### Original Article Wild-type TP53 defined gamma-secretase inhibitor sensitivity and synergistic activity with doxorubicin in GSCs

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**Abstract:** Glioblastoma (GBM) is the most common and lethal primary intracranial tumor. Aggressive surgical resection plus radiotherapy and temozolomide have prolonged patients' median survival to only 14.6 months. Therefore, there is a critical need to develop novel therapeutic strategies for GBM. In this study, we evaluated the effect of NOTCH signaling intervention by gamma-secretase inhibitors (GSIs) on glioma sphere-forming cells (GSCs). GSI sensitivity exhibited remarkable selectivity among wild-type *TP53* (wt-p53) GSCs. GSIs significantly impaired the sphere formation of GSCs harboring wt-p53. We also identified a concurrence between GSI sensitivity, NOTCH1 expression, and wt-p53 activity in GSCs. Through a series of gene editing and drug treatment experiments, we found that wt-p53 did not modulate NOTCH1 pathway, whereas NOTCH1 signaling positively regulated wt-p53 expression and activity in GSCs. Finally, GSIs (targeting NOTCH signaling) synergized with doxorubicin (activating wt-p53) to inhibit proliferation and induce apoptosis in wt-p53 GSCs. Taken together, we identified wt-p53 as a potential marker for GSI sensitivity in GSCs. Combining GSI with doxorubicin synergistically inhibited the proliferation and survival of GSCs harboring wt-p53.

Keywords: Glioblastoma, NOTCH signaling, gamma-secretase inhibitor, TP53

#### Introduction

GBM (World Health Organization grade IV) is the most common and lethal primary intracranial tumor [1]. GBMs exhibit relentless malignant progression, characterized by widespread invasion throughout the brain, resistance to chemical and radiation therapies, and tumor recurrence [2, 3]. Without treatment, most patients die of their disease within 3 months of diagnosis [1]. Surgical intervention can extend survival to 9-10 months, and the addition of adjuvant radiotherapy and temozolomide can lengthen survival to a median of only 14.6 months [1]. Therefore, novel therapeutic strategies are imperative for GBMs.

Identifying relevant biomarkers to predict treatment response has emerged as a promising strategy for GBM treatment. Crizotinib is currently being investigated in *MET*-amplified GB-Ms (NCT02034981) as part of a larger trial with 23 molecularly defined cohorts [4]. Thus, improved understanding of the molecular pathways driving malignancy will facilitate the development of biomarkers and the evaluation of agents specifically targeting tumor cells, and NOTCH is one of the most urgently wanted pathways under investigation.

NOTCH signaling regulates numerous processes during embryonic and adult development, including neural stem cell biology [5]. Its oncogenic role has been demonstrated in many tumors outside the brain as well as in GBM [6-13]. It has been shown that NOTCH1 expression is significantly upregulated in GBMs [10]. The canonical NOTCH signaling begins when NOTCH ligands bind to the extracellular domain of NOTCH receptors through local cell-cell interactions. When receptors are triggered by ligands, two proteolytic cleavage events are promoted at receptors. NICD, the activated form of NOTCH receptor, relocates to the nucleus, where it interacts with the DNA-binding protein RBPjk, activating a transcriptional complex known as CSL and resulting in the transcription of target genes [14].

Gamma-secretase is an internal protease that cleaves within the membrane-spanning domain of NOTCH receptor to release NICD. GSIs have been widely used in clinical trials targeting NOTCH signaling in many types of tumors [15, 16]. In this study, we observed the concurrence between GSI sensitivity, NOTCH1 expression, and wt-p53 activity in GSCs. We found that NOTCH1 signaling positively regulated wt-p53 activity. The combination of GSI and doxorubicin showed therapeutic benefit in wt-p53 GSCs by inhibiting proliferation and inducing apoptosis.

