



Germline *Brca2* Heterozygosity Promotes *Kras* G12D - Driven Carcinogenesis in a Murine Model of Familial Pancreatic Cancer

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DOI 10.1016/j.ccr.2010.10.015

SUMMARY

Inherited heterozygous BRCA2 mutations predispose carriers to tissue-specific cancers, but somatic deletion of the wild-type allele is considered essential for carcinogenesis. We find in a murine model of familial pancreatic cancer that germline heterozygosity for a pathogenic Brca2 truncation suffices to promote pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas (PDACs) driven by *Kras*^{G12D}, irrespective of *Trp53* status. Unexpectedly, tumor cells retain a functional Brca2 allele. Correspondingly, three out of four PDACs from patients inheriting BRCA2999del5 did not exhibit loss-of-heterozygosity (LOH). Three tumors from these patients displaying LOH were acinar carcinomas, which also developed only in mice with biallelic Brca2 inactivation. We suggest a revised model for tumor suppression by BRCA2 with implications for the therapeutic strategy targeting BRCA2 mutant cancer cells.

INTRODUCTION

The BRCA2 tumor suppressor gene encodes a nuclear protein of 3418 residues (3328 in the mouse) with a pivotal role in the maintenance of chromosome stability via homology-directed DNA repair (reviewed in Venkitaraman, 2009). Concordant with the "two-hit" paradigm for tumor suppression (Knudson, 1971), somatic deletion of the wild-type BRCA2 allele has been reported to occur consistently in breast or ovarian cancer cells from mutation carriers (Collins et al., 1995; Gudmundsson et al., 1995) and is therefore regarded as an essential event in carcinogenesis. This principle underlies the clinical use of

PARP1 inhibitors, because these drugs selectively kill BRCA2null but not BRCA2-heterozygous cells in vitro (Audeh et al., 2010; Bryant et al., 2005; Farmer et al., 2005; Fong et al., 2009; 2010; Tutt et al., 2010).

Germline carriers of deleterious BRCA2 mutations that commonly truncate the encoded protein exhibit an increased lifetime risk of developing pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC), in addition to their well-known predisposition to cancers of the breast and ovary (Breast Cancer Linkage Consortium 1999). Within high-risk pancreatic cancer kindreds, inherited mutations in BRCA2 may represent the most frequently encountered germline genetic alteration (Couch et al., 2007; Hahn et al.,

Significance

Our findings raise the possibility that, contrary to current understanding, BRCA2 LOH may not be essential for pancreatic ductal carcinogenesis in mutation carriers, and a significant proportion of tumors in these patients may retain a functional BRCA2 allele. If so, therapeutic agents that selectively kill BRCA2-deficient cancer cells, such as poly-ADP-ribose polymerase (PARP1) inhibitors, should preferably be used after tumor LOH has been confirmed. Our findings also suggest that biallelic BRCA2 inactivation promotes a distinct tumor type, acinar carcinoma of the pancreas, that might therefore be more vulnerable to targeted therapies. Our work revises the conceptual understanding of tissue-specific carcinogenesis associated with BRCA2 mutations and may help to improve the design of clinical trials using targeted agents.

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2003). Some apparently sporadic pancreatic cancers are also found to harbor germline *BRCA2* mutations, because a positive family history is frequently lacking (Goggins et al., 1996). More recently, *PALB2*, which encodes a BRCA2-interacting protein also essential for homology-directed DNA repair, has emerged as a pancreatic cancer-susceptibility allele (Jones et al., 2009). Although these findings collectively highlight its potential importance, the role played by *BRCA2* inactivation in pancreatic carcinogenesis remains unclear.

Several of the most frequent genetic events underlying the initiation and progression of human pancreatic cancer have been identified (Hezel et al., 2006; Maitra and Hruban, 2008). Notably, activating mutations in the *KRAS* proto-oncogene occur in > 90% of PDAC (Caldas and Kern, 1995) and are considered as a key driver for pancreatic carcinogenesis, whereas mutations inactivating the *TP53* gene occur in 50%–75% of patients (Redston et al., 1994). A cooperative effect between *Kras* activation and *Trp53* inactivation in promoting pancreatic carcinogenesis has been demonstrated in murine models (Hingorani et al., 2005). Here, we have exploited these findings to develop a mouse model for familial pancreatic cancer associated with *BRCA2* inactivation.

