# 1 Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 link the DNA damage response to the 2 mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition during early reprogramming

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#### 16 SUMMARY

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Differentiated cells are epigenetically stable, but can be reprogrammed to pluripotency by 18 19 expression of the OSKM transcription factors. Despite significant effort, relatively little is known about the cellular requirements for reprogramming and how they affect the properties of induced 20 21 pluripotent stem cells (iPSC). We have performed high-content screening with siRNAs targeting 22 300 chromatin-associated factors. We used colony features, such as size and shape, as well as 23 strength and homogeneity of marker gene expression to define five colony phenotypes in early 24 reprogramming. We identified transcriptional signatures associated with these phenotypes in a secondary RNA sequencing screen. One of these phenotypes involves large colonies and an early 25 26 block of reprogramming. Double knockdown epistasis experiments of the genes involved, revealed 27 that Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 functionally interact and are required for both the DNA damage 28 response and the mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition (MET), linking these processes. Moreover, the data provide a resource on the role of chromatin-associated factors in reprogramming and 29 30 underline colony morphology as an important high dimensional readout for reprogramming 31 quality. 32

#### 33 INTRODUCTION

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Somatic cells can be reprogrammed to pluripotency by artificial expression of four transcription factors: Oct4, Sox2, Klf4 and c-Myc (OSKM) (Takahashi and Yamanaka, 2006). With varying efficiency, iPS cells can be derived from a wide variety of cell types and they can differentiate into all cell lineages. Thus, they represent a promising resource for tissue regeneration and disease modeling.

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The earliest phase of reprogramming involves dramatic changes in metabolic and cellular processes (Panopoulos et al., 2012; Polo et al., 2012) accompanied by an increase in cell proliferation. Somatic genes are repressed (Maherali et al., 2007; Mikkelsen et al., 2007) and cells undergo MET, a mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition (Li et al., 2010; Samavarchi-Tehrani et al., 2010), leading to the expression of epithelial genes such as *E-Cadherin* (*Cdh1*) and *Epcam*, while mesenchymal regulators (e.g. Snai1/2, Zeb1/2) are repressed (Samavarchi-Tehrani et al., 2010).

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47 Subsequently, pluripotency genes carrying active histone marks at regulatory regions are activated (Maherali et al., 2007; Mikkelsen et al., 2007; Polo et al., 2012). At this point, cells have not fully 48 acquired the pluripotency program. These partially reprogrammed intermediates are sometimes 49 50 referred to as pre-iPS cells (Silva et al., 2008). Late pluripotency markers and endogenous Nanog, Oct4 and Sox2 are activated through a combination of promoter DNA-demethylation (Gao et al., 51 52 2013: Meissner et al., 2008) and depletion of repressive histone mark H3K9me3 (Soufi et al., 2012: 53 Sridharan et al., 2013). The majority of the cells seem refractory to reprogramming or are trapped in a partially reprogrammed state, and only a small percentage of cells will successfully progress 54 55 through all the stages (Polo et al., 2012).

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A DNA damage response is important for reprogramming, as the p53 pathway prevents survival of
cells with substantial DNA damage (Marion et al., 2009). In agreement with this, DNA repair and
recombination proteins are required for reprogramming (Gonzalez et al., 2013; Hansson et al.,
2012). Additionally, senescence evokes a DNA damage response and it has been shown to be a
barrier for reprogramming (Utikal et al., 2009).

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63 All these events reveal the importance of remodeling the transcriptional program and the 64 chromatin state during reprogramming. Several chromatin-associated proteins that facilitate or block reprogramming have been identified by RNAi (Cacchiarelli et al., 2015; Qin et al., 2014). The 65 activities of the H3K9 methyl transferases Ehmt1/2, Suv39h1/2 and Setdb1 constitute roadblocks 66 of reprogramming (Soufi et al., 2012; Sridharan et al., 2013). In contrast, H3K9 demethylases such 67 68 as Kdm3a/b and Kdm4c facilitate reprogramming (Chen et al., 2013). In addition, both the repressive Polycomb PRC2 complex (Onder et al., 2012) and the Trithorax SET-MLL methyl 69 transferase complexes act as facilitators. The H3K4 methylation mediated by the SET-MLL 70 71 complexes primes pluripotency enhancers for activity (Wang et al., 2016) and the absence of their 72 core component Wdr5 abrogates reprogramming (Ang et al., 2011).