### Materials and methods

### Cell lines and reagents

The GSC lines were established by isolating sphere-forming cells from fresh surgical specimens of human primary GBM tissue, as described previously [17]. Cells were authenticated by testing short tandem repeats using the Applied Biosystems AmpFISTR Identifier kit. The last authentication test was done in July 2018. This study was approved by the institutional review board of The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center (Houston, TX). GS-Cs were cultured in DMEM/F12 medium containing B27 supplement (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), basic fibroblast growth factor, and epidermal growth factor (20 ng/mL each). The gamma secretase inhibitors R04929097 and avagacestat were purchased from Selleck Chemicals (Houston, TX), and crenigacestat was provided by Advanced ChemBlocks (Burlingame, CA). Nutlin-3a and doxorubicin were from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). All inhibitors were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide.

### Cell proliferation assay

The CellTiter-Blue (Promega, Madison, WI) assay was used according to the manufacturer's instructions. GSCs were seeded into 96well plates at a density of  $2 \times 10^3$  cells per well in triplicate. GSIs were added at the indicated concentrations and compared to solvent-treated controls. Doxorubicin concentration for apoptosis detection was determined by IC50 for each GSC. Fluorescence was measured at 570 nm using FLUOstar Omega microplate reader (BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany).

### Bliss independence model

The Bliss model was used to compute the expected combined effects of two drugs as the product of their individual effects on the basis of the assumption that there was no drug-drug interaction effect [18-20]. The expected combination effect was calculated using Effect<sub>(a+b)</sub> =  $E_{(a)} + E_{(b)} - E_{(a)} E_{(b)}$ .

The drug combinations were synergistic if their observed effects were higher than the expected combined effects, antagonistic if they were lower, and additive if they were equal. For the GSI and doxorubicin combination analysis, data were included when the level of doxorubicininduced inhibition was statistically significant but no more than 95% of the untreated value. The difference between the observed and expected Bliss outcome at every dose was calculated accordingly.

### Sphere formation assay

GSCs were seeded in 96-well plates (1 cell/ well) by flow cytometry sorting and treated with GSIs (1  $\mu$ M RO, avagacestat, or crenigacestat). GSC293 and GSC236 were treated for 8 weeks. GSC16, GSC34, GSC240, GSC7-10, GSC3-28, and GSC8-18 were treated for 6 weeks. Other GSCs were treated for 4 weeks. The treatment time for each cell line was determined by their doubling time. The number of wells with sphere formation were counted and recorded using the Cell3 iMager CC-5000 System (SCREEN Holdings, Kyoto, Japan).

For GSC34, flowcytometry sorting was introduced to generate single cell-derived subclones in order to detect NOTCH1 and wt-p53 expression. The single cell-derived spheres generated under RO treatment were defined as the RO-resistant (RO-R) subclones. Two subclones were randomly selected and expanded in a 6-well plate under 1  $\mu$ M RO treatment. The resistance was confirmed using a sphere formation assay, which demonstrated that RO-R subclones had similar sphere formation abilities, with or without GSI treatment.

### Western blot analysis

Cells were harvested in lysis buffer, as described previously, and subjected to Western blot analysis [21]. As pLIX-hN1ICD plasmid encoded the NICD1 protein sequence from 1770-2555 amino acids, it could not be detected by anti-NICD1 antibody, which detects the cleavage between 1753 and 1754 amino acids. Thus, we used anti-NOTCH1 antibody, which detected epitopes between 2400 and 2500 amino acids, to blot the exogenous NICD1 overexpression. The detailed antibody information is listed in <u>Table S1</u>.

### Quantitative PCR (qPCR)

Total RNA was extracted from GSCs with an RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Real-time qPCR was performed with the SuperScript III One-Step RT-PCR System and SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Invitrogen), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The primers (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) for quantitative PCR are NOTCH1-F: TGGACCAGATT-GGGGAGTTC, NOTCH1-R: GCACACTCGTCTGTG-TTGAC, HES1-F: CCTGTCATCCCCGTCTACAC, HE-S1-R: CACATGGAGTCCGCCGTAA, HES5-F: AAG-CACAGCAAAGCCTTCGT, HES5-R: CTGCAGGCA-CCACGAGTAG, P21-F: TGGAGACTCTCAGGGTC-GAAA, P21-R: GGCGTTTGGAGTGGTAGAAATC, BAX-F: CCCGAGAGGTCTTTTTCCGAG, and BAX-R: CCAGCCCATGATGGTTCTGAT.

