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Unravelling the role of SNM1 in the DNA repair system of *Trypanosoma brucei*

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21 SUMMARY

22 All living cells are subject to agents that promote DNA damage. A particularly lethal 23 lesion are interstrand crosslinks (ICL), a property exploited by several anti-cancer 24 chemotherapies. In yeast and humans an enzyme that plays a key role in repairing such damage are the PSO2/SNM1 nucleases. Here, we report that Trypanosoma brucei, the 25 26 causative agent of African trypanosomiasis, possesses a *bona fide* member of this family 27 (called TbSNM1) with expression of the parasite enzyme able to suppress the sensitivity 28 yeast $pso2\Delta$ mutants display toward mechlorethamine, an ICL-inducing compound. By 29 disrupting the Tbsnml gene, we demonstrate that TbSNM1 activity is non-essential to the 30 medically relevant T. brucei life cycle stage. However, trypanosomes lacking this enzyme are 31 more susceptible to bi- and tri-functional DNA alkylating agents with this phenotype readily 32 complemented by ectopic expression of Tbsnm1. Genetically modified variants of the null 33 mutant line were subsequently used to establish the anti-parasitic mechanism of action of 34 nitrobenzylphosphoramide mustard and aziridinyl nitrobenzamide prodrugs, compounds 35 previously shown to possess potent trypanocidal properties while exhibiting limited toxicity 36 to mammalian cells. This established that these agents, following activation by a parasite 37 specific type I nitroreductase, produce metabolites that promote formation of ICLs leading to 38 inhibition of trypanosomal growth.

39 INTRODUCTION

40 The socioeconomic development of sub-Saharan Africa has been hindered by a group of medical and veterinary infections collectively known as African trypanosomiasis. The 41 42 causative agents of many of these diseases are protozoan parasites belonging to the species Trypanosoma brucei, organisms that live and multiply extracellularly in the bloodstream and 43 44 tissue fluids of their mammalian hosts. Transmission occurs via the blood-feeding habits of 45 the insect vector, the tsetse fly. Over the last 15 years implementation of improved health 46 surveillance programmes combined with new treatment regimens has led to a dramatic fall in 47 the estimated number of new cases of the human form of the disease, known as human 48 African trypanosomiasis (HAT) from around 450,000 in 1997 to about 20,000 in 2012 49 (Barrett, 2006, WHO 2014). This situation has resulted in WHO aiming to eliminate HAT as 50 a public health problem by 2020. In contrast, animal African trypanosomiasis, particularly in 51 domesticated livestock, remains a major problem with these infections killing around 3 52 million head of cattle each year and causing an annual loss of income estimated to be about 53 US\$4.75 billion (UNFAO, 2004).

54 With no immediate prospect of a vaccine or chemoprophylaxis and with vector control 55 being problematic, drug treatment represents the only option available to combat HAT. 56 However, the current chemotherapies used are few in number and their use is controversial, 57 as they can be costly, often require medical supervision for administration, some have limited efficacy and may cause adverse side effects, with drug resistance becoming more widespread 58 59 (Wilkinson and Kelly 2009, Alsford et al., 2013). One way to facilitate the development of 60 new drugs targeting HAT is to better understand the mechanism of action of existing 61 treatments with the properties that underlie parasite selectivity incorporated into the 62 development of new trypanocidal agents. For example, melamine rings have been 63 incorporated into several compounds to exploit the substrate specificity displayed by the P2

64 adenosine transporter, a permease implicated in the uptake of pentamidine and melarsoprol 65 (Stewart et al., 2004, Baliani et al., 2005, Chollet et al., 2009, Klee et al., 2010, Capes et al., 2012, Giordani et al., 2014). Similarly a parasite nitroreductase (NTR), an enzyme 66 67 responsible for the activation of nifurtimox (Wilkinson et al., 2008, Hall et al., 2011), has been used to screen nitroaromatic libraries for anti-T. brucei properties (Bot et al., 2010, Hall 68 69 et al., 2010, Hu et al., 2011, Papadopoulou et al., 2011, Hall et al., 2012, Papadopoulou et al., 2012, Bot et al., 2013, Papadopoulou et al., 2013). In the latter case, several NTR-70 71 activated chemicals containing nitrogen mustard or aziridine functional groups that promote 72 DNA damage via formation of cross linkages, have been identified as having significant anti-73 parasitic activities and low mammalian cell toxicity (Bot et al., 2010, Hall et al., 2010, Hu et 74 al., 2011).

75 Genomes are constantly challenged by endogenous and exogenous agents that promote 76 DNA damage, with interstrand crosslinks (ICL) representing a particularly dangerous lesion 77 (O'Connor and Kohn, 1990). Formed when the two complementary strands within the DNA 78 double helix become covalently linked, ICL's block essential cellular process that require 79 DNA strand separation including DNA replication and transcription, leading to chromosomal 80 breakage, rearrangements, or cell death (Dronkert and Kanaar, 2001, McHugh et al., 2001, 81 Deans and West, 2011, Sengerova *et al.*, 2011). Estimates indicate that a single ICL can kill a 82 unicellular microbe with as few as 20 being fatal to a mammalian cell (Magana-Schwencke, 83 Henriques et al. 1982, Lawley and Phillips 1996). In order to preserve the integrity and 84 functionality of DNA eukaryotic cells have evolved a series of complementary and 85 overlapping pathways to repair ICLs, although the precise mechanisms involved in these 86 systems are not fully understood (Deans and West, 2011). In Saccharomyces cerevisiae many 87 of the major DNA repair pathways (nucleotide excision repair (NER), mismatch repair, post-88 replication repair/translesion synthesis and homologous recombination) have been implicated

