Prevalence, causes and impact of *TP53*-loss phenocopying events in human tumors

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10 Abstract

11 TP53 is a master tumor suppressor gene, mutated in approximately half of all human 12 cancers. Given the many regulatory roles of the corresponding p53 protein, it is possible to infer loss of p53 activity -- which may occur from trans-acting alterations --13 14 from gene expression patterns. We apply this approach to transcriptomes of ~8,000 tumors and ~1,000 cell lines, estimating that 12% and 8% of tumors and cancer cell 15 lines phenocopy TP53 loss: they are likely deficient in the activity of the p53 pathway, 16 17 while not bearing obvious TP53 inactivating mutations. While some of these are explained by amplifications in the known phenocopying genes MDM2, MDM4 and 18 PPM1D, others are not. An analysis of cancer genomic scores jointly with 19 20 CRISPR/RNAi genetic screening data identified an additional TP53-loss phenocopying 21 gene, USP28. Deletions in USP28 are associated with a TP53 functional impairment in 22 2.9-7.6% of breast, bladder, lung, liver and stomach tumors, and are comparable to 23 MDM4 amplifications in terms of effect size. Additionally, in the known CNA segments 24 harboring MDM2, we identify an additional co-amplified gene (CNOT2) that may 25 cooperatively boost the TP53 functional inactivation effect. An analysis using the phenocopy scores suggests that TP53 (in)activity commonly modulates associations 26 27 between anticancer drug effects and relevant genetic markers, such as PIK3CA and 28 PTEN mutations, and should thus be considered as a relevant interacting factor in 29 personalized medicine studies. As a resource, we provide the drug-marker 30 associations that differ depending on TP53 functional status.

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32 Introduction

Mutations in the TP53 tumor suppressor gene are a very common feature across 33 34 almost all types of human cancer. These mutations abrogate or reduce TP53 activity via various mechanisms: dominant-negative acting missense mutations, loss-of-35 36 function missense, nonsense, frameshift indel, splice site, or synonymous mutations, or 37 copy number losses that frequently delete one TP53 allele while the other allele is inactivated by a mutation. That such TP53 genetic alterations occur at high frequency 38 in many cancer types implies that they have very strong selective advantages for the 39 40 expanding cancer cell clones (1, 2); indeed this is borne out in experimental data on cell lines and animal models of cancer (3, 4). 41

The large selective advantage of TP53 losses are consistent with its roles in arresting 43 44 the cell cycle or triggering apoptosis upon threats to genome integrity. TP53-null cells 45 better tolerate genomic instability, which can result from endogenous causes, most 46 prominently oncogene-overexpressing and thus replication-stress inducing cancerous 47 genetic backgrounds. Consistently, TP53-mutant tumors have higher frequencies of segmental copy number alterations (CNA), whole-genome duplications, and overall 48 49 mutation rates (5, 6). Moreover, TP53-null cells better tolerate DNA damaging conditions that would normally trigger cell cycle checkpoints, such as those resulting 50 51 from DNA-acting drugs or radiation (7, 8). Consistently, TP53-mutation bearing tumors 52 tend to be more resistant to various cancer chemotherapies (4, 9-11) and radiotherapy 53 (10-12), and more aggressive i.e. TP53 R273 and R248 mutants are associated with accelerated cancer progression in colorectal tumors (13). 54

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56 The frequency of TP53 mutations --highest of all cancer genes, standing at 37% in the 57 TCGA cohort-- indicates that most cancers benefit from the loss of TP53. However, there are nonetheless many tumors which do not bear a mutation in TP53. A part of 58 59 those is explained by genetic events that phenocopy TP53 loss i.e. that have similar downstream phenotypic consequences as TP53 loss itself. There are three 60 61 established examples of TP53 loss phenocopying events occuring in tumors. Most 62 prominently, this is the amplification of the MDM2 and MDM4 oncogenes and 63 overexpression of the corresponding proteins. These negatively regulate TP53 protein levels by promoting its proteasomal degradation, and that otherwise inhibit TP53 64 65 activity by binding to its transactivation domain(14-16). The third implicated gene is 66 PPM1D, whose amplification overexpresses a serine/threonine phosphatase acting 67 upon various targets including TP53, reducing its activity. (We note that PPM1D can also be affected by point mutations that result in gain-of-function(17–19)) 68

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70 Given the strong selective advantages of the TP53 activity loss in cancer evolution, we 71 hypothesized that TP53 loss phenocopying in human cancers extends beyond these 72 known examples of MDM2, MDM4 and PPM1D alterations. If indeed other common 73 mechanisms of TP53 phenocopying exist, this would be relevant to predicting tumor 74 cell response to various drugs, and to predicting tumor aggressiveness, thus having 75 implications to personalized medicine. Because TP53 loss has clear consequences on 76 the mRNA expression levels of various downstream targets (4, 21), the TP53-null-like 77 phenotype can be inferred from large scale transcriptomic data (20-23). Here, we 78 apply a statistical framework to jointly analyse ~966 cancer cell line and ~8000 tumor 79 genomes and transcriptomes, to identify additional TP53 phenocopying genetic events 80 and impact on drug sensitivity. We find that TP53 loss phenocopies are remarkably common across tumors and cancer cell lines, and we identify USP28 deletions as one 81 82 cause of TP53 loss phenocopying, and reveal many links between drugs and their 83 targets that are modulated by TP53 activity.

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87 **Results**

Inferring the functional *TP53* status of tumors from transcriptomes

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We developed a machine learning method to detect TP53 phenocopies in tumors and 91 92 cell lines, integrating RNA-seq data with TP53 mutation data in a logistic regression, regularized with an Elastic Net penalty (very similar cross-validation accuracy was 93 94 obtained with Ridge or Lasso penalties; see Methods). Regression models were 95 trained using cross-validation on mRNA levels of ~8000 tumor samples from the TCGA 96 project, across 20 different cancer types, controlling for cancer type. In addition to 97 using this global analysis mRNA expression levels to infer the functional TP53 status 98 state of each tumor, we also identified the expression patterns of which genes are 99 associated with TP53 status. Tumors with TP53 putatively causal mutations were included as a positive set (TP53 status was categorized according to GDSC 100 101 methodology: see Methods). Previously known phenocopying events (MDM2, MDM4 102 and PPM1D amplifications), as well as samples with TP53 deletions were excluded from the training set (these known phenocopying events will be used to calibrate 103 decision thresholds; see below). Our classifier learned a combination of relevant gene 104 105 weights that differentiate samples with an aberrant TP53 activity. Tumor samples that 106 are not TP53 mutated (by GDSC criteria), but are classified as mutated by the machine 107 learning model are considered to be TP53 phenocopies.

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Our classifier showed a high performance with an area under the receiver operating characteristic (AUROC) curve of 96% in cross-validation on TCGA tumors (out-ofsample accuracy), and 95% on the testing set (consisting of 10% of the samples held out from training set, Fig.1A). Thus, we were able to often correctly detect *TP53* status in unseen tumor samples the classifier was not exposed to, with an area under precision-recall curve=0.9654. The *TP53* loss phenocopy scores for each TCGA tumor sample and the cancer cell lines are provided in Supplementary Data 1.

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Out of the ~12000 genes available to the classifier, 217 genes were deemed relevant for *TP53* status classification (non-zero coefficients; gene score provided in Supplementary Data 2). These represent a sparse (but not necessarily exhaustive) set of genes that are, considered together, highly informative for predicting *TP53* status.

Expectedly, many of the classifier's most relevant genes are known to be related to 122 123 TP53 functionality. For instance, apoptosis-enhancing nuclease (AEN) was the gene with the highest absolute importance score. This exonuclease is a direct TP53 target 124 125 whose expression is regulated by the phosphorylation of TP53 and its tumor 126 suppressor role has been reported (25). Tumors with a high expression of AEN are expected to be p53 functional, and indeed highly expressed AEN was associated with 127 128 TP53 WT status in our classifier's coefficients. On the other extreme, COP1, a ubiquitin 129 ligase that acts as an important p53 negative regulator, was the strongest coefficient 130 associated with TP53 mutated status in the classifier (26). We further performed a GO 131 enrichment analysis, revealing that top functional enriched sets were related to 132 apoptotic signals, supporting the biological rationale underlying this set (Supp Fig. 1A).

Most enriched pathways were: *Intrinsic apoptotic signalling pathway in response to DNA damage by p53 class mediator* (8.1-fold enrichment, FDR=4.2%), *Pyrimidine deoxyribonucleoside monophosphate biosynthetic process* (47.4 fold enrichment, FDR=1.9%) and *Response to UV-B* (17.2 fold enrichment, FDR=3.7%) (ShinyGO, see Methods).

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Our classifier extends recent gene expression-based models for TP53 functionality (20-139 23) by being able to generalize across both tumor and cancer cell lines (important for 140 141 identifying drug sensitivity associations, see below), and moreover it can provide calibrated FDR estimates for TP53 status of each tumor or cell line. In particular, to 142 143 assess the reliability of the individual predictions from the model, FDR for each tumor was computed via the analysis of cross-validation precision-recall curves (Fig.1B). The 144 previously known phenocopies (MDM2, MDM4 and PPM1D amplifications) and TP53 145 146 deep deletions, which were held out from the training set, were largely scored as TP53 mutated. Tumors harbouring a known phenocopying amplification were assigned 147 148 higher scores than the rest of TP53 wild-type tumors (means=0.56 and 0.27 149 respectively, p=1e-65 by t-test). Cells harbouring a TP53 deep deletion also had higher scores (mean TP53 deleted=0.47, mean TP53 not deleted=0.27, p=1e-08). Our choice 150 of threshold to detect TP53 phenocopied tumors was set based on these known 151 152 phenocopies, conservatively, corresponding to score >0.6, Methods; Fig.1B).

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154 This resulted in an empirical FDR estimated at 15% (i.e. precision of 85%), based on the known TP53 mutations. Importantly this 15% is a conservative upper-bound 155 estimate of FDR, since it is based on the assumption that there do not exist any 156 157 unknown TP53 phenocopying events: it classifies all high-scoring TP53 wild-type tumors as false positives. Conversely, using the known phenocopying events we 158 159 estimate a lower-bound recall (sensitivity) of this classifier at 63% (Fig. 1B). Again, this 160 estimate is conservatively biased, since it is not a priori known whether every copy number gain in MDM2/MDM4/PPM1D causes a phenocopy; some low-level gains may 161 162 not have effects and thus would appear as false-negatives.

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To additionally validate the classifier, we inspected the relationship between known phenocopy genes' allele copy-number (see Methods), and the *TP53* phenocopy score. There were significant positive correlations between three known phenocopying genes copy-number, and the *TP53* phenocopy score in *TP53* wild-type tumors (Fig.1C).

