

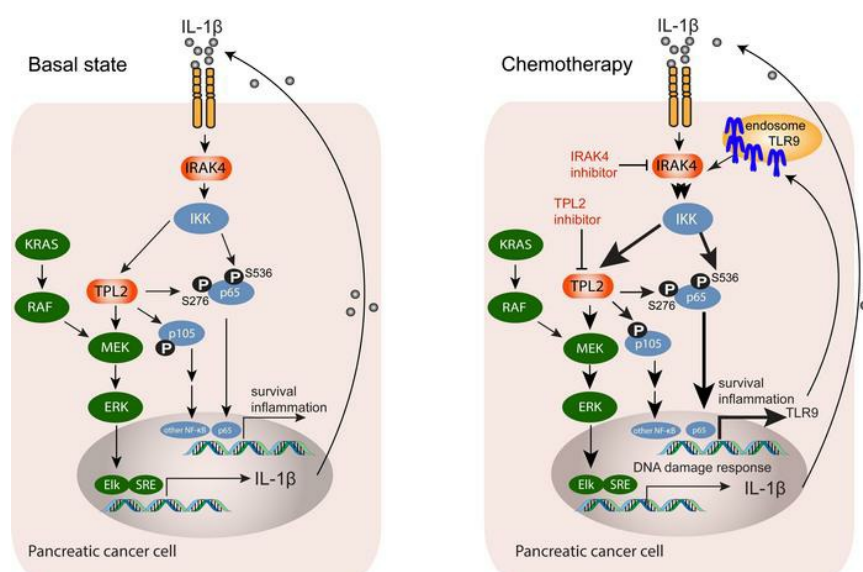
TPL2 enforces *RAS*-induced inflammatory signaling and is activated by point mutations

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TPL2 enforces *RAS*-induced inflammatory signaling and is activated by point mutations

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ABSTRACT

30 NF- κ B transcription factors, driven by the IRAK-IKK cascade, confer treatment resistance in
pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC), a cancer characterized by near universal *KRAS* mutation.
Through reverse-phase protein array and RNAseq we discovered IRAK4 also contributes substantially
to MAPK activation in *KRAS*-mutant PDAC. IRAK4 ablation completely blocked *RAS*-induced
transformation of human and murine cells. Mechanistically, expression of mutant *KRAS* stimulated an
35 inflammatory, autocrine IL-1 β signaling loop that activated IRAK4 and MAPK pathway. Downstream of
IRAK4, we uncovered TPL2/MAP3K8 as the essential kinase that propels both MAPK and NF- κ B
cascades. Inhibition of TPL2 blocked both MAPK and NF- κ B signaling, and suppressed *KRAS*-mutant
cell growth. To counter chemotherapy-induced genotoxic stress, PDAC cells upregulated TLR9, which
activated pro-survival IRAK4-TPL2 signaling. Accordingly, TPL2 inhibitor synergized with chemotherapy
40 to curb PDAC growth in vivo. Finally, from TCGA we characterized two *MAP3K8* point mutations that
hyperactivate MAPK and NF- κ B cascades by impeding TPL2 protein degradation. Cancer cell lines
naturally harboring these *MAP3K8* mutations are strikingly sensitive to TPL2 inhibition, underscoring the
need to identify these potentially targetable mutations in patients. Overall, our study establishes TPL2 as
a promising therapeutic target in *RAS*- and *MAP3K8*-mutant cancers and strongly prompts development
45 of TPL2 inhibitors for pre-clinical and clinical studies.

INTRODUCTION

Targeting the RAS oncoproteins remains unfulfilled in the clinic. While the newly developed *KRAS*^{G12C} inhibitor has achieved considerable success in lung cancer(1), it is ineffective in other *KRAS*^{G12C}-mutant cancer types such as colon cancer. In addition, HRAS, NRAS and non-G12C *KRAS* oncoproteins remain undruggable. In pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC), though *KRAS* mutations are virtually universal, the G12C mutation is rare(2). Strategies to target *KRAS* effectors including the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) cascades are unsuccessful(3) and multiple resistance mechanisms have been described explaining their failures.

Aberrant activation of the NF- κ B transcription factors, especially the RELA (or p65) family member, occurs in approximately two-thirds of PDAC and is a major mechanism that underlies the aggressive nature of PDAC(4-7). In a genetically-engineered mouse model (GEMM), ablation of IKK β kinase, which activates the NF- κ B members, completely abolished *KRAS*^{G12D}-induced PDAC development(8). However, development of IKK inhibitors is hampered by clinical toxicities and off-target effects(9). PDAC cells and the surrounding stromal fibroblasts secrete IL-1 β that engages interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 4 (IRAK4) to drive IKK β and the NF- κ B pathway(10), indicating IRAK4 is a promising therapeutic target. IRAK4 is a critical signal transducer downstream of the innate immune receptors including the Toll-like(TLR) and IL-1 (IL-1R) receptors(11). When engaged, these receptors recruit MYD88 and IRAK1 as adaptors, forming a platform that recruits IRAK4. IRAK4 then activates the IKK complex, allowing cytoplasmic NF- κ B subunits such as RELA/p65 and p50 to enter the nucleus and transactivate inflammatory and survival genes(12). The pro-tumorigenic role of this pathway has been described in melanoma(13), breast(14), head and neck (15), colon(16) and pancreatic cancers(7, 10). However, these studies do not describe the genetic context in which IRAK4 inhibition is most likely to succeed, nor do they provide insights into the crosstalk of IRAK4 signaling with other oncogenic events besides the NF- κ B pathway.

In this study, we interrogated The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) database and identified *MYD88*, *IRAK1* and *IRAK4* are associated with *RELA* expression and poor prognosis in PDAC. We further found

IRAK4 is essential for *RAS*-induced oncogenic transformation. Interestingly, by unbiased reverse-phase
75 protein array and RNAseq we discovered signaling crosstalk between IRAK4 and the MAPK pathway in
KRAS-mutant PDAC cells. We elucidate the mechanism of how oncogenic *KRAS* activates IRAK4, and
uncover Tumor Progression Locus 2 (TPL2, also known as MAP3K8 or COT) as the essential kinase that
controls both MAPK and NF- κ B cascades downstream of IRAK4 and effectively *KRAS*. In addition, we
interrogate the role of TPL2 under genotoxic stress and show TPL2 inhibitor synergizes with the FIRINOX
80 chemotherapy regiment to suppress human and murine in vivo PDAC growth. Lastly, we screened
recurrent *MAP3K8* mutations from TCGA and discovered two gain-of-function point mutants, which
naturally exist in ovarian cancer and melanoma cell lines, and are highly sensitive to TPL2 blockade.

85 RESULTS

IRAK signaling dictates NF- κ B activity in PDAC and is essential for *RAS*-oncogenesis

Aberrant NF- κ B activation is conventionally defined by increased *RELA* (or p65 NF- κ B family
member) expression or nuclear translocation by immunohistochemistry (IHC) in tumor samples (17, 18).

90 To more comprehensively understand the NF- κ B associated transcriptomes in PDAC, we evaluated the
expression pattern of 37 core NF- κ B genes, which include *RELA* as defined by the MSigDB(19), in PDAC
samples from TCGA (Firehose Legacy, $n=185$). By unsupervised clustering we observed heterogenous
expression of these 37 genes across all samples, reflecting the complexity of mechanisms that activate
NF- κ B and presence of different categories of NF- κ B signatures in PDAC (**Supplementary Figure 1A**).

95 Because *RELA* expression is the single, most established NF- κ B marker associated with poor prognosis
in PDAC, we divided these samples into three groups based on *RELA* mRNA level: *RELA*^{High} (z-score >
1.0, $n = 29$), *RELA*^{Med} (z-score between -1.0 and 1.0, $n = 129$), and *RELA*^{Low} (z-score < -1.0, $n = 29$)
(**Figure 1A**). Compared to *RELA*^{Low} group, patients in *RELA*^{High} and *RELA*^{Med} groups had significantly
worse progression-free and overall survival (**Figure 1B, Supplementary Figure 1B**). We focused our
100 analysis on *RELA*^{High} and *RELA*^{Low} cohorts in order to discern the remaining NF- κ B genes that cluster

with *RELA* expression. Notably, many genes in the canonical NF- κ B pathway were upregulated in the *RELA*^{High} group (**Figure 1C**), such as the IKK isoform genes (*IKBKB*, *IKBKE*, *IKBKG*), inhibitory I κ B genes (*NFKBIE*, *NFKBIB*), *RELB*, *NFKB2*, *IRAK1* and *MYD88*. Of these, *MYD88* and *IRAK1* caught our attention because these are known upstream activators of the IKK kinases(20, 21). *MYD88* and *IRAK1* expression positively correlated with each other (**Supplementary Figure 1C**) and *RELA* (**Supplementary Figure 1D**). Notably, patients with high (z-score > 1.0) *MYD88* and/or *IRAK1* expression (termed “*MYD88*^{High}, *IRAK1*^{High}”) had significantly worse progression-free survival (Log-rank *P* = 0.0020, **Figure 1D**), disease free status (**Figure 1E**), overall survival (Log-rank *P* = 0.0147, **Figure 1F**) and vital status at the time of data cutoff (**Figure 1G**), compared to patients with low (z-score < 1.0) *MYD88* and/or *IRAK1* expression (termed “*MYD88*^{Low}, *IRAK1*^{Low}”). Together, these results demonstrate positive correlation between *MYD88-IRAK* and *RELA* expression, and further support the TLR/IL-1R canonical pathway as the main driving mechanism of NF- κ B activity in PDAC that translates into clinical aggressiveness, congruent with published literature (7, 8, 10, 22).

Unlike *MYD88* and *IRAK1*, which function as adaptor proteins, *IRAK4* is the *bone fide* kinase that initiates NF- κ B signaling and can be targeted(7, 20). Phospho-activation of *IRAK4* is associated with higher *RELA* activity and poor survival of PDAC patients(7). *IRAK4*, though not included in the pre-defined 37-gene MSigDB NF- κ B signature, was significantly overexpressed in PDAC compared to normal pancreas (**Figure 1H**). Analysis of the whole TCGA data showed significantly higher *IRAK4* expression in PDAC compared to majority of other cancers (**Supplementary Figure 1E, Supplementary Table 1**), supporting a pathogenic role of *IRAK4* in PDAC.

Both *IRAK4* and *KRAS* can drive NF- κ B signaling in PDAC, but their crosstalk has not been investigated. While *KRAS* oncoprotein can stimulate the non-canonical IKK ϵ through the RalGEF-RalB-TBK1 effector(23) and the canonical IKK α/β through the PI3K-AKT-mTOR effectors(24), *IRAK4* utilizes TAK1 kinase to activate IKK β (12). Therefore, *IRAK4* should not be required for *KRAS*-induced oncogenesis per se. Yet, to test this, we stably expressed pairs of oncogenes including *c-MYC*^{T58A} and *HRAS*^{G12V}, SV40 *T/t* antigens and *HRAS*^{G12V}, or SV40 *T/t* and *KRAS*^{G12V} in wild-type and *Irak4*^{-/-} murine

embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs). Surprisingly, anchorage-independent (AI) growth in soft agar, a classical assay for transformation, is completely abrogated in *IRAK4*^{-/-} MEFs, but this could be fully rescued with re-expression of murine *Irak4* cDNA (**Figure 1I**). Consistently, *Irak4*^{-/-} MEFs expressing oncogenic *HRAS* or *KRAS* failed to form tumors in nude mice (**Figure 1J**). As further confirmation, we employed the CRISPR/Cas9 technique to ablate *IRAK4* in three *KRAS*-transformed cell lines: KP2 (a murine PDAC line originating from a *p48-Cre; Tp53*^{fllox/WT}; LSL-*Kras*^{G12D}, or KPC mouse), a human embryonic kidney (HEK T/tH) line transformed with hTERT, SV40 *T/t* and *KRAS*^{G12V}, and *KRAS*^{G12D}-mutant PANC-1 line. Again, loss of *IRAK4* completely abrogated tumorigenic growth of these lines in nude mice (**Figure 1J**).

KP2 cells expressing small guide RNAs against *Irak4* (*sgIrak4*) were severely impaired not only in AI growth, but also 2-dimensional (2D) proliferation (**Figure 1K, Supplementary Figure 1F**), revealing a role of IRAK4 in cell fitness. Similarly, AI growth of KP2 cells was dose-dependently suppressed by PF06650833(25), a selective IRAK4 inhibitor (IRAK4i, **Figure 1L**). To dissect the role of IRAK4 in *KRAS*-mutant human PDAC, we resorted to the HPNE model, an artificial pancreatic ductal epithelial line immortalized with *hTERT* and HPV *E6/E7*. Stable expression of *KRAS*^{G12D} in this line (named HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D}) completes the malignant transformation, enabling AI growth. We found that ectopic expression of IRAK4 doubled the AI growth of HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D} cells but had no effect in the untransformed HPNE cells (**Figure 1M**). Notably, treatment with PF06650833 not only reversed the effect of IRAK4 overexpression, but also crippled the AI growth of HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D}. Together, these studies showed IRAK4 is essential for and cooperates with mutant *RAS* in oncogenic transformation.