89 in fixing ICL damage although only a few proteins specifically involved in ICL lesion repair 90 have been identified (Barber et al., 2005, Lehoczky et al., 2007, Daee et al., 2012, Ward et al., 2012). Of these, Pso2p (also known as Snm1) is of great interest as cells lacking this 91 92 activity are specifically and highly susceptible to ICL-forming agents including psoralen, 93 cisplatin and mechlorethamine but not to any other forms of DNA damage (Henriques and 94 Moustacchi, 1980, Ruhland et al., 1981a, Ruhland et al., 1981b). The precise role played by 95 Pso2p in this repair system remains unknown although biochemical studies have shown that 96 it displays a 5' exonuclease activity (Li et al., 2005). This coupled with the observation that 97 $pso2\Delta$ cells exposed to ICL-inducing compounds tend to accumulate DNA double stranded 98 breaks indicates that Pso2p does not function in the initial incision event, which in yeast is 99 primarily controlled by NER, but may be involved in the processing of DNA ends created 100 during the generation of ICL-associated DNA double stranded breaks (Li and Moses, 2003, 101 Barber et al., 2005, Dudas et al., 2007). Intriguingly, Pso2p also displays a structure-specific 102 DNA hairpin opening endonuclease activity providing evidence that it may have other 103 functions outside ICL repair (Tiefenbach and Junop, 2012).

104 Here, we report that T. brucei expresses a Pso2/Snm1 homologue that can readily 105 complement for the susceptibility phenotype exhibited by $pso2\Delta$ yeast cells towards an ICL 106 forming agent. Deletion of the gene, designated Tbsnm1, from the parasite genome revealed 107 that although the encoded enzyme is not essential for viability and growth of bloodstream 108 form (BSF) trypanosomes, cells lacking this activity were more susceptible to bifunctional 109 nitrogen mustard- and aziridine-based ICL-inducing agents. Using recombinant T. brucei 110 expressing altered levels of Tbsnm1 we establish that the trypanocidal mechanism of several 111 potent nitroaromatic-based agents that contain ICL-promoting grouping are dependent on an 112 initial activation catalysed by a parasite specific type I NTR that generates metabolites which 113 then promote DNA damage.

114 **RESULTS**

115 Identifying trypanocidal chemical tools for studying DNA repair.

Previous screening studies have identified nitroaromatic-based azirindyl/nitrogen mustard 116 compounds to be effective trypanocidal agents (Bot et al., 2010, Hall et al., 2010, Hu et al., 117 2011). The antimicrobial activity of these involves a parasite specific activation step 118 119 catalysed by a type I NTR that leads to metabolites postulated to promote DNA damage. To 120 determine if the above compounds do function via this pathway a range of anti-cancer 121 compounds known to mediate their cytotoxicity by promoting DNA cross linkages were 122 screened for trypanocidal activity against BSF T. brucei. The structures tested included non-123 nitroaromatic-based aziridines and nitrogen mustards, nitrosoureas, platinum complexes, an 124 alkyl sulfonate and non-classical DNA crosslinking agents.

125 Out of the non-nitroaromatic anti-cancer compounds assessed, 17 had no effect on parasite 126 growth at concentrations of up to 30 μ M, including busulfan, the only alkyl sulfonate 127 analysed here, and all 5 non-classical DNA crosslinking agents (Table 1). These were not 128 analysed further. For the remaining compounds, the concentration that inhibits parasite growth by 50 % (IC₅₀'s) was determined (Table 1). For all the remaining classes of DNA 129 130 crosslinking agents, two or more compounds displayed trypanocidal activities with IC₅₀ 131 values ranging from 13 nM for mitomycin C, the most potent agent identified here, to 132 approximately 35 µM for mechlorethamine and ThioTEPA.

133

134 Identification of the DNA repair enzyme TbSNM1.

In other eukaryotes, the SNM1/PSO2 family of nucleases play an important role in
repairing damage caused by DNA crosslinking agents (Cattell *et al.*, 2010). Analysis of the *T*. *b. brucei* genome database (Aslett *et al.*, 2010) identified a single hypothetical gene
(designated as Tb*snm1*) of 2163 bp located on chromosome 4 with potential to encode for a

79.5 kDa enzyme (TbSNM1; Gene ID: Tb927.4.1480) related to this family of enzymes. Full 139 140 length TbSNM1 is 42 % identical to the T. cruzi homologue (GenBank accession no. XP 816034) and has 27-32% identity to the leishmanial enzymes LmSNM1 141 142 (XP 001686430) and LdSNM1 (XP 003864463). When compared to yeast, plant and mammalian counterparts sequence identity ranged from 15 to 24 %. Based on sequence, 143 144 TbSNM1 can be divided into two regions (Fig. 1). The amino terminal section (residues 36-145 182) constitutes a non-canonical metallo-*B*-lactamase (MBL; pfam12706) domain containing 146 4 motifs (motifs 1-4), including a characteristic HxHxDH signature (motif 2), that in other 147 SNM1/PSO2 proteins cooperate to mediate zinc co-factor binding. The second section 148 represents a β -CASP (named after its representative member <u>CPSF</u>, <u>Artemis</u>, <u>SNM1</u> and 149 PSO2; pfam10996) region (residues 213-519) that contains within it a stretch of 31 amino 150 acid comprising a DRMBL (DNA repair metallo-*β*-lactamase; pfam07522) domain (residues 151 488-519). The β -CASP region contains a fifth zinc binding motif (motif 5) but as with other 152 SNM1/PSO2 sequences the precise location of this has yet to be defined: *in silico* analysis of TbSNM1 indicates that D220 or H497 (motifs 5' and 5'', respectively) may fulfil this role 153 154 with H497 being the most likely of the two candidate residues (Callebaut *et al.*, 2002). The β -155 CASP domain of TbSNM1 also contains a diagnostic valine residue (position 519) that 156 indicates that the parasite enzyme is involved in DNA processing: DNA processing MBLs 157 contain a valine residue at the equivalent site while RNA processing MBLs contain a 158 histidine (Callebaut et al., 2002).