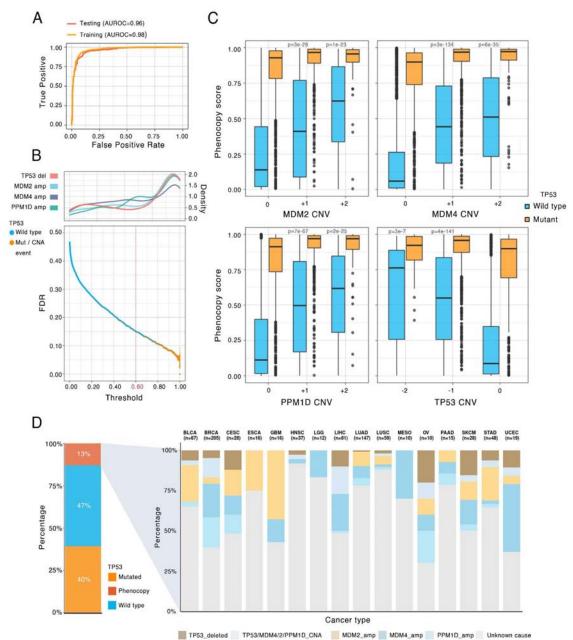
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169 The prevalence of phenocopying events was substantial: overall 12 % of all tumor samples were redefined into a TP53 mutated-like category (Fig.1D) by our criteria. 170 Different cancer types display different phenocopy frequencies (Fig.1D), overall 171 frequency ranging from 19% for breast cancer (BRCA cancer type) to 3% for B-cell 172 173 lymphoma (DLBC cancer type, overall phenocopy frequencies are shown in Supp Fig. 174 1B). For instance, most breast cancer TP53-phenocopied tumors derive from previously known events i.e. the MDM4/MDM2/PPM1D amplifications are the most 175 176 common event, while a remaining 27% of the phenocopies (5% of all breast cancer 177 samples) is not associated with a known phenocopying event (proportion shown for 178 every cancer type Fig.1D). We do note that it is still possible that individual examples of 179 tumor may be erroneously classified as TP53-deficient at this threshold. More 180 generally, 51% of TP53-loss phenocopied tumor samples across all cancer types were

not linked with one of the three known genes nor a CNA deletion in TP53 itself,

182 suggesting that additional TP53 phenocopying mechanisms are commonly occurring in

183 tumors.



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Figure 1. Evaluation of the functional *TP53*-loss score classifier and prevalence of *TP53* loss phenocopying events in cancer.

- 187 A. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve and area under the ROC (AUROC) curve for
 188 training and testing sets in TCGA tumor transcriptomes.
- B. Bottom: False discovery rate (FDR) for each tumor sample. X axis is the classification threshold for each tumor sample. The general threshold used for classification (0.6) is highlighted. Top: the histogram of frequency of CNV events ("density" refers to smoothed relative frequency) affecting *TP53* and the known phenocopying genes *MDM4*, *MDM2* and *PPM1D* at various phenocopy-score thresholds.

194 C. TP53 loss phenocopying score stratified by 3 known phenocopying CNA events and by 195 TP53 deletions. Data points are tumor samples coloured by TP53 status; boxes show 196 median, Q1 and Q3, while whiskers show range (outlying examples shown as separate 197 dots). X axis represents the GISTIC thresholded CNV of each given gene. Tumor samples 198 with deletions in the corresponding genes (for MDM2, MDM4 and PPM1D) and 199 amplifications (TP53) are omitted for simplicity. P values represent results from the t-test 200 comparison of the TP53 phenocopy score between each CNV category to neutral CNV (0) 201 category in TP53 wild-type samples.

D. *TP53* functional status classification across TCGA cancers. Left: pan-cancer; "*Phenocopy*" refers to *TP53*-loss phenocopying tumors according to the classifier in panels A, B. Right: showing only the *TP53* loss phenocopying tumor samples, stratified by cancer type and by cause of the phenocopy. Tumor samples harbouring a known event that affects *TP53* functionality are shown with colours, and the remaining *TP53*-loss phenocopy tumors are labelled as "Unknown cause

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210 USP28 deletion phenocopies a TP53 mutated state in tumors

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Prompted by the abundance of tumor samples that are functionally *TP53* null but lacking an obvious *TP53* loss or a known phenocopying event, we sought to identify other phenocopying genes across all cancer types. We designed a custom associationtesting methodology that combines six different statistical tests across four different genomic data types with this goal (see Methods).

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218 In brief, our methodology is based on the rationale that genes that cause a phenocopy 219 via altered dosage at DNA and mRNA levels should exhibit a distinct copy number 220 variant ("CNV" tests) and also gene expression ("GE" tests) pattern. Each of these two 221 genomic data types is considered in two tests, one comparing TP53 phenocopying 222 against TP53 wild-type tumors, and other comparing TP53 phenocopying against 223 TP53-mutant tumors, for a total of four tests. As two additional tests, we considered 224 external data from genetic screens across large panels of cancer cell lines (28,29). In 225 particular we test for significant codependency scores, explaining how a knockout 226 ("CRISPR") or knock-down ("RNAi") of a candidate phenocopying gene affects fitness 227 across a panel of cell lines, when compared with the fitness profile of a TP53 228 knockout/knock-down across the same panel(30, 31). An example supporting the use 229 of this methodology that combines cancer genomic analysis and genetic screening 230 data analysis, a CRISPR knockout of the known TP53 negative regulator MDM2 231 decreases cell line fitness, in a manner anticorrelated to a TP53 knockout across cell 232 lines. (Supp Fig. 3A)

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In summary, we tested differences of tumor genomics CNV and GE patterns (two tests
each as above), additionally considering "CRISPR" and "RNAi" test scores from genetic
screens, for each gene, performing tests stratified by cancer type. Our final score
combines each of the 6 tests together providing a ranking of potential *TP53*phenocopying genes.

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As anticipated, top 3 prioritization scores correspond to *MDM2*, *MDM4* and *PPM1D* genes (Fig. 2A). Following those known *TP53* phenocopies, the gene *USP28* was the 4th ranked gene in terms of overall statistical significance (p=5.9e-07, combined across

all six tests), and in particular scored highly on CRISPR codependency (pan-cancer 243 score for USP28=0.54, compared with -0.71 for MDM2 and -0.53 for MDM4). A break-244 down of our custom prioritization scores by different cancer types is provided in 245 246 Supplementary Figure 2. We note that, in contrast to MDM2 and MDM4, it is the 247 deletions not amplifications of USP28 that were associated with TP53 phenocopies: this is reflected in the mirrored direction of the codependency score. USP28 encodes a 248 249 deubiquitinase enzyme with substantial evidence from previous biochemistry and cell 250 model studies that link it to p53 activity. In particular, USP28 was linked to DNA 251 damage apoptotic response through the Chk2-p53-PUMA pathway (32). Recent evidence suggests that the TP53BP1-USP28 complex might positively regulate p53 252 253 and influence arrest after centrosome loss and prolonged mitosis (33). It has been 254 proposed that TP53BP1-USP28 complexes could counteract MDM2-dependent p53 255 ubiquitination (34). Additional studies have linked USP28 loss with a defective 256 apoptotic response (35). A 10% of the total of 437 tumors classified as TP53 loss 257 phenocopied but with an undefined source (Supp Fig.1B) had a USP28 deletion.

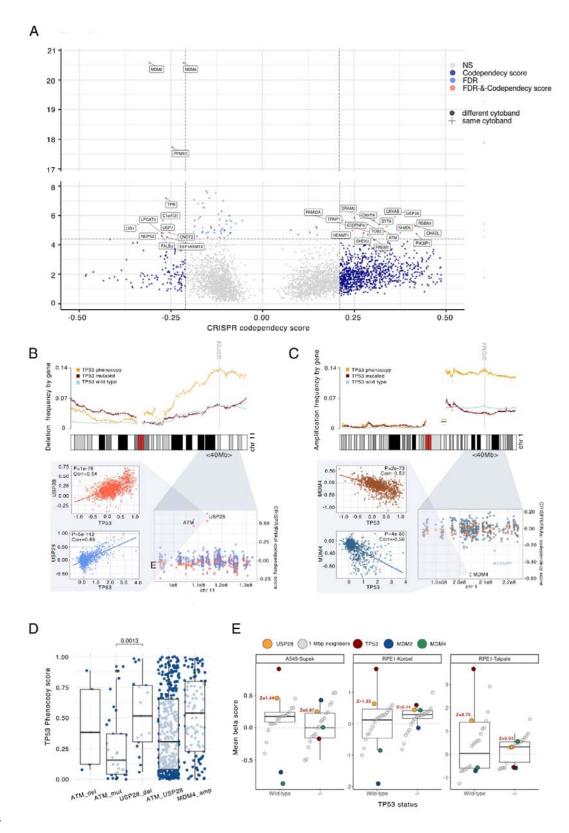
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Overall, diverse experimental evidence from genetic screens strongly supports our
 identification of *USP28* deletions as p53-loss phenocopying events, and our genomic
 analysis suggests a widespread distribution of causal *USP28* deletions across human
 tumors.

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Additional hits from this association study might provide promising genes for follow-up. 264 For instance, MSI2 was the 5th most highly prioritized gene, predicted to phenocopy 265 266 TP53 loss by amplification. MSI2 encodes a transcriptional regulator that has been 267 recently identified as an oncogene in hematologic and solid cancers (36-38). Similar results to CRISPR analyses were observed using RNAi screening codependency 268 scores, further supporting the role of USP28 loss in the TP53 phenocopying, as well as 269 270 MSI2 gains (Supp Fig. 3B). Other apoptosis-related genes such as DRAM2, CHEK2, or 271 ATM (39-41) were also in the prioritized genes in our analysis albeit at more modest statistical significance. Of note, the TPR gene also had a highly significant 272 273 codependency score but was driven by a single cancer type (kidney) and thus with less 274 clear relevance to diverse tumor types.

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Figure 2: Transcriptomics scores predicting phenocopying events can pinpoint
 causal genes in CNA-affected chromosomal segments.

A. Prioritization score of genes for *TP53* loss phenocopying effects. Y axis shows gene significance (FDR) when combining six statistical tests (two cancer genomic/transcriptomic,

and two based on CRISPR and RNAi screens), and further pooling p-values across cancer
types; see Methods for details. X axis represents the effect size from the CRISPR
codependency score of each gene. Crosses represent gene neighbours (same cytoband) to
a known phenocopying gene. Relevant hits in terms of FDR and codependency score are
labelled. Shown thresholds for effect size and significance were determined based on
scores of known phenocopy events (Methods).