IRAK4 is crucial for oncogenic RAS-driven MAPK signaling

To understand the mechanism by which IRAK4 promotes *RAS*-induced transformation, we first performed an unbiased reverse-phase protein array (RPPA) on HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D} cells stably expressing IRAK4 or empty vector. Compared to vector cells, IRAK4-overexpressing cells exhibited greater than two-fold increase in phosphorylated (p-) FAK, p-ERK, total FAK and FoxM1, which were reversed by IRAK4i treatment (**Figure 2A**). Indeed, various MAPK target proteins were activated by IRAK4 overexpression and conversely suppressed by IRAK4i (**Figure 2B**). We observed similar changes with

p-p65/RELA (**Supplementary Figure 2A**), resonating our previous studies(7, 10). As confirmation, overexpression of wild-type, but not kinase-dead IRAK4, enhanced p-ERK in 293T cells by western blots (**Figure 2C**). Next, we performed RNAseq analysis on KP2 cells expressing vector, two different *sglrak4*, or *sglrak4* followed by rescue with a murine *Irak4* cDNA (termed “Rescue”; **Supplementary Figure 2B**). Consistent with our RPPA results, MAPK, ERK and pro-growth gene ontology (GO) signatures were significantly suppressed in *Irak4*-depleted KP2 cells and restored in *Irak4*-rescued cells (**Figure 2D**). As confirmation, western blots showed reduced p-MEK and p-ERK levels in IRAK4-ablated KP2 cells (**Figure 2E**). Various NF-κB signatures were also similarly affected (**Supplementary Figure 2C**). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) showed oncogenic *KRAS* signaling and PDAC signatures to be significantly downregulated following *Irak4* ablation and restored in *Irak4*-rescued cells (**Figure 2F, 2G and 2H**). In accordance, IRAK4i dose-dependently suppressed MAPK activity in murine PDAC lines, KP2 and KI (derived from a PDX1-Cre; *INK4a*^{flox/flox}; LSL-*KRAS*^{G12D} mouse), as well as various *KRAS*-mutant patient-derived cell lines (PDCLs) and HPAC line (**Figure 2I, 2J and Supplementary Figure 2D**). As further confirmation, IRAK4i dose-dependently reduced SRE (serum response element)-driven luciferase reporter activity in HPAC cells (**Supplementary Figure 2E**) and viability of various *KRAS*-mutant PDAC lines in vitro (**Supplementary Figure 2F**). To clearly establish the role of IRAK4 in *KRAS*-induced MAPK signaling, we utilized two isogenic pairs of cell lines expression empty vector, *KRAS*^{G12D} (for HPNE) or *KRAS*^{G12V} (for 293T). As expected, expression of *KRAS* mutants clearly upregulated p-MEK, p-ERK and p-RSK levels, but all these were dose-dependently blocked by IRAK4i (**Figure 2K**). Importantly, expression of activated MEK-mutant (MEK1-5^{DD}) rendered HEK T/tH-*KRAS*^{G12V} cells approximately 3-fold less sensitive to growth inhibition by IRAK4i (**Supplementary Figure 2G**), positioning IRAK4 upstream of MEK. Besides MAPK pathway, IRAK4i also suppresses p-p105 level in Pa01C, Pa02C, Pa03C and HPAC cells (**Figure 2J, Supplementary Figure 2D**), resonating previous findings that IRAK4 is a driver of NF-κB pathway(7, 16). Intriguingly, we also observed dose-dependent suppression of SRE activity by IKK inhibitor IMD-0354 in HPAC, suggesting a contribution of IKK to MAPK activity in PDAC cells (**Supplementary Figure 2E**). Together, these results establish IRAK4 as a significant contributor to *KRAS*-induced MAPK signaling.

TPL2 mediates signaling between IRAK4 and MAPK pathway

Next, we investigated the mechanistic link between IRAK4 and MEK. In myeloid cells, IL-1, TNF or LPS activate MEK and ERK through engaging TPL2 kinase (or COT/MAP3K8) (26, 27). We therefore hypothesized that IRAK4 engages TPL2 to activate MEK and ERK. Indeed, ectopic expression of TPL2 in Pa01C and HPAC cells enhanced p-MEK, p-ERK levels, but this effect was blocked by IRAK4i. Notably, the ectopically expressed TPL2 protein existed in an activated state, as determined by a p-TPL2 antibody, and was dose-dependently deactivated by IRAK4i, confirming IRAK4 as the upstream activator of TPL2 (**Figure 3A** and **Supplementary Figure 3A**). In support, ectopic expression of IRAK4 upregulated p-TPL2, p-MEK and p-ERK in 293T cells (**Figure 3B**).

To strengthen the link between IRAK4, TPL2 and MEK, we next performed leading-edge analysis using 15 published TPL2-associated gene signatures from the Broad Institute MSigDB, including significantly downregulated MAPK-related GO signatures identified in *Irak4*-ablated KP2 cells (**Supplementary Table 3**). Ablation of *Irak4* decreased TPL2 (encoded by MAP3K8) expression in majority of gene sets, and importantly low TPL2 expression was closely associated and clustered with low MEK1 expression (**Figure 3C**, **Supplementary Figure 3B**). These data position TPL2 as the signal transducer between IRAK4 and MEK in PDAC. In human PDAC lines, we observed strong, positive correlation between the protein levels of TPL2 and p-ERK (**Figure 3D**, **3E**) by western blots. In human and murine PDAC tumor tissues, IHC analyses showed co-occurrence of p-ERK, TPL2 and p-IRAK4 staining in the neoplastic ductal epithelia, whereas these markers were largely absent in normal ductal epithelia (**Figure 3F**).

High TPL2 expression is poor prognostic in PDAC

We next performed IHC analyses on a panel of 313 PDAC tissue micro-array (TMA) specimens and found strong, significantly positive correlation of H-score, defined by staining area and intensities, between TPL2 and p-IRAK4 ($r = 0.56$, $P < 0.0001$, **Figure 4A**, **4B**, and **Supplementary Figure 4A**, **4B**). Notably, high TPL2 staining correlated with poor overall survival in PDAC patients based on Wilcoxon P

= 0.03, a statistic that gives more weight to early deaths, as typically seen with PDAC patients (**Figure 4C**). From TCGA and GTEx database, *MAP3K8* mRNA expression was significantly higher in PDAC compared to normal pancreas (**Figure 4D**) and majority of other cancer types (**Supplementary Figure 4C, Supplementary Table 2**). Next, using the median overall survival of TCGA PDAC patients (~15.5 months), we divided patients into two groups, short (<15.5 months OS, *n* = 92) and longer (\geq 15.5 months OS, *n* = 93) survivors (**Figure 4E**). The short survivors had significantly higher *MAP3K8* expression (**Figure 4F**). Conversely, high *MAP3K8* expression (arbitrarily defined as z score > 1, *MAP3K8^{high}*, *n* = 22) is significantly associated with poorer overall survival compared to low *MAP3K8* expression (z score < 1, "*MAP3K8^{low}*", *n* = 28, **Figure 4G**). Together, these complementary studies position TPL2 as the intermediate kinase between IRAK4 and MEK and signify its potential as a therapeutic target warranting further investigation.

TPL2 drives both MAPK and NF- κ B signaling in PDAC

From GSEA analysis we found *MAP3K8^{high}* PDAC samples to be enriched for both KRAS and NF- κ B signatures (**Figure 5A**), mirroring our findings with IRAK4 (**Figure 2F**) and congruous with a prior report which showed that TPL2 can phospho-activate the p105 NF- κ B factor(28). To determine if TPL2 controls MAPK and NF- κ B signaling, we treated *KRAS*-mutant PDAC cells with 4-[(3-Chloro-4-fluorophenyl)amino]-6-[(3-pyridinylmethyl)amino]-1,7-naphthyridine-3-carbonitrile, a selective ATP competitive small molecule TPL2 inhibitor (TPL2i) that can suppress LPS-induced TNF α production in human monocytes (29). Treatment with TPL2i dose-dependently suppressed p-MEK and p-ERK levels in multiple *KRAS*-mutant PDAC lines except PANC-1 (**Figure 5B**), and in 293T cells expressing *KRAS^{G12V}* (**Figure 5C**), establishing TPL2 as a contributor to KRAS-induced MAPK activity. Notably, TPL2i dose-dependently blocked p-MEK and p-ERK without affecting p-BRAF (**Figure 5D**), suggesting that TPL2i does not compromise KRAS-RAF interaction and TPL2 activates MEK independent of RAFs. Apart from MAPK, TPL2i also dose-dependently suppressed p-p105, but this did not lead to increased p50 processing. Notably, TPL2i potently suppressed p-p65 at S276 in three out of four cell lines, but not S536 (**Figure 5D, 5E**), consistent with published literature(30). Conversely, ectopic expression of TPL2

235 dose-dependently increased p-p105, p-MEK and p-ERK levels in 293T cells (**Supplementary Figure 5A**). These results show that TPL2 controls both MAPK and NF-κB cascades in PDAC.

Like the RAF kinases, TPL2 is a MAP3K that activates MEK. However, in RAS-mutant cells, BRAF inhibitors such as PLX-4720 and dabrafenib paradoxically hyperactivates MAPK cascades, which we also observed in *KRAS*-mutant HPAC, MIA Paca-2 and Pa01C cells expressing SRE-driven luciferase
240 reporter (**Figure 5F** and **Supplementary Figure 5B, 5C**). In contrary, TPL2i dose-dependently suppressed SRE reporter activity in all three cell lines to levels matching those of MEK and ERK inhibitors. Notably, MEK inhibitor trametinib unexpectedly enhanced NF-κB reporter activity in PDAC cells, perhaps representing a resistance mechanism underlying the lack of clinical efficacy of MEK inhibitors. On the other hand, TPL2i and IRAK4i dose-dependently suppressed both SRE as well as NF-
245 κB reporter activities in *KRAS*-mutant PDAC cells (**Supplementary Figure 5D**). Notably, neither TPL2i nor IRAK4i suppressed p-MEK and p-ERK in 293T cells transfected with oncogenic *BRAF*^{V600E} (**Supplementary Figure 5E**), or in BxPc-3 PDAC line that harbors an in-frame gain-of-function *BRAF* mutation and wild-type *KRAS* (**Suppl. Fig. 5F**), demonstrating IRAK4 and TPL2 as separate activators of MAPK, other than RAFs, downstream of *KRAS*.

250 Supporting an essential role of TPL2 in *KRAS*-induced transformation, TPL2i dose-dependently suppressed 3-dimensional (3D) AI and 2-dimensional (2D) clonogenic growth of HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D} cells, HEKT/tH-*KRAS*^{G12V}, conventional PDAC lines and PDCLs (**Figure 5G, Supplementary Figure 6A**). Knockdown of TPL2 by shRNA (shTPL2) severely impaired HPAC and Pa01C cell proliferation (**Figure 5H**). The subpopulation that eventually re-grew had only partial TPL2 knockdown but yet displayed
255 reduced p-MEK, p-ERK and p-p105 levels (**Figure 5I**) and were markedly impaired in 2D clonogenic growth (**Figure 5J**), and 3D growth as organoids or soft agar colonies (**Figure 5K, Supplementary Figure 6B**). Together, these data establish a critical role for TPL2 in PDAC and *KRAS* signaling via supporting both NF-κB and MAPK pathways.

260 **KRAS induces autocrine IL-1β inflammatory signaling to activate IRAK4 and TPL2**

Next, we investigated the mechanism by which KRAS activates the IRAK4-TPL2 axis. IRAK4 and TPL2 are typically activated downstream of IL-1, TNF α and Toll-like receptors, and not directly by KRAS. On this assumption, we surveyed the expression of IL-1 β , TNF α / β , IL-1R and all the TLRs by qRT-PCR of HEK T/tH cells expressing an empty vector or *KRAS*^{G12V}. Of all sixteen targets, only *IL1B* mRNA was significantly upregulated (by ~10 fold) in *KRAS*^{G12V}-expressing cells compared to vector control (**Figure 6A**), which we confirmed by IL-1 β ELISA of conditioned media (CM) collected from these cells (~120 fold higher in *KRAS*^{G12V}-expressing cells, **Supplementary Figure 7A**). Furthermore, analysis of oncogenic KRAS signature showed *IL1B* expression was significantly higher in *MAP3K8*^{high} patients (**Figure 6B**). These results suggest autocrine IL-1 β is the driver of IRAK4-TPL2 activity in *KRAS*-mutant cells. In support, *KRAS*^{G12V} expression upregulated p-IRAK4, p-TPL2, p-MEK and p-ERK levels in HEK T/tH cells, but all were dose-dependently reversed by treatment with a neutralizing anti-hIL-1 β antibody (**Figure 6C**). CM collected from HEK-T/tH *KRAS*^{G12V} cells was able to upregulate p-TPL2, p-IRAK4, p-MEK and p-ERK levels in HEK T/tH cells, but the effect was blunted with neutralizing anti-IL-1 β antibody (**Figure 6D**), shRNA knockdown of IL-1R of recipient HEK T/tH cells (**Supplementary Figure 7B and 7C**), and completely blocked by co-treatment with TPL2i (**Figure 6E**). In support of these data, CM from HEK-T/tH *KRAS*^{G12V} cells stimulated SRE reporter activity of HPAC cells by approximately 3- fold (**Supplementary Figure 7D**) and treatment of HEK T/tH, HPAC and Pa01C cells with recombinant human IL-1 β (hIL-1 β) upregulated p-IRAK4, p-TPL2, p-MEK, p-ERK and p-RSK (**Figure 6F, Supplementary Figure 7E**). Knockdown of IL-1R also blunted upregulation of p-MEK and p-ERK in HEK-T/tH transfected with *KRAS*^{G12V} or *MAP3K8* (TPL2) (**Figure 6G**), with similar effects observed in *KRAS*-mutant Pa01C cells (**Supplementary Figure 7F**). These data establish autocrine IL-1 β -IRAK4-TPL2 signaling as a parallel mechanism, apart from RAF kinases, through which KRAS oncoprotein drives MAPK signaling.