To investigate whether the *T. brucei* enzyme is a SNM1/PSO2 homologue, Tb*snm1* minus its ATG initiation codon was amplified and cloned into a version of the yeast expression vector pYCYlac111 that contains a DNA sequence encoding for the FLAG-tag epitope. The resultant plasmid was transformed into the *S. cerevisiae* wild type and $pso2\Delta$ strains and expression of recombinant TbSNM1 confirmed by western blot analysis (Fig. 2A). The 164 susceptibility of the fungal lines to mechlorethamine, a DNA crosslinking agent, was then 165 determined and from the resultant dose-response curves the IC₅₀ value for each strain 166 calculated (Fig. 2B and C). Yeast lacking pso2 were clearly more susceptible to the nitrogen 167 mustard than wild type with the null mutant displaying an IC_{50} value approximately 40% that 168 of the control strain. When Tbsnml was expressed in wild type yeast a slight (1.4-fold) 169 resistance was noted. This phenotype was also observed in the $pso2\Delta$ strain expressing 170 Tb*snm1* correlating with an increase in the IC₅₀ value from 1.3 μ M in cells lacking Pso2p to 171 5.7 μ M in *pso2* Δ yeast expressing FLAG-TbSNM1. These data clearly shows that TbSNM1 172 can complement for the $pso2\Delta$ mutation and that the trypanosomal enzyme is a bona fide 173 SNM1/PSO2 homologue.

174

175 TbSNM1 is targeted to the T. brucei nucleus.

When analysed using the PSORTII and WoLFPSORT algorithms, TbSNM1 was predicted to be targeted to the nucleus *via* a 'four pattern' RRRH (residues 428-431) nuclear localisation signal. To confirm this, the full length Tb*snm1* gene minus its ATG initiation codon was amplified and ligated in-frame and downstream of the gene encoding for the enhanced green fluorescence protein (GFP) in a trypanosomal vector that facilitated tetracycline inducible gene expression (Alsford *et al.* 2005). The resultant construct was used to transform BSF *T*. *brucei* and parasite clones were selected.

To induce expression of the tagged protein, cells were incubated in the presence of tetracycline for 48 hours. Recombinant parasites were examined by Western blotting using a monoclonal antibody against GFP (Fig. 3A), with extracts derived from these cells containing a band of the expected size (~105 kDa), or were fixed and examined by confocal microscopy (Fig. 3B). For parasites expressing GFP-TbSNM1, GFP fluorescence was restricted to a large single spot, a pattern reported for trypanosomal proteins localized to nucleus (Fig. 3B). To

confirm this, cells were co-stained with the DNA dye, DAPI. When the images were compared, the pattern of localization indicated that GFP-TbSNM1 was located in the larger of two compartments (the nucleus) where DAPI is found with the smaller, faint spot corresponding to the kinetoplast, the genome found in the parasites' single mitochondrion.

193

194 Functional Analysis of TbSNM1 in T. brucei.

195 To assess whether TbSNM1 was essential to BSF T. brucei an RNAi-based approach was 196 initially employed. A DNA fragment corresponding to an internal region of Tbsnml was cloned into p2T7^{Ti} (Wilkinson et al., 2003) and the construct transformed into BSF T. brucei. 197 198 In the absence of tetracycline, recombinant clones were found to grow at approximately the 199 same rate as the parental cells. Addition of tetracycline to parasites harbouring the RNAi 200 construct did not affect the growth rate suggesting that TbSNM1 is not essential to BSF T. 201 *brucei*. To confirm this, DNA fragments corresponding to the 5' flank of Tbsnml and the 3' 202 region of the Tbsnml gene were cloned either side of a cassette containing blasticidin or 203 puromycin resistance markers. The integration constructs were transformed into BSF T. *brucei* with heterozygote (Tbsnm1^{+/-}) and then null mutant (Tbsnm1^{-/-}) lines selected. 204 205 Southern hybridisation was used to confirm each integration event demonstrating that both 206 copies of the *Tbsnm1* gene could readily be deleted from the parasite genome (Fig. 4A and B) 207 while qPCR data analysed using the comparative C_T method showed that a full length 208 Tbsnm1 mRNA was not expressed (data not shown) (Schmittgen and Livak, 2008). 209 Reduction or lack of TbSNM1 had no effect on trypanosome growth (data not shown). 210 Therefore, TbSNM1 is non-essential to BSF T. brucei under normal culture conditions 211 confirming the RNAi observations.

To evaluate whether deletion of both copies of Tb*snm1* from the *T. brucei* genome altered sensitivity to chemicals that promote DNA cross linkage, null mutant cells were grown in the 214 presence of these agents and the IC₅₀ values for each compound determined (Table 1). Cells 215 lacking TbSNM1 were more susceptible to a range of nitrogen mustard and aziridinyl 216 compounds, including several of the trypanocidal nitroaromatic structures previously identified (Bot et al., 2010, Hall et al., 2010, Hu et al., 2011). Intriguingly, Tbsnm1-/- cells 217 218 exhibited a larger difference in their sensitivities to the nitrogen mustards screened than that 219 observed when using the aziridinyl compounds. When these growth assays were extended to 220 look at other DNA damaging agents including mitomycin C, semustine, cisplatin, MMS, 221 H₂O₂, hydroxyurea and UV light, and to the clinically used trypanocidal drugs nifurtimox, 222 benznidazole or difluoromethylornithine (DFMO), no difference in IC_{50} was observed. 223 In order to demonstrate conclusively that the altered susceptibility phenotypes were 224 specifically due to lack of TbSNM1, a complementation strategy was used. In these experiments Tbsnm1^{-/-} cells were transformed with a vector that facilitates constitutive 225 226 expression of an ectopic copy of Tbsnml integrated into one of the parasite's tubulin arrays: wild type cells also expressing this vector were also generated. The IC₅₀ of these parasites 227 228 towards selected nitrogen mustard and aziridinyl compounds was determined and compared 229 with values obtained using wild type and Tbsnml null mutant lines (Fig. 5A). When the 230 susceptibility of the complemented line to the nitrobenzyl-containing nitrogen mustard 231 (LH34) and aziridinyl (NH1) compounds was tested, the resultant dose response curves (and associated IC₅₀ values) were distinct from the Tbsnm1^{-/-} cells, which displayed increased 232 233 sensitivity to both agents, and equivalent to the plots observed using Tbsnml expressing 234 parasites (wild type and wild type cells engineered to express elevated levels of TbSNM1) 235 (Fig. 5A). When the screens were extended to investigate the complemented line's 236 susceptibility to non-nitroaromatic nitrogen mustard (mechlorethamine) and aziridinyl 237 (triethylenemelamine) compounds, a resistance phenotype was noted, with the dose response 238 curves (and associated IC₅₀ values) in the complemented line mirroring that obtained for wild

type parasites expressing elevated levels of TbSNM1 (Fig. 5A): trypanosomes (wild type and
Tb*snm1* null mutants) expressing an ectopic copy of Tb*snm1* were up to 2.1-fold more
resistant to mechlorethamine and triethylenemelamine than wild type.