RESULTS

We utilized the well-validated KPC murine model of PDAC (Hingorani et al., 2003, 2005; Olive et al., 2004, 2009), in which Cre-loxP recombination in Pdx1-CRE (C) expressing pancreatic progenitors directs the tissue-specific activation of endogenous oncogenic Kras G12D (K), with or without concurrent expression of the Trp53^{R270H} (P) dominant-negative contact mutant. We introduced into this setting two distinct mutant alleles of Brca2 (B). The first encodes the germline-truncating allele Brca2^{Tr} (abbreviated Tr), which terminates the encoded protein at amino acid (aa) 1492, and mimics known pathogenic mutations in human BRCA2 associated with pancreatic cancer (Friedman et al., 1998; Hahn et al., 2003). This allele emulates BRCA2 heterozygosity in all somatic tissues, characteristic of human mutation carriers. The second allele is a conditional Brca2 deletion (abbreviated F11), in which loxP sites flank the evolutionarily conserved Brca2 exon 11 that encodes binding sites for the Rad51 recombinase (Wong et al., 1997) and is critical for Brca2's function in DNA repair (Chen et al., 1998). This enables Cre-mediated exon 11 deletion (abbreviated Δ 11) in specific tissues, emulating the loss-of-heterozygosity (LOH) observed in human cancers by gross genomic rearrangements in BRCA2 (Jonkers et al., 2001). Experimental mice were maintained on a mixed C57BL/6; 129; FVB/N genetic background, and all experiments were performed using littermate controls in order to ensure that comparisons were between mice on the same genetic background. Figure 1A schematically represents the alleles used to engineer KPCB and KCB strains (i.e., with or without Trp53^{R270H}), harboring the different Brca2 genotypes.

Cre expression in the Pdx1-defined pancreatic anlagen led to efficient recombination of all conditional alleles. This was verified by allele-specific polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) for the $Kras^{1-loxP}$, $Trp53^{1-loxP}$, $Brca2^{F11}$ and $Brca2^{\Delta 11}$ alleles in DNA extracted from microdissected cancerous ducts and early passage PDAC cell lines from $KPCB^{Tr/\Delta 11}$ mice (Figure 1B).

Consistent with previous observations, loss of the wild-type *Trp53* allele was a universal event in tumors expressing mutant Trp53^{R270H}.

As expected, neither heterozygous nor homozygous *Brca2* inactivation in the murine pancreas was sufficient for pancreatic carcinogenesis without the concurrent expression of Kras^{G12D}. This is evident irrespective of Trp53 status, even after prolonged follow up (see Figure S1 available online), suggesting that Kras activation is necessary to initiate pancreatic carcinogenesis in this model.

Homozygous *Brca2* inactivation in the KPCB^{Tr/Δ11} strain caused PDAC at a high penetrance, with a rapid and predictable clinical decline (median PDAC-free survival 84 days, range 48-110 days) compared with the KPCB cohort carrying wildtype Brca2 (median PDAC-free survival 168 days, range 60-254 days) (Figure 1C). Remarkably, however, germline heterozygosity for the truncating allele Brca2^{Tr} in the KPCB^{Tr/WT} strain also curtailed PDAC-free survival compared with KPCB animals who had wild-type Brca2 (median PDAC-free survival 143 days, range 91-191 days; p = 0.0013, log-rank test) (Figure 1C). Germline heterozygosity for Brca2Tr was sufficient to promote carcinogenesis, even in KCBTr/WT mice with wild-type Trp53 and mutant Kras G12D, a background in which frank pancreatic cancer is reported to develop less readily (Hingorani et al., 2003). Thus, there is a statistically significant reduction in the PDAC-free survival of KCBTr/WT mice in comparison with KCB controls with wild-type Brca2 (p = 0.0149, log rank test) (Figure 1D). A similar cancer-promoting effect for germline Brca2 heterozygosity has not hitherto been reported in any constitutive or conditional murine model of Brca2 deficiency.