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74 Despite the progress that has been made in characterizing the molecular changes during 75 reprogramming, how these dynamic changes are orchestrated is still ill-understood. We have used 76 high-content screening to assess the role of  $\sim$ 300 chromatin-associated proteins in pre-iPS colony 77 phenotypes during early reprogramming. High-content analysis allows simultaneous measurement 78 of multiple morphological phenotypes. The combination of siRNA screening with high-content 79 microscopy can reveal new associations among pathways (Fischer et al., 2015; Sero and Bakal, 80 2017). A similar approach has previously been used to define new gene networks involved in the 81 final phase of iPS cells formation (Golipour et al., 2012). We measured over twenty colonyphenotypes, including number of colonies, expression of pluripotency markers and other 82 morphological and textural features, after individual knockdown of 300 chromatin modifiers. 83 84 Selected hits from the primary screening were subjected to a transcriptome-based secondary screen. We identify several chromatin-associated proteins that act together in the DNA damage 85 86 response and the MET during early reprogramming to pluripotency. 87

#### 88 **RESULTS**

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#### 90 High throughput analysis of the early phase of reprogramming

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92 Reprogramming is associated with major changes in cell morphology, in part due to the MET (Li et 93 al., 2010). Thus, we asked whether chromatin-mediated changes would affect reprogramming 94 efficiency, colony morphology and expression of pluripotency markers. Moreover, we wondered 95 how chromatin-associated factors might work together, as revealed by their similarities in a high 96 dimensional phenotypic space upon knockdown (Mulder et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012). To define 97 a set of relevant chromatin-associated factors for an siRNA screen (Fig. 1A), we used available 98 expression data (Chantzoura et al., 2015) to select genes with robust expression MEFs or at least 4-99 fold upregulated expression in reprogramming cells. The custom siRNA library comprised 300 100 chromatin-associated factors, and for each target, three different siRNA molecules were pooled for 101 transfections (Table S1).

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103 We were specifically interested in the early phase of reprogramming, as chromatin is hypothesized 104 to confer epigenetic stability to somatic cells. To test the function of the chromatin-associated 105 genes in early reprogramming, we used a fast and efficient reprogramming system (Vidal et al., 2014), where colonies can be detected after 6 days of reprogramming (Fig. 1B, S1A). These colonies 106 present characteristic round, symmetric morphologies and robust expression of early markers 107 Cdh1, SSEA1 and Sall4, with expression of late markers such as Nanog and Esrrb appearing later 108 109 (Fig. S1B-D). The specific staining of Cdh1 and Sall4, respectively at the cell surface and in the 110 nucleus, strongly increased between days 3 and 6 (Fig. 1B, S1), representing a suitable readout for 111 the early phase of reprogramming.

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113 The expression of genes was knocked down using siRNAs in mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) 114 infected with an inducible OSKM-cassette lentivirus. Reprogramming was induced with 115 doxycycline (dox) for 6 days (Fig. S1A). The siRNA library consisted of six 96-well plates, with each plate containing seven non-targeting siRNA (nt) negative controls and three positive controls 116 117 (siRNA targeting Trp53, Oct4, and c-Myc). The screen was performed in quadruplicate. After six days of reprogramming, samples were fixed, stained for Cdh1 and Sall4 and imaged using an 118 119 automated high-content microscope. This allowed quantitation of morphology features such as 120 colony size, symmetry and shape, marker intensities, but also texture features, which are a 121 reflection of signal intensity patterns within colonies. After data processing and colony feature extraction, the data were z-score normalized per plate (Bakal et al., 2007) and subjected to further 122 123 analysis (Fig. 1A).

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125 To test the system, we disrupted reprogramming by knocking down the OSKM factors Oct4 (siOct4) and c-Myc (siMyc). We also knocked down Trp53 (siTrp53), which is expected to enhance 126 127 reprogramming (Marion et al., 2009). siOct4 and siMyc colonies are flat, irregularly shaped and 128 they show less intense Sall4 and Cdh1 expression compared to the control (Fig. 1C). Likewise, the 129 number of colonies observed in siOct4 and siMyc in our z-score-ranked data was very low (Fig. 1D). 130 The siTrp53 control showed a variable but positive effect on the number of colonies. These data 131 confirm that colony morphology and pluripotency marker expression can be used as readout for a 132 disruption in the early reprogramming network.

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### 134 High-content microscopy reveals five major phenotypes of colony formation

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The high-content analysis allowed us to measure not only the number of colonies, but also colony features such as the intensity of early pluripotency markers (Sall4 and Cdh1), size, compactness and symmetry, texture and many other morphology features (Table S2). These features constitute a multidimensional phenotypic space for analysis across many conditions or perturbations (Boutros et al., 2015) and the identification of functionally connected genes and processes (Mulder et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012).