The above complementation studies indicate that parasites (wild type or $Tbsnm1^{-/-}$) ectopically expressing Tbsnm1 are resistant to non-nitroaromatic DNA crosslinking agents but not to the nitroaromatic-containing compounds. One reason for this could reflect that the latter structures function as prodrugs and must undergo an NTR catalysed activation step before mediating their trypanocidal DNA damaging activities.

247

248 Linking prodrug activation with DNA damage.

249 To identify any link between the DNA damaging and the NTR-activating pathways, both 250 copies of the Tbsnml gene were deleted from T. brucei cells expressing an ectopic copy of 251 Tbntr and the susceptibilities of these recombinant cells towards selected nitrogen mustard 252 and aziridinyl compounds determined (Fig. 5B). When treated with mechlorethamine or 253 triethylenemelamine, both Tbsnml expressing cell lines (wild type and trypanosomes 254 expressing elevated levels of Tbntr) displayed similar dose response curves and therefore had similar IC₅₀'s to either agent (Fig. 5B). When these studies were expanded to investigate the 255 susceptiblity of parasites lacking TbSNM1, the Tbs $nm1^{-/-}$ null mutant line and Tbs $nm1^{-/-}$ cells 256 257 expressing the ectopic copy of Tbntr displayed equivalent IC₅₀ values, with both being more 258 sensitive to mechlorethamine and triethylenemelamine than wild type (Fig. 5B). Importantly, 259 no difference in IC₅₀ was observed using either of the lines lacking Tbsnm1 indicating that 260 Tbntr plays no role in metabolising either mechlorethamine or triethylenemelamine.

When the nitrobenzyl-containing DNA crosslinking agents LH34 and NH1 were tested against the parasite lines expressing altered levels of Tb*snm1* and/or Tb*ntr* a different outcome was observed (Fig. 5B). For Tb*snm1*^{-/-} parasites or wild type cells expressing an

264 ectopic copy of Tbntr, treatment with either damaging agents resulted in increased 265 susceptibility when compared against controls, with Tbntr over expressing trypanosomes being more sensitive to LH34 and NH1 than the null mutant lines: $Tbsnml^{-/-}$ cells and T. 266 brucei over expressing Tbntr were 18.0- and 24.0-fold more susceptible to LH34, 267 respectively, with a 2.7- and 31.1-fold increase in sensitivity noted towards NH1. For 268 269 Tbsnm1^{-/-} null parasites expressing an ectopic copy of Tbntr this increase in potency was 270 magnified further with these cells showing a 80.0- and 38.7-fold increase in susceptibility 271 towards LH34 and NH1, respectively, when as compared against wild type.

272

273 DISCUSSION

274 Currently, very little is known about the mechanisms T. brucei employs to repair ICL 275 damage even though this parasite is exposed to such deleterious insults throughout its cell and 276 life cycles. In other unicellular eukaryotes such as budding and fission yeast, the processing 277 of ICLs occurs through the concerted activities of several major DNA repair pathways with 278 one enzyme, Pso2p, playing a central and specific role in fixing such lesions. Although nonessential for yeast viability, the importance of Pso2p is only apparent in its absence on 279 280 exposure to ICL-inducing, bifunctional alkylating agents but not to monofunctional 281 alkylating agents, ionizing radiation or ultraviolet light (Henriques and Moustacchi, 1980, 282 Ruhland et al., 1981a, Ruhland et al., 1981b). Here, we report the characterisation of 283 TbSNM1, a trypanosomal Pso2p homologue, and demonstrate that this enzyme plays a key 284 role in processing ICL lesions when generated by bifunctional nitrogen mustard and aziridinyl compounds including several nitroaromatic-based agents previously shown to have 285 286 potent anti-trypanosomal properties with low toxicity to mammalian cells (Bot et al. 2010, 287 Hall et al., 2010, Hu et al., 2011).

288 In terms of its sequence, TbSNM1 displays the main characteristics found in other 289 PSO2/SNM1 proteins, possessing adjacent MBL and β -CASP domains that together form the 290 enzyme's zinc-binding central catalytic core (Cattell et al., 2010). To confirm the in silico 291 identification a complementation approach was undertaken. This involved ectopically 292 expressing the trypanosomal enzyme in a yeast $pso2\Delta$ line and then evaluating the 293 susceptibility of the resultant cells to mechlorethamine, a bifunctional alkylating agent 294 routinely used as an ICL-inducing agent. In this genetic background the parasite protein was 295 able to revert the susceptibility phenotype displayed by the $pso2\Delta$ line resulting in an 296 additional slight (approximately 2-fold) resistance towards this nitrogen mustard. This 297 confirmed that the trypanosomal enzyme is a genuine Pso2p homologue and that it plays a 298 role in the processing of ICL lesions. Further, as TbSNM1 can complement for the pso2 299 mutation then the parasite enzyme may interact with the same partner proteins as its yeast 300 counterpart. For example, Pso2p contains an ubiquitin binding zinc finger (UBZ) C2HC 301 motif upstream of its catalytic core (Yang *et al.*, 2010). By analogy with hSNM1A, the only 302 human PSO2/SNM1 homologue able to complement the yeast pso2 mutation (Hazrati et al., 303 2008), this signature sequence is able to facilitate binding to monoubiquinated PCNA leading 304 to recruitment of this repair enzyme to ICL-stalled replication forks (Yang et al., 2010). 305 Interestingly, *in silico* searches failed to identify any known UBZ C2HC domain or any other 306 type of ubiquitin interaction motifs (UIM) in the parasite protein sequence. Therefore, if 307 formation of PSO2/SNM1-containing DNA repair complexes at the site of ICL damage does 308 involve PCNA ubiquitylation then the molecular mechanisms underlying TbSNM1 309 recruitment to such lesions occurs through an as yet uncharacterised UIM or *via* interactions 310 involving a conserved adapter protein. Recently, it has been shown that the β -CASP domain 311 of Pso2p can be phosphorylated leading to the suggestion that this event may play a role in 312 modulating the enzyme's exo- or endo-nucleolytic activity (Munari et al., 2014). Whether 313 TbSNM1 undergoes a similar posttranslational modification and how this effects its nuclease314 activity has yet to be established.