### Flow cytometry

For the cell cycle analysis, disassociated GSCs were stained using a PI/RNase staining buffer according to the manufacturer's instructions (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ). For apoptosis detection,  $1 \times 10^6$  cells were collected and resuspended in 100 µL of binding buffer. FITC annexin V (5 µL) and 7-amino-actinomycin D (7-AAD) (5 µL) were added and mixed. Cells were incubated for 15 minutes in dark at ambient temperature. Samples were tested using BD FACSCelesta (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ) and analyzed using FlowJo software version 10.3.

### Transfection and viral infection

For the CRISPR-Cas9-mediated p53 knockout, p53 double nickase plasmid (sc-416469-NIC, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX) and con-

trol double nickase plasmid (sc-437281, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) were transfected into GSC23 with Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) for 48 hours. Cells with green fluorescent proteins were sorted by flow cytometry and plated onto 96-well plates to form single colonies. After 6 weeks, the single cell-derived colonies were collected, and p53 expression was detected by Western blot analysis to select p53 knockout subclones.

pLenti6/V5-p53\_wtp53 was a gift from Bernard Futscher (Addgene plasmid #22945) [22]. pLIX\_403 was a gift from David Root (Addgene plasmid #41395). pLIX-hN1ICD was a gift from Julien Sage (Addgene plasmid #91897) [23]. Lentiviruses were generated using 293FT packaging cells and the VSV-G and PAX2 plasmids. Forty-eight hours after infection, cells were selected by the addition of 5  $\mu$ g/mL blasticidin or 1  $\mu$ g/mL puromycin (Invitrogen). Doxycycline (2  $\mu$ g/ml) was used to induce NICD1 expression in pLIX-hN1ICD-infected cells.

### Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA) and GraphPad Prism software 8.0.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). D'Agostino-Pearson test is used to determine if a data set is well-modeled by a normal distribution. F-test is used to test if the variances of two populations are equal. Whether two sets of data were significantly different was determined by unpaired two-tailed Student t-tests (for data sets with normal distribution and equal variance), Welch's t-test (for data sets with normal distribution and unequal variances), or Wilcoxon rank-sum test (for data sets without normal distribution). The mean values shown represent the mean of at least three independent experiments, and the error bars represent the standard deviations.

### Results

## GSI-sensitive GSCs harbored elevated NOTCH1 signaling as well as Wt-p53 activity

Using the single-cell sphere formation assay, we tested the sensitivity of a panel of GSCs to R04929097 (R0), a potent and selective GSI. R0 significantly abrogated sphere formation in three of 10 GSCs in the screening group (P < 0.05) (Figure 1A). Consistent with the results of

a previous report, GSI-sensitive GSCs harbored elevated NOTCH1, NICD1, and HES1 expression [17] (**Figure 1B**, **1C**). Notably, all the GSIsensitive GSCs were wt-p53 lines, while all the GSI-resistant GSCs were mutant *TP53* (mutp53) lines. GSI-sensitive GSCs also exhibited significantly higher wt-p53 activity than did GSIresistant GSCs, as shown by the upregulated expression of p21 and BAX (p53 target genes) (P < 0.05) (**Figure 1B**, **1C**).

To validate our finding that wt-p53 GSCs were sensitive to GSI, we introduced two more GSIs (avagacestat and crenigacestat) and tested the sensitivity of another set of cell lines (validation group) consisting of five wt-p53 and two mut-p53 GSCs. GSCs showed consistent responses to RO, avagacestat (ava), and crenigacestat (cre) at the same dose. As expected, GSIs significantly impaired sphere formation in four of the five wt-p53 GSCs (P < 0.01), while both mut-p53 lines were resistant to GSIs (**Figures 1D**, <u>S1</u> and <u>S2</u>).

Taken together with these two data sets, we tested 17 GSCs and identified seven GSIsensitive GSCs, all of which harbored wt-p53 and significantly upregulated p21 and BAX expression (P < 0.01) (**Figure 2A-C**). All nine mut-p53 GSCs were resistant to GSIs. Wt-p53 GSCs were more sensitive to GSIs than were mut-p53 GSCs (P < 0.01), although GSC3-28 was the only cell line that harbored wt-p53 and was resistant to GSIs. Furthermore, NOTCH1 expression was significantly upregulated in wt-p53 GSCs (P < 0.01) (**Figure 2D**).