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143 We first defined the set of most discriminating features based on feature-to-feature pairwise correlations (Supplemental Information; Table S3). Using hierarchical (Fig. S2) and K-means 144 clustering (Fig. 2A) we observed five main clusters that display different levels of pluripotency 145 146 markers, number of colonies, symmetry features (ratio width to length, roundness), STAR 147 morphology features, and textural features (SER, Harlick, Gabor). Cluster 1 knockdowns have few 148 colonies, in addition to low intensities for Sall4 and Cdh1, suggesting a major defect in 149 reprogramming. The majority of nt controls are in cluster 2, which shows a high number of small, 150 round and compact colonies and a robust expression of Cdh1 and Sall4 (Fig. 2A-B). Cluster 3 is 151 quite distinct with fewer, large colonies with low compactness features and detectable Sall4 and Cdh1 expression (Fig. 2A, cf. Brca1 and Wdr5, Fig. 2B). Cluster 4 shows somewhat reduced Sall4 152 153 and Cdh1 expression and a reduction in some of the DAPI texture features, but is otherwise 154 relatively normal. Essentially all Oct and Myc controls clustered together in cluster 5, characterized 155 by substantially lower Sall4 and Cdh1 intensities, in addition to irregular, less round and less 156 compact colonies (cf. Ncor1, Fig. 2B).

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158 To provide more insight in the nature of the imaging phenotypes, we compared all knockdowns to 159 each of the positive controls (Trp53, Myc and Oct4) by Pearson correlation, based on high-content features. After ranking all knockdowns according to their combined correlation score 160 (Experimental Procedures), we selected 10 candidates from the top-ranking list (Table S4). 161 Additionally, the high-content data from known reprogramming facilitators present in our library 162 163 were used to train two independent machine-learning algorithms, in order to predict other 164 potential facilitators (Fig. 2C, Supplementary Information, Fig. S2, Table S4). This approach allowed us to select additional candidates of high, intermediate and low-ranking prediction scores (Fig. 2C). 165 A total of 30 genes were selected for an orthogonal transcriptome screen (Fig. 2C, Table S4). 166

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#### 168 A transcriptome-based secondary screening uncovers highly correlated phenotypes

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We hypothesized that the phenotypes observed by microscopy might be reflected in their transcriptomes. Cells were transfected with siRNAs in triplicate and day 6 RNA samples were subjected to CEL-Seq2-based RNA-sequencing (Hashimshony et al., 2016). In addition to the 30 knockdowns, we also sequenced a day-by-day reprogramming time-course of control cells (Fig. 3A).

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We performed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to the siRNA dataset for dimensionality reduction. The pairwise correlations between all the transcriptomes were calculated based on the top 200 transcripts associated with PC1 and PC2, and then clustered (Fig. 3B, left). We calculated similar pairwise correlations for the microscopy data, and identified gene pairs that correlated in

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180 both their colony phenotype and their transcriptome (Fig. 3C). The strongest correlations are 181 observed between the Ncor1 - Oct4 pair and a triplet consisting of Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1. Ncor1 was recently shown to physically interact with Myc and Oct4 (Zhuang et al., 2018), but the 182 functional relationships between Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 were unknown. We performed siRNA 183 deconvolution experiments measuring the number of Sall4-positive colonies of three independent 184 185 siRNAs for Wdr5. Brca1 and Bard1 to exclude off-target effects. This analysis resulted in 186 phenotypes similar to the pooled siRNAs in at least two out of three siRNA sequences with the 187 same target (Fig. S3). In addition, high knockdown efficiencies of the Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 mRNA 188 targets were verified at day 3 of reprogramming (Fig. S3).

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190 As reprogramming is a dynamic process, we wondered how cells progress towards the iPSC state in 191 each of the knockdown conditions. Notably, in PCA analysis, principal component 2 correlates 192 strongly with time ( $r^2 = 0.81$ ; Fig. S4). To model the progression in each knockdown more 193 precisely, we fitted a polynomial function to the time points and projected all other data on the 194 time line by shortest distance (Fig. 3D, Experimental procedures). This distance reflects 195 transcriptome changes that are unrelated to normal progression of reprogramming. Most siRNA knockdown transcriptomes, including the non-targeting (nt) and mock transfected controls have a 196 197 transcriptome that is in between day 5 and day 6 of reprogramming, reflecting a mild non-specific 198 effect of transfection. Silencing p53 and Hdac1 modestly speeds up reprogramming relative to nt 199 controls (Fig. 3D). Three other genes, notably Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1, show a strong delay in 200 reprogramming with a short distance to the time projection of control cells. siWdr5 cells were 201 comparable to normal cells between day 3 and 4, while siBard1 and siBrca1 were between day 4 and 5 (Fig. 3D). We analyzed our time series data to relate the early block observed with siWdr5, 202 203 siBrca1 and siBard1 to known early reprogramming processes. The block is observed at the time of a major decrease of mesenchymal gene expression and preceding the activation of epithelial 204 205 markers (Fig. 3E). For DNA repair and cell cycle genes there is an early wave of increased expression followed by downregulation, whereas random genes are stably expressed over the time 206 207 course of reprogramming (Fig. S4). This time line raised the possibility that Wdr5, Brca1, Bard1 208 affect the repression of mesenchymal gene expression and the DNA damage response during early 209 reprogramming. Moreover, based on the phenotypic and molecular co-correlation data we 210 hypothesized that Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 functionally cooperate to control early stages of 211 reprogramming.

