

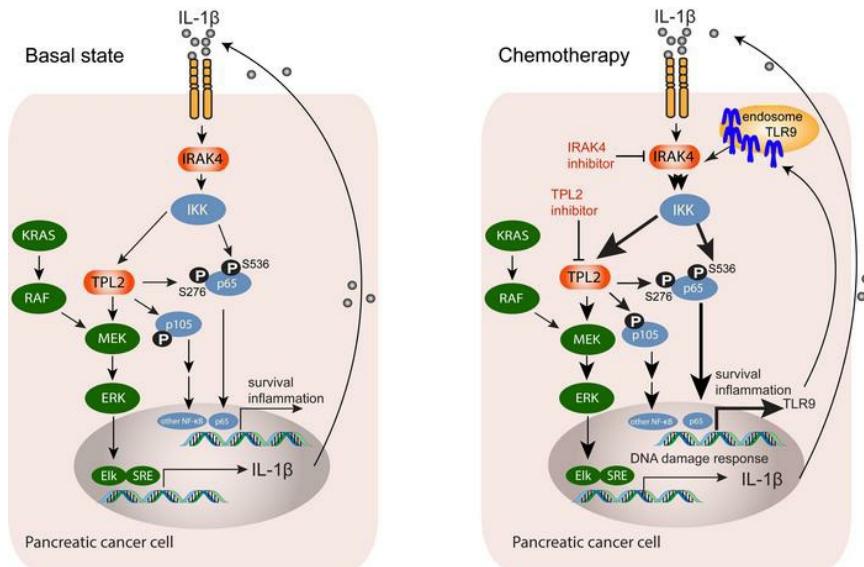
# TPL2 enforces *RAS*-induced inflammatory signaling and is activated by point mutations

Paarth B. Dodhiawala, Namrata Khurana, Daoxiang Zhang, Yi Cheng, Lin Li, Qing Wei, Kuljeet Seehra, Hongmei Jiang, Patrick M. Grierson, Andrea Wang-Gillam, Kian-Huat Lim

*J Clin Invest.* 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI137660>.

Research In-Press Preview Inflammation Oncology

## Graphical abstract



Find the latest version:

<https://jci.me/137660/pdf>



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

5 Paarth B. Dodhiawala<sup>1</sup>, Namrata Khurana<sup>1</sup>, Daoxiang Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Yi Cheng<sup>1</sup>, Lin Li<sup>1</sup>, Qing Wei<sup>1,2</sup>, Kuljeet Seehra<sup>1</sup>, Hongmei Jiang<sup>1</sup>, Patrick M. Grierson<sup>1</sup>, Andrea Wang-Gillam<sup>1</sup>, Kian-Huat Lim<sup>1,\*</sup>

10<sup>1</sup>Division of Oncology, Department of Internal Medicine, Barnes-Jewish Hospital and The Alvin J. Siteman Comprehensive Cancer Center, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO 63110, USA.

15<sup>2</sup>Department of Laboratory Medicine, Renji Hospital, School of Medicine, Shanghai Jiaotong University, Shanghai, 200127, China.

20 The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists

25 \*Corresponding author:

Kian-Huat Lim

Washington University School of Medicine

660 South Euclid Avenue

Campus Box 8069

25 Saint Louis, MO 63110

Tel: 314-362-6157

Fax: 314-747-9329

Email: [kian-huat.lim@wustl.edu](mailto:kian-huat.lim@wustl.edu)

## ABSTRACT

30 NF- $\kappa$ 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 $\beta$  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- $\kappa$ B cascades. Inhibition of TPL2 blocked both MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ 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  
45 a promising therapeutic target in *RAS*- and *MAP3K8*-mutant cancers and strongly prompts development of TPL2 inhibitors for pre-clinical and clinical studies.

## INTRODUCTION

Targeting the RAS oncoproteins remains unfulfilled in the clinic. While the newly developed KRAS<sup>G12C</sup> inhibitor has achieved considerable success in lung cancer(1), it is ineffective in other 50 KRAS<sup>G12C</sup>-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.

55 Aberrant activation of the NF- $\kappa$ 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 $\beta$  kinase, which activates the NF- $\kappa$ B members, completely abolished KRAS<sup>G12D</sup>-induced PDAC development(8). However, development of IKK inhibitors is hampered by clinical toxicities and off-target effects(9). PDAC 60 cells and the surrounding stromal fibroblasts secrete IL-1 $\beta$  that engages interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 4 (IRAK4) to drive IKK $\beta$  and the NF- $\kappa$ 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 65 cytoplasmic NF- $\kappa$ 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- 70  $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ 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 regimen 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- $\kappa$ B activity in PDAC and is essential for RAS-oncogenesis

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

90 To more comprehensively understand the NF- $\kappa$ b associated transcriptomes in PDAC, we evaluated the  
expression pattern of 37 core NF- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ B and presence of different categories of NF- $\kappa$ B signatures in PDAC (**Supplementary Figure 1A**).  
95 Because RELA expression is the single, most established NF- $\kappa$ B marker associated with poor prognosis  
in PDAC, we divided these samples into three groups based on *RELA* mRNA level: *RELA*<sup>High</sup> (z-score >  
1.0,  $n = 29$ ), *RELA*<sup>Med</sup> (z-score between -1.0 and 1.0,  $n = 129$ ), and *RELA*<sup>Low</sup> (z-score < -1.0,  $n = 29$ )  
**(Figure 1A)**. Compared to *RELA*<sup>Low</sup> group, patients in *RELA*<sup>High</sup> and *RELA*<sup>Med</sup> groups had significantly  
worse progression-free and overall survival (**Figure 1B, Supplementary Figure 1B**). We focused our  
100 analysis on *RELA*<sup>High</sup> and *RELA*<sup>Low</sup> cohorts in order to discern the remaining NF- $\kappa$ B genes that cluster

with *RELA* expression. Notably, many genes in the canonical NF- $\kappa$ B pathway were upregulated in the *RELA*<sup>High</sup> group (**Figure 1C**), such as the IKK isoform genes (*IKBKB*, *IKBKE*, *IKBKG*), inhibitory  $\kappa$ 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*<sup>High</sup>, *IRAK1*<sup>High</sup>”) 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*<sup>Low</sup>, *IRAK1*<sup>Low</sup>”). 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- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ B signaling in PDAC, but their crosstalk has not been investigated. While *KRAS* oncoprotein can stimulate the non-canonical IKK $\varepsilon$  through the RalGEF-RalB-TBK1 effector(23) and the canonical IKK $\alpha/\beta$  through the PI3K-AKT-mTOR effectors(24), *IRAK4* utilizes TAK1 kinase to activate IKK $\beta$ (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*<sup>T58A</sup> and *HRAS*<sup>G12V</sup>, SV40 *T/t* antigens and *HRAS*<sup>G12V</sup>, or SV40 *T/t* and *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> in wild-type and *Irak4*<sup>-/-</sup> murine

embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs). Surprisingly, anchorage-independent (AI) growth in soft agar, a classical assay for transformation, is completely abrogated in *IRAK4*<sup>-/-</sup> MEFs, but this could be fully rescued with re-expression of murine *Irak4* cDNA (**Figure 1I**). Consistently, *Irak4*<sup>-/-</sup> 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*<sup>fl/fl</sup>; LSL-*Kras*<sup>G12D</sup>, or KPC mouse), a human embryonic kidney (HEK T/tH) line transformed with *hTERT*, SV40 *T/t* and *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup>, and *KRAS*<sup>G12D</sup>-mutant PANC-1 line. Again, loss of *IRAK4* completely abrogated tumorigenic growth of these lines in nude mice (**Figure 1J**).  
130 KP2 cells expressing small guide RNAs against *Irak4* (sg*Irak4*) 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*<sup>G12D</sup> in this line (named HPNE-*KRAS*<sup>G12D</sup>) completes the malignant transformation, enabling AI growth. We found that ectopic expression of *IRAK4* doubled the AI growth of HPNE-*KRAS*<sup>G12D</sup> 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*<sup>G12D</sup>. Together, these studies  
135 showed *IRAK4* is essential for and cooperates with mutant *RAS* in oncogenic transformation.  
140  
145

### **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*<sup>G12D</sup> 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  
150

p-p65/RELA (**Supplementary Figure 2A**), resonating our previous studies(7, 10). As confirmation, 155 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 sg/rak4, or sg/rak4 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 160 confirmation, western blots showed reduced p-MEK and p-ERK levels in IRAK4-ablated KP2 cells (**Figure 2E**). Various NF- $\kappa$ B 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 165 and KI (derived from a PDX1-Cre; *INK4a*<sup>fl/fl</sup>; LSL-*KRAS*<sup>G12D</sup> 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 170 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*<sup>G12D</sup> (for HPNE) or *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> (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<sup>DD</sup>) rendered HEK T/tH-*KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> cells approximately 3-fold less sensitive to growth inhibition by IRAK4i (**Supplementary Figure 2G**), positioning IRAK4 175 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- $\kappa$ B 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 180 *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  
185 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  
190 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  
195 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  
200 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  
205 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 210 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 215 (**Figure 4F**). Conversely, high *MAP3K8* expression (arbitrarily defined as z score  $> 1$ , *MAP3K8*<sup>high</sup>,  $n = 22$ ) is significantly associated with poorer overall survival compared to low *MAP3K8* expression (z score  $< 1$ , “*MAP3K8*<sup>low</sup>”,  $n = 28$ , **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.

## 220 **TPL2 drives both MAPK and NF $\kappa$ B signaling in PDAC**

From GSEA analysis we found *MAP3K8*<sup>high</sup> PDAC samples to be enriched for both KRAS and 225 NF- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ B factor(28). To determine if TPL2 controls MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ 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 230 competitive small molecule TPL2 inhibitor (TPL2i) that can suppress LPS-induced TNF $\alpha$  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<sup>G12V</sup> (**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- $\kappa$ B 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 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- $\kappa$ B 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- $\kappa$ B 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*<sup>V600E</sup> (**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<sup>G12D</sup> cells, HEKT/tH-KRAS<sup>G12V</sup>, 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- $\kappa$ B and MAPK pathways.