- 288 **B.** Top: CNV frequency in tumors, and their associations with TP53 phenocopy transcriptomic 289 scores, of the segment of chromosome 1 containing MDM4. Each dot represents one gene, 290 while colours represent groups of tumor samples by TP53 status. Bottom: A zoomed-in view 291 of a commonly amplified region of the chromosome, showing the CRISPR (blue) and the 292 RNAi (red) TP53-codependency scores for each gene. The determination of the TP53 co-293 dependency score is shown for the top score of the region (left panels), showing the actual 294 CRISPR and RNAi fitness effects for the MDM4 disruption (Y axis) across many cell lines 295 (dots), compared to TP53 disruption fitness effects (X axis) across the same cell lines.
- 296 C. Same as (B), but for USP28, a gene we identified to be associated with a TP53 loss
 297 phenocopying via a deletion. Here, the y axis on the top plot shows frequency of gene
 298 deletions in tumors, divided by TP53 functional status, whereas panel B shows frequency of
 299 amplification. Bottom plots are the same as in B.
- 300 D. Comparison of the TP53 phenocopy score of USP28 CNV deletions (by negative GISTIC score), ATM deletions, ATM mutations and MDM4 amplifications. Each dot represents a tumor sample. Only TP53 wild-type samples were considered. P-values by Mann-Whitney test.
- E. Fitness effect of USP28 knock-out in TP53 wild-type and mutant isogenic cell lines.
 Comparison of the mean beta score (fitness effect upon CRISPR gene disruption, y-axis) of
 USP28, with the mean beta scores of genes located within its 1Mbp immediate
 surroundings as negative controls ("1 Mbp neighbours", see Methods). Genes *TP53*,
 MDM2, and *MDM4* are also shown as a reference. x-axis bottom labels indicate the *TP53* status of the cell line. USP28 Z-scores, comparing to the distribution of neighbouring
 genes, are plotted in red (see Methods)
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Phenocopy scores prioritize causal genes in CNA-affected chromosomal segments

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317 Amplifications of certain chromosomal segments or whole arms in case of MDM2, 318 MDM4 and PPM1D commonly underlie TP53 phenocopies. Such CNA genetic events 319 in cancers however often affect multiple adjacent genes, where an open question in 320 cancer genomics is which of the gene or genes in the affected segment are causal 321 (42). We hypothesized that the known TP53 phenocopying gene CNA segments might 322 in some cases harbor more than one causal gene. Our combination-test approach can 323 prioritize genes with enriched gene expression and CNA in our TP53 phenocopying 324 group. Considered together with CRISPR and RNAi codependency, this method 325 provided a plausible ranking of possible TP53 loss phenocopying genes. Applied 326 globally, this identified USP28 as a novel phenocopying gene (see above). To more 327 formally study if the USP28-adjacent genes could contribute to this, we considered that the same method could be applied on a local scale: examining profiles of CNVs and 328 329 our genomic prioritization scores would be able to single out the causal gene(s) in the 330 chromosomal segment of recurrent CNA.

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332 As a control for this approach, we sought to confirm previously known phenocopies. Indeed, MDM4 amplification was found to be enriched in the TP53-phenocopying group 333 334 of tumor samples, but not in the rest of tumor groups --the TP53 mutant and the non-335 phenocopying TP53 wild-type (Fig. 2B). The local profile of this enrichment for the chromosome 1g segment 32.1 peaks at the MDM4 gene and falls off towards its 336 flanking genes (Fig. 2B). Our CRISPR and RNAi data analysis, consistently, indicate 337 *MDM4* as the gene with the strongest effect in the region (Fig. 2B). As expected, 338 339 similar CNA and CRISPR/RNAi profiles were observed at PPM1D (Supp Fig. 3C). Next, the MDM2 CNA enrichment score segment peak was narrower, suggesting a 340 341 more focal gene amplification process (Supp Fig. 3C)

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343 Next, we examined the shape of the local USP28-adjacent CNA profiles. USP28 344 deletions were found to be enriched in the TP53 phenocopying group when compared 345 to the rest of tumor groups (2.3-fold in TP53 w.t, 2.8-fold in TP53 mutant). USP28 346 enrichment was comparable to MDM4 region enrichments of 2.5-3.7-fold (TP53 wt., 347 TP53 mutant) (Fig. 2B, C). TP53 phenocopying tumor samples appear to have more 348 deletions in the USP28 region than TP53 wild-type (non-phenocopying) and TP53 mutant samples. The local profile of enrichments presents a plateau-like pattern rather 349 350 than a sharp peak, and USP28 is within the top-ranked genes in the plateau however some neighbouring genes appear similarly so. Therefore, we further used the CRISPR 351 and RNAi codependency scores to prioritize the causal genes in the segment; this 352 353 score clearly distinguishes USP28 from immediate neighbours (Fig. 2C), suggesting 354 that USP28 is indeed the main causal gene in the chromosomal segment.

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Furthermore, this 'local scan' can be applied chromosome-wide, where we noted another small region on chromosome 11q.12.1-q1.13.1 modestly enriched with amplifications in *TP53*-phenocopying tumors (Supp Fig. 3D), thus raising our interest. However, neither genes in this region nor other chromosome 11 regions showed a positive CRISPR codependency score of even half of *USP28* score (Fig. 2C). We note here that the *USP28* codependency score exceeds, in absolute magnitude, the score of the known *MDM4* phenocopy (Fig. 2B, C).

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In the broader neighborhood of USP28, the gene ATM seems to also be frequently 364 365 deleted in the TP53-phenocopying tumor group, meaning ATM is also a candidate for the causal gene in this deletion segment at chr11 g22.3-g23.2. However, the statistical 366 367 support from genomic enrichment scores (using our custom methodology for metanalysis across 6 statistical tests) for ATM were less strong than for USP28 (p=1e-368 5 versus p=6e-7, respectively). Consistently, comparing the RNAi and CRISPR TP53-369 370 codependency scores of ATM versus USP28 shows a stronger effect of the USP28 371 knockout (USP28 RNAi codependency score p=4.9e-112 versus ATM p=3e-80, in a 372 pan-cancer analysis; Supp Fig. 3E). To further rule out that ATM has the causal role in 373 this deleted segment, we considered the cases of tumors where ATM is disrupted by a 374 point mutation; unlike CNA in the ATM gene, these cases are not commonly linked with 375 disruptions in USP28. The ATM mutated but USP28 wild-type tumors had considerably 376 weaker TP53 phenocopy transcriptomic scores (median=0.36) than the USP28 deleted 377 but ATM non-mutated tumors (median=0.84; p=0.0013 by Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 2D). 378 The cases where both USP28 and ATM were disrupted, by deletion or mutation, had

very similar phenocopy scores (median=0.73) as the USP28 deleted but ATM nonmutated cases. This analysis of ATM mutations supports that USP28 deletion, rather
than ATM disruption, is the causal change in the deleted segment at chr11 q22-q23.

383 To validate the USP28 finding, we analyzed an independent CRISPR data set, consisting of 3 genome-wide screens performed on TP53 wild-type and TP53 -/-384 isogenic pairs of cell lines: one on the A549 cell line pair and two on the RPE1 cell line 385 pairs (see details in Methods). In the TP53 wild-type background, the TP53 k.o. 386 387 increases cell fitness (as expected for a high-effect tumor suppressor gene; Fig. 2E). 388 Thus, if the USP28 loss were to phenocopy TP53 loss, the USP28 k.o. by CRISPR 389 should also increase fitness. Indeed, it does so: compared to the 10 neighboring 390 control genes residing within 1 Mb of USP28, the USP28 k.o. has a stronger fitness 391 effect (beta score from MAGeCK tool, see Methods) for 10 out of 10 genes in 2 out of 3 392 screens, and 8 out of 10 neighboring genes in the remaining screen (Fig. 2E). For 393 ATM, this effect is less pronounced (Supp Fig. 3F). In 3 out of 3 cell screening 394 experiments, USP28 fitness effect was stronger than ATM effect (1.4-fold, 2.4-fold and 395 2.6-fold increased beta score). To further support this finding, we asked if the fitness 396 gain resulting from USP28 loss is because of downstream effects on TP53 activity. We thus considered the isogenic cells where TP53-/- was ablated, in which indeed the 397 398 fitness gain from USP28 k.o. was attenuated or disappeared (Fig. 2E) compared to 399 TP53 wild-type cells. In 2 out of 3 cell line screens, the fitness attenuation effect of TP53-/- background cells was stronger in USP28 than in the neighboring ATM gene, 400 401 supporting the causal role of USP28 in that segment (Supplementary Data 3). Of note, in this analysis the effect sizes of USP28 k.o. were less than of full TP53 k.o., however 402 403 they were still substantial: in 2 out of 3 screens considered, the fitness gain effect of 404 USP28 disruption was comparable in size to the fitness loss effect of MDM4 disruption 405 (Fig. 2E).

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407 Overall, these analyses highlight USP28 as the likely causal gene for TP53 loss
408 phenocopying via deletion CNVs in the chr11 q22-q23 segment.

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410 **Cancer type specificity of** *TP***53 phenocopying events**

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As stated above, not every cancer type seems to be affected by the same types of 412 phenocopies. For instance, MDM2 amplification phenocopy occurs often in BRCA, 413 CESC, BLCA, LUAD and STAD but it does not in HNSC, OV, MESO nor LIHC 414 415 (Fig.1D). To further elucidate the tissue-specificity of USP28 phenocopying events, we 416 considered the prioritization scores separately for different cancer types (Supp Fig. 2). 417 We observed that BRCA, BLCA and LUAD were the cancer types which showed the 418 strongest signal in our prioritization score for USP28 phenocopies, with a suggestive 419 signal in STAD.

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To elucidate the cancer type spectrum of the *USP28* phenocopies, we considered the *USP28* amplifications as a negative control (deletions are expected to phenocopy). In particular, we determined in which tumor types *USP28* deletions had a higher *TP53* phenocopy score than USP28 copy number amplified samples. As expected, statistical significance when comparing the *TP53* phenocopy score of *USP28* copy number426 neutral tumor samples versus those bearing deletions was higher than comparing 427 neutral to amplifications. This supports that the impact of USP28 deletions on TP53 428 loss phenocopy score was stronger than for the amplification CNVs. The strongest 429 effect was found in BLCA, STAD, BRCA, LIHC and LUAD (Fig. 2E). In further support 430 of this tissue spectrum, when CRISPR TP53 codependency scores were checked, highest USP28 scores were found in cancer cell lines originating from BLCA, STAD, 431 BRCA, LIHC, LIHC and LUAD (Fig. 2E). The leading codependency score was found in 432 BLCA (Effect size=0.73, p= 2.2e-08) and BLCA also had the most significant value 433 434 when comparing deletions to neutral copy numbers TP53 phenocopy score (p=4.2e-06, Supp Fig. 3G). LUAD had the second most significant codependency p-value 435 436 (p=3.78e-6), and is also highly ranked in comparison of phenocopy score between deletion versus neutral USP28 CNV tumors (Fig. 3F). We found a positive association 437 438 between USP28 CRISPR codependency score and the effect of USP28 deletions in 439 TP53 phenocopying score across cancer types (Supp Fig. 3G). Of note, that the 440 "oncogene-tumor suppressor" dichotomy of USP28 was reported (43), which might imply that USP28 amplification could also result in a TP53 phenocopy in certain 441 442 contexts. However, our analysis did not support this in the majority of cancer types: out of 14 cancer types, only 3 of them had a stronger TP53 phenocopy score in USP28-443 amplified samples than in USP28-deleted samples (Fig. 2E); this was the case for none 444 445 of the primary cancer types for USP28 phenocopying (BLCA, STAD, LIHC, BRCA and LUAD). 446

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Taken together, these results suggest that *USP28* deletion is a novel *TP53* phenocopy that commonly affects major cancer types such as breast cancer (6.2% of total breast tumors, not counting known phenocopying events and *TP53* deletions) and also bladder, lung, liver and stomach cancer (7.6%, 7.0%, 3.8% and 2.9% cases).