Our data showed the concurrence between GSI sensitivity, NOTCH1 expression, and wt-p53 activity. Although GSIs downregulated the expression of stem cell markers in wt-p53 and mut-p53 GSCs (Figure S3), GSIs inhibited sphere formation of wt-p53 GSCs only. Our previous study has demonstrated a reasonable role for NOTCH1 activity in predicting GSI responses in GSCs [17], here, we further identified that wt-p53 with NOTCH1 activity was equally efficient in predicting GSI response, suggesting that wt-p53 is a potential marker for GSI sensitivity in GSCs.

### Wt-p53 signaling did not regulate NOTCH1 activity

Given the significant correlation between NOTCH1 and wt-p53 activity, we studied the

underlying mechanism of this concurrence. To determine whether wt-p53 regulates NOTCH1 signaling, we transformed p53 in GSC23 (mutp53, GSI-resistant) by knocking out the innate mutant p53 and introducing wt-p53. To minimize off-target effects of CRISPR-Cas9-mediated knockout (KO), we randomly selected two single cell-derived mut-p53-KO subclones in this experiment [24, 25]. We also introduced wt-p53 in GSC293 (wt-p53, GSI-sensitive) in parallel. However, wt-p53 overexpression did not affect NOTCH1 activity in either GSC23 mut-p53-KO subclones or GSC293 (wt-p53) (Figure 3A). The expression levels of NOTCH1, NICD, and HES1 did not change. We further showed that treating wt-p53 cells with Nutlin-3, a specific MDM2 inhibitor that restores wt-p53 expression, did not influence NOTCH1 activity in wt-p53 GSCs (Figure 3B), indicating that wt-p53 does not regulate NOTCH1 activity in GSCs.

## NOTCH1 signaling positively regulated Wt-p53 activity

Next, we tested if NOTCH1 signaling altered wt-p53 activity, and we tested that by overexpressing NICD1 or RO-induced NOTCH1 downregulation in GSCs. Overexpression of NICD1 in GSC293 (wt-p53) increased p53 and p21 expression levels, indicating that upregulating NO-TCH1 activates wt-p53 (Figure 4A). We validated this finding by showing that downregulation of NOTCH1 suppressed wt-p53. We isolated two single cell-derived RO-resistant (RO-R) subclones from GSC34 (wt-p53, GSI-sensitive) as described in Materials and Methods section. The resistance was confirmed by decreased sphere formation in all three GSIs-treated GSC subclones (Figure 4B). Notably, RO-R subclones harbored significantly decreased NOTCH1 expression and activity (as reflected by NICD1 and HES1 expression levels), as well as attenuated wt-p53 activity (as reflected by p53, p21, and BAX expression levels) (P < 0.01), while all single cell-derived subclones from parental GSC34 harbored comparable wt-53 activity, suggesting that the resistance is acquired rather than from subclonal selection and that downregulation of NOTCH1 signaling inhibits wt-p53 activity (Figures 4C, 4D, and S4). Together, these results support that NOTCH1 signaling positively regulates wt-p53 expression and activity in GSCs.







**Figure 1.** Identification of GSI-sensitive GSCs. A. Three RO-sensitive and seven RO-resistant GSCs were identified using sphere formation assay. B, C. The basal expression of NOTCH1 signaling (NOTCH1 and NICD1) and p53 target genes (p21 and BAX) was detected by Western blot analysis. D. GSCs' sensitivity to three GSIs (RO, avagacestat, and crenigacestat) were tested, and four GSI-sensitive GSCs were identified using sphere formation assay. *TP53* status (W: wild-type, M: mutant) is also shown. Data are represented as means  $\pm$  SD. \*: P < 0.05. \*\*: P < 0.01. n = 3.



Figure 2. Summary of GSI sensitivity signature. A. Seven of eight wt-p53 GSCs were GSI sensitive, while all mut-p53 GSCs were GSI resistant. B. GSI-sensitive GSCs harbored significantly higher p53 target genes (*P21* and *BAX*) expression than GSI-resistant GSCs. C. GSIs inhibited the sphere formation ability of GSCs harboring wt-p53 instead of mut-p53. D. Wt-p53 GSCs harbored significantly higher NOTCH1 expression than mut-p53 GSCs. Data are represented as means  $\pm$  SD. \*\*: P < 0.01. n = 3.