260 **KRAS induces autocrine IL-1 $\beta$  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 $\alpha$  and Toll-like receptors, and not directly by KRAS.

On this assumption, we surveyed the expression of IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF $\alpha$ / $\beta$ , IL-1R and all the TLRs by qRT-PCR

of HEK T/tH cells expressing an empty vector or *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup>. Of all sixteen targets, only *IL1B* mRNA was

265 significantly upregulated (by ~10 fold) in *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup>-expressing cells compared to vector control (**Figure 6A**), which we confirmed by IL-1 $\beta$  ELISA of conditioned media (CM) collected from these cells (~120 fold

higher in *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup>-expressing cells, **Supplementary Figure 7A**). Furthermore, analysis of oncogenic

KRAS signature showed *IL1B* expression was significantly higher in *MAP3K8*<sup>high</sup> patients (**Figure 6B**).

These results suggest autocrine IL-1 $\beta$  is the driver of IRAK4-TPL2 activity in KRAS-mutant cells. In

270 support, *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> 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 $\beta$  antibody (**Figure 6C**).

CM collected from HEK-T/tH *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> 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 $\beta$  antibody (**Figure 6D**),

shRNA knockdown of IL-1R of recipient HEK T/tH cells (**Supplementary Figure 7B** and **7C**), and

275 completely blocked by co-treatment with TPL2i (**Figure 6E**). In support of these data, CM from HEK-T/tH

*KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> 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 $\beta$  (hIL-1 $\beta$ )

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

280 *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> or *MAP3K8* (TPL2) (**Figure 6G**), with similar effects observed in KRAS-mutant Pa01C cells

(**Supplementary Figure 7F**). These data establish autocrine IL-1 $\beta$ -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 $\beta$  production. We treated HEK

T/tH *KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> cells with MEK (trametinib), ERK (ulixertinib) or PI3K (GDC-0941) inhibitors and found

285 that both MEK and ERK inhibitors significantly abrogated IL-1 $\beta$  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 $\beta$  production and create an autocrine IL-1 $\beta$ –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- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ 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 $\alpha$ / $\beta$  in HPAC cells. Intriguingly, we observed

significantly upregulated expression of *TLR6*, *TLR9* and *IL1A*, but not *IL1B*, upon exposure to either  
315 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.  
320 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  
325 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,  
330 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  
335 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  
340 stress-induced survival signaling and enhances the efficacy of chemotherapy.

### **MAP3K8 point mutations, E188K and R442H, hyperactivate MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ B 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 345 p105 (NF $\kappa$ B1) and A20-binding inhibitor of NF $\kappa$ B (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 350 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 355 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- $\kappa$ B reporter activities (**Supplementary Figure 11A, 11B**), which we characterized in further detail. E188K mutation is detected in oligodendrogloma, 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<sup>E188K</sup> is markedly more potent in activating 360 MEK, ERK, RSK and p105 (**Figure 8B**), as well as inducing SRE and NF- $\kappa$ B 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<sup>WT</sup> or TPL2<sup>E188K</sup> (**Figure 8B**). Of all 441 markers analyzed, p-ERK is the most differentially upregulated marker in TPL2<sup>E188K</sup>-expressing cells (**Figure 8D**), validating our findings with immunoblots and reporter assay. We also observed significantly increased p-365 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  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{E}188\text{K}}$ , we first compared the half-lives of  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{WT}}$  and  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{E}188\text{K}}$  in 293T cells treated with a protein synthesis inhibitor, cycloheximide. Surprisingly, we found that the E188K mutation, despite located within the kinase domain, rendered  $\text{TPL2}$  protein more stable (**Figure 9A**). Supporting this finding, immunoprecipitation assay showed E188K mutation almost completely abolished  $\text{TPL2}$  polyubiquitination, a prerequisite for proteasomal degradation (**Figure 9B**). To evaluate the oncogenicity of  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{E}188\text{K}}$ , we obtained Hs695T, a  $\text{BRAF}^{\text{V}600\text{E}}$ -mutant melanoma cell line that naturally harbors a  $\text{MAP3K8}^{\text{E}188\text{K}}$  mutation. Sanger sequencing of cDNA from Hs695T confirmed a G→A mutation in codon 188 of  $\text{MAP3K8}$ , which converts glutamate (GAG) to lysine (AAG) (**Figure 9C**). We therefore speculate that  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{E}188\text{K}}$  may be a oncoprotein driving MAPK activation in this cell line. Supporting this notion, treatment with  $\text{TPL2i}$  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  $\text{TPL2}$ , it significantly lowered the viability of Hs695T (**Figure 9F**), indicating that both  $\text{BRAF}$  and  $\text{MAP3K8}$  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- $\kappa$ B reporter activity than wild-type protein (**Supplementary Figure 11A** and **11B**). Compared to  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{WT}}$ ,  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{R}442\text{H}}$  is more potent in activating MEK, ERK and RSK (**Figure 10A**) when expressed at equal levels. As expected, the stability of  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{R}442\text{H}}$  mutant protein was higher than  $\text{TPL2}^{\text{WT}}$  and comparable to C-terminally truncated  $\text{TPL2}$  (**Figure 10B**). Interestingly, other mutations including L444V and R459W also render  $\text{TPL2}$  slightly more stable than the wild-type form, albeit not to the degree imparted by R442H. All these mutations reduce polyubiquitination of  $\text{TPL2}$  (**Figure 10C**), which explains their increased stability. Naturally occurring  $\text{MAP3K8}^{\text{R}442\text{H}}$  mutation is reported in an ovarian cancer cell line IGROV-1(40). Remarkably, short duration (2 hours) treatment with very low dose of  $\text{TPL2i}$  (1 $\mu$ M) 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  $\text{TPL2}$  is the dominant driver of MAPK activity in this cell line. In support, partial knockdown of  $\text{TPL2}$  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<sup>R442H</sup> but not TPL2<sup>WT</sup> (**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 $\beta$  production, leading to autocrine activation of  
the IRAK4-TPL2, which feeds back to escalate MAPK activity and additionally the NF- $\kappa$ 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- $\kappa$ 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 $\alpha$ / $\beta$  and CCL5 are produced, which in an autocrine manner trigger the  
inflammatory JAK/STAT and NF- $\kappa$ 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 $\kappa$ -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 $\beta$ -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 425 studied as the driver of NF- $\kappa$ 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 $\beta$ , 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 430 chemotherapy for PDAC (NCT02550327). Downstream of IRAK4, we revealed TPL2 as a MAP3K that drives MEK-ERK and p105 NF- $\kappa$ 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 435 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- $\kappa$ B activity should be co-targeted. Similarly, in a prostate cancer model, addition of NF- $\kappa$ 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 440 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- $\kappa$ B, JNK and p38 cascades, all of which have been implicated in chemoresistance, TPL2 may be a more promising therapeutic target than MEK or 445 ERK when combined with chemotherapy, at least in PDAC. In accordance, pharmacologic TPL2 inhibition completely blocked chemotherapy induced MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ 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,  
450 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- $\kappa$ B 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  
455 suppressed MAPK activity and proliferation of *BRAF<sup>V600E</sup>/MAP3K8<sup>E188K</sup>* double mutant Hs695T cells, but  
not in *BRAF<sup>V600E</sup>/MAP3K8<sup>WT</sup>* BxPc-3 cells, demonstrating that *MAP3K8<sup>E188K</sup>* 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  
460 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  
465 MAPK recognition motif (KRQR<sub>RS</sub>LYIDL) 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 degron. It is possible that this E188K mutation enhances the intrinsic kinase activity in addition  
470 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<sup>E188K</sup>* and *BRAF<sup>V600E</sup>*  
480 mutation, and MAPK activity in IGROV1 ovarian cancer cells that harbor only the *MAP3K8<sup>R442H</sup>* 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 $\alpha$   
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.

505

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

**Cell lines**

All cell lines including HPNE, HPNE-*KRAS*<sup>G12D</sup>, 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<sup>-1</sup> 5-fluorouracil, 17.5mg kg<sup>-1</sup> irinotecan and 3.35mg kg<sup>-1</sup> oxaliplatin) was administered via intraperitoneal injection weekly in 50µL PBS. TPL2i was administered by intraperitoneal injection at 10mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in 40µL DMSO, 5 days a week. Mice in control group were treated with vehicle. Tumor volume was calculated as (width<sup>2</sup>) 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<sup>-1</sup>) 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).

### **555 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, 565 supervised, provided funding and administered the project.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

This study was supported by NIH (R37CA219697-01), WUSTL SPORE Career Enhancement 570 Award grant (1P50CA196510-01A1), American Cancer Society (RSG-17-203-01-TBG), and Alvin J. Siteman Cancer Center Siteman Investment Program (supported by Barnard Trust and The Foundation for Barnes-Jewish Hospital). We acknowledge the WUSTL DDRCC (grant P30 DK052574) for providing technical support. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official view of the NIH.