315 The endogenous function of TbSNM1 is non-essential to replicating T. brucei: both copies of *Tbsnm1* could be deleted from the genome of BSF trypomastigote parasites. However, the 316 317 importance of this enzyme to the trypanosome only became evident following exposure to 318 ICL-inducing compounds: null mutant cells were more susceptible to bi- and tri-functional 319 alkylating agents as compared to controls while these recombinant cells display an equivalent 320 sensitivity to wild type when exposed to MMS, UV irradiation and H₂O₂, treatments 321 normally repaired by homologous recombination, nucleotide excision repair or base excise 322 repair pathways. This trait was solely due to loss of TbSNM1 activity as expression of an 323 ectopic copy of Tbsnml in the null mutant genetic background restored the recombinant parasites IC₅₀ near to wild type levels. Intriguingly, the range of compounds that elicits the 324 change in susceptibility in the Tbsnm1^{-/-} trypanosomes although similar to that noted for the 325 326 yeast $pso2\Delta$ line does have some notable differences (Henriques and Moustacchi, 1980, 327 Ruhland et al., 1981a, Ruhland et al., 1981b). For example, yeast pso2 mutants are reported to be more susceptible to cisplatin and mitomycin C while *T. brucei* lacking TbSNM1 display 328 329 sensitivities similar to that exhibited by wild type parasites. This may be because that 330 although both compounds can function as ICL-inducing agents they can also mediate their 331 cytotoxic activities via other mechanisms including promoting formation of intrastrand 332 crosslinks, activating signal transduction pathways, stimulating redox cycling, acting as 333 enzyme inhibitors or alkylating other biological molecules (Sharma and Tomasz, 1994, 334 Pagano et al., 2003, Siddik, 2003, Rabik and Dolan, 2007, Paz et al., 2012). One (or a 335 combination) of these alternative modes of action (or possibly another unidentified 336 mechanism) may account for cisplatin's and mitomycin C's trypanocidal properties therefore 337 negating the requirement for a TbSNM1-dependent ICL repair pathway.

338 Previous trypanocidal screening programmes have identified nitrobenzylphosphoramide 339 mustards (NBPMs) and aziridinyl nitrobenzamides (ANBs) as having potent anti-parasitic 340 activity (Bot et al. 2010, Hall et al., 2010, Hu et al., 2011). These agents function as prodrugs 341 and must be activated before they can mediate their cytotoxic effects, a reaction catalysed a 342 NADH dependent type I NTR. This reduction causes the conversion of a conserved electron 343 withdrawing nitro-group present on the compound's benzyl ring to an electron donating 344 hydroxylamine derivative (Bot et al. 2010, Hall et al., 2010, Hu et al., 2011). This action 345 effectively acts as an electronic switch that is believed to turn on the alkylating ability of the 346 nitrogen mustard or aziridinyl moiety causing ICL-mediated DNA damage. Using Tbsnm1 347 null mutant parasites engineered to express elevated levels of TbNTR we have now 348 demonstrated a link between prodrug activation and ICL formation. Here we observed that 349 wild type parasites exhibited the highest IC₅₀ values towards LH34 (a 350 nitrobenzylphosphoramide mustard) and NH1 (an aziridinyl nitrobenzamide) while 351 trypanosomes lacking TbSNM1 and cells over expressing TbNTR had intermediate 352 sensitivities. Interestingly, Tbsnml null mutants that also express elevated levels of TbNTR 353 were the most prone to both compounds. This implies that following uptake, LH34 and NH1 354 are transported into mitochondrion where they undergo TbNTR mediated reduction to form 355 the bioactive products. These observations suggest that in parasites where the NTR activity is 356 over expressed this conversion occurs at a faster rate than in wild type cells resulting in 357 increased sensitivity to the compound. A portion of the resulting metabolites are then able to 358 access the nucleus where they induce ICL formation. In the absence of TbSNM1, mutant 359 cells are less able to repair this type of DNA damage, resulting in an increased susceptibility 360 to the ICL-inducing agent. In parasites where both TbSNM1 and TbNTR levels have been 361 altered, this susceptibility phenotype is exacerbated. Intriguingly, the difference in sensitivities between Tbsnm1^{-/-} cells expressing elevated TbNTR levels from those over 362

363 expressing TbNTR alone was greater for LH34 than for NH1. This may be attributable to 364 properties of the substrate/TbNTR-generated metabolites, possibly reflecting differences in 365 cell and/or organelle uptake (TbNTR is a mitochondrial protein (Wilkinson et al 2008) or 366 how the substrates interact with, or how the metabolites are released from, TbNTR (in vitro nitrobenzyl phosphoramide nitrogen mustard-based compounds interact with TbNTR more 367 368 readily than the aziridinyl nitrobenzamide (Hall *et al.*, 2013). Additionally, as this study only 369 considers ICL formation and repair in the nuclear genome, it is plausible that LH34 and NH1 370 reduction products may also affect the mitochondrial genome with the NH1 metabolites 371 preferentially affecting this DNA containing region and not the nucleus.