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#### 213 Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 functionally interact during early reprogramming

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215 We asked whether *Wdr5*, *Bard1* and *Brca1* genes have similar expression dynamics during early reprogramming. Interestingly, the three genes follow a similar RT-qPCR profile, peaking in 216 217 expression at day 3, and then slowly going down (Fig. 4A). To test the possibility of a functional interaction between these genes, the effect of their respective double knockdowns was measured 218 219 and compared to the effect of the single knockdowns with regards to the number of pre-iPS 220 colonies formed. All three single knockdowns displayed a significant reduction in number of Sall4-221 positive colonies, compared to the nt control (Fig. 4B). Therefore, the phenotypes of double and 222 single knockdowns were calculated as the Sall4-positive colony ratio compared to the control. 223 Brca1-Bard1 double knockdown showed significantly more colonies than expected (Fig. 4C, left). 224 This result was anticipated, as Brca1-Bard1 are well known physical interactors (Wu et al., 1996). 225 Similarly, for both the *Wdr5-Brca1* and the *Wdr5-Bard1* double knockdowns, we also observed

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more colonies than expected, and this result was statistically significant for *Wdr5-Brca1* (Fig. 4C).
To test whether Wdr5 is directly activating Brca1 and Bard1 gene expression, we determined the
Brca1 and Bard1 expression levels after Wdr5 knockdown (Fig. 4D). Indeed, we find that this is the
case at day 3, but also find that in response to either Bard1 or Brca1 depletion, Wdr5 expression
was decreased. Taken together, *Brca1, Bard1* and *Wdr5* are co-expressed, mutually depend on each
other, and interact functionally in reprogramming.

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# Wdr5, Bard1 and Brca1 are functionally connected in the DNA damage response pathway 234

235 Brca1 and Bard1 have a known function in double strand break DNA repair. If Brca1 and Bard1 236 functionally interact with Wdr5, the prediction is that that all three knockdowns show an increase 237 in DNA damage. The phosphorylated form of the histone variant H2A.X (yH2A.X) represents a 238 reliable biomarker for DNA damage, because it is an immediate response upon the presence of 239 double strand breaks (Sharma et al., 2012). Therefore, we employed FACS analysis to measure vH2A.X in the knockdowns (Fig. 5A-B). Reprogramming cells (nt control) showed a significant 240 241 decrease in DNA damage response as compared to non-reprogramming MEFs, in agreement with 242 literature showing that reprogramming resolves part of the DNA damage in somatic cells (Ocampo 243 et al., 2016). Importantly, Wdr5 knockdown showed a significantly increased level of yH2A.X compared to the control (Fig. 5A). Nearly 90 % of the cells harbour yH2A.X in Wdr5 depleted cells 244 (Fig. 5B, bottom panel). As expected, siBrca1 and siBard1 also showed a high percentage of vH2A.X 245 positive cells (Fig. 5A, panels 2 and 3). To cross-validate our findings, we visualized yH2A.X by 246 247 immunofluorescence. At day 3 of reprogramming, knockdown cells and controls were stained for 248 either Oct4 (Fig. S5)or SSEA1 (Fig. 5C), and yH2A.X. In agreement with the results from the FACS analysis, nt control transfected reprogramming cells showed a decrease in vH2A.X compared to the 249 MEFs. Depletion of Brca1, Bard1 or Wdr5 impairs the DNA damage response in reprogramming 250 251 cells, resulting in more phosphorylated yH2A.X (Fig. 5, left and right). It should be noted that few cells or colonies show expression of SSEA1 in the siWdr5 cells, reflecting the early block of 252 253 reprogramming progression (Fig. 3D).

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#### 255 Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 are required for MET and DNA repair gene expression

Based on their timing of expression and the observed early block in reprogramming, we hypothesized that Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 also affect the MET. To test this hypothesis and to gain more insight into the Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 phenotypes, we performed deep RNA sequencing at day 3 and day 6 of reprogramming. We called differentially expressed genes and found 753, 1555, and 205 genes deregulated in respectively Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 knockdown cells following 3 days of OSKM induction (Fig. 6A). Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1-depleted cells showed reduced expression of early pluripotency genes such as *Sall4, Cdh1* and *Epcam* (Fig. 6A).