# GSIs synergized with doxorubicin to inhibit proliferation and induce apoptosis in Wt-p53 GSCs

Next, our focus was to identify a combination strategy to strengthen GSIs' effect (Figure S5). Given the concurrence of wt-p53 and NOTCH1 in GSI-sensitive GSCs, we sought to determine whether activating wt-p53 augmented GSIs' effect. For that, we introduced doxorubicin, a widely used chemotherapeutic agent that activates wt-p53 [26-28]. GSCs in the screening group were treated with RO/Ava + doxorubicin.

GSCs in the validation group were treated with RO/Ava/Cre + doxorubicin. The combination effect was evaluated using the Bliss independency model [18-20]. The combination of GSI and doxorubicin showed more significant antiproliferative effect in wt-p53 GSCs than in mut-p53 GSCs, as shown by substantial synergistic inhibition of proliferation in wt-p53 GSCs in comparison to mut-p53 GSCs (P < 0.001) (Fi-gures 5A, 5B, <u>S6</u> and <u>S7</u>). Notably, all three GSIs (RO, Ava, and Cre) had a comparable growth inhibition effect in combination with doxorubicin, indicating a generalized effect of GSIs



**Figure 3.** Wt-p53 did not regulate NOTCH1 signaling in GSCs. A. *TP53* mutant was knocked out (KO) from GSC23. Then Wt-p53 was introduced into two p53KO subclones. Wt-p53 was also introduced into GSC293, which harbored innate wt-p53. The expression of p53 and NOTCH1 pathway components was detected by Western blot analysis. B. The expression of p53 and NOTCH1 pathway components was detected after Nutlin-3 treatment (24 hours) in two wt-p53 GSCs (GSC34 and GSC293) by Western blot analysis. n = 3. Blue font: wt-p53 cells. Red font: mut-p53 cells.



**Figure 4.** NOTCH1 signaling positively regulated wt-p53 activity in GSCs. A. Introducing NICD1 in GSC293 (wt-p53) upregulated p53 and p21 expression. GSCs were treated with doxycycline (2  $\mu$ g/mL) for 96 hours. B-D. RO-R subclones were derived from GSC34 (wt-p53). B. Both RO-R subclones showed resistance to avagacestat and crenigacestat compared with parental GSC34, as demonstrated using the sphere formation assay. C. The expression of NOTCH1 target genes (*HES1* and *HES5*) and p53 target genes (*P21* and *BAX*) in RO-R subclones was detected by qPCR. D. The expression

sion of NOTCH1 and p53 pathway components in RO-R subclones was detected by Western blot analysis. Data are represented as means  $\pm$  SD. \*: P < 0.05. \*\*: P < 0.01. n = 3. Blue font: wt-p53 cells. Red font: mut-p53 cells.

that is not limited to any one specific GSI.

We further studied the effect of combination treatment of GSI and doxorubicin on cell cycle arrest. GSI plus doxorubicin did not induce additional cell cycle arrest, although doxorubicin alone induced G2/M arrest in all of the GSCs tested [29] (Figure S8). However, GSI plus doxorubicin induced more apoptosis in wt-p53 lines than in mut-p53 lines, as shown by increased number of annexin V-stained cells (Figures 5C, 5D and S9). Increased caspase-3 cleavage and PARP1 cleavage was also induced by combined treatment in wt-p53 GSCs but not in mut-p53 GSCs (Figures 5E and S10).

#### Discussion

In our study, we showed that wt-p53 GSCs were sensitive to GSI treatment, and NOTCH signaling upregulated wt-p53 expression and activity. Combining GSI and doxorubicin synergistically inhibited proliferation and induced apoptosis in GSCs with wt-p53. Wt-p53 served as a marker for GSI sensitivity as well as for the synergistic activity.