We next investigated the mechanism by which KRAS promotes IL-1 β production. We treated HEK T/tH *KRAS*^{G12V} cells with MEK (trametinib), ERK (ulixertinib) or PI3K (GDC-0941) inhibitors and found that both MEK and ERK inhibitors significantly abrogated IL-1 β production, whereas PI3Ki had no effect (**Supplementary Figure 7G**). This data depicts a model where KRAS oncoprotein utilizes the MAPK

effectors to promote IL-1 β production and create an autocrine IL-1 β -IL-1R-IRAK4-TPL2-MAPK feedforward loop that amplifies MAPK signaling. From TCGA database, elevated *IL1B* expression associated with poor prognosis in PDAC (**Figure 6H**). mRNA level of TPL2 (*MAP3K8*) moderately ($r =$ 0.36) and strongly ($r = 0.5$), positively correlated with *IL1B* and *IL1R1*, respectively (**Supplementary Figure 8A** and **8B**). In KP2 cells, CRISPR knockout of *Irak4* led to downregulation of GO signatures associated with IL-1, and re-expression of *Irak4* ("Rescue") significantly restored these signatures (**Supplementary Figure 8C** and **8D**). In these gene sets, TPL2 was present in the leading edge as a core enrichment in an IRAK4-dependent manner (**Supplementary Figure 8E**), again signifying its role in IL-1 and cytokine signaling. Together, these data establish autocrine IL-1R-IRAK4-TPL2 signaling as an essential mechanism hijacked by KRAS that should be therapeutically targeted.

TPL2 inhibition potentiates chemotherapy by curbing MAPK and NF- κ B activation

Molecular-targeted therapies have been ineffective in treating PDAC patients. Therefore, it is unlikely that TPL2i or IRAK4i alone will be clinically effective, and combination regimens will need to be developed. Chemotherapy is currently the only effective treatment modality for PDAC, but treatment response is neither universal nor durable(31, 32). Stress-induced NF- κ B and MAPK survival signaling are amongst the multiple mechanisms that underlie *de novo* chemoresistance. To this end, we examined whether the IRAK4-TPL2 axis contributes to chemotherapy-induced survival and resistance, which will help formulate a rational combinatorial regimen for in vivo testing. We treated PDAC cells with five chemotherapeutic agents (gemcitabine, paclitaxel, SN-38, 5-FU and oxaliplatin) commonly used in patient care. Of these agents, SN-38, an active metabolite of irinotecan, was the most potent in inducing p-ERK, p-MEK, p-RSK, and notably p-TPL2 and p-IRAK4 across multiple PDAC lines (**Fig. 7A**, **Supplementary Figure 9A**), suggesting IRAK4 and TPL2 may contribute to MAPK activation following genotoxic stress. NF- κ B was also induced, as evident by increase in p-p105.

To determine the mechanism that activates these markers, we treated HPAC cells with gemcitabine/paclitaxel or FIRINOX (5-FU/SN-38/oxaliplatin), which mimic clinical regimens, and surveyed changes in expression of the TLRs and IL-1 α/β in HPAC cells. Intriguingly, we observed

significantly upregulated expression of *TLR6*, *TLR9* and *IL1A*, but not *IL1B*, upon exposure to either chemotherapy (**Figure 7B**). Survey of two other PDCLs Pa01C and Pa03C showed *TLR9* to be the only gene consistently upregulated following FIRINOX treatment (**Figure 7C**). Importantly, signaling from TLR9 is transmitted exclusively through IRAK4(33). Indeed, proximity ligation assay showed markedly increased TLR9 and p-IRAK4 interaction following treatment of three different PDAC lines with SN-38 (**Figure 7D**), suggesting TLR9 to be the driver of IRAK4 and TPL2 upon chemotherapy exposure. Interestingly, analysis of TCGA data also revealed strong and significant correlation (Pearson $r = 0.49$, $P = 2.61e-12$) between *TLR9* and *MAP3K8* (TPL2) mRNA expression in PDAC samples (**Supplementary Figure 9B**). Co-treatment with TPL2i significantly attenuated SN-38-induced p-MEK, p-ERK and p-RSK, and increased PARP cleavage in PDAC lines (**Figure 7E**). Gemcitabine-induced p-MEK, p-ERK levels and SRE activity were also suppressible with TPL2i (**Supplementary Figure 9C and 9D**), suggesting that induction of MAPK activity is not specific to one class of cytotoxic agent. Besides the MAPK cascade, TPL2i additionally suppressed p-p105 in SN-38-treated Pa01C cells (**Supplementary Figure 9E**), making it a more broad-spectrum therapeutic agent than MEKi or ERKi in curbing chemotherapy-induced survival signaling. PDAC cells co-treated with SN38 and TPL2i showed significantly more apoptosis (**Supplementary Figure 9F and 9G**) by flow cytometric analysis, and completely lost their clonogenicity, an assay that tests emergence of resistant clones (**Figure 7F, Supplementary Figure 10A**). Notably, the combination of TPL2i and SN-38 was synergistic in suppressing PDAC cell growth by the Loewe additivity model (**Supplementary Figure 10B**). Accordingly, the combination of TPL2i and FIRINOX was significantly more efficacious in suppressing in vivo subcutaneous growth of Pa01C tumors compared to either treatment alone (**Figure 7G and Supplementary Figure 10C, 10D**), and without incurring noticeable toxicities (**Supplementary Figure 10E**). TPL2i alone was effective in significantly suppressing growth of orthotopic KI tumors in syngeneic FVB/NJ mice. When combined with FIRINOX, the mean tumor burden was seemingly further reduced, with two mice showing no evidence of cancer, although the difference between TPL2i and combo arms did not reach statistical significance probably due to low mouse number per arm (**Figure 7H**). These results show that targeting TPL2 overcomes genotoxic stress-induced survival signaling and enhances the efficacy of chemotherapy.

MAP3K8 point mutations, E188K and R442H, hyperactivate MAPK and NF-κB cascades

Aside from being summoned by oncogenic *RAS* and genotoxic stress, TPL2 is also spontaneously activated by genetic mutations. At basal state, TPL2 protein is bound and inhibited by p105 (NFκB1) and A20-binding inhibitor of NFκB (ABIN-2). Activated IKK complex phosphorylates p105 and prompts its proteolysis to p50, which releases TPL2(34). TPL2 undergoes phosphorylation at S400 residue by IKK and T290 by an unknown kinase to become fully activated, after which it is proteasomally degraded via polyubiquitination at its C-terminus (35-37). Therefore, C-terminally truncated TPL2 is more stable and potent in activating the MAPK pathway(38). Oncogenic truncations and fusions of *MAP3K8* are reported in spitzoid melanomas and predict sensitivity to MEK inhibitors in vitro(39). Besides truncations, from TCGA database we noticed several point mutations in *MAP3K8* across various non-PDAC cancer types that have not been characterized. To this end, we investigated five point-mutants that occur with the highest frequency: E188K, R397H, R442H, L444V, R459W (**Figure 8A**). Of these mutants we found E188K and R442H to be the most potent in stimulating SRE- and NF-κB reporter activities (**Supplementary Figure 11A, 11B**), which we characterized in further detail. E188K mutation is detected in oligodendroglioma, colon and urothelial carcinoma, whereas R442 can acquire missense (to H/C) or non-sense mutations in colon, ovarian, gastric cancers and rhabdoid tumors.

When expressed at the same level as wild-type, TPL2^{E188K} is markedly more potent in activating MEK, ERK, RSK and p105 (**Figure 8B**), as well as inducing SRE and NF-κB reporter activities (**Figure 8C**) in unperturbed 293T cells, clearly showing this is a gain-of-function mutation. To comprehensively evaluate the impact of E188K mutation, we performed RPPA analysis on 293T cells ectopically expressing vector, and roughly equal amount of TPL2^{WT} or TPL2^{E188K} (**Figure 8B**). Of all 441 markers analyzed, p-ERK is the most differentially upregulated marker in TPL2^{E188K}-expressing cells (**Figure 8D**), validating our findings with immunoblots and reporter assay. We also observed significantly increased p-S6, a known substrate of ERK, and p-c-Jun which has been described as a TPL2 effector(30) (**Figure 8E**). This analysis showed, in a comprehensive unbiased manner, MEK-ERK cascade to be the predominantly signaling cascade activated by E188K mutation.

To delineate the molecular mechanism underlying the enhanced kinase activity of TPL2^{E188K}, we first compared the half-lives of TPL2^{WT} and TPL2^{E188K} in 293T cells treated with a protein synthesis inhibitor, cycloheximide. Surprisingly, we found that the E188K mutation, despite located within the kinase domain, rendered TPL2 protein more stable (**Figure 9A**). Supporting this finding, immunoprecipitation assay showed E188K mutation almost completely abolished TPL2 polyubiquitination, a prerequisite for proteasomal degradation (**Figure 9B**). To evaluate the oncogenicity of TPL2^{E188K}, we obtained Hs695T, a *BRAF*^{V600E}-mutant melanoma cell line that naturally harbors a *MAP3K8*^{E188K} mutation. Sanger sequencing of cDNA from Hs695T confirmed a G→A mutation in codon 188 of *MAP3K8*, which converts glutamate (GAG) to lysine (AAG) (**Figure 9C**). We therefore speculate that TPL2^{E188K} may be an oncoprotein driving MAPK activation in this cell line. Supporting this notion, treatment with TPL2i inhibition suppressed p-ERK and p-MEK (**Figure 9D**) as well as in vitro proliferation and viability of Hs695T cells (**Figure 9E** and **Supplementary Figure 11C**). Importantly, BRAF inhibitor PLX4032 had modest growth suppressive effect but when combined with TPL2i, it significantly lowered the viability of Hs695T (**Figure 9F**), indicating that both *BRAF* and *MAP3K8* mutations contribute to MAPK activity in this cell line.

We next determined the effect of mutation at codon 442, which resides in the C-terminus, implying disruption of degradation function. We chose to study the R442H mutant because it is the most common mutation described in TCGA and more potent in induced SRE and NF-κB reporter activity than wild-type protein (**Supplementary Figure 11A** and **11B**). Compared to TPL2^{WT}, TPL2^{R442H} is more potent in activating MEK, ERK and RSK (**Figure 10A**) when expressed at equal levels. As expected, the stability of TPL2^{R442H} mutant protein was higher than TPL2^{WT} and comparable to C-terminally truncated TPL2 (**Figure 10B**). Interestingly, other mutations including L444V and R459W also render TPL2 slightly more stable than the wild-type form, albeit not to the degree imparted by R442H. All these mutations reduce polyubiquitination of TPL2 (**Figure 10C**), which explains their increased stability. Naturally occurring *MAP3K8*^{R442H} mutation is reported in an ovarian cancer cell line IGROV-1(40). Remarkably, short duration (2 hours) treatment with very low dose of TPL2i (1μM) completely blocked p-MEK, p-ERK and p-RSK in this cell line to undetectable levels even with high exposure time (**Figure 10D**), suggesting that TPL2 is the dominant driver of MAPK activity in this cell line. In support, partial knockdown of TPL2 also reduced

395 MAPK activity in IGROV-1 (**Figure 10E**). Pharmacologic inhibition or silencing of TPL2i significantly decreased the proliferation, colony forming ability and AI growth of IGROV-1 (**Figure 10F, 10G and Supplementary Figure 12A-C**), consistent with prior reports(41). Importantly, while knockdown of TPL2 markedly crippled the ability of IGROV-1 to grow into 3D organoids or 2D clones, these growths could only be rescued by re-expression of TPL2^{R442H} but not TPL2^{WT} (**Figure 10H, Supplementary Figure 400 12D**). Overall, these studies are the first to describe gain-of-function point mutations of *MAP3K8* (TPL2) in human cancers, further prompting the need to identify these mutations in clinical practice and develop dedicated TPL2 inhibitor for clinical trials.

405 **DISCUSSION**

Our present study provides broader understanding of the role of IRAK4-TPL2 in human cancers. Using genetically-defined artificial cell lines and PDAC as disease model, we show that KRAS oncoprotein utilizes the MAPK cascade to upregulate IL-1 β production, leading to autocrine activation of the IRAK4-TPL2, which feeds back to escalate MAPK activity and additionally the NF- κ B cascade. 410 Following genotoxic stress, PDAC cells upregulate TLR9, leading to enhanced utilization of IRAK4-TPL2 axis to sustain survival. Additionally, we characterize what we believe to be novel gain-of-function TPL2 mutations that hyperactivate the MAPK and NF- κ B pathways.