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Multiple neighboring genes in a CNA segment can contribute to a *TP53* loss state

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Some of the top hits found in our combined testing approach were near to known *TP53* loss phenocopying genes such as *MDM2*. We thus hypothesized that there exist cases of 'collaboration' of neighboring genes, affected by a single copy-number alteration, which may bear upon the *TP53* loss phenotype. This would represent a special case of epistasis between two genes, caused by a single alteration that affects both genes. Our data suggests that the *CNOT2* gene, residing in the *MDM2* segment in the chromosome 12q15, is likely an example of this relationship.

464

In particular, in our data, MDM2 was frequently co-amplified with CNOT2, in 72% of the 465 cases of MDM2 amplification (Supp Fig. 4A, check by cancer type at Supp Fig. 4B). 466 Data from CRISPR and RNAi screening experiments can help resolve associations 467 468 from genomic analysis, where effects of neighboring genes are in genetic linkage (here implying being jointly affected by CNA). No other gene in that neighborhood that was 469 470 amplified together with MDM2 had as high CRISPR codependency scores as CNOT2 (effect size=-0.24, p=4.1e-14, Fig. 3A, B); next best gene in the 20Mb neighborhood is 471 CDK4 with effect size=-0.16, p=3e-7. However, CDK4 is co-amplified with MDM2 in 472

only 20% of the cases (Fig. 3A). CNOT2-only amplifications (i.e. without concurrent 473 474 MDM2 CNA) do not significantly associate with TP53 phenocopy score (Pearson's TP53 phenocopy score vs CNOT2 CNV p=0.45, effect size=-0.83, Supp Fig. 4C). More 475 476 interestingly, MDM2 CNV was not found to be associated with our TP53 phenocopy 477 score when MDM2-only amplified without CNOT2 (Pearson's TP53 phenocopy score vs MDM2 CNV p=0.57, effect size=0.09, Supp Fig. 4C). On the other hand, MDM2-478 479 CNOT2 co-amplifications were significantly associated with a TP53 deficiency transcriptomic score in tumors (Pearson's correlation TP53 phenocopy score vs MDM2 480 CNV p=2e-05, effect size=0.41, Supp Fig. 4C). 481

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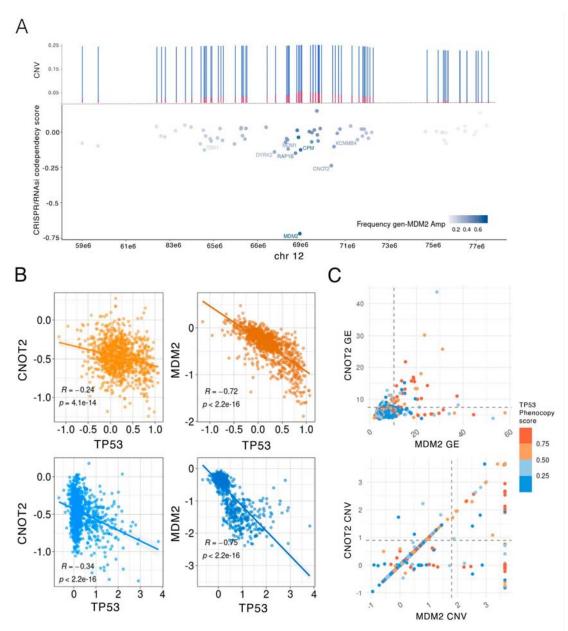
483 This genomic evidence we provide here is supported by recent experimental studies, indicating a role for CNOT2 in p53-dependent apoptosis, and suggesting therapeutic 484 485 potential of CNOT2 suppression (see Supplementary Text S1 for a summary and 486 references). As supporting evidence, we considered fitness effects of CNOT2 k.o. by 487 CRISPR in various subsets of cell lines. The MDM2-gain but CNOT2-neutral genetic 488 backgrounds had more modest fitness effects of CNOT2 k.o. (median=-0.37) than the CNOT2-gain but MDM2-neutral genetic backgrounds (median=-0.62; p=0.072 by 489 Mann-Whitney test, Supplementary Fig. 4D. Consistently, the CNOT2 k.o. by CRISPR 490 had stronger fitness effects (median=-0.55) in the TP53 wild-type backgrounds than in 491 492 TP53-mutant background cell lines (median=-0.45, p=0.0091 by Mann-Whitney test). 493 In other words, fitness effects of CNOT2 disruption by CRISPR are conditional upon 494 MDM2 alterations and TP53 alterations, implicating CNOT2 in a genetic interaction with 495 the two other genes.

496

497 We hypothesized that this role of CNOT2 in boosting the TP53-phenocopying effect of MDM2 amplification may be variable across tissues. Our data suggests that in some 498 499 cancer types TP53 functional loss seems to rely on amplifications of both genes 500 together, rather than solely MDM2, but not all (Supplementary Text 2). This suggests a 501 model where the MDM2-CNOT2 coamplification enhances the TP53 loss effect via a 502 genetic interaction, and of MDM2 alone but not CNOT2 alone able to generate a TP53 503 functional loss phenotype. Gene expression profiles match this observation seen in 504 CNA: having a MDM2 and CNOT2 co-overexpression (over the 97th percentile; n=40) 505 implies a high mean TP53 phenocopy score (above the 84th percentile, mean 506 phenocopy score MDM2_CNOT2=0.65, Fig. 3C, Supp Fig. 4F), however less so for a 507 MDM2-only overexpression (76th percentile; mean MDM2 only=0.46, Fig 3 C, Supp Fig. 4F), and, expectedly, even less so for a CNOT2-only overexpression (73th 508 509 percentile; mean phenocopy score CNOT2 only=0.41).

510

This principle might extend beyond the MDM2-CNOT2 pair. For instance, the *MSI2* gene, another highly prioritized hit in our combined test (Supp Fig. 4 G, H, I), resides near the known phenocopying gene *PPM1D* and thus has the potential to boost the effects of the linked amplification of the *PPM1D* gene to cause a *TP53* deficient state. Considered jointly, these findings suggest the possibility of *TP53*-loss like phenotype being a result of multiple phenocopying events generated by a single segmental CNA.



517 Figure 3. *MDM2-CNOT2* co-amplifications are associated with *TP53*-loss 518 phenocopy score.

- A. Top: CNV of MDM2 gene neighborhoods (20Mb segment). Y axis represents the percentage of GISTIC CNV gain states +1 (blue) and +2 (red), compared to neutral CNV state (0). Bottom: CRISPR *TP53*-codependency scores (y axis) shown by gene on chromosome 12 (x axis). Genes labeled have a codependency score <-0.1, suggesting *TP53* phenocopying effects. Color shows the frequency of CNV amplification of each gene, together with *MDM2* amplifications.
- B. Co-dependency source data. CRISPR and RNAi fitness effect scores for phenocopying gene *MDM2* and candidate gene *CNOT2* (y axis), and fitness effect scores for *TP53* in the genetic screens (x axis). Top plots represent RNAi screening data and bottom plots CRISPR screening data.
- 529 C. Association between *MDM2* and *CNOT2* gene expression (GE, top) and CNV status
 530 (bottom). Each dot represents a tumor sample, coloured based on the *TP53*-loss
 531 phenocopy score provided by the classifier. Dashed lines represent the 97th quantile across
 532 genes, for each data type.

533 **Detecting** *TP53* loss phenocopies in cancer cell line panels

534

It is well known that TP53 mutations associate with overall poorer drug response in 535 tumors (44-46), consistent with a lower ability of TP53 deficient cells to trigger cell 536 537 cycle arrest and/or apoptosis response(47-51). We hypothesized that, in addition to conferring a generalized drug resistance, the TP53 function loss may also modulate the 538 539 association between certain drugs and their target genes. In other words, we asked 540 whether in TP53 wild-type cancer cells, for instance, amplification in a particular oncogene predicts sensitivity to a particular drug, while in TP53 mutant cells the same 541 amplification does not associate with sensitivity. Cancer cell line screening panels (52, 542 543 53) are a convenient system to test this hypothesis, because many drugs were tested 544 systematically across both TP53 wild-type and mutant cells of multiple cancer types. 545 Considering TP53 function loss via phenocopy should afford additional statistical power 546 and clarify the associations discovered; otherwise, some effectively TP53 null cells would be erroneously considered wild-types during association testing, making it more 547 difficult to identify associations. 548

549

550 First, we aimed to generalize our tumor *TP53* phenotype classifier to cancer cell lines. 551 Because cell lines exhibit strong global (i.e. affecting many genes) shifts in gene 552 expression patterns, compared to their tumor tissue of origin, we applied an adjustment 553 methodology as in our recent work (54), using the COMBAT tool (55).

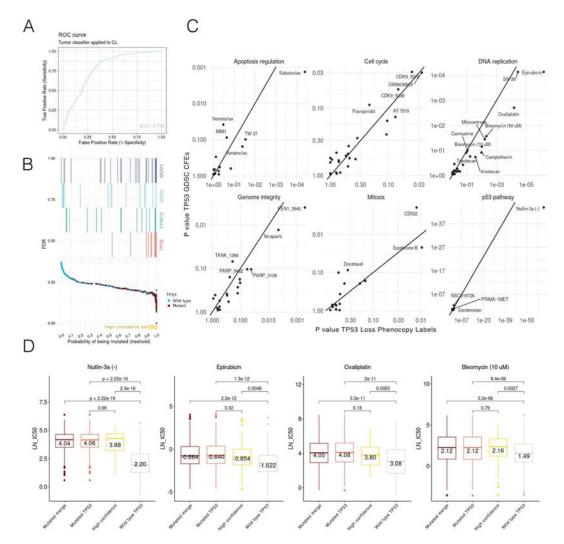
554 Upon adjusting gene expression data from cell lines in the CCLE and GDSC panels to 555 make it comparable with TCGA tumor data (see Methods), we applied the TP53 556 classifier and obtained ranked scores. Reassuringly, the classifier assigned a 557 significantly higher TP53 phenotype score to TP53 mutated cell lines (mean 558 TP53 wt=0.43, TP53 mut=0.83, p=1.1e-49 t-test), therefore cell line data served as an independent validation set for the classifier. Of the 610 cell lines labeled as TP53 559 560 mutant based on genomic sequence (see Methods), 87% were classified as TP53-loss 561 phenotype (Fig. 4A), suggesting a reasonable ability of the classifier trained on TCGA tumors transcriptomes to generalize to cell line data. 562

563

564 Similarly, as in tumors, a notable fraction of cell lines were apparent false positives, labelled as TP53 wild-type by the genomes, but classified as TP53 deficient using the 565 phenocopy score. We stratified these apparent false positives into a high-confidence 566 set ("high-confidence set"); the TP53 phenotype score of the TP53 deleted tumor 567 568 samples was used as the threshold (see Methods). The high-confidence set was composed of 76 cell lines (FDR=18%, see Methods, Fig 4 B). Only 79% of the total 569 number of cells labelled as TP53 wild-type genetically were also classified as TP53 570 571 wild-type by the phenocopy score, suggesting that TP53-loss phenocopying events are 572 common among cancer cell lines. In comparison, this percentage was 77% in cancer 573 samples.