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Differentially expressed genes in each knockdown were further probed for overrepresented gene ontology (GO) classes (Fig. 6B, Table S5). Brca1 knockdown causes a reduction in gene expression related to the cell cycle, response to DNA damage, and DNA repair (Fig. 6B). We asked whether the effects on the DNA damage response (Fig. 5) are reflected in the transcriptome of Wdr5 as well. To test this, DNA repair genes were probed in a Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) (Mootha et al., 2003; Subramanian et al., 2005) comparing siWdr5 and control transcriptomes. Indeed, the negative normalized enrichment score (NES) indicated decreased expression of DNA repair genes in the siWdr5 as compared to the control (Fig. 6C, left). Furthermore, decreased expression of DNA
repair genes in siWdr5 was similar to that of siBrca1 and siBard1(Fig. 6C, right and Fig.S6)

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275 Wdr5 and Brca1 knockdowns shared a number of up regulated terms, including cell adhesion and 276 developmental processes (e.g. skeleton or blood vessel development) (Fig. 6B). Regulation of cell 277 proliferation is changed in Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 knockdowns; this GO term is enriched due to 278 increased expression of Tafb, Wnt, Bmp, Faf growth factors (Table S6, Fig. 6D). These growth 279 factors decrease cell proliferation (Vega et al., 2004), but are also involved in epithelial to 280 mesenchymal transitions (EMT) (Barrallo-Gimeno and Nieto, 2005), potentially counteracting the MET required for reprogramming. Several cell proliferation markers, such as *Pcna*, *Ki-67* and *Mcm2* 281 282 were decreased in all three knockdowns, while *p21* (*Cdkn1a*) was up regulated (Fig. 6D). We 283 assessed the gene expression levels of mesenchymal and epithelial markers in the three 284 knockdowns and observed a clear increase in mesenchymal gene expression in the Wdr5, Brca1 285 and Bard1 knockdown cells relative to control cells (Fig. S6, Fig. 6E). Some epithelial genes were 286 decreased (*Cdh1*, *Epcam* and *Krt8*), whereas others did not change substantially or were increased 287 (Fig. 6E, Fig. S6).

Together, these data indicate that Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 not only cooperate in pluripotent colony formation (Fig. 4), but also share a functional interaction in the MET and the expression of DNA damage response genes during early reprogramming.

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#### 292

#### 293 **DISCUSSION**

294 295 This study reports on the colony morphology phenotypes of 300 chromatin-associated factors and 296 on the transcriptome phenotypes of 30 factors during early reprogramming of fibroblasts towards 297 induced pluripotency, constituting a highly relevant resource. Moreover, we have characterized the 298 phenotypes involved in the mesenchymal-epithelial transition and the DNA damage response in 299 more detail, and find cooperative contributions of three genes, Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 in both 200 these processes.

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302 Several complexes associated with the DNA damage response and replication are highly induced early in reprogramming (Hansson et al., 2012) and the p53-pathway is activated in cells 303 harbouring substantial DNA damage (Marion et al., 2009). DNA damage may be associated with 304 305 senescence, which can be rapidly induced by oxidative stress (Ben-Porath and Weinberg, 2005; 306 d'Adda di Fagagna et al., 2003). It has been proposed that in vitro cell culture generates oxidative stress (Halliwell, 2003) and this could lead to an accelerated senescence (Parrinello et al., 2003). In 307 agreement with this, low oxidizing conditions alleviate the reprogramming barrier imposed by 308 309 senescence (Utikal et al., 2009). Some aging hallmarks, such as eroded telomeres (Lapasset et al., 2011; Marion and Blasco, 2010 ) and senescence-associated epigenetic marks (Ocampo et al., 310 2016) are reset by OSKM reprogramming. Brca1-Bard1 and Wdr5 may therefore alleviate a 311 312 senescence-related block of reprogramming. In addition, the requirement of a DNA damage response could be related to the faster proliferation rates acquired early on in reprogramming 313 314 (Polo et al., 2012; Ruiz et al., 2011). Embryonic stem cells, which proliferate in a similar fashion, 315 require additional genome surveillance mechanisms to cope with fast DNA replication (Ahuja et al., 316 2016). The reduction in yH2A.X that we observe during normal reprogramming, however, is not 317 common to all reprogramming systems (Gonzalez et al., 2013) and the observed differences could

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be due to presence of vitamin C in our medium, as the addition of antioxidants reduces genomicinstability in reprogramming cultures (Ji et al., 2014).

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321 We found a functional interaction of Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 in reprogramming. *Brca1, Bard1* could be direct or indirect targets of the SET/MLL complexes, of which Wdr5 is a subunit. In line with this 322 323 possibility. ChIP analysis showed that Wdr5 binds regulatory regions of *Brca1*. Bard1 and other 324 genes involved in repair (Ang et al., 2011). Moreover, Brca1 and Bard1 transcripts are down 325 regulated after silencing Wdr5 (Fig. 4). In addition, not only are Brca1 and Bard1 involved in 326 mitotic spindle organization and checkpoint gene regulation (Jin et al., 2009; Joukov et al., 2006; 327 Wang et al., 2004), MLL/Wdr5 has been implicated in cell cycle regulation, mitotic progression and 328 proper chromosome segregation (Ali et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2017).