The malignant feats of RAS oncoproteins result from direct and indirect signaling mechanisms. RAS oncoproteins can directly bind and activate several effectors including the RAF kinases, PI3 kinases, 415 RalGEFs and Tiam1(2). Through these pathways, a plethora of inflammatory chemokines and cytokines including IL-6, IL-8, IL-1 α/β and CCL5 are produced, which in an autocrine manner trigger the inflammatory JAK/STAT and NF- κ B cascades(10, 22, 42-46). These secondary events not only help propagate tumor progression, but also shield cancer cells from therapeutic attacks. For instance, in *KRAS*-mutant lung cancer, TBK1 and IKK ϵ -driven CCL5 and IL-6 can activate the JAK/STAT pathway to 420 confer resistance to MEK inhibitors(42). In PDAC, STAT3 activation drives resistance to MEK inhibitor (44, 45). Therefore, autocrine/paracrine cytokine signaling provides equally essential support, in addition

to the intrinsic oncogenic events, that help cancer cells adapt and withstand stress. In this study, we show autocrine IL-1 β -driven IRAK4-TPL2 axis to be an essential component of KRAS and MAPK signaling. Because IRAK4 is typically activated by inflammatory receptors IL-1R, TLRs and TNFR, it is most widely studied as the driver of NF- κ B activity in immune cells(47). Strikingly, ablation of IRAK4 completely blocked RAS-induced transformation and tumorigenicity in both epithelial cells and fibroblasts, as well as PDAC cells. These data are in strong agreement with an elegant study by Ling et al. that ablation of IKK β , a key downstream substrate of IRAK4, completely abolished PDAC development in *KRAS/Ink4a* mouse model(8). IL-1R antagonist, Anakinra is currently being tested in clinical trial in combination with chemotherapy for PDAC (NCT02550327). Downstream of IRAK4, we revealed TPL2 as a MAP3K that drives MEK-ERK and p105 NF- κ B in *KRAS*-mutant cells independent of the RAF kinases. Therefore, TPL2 is a promising therapeutic target that controls multiple signaling cascades in *KRAS*-driven cancers.

Aside from enforcing KRAS autocrine signaling, the IRAK4-TPL2 axis is further utilized following genotoxic stress as a survival mechanism. Induction of MAPK activity is a well-established mechanism that allows cancer cells to endure genotoxic stress (48). However, MEK inhibitors fail to potentiate chemotherapy in pancreatic cancer(49, 50), suggesting that targeting MAPK alone is insufficient, or that compensatory escape mechanisms, such as enhanced NF- κ B activity should be co-targeted. Similarly, in a prostate cancer model, addition of NF- κ B pathway inhibitor significantly potentiates the anti-tumor effect of MEK inhibitors(51). Here in our study, we found that PDAC cells adapt to chemotherapy by upregulating TLR9, which signals through IRAK4-IKK-TPL2 to activate multiple pathways. Therefore, PDAC cells utilize different receptors, IL-1R at baseline and TLR9 during genotoxic stress, to engage the same IRAK4-IKK-TPL2 axis for survival. It is important to keep in mind that since the therapeutic spectrum of TPL2i extends beyond MEK-ERK, encompassing the NF- κ B, JNK and p38 cascades, all of which have been implicated in chemoresistance, TPL2 may be a more promising therapeutic target than MEK or ERK when combined with chemotherapy, at least in PDAC. In accordance, pharmacologic TPL2 inhibition completely blocked chemotherapy induced MAPK and NF- κ B activation, resulting in greater apoptosis and tumor suppression in vivo (**Supplementary Figure 9, 10 and 13**).

To our best knowledge, our study is the first to report gain-of-function point mutations of TPL2. Overexpression, C-terminal truncations, or fusions of TPL2 have been found in T-cell neoplasms, melanoma, ovarian, breast and lung cancers. These mutations are associated with RAF inhibitor resistance, and can be targeted with MEK inhibitors(39, 41, 52-55). Compared to wild-type protein, E188K and R442H mutants we studied are more stable and capable of hyperactivating both MAPK and NF-κB cascades. Furthermore, cancer cell lines naturally harboring these mutations (Hs695T for E188K, and IGROV1 for R442H) are highly sensitive to TPL2 inhibition. Importantly, TPL2 inhibitor significantly suppressed MAPK activity and proliferation of *BRAF*^{V600E}/*MAP3K8*^{E188K} double mutant Hs695T cells, but not in *BRAF*^{V600E}/*MAP3K8*^{WT} BxPc-3 cells, demonstrating that *MAP3K8*^{E188K} is oncogenic.

The crystal structure of the C-terminus of TPL2 has not been resolved, and therefore how these mutations conformationally alter the entire protein is unclear. It has been suggested that the C-terminus of TPL2 negatively regulates TPL2 kinase activity via intramolecular interaction with its kinase domain(38). In addition, the C-terminus of TPL2, upon IKK dependent phosphorylation of S400 and S443, binds to 14-3-3 complex that stabilizes TPL2 and increases its kinase activity towards MEK1, possibly by relieving the kinase inhibitory interaction between the C-terminus and kinase domain(35). The R442H mutation may impact TPL2 binding with 14-3-3, resulting in the increased stability and increased MEK and ERK activation that we observed in our experiments. On the other hand, R442 is part of a conserved MAPK recognition motif (KRQRSLYIDL) present on TPL2(39). This raises the possibility that mutation of Arg to His at this residue may alter TPL2 binding affinity and/or specificity towards substrates, although detailed additional work is required to prove this. The mechanism by which E188K mutation stabilizes the protein is intriguing, as this residue is located within the kinase domain which is distant from the C-terminal degnon. It is possible that this E188K mutation enhances the intrinsic kinase activity in addition to disrupting its degradation, but this will require resolution of the entire TPL2 protein structure. Furthermore, mechanism including the E3 ligase that governs the degradation of TPL2 is unknown and should be investigated. This is especially important because our PDAC TMA showed p-IRAK4 level to be strongly associated with high TPL2 protein level, which in turn is associated with poor prognosis. Therefore, we speculate that high IRAK4 activity may protect TPL2 from degradation, although the

475 detailed mechanism remains to be determined. Whether upstream TLR/IL-1R activation is required for the enhanced activity of E188K or R442H mutants is uncertain. However, this is unlikely since these mutants exhibit markedly enhanced activity in unperturbed 293T cells compared to the wild-type counterpart. Importantly, both E188K and R442H mutants remain sensitive to the TPL2i that we tested. TPL2i and RAFi cooperate to curb the growth of Hs695T cells which harbor *MAP3K8*^{E188K} and *BRAF*^{V600E} 480 mutation, and MAPK activity in IGROV1 ovarian cancer cells that harbor only the *MAP3K8*^{R442H} mutation is completely abolished by low dose TPL2i.

In this study we demonstrated the in vivo anti-tumor efficacy of TPL2i as a single agent and in combination with chemotherapy. Targeting IRAK4 or TPL2 are not expected to have severe side effects and none were observed in mice. *Irak4* knocked out mice are viable and have normal lifespan but are 485 immunocompromised(33). Humans with inborn *IRAK4*-deficiency are susceptible to life-threatening bacterial infection in early infancy, but with proper antibiotic prophylaxis have survived into adolescence and adulthood (56). IRAK4 inhibitor CA-4948 is now in clinical trial (NCT03328078) for patients with refractory hematologic malignancies, and is found to be rather well-tolerated, with 23% of patients developing Grade 1~2 neutropenia (57). Similarly, *Map3k8* knockout mice do not exhibit obvious 490 phenotypic defects, and have normal bone marrow but are impaired in MEK-ERK activation and TNF α production following LPS challenge(58). To date, no TPL2 inhibitor has been developed for and tested in clinical trials. We argue TPL2 is a more versatile kinase that controls multiple oncogenic pathways besides MEK-ERK, and therefore development of a dedicated TPL2 inhibitor is needed especially for *KRAS*- or *MAP3K8*-mutant cancers.

495 In conclusion, our study comprehensively describes an essential role of IRAK4 and TPL2 in oncogenic RAS signaling, using PDAC as disease model. Mechanistically, we show that the IRAK4-TPL2 axis is differentially engaged at basal-state versus during genotoxic stress by different upstream receptors. We show TPL2 inhibition synergistically sensitizes PDAC to chemotherapy in in vivo models, which we propose is a novel therapeutic strategy. Finally, we characterize two gain-of-function mutations 500 of *MAP3K8* (TPL2) in melanoma and ovarian cancer, which complement other studies describing overexpression, truncations, or fusion of *MAP3K8* (TPL2) as being oncogenic. Overall, our study urges

development of dedicated TPL2 inhibitors and detection of *MAP3K8* (TPL2) mutations for cancer patients.

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METHODS (Additional methods description can be found in Supplementary Data)

Cell lines

All cell lines including HPNE, HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D}, HPAC, Hs695T, were obtained from ATCC, which
510 performed its own authentication by short tandem repeat DNA profiling. IGROV1 cells were a kind gift
from Dr. Katherine Fuh (Washington University, St. Louis, USA), originated from the NCI-60 panel(59)
and not further authenticated. The HEK T/tH cell line was a gift from Dr. Christopher Counter (Duke
University, Durham, USA) and previously published(60). KP2 cell line was a gift from Dr. David DeNardo
(Washington University, St. Louis, USA) and authenticated by whole-exome sequencing (61). Murine
515 embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were isolated from wild-type or *IRAK4-null* mice as described (62). The
patient-derived cell lines, Pa01C, Pa02C, Pa03C, Pa04C, Pa14C and Pa16C were a kind gift from Dr.
Channing J. Der (University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, USA) and have been described (63). All cell
lines were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin/streptomycin
except IGROV1 and Hs695T which were cultured in RPMI-1640 and MEM with nonessential amino-acids
520 respectively, along with other supplements stated above. Mycoplasma testing was performed annually
using MycoSEQ Detection kit (Applied Biosystems). All lines were used for fewer than 6 months after
receipt or resuscitation from cryopreservation. For all drug treatments, when applicable concentration of
0 (zero) or “V” is treatment with vehicle, DMSO.

525 In vivo tumorigenesis assays

All animal experiments were conducted under approval by IACUC protocol (#20190138). For
subcutaneous xenograft, approximately 5 million cells per flank were implanted into 6-week-old athymic
nude mice (NU/J, Jackson Laboratory). When applicable, treatment with drug compound was initiated

when tumors were palpable. FIRINOX (25mg kg⁻¹ 5-fluorouracil, 17.5mg kg⁻¹ irinotecan and 3.35mg kg⁻¹ oxaliplatin) was administered via intraperitoneal injection weekly in 50μL PBS. TPL2i was administered by intraperitoneal injection at 10mg kg⁻¹ in 40μL DMSO, 5 days a week. Mice in control group were treated with vehicle. Tumor volume was calculated as (width²) x (length x 0.5). Tumors were measured and mice were weighed three days a week. For orthotopic implantation, murine KI PDAC cells were injected into the pancreas of 7-week-old female FVB/NJ mice (Jackson Laboratory) as previously described (64). 6 days after implantation, treatment with vehicle, FIRINOX (same dose as above), or TPL2i (30mg kg⁻¹) was initiated for 14 days at which time all mice were sacrificed. In vivo tumor progression was monitored using ultrasound (VScan, GE Healthcare) with final day representative tumor images shown.

Statistical Analyses

All results, when applicable, are expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using the GraphPad Prism v7/8 software. Unpaired student's two-tailed(two-sided) t-tests were used to compare two groups when appropriate. For multiple groups, one-way or two-way ANOVA analysis with appropriate post-test were used. In instances of systemic/group variation, repeated measures ANOVA was utilized. Unadjusted *P* values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Adjusted *P* value metrics are stated at end of each figure legend where applicable. Cox proportional hazards models were used to evaluate the relationships between clinical characteristics and overall survival. Kaplan-Meier curve was generated using SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) and analysed by log rank tests.

Study Approvals

The Washington University PDAC Tissue Micro-Array (TMA) was IRB approved (#201404143) and published (65). Patient consent was waived per IRB approval. All studies were performed per ethical principles of Declaration of Helsinki. All animal (mouse) experiments were conducted under IACUC approval (#20190138).

Data Availability

RNAseq data on KP2 WT, *Irak4*-knockout and rescue cells is deposited in GEO, accession number GSE148442.

560 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

PBD and KHL developed the concept, designed the experiments, and wrote the manuscript. PBD performed most experiments, completed all revisions, and acquired and analyzed most of the data. NK, DZ, HJ, YC and LL each contributed one or more panels of data in the manuscript. QW, PMG and KS provided technical assistance. AWG generated human PDAC TMA. KHL assigned author responsibilities, supervised, provided funding and administered the project.