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Some of the apparent false positive cell lines had a MDM2, MDM4 or PPM1D 576 amplification or a USP28 deletion (43 out of 109, 39% of the high-confidence set). 577 Samples harboring one of these CNA in known phenocopying genes were assigned 578 579 higher scores than the rest of TP53 wild-type cell lines (mean score=0.58 and 0.37, 580 respectively; t-test p=5.4e-5, Supp Fig.5A). Cells harboring a TP53 deep deletion (90th percentile of CNA scores) also had higher phenocopy scores than samples without 581 deletion (mean score=0.78 and 0.33, respectively, t-test p=5.4e-8). 28% of the cell 582 lines in the high-confidence harbor a TP53 deep deletion (22 out of 76, 90th percentile 583 of TP53 deletion CNA). These data support that the apparent false positives are often 584 bona fide TP53 phenocopying events in cancer cell lines. All TP53 phenocopy scores 585 586 and cell line functional TP53 status information is provided in Supplementary Data 4.



587 **Figure 4:** *TP53* loss phenocopy as estimated by the transcriptome score impact 588 **drug sensitivity**

- 589 A. *TP53* functional status classifier, derived from tumors, is applied to cancer cell lines. 590 Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve and area under curve (AUC) are shown.
- 591 B. The false discovery rate (FDR) for each cell line is shown as a dot. X axis represents the 592 phenocopy score threshold at which each cell line would be classified as *TP53* functionally
- 593 deficient. Yellow horizontal bar represents the range for the high-confidence set t of TP53

phenocopying cell lines (FDR=0.18, threshold=0.93). In the top part of the plot, cell lines
 harboring deletions of *TP53*, and amplifications of known phenocopying genes *MDM4*,
 MDM2 and *PPM1D* are marked.

C. *TP53* status - drug sensitivity associations. Each panel represents drugs targeting genes in a given pathway. Each dot represents an association of a drug with two possible *TP53* functional status labels: X axis with the *TP53* phenocopy score and Y axis with the *TP53* mutational status ("CFE" labels by the GDSC, see Methods). P-values are from a pan-cancer regression of a given drug log IC50 versus the *TP53* status. The Y axis represents the same but using *TP53* labels according to GDSC. Associations with FDR<0.25 are labeled.

D. Distributions of log IC50 values for several example drugs where *TP53* status is known to confer resistance. The X axis illustrates the different categories based on *TP53* mutated status ("Mutated *TP53*"), wild type TP53 ("Wild type TP53") and a high *TP53* phenocopy score ("High confidence"); the "Mutated merge" is a combination of the two. Statistical tests results comparing the groups (Mann-Whitney test, two-sided) are plotted on top. Median values are provided inside of each box.

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612 Effects of *TP53* on general drug resistance are clarified by *TP53* 613 phenocopy scores

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Next, we considered the GDSC drug response distributions for various drugs, in light of
the *TP53* functional status, as determined by the *TP53* mutations, or alternatively by
our TP53 phenocopy scores. To identify drugs to which response is affected by *TP53*mutation status, we predicted drug response (log IC50) values of 449 GDSC drugs
individually, using *TP53* status as an independent variable (see Methods).

620 For most of the tested drugs (105 out of 188 drugs that were significantly associated at <25% FDR, pan-cancer), the associations with TP53 had a lower FDR when testing 621 using TP53 phenocopy score, over the TP53 CFE labels (mutations which alter gene 622 623 function) (Fig. 4C, effect size at Supp Fig. 5B). For the drugs that affected pathways 624 related to TP53 functionality, this effect of improved significance by using the 625 phenoscore was prominent (hits FDR TP53 phenocopy score < TP53 CFE labels: DNA 626 replication, 12/12 drugs, genome integrity, 8/10, p53 pathway, 3/5, Apoptosis regulation, 4/6, Cell cycle, 4/7, Supp Fig. 5C). As a negative control, randomized TP53 627 628 labels were not significantly associated with any drug. As a positive control, the drugs known to be affected by TP53 status such as nutlin-3a (Effect size= 1.48 vs 1.01, p= 629 6.7e-68 vs 1.2e-44) or bleomycin (Effect size=0.25 vs 0.16, p= 0.009 vs 0.07), exhibit a 630 631 stronger association with the TP53 phenotypic score than with TP53 CFE mutation 632 (Fig. 4C).

633 We examined the IC50 drug sensitivity values of all drugs together, considering the 634 different groups of cell lines defined by our TP53 functional status classifier (Supp Fig. 5D). Here, the mean IC50 values of our high-confidence cell lines is more similar to the 635 636 TP53 mutated cell-lines than to the TP53 wild-type cell lines. In drugs known to be 637 affected by TP53 status, such as bleomycin, (Fig. 4D), IC50 values were not notably 638 different between TP53 mutant and the TP53 phenocopying high-confidence cell lines. All drug associations effect size and p-value are plotted in Supplementary Figure 6 A. 639 640 B. Cancer type-specific associations are shown at Supplementary Figure 6 C. 641

Taken together, the above analyses support the utility of the phenocopy score in identifying *TP53*-associated drug sensitivity, and also support that our tumor-derived classifier is able to generalize to cancer cell line transcriptomes to detect functional *TP53* loss phenotype.

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Associations between drug sensitivity and genetic markers is modified by functional *TP53* status

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A central goal in personalized cancer medicine is to discover actionable mutations, 650 which are used as genetic markers to decide which therapy to apply. Based on the role 651 652 of TP53 mutations in dysregulating various processes relevant to tumorigenesis, we hypothesized that various druggable cancer vulnerabilities may be conditional on TP53 653 functional status. To investigate, a regression was fit to predict activity (log IC50) for 654 655 each drug, from cancer type and each cancer gene mutated status (via the CFE classification, see Methods) and additionally introducing TP53 status (either via TP53 656 mutation (CFE), or via phenocopy status) as an interaction term. Comparing TP53 657 658 phenocopy FDRs against TP53 mutation FDR suggested that use of phenocopy score allowed to more confidently identify the drug-gene associations where TP53 status 659 660 modulates the effect size; see the comparison of FDR values (Fig. 5A), broken down by pathway that targets the drug. Out of the identified three-way associations (gene x 661 662 drug x TP53 status), 34% were found only by using the TP53 phenocopy score, but not 663 by the TP53 mutation status (Fig. 5A), while for comparison only 15% are uniquely identified by TP53 mutation status. We provide a tally of all gene-drug associations that 664 665 were conditional upon TP53 in Supp Fig. 7A and a by-gene comparison of associations 666 identified with TP53 phenocopy score labels, versus those identified by TP53 667 mutational status, in Supp Fig. 7B.

668

669 Next, we aimed to select the more robust associations. To this end, we applied the "two-way" testing approach to identify replicated drug-marker links (56). In this test, it is 670 671 enforced that the drug-gene association replicates across two or more drugs that share 672 the same target gene or pathway. These were tested separately for specific cancer types, comparing TP53-deficient versus wild-type cells. Here, this "two-way" test (56) 673 674 was further modified to be able to detect interactions with a third factor, the TP53 675 functional status. As an additional criterion ensuring confidence of associations, only the hits that appear in more than one cancer type were taken into consideration (as a 676 677 trade-off, this will cause highly tissue-specific associations to be missed). Stratifying by TP53 functional status, we identified a number of drug-gene CFE associations that 678 679 were not significant when ignoring the TP53 status (60 % of total, <25% FDR, Supp 680 Fig. 7 C). This corresponds to a total of 2303 associations of a drug to specific gene 681 mutational status by cancer type (total number of tests ignoring TP53=486417 versus n=402945 controlling for TP53 status, Supp Fig. 7D). 133 associations were found in 682 both approaches, but revealed a lower FDR when considering TP53 stratification 683 684 (mean FDR=15% versus =19% if not stratifying=5e-08); all associations from the "twoway" replication test are listed in Supplementary Data 5. 685

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Sensitizing effects of driver mutations on HDAC and ATR inhibitors are modulated by *TP53*

693

Several studies suggested a role of the drug AR-42 (a HDAC1 inhibitor) in prolonging 694 695 p53 life and triggering apoptosis (57, 58). We hypothesized that, if p53 activity is impaired, this effect of HDAC inhibitors should be reduced. Interestingly, our testing 696 697 reveals that mutations in the PIK3CA oncogene are associated with sensitivity to 698 HDAC1 inhibition in a manner conditional upon TP53 mutation. In other words, when 699 TP53 is functional, the resistance to HDAC1 inhibitor AR-42 due to PIK3CA mutation is 700 higher than when TP53 is mutant or otherwise inactivated as indicated by phenocopy score (TP53 wild-type A PIK3CA_mut regression coefficient test p=0.005, Cohen's 701 d=1.3, TP53 mutant PIK3CA regression coefficient test p=0.08, Cohen d=-0.38, Fig. 702 703 5B). We would not retrieve this association ignoring TP53 status (test on regression coefficient only using PIK3CA mutation status p=0.67, Cohen d=-0.08). In particular, in 704 LUAD the difference in AR-42 sensitivity (median of normalized log IC50 across cell 705 706 lines) between PIK3CA mutant and wild-type is hardly evident: 0.26 versus 0.24 707 respectively, while in TP53-functional LUAD this difference is -0.43 (PIK3CA wild-type) 708 versus 0.35 (PIK3CA wild-mutant). This response is observed across three different 709 HDAC inhibitors and in three different cancer types. AR-42 and belinostat were found 710 significantly associated with PIK3CA mutation in HNSC+LUSC (here considered jointly 711 because of known molecular similarities of the cancer types), BRCA, and LUAD cancer 712 types (Fig 5 B). Similarly, the AR-42 association with *PIK3CA* mutation was supported 713 in the HDAC1-targeting drug CAY10603 (Supp Fig. 7E). Furthermore, when we 714 analyzed an independent drug screening dataset, the PRISM screen (53), we were 715 able to recover the same associations (Supp Fig. 7E). This example illustrates how being aware of TP53 functional inactivation status, allows to detect drug-gene 716 717 associations that may be specific to the TP53 wild-type or to the TP53 deficient 718 backgrounds.

719

720 We also noted that the HDAC1i-PIK3CA mutation association (conditional upon TP53 721 functional status) was only recovered when controlling for TP53 phenocopy score, but 722 not when using simply the TP53 mutation status (per CFE method, see Methods) as an interaction term (Belinostat IC50-PIK3CA mutation Mann-Whitney test, in the TP53 723 mutation wild-type background p=0.13, while in the TP53 w.t. phenocopy labels 724 725 background p=0.01, Fig. 5B). This example illustrates how the use of TP53 phenocopy scores provides additional power to identify drug-gene associations, as already 726 727 indicated by the comparison of FDR scores for many associations above (Fig. 5A).