372 We have now demonstrated that T. brucei expresses a bona fide homologue of the 373 PSO2/SNM1 nuclease family. The trypanosomal enzyme displays characteristics of its yeast 374 counterpart and is able to repair the DNA damage caused by bi- and tri-functional alkylating 375 agents. By exploiting parasites lacking this enzyme we were able to demonstrate that 376 following TbNTR-mediated activation nitrobenzylphosphoramide mustard and aziridinyl 377 nitrobenzamide agents, compounds previously shown to have potent trypanocidal properties 378 with little/no cytotoxicity in mammalian cells, generate metabolites that promote ICL 379 formation. Although not essential to survival of the medically relevant form of T. brucei, in 380 the future TbSNM1 could be targeted through the use of inhibitors to improve the potency of 381 other drugs that do cause parasite death through formation of the extremely lethal ICL.

382

383 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

384 *Cell culturing.* Bloodstream form *Trypanosoma brucei brucei* (MITat 427 strain; clone 221a 385 and a derivative (2T1) engineered to express elevated levels of TbNTR-myc) were 386 maintained in HMI-9 (Invitrogen) medium supplemented with 3g Γ^1 sodium bicarbonate, 387 0.014 % (v/v) β -mercaptoethanol and 10 % (v/v) foetal calf serum (Hirumi and Hirumi, 1989, *****

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388	Wilkinson <i>et al.</i> , 2008) at 37 °C under a 5 % (v/v) CO_2 atmosphere. The 211 cells were
389	grown in the presence of 1 μ g ml ⁻¹ phleomycin and 2 μ g ml ⁻¹ puromycin. Transformed <i>T</i> .
390	brucei cells were grown in the presence of 2.5 µg ml ⁻¹ hygromycin, 10 µg ml ⁻¹ blasticidin
391	and/or 2 μ g ml ⁻¹ puromycin.

S. cerevisiae strains BY4742 (*MATa* his3- $\Delta 1$ leu2- $\Delta 0$ lys2- $\Delta 0$ ura3- $\Delta 0$) and a pso2 Δ derivative obtained from the Open Biosystems (Thermo Scientific) knock-out collection were maintained in yeast extract-peptone broth containing 2 % (w/v) glucose. Transformed cells were grown in Synthetic Complete Dropout medium lacking leucine (Sigma).

396

397 *Chemicals.* The DNA damaging agents were obtained from Drug Synthesis and Chemistry 398 Branch, Developmental Therapeutics Program, Division of Cancer Treatment and Diagnosis, 399 National Cancer Institute except CB1954, H₂O₂, methyl methanesulphonate (MMS) and 400 hydroxyurea (all Sigma-Aldrich), NH1 (Helsby *et al.*, 2004) and LH7, LH17, LH32-34 and 401 LH37 (Hu *et al.*, 2003, Li *et al.*, 2003, Hu *et al.*, 2011). Nifurtimox and benznidazole were 402 obtained from Simon Croft (London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine) and DFMO 403 from Mike Barrett (University of Glasgow).

404

405 *Plasmids.* The vectors used to delete Tbsnm1 from the T. brucei genome were generated as 406 follows. Primers were designed to amplify 897 or 909 bp fragments from the 5' Tbsnm1 407 untranslated region and 3' region of the Tbsnml gene, respectively. These were cloned 408 sequentially either side of a puromycin- (pac) or blasticidin- (bla) containing resistance 409 cassette. The constructs were linearized (SacI/KpnI for the pac vector or SacII/KpnI for the *bla* vector) then introduced into BSF *T. brucei* using the Human T-cell Nucleofector[®] kit and 410 an Amaxa[®] NucleofectorTM (Lonza AG) set to program X-001. Integration of the DNA 411 412 constructs into the T. brucei genome results in deletion of 60% of the Tbsnml open reading frame (amino acids 1 to 425) including all of the non-canonical MBL domain. As this region
is essential for Pso2p/SNM1 function (Li and Moses, 2003) removal of the MBL encoding
DNA sequence from the trypanosomal genome would generate parasites lacking TbSNM1
activity, effectively producing Tb*snm1* null mutant cells.

417 The Tbsnm1 trypanosomal expression vector was generated as follows: a 2166 bp DNA 418 sequence corresponding to full length Tbsnml was amplified from T. brucei genomic DNA 419 using the primers cctgcaggATGGCAGGTGGA GCTGCAGGT and 420 gcgcgccCTTATTCTGAGTC ACTACTCAG (lower-case italics correspond to restriction sites 421 incorporated into the primers to facilitate cloning), digested with SdaI/SgsI and ligated into 422 the corresponding sites of vector pTubEX-LmSpSyn (Taylor et al 2008), replacing Lmspsyn. The NotI/XhoI digested construct was introduced into T. brucei wild type and Tbsnm1^{-/-} cells 423 424 using nucleofection and recombinant clones selected.

425 For the localisation construct a 2166 bp DNA sequence corresponding to full length 426 Tb*snm1* was amplified from T. brucei genomic DNA using the primers tctagaGCAGGTGGAGCTGC AGGTAAG and gagatctTTATTCTGAGTCACT ACTCAG 427 428 (lower-case italics correspond to restriction sites incorporated into the primers to facilitate 429 cloning), the fragment digested with XbaI/BgIII and ligated into the XbaI/BamHI sites of vector pRPa^{GFP-AT2} (Aslford *et al.*, 2005) to replace the Tb*at2* coding sequence. The cloning 430 431 was carried out such that the gene coding for the green fluorescence protein (GFP) was 432 inserted in-frame at the 5' end of the *Tbsnm1*-derived DNA fragment. The AscI digested 433 construct was introduced into T. brucei 2T1 parasites.