Gamma-secretase was originally identified as the protease responsible for the generation of amyloid  $\beta$  peptides (A $\beta$ ), Gamma-secretase cleaves APP within its transmembrane domain and generates multiple A $\beta$  peptides. and thus



**Figure 5.** Doxorubicin synergistically augmented cytotoxicity of GSIs in wt-p53 GSCs. A. GSCs were treated with the combination of GSI and doxorubicin (DXR) for 5 days. The combination effect was analyzed using the Bliss independency model. GSI plus DXR exerted the more apparent synergistic effect in wt-p53 GSCs than in mut-p53 GSCs. B. Combining GSI with DXR exerted more significantly synergistic anti-proliferative effect in wt-p53 GSCs than in mut-p53 GSCs. Each point represents the average combination effect by GSIs and DXR treatment for each cell line. C, D. RO- and DXR-induced apoptosis was tested by flow cytometry. The combination effect was analyzed using the Bliss independency model. RO plus DXR induced more apoptosis in wt-p53 GSCs than in mut-p53 GSCs. See also Figure S5. E. RO- and DXR-induced apoptosis was detected by PARP1 and caspase-3 cleavage levels. RO plus DXR induced PARP1 and caspase-3 cleavage in wt-p53 GSCs. See also Figure S6. Doxorubicin concentration for apoptosis detection was determined by IC50 for each GSC. \*\*\*: P < 0.001. n = 3. Blue font: wt-p53 cells. Red font: mut-p53 cells.

serves as a prime therapeutic target in Alzheimer's disease (AD) [30]. Amyloid  $\beta$  protein precursor (APP) and NOTCH are the two major substrates of gamma-secretase. It has been shown that APP promotes tumor cell proliferation, while A $\beta$  inhibits tumor cell proliferation [31-34]. GSIs treatment would increase APP level and decrease A $\beta$  level, and the total effect would be promoting tumor cell growth. Thus, we believe that GSI-induced anti-tumoral effects result from the impaired NOTCH activation rather than APP cleavage. APP would be a potential candidate responsible for GSI resistance in GBMs, which deserves future study.

TP53 is subject to inactivation by mutation or deletion in > 29% of primary GBMs, according to The Cancer Genome Atlas database. In this study, we found that wt-p53 GSCs harbored elevated NOTCH1 signaling and were sensitive to GSIs. Wt-p53 is a marker for the synergistic activity of GSIs, when administered in combination with doxorubicin. Our study suggests that the combinational treatment of GSIs with doxorubicin would benefit GBM cases harboring wt-p53, providing personalized therapeutic strategy for this group of patients. In this study, the impaired tumorigenicity of wt-p53 GSCs made it difficult to validate these findings in vivo, which was reflected by the decreased selfrenewal abilities of wt-p53 GSCs compared with those of mut-p53 GSCs. Wt-p53 GSCs exhibited low tumorigenicity for intracranial xenografts in nude mice (data not shown), and this phenomenon has been supported by the results of the current studies. The loss of p53 function is associated with increased tumorigenicity in lymphoma cells [35]. Meletis et al. have shown that p53 negatively regulated the self-renewal of neural stem cells [36]. As similar molecular mechanisms may control proliferation and brain tumor initiation in GSCs and neural stem cells [37], it is reasonable to speculate that wt-p53 cells harbor the lower selfrenewal ability than do mut-p53 cells in GBM.

To further explore the correlation between NOTCH1 and p53, we performed a series of gene-editing experiments in GSCs. We found that NOTCH1 signaling positively regulated wt-p53 activity, while wt-p53 signaling did not regulate NOTCH1 activity. Other studies have indicated that p53 positively regulates NOTCH signaling, but it is important to note that NOTCH signaling and p53 activity interaction can be

context dependent [38]. In primary human keratinocytes, p53 positively regulated NOTCH signaling by binding to the NOTCH1 promoter [39-41]. Similarly, NOTCH1 promoter served as a direct p53 binding target in HCT116 colon carcinoma cells [42]. However, NOTCH signaling positively regulated p53 in GBM in our study, as well as in several published articles. Purow et al. showed that silencing NOTCH1 decreased wt-p53 expression and activity in U87-MG cells [43]. Overexpressing NICD2 in CD133+ GBM cells upregulated p53 expression [44]. Furthermore, NOTCH1-induced increases in p53 expression and activity have been observed in human hepatocellular carcinoma [45], in oral carcinoma [46], and during early neural development [47].