728

Recent reports have pointed out the potential therapeutic benefit of ATR inhibitors such as VE-821 or VE-822 in PTEN-defective breast, glioma and melanoma cells (59, 60). ATR is a crucial kinase regulating DNA repair and safeguarding genome integrity. ATR inhibition in PTEN-deficient cells was associated with accumulation of DSBs, cell cycle arrest and induction of apoptosis (59, 60), thus based on these phenotypes we hypothesized that the functional status may modulate this effect. Inspecting our data

supports that the ATR inhibitors VE-821, VE-822, and AZD6738 were associated with a 735 lower fitness in PTEN-mutant cells of the SKCM, OV, BRCA and DLBC cancers (Fig. 736 737 5C, Supp Fig. 7F). This effect was however revealed only when TP53 status was taken 738 into consideration, since p53 defective cells had an increased survival that obscured 739 this association (Fig. 5C, Supp Fig. 7F). Significance of the TP53 interaction term was 740 not reached in this particular example, probably as the number of cell lines with a 741 PTEN mutation (but TP53 wild-type) was low. Nevertheless, association of ATRi IC50 values was found to be more significant in a TP53 wild type context than in a TP53 742 743 deficient context. This means there was a more robust difference in cell fitness comparing PTEN-mutated to PTEN wild-type cells in a TP53-proficient background 744 745 (TP53 wild-type IC50-PTEN Cohen's d=-0.41 vs TP53 deficient AZD6738 IC50-PTEN Cohen's d=-0.05). 746

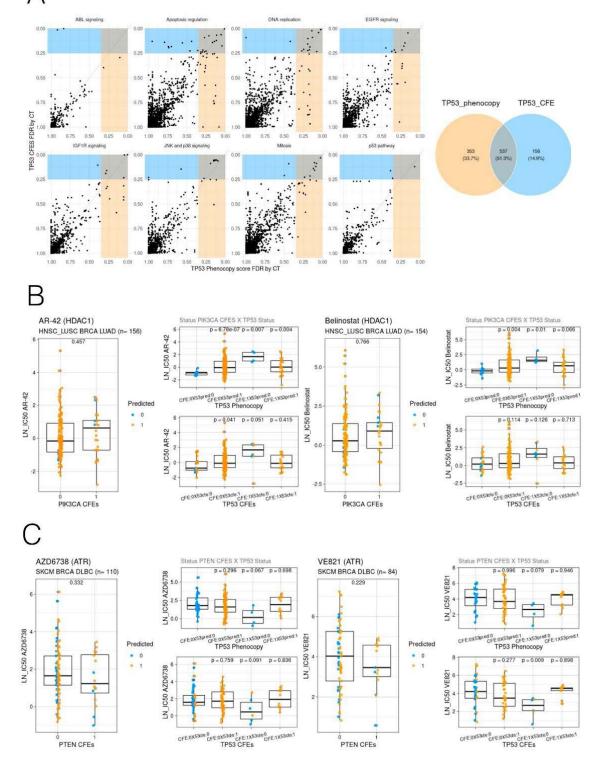
747

Overall, above we highlighted two examples where *TP53* functional status modulates
the association between HDAC1 inhibitors and *PIK3CA* mutations, and ATR inhibitors
and *PTEN* mutations. There were however many other significant three-way
associations involving *TP53* status, cancer driver gene mutations (CNA) and drugs
(listed in Supplementary Data 5), for example the association between *PIK3R1*mutations and sensitivity to MET inhibitors (Supplementary Fig. 7 G).

754

To estimate the importance in considering TP53 in discovering drug associations, we 755 756 considered overlap in associations recovered when TP53 status was accounted for versus associations obtained when TP53 status was ignored. Only 14% of significant 757 associations of a given molecular target to driver gene alteration status were shared 758 759 between two approaches (Supp Fig. 7 F), indicating that considering TP53 status 760 strongly alters the drug-gene links recovered from statistical testing of drug screens. The TP53 status-aware testing recovered a higher number of associations (n=12150 761 762 versus 7853, both at <25% FDR). We also noted this effect depended on the particular 763 gene: Drug responses in genes such as KRAS or TP53BP1 are well explained by gene mutational status alone, not benefitting from TP53 stratification (Supp Fig. 7 G). 764 765 Nevertheless, for most of the gene, their drug associations are often more confidently retrieved when TP53 status was accounted for (e.g. BRAF, HRAS, ATM, APC; n=18 766 767 genes total). Overall, the above data suggests that TP53 should be considered when matching drugs to cancer patients based on the driver mutations in their tumor, and 768 769 that this TP53 functional status should ideally be estimated via the phenocopying score 770 rather than TP53 gene mutations.





772Figure 5. Associations between drug response and genetic markers are773commonly affected by TP53 functional status

A. Associations of mutations in various genes with antitumour drug sensitivity, controlling for
 TP53 status. Each panel represents a pathway targeted by drugs, and each dot represents
 a gene - drug - cancer type combination. Associations are conditioned on *TP53* status by
 including an interaction term in the regression, where the Y axis shows associations using
 TP53 mutational status using GDSC labels (*TP53* CFEs), while the X axis represents the
 same using *TP53* phenocopy score-based labels. Yellow-shaded area contains

associations with FDR<0.25 for *TP53* phenocopy labels, and blue-shaded area shows the
 same for *TP53* CFEs. Total counts of associations in shaded areas are shown in the Venn
 diagram.

783 B. Association of PIK3CA mutation status with HDAC1 targeting drugs (AR-42 and 784 CAY10603), after controlling for TP53 status. Large plots show the association without 785 stratification by TP53 labels. "CFE" denotes mutated (1) or wild-type (0) PIK3CA state. An 786 association p-value is shown on top of each box by Mann-Whitney u-test. Each dot is a 787 tumor sample belonging to one of the cancer types listed above the panel. Dots are colored 788 according to TP53 phenocopy score labels. Small panels represent the same association 789 but upon stratification by TP53 status. Top row, stratification using TP53 phenocopy score 790 labels; bottom row, using TP53 CFEs ("cancer functional events", functional mutation 791 status, see Methods). The X axis represents tumor samples stratified by both the PIK3CA 792 and TP53 status. PIK3CA CFEs groups refer to PIK3CA stratification (1=mut, 0=w.t) 793 ignoring TP53 status. Labels are as follows: "CFE:(1/0)X53pred:(1/0)" refers to stratification 794 of PIK3CA (CFE i.e. driver mutation status) using TP53 phenocopy labels (53pred). "Last 795 CFE:(1/0)X53cfe:(1/0)" refers to stratification of PIK3CA (CFE) using TP53 mutation labels 796 (53cfe). "CFE:(1/0)X53pred:(1/0)" refers to stratification of PIK3CA (CFE) using TP53 797 phenocopy labels (53pred). Lastly, "CFE:(1/0)X53cfe:(1/0)" refers to stratification of PIK3CA 798 (CFE) using TP53 mutation labels (53cfe) C. Association of PTEN mutation status with ATR targeting drugs (AZD6738 and VE821), after 799

800 controlling for *TP53* status. Organization of the plots matches Fig. 5B, C.

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804 **Discussion**

805

Disabling the master tumor suppressor gene *TP53* provides cancer cells with important
advantages such as avoiding cell cycle arrest or apoptosis upon replication stress or
DNA damage. Because *TP53* acts as a transcription factor controlling expression of
hundreds of genes, a functional read-out of *TP53* activity can be obtained using gene
expression data, both at the level of mRNA or ncRNA, or at the protein level (20-23).
These scores were reported to have potential clinical relevance in predicting cancer
aggressiveness/patient survival and therapy response(*22*, *23*, *61*, *62*).

In this study, we developed a global transcriptome score of TP53 deficiencies, and applied it to ~8,000 tumors and ~1,000 cancer cell lines, to answer three questions.

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Firstly, we asked how common are the TP53-mutation phenocopying events across 816 various human cancers. We estimated a 12% frequency of TP53 loss phenocopies, 817 818 compared to a 58% prevalence of TP53 mutant tumors. In some cancer types such as 819 BRCA and BLCA, the TP53 phenocopies may constitute a high fraction of 19% and 16% tumor samples, respectively, suggesting that the TP53 status of tumors should 820 821 preferentially be measured via functional readout (here, transcriptome-wide signature) 822 rather than considering only mutations. Supporting this notion, a recent study using a 823 four-gene expression signature of TP53 activity demonstrated that this significantly predicts patient survival across 11 cancer types, and that in the majority of those it 824 825 performs better than considering TP53 mutations (22).

826

827 Secondly, given the high prevalence of *TP53* phenocopies we observed, we asked if 828 there exist additional genetic events that are associated with these phenocopies. We

829 developed a method considering CNA profiles and gene expression in tumors, 830 integrating external data from CRISPR and RNAi screens, which identified the USP28 831 gene deletion as a common TP53-loss phenocopying event. This is relevant for at least 832 five cancer types: BLCA, STAD, BRCA, LIHC and LUAD, and affects 2.9%-7.6% tumor 833 samples therein. The same statistical methodology also highlighted additional genes neighbouring the known phenocopies MDM2 and PPM1D -- CNOT2 and MSI2 834 respectively -- which are often co-amplified with the 'primary' gene in the CNA gain 835 segment and may boost the resulting TP53-loss phenotype. This analysis provides an 836 837 example of how molecular phenotypes (here, a transcriptional signature and fitness effects from a CRISPR screen) can be used to identify multiple causal genes in a CNA 838 839 segment. Analogous genomics methodologies could be applied in future work to 840 interrogate various recurrent CNA events observed in tumors, for which the causal 841 gene(s) are often not known with confidence.

842

843 Thirdly, we asked if a better measurement of the TP53 functional inactivation status 844 may be impactful in terms of predicting response to antitumor drugs based on genetic 845 markers. Given that TP53 deficiencies have myriad downstream consequences on the 846 cell, including e.g. suppression of cell cycle checkpoints, or inactivation of various DNA repair pathways (4) it is conceivable that the TP53 background may affect the ability of 847 848 various drugs to kill cancer cells, including drugs targeted towards a particular driver mutation. We searched for three-way interactions involving TP53 status, each drug, 849 and each mutated cancer driver gene, finding for instance that the TP53 status 850 851 modulates the selective activity of HDAC1-inhibitors on PIK3CA-mutant cells. The 852 associations were filtered to retain those supported in multiple compounds targeting the 853 same protein or pathway; enforcing agreement across multiple measurements may allay concerns of reproducibility in cell line screening databases (63-65). Recent work 854 855 by us and others (56, 66) has used statistical methods to integrate over various 856 screening datasets, considering drug and CRISPR genetic screens jointly, to improve 857 reliability of drug-target association discovery. Our robustly supported set of drug-858 target gene links (Supplementary Data 5) that may be modulated by TP53 status 859 provides a resource for follow-up work to validate the role of TP53 functional status in modulating particular gene-drug associations. 860

861

The statistical method we employed to identify TP53 loss phenocopying events draws 862 863 on the expression levels of 217 genes. Given that the model's predictive accuracy is high (demonstrated using cross-validation and application to an independent data set 864 865 of cancer cell line transcriptomes), the errors it makes are of interest. While the 866 apparent false-positives are often TP53 loss phenocopies, as addressed extensively in this study, it would also be interesting to look into the apparent false negatives in 867 future. These TP53-mutant tumors classified as wild-type-like by our transcriptome 868 869 score were not considered here, because of their relatively modest number, making 870 statistical analyses difficult. Going forward, analyses of genomes from larger cohorts of cancer patients may provide enough such examples to reveal mechanisms of re-871 872 establishing TP53 activity in certain cancers. Conceivably, this may happen by 873 normalizing expression of the TP53-downstream genes which have been dysregulated 874 by the TP53 mutation; understanding these events may inspire new avenues for 875 therapy of TP53 mutant tumors.