575

## REFERENCES

580 1. Canon J, Rex K, Saiki AY, Mohr C, Cooke K, Bagal D, Gaida K, Holt T, Knutson CG, Koppada N, et al. The clinical KRAS(G12C) inhibitor AMG 510 drives anti-tumour immunity. *Nature*. 2019;575(7781):217-23

585 2. Waters AM, and Der CJ. KRAS: The Critical Driver and Therapeutic Target for Pancreatic Cancer. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med*. 2018;8(9):a031435

590 3. Chung V, McDonough S, Philip PA, Cardin D, Wang-Gillam A, Hui L, Tejani MA, Seery TE, Dy IA, Al Baghdadi T, et al. Effect of Selumetinib and MK-2206 vs Oxaliplatin and Fluorouracil in Patients With Metastatic Pancreatic Cancer After Prior Therapy: SWOG S1115 Study Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Oncol*. 2017;3(4):516-22

595 4. Algul H, Adler G, and Schmid RM. NF-kappaB/Rel transcriptional pathway: implications in pancreatic cancer. *Int J Gastrointest Cancer*. 2002;31(1-3):71-8

599 5. Wang W, Abbruzzese JL, Evans DB, Larry L, Cleary KR, and Chiao PJ. The nuclear factor-kappa B RelA transcription factor is constitutively activated in human pancreatic adenocarcinoma cells. *Clin Cancer Res*. 1999;5(1):119-27

600 6. Prabhu L, Mundade R, Korc M, Loehrer PJ, and Lu T. Critical role of NF-kappaB in pancreatic cancer. *Oncotarget*. 2014;5(22):10969-75

605 7. Zhang D, Li L, Jiang H, Knolhoff BL, Lockhart AC, Wang-Gillam A, DeNardo DG, Ruzinova MB, and Lim KH. Constitutive IRAK4 Activation Underlies Poor Prognosis and Chemoresistance in Pancreatic Ductal Adenocarcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2017;23(7):1748-59

610 8. Ling J, Kang Y, Zhao R, Xia Q, Lee DF, Chang Z, Li J, Peng B, Fleming JB, Wang H, et al. KrasG12D-induced IKK2/beta/NF-kappaB activation by IL-1alpha and p62 feedforward loops is required for development of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. *Cancer Cell*. 2012;21(1):105-20

615 9. Prescott JA, and Cook SJ. Targeting IKKbeta in Cancer: Challenges and Opportunities for the Therapeutic Utilisation of IKKbeta Inhibitors. *Cells*. 2018;7(9):115

620 10. Zhang D, Li L, Jiang H, Li Q, Wang-Gillam A, Yu J, Head R, Liu J, Ruzinova MB, and Lim KH. Tumor-Stroma IL1beta-IRAK4 Feedforward Circuitry Drives Tumor Fibrosis, Chemoresistance, and Poor Prognosis in Pancreatic Cancer. *Cancer Res*. 2018;78(7):1700-12

625 11. Jain A, Kaczanowska S, and Davila E. IL-1 Receptor-Associated Kinase Signaling and Its Role in Inflammation, Cancer Progression, and Therapy Resistance. *Front Immunol*. 2014;5(553)

12. Lim KH, and Staudt LM. Toll-like receptor signaling. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol*. 2013;5(1):a011247

630 13. Srivastava R, Geng D, Liu Y, Zheng L, Li Z, Joseph MA, McKenna C, Bansal N, Ochoa A, and Davila E. Augmentation of therapeutic responses in melanoma by inhibition of IRAK-1,-4. *Cancer Res*. 2012;72(23):6209-16

14. Wee ZN, Yatim SM, Kohlbauer VK, Feng M, Goh JY, Bao Y, Lee PL, Zhang S, Wang PP, Lim E, et al. IRAK1 is a therapeutic target that drives breast cancer metastasis and resistance to paclitaxel. *Nat Commun*. 2015;6(8746)

15. Adams AK, Bolanos LC, Dexheimer PJ, Karns RA, Aronow BJ, Komurov K, Jegga AG, Casper KA, Patil YJ, Wilson KM, et al. IRAK1 is a novel DEK transcriptional target and is essential for head and neck cancer cell survival. *Oncotarget*. 2015;6(41):43395-407

16. Li Q, Chen Y, Zhang D, Grossman J, Li L, Khurana N, Jiang H, Grierson PM, Herndon J, DeNardo DG, et al. IRAK4 mediates colitis-induced tumorigenesis and chemoresistance in colorectal cancer. *JCI Insight*. 2019;4(19):e130867

630 17. Weichert W, Boehm M, Gekeler V, Bahra M, Langrehr J, Neuhaus P, Denkert C, Imre G, Weller C, Hofmann HP, et al. High expression of RelA/p65 is associated with activation of nuclear factor-kappaB-dependent signaling in pancreatic cancer and marks a patient population with poor prognosis. *Br J Cancer*. 2007;97(4):523-30

635 18. Fujioka S, Sclabas GM, Schmidt C, Frederick WA, Dong QG, Abbruzzese JL, Evans DB, Baker C, and Chiao PJ. Function of nuclear factor kappaB in pancreatic cancer metastasis. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2003;9(1):346-54

640 19. Liberzon A, Birger C, Thorvaldsdottir H, Ghandi M, Mesirow JP, and Tamayo P. The Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) hallmark gene set collection. *Cell Syst*. 2015;1(6):417-25

645 20. Lin SC, Lo YC, and Wu H. Helical assembly in the MyD88-IRAK4-IRAK2 complex in TLR/IL-1R signalling. *Nature*. 2010;465(7300):885-90

650 21. Adachi O, Kawai T, Takeda K, Matsumoto M, Tsutsui H, Sakagami M, Nakanishi K, and Akira S. Targeted disruption of the MyD88 gene results in loss of IL-1- and IL-18-mediated function. *Immunity*. 1998;9(1):143-50

655 22. Zhuang Z, Ju HQ, Aguilar M, Gocho T, Li H, Iida T, Lee H, Fan X, Zhou H, Ling J, et al. IL1 Receptor Antagonist Inhibits Pancreatic Cancer Growth by Abrogating NF-kappaB Activation. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2016;22(6):1432-44

660 23. Chien Y, Kim S, Bumeister R, Loo YM, Kwon SW, Johnson CL, Balakireva MG, Romeo Y, Kopelovich L, Gale M, Jr., et al. RalB GTPase-mediated activation of the IkappaB family kinase TBK1 couples innate immune signaling to tumor cell survival. *Cell*. 2006;127(1):157-70

665 24. Dan HC, Cooper MJ, Cogswell PC, Duncan JA, Ting JP, and Baldwin AS. Akt-dependent regulation of NF- $\{\kappa\}$ B is controlled by mTOR and Raptor in association with IKK. *Genes Dev*. 2008;22(11):1490-500

670 25. Lee KL, Ambler CM, Anderson DR, Boscoe BP, Bree AG, Brodfuehrer JI, Chang JS, Choi C, Chung S, Curran KJ, et al. Discovery of Clinical Candidate 1- $\{[(2S,3S,4S)-3-Ethyl-4-fluoro-5-oxopyrrolidin-2-yl]methoxy\}-7-methoxyisoquinoline-6-carboxamide (PF-06650833), a Potent, Selective Inhibitor of Interleukin-1 Receptor Associated Kinase 4 (IRAK4), by Fragment-Based Drug Design. *J Med Chem*. 2017;60(13):5521-42$

26. Mielke LA, Elkins KL, Wei L, Starr R, Tsichlis PN, O'Shea JJ, and Watford WT. Tumor progression locus 2 (Map3k8) is critical for host defense against Listeria monocytogenes and IL-1 beta production. *J Immunol*. 2009;183(12):7984-93

27. Pattison MJ, Mitchell O, Flynn HR, Chen CS, Yang HT, Ben-Addi H, Boeing S, Snijders AP, and Ley SC. TLR and TNF-R1 activation of the MKK3/MKK6-p38alpha axis in macrophages is mediated by TPL-2 kinase. *Biochem J*. 2016;473(18):2845-61

28. Babu GR, Jin W, Norman L, Waterfield M, Chang M, Wu X, Zhang M, and Sun SC. Phosphorylation of NF-kappaB1/p105 by oncoprotein kinase Tpl2: implications for a novel mechanism of Tpl2 regulation. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2006;1763(2):174-81

29. Gavrin LK, Green N, Hu Y, Janz K, Kaila N, Li HQ, Tam SY, Thomason JR, Gopalsamy A, Ciszewski G, et al. Inhibition of Tpl2 kinase and TNF-alpha production with 1,7-naphthyridine-3-carbonitriles: synthesis and structure-activity relationships. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett*. 2005;15(23):5288-92

30. Das S, Cho J, Lambertz I, Kelliher MA, Eliopoulos AG, Du K, and Tsichlis PN. Tpl2/cot signals activate ERK, JNK, and NF-kappaB in a cell-type and stimulus-specific manner. *J Biol Chem*. 2005;280(25):23748-57

31. Conroy T, Desseigne F, Ychou M, Bouche O, Guimbaud R, Becouarn Y, Adenis A, Raoul JL, Gourgou-Bourgade S, de la Fouchardiere C, et al. FOLFIRINOX versus

675 gemcitabine for metastatic pancreatic cancer. *The New England journal of medicine*. 2011;364(19):1817-25

32. Von Hoff DD, Ervin T, Arena FP, Chiorean EG, Infante J, Moore M, Seay T, Tjulandin SA, Ma WW, Saleh MN, et al. Increased survival in pancreatic cancer with nab-paclitaxel plus gemcitabine. *The New England journal of medicine*. 2013;369(18):1691-703

680 33. Suzuki N, Suzuki S, Duncan GS, Millar DG, Wada T, Mirtsos C, Takada H, Wakeham A, Itie A, Li S, et al. Severe impairment of interleukin-1 and Toll-like receptor signalling in mice lacking IRAK-4. *Nature*. 2002;416(6882):750-6

34. Beinke S, Robinson MJ, Hugunin M, and Ley SC. Lipopolysaccharide activation of the TPL-2/MEK/extracellular signal-regulated kinase mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade is regulated by IkappaB kinase-induced proteolysis of NF-kappaB1 p105. *Mol Cell Biol*. 2004;24(21):9658-67

685 35. Ben-Addi A, Mambole-Dema A, Brender C, Martin SR, Janzen J, Kjaer S, Smerdon SJ, and Ley SC. IkappaB kinase-induced interaction of TPL-2 kinase with 14-3-3 is essential for Toll-like receptor activation of ERK-1 and -2 MAP kinases. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2014;111(23):E2394-403