Taken together, our findings indicate that GSI sensitivity exhibits remarkable selectivity among wt-p53 GSCs. NOTCH1 signaling positively regulated wt-p53 activity. Wt-p53 could be used as a potential marker for GSI sensitivity, and GSIs synergized with doxorubicin to inhibit proliferation and survival of wt-p53 GSCs.

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### Disclosure of conflict of interest

W.K. Alfred Yung discloses a conflict of interest as a consultant with DNATrix. The rest of the authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Target	Manufacturer	Species	Dilution factor
NOTCH1	Cell signaling #4380	Rabbit	1000
NICD1	Cell signaling #4147	Rabbit	1000
HES1	Cell signaling #11988	Rabbit	10000
HES5	Abcam #194111	Rabbit	10000
p53	BD Pharmingen #554293	Mouse	1000
p21	BD Pharmingen #556430	Mouse	1000
BAX	Cell signaling #5023	Rabbit	1000
NESTIN	Millipore #MAB5326	Mouse	1000
CD133	Abcam #16518	Rabbit	1000
PARP1	SCBT #7150	Rabbit	500
Cleaved PARP1	Cell signaling #5625	Rabbit	1000
Cleaved caspase-3	Cell signaling #9661	Rabbit	1000

Table S1. Primary antibodies information



**Figure S1.** Representative images of GSC sphere formation after GSIs treatment. R04929097, avagacestat, and crenigacestat treatment significantly attenuated sphere formation ability in GSC293 (wt-p53) but not in GSC272 (mut-p53). Wells with spheres were labeled by green circle. n = 3.







Figure S3. GSIs downregulated the expression of stem cell markers in GSCs. GSCs were treated by R04929097 and avagacestat for 3 and 7 days. Both GSIs treatment decreased NESTIN and CD133 expression in GSCs. n = 3.



**Figure S4.** Expression of NOTCH1 and wt-p53 signaling in single cell-derived subclones of GSC34. Single cells from GSC34 were obtained by flowcytometry sorting. The single cell-derived subclones showed heterogenous expression pattern of NOTCH1 signaling and comparable wt-p53 activity.



**Figure S5.** Effect of GSIs on GSC growth. The effect of GSIs (R0 and crenigacestat) on GSC growth was tested in three doses (0.2 mM, 1 mM, and 5 mM). A, B. GSIs inhibited GSC13 (wt-p53) growth, but the effect was minimal in GSC34 (wt-p53). C, D. GSIs did not affect growth in mut-p53 GSCs (GSC23 and GSC7-11). n = 3. Blue font: wt-p53 cells. Red font: mut-p53 cells.



Figure S6. Screening group. The effect of GSI (R0 or avagacestat) and doxorubicin treatment (5 days) on GSC proliferation. n = 3.



Figure S7. Validation group. The effect of GSI (R0, avagacestat, or crenigacestat) and doxorubicin treatment (5 days) on GSC proliferation. n = 3.





**Figure S8.** GSI and doxorubicin combination did not induce additional cell cycle arrest. GSCs were treated for 24 hours. Doxorubicin alone induced G2/M arrest in all four GSCs, while R0 treatment did not facilitate doxorubicin to induce more cell cycle arrest. Doxorubicin concentration for apoptosis detection was determined by IC50 for each GSC. n = 3. Blue font: wt-p53 cells. Red font: mut-p53 cells.





**Figure S9.** GSI and doxorubicin combination induced more apoptosis in wt-p53 GSCs. GSCs were treated for 24 hours and then stained with FITC-annexin V/7-AAD. Doxorubicin concentration for apoptosis detection was determined by IC50 for each GSC. n = 3. Blue font: wt-p53 cells. Red font: mut-p53 cells.



**Figure S10.** Effect of GSI and doxorubicin combination on NOTCH1 and p53 pathway expression. GSCs were treated for 24 hours and then subjected to Western blot analysis. Doxorubicin concentration for apoptosis detection was determined by IC50 for each GSC. n = 3. Blue font: wt-p53 cells. Red font: mut-p53 cells.