To construct the yeast complementation vector Tb*snm1* was amplified from the trypanosomal localisation plasmid using the primers *tctaga*GCAGGTGGAGCTGCAGGTAA G and *aagctt*TTATTCTGAGTCACTACTCAG (lower-case italics correspond to restriction sites incorporated into the primers to facilitate cloning). The resultant fragment was digested

with XbaI/HindIII and ligated into the corresponding sites of a pYCYlac111 derivative containing a DNA sequence encoding for the FLAG-tag epitope (Novoselova *et al.* 2013). The plasmid was transformed into yeast strains BY4742 and $pso2\Delta$. In this system recombinant TbSNM1 is tagged at its amino-terminus with a FLAG-tag epitope detectable with the anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody (Sigma).

443

Localisation. BSF trypanosomes expressing GFP-TbSNM1 were washed twice in phosphate
buffered saline (PBS), fixed in 2 % (w/v) paraformaldehyde/PBS and washed again in PBS.
Aliquots of the cell suspension (10⁵ cells) were then air dried onto microscope slides. Parasite
DNA was stained using Vectashield Mounting Medium containing 4',6-diamidino-2phenylindole (DAPI) (Vectorshield Laboratories) and slides were viewed using a Leica SP5
confocal microscope.

450

451 Antiproliferative assays. All assays were performed in a 96-well plate format. T. brucei BSF parasites were seeded at 1 x 10^4 ml⁻¹ in 200 µL growth medium containing different 452 concentrations of compound. For UV irradiation, parasites were exposed to doses up to 900 J 453 m⁻² using a Stratalinker[®] UV crosslinker (Stratagene). After incubation at 37 °C for 3 days, 454 2.5 μ g resazurin (20 μ L of 0.125 μ g ml⁻¹ stock in phosphate buffered saline) was added to 455 456 each well and the plates incubated for a further 6-8 hours (Jones et al., 2010). Cell densities 457 were determined by monitoring the fluorescence of each culture using a Gemini Fluorescent 458 Plate Reader (Molecular Devices (UK) Ltd, Wokingham, UK) at an excitation wavelength of 459 530 nm, emission wavelength of 585 nm and a filter cut off at 550 nm. The drug/treatment 460 concentration that inhibits cell growth by 50% (IC₅₀) was established using the non-linear 461 regression tool on GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software Inc.).

Yeast complementation assay. All assays were performed in a 96-well plate format. The cell density of overnight yeast cultures were equalised according to absorbance at 405 nm in medium containing different concentrations of mechlorethamine. The growth of each strain was then followed by monitoring the change in absorbance at 405 nm using an Absorbance Microplate Reader (BioTek Instruments Ltd). The % growth for each mechlorethaminetreated culture after 18 hours relative to untreated samples was determined.

469

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698 **TABLE**

Table 1. Susceptibility of *T. brucei* **lines to DNA damaging agents.** The cell lines analysed were *T. brucei* (wild type) and *T. brucei* Tb*snm1*^{-/-} null mutants (Tb*snm1*^{-/-}). IC₅₀ values are given in μ M except for UV irradiation which is in J m⁻¹. LH7, LH17, LH32-34, LH37, CB1954 and NH1 represent structures previously identified as trypanocidal agents (Bot *et al.*,

2010, Hall *et al.*, 2010, Hu *et al.*, 2011). nd is not determined.

compound	<i>T. brucei</i> IC ₅₀					
	wild type	Tbsnm1 ^{-/-}				
nitrogen mustards	••					
chlorambucil, cyclophosphamide, uramustine,	>30.000	nd				
trofosfamide, ifosfamide, bendamustine						
mechlorethamine	34.240 ± 1.270	8.210 ± 1.180				
melphalan	8.660 ± 0.660	3.960 ± 0.320				
estramustine	9.370 ± 1.150	nd				
prednimustine	13.870 ± 1.330	nd				
LH7	10.870 ± 0.240	0.580 ± 0.050				
LH17	4.160 ± 0.130	0.380 ± 0.040				
LH32	0.245 ± 0.079	0.021 ± 0.004				
LH33	0.215 ± 0.008	0.015 ± 0.000				
LH34	0.067 ± 0.006	0.006 ± 0.001				
LH37	0.097 ± 0.009	0.005 ± 0.000				
aziridines						
thioTEPA	37.830 ± 1.730	13.880 ± 0.970				
triethylenemelamine	1.130 ± 0.150	0.300 ± 0.020				
mitomycin C	0.013 ± 0.001	0.010 ± 0.001				
CB1954	3.900 ± 0.420	0.690 ± 0.050				
NH1	0.120 ± 0.004	0.044 ± 0.013				
nitrosoureas						
carmustine, nimustine, NSC270516	>30.000	nd				
lomustine	16.650 ± 0.440	17.310 ± 0.210				
streptozotocin	21.800 ± 5.020	nd				
semustine	4.760 ± 0.050	3.780 ± 0.070				
alkyl sulfonate						
busulfan	>30.000	nd				
non-classical DNA crosslinking agents						
altretamine, pipobroman, dacarbazine,	>30.000	nd				
temozolomide, mitobronitol						
platinum-based						
oxaliplatin, nedaplatin	>30.000	nd				
cisplatin	2.280 ± 0.130	3.400 ± 0.280				
carboplatin	5.030 ± 0.040	nd				
Other agents						
hydroxyurea	105.970 ± 10.190	88.200 ± 7.300				
H ₂ O ₂	43.710 ± 5.950	50.06 ± 7.520				
UV irradiation	214.000 ± 13.000	196.000 ± 30.000				
MMS	16.125 ± 1.379	14.020 ± 1.343				
DMFO	24.150 ± 3.940	24.240 ± 6.710				
nifurtimox	2.850 ± 0.020	2.250 ± 0.090				
benznidazole	46.140 ± 1.440	37.680 ± 1.630				

705 FIGURE LEGENDS

706 Fig. 1. Sequence analysis of TbSNM1. The sequence corresponding to the metallo- β -707 lactamase (MBL; grey box) and β-CASP (hatched box) domains of TbSNM1 was aligned 708 with other members of the SNM1A/PSO2 family of nucleases. The residues that are common 709 with the TbSNM1 sequence are represented by dots. Sequence differences when compared 710 with TbSNM1 are shown. In the alignments, amino acids marked with an asterisks (solid line 711 in TbSNM1 schematic) correspond to motif 1-4, regions postulated to coordinate the metal (zinc) co-factor binding. The two possible residues that may represent motif 5 (5' or 5''; 712 713 dotted line in TbSNM1 schematic) are also shown. The down arrow highlights the amino acid 714 that distinguishes DNA from RNA processing metallo-β-lactamases while the RRRH 715 sequence corresponds to a putative nuclear 'pattern 4' targeting signal. The sequences aligned 716 are: T. brucei TbSNM1 (GenBank AAZ10739), Saccharomyces cerevisiae ScPSO2 717 (NP 013857), Arabidopsis thaliana AtSNM1 (NP 189302) and Homo sapiens HsSNM1A 718 (NP 001258745).