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330 Our study adds to the notion that colony morphology is linked to pluripotency (Abagnale et al., 331 2017; Kato et al., 2016; Narva et al., 2017) and is regulated by adhesion molecules, extracellular matrix and cytoskeleton forces. Upon differentiation, these processes orchestrate morphological 332 333 changes such as loss of colony compaction, increase of cell area, colony flattening, together with changes in the pluripotency network (Narva et al., 2017). Therefore, colony morphology is a very 334 335 important readout for reprogramming quality. Moreover, medium-high throughput screening of such multi-dimensional phenotypes is very powerful to identify functional interactions between 336 genes. Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 depleted cells gave rise to fewer yet bigger, flat, symmetric colonies, 337 due to a failure to properly down regulate mesenchymal cell adhesion molecules (Fig. 6). In 338 339 addition, these cells fail to activate epithelial and early pluripotency genes. Our study links the DNA 340 damage response to the MET program early in reprogramming through Brca1-Bard1 and Wdr5. Interestingly, the converse process of EMT may relate to DNA damage in kidney disease (Slaats et 341 al., 2014) and cancer cells in culture (Chiba et al., 2012). Future work will further explore these 342 343 relationships as well as gene-gene interactions that modify the phenotypical plasticity of 344 reprogramming to induced pluripotency.

#### 345

#### 346 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

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### 348 Data and Software Availability

349 Sequencing data are available at the GEO repository Superseries number GSE118680.

The code to reproduce reprogramming facilitator predictions by machine learning is available at <a href="https://github.com/simonvh/facilitators-penalosa-ruiz">https://github.com/simonvh/facilitators-penalosa-ruiz</a>/. The code to reproduce the timeline projection is available at <a href="https://github.com/TimEVeenstra/Time-Curve-Projection/">https://github.com/Simonvh/facilitators-penalosa-ruiz</a>/. The code to reproduce the timeline 152 projection is available at <a href="https://github.com/TimEVeenstra/Time-Curve-Projection/">https://github.com/Simonvh/facilitators-penalosa-ruiz</a>/. The code to reproduce the timeline 152 projection is available at <a href="https://github.com/TimEVeenstra/Time-Curve-Projection/">https://github.com/TimEVeenstra/Time-Curve-Projection/</a> (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.1405746).

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### 355 MEF Reprogramming and culture media

Passage 1-2 MEFs (mouse embryonic fibroblasts) were seeded at a density of 10,000 cells per cm<sup>2</sup>. Next day, MEFs were transduced at an MOI of 1 with Tet-STEMCCA lentivirus (Sommer et al., 2009), rtTA (Addgene#20342) and 8  $\mu$ g·mL<sup>-1</sup> polybrene. Next day (day 0), cells were transferred to either 1% gelatin-coated plates or mitotically inactive feeder cells, in reprogramming medium (Vidal et al., 2014).

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- 362 siRNA transfections and siRNA screenings

A custom Silencer siRNA library targeting around 300 mouse genes encoding chromatin factors 363 was designed (Thermo Scientific/Ambion, Table S1) and distributed in 6 plates. Each gene in the 364 library was targeted with three different siRNAs, which were pooled for transfection. For the high-365 content screening, the six pooled plates were transfected in quadruplicate. Every plate contained 366 367 the following controls: siOct4 (siPou5f1), siMyc, siTrp53 and seven non-targeting (nt) controls. 368 Reverse transfections in a 96-well plate format were performed as follows: 20 µL of transfection mix was prepared in each well before adding the cell suspension. This transfection mix consisted of 369 370 40 nM of pooled siRNAs, and 0.26 µL RNAiMAX lipofectamine (Thermo Scientific) diluted in Optimem (Thermo Scientific). After incubation for 10 minutes, 100 µL of cell suspension (3000-371 6000 cells) were added to each well. For transfections in a 6-well plate format, the protocol was 372 373 scaled up accordingly. Before adding 1.8 mL cell suspension with 100,000 cells, 220 µL transfection 374 mix was incubated in the wells for 10 minutes. The transfection mix consisted of 4 µL RNAiMAX 375 and a final concentration of 40 nM siRNA, all diluted in Optimem.

#### 377 Immunostaining

378 Cells were cultured in 96-well Cell Carrier plates for microscopy (Perkin Elmer). After 6 days of
379 reprogramming, cells were washed with PBS and fixed with 4% PFA for 15 min. After blocking and
380 permeabilization, samples were incubated overnight with mouse anti-Cdh1 (Cell Signaling, 14472)
381 and then with goat anti-mouse Alexa-488 for 2 hours. Staining with rabbit anti-Sall4 (Abcam,
382 ab29112) was done overnight, followed by 3 hours incubation with goat anti-rabbit Alexa 568 and
383 40 µg·mL<sup>-1</sup> DAPI. After antibody incubations, the cells were washed twice with PBS.