Interestingly, in KCB^{Tr/ Δ 11} mice with wild-type *Trp53*, *Pdx1*-Cre mediated loss of the second Brca2 allele in the pancreas frequently caused pancreatic insufficiency, necessitating the sacrifice of 25% of the animals in this cohort (8/32) at a median age of 63.5 days (range 51-121). We observed a spectrum of histological anomalies, from isolated paucity of the islets of Langerhans to complete fibro-inflammatory or cystic degeneration of both the endocrine and exocrine pancreas (Figure 2A). This suggests that many Brca2-deficient cells expressing Kras^{G12D} in these compartments cannot survive when Trp53dependent cell cycle checkpoints responsive to DNA breakage are intact, in agreement with prior observations in other experimental systems (Ludwig et al., 1997). Consistent with this inference, pancreata from 6 day old KCB^{Tr/Δ11} neonatal mice exhibit both a marked increase in the abundance of apoptotic cells as well as in staining for the phosphorylated form of the variant histone H2AX, a marker for double-strand DNA breaks, when compared with KCBWT/WT, KCBTr/WT, CBWT/WT, or CBTr/WT littermate controls (Figure S2). Interestingly, animals in this cohort that did not succumb to pancreatic insufficiency later developed PDAC with a moderate latency and incomplete penetrance, but nevertheless exhibited significantly shortened PDAC-free survival compared with KCB controls with wild-type Brca2 (p = 0.0114, log rank test) (Figure 1D).

Pancreatic tumors originating in the setting of *Brca2* heterozygosity (with or without mutant *Trp53*) displayed histological features remarkably similar to human pancreatic cancers. Most had a morphology closely resembling human PDAC, with abundant desmoplastic stroma surrounding the cancerous glands



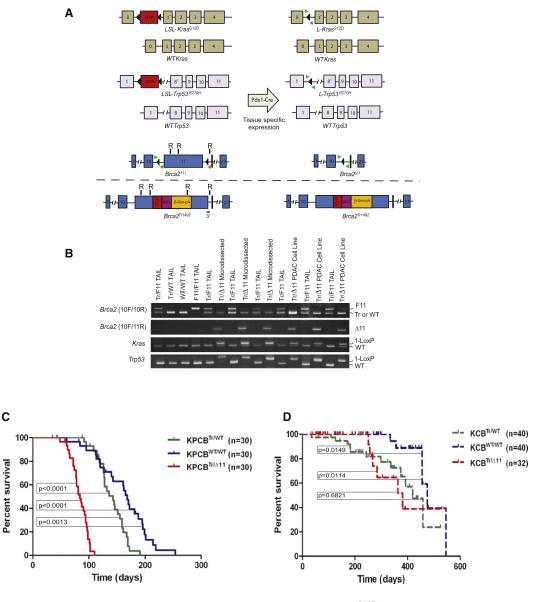


Figure 1. Brca2 Mutations Promote Pancreatic Carcinogenesis Driven by Oncogenic Kras G12D with or without Concurrent Mutant Trp53^{R270H} Expression

(A) Schematic representation of the targeted alleles before and after Cre-mediated recombination. The *Brca2*^{Tr} allele (bottom) is expressed in all somatic tissues. (B) Recombination of the conditional alleles in cell lines and microdissected cancerous ducts from KPCB^{Tr/Δ11} mice revealed by semiquantitative PCR. Tail DNA is used as a control. PCR primer pairs are indicated by red arrows in (A); their sequences are in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. (C and D) Kaplan-Meier estimates of PDAC-free survival in aging KPCB (C) and KCB (D) cohorts. The *Brca2* genotype is indicated. The log rank test was used for all the indicated statistical comparisons. The only pair-wise comparison that is not statistically significant is marked p = 0.6821.See also Figure S1.