36. Roget K, Ben-Addi A, Mambole-Dema A, Gantke T, Yang HT, Janzen J, Morrice N, Abbott D, and Ley SC. IkappaB kinase 2 regulates TPL-2 activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinases 1 and 2 by direct phosphorylation of TPL-2 serine 400. *Mol Cell Biol*. 2012;32(22):4684-90

695 37. Cho J, Melnick M, Solidakis GP, and Tsichlis PN. Tpl2 (tumor progression locus 2) phosphorylation at Thr290 is induced by lipopolysaccharide via an Ikappa-B Kinase-beta-dependent pathway and is required for Tpl2 activation by external signals. *J Biol Chem*. 2005;280(21):20442-8

700 38. Ceci JD, Patriotis CP, Tsatsanis C, Makris AM, Kovatch R, Swing DA, Jenkins NA, Tsichlis PN, and Copeland NG. Tpl-2 is an oncogenic kinase that is activated by carboxy-terminal truncation. *Genes Dev*. 1997;11(6):688-700

39. Newman S, Fan L, Pribnow A, Silkov A, Rice SV, Lee S, Shao Y, Shaner B, Mulder H, Nakitandwe J, et al. Clinical genome sequencing uncovers potentially targetable truncations and fusions of MAP3K8 in spitzoid and other melanomas. *Nat Med*. 2019;25(4):597-602

705 40. Ghandi M, Huang FW, Jane-Valbuena J, Kryukov GV, Lo CC, McDonald ER, 3rd, Barretina J, Gelfand ET, Bielski CM, Li H, et al. Next-generation characterization of the Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia. *Nature*. 2019;569(7757):503-8

41. Gruoso T, Garnier C, Abelanet S, Kieffer Y, Lemesre V, Bellanger D, Bieche I, Marangoni E, Sastre-Garau X, Mieulet V, et al. MAP3K8/TPL-2/COT is a potential predictive marker for MEK inhibitor treatment in high-grade serous ovarian carcinomas. *Nat Commun*. 2015;6(8583)

710 42. Zhu Z, Aref AR, Cohoon TJ, Barbie TU, Imamura Y, Yang S, Moody SE, Shen RR, Schinzel AC, Thai TC, et al. Inhibition of KRAS-driven tumorigenicity by interruption of an autocrine cytokine circuit. *Cancer Discov*. 2014;4(4):452-65

43. Ancrile BB, O'Hayer KM, and Counter CM. Oncogenic ras-induced expression of cytokines: a new target of anti-cancer therapeutics. *Mol Interv*. 2008;8(1):22-7

715 44. Nagathihalli NS, Castellanos JA, Lamichhane P, Messaggio F, Shi C, Dai X, Rai P, Chen X, VanSaun MN, and Merchant NB. Inverse Correlation of STAT3 and MEK Signaling Mediates Resistance to RAS Pathway Inhibition in Pancreatic Cancer. *Cancer Res*. 2018;78(21):6235-46

45. Nagathihalli NS, Castellanos JA, Shi C, Beesetty Y, Reyzer ML, Caprioli R, Chen X, Walsh AJ, Skala MC, Moses HL, et al. Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription 3, Mediated Remodeling of the Tumor Microenvironment Results in Enhanced Tumor Drug Delivery in a Mouse Model of Pancreatic Cancer. *Gastroenterology*. 2015;149(7):1932-43 e9

725 46. Ancrile B, Lim KH, and Counter CM. Oncogenic Ras-induced secretion of IL6 is required for tumorigenesis. *Genes Dev*. 2007;21(14):1714-9

730 47. Senger K, Pham VC, Varfolomeev E, Hackney JA, Corzo CA, Collier J, Lau VWC, Huang Z, Hamidzhadeh K, Caplazi P, et al. The kinase TPL2 activates ERK and p38 signaling to promote neutrophilic inflammation. *Sci Signal*. 2017;10(475)

48. Salaroglio IC, Mungo E, Gazzano E, Kopecka J, and Riganti C. ERK is a Pivotal Player of Chemo-Immune-Resistance in Cancer. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2019;20(10):2505

735 49. Infante JR, Somer BG, Park JO, Li CP, Scheulen ME, Kasubhai SM, Oh DY, Liu Y, Redhu S, Steplewski K, et al. A randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of trametinib, an oral MEK inhibitor, in combination with gemcitabine for patients with untreated metastatic adenocarcinoma of the pancreas. *Eur J Cancer*. 2014;50(12):2072-81

740 50. Van Cutsem E, Hidalgo M, Canon JL, Macarulla T, Bazin I, Poddubskaya E, Manojlovic N, Radenkovic D, Verslype C, Raymond E, et al. Phase I/II trial of pimasertib plus gemcitabine in patients with metastatic pancreatic cancer. *Int J Cancer*. 2018;143(8):2053-64

745 51. Gioeli D, Wunderlich W, Sebolt-Leopold J, Bekiranov S, Wulfkuhle JD, Petricoin EF, 3rd, Conaway M, and Weber MJ. Compensatory pathways induced by MEK inhibition are effective drug targets for combination therapy against castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Mol Cancer Ther*. 2011;10(9):1581-90

750 52. Johannessen CM, Boehm JS, Kim SY, Thomas SR, Wardwell L, Johnson LA, Emery CM, Stransky N, Cogdill AP, Barretina J, et al. COT drives resistance to RAF inhibition through MAP kinase pathway reactivation. *Nature*. 2010;468(7326):968-72

53. Christoforidou AV, Papadaki HA, Margioris AN, Eliopoulos GD, and Tsatsanis C. Expression of the Tpl2/Cot oncogene in human T-cell neoplasias. *Mol Cancer*. 2004;3(1):34

755 54. Clark AM, Reynolds SH, Anderson M, and Wiest JS. Mutational activation of the MAP3K8 protooncogene in lung cancer. *Genes Chromosomes Cancer*. 2004;41(2):99-108

55. Sourvinos G, Tsatsanis C, and Spandidos DA. Overexpression of the Tpl-2/Cot oncogene in human breast cancer. *Oncogene*. 1999;18(35):4968-73

760 56. von Bernuth H, Picard C, Puel A, and Casanova JL. Experimental and natural infections in MyD88- and IRAK-4-deficient mice and humans. *Eur J Immunol*. 2012;42(12):3126-35

57. Rosenthal AC, Tun HW, Younes A, Nowakowski GS, Lunning MA, Patel K, Landsburg DJ, Martell RE, and Leslie LA. Phase 1 study of CA-4948, a novel inhibitor of interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 4 (IRAK4) in patients (pts) with r/r non-Hodgkin lymphoma. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2019;37(15\_suppl):e19055-e

765 58. Dumitru CD, Ceci JD, Tsatsanis C, Kontoyiannis D, Stamatakis K, Lin JH, Patriotis C, Jenkins NA, Copeland NG, Kollias G, et al. TNF-alpha induction by LPS is regulated posttranscriptionally via a Tpl2/ERK-dependent pathway. *Cell*. 2000;103(7):1071-83

59. Shoemaker RH. The NCI60 human tumour cell line anticancer drug screen. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2006;6(10):813-23

770

775 60. Lim KH, Baines AT, Fiordalisi JJ, Shipitsin M, Feig LA, Cox AD, Der CJ, and Counter CM. Activation of RalA is critical for Ras-induced tumorigenesis of human cells. *Cancer Cell*. 2005;7(6):533-45

780 61. Jiang H, Hegde S, Knolhoff BL, Zhu Y, Herndon JM, Meyer MA, Nywening TM, Hawkins WG, Shapiro IM, Weaver DT, et al. Targeting focal adhesion kinase renders pancreatic cancers responsive to checkpoint immunotherapy. *Nat Med*. 2016;22(8):851-60

785 62. Durkin ME, Qian X, Popescu NC, and Lowy DR. Isolation of Mouse Embryo Fibroblasts. *Bio Protoc*. 2013;3(18)

63. Jones S, Zhang X, Parsons DW, Lin JC, Leary RJ, Angenendt P, Mankoo P, Carter H, Kamiyama H, Jimeno A, et al. Core signaling pathways in human pancreatic cancers revealed by global genomic analyses. *Science*. 2008;321(5897):1801-6

64. Kim MP, Evans DB, Wang H, Abbruzzese JL, Fleming JB, and Gallick GE. Generation of orthotopic and heterotopic human pancreatic cancer xenografts in immunodeficient mice. *Nat Protoc*. 2009;4(11):1670-80

65. Lim KH, Langley E, Gao F, Luo J, Li L, Meyer G, Kim P, Singh S, Kushnir VM, Early DS, et al. A clinically feasible multiplex proteomic immunoassay as a novel functional diagnostic for pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(15):24250-61

790

795

800

805

## Figure Legends and Figures

810

### Figure 1. IRAK signaling dictates NF-κB 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-κB signature genes from the Broad

815 Institute Molecular Signatures Database (gene-sets are listed in **Supplementary Table 3**) in *RELA*<sup>high</sup> vs. *RELA*<sup>low</sup> patients. **(D and E)** PFS and disease-free status respectively of PDAC patients with high

MYD88 and/or high *IRAK1* expression (“*MYD88*<sup>High</sup>, *IRAK1*<sup>High</sup>”) versus low *MYD88* and/or low *IRAK1* expression (“*MYD88*<sup>Low</sup>, *IRAK1*<sup>Low</sup>”). Eight patients overlapping between two groups were excluded. **(F**

820 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

825 agar colonies formed by *Irak4*-KO and rescue (KO + *Irak4*<sup>WT</sup>) 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-