The general approach presented here could be applied beyond *TP53* also to other sorts of phenocopying events which may occur in tumors. For instance, RAS pathway activation transcriptomic scores were proposed (20), and similarly homologous recombination repair scores based on mutational signatures (86,87) Conceivably, other important cancer pathways may be similarly addressed as well, analyzing their distribution across tumors to identify possible phenocopying events, as well as their implications to drug response prediction, as we have done here for *TP53* phenocopies.

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888 Materials and methods

889 Data collection and preparation

Gene expression and Copy Number Alteration (CNA) data

We downloaded gene expression data (transcripts per million, TPM) from GDC Data 891 Portal (74) for human tumor samples (TCGA) and from GDSC (52) and CCLE (75) for 892 cell line samples (CL). We filtered out genes with missing values in more than 100 893 894 samples and selected the overlapping genes between cell lines and tumors. Cancer 895 types with less than 10 samples were filtered out. Low expressed genes were removed (TPM < 1 in 90% of the samples) and applied a square-root transformation to TPM. 896 Cancer types. Tumors with less than 10 samples were filtered out. In total, we have 897 898 12,419 features for 966 CL samples and 9149 TCGA samples. We collected CNA from 899 GDC Data Portal (74) for TCGA samples and from DepMap (64) for CL samples.

900

901 Data alignment between tumors and cell lines

In order to later generalize the model to cell lines we proceed to align TCGA and CL
data. For this, we applied ComBat, a batch adjustment method, to account for intrinsic
differences between tumor signal and cell lines signal (55). For the alignment of TCGA
and CL data, we first applied quantile normalization (normalize.quantiles function,
preprocessCore R 1.48.0 package) using tumor data as reference and then applied
ComBat (ComBat function, R package sva 3.32.1). Each group (TCGA, GDSC or
CLLC) was treated as a different batch.

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910 **TP53 status label (according to GDSC)**

911 TCGA Pan-Cancer Atlas somatic mutation data were extracted from the MC3 Public MAF (v0.2.8) data set (76). We followed the lorio et al. methodology (24) to determine 912 bona fide TP53 mutations (0:wild type, 1: mutated). We identify recurrent variants that 913 914 are likely to contribute to carcinogenesis. We considered mutated variants: non-915 synonymous missense mutations, indels (in frame insertions and deletions and out of 916 frame insertions and deletions), nonsense mutations and specific splice-site mutations 917 (such as "p.X125 splice"). Samples without any of these mutations annotated were 918 considered TP53 wild type. Just in 5% of the cases (179 out of 3416) our labels 919 differed from the ones provided by lorio et al. In total, we obtained TP53 labels for 7788 920 TCGA tumors.

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922 TP53 score classifiers in human tumors

923 We used the aligned human tumor data to train a supervised elastic (20-23) net 924 penalized logistic regression (using cv.glmnet function with alpha = 0.5, R package 925 glmnet 4.0-2) classifier with cyclical coordinate descendent optimization (77). The 926 choice of Elastic net penalization aims to deal with two concerns: the large number of 927 variables can lead to high complexity (overfitting) and the feature multicollinearity. 928 Elastic net regressions are seen as a good trade-off that benefit from the 929 dimensionality reduction provided by Lasso penalization while keeping as many 930 informative variables as possible (Ridge penalization). Of note, these three regularization methods yielded similar cross-validation accuracy: Elastic net (i.e. 931 932 alpha=0.5) AUC 0.960, Lasso (i.e. alpha=1) AUC 0.965, and Ridge (i.e. alpha=0) AUC 933 0.952, suggesting that the default alpha=0.5 in Elastic net method is a reasonable 934 choice. The model is trained using RNAseq data (X matrix) to infer TP53 status (Y 935 matrix). As a reference (Y) during training we used TP53 mutation status labels.

For the training set, we excluded the tumor samples that have an amplification (not neutral, >0, according to GISTIC CNA thresholded calls downloaded using FirebrowseR package, Analyses.CopyNumber.Genes.Thresholded function) in previously known *TP53* phenocopying genes (*MDM2*, *MDM4*, *PPM1D*) or a deep deletion of *TP53*, to prevent the model from relying too much on dosage effects of these genes, instead of the downstream response.

In addition, to control for cancer type specific signals we included cancer type as adummy variable. To control for class imbalance, we included weights in the classifier.

The model learns a vector of gene-specific weights that better classifies *TP53* status. The score from the models determines the probability of a given tumor of being *TP53* deficient. Optimization of the penalized regression formula and further details of the classifier can be consulted at (77)

948

Assessment of the classifier and calculation of FDR score

Using 90% of the training set and 5 balanced folds (balanced based on *TP53* mutational state) we performed cross-validation. We measured the performance of the training set (folds used for training) and the testing set (10% held out). Areas under the Receiving Operating Curve (AUROC) and the Precision Recall curve (AUPRC) were calculated for both training (cross-validation) and testing sets.

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FDR was calculated by sample using each sample probability score from the classifier 956 957 as threshold for determining positive and negative samples FDR=false positive / (false positive + true positive). Samples harboring an amplification (GISTIC thresholded 958 959 amplifications, FirebrowseR package, Analyses.CopyNumber.Genes.Thresholded function) of known phenocopying genes (MDM2,MDM4,PPM1D) or TP53 deletions 960 961 (GISTIC thresholded deep deletions, **FirebrowseR** package, Analyses.CopyNumber.Genes.Thresholded function)) were considered as true 962 963 positives when calculating FDR.

964

In Figure 1B, density of known phenocopies was calculated using *MDM4*, *MDM2*,
 PPM1D (amplifications) and *TP53* (deletions) CNA over/under the 95/0.05 th quantile.

All *TP53* Phenocopy scores (probabilities of being *TP53* dysfunctional) are provided atData S2.

969

970 The classifier coefficients were analyzed using the GO enrichment tool ShinyGO (78).

971 The 12419 genes from the gene expression matrix with a coefficient equal to zero were

972 used as background. Full classifiers relevant coefficients are provided at Data S1.

The coefficients of the *TP53* model should be interpreted with care, for several reasons: some of these genes may change in expression levels via indirect association meaning they may not be directly regulated by *TP53*; the gene set may omit genes that are *bona fide TP53* targets if the information contained in them is redundant with other genes; and finally these genes may individually be only weakly associated with *TP53* status, since the method optimizes the expression markers' collective power. Visualization was performed using Revigo (27).

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981 **TP53 status detection in cell lines**

Using the downloadedRNAseq from GDSC cell lines data we applied our trained tumor
classifier to cell lines. As stated above, RNAseq data was square rooted, normalized
and ComBat batch corrected. Cell line prediction performance was measured using as
reference *TP53* COSMIC labels (79) combined with lorio et al methodology (24) as we
did in tumors. FDR was calculated again using samples harboring an amplification of
known phenocopying genes (*MDM2*,*MDM4*,*PPM1D*) or *TP53* deletions as true
positives.

989

Using the classifier scores we separate the cell lines high-confidence set (FDR<=18%)
using as threshold reference GISTIC tresholded *TP53* deep deletions (-2)
(threshold=0.93) (FirebrowseR package, Analyses.CopyNumber.Genes.Thresholded
function). Therefore, we determine 3 sets derived from our Phenocopy score: highconfidence set (predicted *TP53* phenocopies, classified as mutant but originally labeled
as wild type), *TP53* mutant (classified and labeled as mutant) and *TP53* wild type
(classified and labeled as wild type). All cell line predictions are provided at Data S3.

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Due to a lack of positive controls, samples that were classified as wild type being originally labeled as *TP53* mutant were not considered further. However, in the future, analyses with a higher number of cancer genomes may reveal mechanisms of reestablishing *TP53* activity in some *TP53* mutant cancers (e.g. by normalizing expression of the *TP53*-downstream genes which have been dysregulated by the *TP53* mutantion).

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1005 Gene co-dependency with *TP53* knockout/knockdown

Following data of the 2021 Q4 release downloaded from the DepMap project website: CRISPR data from PROJECT Score (28) ("Achilles_gene_effect.csv"), combined RNAi from DEMETER2 project (29) ("D2_combined_gene_dep_scores.csv"), and the cell line metadata ("sample_info.csv"). In this data, negative scores imply cell growth inhibition and/or death following gene knockout.

1011 CRISPR data is normalized so non-essential genes scores are close to 0. We used 1012 Pearson's correlation to correlate the gene effect of CRISPR *TP53* knockout in every 1013 cell line to other genes' effect. We tested 990 cell lines for our 12419 genes. This score1014 was calculated both by pan-cancer and by cancer type.

1015 Equally to CRISPR codependency data we correlated gene knockdown effect with 1016 *TP53* knockdown effect using Pearson's correlation test. We tested 700 cell lines for

1017 our 12419 genes. This score was calculated both for pan-cancer and by cancer type.

1018

1019 Calculation of the prioritization score

1020 We sought to rank possible TP53 loss phenocopying genes testing different data: copy 1021 number variant data, gene expression data (RNAseq), RNAi codependency score and 1022 CRISPR codependency score. We used the downloaded tumor data (previously described) and our TP53 Phenocopy score to test for differences across our 3 main 1023 1024 TP53 groups: TP53 wild type (labeled and classified as wild type), TP53 mutated 1025 (labeled and classified as mutated) and predicted TP53 phenocopied(labeled as wild 1026 type but classified as mutated). We guessed that phenocopying genes should have a 1027 differential expression in the phenocopies group when comparing to wild type and mutated TP53 groups individually. We tested 12419 genes (by cancer type) in the 1028 1029 following manner (via Student's t-test): 1030

1031 CNV_gene(i)_TP53_wt versus CNV_gene(i)_TP53_phenocopies (CNV0 test),

1032 CNV_gene(i)_*TP53_*mut *versus* CNV_gene(i)_*TP53_*phenocopies (CNV1 test)

1033 GE_gene(i)_*TP53_*wt *versus* GE_gene(i)_*TP53_*phenocopies (GE0 test)

1035 RNAi_score_gene(i) versus RNAi_score_TP53 (RNAi codependency score, methodology described above)

1037Image: CRISPR_score_gene(i)versusCRISPR_score_TP53(CRISPR codependency1038score, methodology described above).