(Figures 2B and 2C). These tumors evolved along the pancreatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PanIN) cascade (Figures 3A–3F), well characterized in human pancreatic cancers (Hruban et al., 2001), and exhibited characteristic patterns of invasive growth and metastatic behavior (Figures 3G–3L). Less common histological variants of human pancreatic cancer, predominantly undifferentiated carcinoma with sarcomatoid and anaplastic features, were also represented (Figures 2D and 2E). Prominent intra-tumoral heterogeneity was frequently present, with distinct histological appearances often evident in adjacent regions of the

same tumor. Interestingly, the KPCB^{Tr/ Δ 11} cohort, which carries biallelic *Brca2* mutations, uniquely developed an acinar-cell carcinoma component in \sim 18% of assessable cases (5/28), not observed in the other cohorts with *Brca2* heterozygosity (Figures 2F–2H). Furthermore, one tumor within this cohort (1/28) displayed a small component with prominent immunohistochemical positivity for chromogranin A, characteristic of endocrine neoplasms (Figure 3J; data not shown). Collectively, our observations suggest that *Brca2* inactivation promotes the evolution of oncogenic *Kras*-driven pancreatic malignancies



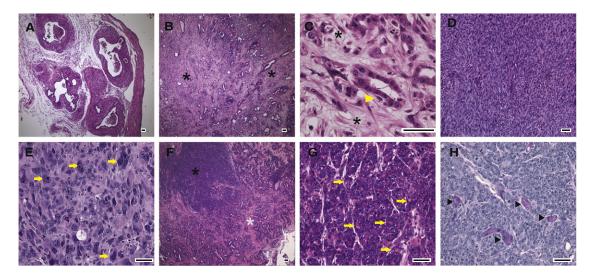


Figure 2. Representative Histological Appearances of Pancreatic Malignancies in KPCB and KCB Mice

(A) Intense fibro-inflammatory obliteration of the normal acinar structure with ductal cystic dilatation, replacing the pancreatic parenchyma in a 62 day old KCB^{Tr/Δ11} mouse with clinical signs of pancreatic insufficiency.

- (B) Classical "haphazard" growth pattern of a well-differentiated PDAC in a 4 month old KPCB^{Tr/WT} mouse. Abundant desmoplastic stroma surrounds the cancerous ducts (*).
- (C) High-magnification image of a moderately differentiated adenocarcinoma. The irregular glandular structures, composed of moderately pleomorphic cells (yellow arrowhead), are surrounded by desmoplastic stroma (*).
- (D) A sarcomatoid tumor from the KPCB^{Tr/Δ11} strain, with mildly pleomorphic spindle cells arranged in intervening fascicles.
- (E) Anaplastic pancreatic cancer. Note the completely bizarre nuclei and the characteristic noncohesive growth pattern of malignant cells in this histological subtype (yellow arrow).
- (F) Ductal-type adenocarcinoma (white asterisk) coexists with an acinar-cell carcinoma (*) within the same imaging field in a 3.5 month old KPCB^{Tr/Δ11} mouse. (G) Higher-power view of acinar-cell carcinoma from a second KPCB^{Tr/Δ11} mouse showing malignant cells with granular eosinophilic apical cytoplasm (and frequently a single prominent nucleolus); several minute lumina, resembling normal acini (yellow arrow), are evident and intervening stroma is scarce.
- (H) Foci of intracytoplasmic granular positivity with dPAS staining (arrowhead) within an acinar-cell carcinoma from a different KPCB^{Tr/ Δ 11} mouse. Scale bar = 50 μ m. See also Figure S2.

in mice that are strikingly similar to their human counterparts, providing a valuable resource for future studies. Table 1 summarizes the features and histological characteristics of PDAC arising in the different cohorts.

To validate our conclusion that Brca2 heterozygosity suffices to promote carcinogenesis driven by oncogenic Kras in the pancreas, we gathered multiple independent lines of evidence to confirm that the remaining wild-type Brca2 allele had been retained in tumors from KPCBTr/WT and KCBTr/WT animals. mRNA prepared from early passage cell lines derived from a panel of KPCBTr/WT tumors was analyzed by quantitative reverse-transcription (RT)-PCR using a primer pair that amplifies a segment in the 3' region of the Brca2 mRNA (expected to be absent in transcripts from the Brca2Tr allele). The analysis showed that wild-type Brca2 mRNA was expressed in these tumors at approximately half the levels observed in a control KPCB cell line carrying wild-type Brca2, consistent with transcription from a retained wild-type Brca2 locus in the heterozygous tumors (Figure 4A). Western blotting for murine Brca2 protein using an N-terminal antibody confirmed expression of full-length Brca2 protein in heterozygous tumors (Figure 4B). Southern blots of genomic DNA extracted from snap-frozen whole pancreatic tumors arising in strains heterozygous for Brca2 further demonstrated that the wild-type allele was retained in vivo (Figure 4C; Figure S3A), arguing against the possibility