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720 Fig. 2. Complementation of the yeast $pso2\Delta$ mutation. A. Western blot analysis was 721 carried out using a monoclonal antibody to the FLAG-tag epitope on cell extracts made from 722 S. cerevisiae BY4742 (wild type) and $pso2\Delta$ strains expressing the FLAG epitope (control) or 723 FLAG-TbSNM1. A band of ~80 kDa (indicated by **) was observed in lysates derived from 724 cell expressing the recombinant trypanosomal protein. A cross reactive epitope (*) and 725 Ponceau S staining of the membrane (not shown) were used as loading controls. B & C. The 726 susceptibility of wild type and $pso2\Delta$ yeast strains expressing FLAG or FLAG-TbSNM1 to 727 different concentrations of mechlorethamine. All data are mean values \pm standard deviations 728 from experiments performed in triplicate. In C, the values given in parenthesis represent the 729 fold difference in IC_{50} values (in μM) relative to wild type controls.

730 Fig. 3. Localisation of TbSNM1 in bloodstream form T.brucei. A. Expression of GFP-731 TbSNM1 was examined by probing a blot containing cell lysates from T. brucei wild type 732 (lane 1) and GFP-TbSNM1 expressing cells (lane 2) using an anti-GFP antibody (upper panel). Protein from 1.5 x 10^7 cells was loaded in each track and a cross reactive epitope 733 734 (lower panel) and by Coomassie staining (not shown) were used as loading controls. B. 735 Parasites expressing GFP-TbSNM1 were co-stained with DAPI (DNA) and the cells 736 examined by confocal microscopy. The TbSNM1 signal is coincidental with the nucleus (n; 737 large DAPI spot); the smaller DAPI spot corresponds to the kinetoplast (k), the trypanosome 738 mitochondrial genome.

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740 Fig. 4. Disruption of Tbsnm1 in T. brucei. A. Diagram of the Tbsnm1 alleles and the effects of gene disruption. A 5' Tbsnm1 flanking sequence and a 3' Tbsnm1 coding region were 741 742 amplified and cloned sequentially either side of a puromycin (pac) or blasticidin (bla) 743 cassette (plus T. brucei tubulin intergenic elements required for processing of mRNA (hashed 744 boxes). The dotted lines correspond to the probe used to check integration. The position of 745 the predicted *MluI* sites plus the band sizes (in kbp) obtained after hybridisation are shown. B. Southern blot analysis of *MluI* digested genomic DNA from *T. brucei* (lane 1), Tbsnm1^{+/-} 746 *bla* and Tb*snm1*^{+/-} *pac* heterozygous clones (lanes 2 and 3 respectively) and a Tb*snm1*^{-/-} null 747 748 mutant line (lane 4). Blots were hybridized with labelled 3' region of sequences. Sizes given 749 are in kbp.

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Fig. 5. Susceptibility of *T. brucei* lines expressing altered levels of TbSNM1 to DNA damaging agents. A. Growth inhibitory effects (expressed as IC_{50} values in μ M or nM) of the *T. brucei* wild type, $Tbsnm1^{-/-}$ null mutant, $Tbsnm1^{-/-}$ expressing an ectopic copy of Tbsnm1 ($Tbsnm1^{-/-}$ + $Tbsmn1^{++}$) and *T. brucei* expressing elevated levels of Tbsnm1 (wild

type + $Tbsmnl^{++}$) lines towards DNA damaging agents. Integration of the Tbsnml755 756 expression vector into a single tubulin array was confirmed by Southern hybridization and 757 expression evaluated through qPCR (data not shown). B. Growth inhibitory effects (expressed as IC₅₀ values in μ M or nM) of *T. brucei* wild type, Tb*snm1*^{-/-} null mutant, *T*. 758 brucei expressing an ectopic copy of Tbntr (wild type + Tbntr9e10⁺⁺ and Tbsnm1^{-/-} 759 expressing elevated levels of Tbntr (Tbsnm1^{-/-} + Tbntr9e10⁺⁺) towards DNA damaging 760 as evalu. agents. Expression of Tbntr was evaluated through qPCR (data not shown). Data in panels A 761 and B are mean values \pm standard deviations from experiments performed in quadruplicate. 762



250x129mm (300 x 300 DPI)

(30)



	Yeast IC ₅₀ (µM)			
	wild type + FLAG	wild type + FLAG-TbSNM1	pso2∆ + FLAG	pso2∆ + FLAG-TbSNM1
mechlorethamine	3.6 ± 0.4	$5.1 \pm 0.5 (1.4)$	$1.3 \pm 0.6 \ (0.4)$	$5.7 \pm 0.7 (1.6)$

150x108mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Q. Q.





99x66mm (300 x 300 DPI)

R R R



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199x103mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Trypanosomiasis is of medical and veterinary importance across sub-Saharan Africa. *Trypanosoma brucei*, the causative agent of these infections, expresses a DNA repair enzyme that exhibits characteristics typical of PSO2/SNM1 family of nucleases. This activity although non-essential for the growth of bloodstream form parasites does play a key role in fixing the damage caused by DNA interstrand crosslinking agents.



59x43mm (300 x 300 DPI)