1039

1040 3010 genes out of 12419 did not have gene expression data so GE1 and GE0 tests 1041 were omitted from the combination for those genes. We combined the p-values values 1042 from the tests by cancer type using Fisher's method for combining p-values. For each 1043 category (CNV and GE) we only use in the combination the worst p-value (max) between CNV0 and CNV1 and GE1 and GE0 as a way of controlling. Genes in which 1044 1045 the test direction is not coherent in CNV, GE and codependency score were dropped. 1046 A gene with a negative codependency score, as negative regulators such as MDM2, is 1047 expected to cause a phenocopy of TP53 by amplification and overexpression 1048 (therefore a higher expression in the phenocopies group that TP53 wt or mut). P-values 1049 were FDR adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg method (p.adjust function of the stats 1050 package). We further merged each cancer type combined score into one single FDR value using Fisher's approach. That way we obtained the final Prioritization score for 1051 1052 each gene in a cancer-combined way. We set as reference the known phenocopies 1053 (MDM2, MDM4, PPM1D) FDR and CRISPR codependency score. To establish a 1054 stringent threshold for new possible phenocopying genes, we determine that the gene's 1055 prioritization score (combined by cancer type) should have an FDR as significant as the 1056 best ranked phenocopying gene (by cancer type). Same was applied for CRISPR 1057 codependency score. The known phenocopying genes with the best score by cancer 1058 type was MDM4 in LUAD, with an FDR of 4e-05 and a CRISPR codependency score of 1059 -0.26.

1060

1061 **TP53 wild-type and TP53 -/- isogenic cell line screens**

1062 Mean beta scores were calculated using MAGeCK-MLE (80) for *TP53*-isogenic pair cell 1063 lines A549 (81) and two RPE1 cell lines (82, 83). Beta scores represent the effect that 1064 gene knock-out has on cell fitness.

1065 We calculated the Z-scores (distance from the mean expressed as number of standard 1066 deviations) of either *USP28* or ATM within the distribution of their respective neighbor 1067 genes, for each dataset and *TP53* status "1Mbp neighbor genes" are genes present in 1068 Brunello (84) and Gecko v2 (85) libraries and located within a 1Mbp window 1069 surrounding either *USP28* or ATM, obtained from genecards.weizmann.ac.il

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1071 Drug response associations with TP53 status

1072 We collected GDSC (24) drug data for a total of 1000 cell lines. We used IC50 as a 1073 measure of activity of a compound against a specific cell line. If drug data was 1074 available in both GDSC1 and GDSC2 versions, GDSC1 data was selected.

We also collected each drug putative target and target pathway information from the 1075 1076 GDSC website (https://www.cancerrxgene.org/). We filtered out NA values and transformed IC50 to log scale. We downloaded GDSC mutational Cancer Functional 1077 Events (CFEs) (24) in order to: make comparisons between TP53 Phenocopy score 1078 1079 and GDSC TP53 CFEs and to test other gen status drug responses controlling for 1080 TP53 status. Mutational CFEs consist of a GDSC curated set of cancer genes (CGs) 1081 for which the mutation pattern in whole-exome sequencing (WES) data is consistent with positive selection. 1082

1083 We first used drug response (IC50) values of 449 GDSC drugs to fit a pan-cancer 1084 regressions against *TP53* status using cancer type as control variable. We fit three 1085 different regressions per drug response: against *TP53* CFEs, against predicted *TP53* 1086 Phenocopy thresholded scores and against *TP53* random labels.

1087 log(IC50) ~ TP53.status + cancer.type

For the TP53 status we used the groups obtained from our Phenocopy score being the 1088 1089 TP53 high-confidence set (classified as mutant, labeled as wild-type) and TP53 mutant 1090 set (classified as mutant, labeled as mutant) the TP53 deficient set (TP53.status = 1) and TP53 wild type (classified as wild-type, labeled as wild-type) as wild type set 1091 1092 (TP53.status = 0). Due to uncertainty, we filtered out samples with a TP53 mutation 1093 classified as wild-type. Cancer types with less than 3 cases for any category were filtered out. We used the esc R package to calculate effect size (cohens_d function). P-1094 1095 values of associations were FDR corrected using the Benjamini-Hochberg ("fdr") 1096 correction of the p.adjust function (stats package).

1097

We separate the drugs into groups according to the pathway the gene they target belong to. By pathway, we calculated the slope resulting from the comparison of the FDR Phenocopy score regression versus the FDR *TP53* CFEs. For visualization we plotted raw IC50 values of different drugs and all drugs together across the different cell line defined sets. For further analysis, we merged the cancer types that were similar: HNSC with LUSC (jointly known as HNSC_LUSC), GBM with LGG (LGG_GBM) and OV with UCEC (OV_UCEC).

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- 1106

1107 Drug response associations of gene status controlling for *TP53* status

1108 We collected drug screening data from the PRISM project (53) and GDSC project (52).

1109 NA values were filtered out and IC50 values were transformed to logarithmic scale. We

downloaded mutation features (GDSC mutational CFEs, see above) from (24).

1111

First, we fit a regression for each drug and gene CFE including *TP53* loss Phenocopy score and the interaction term as it follows:

1114 log(IC50) ~ genCFEs+TP53Phenocopy.status+genCFEs*TP53Phenocopy.status

1115 For comparison, we performed the same analysis using *TP53* random and *TP53* CFEs 1116 instead of *TP53* Phenocopy.status.

We tested every gene mutational CFEs out of the 300 genes provided by GDSC. We 1117 1118 filtered out cases with lss than 3 samples in any category (mutated:1 or wildtype:0) for 1119 TP53 status and gen CFEs. Regressions were fitted by cancer type using glm package 1120 (glment 4.0-2 R package). We selected genCFEs p.value and FDR correct using the 1121 Benjamini-Hochberg ("fdr") correction of the p.adjust function (stats R package). The 1122 coefficient of the genCFEs variable informs us about the fold change of the different variable states (mutant:1-wildtype:0) when TP53Phenocopy.status is set to its 1123 1124 reference levels (wildtype:0). We compared these scores when using TP53 Phenocopy 1125 to TP53 CFEs by plotting FDR values and calculating slope (Figure 5 A, 1126 Supplementary Figure 7 A).

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1129 **Two-way association tests**

1130 To further analyze *TP53* interaction in a more stringent way we implemented a version 1131 of the "two-way association test" approach developed by Levatic et al (56). In this 1132 methodology we enforced that, for a given drug, an association between a gen feature 1133 (GDSC gen mutational CFEs) and GDSC drug response is reproduced in other drugs 1134 with the same molecular target (controlled by *TP53* status as an interaction).

1135

1136 For this, we curated 996 sets of two drugs with the same target (ie: Dabrafenib and 1137 AZ628, target=BRAF). For the two drugs separately, we fitted a regression comparing 1138 the GDSC drug response against gen status (GDSC mutational CFEs) controlling for 1139 TP53 status (as stated above) by cancer type. We tested the different labels in the 1140 regression: TP53 CFEs, TP53 Random labels and TP53 Phenocopy labels. We 1141 considered associations by cancer type. We calculated the two-way association score by averaging the estimates (effect size) obtained between drug 1 and drug 2. To 1142 1143 calculate the p-value for each drug-drug combination, we shuffled the TP53 labels and 1144 compared the obtained random estimates with the actual estimate as described in our 1145 previous work (56).

1146

For an association to be selected, we require that it is observed in more than one cancer type (merged cancer types excluded), FDR<25% across all cancer types where the hit is observed and that the direction (value from gen CFEs variable estimate) is maintained across drugs. When selecting relevant hits we also required that each hit *TP53* interaction term variable in regression is significant (FDR<25%). This informs us of deviation from the behavior of the regression variables gen_status=1 and gen_status=0 when *TP53* is controlled as interaction. We filtered out cases with less than 3 samples in any category (mutated:1 or wildtype:0) for *TP53* status and gen CFEs in a cancer type manner. Supported hits by this methodology are reported at Figure 6 B C, Supplementary Figure 7 C, D and E and in Supplementary Data 5.

In addition, as a validation for some hits we performed a "two-way" using PRISM data. In this case we enforced that, for a given drug, an association between a gen feature (GDSC gen mutational CFEs) and GDSC drug response is reproduced in the same drug using the PRISM dataset. The rest of the methodology was applied in the same manner (see GDSC "two-way test" above).

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As control, we followed the same procedure of the two-way testing method but fitting regressions of IC50 ~ gen CFEs (without interaction term). FDR corrected p-values of gen CFEs coefficient in regressions with and without interaction term were compared. We made different types of comparisons: by gene associations (Supplementary Figure 7 B), molecular target-gen CFEs associations (different 2-sets of drugs can target the same molecular feature) and all associations (Supplementary Figure 7 A)

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1480

¹⁴⁸² Supplementary material

1483

1484 **Supplementary Text 1.**

1485 CCR4-NOT is a transcription complex (CNOT), composed of 11 subunits, that plays an 1486 important role in multiple functions in terms of regulating translation, mRNA stability, 1487 and RNA polymerase I and II transcriptions (67,68). CNOT2, one of the CCR4-NOT 1488 subunits, plays a critical role in deadenylase activity and the structural integrity of the complex (69) among other functions. An increasing number of studies have suggested 1489 CNOT2s role in tumor progression, such as in metastasis, proliferation and 1490 1491 angiogenesis (70, 71). CNOT2 depletion and CCR4-NOT disruption have been linked to an apoptotic response via MID1IP1 and increased p53 activity (70, 72) . CNOT2 has 1492 1493 been reported to be among the top 5 amplified genes in chromosome 12, together with 1494 MDM2 (73). Appealingly its overexpression has been demonstrated in several cancer 1495 types such as pancreas, prostate, liver, urinary, ovarian and breast (71). Experiments 1496 inducing CNOT2 overexpression led to increased p21 and p53 expression, decreased 1497 apoptosis and decreased TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) sensitivity 1498 (72, 73).

1499

1500 Supplementary Text 2.

1501

In BLCA, co-amplifications are associated with a higher *TP53* phenocopy score, and are more frequent than *MDM2*-only amplifications (21 out of 32 are co-amplifications, Supp Fig. 4E). In BRCA, we found almost exclusively *MDM2-CNOT2* co-amplifications and no *MDM2* only amplifications. In STAD co-amplifications of *MDM2* and *CNOT2* are more frequent (10 out of 13) than *MDM2* solely. Just GBM was found to rely more on *MDM2* only amplifications (8 out of 14, Supp Fig. 4E).

Only 3 tumor samples were *CNOT2* amplified but *MDM2*-non amplified (all 3 having a *TP53* phenocopy score lower than 0.5, Supp Fig. 4E). No cancer type relied on *CNOT2*only amplifications.

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1512

1513 Supplementary Data are attached as separate files.

- 1514 Supplementary Data 1 TCGA TP53 Phenocopy scores
- 1515 Supplementary Data 2 Gene coefficients
- 1516 Supplementary Data 3 USP28/ATM fitness effect
- 1517 Supplementary Data 4 Cell lines TP53 Phenocopy scores
- 1518 Supplementary Data 5 Two-way associations
- 1519

1520 Supplementary Figures 1-7 are given in a separate document.