that tumors with Brca2 deletion were present but failed to grow out in ex vivo cultures. Finally, two distinct assays confirmed that the retained Brca2 allele could express a functional Brca2 protein. Accumulation of the RAD51 enzyme in nuclear foci induced by DNA damage requires functional BRCA2 (Yuan et al., 1999). Indeed, tumor-derived cell lines from KPCBTr/WT mice heterozygous for Brca2 robustly induce Rad51 nuclear foci when exposed to mitomycin C (MMC), a genotoxin known to engage Brca2-dependent DNA repair. In contrast, baseline and MMC-induced nuclear Rad51 foci were suppressed in tumor-derived cell lines from KPCBTr/Δ11 mice lacking both Brca2 alleles (Figures 4D and 4E). Similarly, KPCBTr/WT tumor cell lines with a retained Brca2 allele were more resistant to MMC and the poly-ADP-ribose polymerase (PARP1) inhibitor Olaparib than similar cell lines from KPCBTr/Δ11 mice lacking both Brca2 alleles (Figures 4F and 4G; Figures S3B-S3D), in agreement with previous reports (Farmer et al., 2005; van der Heijden et al., 2005). Collectively, our findings offer strong evidence that PDACs arising in strains heterozygous for Brca2 mutations retain a functional second allele.

It is noteworthy that 24 of the 26 PDAC tumors arising in the KPCB^{Tr/WT} animals included in our survival analysis demonstrated retention of the wild-type allele. DNA from one tumor was unavailable, whereas another tumor exhibited apparent LOH (Figure S3A). Their exclusion did not alter our statistical



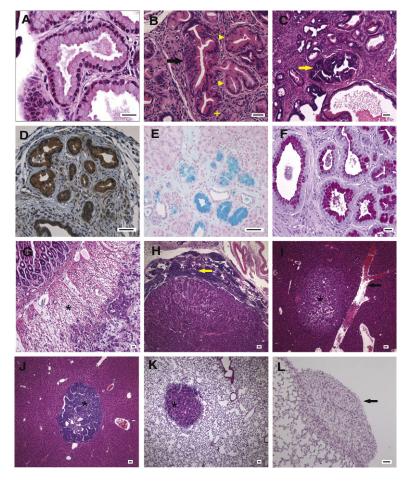


Figure 3. Murine Tumors Faithfully Recapitulate the **Histological Progression and Metastatic Propensities** of Human PDAC

(A) PanIN-1A in a 4 month old KCBWT/WT mouse.

(B) PanIN-2 (arrow) surrounded by PanIN-1A (yellow arrowhead) and PanIN-1B (yellow cross) in a 8.75 month old KCB^{Tr/WT} mouse.

(C) PanIN-3 (yellow arrow) in a 6.25 month old KPCBTr/WT

(D-F) Positive immunostaining for Cytokeratin-19 confirms the ductal phenotype of PanIN lesions that also stain positive with the Alcian blue (E) and dPAS (F) histochemical stains due to their high mucin content.

(G) Prominent duodenal invasion in a moderately-differentiated KPCB^{Tr/WT} tumor (*).

(H) Involvement of a peripancreatic lymph node by a moderately/poorly differentiated pancreatic adenocarcinoma (yellow

(I and J) Liver metastases (*) from a poorly differentiated PDAC (I) and predominantly endocrine (J) neoplasm. Note the blood vessel in close anatomical proximity to the tubular metastasis

(K and L) (K) Parenchymal lung metastasis (*) and (L) pleural metastasis (arrow). Scale bar = 50 μm.