#### 385 High-content image acquisition and feature selection

Plates were imaged with an Opera High-content Screening System (Perkin Elmer) with a 4X air 386 387 lens. Images were imported into the Columbus software platform (PerkinElmer). To segment colonies imaged on multiple z-planes, we used the maximum projection of z-planes. Sall4 staining 388 was used to find and segment the colonies. Automated image analysis was used for image region 389 390 segmentation and for extraction of shape and morphology features. Image regions touching the 391 edge were removed. For more details, see Supplementary Information. After extracting all features 392 for every plate from the automated pipeline, a Z-score normalization was applied per plate (Bakal 393 et al., 2007) based on the mean values per feature. To select relevant features, a feature-to-feature 394 Pearson correlation was calculated. Features with a high pairwise correlation (>0.8) were considered redundant. 395

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### 397 **RNA sequencing and analysis**

398 CEL-seq2 sample preparation (Hashimshony et al., 2016) was performed with a few adaptations 399 (see Supplemental Information). Transcripts were mapped to *Mus musculus* genome version mm10 with Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012), UMI corrected using standard settings of the 400 (https://github.com/vanailab/CEL-Seq-pipeline), and matched to the 401 CELsea2 pipeline 402 gencode.vM13.annotation transcriptome. To relate knockdown data points to the progression of 403 reprogramming, the transcriptomes were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA). 404 Principal components 1 and 2 (PC1, PC2) were swapped (x-axis: PC2) and all data (knockdown and 405 time series) were rotated 15 degrees. A second order polynomial curve was fitted to the time series 406 data points were projected (day 2-7), and all on this curve (script: 407 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1405747). For each data point, the projected x coordinate was

used as a proxy for time, whereas the distance to the fitted time line (calculated using Pythagoras' 408 theorem) was used as a proxy for gene expression differences unrelated to the process of 409 reprogramming. For normal RNA sequencing, Kapa-RNA HyperPrep kit with Ribo Erase was used 410 for ribosomal depletion and library preparation (Roche, Kapa Biosystems), starting with 200 ng of 411 total RNA. The libraries were amplified for 10 cycles, guantified with Qubit, checked for size 412 413 distribution (300 bp) by Bioanalyzer (Agilent), and subjected to gPCR analysis before and after 414 library preparation. Libraries were sequenced paired-end (Illumina NextSeq 500, read length 43 415 bp). Reads were aligned to the mouse genome (mm10) with STAR version 2.5.2b (Dobin et al., 416 2013).

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### 418 **FACS analysis of DNA damage**

Reprogramming MEFs were transfected with siRNAs in 6-well plates. After 3 days, cells were fixed 419 420 on ice with 1 % PFA for 15 minutes and incubated with 70 % ice-cold ethanol at -20 °C for two 421 hours. Samples were then incubated with 100  $\mu$ L mouse anti-phospho-H2AX (Millipore, diluted 422 1:100 in 0.25 % BSA 0.3 % triton/PBS) overnight at 4 °C. Then, cells were washed and stained with 423 100 µL Alexa 488 Goat anti-rabbit 488 (diluted 1:500) for 2 hours at room temperature. Finally, 424 samples were incubated with propidium iodide (PI) overnight in the fridge and were sorted using 425 an FC 500 (Beckman Coulter) machine. Data analysis was done with Flowing software v.2.5. As 426 positive control, reprogramming MEFs were treated with 400 µg·mL<sup>-1</sup> mitomycin C for 3 days.

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### 428 **Double knockdowns and functional interactions**

The observed Sall4-colony-ratio was calculated dividing the double-knockdown number of colonies

- by the average number of colonies of the control (6 biological replicates). The expected Sall4colony ratio was calculated by multiplying the ratios of the single knockdowns (Mani et al., 2008).
  A P-value < 0.05 (two-tailed T-test) was considered significant. See supplementary information for</li>
- 433 details.

### 435 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

436 Conceptualization GJCV, KWM, GPR; Methodology GPR, VB, GJCV, KWM, CB, JCRS; Experiments GPR,
437 VB, JPG, SW, JVvV; Analysis GPR, VB, JPG, GJCV, SJvH, TEV; Writing the manuscript GPR, GJCV, KWM.

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#### 16

#### 625 FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS

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#### Figure 1. High throughput analysis of the early phase of reprogramming 627

(A) Experimental design of high content imaging siRNA screen. (B) Immunofluorescence of pre-iPS 628 629 colonies at day 6 stained for pluripotency markers Cdh1 and Sall4 with DAPI counterstain. Scale 630 bar represents 50 µm. (C) Comparison of colony phenotypes of control, siMyc and siOct4 cells at reprogramming day 6, stained for Sall4 and Cdh1. The scale bar represents 100 µm (left) and the 631 images on the right are a 4x zoom-in from the inset squares on the left. (**D**) siRNAs in the whole 632 633 screen ranked from low to high z-scores, based on the number of colonies. Positive controls are highlighted in colors. Each siRNA represents the average z-score from four replicates. 634

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#### 636 Figure 2. High-content microscopy screen reveals five major phenotypes of colony 637 formation