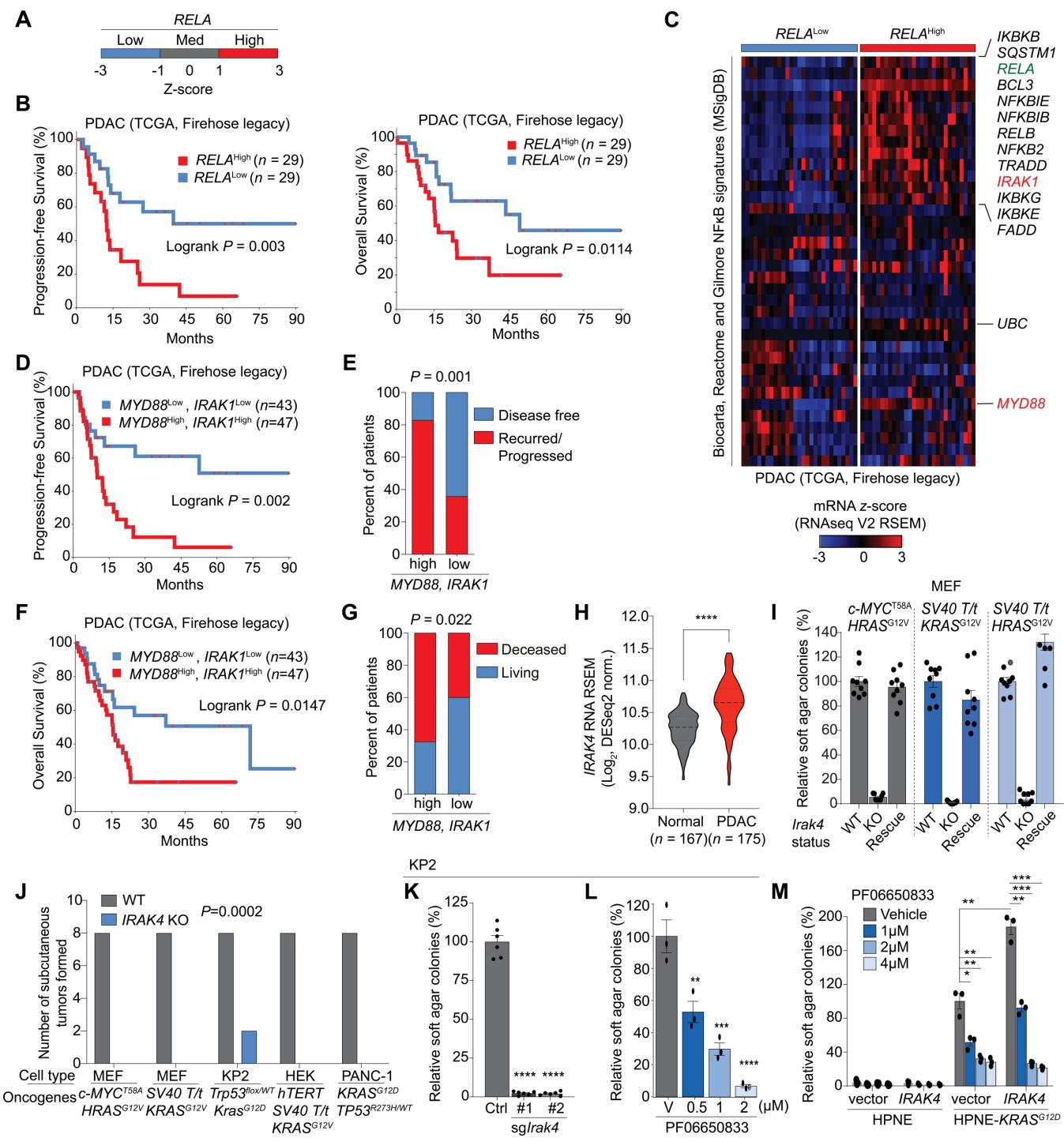
830 mutant and/or PDAC cell lines. *n* = 8 tumors per condition. **(K)** Quantification of soft agar colonies formed by WT versus *Irak4*-KO KP2 cells. Data shows six replicates from two independent experiments. **(L)** Soft

835 agar colonies formed by KP2 cells treated with IRAK4i. **(M)** Soft agar colonies formed by WT and *KRAS*<sup>G12D</sup> 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 ± SEM; \*\*\*\**P*<0.0001, \*\*\**P*<0.0002, \*\**P*<0.0021, \**P*<0.0332.

840

Figure 1



855 **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*<sup>G12D</sup> 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*<sup>WT</sup>) 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*<sup>G12D</sup> and 293T-*KRAS*<sup>G12V</sup> 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.

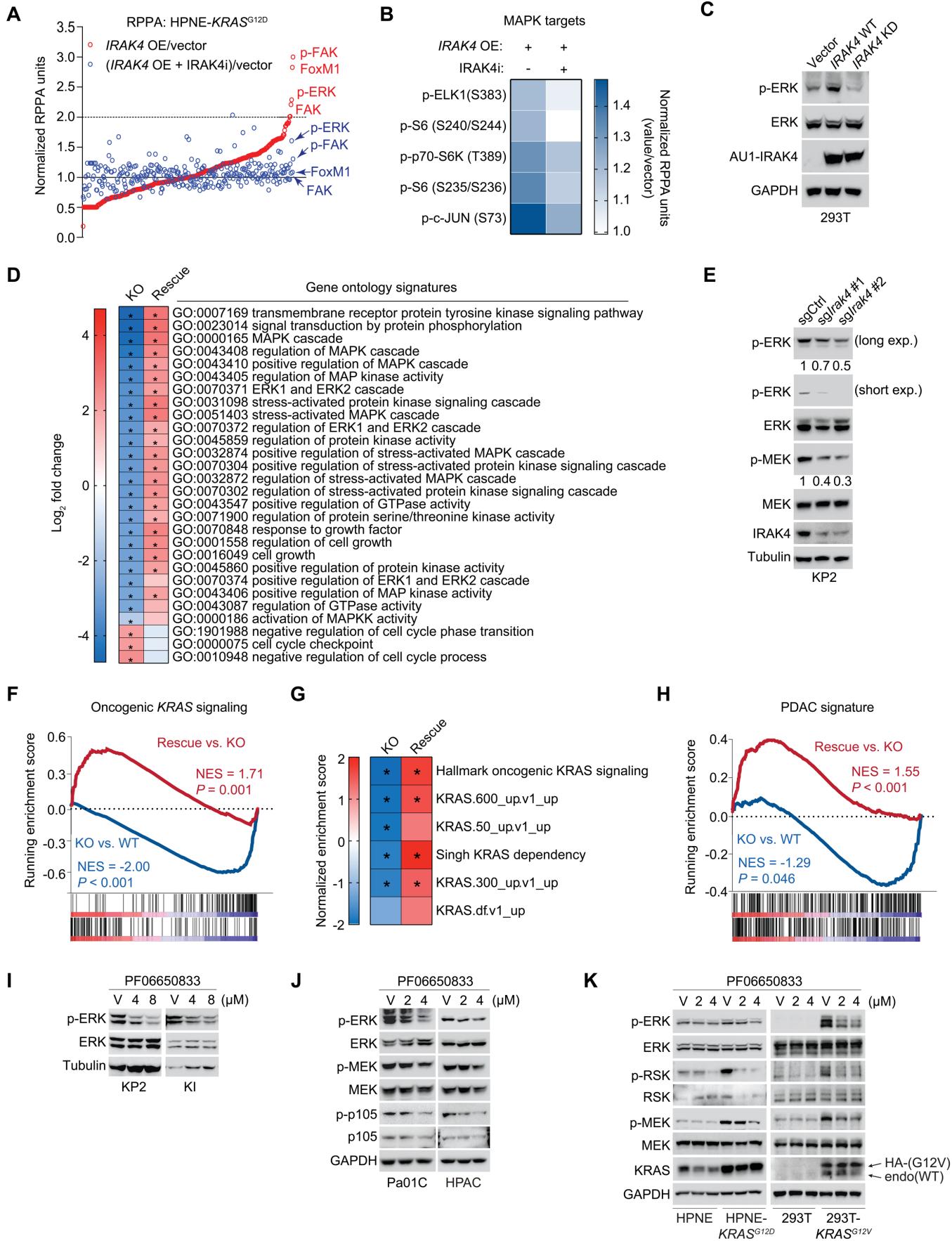
860  
870

875

880

885

**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 $\mu$ m; inset shows magnified boxed portion of full images with scale bar measuring 10 $\mu$ m.