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Figure Legends and Figures

Figure 1. IRAK signaling dictates NF- κ B activity in PDAC and is essential for RAS-oncogenesis

(A) Classification of *RELA* low, medium and high patients based on mRNA z-score from TCGA. (B) Progression free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS) of PDAC patients with high versus low *RELA* expression. (C) Heatmap comparing mRNA expression of NF- κ B signature genes from the Broad Institute Molecular Signatures Database (gene-sets are listed in **Supplementary Table 3**) in *RELA*^{high} vs. *RELA*^{low} patients. (D and E) PFS and disease-free status respectively of PDAC patients with high *MYD88* and/or high *IRAK1* expression (“*MYD88*^{high}, *IRAK1*^{high}”) versus low *MYD88* and/or low *IRAK1* expression (“*MYD88*^{low}, *IRAK1*^{low}”). Eight patients overlapping between two groups were excluded. (F and G) OS and vital status of patients as in (D and E). (H) Graph of *IRAK4* expression in normal human pancreas versus PDAC. Data for normal tissue is from The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project and PDAC expression from TCGA PanCancer Atlas. *P*-values are from unpaired two-sided *t*-test. (I) Soft agar colonies formed by *Irak4*-KO and rescue (KO + *Irak4*^{WT}) MEF cells transformed with three pairs of oncogenes. Data shows nine replicates from three independent experiments. (J) Number of tumors formed in nude mice from subcutaneous implantation of WT and *IRAK4*-KO human and murine *RAS*-mutant and/or PDAC cell lines. *n* = 8 tumors per condition. (K) Quantification of soft agar colonies formed by WT versus *Irak4*-KO KP2 cells. Data shows six replicates from two independent experiments. (L) Soft agar colonies formed by KP2 cells treated with IRAK4i. (M) Soft agar colonies formed by WT and *KRAS*^{G12D} HPNE cells ectopically expressing *IRAK4* WT and treated with IRAK4i. For (L) and (M) three independent experiments were performed, each in technical triplicate, and one set of data is shown. All error bars indicate mean \pm SEM; *****P*<0.0001, ****P*<0.0002, ***P*<0.0021, **P*<0.0332.

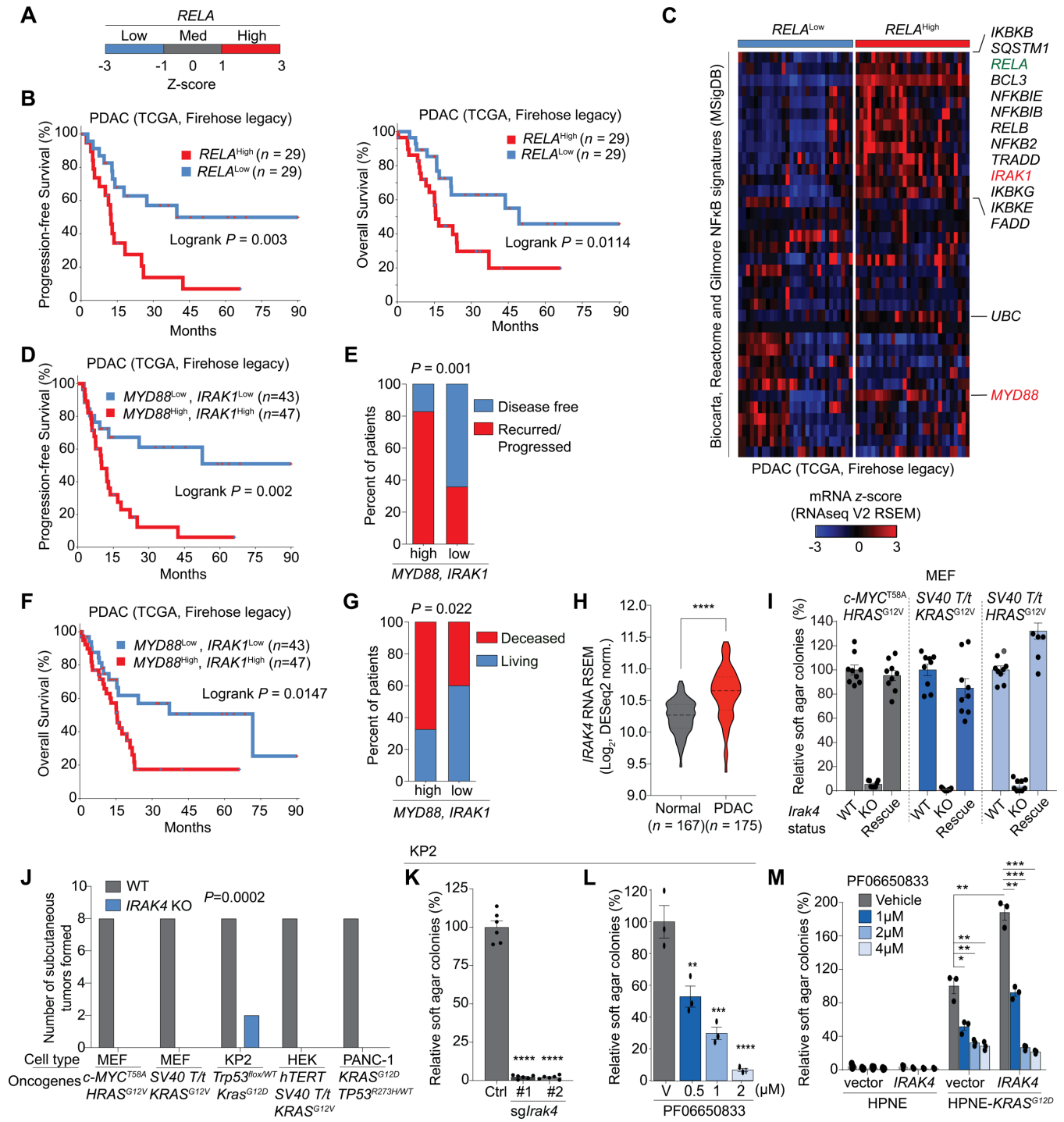
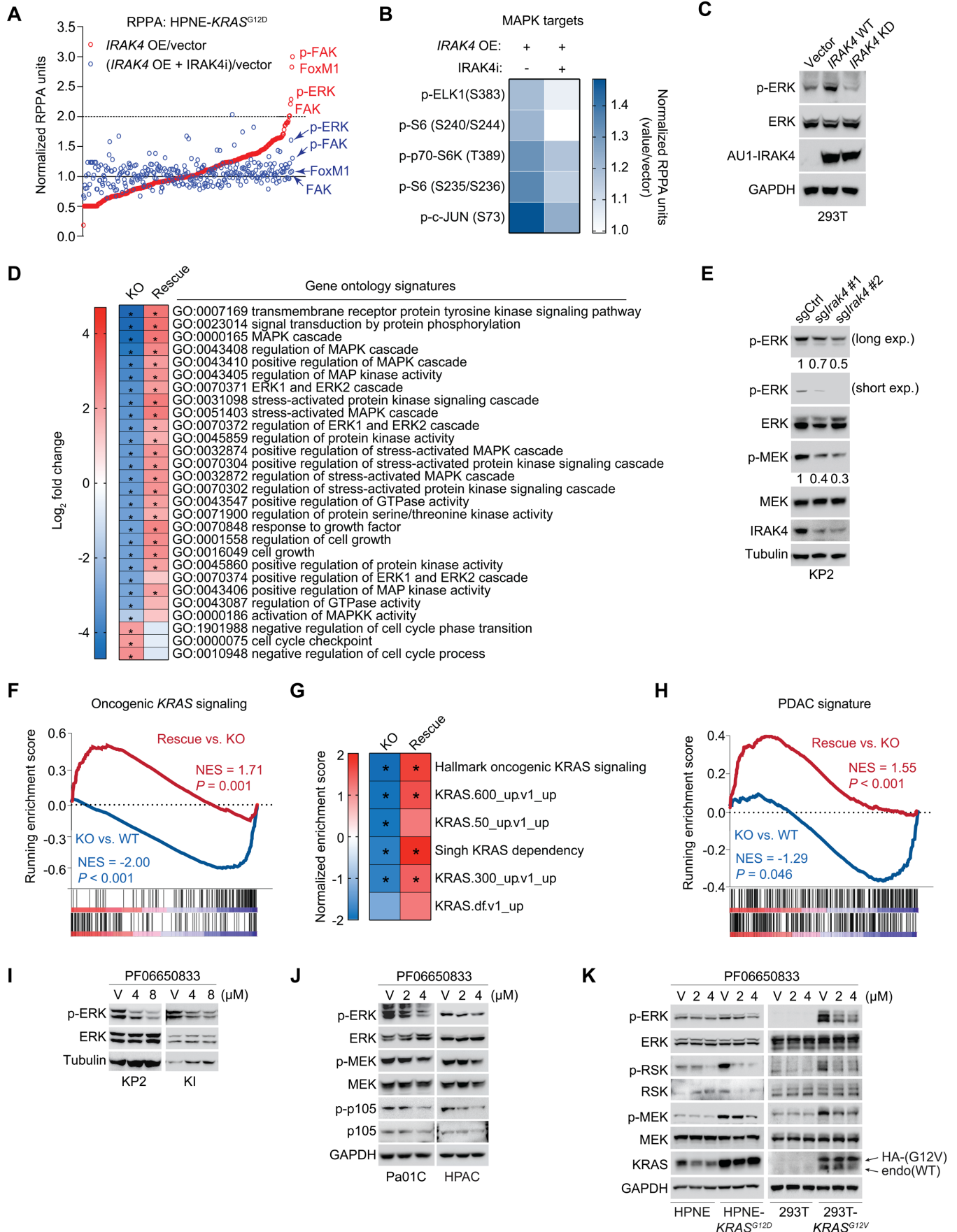


Figure 2. IRAK4 is crucial for oncogenic RAS-driven MAPK signaling

(A) Linear fold-change for all targets evaluated by reverse-phase protein array performed on HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D} overexpressing *IRAK4* and treated with IRAK4i. Targets with fold change >2 upon IRAK4 overexpression are identified. (B) Heat map showing relative expression of ERK regulated targets in RPPA shown in (A). (C) Immunoblots of 293T cells transfected with AU1 epitope-tagged WT or kinase-dead *IRAK4*. (D) Heat-map depicting fold-change for MAPK, RAS and cell growth related Gene Ontology (GO) signatures upon *Irak4* knock-out (KO) and rescue (KO + *Irak4*^{WT}) in murine KP2 cells. Comparisons are KO vs. WT and Rescue vs. KO. Signatures significantly ($P < 0.05$) depleted (blue) or enriched (red) are marked with an asterisk (*). (E) Immunoblots of WT and *Irak4*-KO KP2 cells. (F and G) Gene set enrichment plot and normalized enrichment scores respectively for signatures associated with oncogenic *KRAS* in WT, *Irak4*-KO, and rescue KP2 cells, compared as in (D). “Hallmark” and “C6: Oncogenic Signatures” databases were utilized. Negative NES indicates downregulation and signatures significantly ($P < 0.05$) depleted (blue) or enriched (red) are marked with an asterisk (*). (H) Gene set enrichment plot for PDAC signature in *Irak4*-KO and rescue KP2 cells. PDAC signature gene list is provided in **Supplementary Table 3**. (I) Immunoblots of KP2 and KI cells treated with IRAK4i (PF06650833) for 24 hours in serum-free condition. (J) Immunoblots of PDAC cells treated with IRAK4i for 16 hours. (K) Immunoblots of HPNE-*KRAS*^{G12D} and 293T-*KRAS*^{G12V} cells treated with IRAK4i for 24hrs in serum-free media. For (D and F-H) RNAseq was performed as $n = 2$ independent samples for each condition.

Figure 2



890 **Figure 3. TPL2 mediates signaling between IRAK4 and MAPK pathway**

(A) Immunoblot of Pa01C cells overexpressing HA epitope-tagged TPL2 WT that were treated with IRAK4i for 6 hours in serum-free condition. (B) Immunoblots of 293T cells transfected with *IRAK4* WT for 48 hours. (B) Leading-edge analysis performed using data generated by gene set enrichment analysis in order to identify alterations in individual genes within each gene-set tested. Significantly down-regulated ($P < 0.05$) gene signatures were analyzed and clustered heat-map was generated. Section of heat-map depicting change in *MAP3K8* (TPL2) and *MAP2K1* (MEK1) expression is shown with original clustering preserved. TPL2 associated gene set list is provided in **Supplementary Table 3**. (D) Immunoblot of various commercially available and patient-derived (Pa01C-Pa16C) human PDAC cell lines and one normal human pancreatic cell line (HPNE). (E) Correlation plot of p-ERK and TPL2 intensities for PDAC cell lines in (D). Two-tailed Pearson correlation (r) analysis was performed. (F) Representative H&E and immunohistochemistry images of human and murine normal pancreas and PDAC tissue for p-ERK, TPL2 and p-IRAK4. $n = 6$ sections per stain. Scale bar for full image (400X magnification) measures 50 μ m; inset shows magnified boxed portion of full images with scale bar measuring 10 μ m.

