f**) Combination index (CI) analysis for
the tested WEE1i concentrations. Data are presented as mean ± SEM from at least two
independent biological replicates, each with six technical replicates. (**g**) Flow cytometry analysis
of cells treated with vehicle control or a sequential regimen of 500 nM TAS102 plus 100 nM
talazoparib, followed by 250 nM WEE1i. Cells were stained with propidum iodide and annexin-
V. (**h-k**) Quantification of Annexin V and propidium iodide (PI) double-positive cells from two
biological replicates. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA (*$p < 0.05$,
**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ****$p < 0.0001$).

Figure 7. A sequential application of WEE1 inhibitor enhances the efficacy of TAS102-
talazoparib treatment in p53 mutant cancer models. (a-d) SCID mice (10mice/group) were
subcutaneously implanted with colon cancer HT29 cells. At tumor size of 100mm^3, mice were
randomized into four treatment groups: vehicle control, WEE1 inhibitor (WEE1i, MK1775, 60
mg/kg), a combination of TAS102 (50 mg/kg) and talazoparib (0.15 mg/kg), and a sequential
regimen consisting of one week of TAS102/talazoparib followed by one week of the WEE1
inhibitor. All treatments were administered *via* oral gavage on a schedule of five days ON and
two days OFF. Tumor growth was measured twice weekly, and statistical significance was
determined using a two-way ANOVA (*$p < 0.05$). (**b**) Tumor growth inhibition (TGI) was
calculated as TGI = 100% x [Vehicle − Treatment) / Vehicle]. Comparisons were made using a
one-way ANOVA (**, P<0.01, ***, P<0.001, ****, P<0.001). (**c**) Survival was evaluated using
Kaplan-Meier estimator based on time-to-arrive at 750 mm^3 of tumor size. The comparison was
made using the log-rank test. (**d**) Mouse body weights were measured twice per week over the
course of study. (**e-h**) Patient-derived tumor xenografts (PDXs) from a patient with PDAC
(PDAC-14312-4p) were subcutaneously implanted into SCID mice (10 mice/group). At 100
mm^3, mice were randomized and treated as described above for HT29 xenografts. (**f**) Tumor
growth inhibition in the PDX model was calculated as described in (**b**). Comparisons were made
using a one-way ANOVA (**, P<0.01, ***, P<0.001, ****, P<0.001). (**g**) Survival was evaluated
using Kaplan-Meier estimator based on time to arrive at 750 mm3 of tumor size. Group
comparisons were performed with the log-rank test. (**h**) Mouse body weights were measured
twice weekly over the course of study. (**i-l**) Patient-derived tumor xenografts (PDXs) from a
colorectal cancer patient (PDX-3B1-29-RP-3p) were subcutaneously implanted into SCID mice
(10 mice/group). Experiments and the analysis were done essentially as described for (**e-h**). (**m**)
A model of the triple-drug drug strategy acting as an *inducer-amplifier-terminator* trio in p53
mutant cancers.

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Description.
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916   **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
anti-p53 (Mouse Monoclonal antibody, Clone do-1)	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	Cat# sc-126; RRID:AB_628082
anti-p21 (CDKN1A), F-5 mouse monoclonal	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	Cat# sc-6246; RRID:AB_628073
anti-phospho-Ser15 p53 (rabbit, polyclonal)	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat# 9284; RRID:AB_331464
anti-PARP1 (mouse monoclonal antibody, Clone 5a5)	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	Cat# sc-56197; RRID:AB_630080
anti-phospho-Ser139 H2AX (γH2AX; rabbit polyclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab-11174; RRID:AB_297813
anti-Thymidylate Synthase (TS106)	Millipore	Cat# MAB4130, RRID:AB_2210729
anti-phospho-Tyr15-CdC2	Santa Cruz	Cat# sc-136014, RRID:AB_2016914
anti-phospho-Chk1 (Ser325)	Cell signaling	Cat# 2348, RRID:AB_331212
anti-phospho HH3 (Ser10)	Cell signaling	Cat# 31261, RRID:AB_3076725
anti-Cyclin A2	Invitrogen	Cat# MA1-180, RRID:AB_2633305
anti-bromodeoxyuridine, anti-BrdU	Dako	Cat# M0744, RRID:AB_10013660
anti-cleaved Caspase-3 (Asp175)	Cell signaling	Cat# 9661, RRID:AB_2341188
Rabbit anti-gamma-H2AX (phospho-Ser139) Antibody	Bethyl	Cat# A300-081A, RRID:AB_203288
anti-Human Ki67/MKI67 Antibody	R&D Systems	Cat#: IC7617S, RRID:AB_2889352
anti-Rad51 antibody	Abcam	Cat# ab133534, RRID:AB_2722613
anti-phospho-Ser139 H2AX (γH2AX; mouse mAb, JBW301)	Millipore	Cat# 05-636; RRID:AB_309864
anti-BrdU antibody (3D4), FITC conjugate	Biolegend	Cat#364104; RRID:AB_2564481
Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG (H L)-HRP Conjugate antibody	Bio-Rad	Cat# 170-6515; RRID:AB_11125142
Goat Anti-Mouse IgG (H L)-HRP Conjugate antibody	Bio-Rad	Cat# 170-6516; RRID:AB_11125547
Biological samples: Patient Derived Xenografts (PDXs)		
PDAC PDX-14312-4p	Dr. Robert Straubinger (University at Buffalo)	SUNY at Buffalo
CRC PDX-3B1-29-RP-3p	Dr. Andrei Bakin (Roswell Park)	PDX-3B1-29-RP

Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
Talazoparib (Synonyms: BMN-673)	Adooq	Cat# A15533
TAS102 (trifluorthymidine (trifluridine)/tipiracil HCl mix)	Adooq	Cat# A11243
5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdUrd)	Lumiprobe	Cat# 20540
Cy3-azide	Lumiprobe	Cat#B1030
CellTrace Violet Dye	Invitrogen	Cat#C34557
AFDye 488 Azide	Click Chemistry Tools, Scottsdale, AZ	Cat#1275-1
THPTA (tris-hydroxypropyltriazolylmethylamine)	Click Chemistry Tools, Scottsdale, AZ	Cat#1010-500
RNase A (10 mg/mL)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#EN0531
D-luciferin	Gold Biotechnology, St Louis	LUCK-1G
Copper sulfate, Cu(II)SO4	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 61230
Hydroxyurea	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#55291
(2-Hydroxypropyl)-β-cyclodextrin (HPCD; Cavasol)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#778907
Bovine serum albumin (BSA)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#A2153
Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#D8418
Boric acid	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#B6768
Propidium iodide	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#P4170
Hoechst 33342	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#B2261
Methylene Blue hydrate	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#M9140-100G
Paraformaldehyde	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#158127
Dialyzed FBS (fetal bovine serum)	Gibco	Cat#A33820
ECL Western Blotting Substrate, Pierce	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 32106
SuperSignal™ West Atto Ultimate Sensitivity Substrate	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#A38555
SDS (Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate)	Bio-Rad	Cat#1610301
DC™ Protein Assay Kit I	Bio-Rad	Cat#5000111
Tween 20, 100% Nonionic Detergent	Bio-Rad	Cat#1706531
Matrigel Matrix GFR	VWR International	Cat# 47743-720
Critical commercial assays		
Caspase-Glo® 3/7 Assay System	Promega	Cat#G8090
Deposited data		
Gene Expression and Mutation Counts	Pan-CANCER-TCGA	Cbioportal.org
Experimental models: Cell lines		
HCT-116 (p53-WT)	Dr. Bert Vogelstein (Johns Hopkins)	RRID:CVCL_0291
HCT-116-p53-KO; HCT-116 TP53(-/-); HCT116-p53-null	Dr. Bert Vogelstein (Johns Hopkins)	RRID:CVCL_HD97

HCT-116-p53-R248W/-	Dr. Bert Vogelstein (Johns Hopkins)	RRID:CVCL_RJ68
RKO	Dr. Alessandro Carugo (IRBM European School of Molecular Medicine, Lazio, Italia)	RRID:CVCL_0504
RKO-p53(-/-); RKO-p53KO; RKO-p53-null	Dr. Alessandro Carugo (IRBM ESMM, Lazio, Italia)	
HT29; HT-29	ATCC	RRID:CVCL_0320
MIAPACA2; MiaPaCa-2	ATCC	RRID:CVCL_0428
MCF10A	ATCC	RRID:CVCL_0598
MDA-MB-231	ATCC	RRID:CVCL_0062
HPNE; hTERT-Human Pancreatic Nestin-Expressing cells	ATCC	RRID:CVCL_C466
DLD1	ATCC	RRID:CVCL_0248
PANC-1	ATCC	RRID:CVCL_0480
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
Mouse: SCID/CB17, Balb/c background	Roswell Park Colony	
Mouse: NOD.Cg-Prkdcscid Il2rgtm1Wjl/SzJ (NSG) mice, Balb/c background	Jackson Laboratory	
Software and algorithms		
GraphPad PRISM 10.1.2	GraphPad Software	https://www.graphpad.com/
R/RStudio v4.0.4	The R Foundation	https://www.r-project.org/
FCS Express 7 (Version 7.04.0016)	De Novo software	FCS Express Flow Cytometry Software - De Novo Software
Image J	NIH	https://imagej.net/software/imagej/
HeskaView Integrated Software (version 2.5.2)	Heska	Element HT5 - Heska
Aperio ImageScope (version 12.4.0.5043)	Leica Biosystems	
MetaVue imaging software (Version 7.7.3)	Molecular Devices	
FACSDiva (Version 6.1.3)	Beckman Coulter	
Other		
Nikon TE2000-E inverted microscope	Nikon, USA	
CoolSNAP HQ (CCD camera)	Photometrics, USA	
LSRFortessa Cytometer	BD Biosciences, USA	
VERITAS microplate luminometer	Promega, USA	
Nanodrop	Thermo Fisher, USA	

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Cell line	p53 Status	IC50-TAS102, μM + 100nM Tal	IC50-TAS102, μM + 100nM Tal + 100nM WEE1i	Fold change at 100nM WEE1i	CI index
MCF10A	WT	3.20 ± 0.65	3.02 ± 0.36	1.07	0.94
HCT116	WT	1.19 ± 0.15	0.86 ± 0.07	1.38	0.67
HCT116	KO	0.75 ± 0.16	0.21 ± 0.15	3.57	0.31
HCT116	R248W/-	0.79 ± 0.19	0.32 ± 0.06	2.47	0.42
HT29	R273H	0.81 ± 0.16	0.12 ± 0.06	6.75	0.26