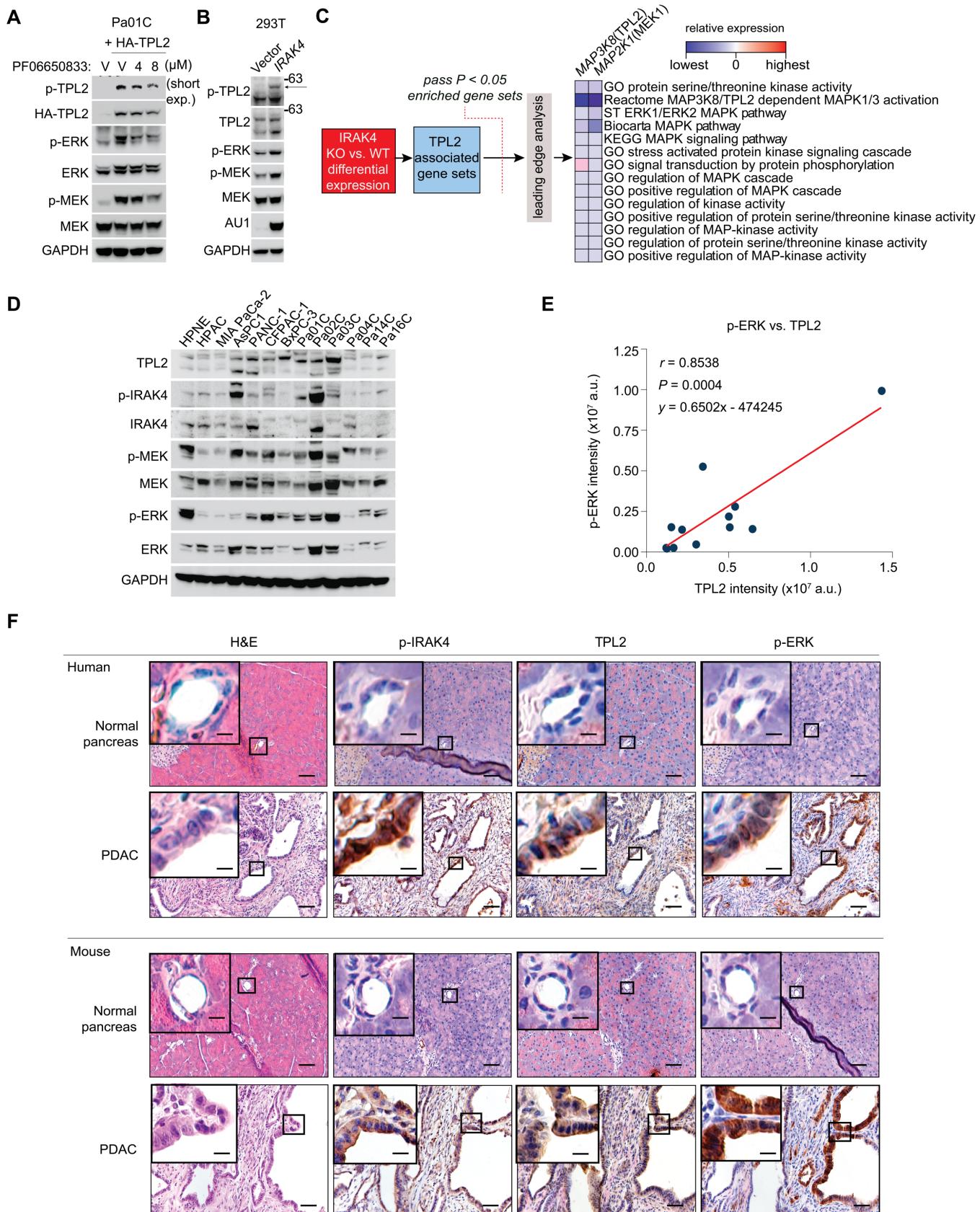
900  
905

910

915

920

Figure 3



930 **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\*(% of strongly stained area) + 2\*(% of strongly stained area) + 1\*(% 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. \*\*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.0002$ , \*\* $P < 0.0021$ , \* $P < 0.0332$ .

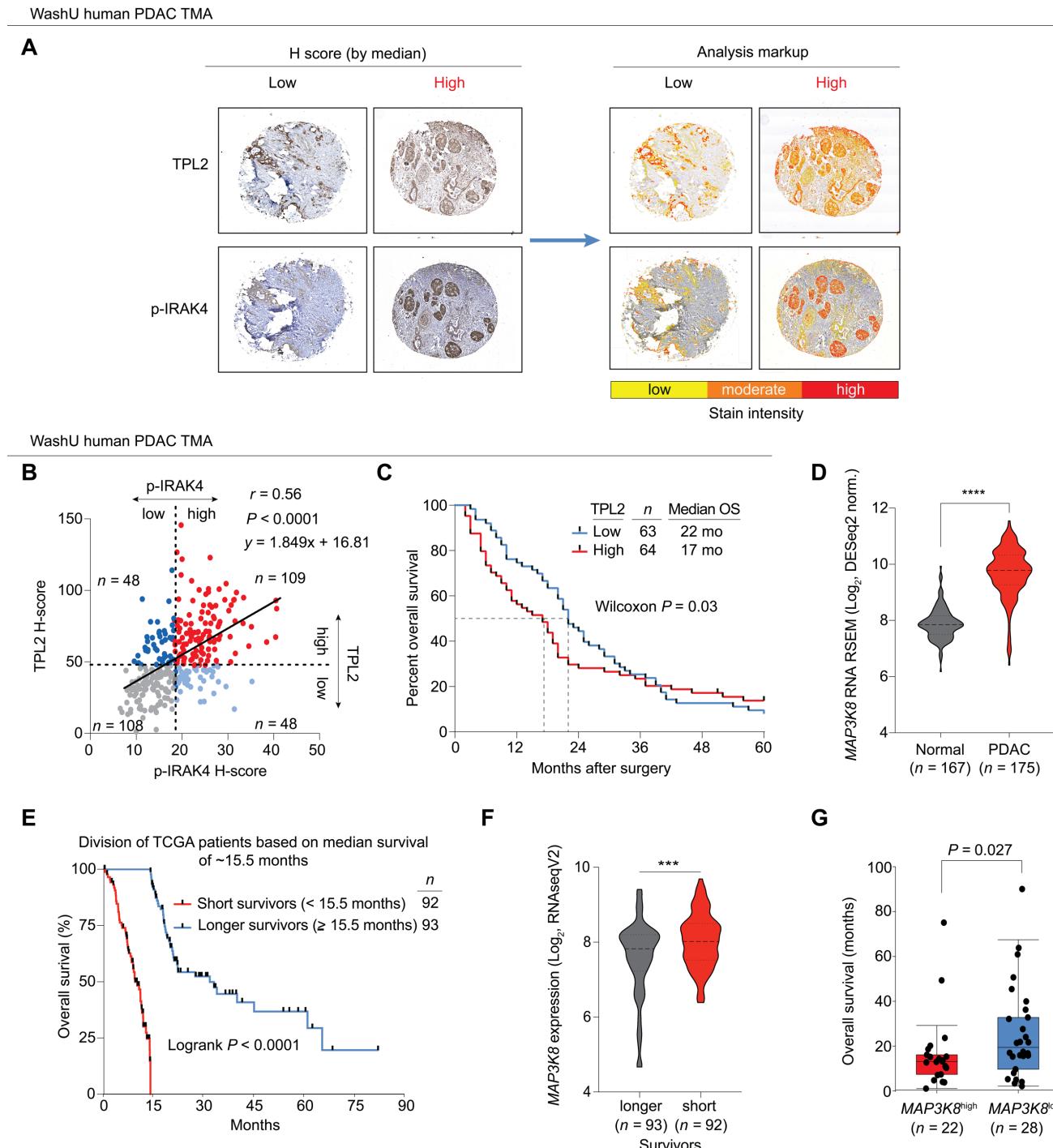
945

950

955

960

**Figure 4**



965

970

Figure 5. TPL2 drives both MAPK and NF $\kappa$ B signaling in PDAC

(A) Gene set enrichment plots for patients with high (z score > 1, n = 22) and low (z score < 1, n = 28)

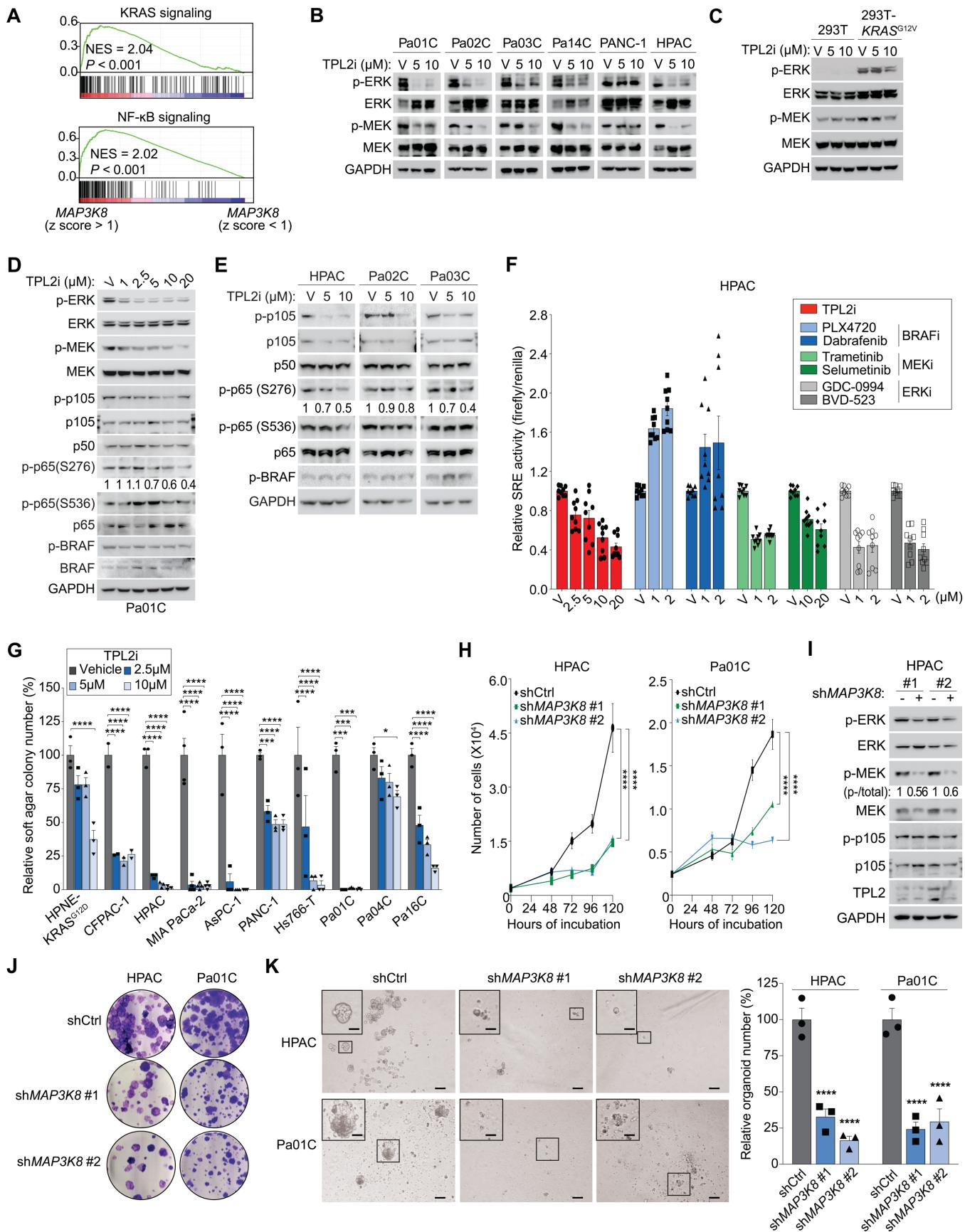
975 MAP3K8 expression from TCGA Firehose legacy study. (B) Immunoblots of KRAS mutant human PDAC cell lines treated with TPL2 inhibitor (TPL2i) for 36 hours in serum-free media. (C) Immunoblots of 293T and 293T-KRAS<sup>G12V</sup> cells treated with TPL2i for 24 hours in serum-free condition. (D) Immunoblots 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, 980 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 985 WT or MAP3K8 (TPL2) knockdown HPAC cells. (I) Quantification of HPAC and Pa01C cell proliferation after TPL2 knockdown with shRNA (shMAP3K8). 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 100 $\mu$ m for full image, and 25 $\mu$ m for magnified inset. Graph on right is quantification of number of organoids formed in three 990 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.