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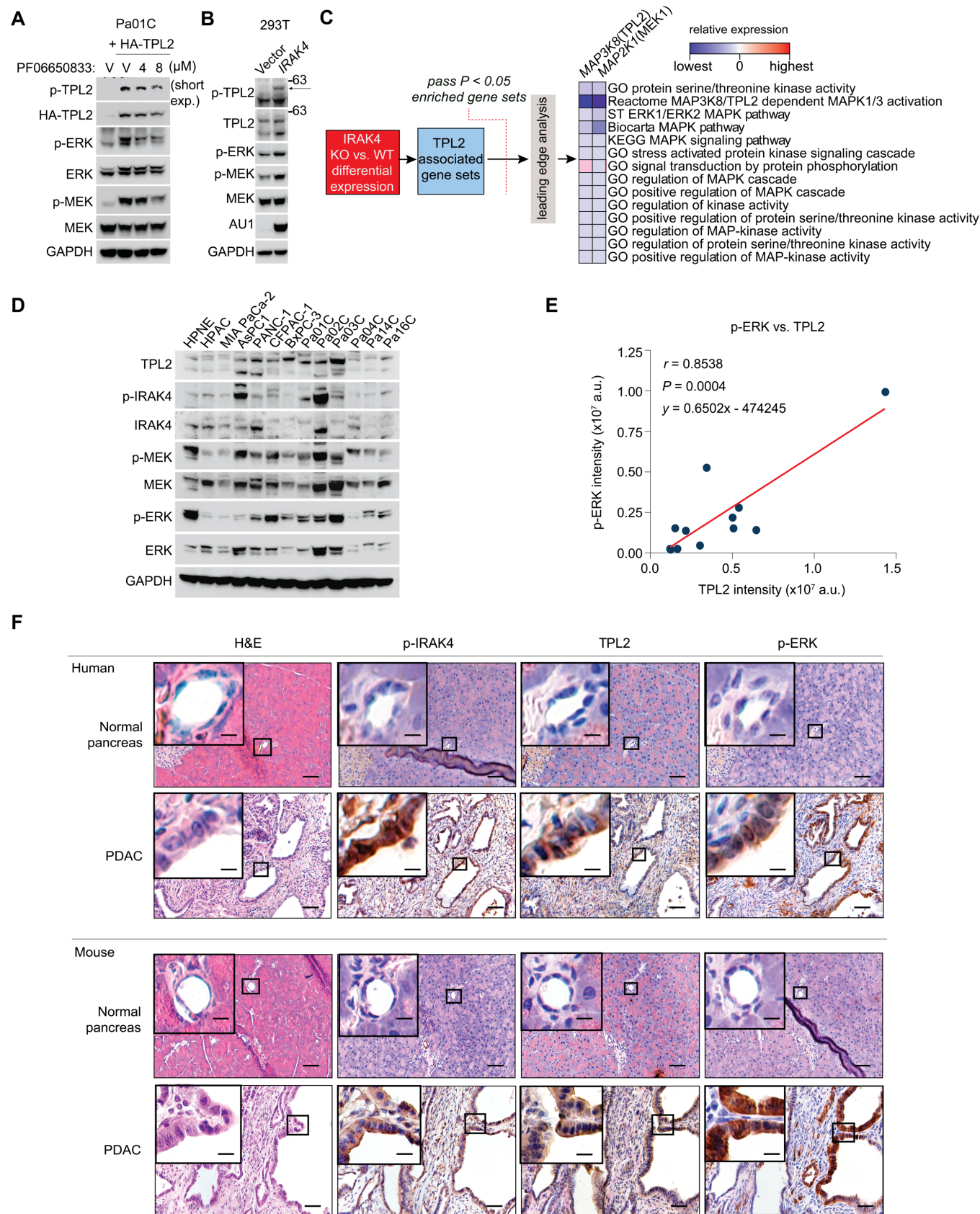
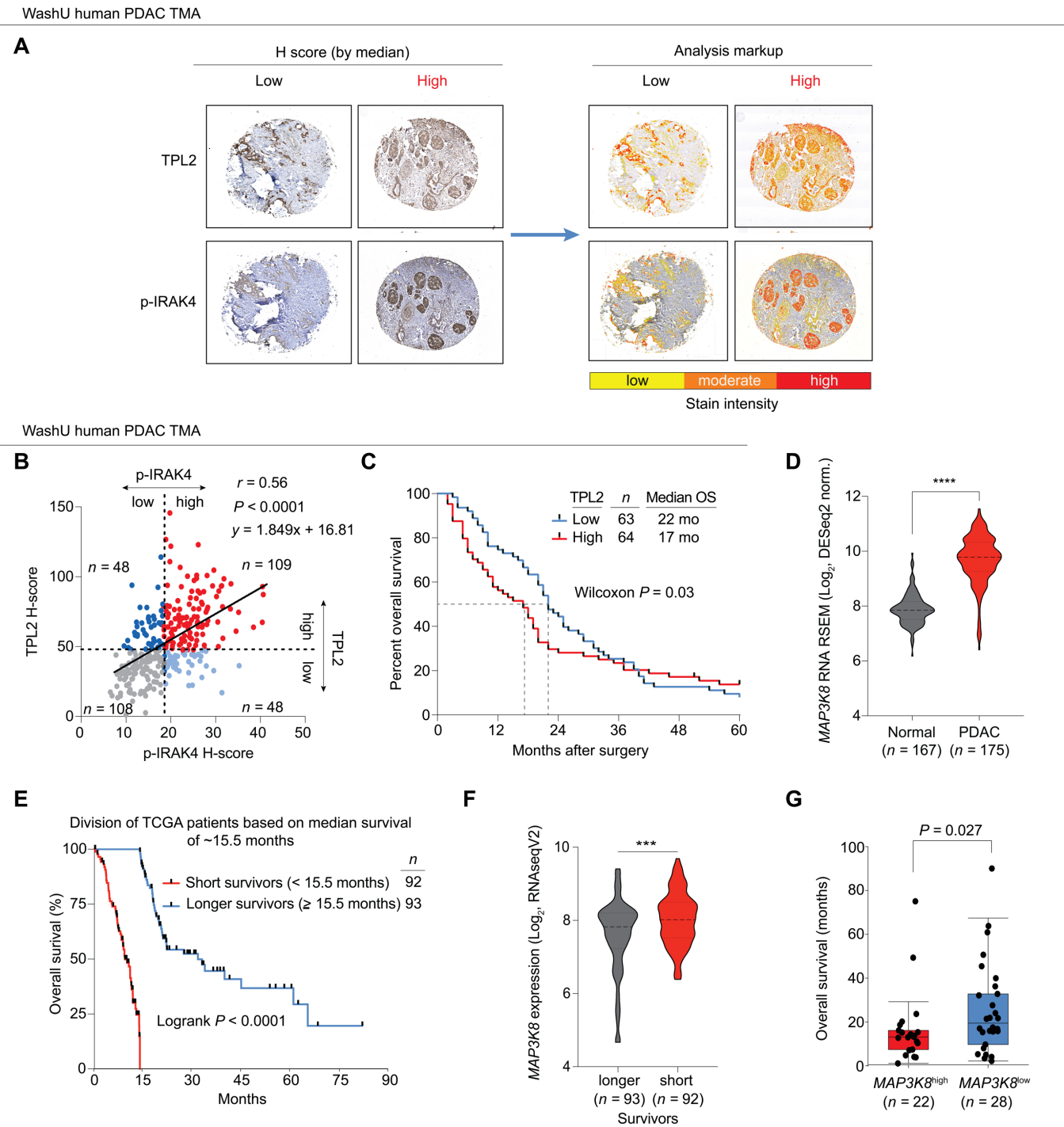


Figure 4. High TPL2 expression is poor prognostic in PDAC

(A) IHC images representing high and low staining H-scores for TPL2 and p-IRAK4 with and without HALO analysis markup. H score = $3 \times (\% \text{ of strongly stained area}) + 2 \times (\% \text{ of strongly stained area}) + 1 \times (\% \text{ of weakly stained area})$. (B) Spearman (r) correlation plot of TPL2 and p-IRAK4 H-scores from tissue-micro-array (TMA) analysis of 313 tissue specimens from 157 PDAC patients, represented in (A). (C) Kaplan-Meier comparing survival of patients with high vs. low TPL2 protein expression based on analysis of TMA above. (D) Graph depicting *MAP3K8* (TPL2) expression in normal human pancreas versus PDAC tissue. Data for normal pancreas tissue is from The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project and PDAC expression was from the pancreatic adenocarcinoma TCGA PanCancer Atlas study. P -values are from unpaired two-sided t -test. Outliers (5 in normal, 3 in PDAC) were removed by ROUT, $Q = 0.1\%$. (E) Graph of overall survival (OS) of TCGA PDAC patients separated into short and longer survivor cohorts using median OS of ~15.5 months. (F) Graph comparing *MAP3K8* mRNA expression in longer vs. short survivors defined in (E). P -values are from unpaired, two-sided t -test. All 178 (out of 185) TCGA PDAC samples with mRNA expression data were analyzed. (G) Graph comparing months of overall survival of patients with high (z score > 1 , $n = 22$) versus low (z score < 1 , $n = 28$) *MAP3K8* expression based on analysis of TCGA Firehose Legacy dataset. P values from Kruskal Wallis test. **** $P < 0.0001$, *** $P < 0.0002$, ** $P < 0.0021$, * $P < 0.0332$.

Figure 4



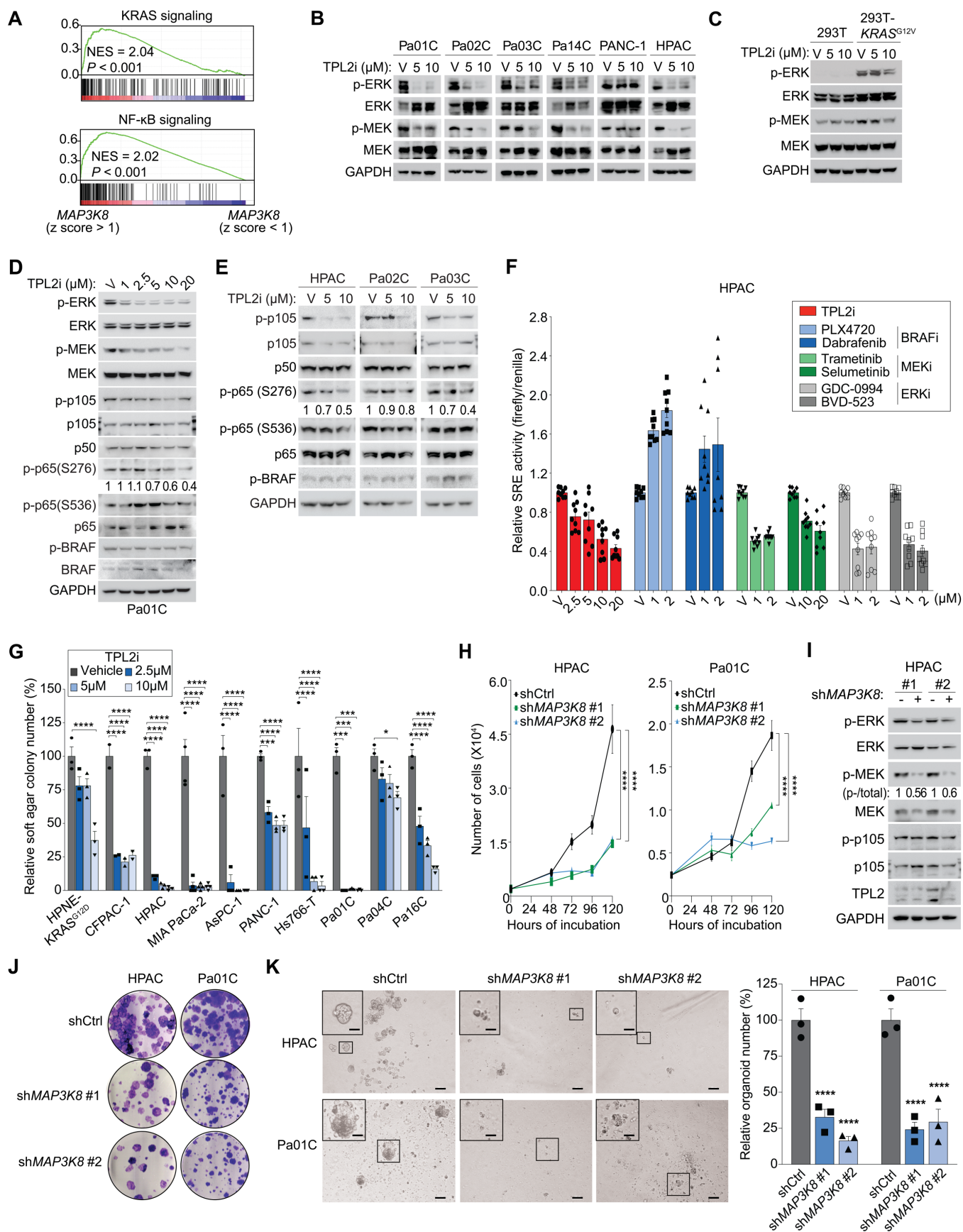
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Figure 5. TPL2 drives both MAPK and NFκB signaling in PDAC

(A) Gene set enrichment plots for patients with high (z score > 1, $n = 22$) and low (z score < 1, $n = 28$) *MAP3K8* expression from TCGA Firehose legacy study. (B) Immunoblots of *KRAS* mutant human PDAC cell lines treated with TPL2 inhibitor (TPL2i) for 36 hours in serum-free media. (C) Immunoblots of 293T and 293T-*KRAS*^{G12V} cells treated with TPL2i for 24 hours in serum-free condition. (D) Immunoblots of Pa01C cells treated with incremental doses of TPL2i. (E) Immunoblots of PDAC cell lines treated with TPL2i. (F) Serum-response element (SRE) reporter assay of HPAC cells treated with TPL2i, BRAFi, MEKi or ERKi. Data shows three independent experiments each done in triplicate. (G) Quantification of soft agar colonies formed by PDAC cell lines treated with TPL2i. Data represents $n = 3$ ($n = 2$ for CFPAC-1) for each cell line. One data point shown per biological replicate, each consisting of three technical replicates. P values from two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (H) Immunoblots of WT or *MAP3K8* (TPL2) knockdown HPAC cells. (I) Quantification of HPAC and Pa01C cell proliferation after TPL2 knockdown with shRNA (sh*MAP3K8*). Each data point is average of six replicates. P values by two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (J) Representative crystal violet stained images of 2D colony formation of TPL2 knockdown HPAC and Pa01C cells. (K) Light microscopic images of organoids formed by HPAC and Pa01C cells with TPL2 knockdown. Scale bar is 100μm for full image, and 25μm for magnified inset. Graph on right is quantification of number of organoids formed in three independent wells. P values by two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. All error bars indicate mean \pm SEM; **** $P < 0.0001$, *** $P < 0.0002$, ** $P < 0.0021$, * $P < 0.0332$.