638 (A) An average Z-score for selected features was calculated from the quadruplicates and 639 represented in a heatmap. Features are clustered by Euclidean distance and rows are clustered by K-means. The bar on the left represents the cluster number and the gene symbols on the right are 640 641 the hits of the screen and the controls. In brackets are the number of controls in a particular cluster. (**B**) Example images of knockdowns depicting different phenotypes. Scale bar is 200 µm 642 643 (C). Pluripotency-associated hits were selected based on a combination of a probability prediction 644 by machine learning, based on known reprogramming facilitators, and a correlation analysis with 645 the positive and negative controls. Selected top-hits are colored according to the cluster number (panel A, cf. Table S4, Fig. S2). 646

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#### 648 Figure 3. Transcriptome-based secondary screening

(A) Selected hits (30) and controls were transfected in triplicate and cultured until reprogramming 649 day 6. The transcriptomes were analyzed together with a time series of control cells. (B) siRNA-to-650 651 siRNA Pearson correlation heatmaps based on transcriptomes. (C) Scatter plot representing 652 pairwise siRNA correlations of transcriptomes (x-axis) and high-content image analysis (y-axis). siRNA pairs with highest correlations in both approaches are highlighted. (D) Analysis of the 653 progression of reprogramming in knockdown cells compared to cells of the time course, based on 654 PCA analysis of the transcriptomes and the projection of all data points on a curve fitted to the time 655 656 course. (E) Boxplots representing log transformed and normalized gene expression values from the 657 CELSeq2 time-course dataset. Each color depicts different groups of genes. (Experimental procedures, cf. Fig. S3 and Fig. S4). 658

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#### 660 Figure 4. Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 functionally interact in early reprogramming

(A) Gene expression of Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 measured by RT-qPCR. Fold change was calculated 661 relative to MEFs (day 0) gene expression. Each data point represents the mean value ± standard 662 deviation of a biological duplicate. (**B**) Dot plot representing the number of Sall4-positive colonies 663 664 measured by in-cell western in control and Brca1, Bard1 and Wdr5 knockdowns at day 6. Each dot represents one biological replicate and statistical significance determined by ANOVA is 665 represented as \*\*\* p<0.0005. (C) Sall-4 colony ratios of the single and double knockdowns 666 compared to the non-targeting (nt) control, measured by in-cell western. Functional interaction is 667 668 determined by comparing the mean difference in double knockdown colony ratios: observed vs. expected. Each dot represents one biological replicate of an in-cell western for colonies at day 6 669

- stained for Sall-4. Statistical significance p<0.05 (\*) was calculated with two tailed T-test. **(D)** Dot
- 671 plots to show Wdr5, Brca1 or Bard1 gene expression as counts per million reads (cpm) in siBard1,
- 672 siBrca1, siWdr5 and nt control.673

# Figure 5. Wdr5, Bard1 and Brca1 are functionally connected in the DNA damage response pathway

- 676 **(A)** Representative FACS histograms showing the cell distribution with log-intensity of  $\gamma$ H2AX in 677 reprogramming populations measured in different conditions (white, nt; purple, siRNA). **(B)** 678 Dotplot representing the quantification of  $\gamma$ H2AX -positive cells in each condition in biological 679 replicates. Each of the data points corresponds to a biological replicate, measured from 680 independent experiments. Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA. p<0.05(\*), 681 p<0.005(\*\*) and p<0.0005(\*\*\*). **(C)** Confocal images of reprogramming cells at day 3, stained for 682  $\gamma$ H2AX (green) SSEA1 (red), counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar is 100 µm. See also Fig. S5.
- Figure 6. Wdr5, Brca1 and Bard1 depletion affects expression profiles of MET and DNA
   repair genes
- 686 (A) Volcano plots for siBard1 (left), siBrca1 (middle) and siWdr5 differential gene expression at 687 reprogramming day 3. Blue highlight: differentially expressed genes (log2-fold change  $\geq$ 1, adjusted 688 p-value <0.05). (B) Bubble plot, showing examples of some of the most enriched terms 689 (upregulated genes, orange; downregulated genes, blue) after Gene Ontology functional 690 classification in siWdr5 and siBrca1 at Day 3. Bubble sizes represent the number of genes. (C) Gene 691 Set Enrichment Analysis for DNA repair by homologous recombination (HR) comparing siWdr5 vs. 692 control transcriptomes (left). Heatmap for siBrca1, siBard1 and siWdr5 samples showing DNA 693 repair by HR genes, represented as log2-ratio relative to control (right) (**D**) Dot plots for signaling 694 genes (magenta) and cell proliferation markers (vellow) quantified as counts per million reads (cpm) in control, siBrca1, siBard1 and siWdr5 cells. (E) Heatmap representing the log2-ratio of 695 696 mesenchymal and epithelial gene expression of the three knockdowns relative to control. See also 697 Fig. S6 and Table S5.

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