995

1000

1005

**Figure 5**



1010 **Figure 6. KRAS induces autocrine IL-1 $\beta$  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  $MAP3K8^{\text{high}}$  patients, shown also in box-plot on right. (C) Immunoblots of HEK- $KRAS^{G12V}$  cells treated with anti-hIL-1 $\beta$  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 $\beta$  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 $\beta$  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.

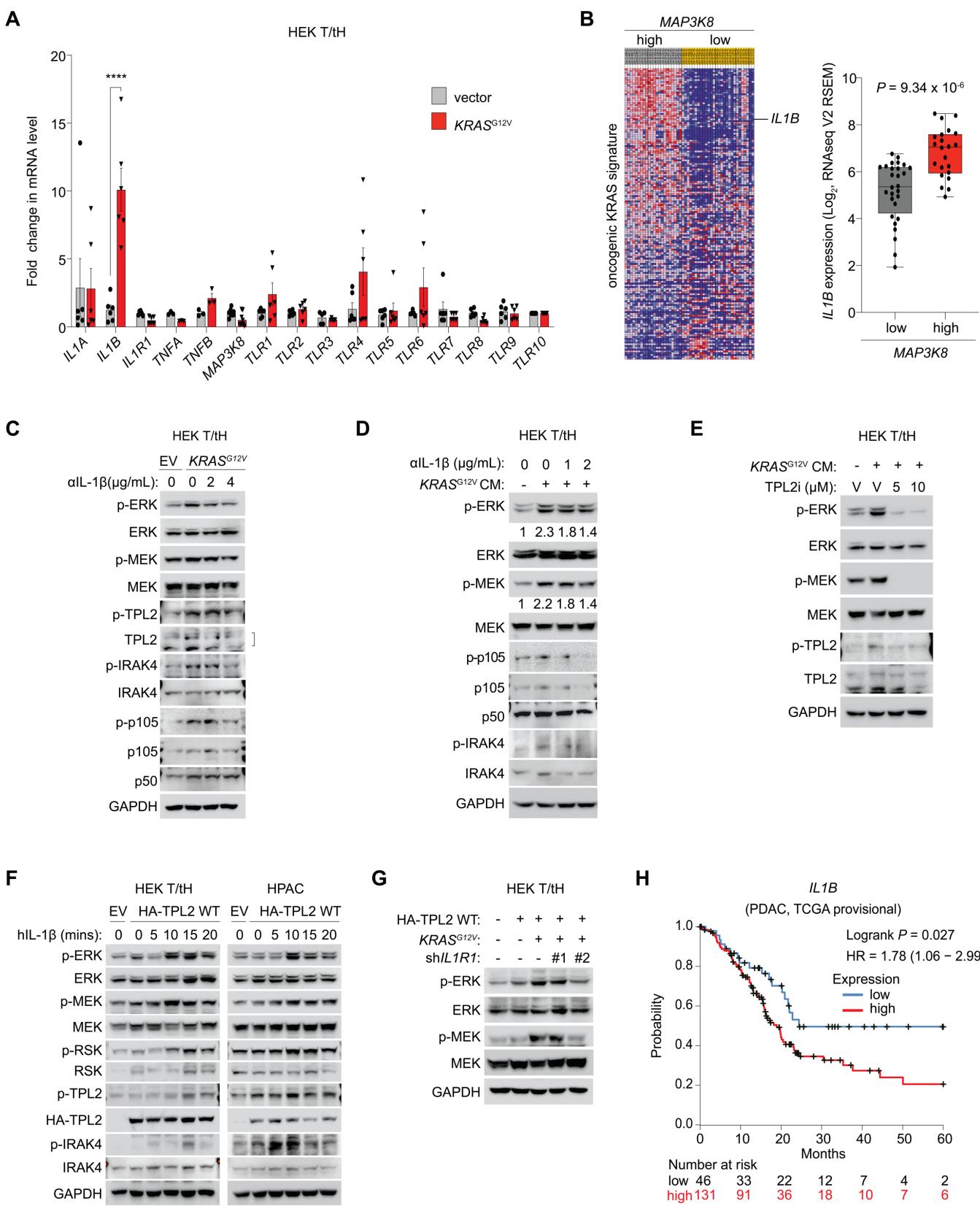
1025

1030

1035

1040

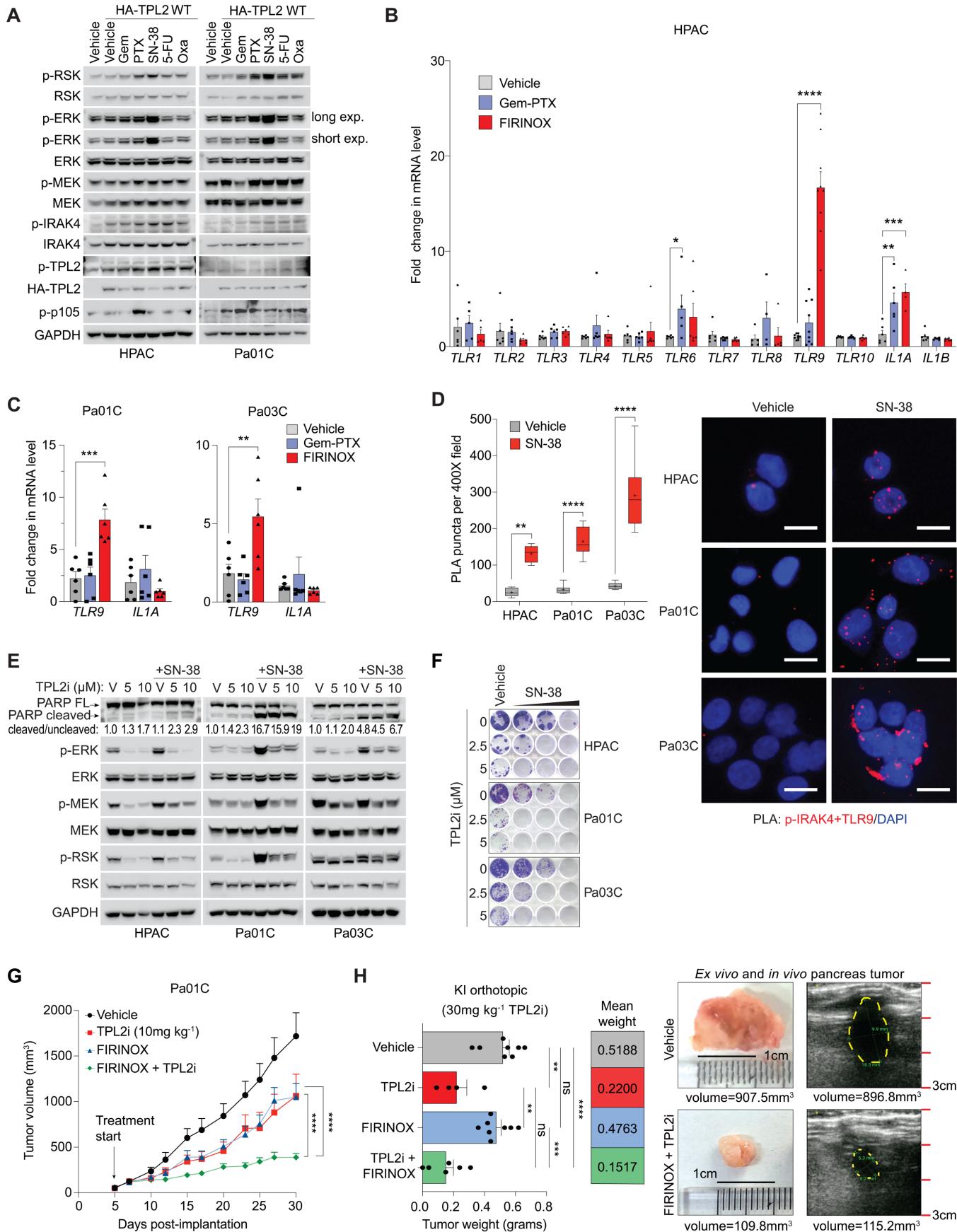
Figure 6



**Figure 7. TPL2 inhibition potentiates chemotherapy by curbing MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ B activation**

1050 (A) Immunoblots of two PDAC cell lines overexpressing HA epitope-tagged TPL2 WT treated for 16 hours with different chemotherapy agents (10 $\mu$ 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 $\mu$ 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 $\mu$ M SN-38 for 16 hours. Six 1055 400X magnification fields per condition were analyzed. Scale bars represent 10 $\mu$ 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 1060 experiment out of  $\geq$ 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 1065 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)

1075 activity and NF $\kappa$ B 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)**