Figure 5



1010 **Figure 6. KRAS induces autocrine IL-1 β signaling activates IRAK4 and TPL2**

(A) qRT-PCR of HEK cells expressing empty vector or *KRAS*^{G12V}. Data shows six replicates from two independent experiments. *P* values from two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple-comparison test. (B) Heatmap of Hallmark "KRAS signaling up" signature in *MAP3K8* high vs. low patients. *IL1B* is significantly enriched in *MAP3K8*^{high} patients, shown also in box-plot on right. (C) Immunoblots of HEK-*KRAS*^{G12V} cells treated with anti-hIL-1 β neutralizing antibody for 24 hours. (D) Immunoblots of HEK cells incubated with conditioned media (CM) from HEK-*KRAS*^{G12V} cells (called "*KRAS*^{G12V} CM") and anti-hIL-1 β neutralizing antibody. (E) Immunoblots of HEK cells incubated with *KRAS*^{G12V} CM and TPL2i for 16 hours. (F) Immunoblots of HEK and HPAC cells overexpressing HA epitope-tagged TPL2 WT stimulated with 100ng mL⁻¹ recombinant hIL-1 β for indicated duration. (G) Immunoblots of HEK cells expressing *KRAS*^{G12V}, HA epitope tagged TPL2 WT and sh*IL1R1*. (H) Kaplan-Meier curve of PDAC TCGA patients with high vs. low *IL1B* expression. Follow-up censored at 60 months. All error bars indicate mean \pm SEM; *****P*<0.0001, ****P*<0.0002, ***P*<0.0021, **P*<0.0332.

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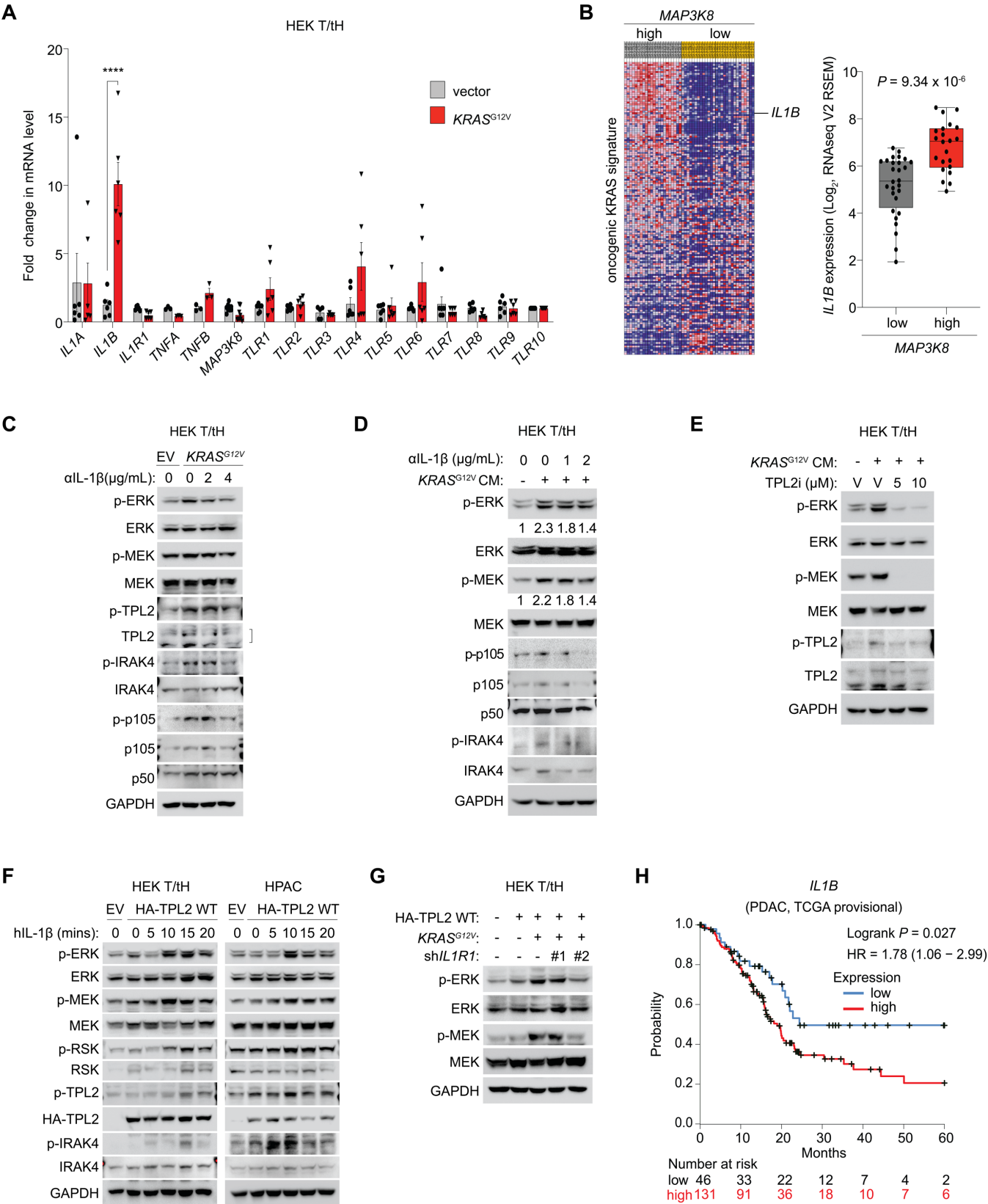


Figure 7. TPL2 inhibition potentiates chemotherapy by curbing MAPK and NF- κ B activation

(A) Immunoblots of two PDAC cell lines overexpressing HA epitope-tagged TPL2 WT treated for 16 hours with different chemotherapy agents (10 μ M each). (B-C) Quantification of mRNA transcript levels for multiple genes in three PDAC cell lines treated with vehicle, gemcitabine-paclitaxel (Gem-PTX) or FIRINOX (10 μ M each of 5-FU, SN-38 and oxaliplatin). (D) Duolink® proximity ligase assay identifying interaction of p-IRAK4 and TLR9 in three PDAC cell lines treated with 10 μ M SN-38 for 16 hours. Six 400X magnification fields per condition were analyzed. Scale bars represent 10 μ m. (E) Immunoblots of three PDAC cell lines treated with TPL2i, SN-38 or the combination for 16 hours. (F) 2D crystal violet clonogenic colony forming assays of three PDAC cell lines treated with TPL2i, SN-38 (2.5nM, 5nM and 10nM) or the combination in a dose matrix for three to four weeks. Data shows one independent experiment out of ≥ 3 per cell line (G) Tumor volume curves for patient derived Pa01C PDAC cells implanted subcutaneously into nude mice followed by treatment with TPL2 inhibitor, FIRINOX, or combination therapy. Data represents 10 independent tumors ($n = 10$) for each drug treatment group and 8 independent tumors ($n = 8$) for vehicle treated group. P value from two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. One outlier was removed by Grubb's, $\alpha = 0.01$. (H) Graph depicting final tumor weight (final pancreas weight – 0.1g (i.e. normal pancreas weight)) after orthoptic injection of murine KI cells and treatment as indicated for 14 days. Images of ex vivo and in vivo tumors detected by ultrasound along with tumor volume are shown on right. P values from one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test. All error bars indicate mean \pm SEM; **** $P < 0.0001$, *** $P < 0.0002$, ** $P < 0.0021$, * $P < 0.0332$.

Figure 7

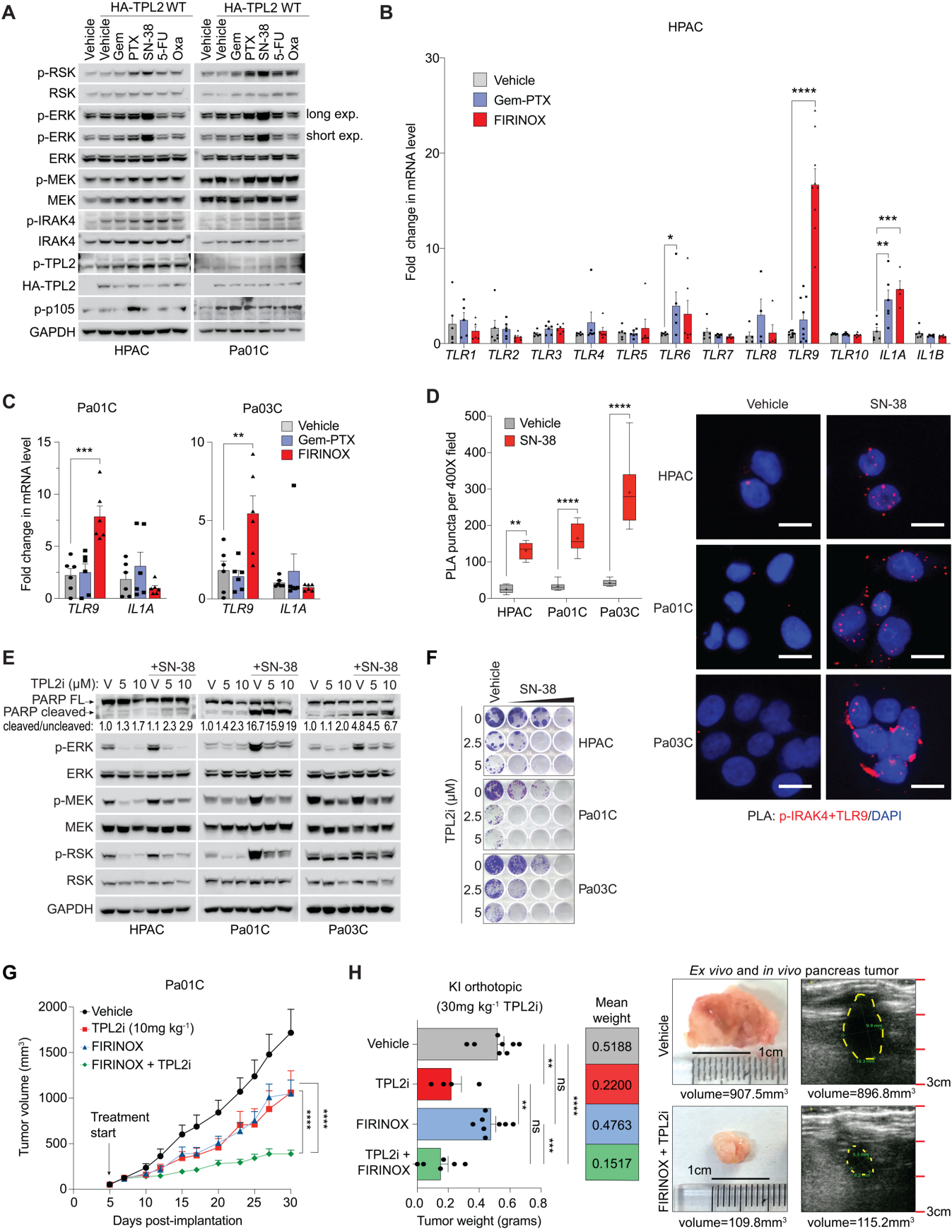
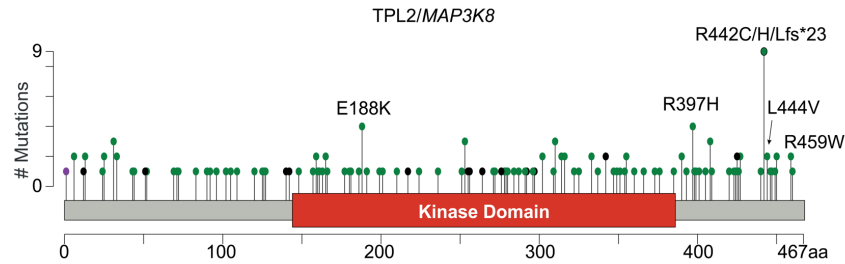


Figure 8. E188K mutation in *MAP3K8/TPL2* is a gain-of-function mutation

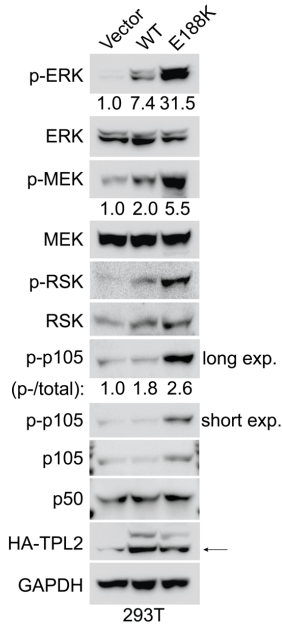
(A) Lollipop plot adapted from CBioPortal.org (as of August 2019) identifying mutations in TPL2/*MAP3K8*. (B) Immunoblots of 293T cells transfected with empty expression vector (EV, control) or vector encoding HA epitope tagged TPL2 WT or TPL2 E188K for 48 hours. (C) Relative serum-response element (SRE) activity and NFκB reporter activity in 293T cells transfected as in (B). Data is from two independent experiments and *P* values are from two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. (D) Heat map representing relative expression in Log₂ units of proteins evaluated by reverse-phase protein array of 293T cells transfected with empty vector (EV, control) or vector encoding HA-tagged TPL2 WT or TPL2 E188K in duplicate (*n* = 2) for 48 hours. (E) Relative abundance (in Log₂ units) of the top 15 up-regulated targets in RPPA shown in (D). p-ERK (in bold text) is the top hit and significantly upregulated targets are indicated with *P* values from two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test. All error bars indicate mean ± SEM; *****P*<0.0001, ****P*<0.0002, ***P*<0.0021, **P*<0.0332.

Figure 8

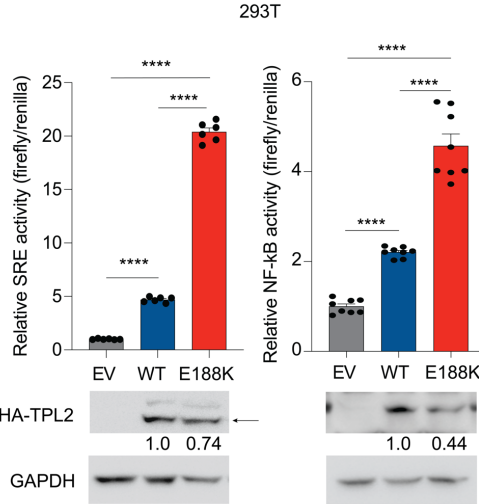
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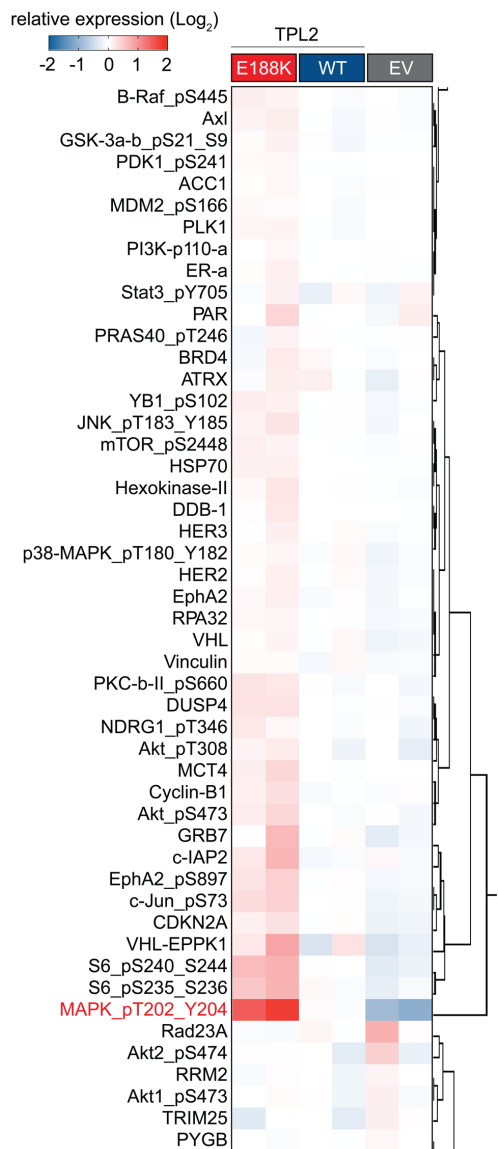
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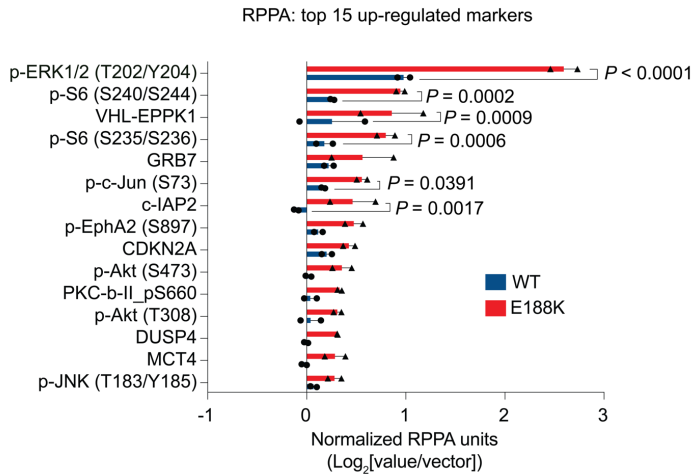
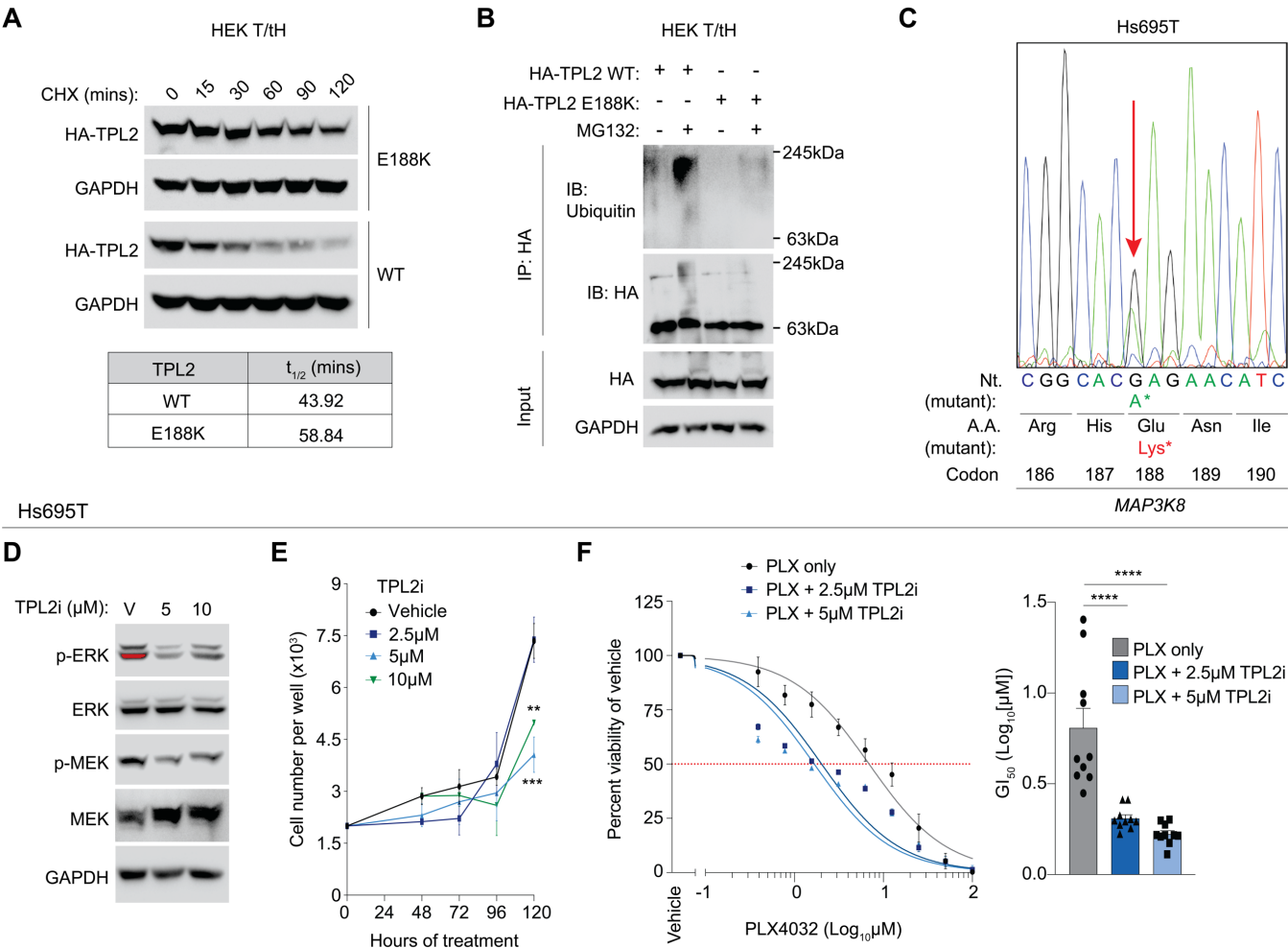


Figure 9. E188K mutation stabilizes TPL2 protein

(A) Immunoblots of HEK T/tH cells stably expressing HA epitope-tagged TPL2 WT or TPL2 E188K treated with 10 μ g mL⁻¹ cycloheximide. Table below shows half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of TPL2 WT and TPL2 E188K protein calculated by measuring HA-TPL2 band intensities, normalizing to t_0 and performing one-phase exponential decay. Data represents one of three independent experiments showing similar results. (B) Immuno-precipitation of HA epitope-tagged TPL2 WT or TPL2 E188K treated with 10 μ M MG132 and immunoblotted as indicated. (C) Sanger sequencing peaks of *MAP3K8* (TPL2) locus in Hs695T. Arrow indicates the naturally occurring missense point mutation responsible for Glu \rightarrow Lys substitution at codon 188 (E188K) in TPL2 in Hs695T cell line. (D) Immunoblot of Hs695T cells treated with TPL2i for 24 hours in 10% serum media. (E) Proliferation of Hs695T cells treated with TPL2i. *P* values from two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (F) Viability of Hs695T cells treated with PLX4032 (BRAFi) alone or in combination with two different concentrations of TPL2i. Graph on right depicts GI₅₀ of PLX4032 in Log₁₀ units. Data represents 10 replicates from four independent experiments, *P* values are from one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. All error bars indicate mean \pm SEM; *****P*<0.0001, ****P*<0.0002, ***P*<0.0021, **P*<0.0332.

Figure 9



Hs695T

D

E

F

1125

1130

1135

1140

Figure 10. R442H is a gain-of-function mutation that curtails proteasomal degradation of TPL2

(A) Immunoblots of 293T cells transiently transfected with empty vector (EV), or vector encoding HA epitope-tagged TPL2 WT or TPL2 R442H for 48 hours. On right is quantification of p-ERK band intensities for TPL2 WT and TPL2 R442H samples from immunoblots on left. Data represents two independent experiments, *P* values from two-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison test. **(B)** Immunoblots of HEK T/tH cells stably expressing vector encoding TPL2 WT or TPL2 R442H and treated with 10 μ g mL⁻¹ cycloheximide for indicated durations. Table below states half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of TPL2 WT and mutant proteins calculated by measuring HA-TPL2 band intensities, normalizing to t_0 and performing one-phase exponential decay analysis as shown in graph most below. Experiment was performed three times and one set of data is shown. **(C)** Immunoblots of HEK T/tH cells stably expressing empty vector or HA epitope-tagged TPL2 mutants treated with MG132 (10 μ M) for 4 hours. One of ≥ 2 independent experiments is shown. C-term truncated TPL2 is used as positive control. **(D)** Immunoblots of IGROV1 cells serum starved for 24 hours and treated with TPL2i for 2 hours. **(E)** Immunoblots of IGROV1 cells after shRNA mediated TPL2 depletion. **(F-G)** Proliferation of IGROV1 cells treated with TPL2i and after shRNA mediated TPL2 depletion respectively. *P* values from two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. **(H)** 3D organoid growth of IGROV1 cells after shRNA mediated TPL2 depletion and rescue with either WT or R442H mutant. Organoids were counted from four independent transfected wells per condition. Scale bars are 100 μ m. *P* values from one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. All error bars indicate mean \pm SEM; *****P*<0.0001, ****P*<0.0002, ***P*<0.0021, **P*<0.0332.

Figure 10