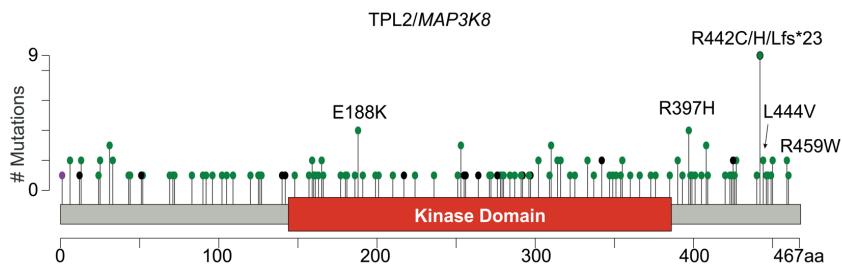
Heat map representing relative expression in Log<sub>2</sub> units of proteins evaluated by reverse-phase protein array of 293T cells transfected with empty vector (EV, control) or vector encoding HA-tagged TPL2 WT

1080 or TPL2 E188K in duplicate ( $n = 2$ ) for 48 hours. **(E)** Relative abundance (in Log<sub>2</sub> 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

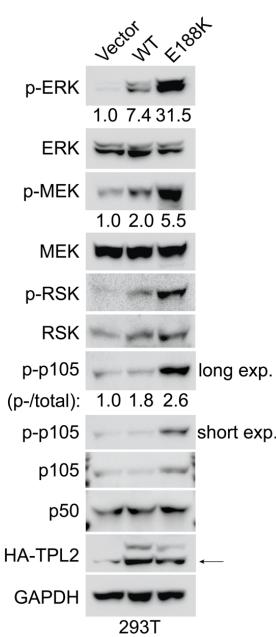
bars indicate mean  $\pm$  SEM; \*\*\*\* $P$ <0.0001, \*\*\* $P$ <0.0002, \*\* $P$ <0.0021, \* $P$ <0.0332.

**Figure 8**

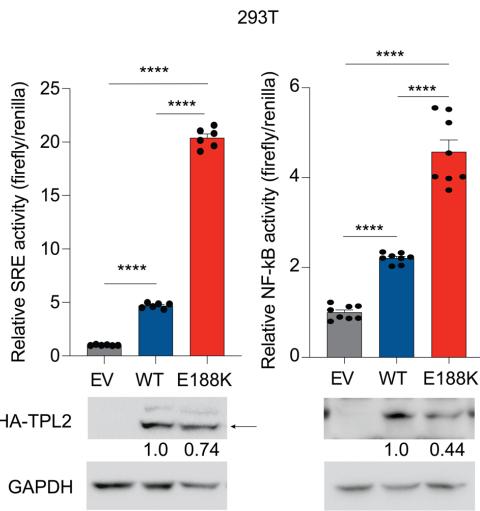
**A**



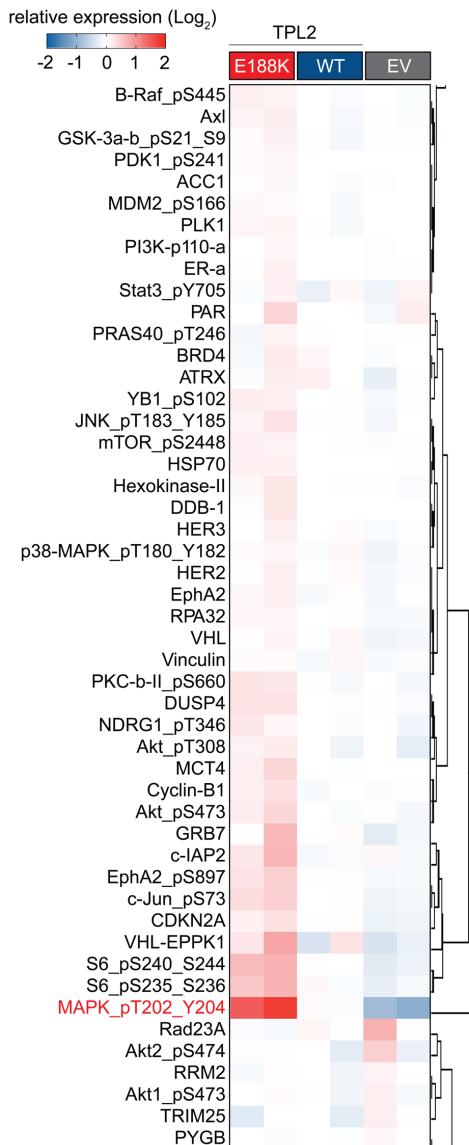
**B**



**C**

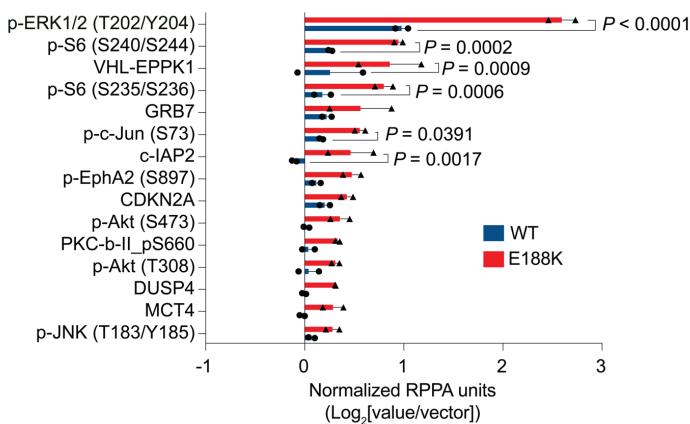


**D**



**E**

RPPA: top 15 up-regulated markers



1090 **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  $10\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  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  $10\mu\text{M}$  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  $\text{GI}_{50}$  of PLX4032 in  $\text{Log}_{10}$  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; \*\*\*\* $P<0.0001$ , \*\*\* $P<0.0002$ , \*\* $P<0.0021$ , \* $P<0.0332$ .

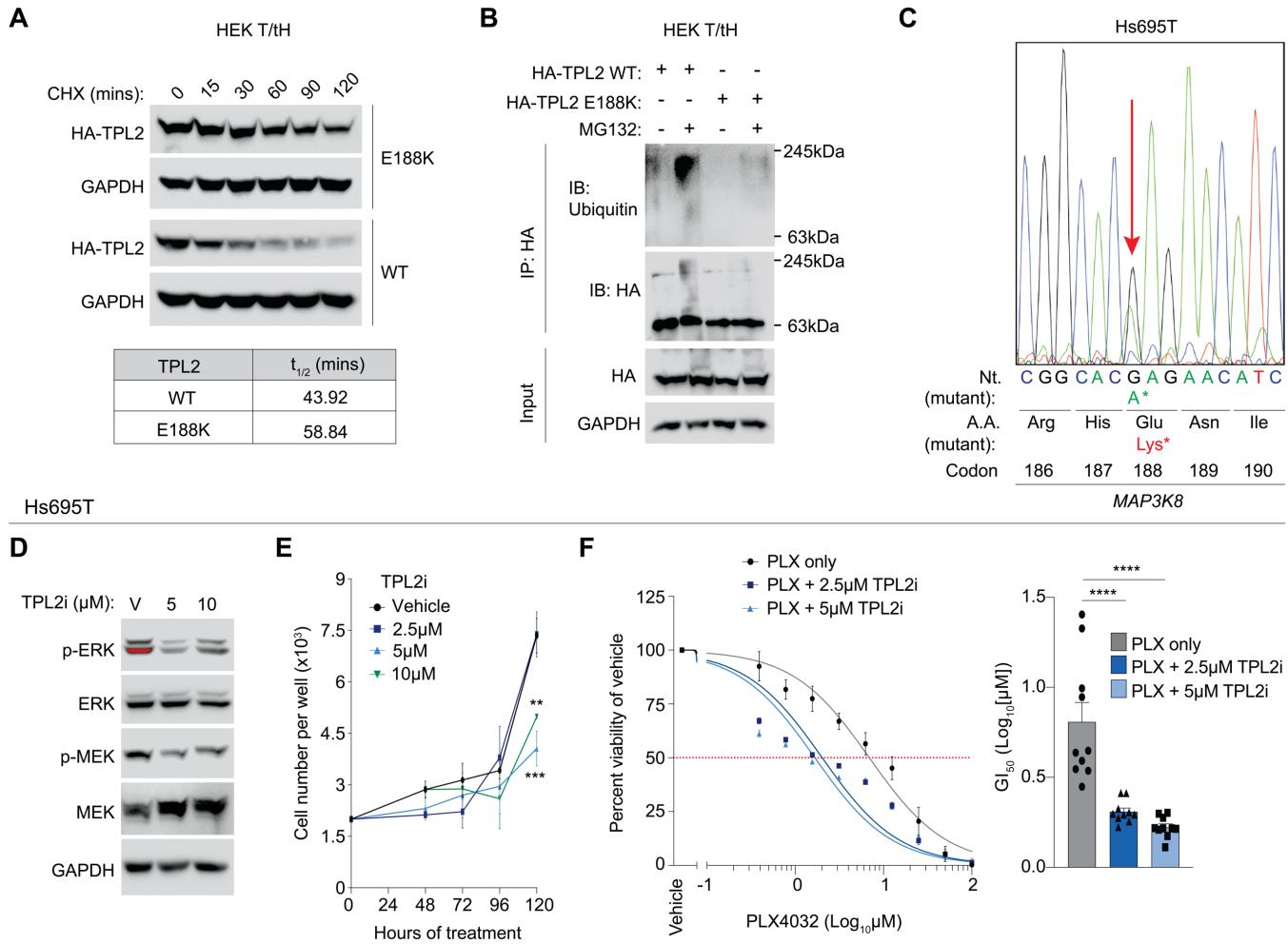
1105

1110

1115

1120

**Figure 9**



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 $\mu$ 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 $\mu$ M) for 4 hours. One of  $\geq 2$  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 $\mu$ 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.

1165

1170

1175

**Figure 10**