We traced seven known cases of pancreatic cancer (Table 2) arising in carriers of the 999del5 allele through the Icelandic Cancer Registry. Four of these tumors represent typical PDACs (Figures 5A-5D) whereas the remaining three were characterized as acinar cell carcinomas based on their morphology, immunohistochemical positivity for chymotrypsin and trypsin, and their lack of expression of ductal or endocrine markers (Figures 5E-5H; data not shown). DNA samples

extracted from microdissected cancerous ducts were analyzed for allelic ratios of the wild-type and mutant BRCA2 alleles using allele-specific PCR, which strongly correlates with changes in copy number over the entire BRCA2 locus by array CGH (Figure S4). Remarkably, three out of the four tumor samples with typical ductal histology (75%) did not exhibit LOH at the mutation site. On the contrary, all three acinar carcinomas demonstrated LOH for BRCA2999 del5 (Figure 5I and Table 2; Figure S4).

conclusions from the survival analysis, ruling out the possibility that loss of the wild-type Brca2 allele in a very small fraction of $\mathsf{KPCB}^\mathsf{Tr/WT}$ tumors might account for the observed differences.

A founder mutation in human BRCA2 (999del5) has an allele frequency of $\sim 0.6\%$ in the general population of Iceland, but accounts for about 40% of familial breast and ovarian cancer cases in this population (Thorlacius et al., 1996, 1997). $\textit{BRCA2}^{999~\text{del}5}$ encodes an unstable protein that is undetectable in cells heterozygous for the allele (Mikaelsdottir et al., 2004).

			PDAC-free survival		Histology			
Genotype	n	PDAC	Median	Range	Tubular	Sarcomatoid	Anaplastic	Acinar
KPCB ^{WT/WT}	30	24	168	60–254	92 (92)	8 (21)	0 (4)	0 (0)
KPCB ^{Tr/WT}	30	26	143	91–191	96 (100)	4 (15)	0 (4)	0 (0)
KPCB ^{Tr/Δ11}	30	29	84	48–110	82 (100)	18 (54)	0 (7)	0 (18)
KCB ^{WT/WT}	40	6	N/A	N/A	83 (100)	17 (50)	0 (0)	0 (0)
KCB ^{Tr/WT}	40	12	N/A	N/A	100 (100)	0 (17)	0 (0)	0 (0)
KCB ^{Tr/∆11}	32	6	N/A	N/A	83 (100)	17 (33)	0 (17)	0 (0)

In assessing the contributions of different histological appearances, the reported numbers refer to the percentage of tumors within each cohort where the particular histology predominates (occupies more than 50% of the total tumor area), whereas numbers in parentheses represent the percentage of tumors with any component of the indicated histology present. Percentage calculations are based on the numbers of histologically assessable tumors within each cohort.



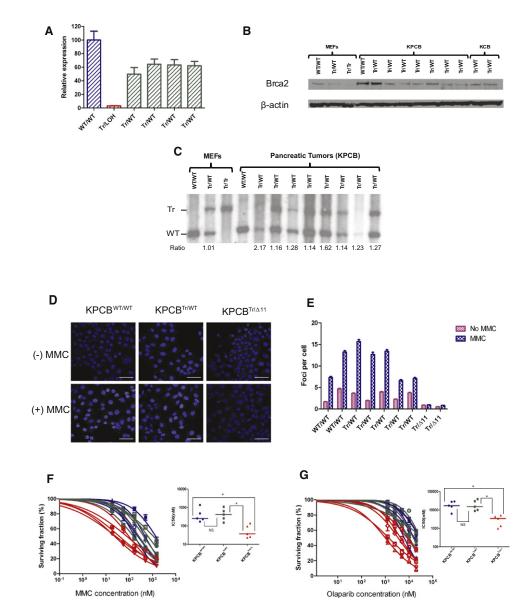


Figure 4. Retention of a Functional Brca2 Allele in PDAC Cell Lines and Tumors from Brca2 Heterozygote Mice

(A) Quantitative RT-PCR was performed on mRNA from KPCB PDAC lines of the specified genotypes, using primers recognizing the 3' end of murine Brca2 (Brca2 22 Forward, Brca2 24 Reverse). "Tr/LOH" refers to a KCB^{Tr/Δ11} PDAC line used as control (which has lost Brca2 genomic sequences 5' to the loxP site within intron 10). The graph shows Ct values normalized to the Ct values of Gapdh as a percent change compared with a PDAC line homozygous for wild-type Brca2. Error bars represent standard deviation (SD) from the mean of triplicate reactions.

- (B) Western blot of murine Brca2 protein using an antibody against the N-terminal region in whole cell lysates from KPCB $^{Tr/WT}$ and KCB $^{Tr/WT}$ lines. β -actin serves as a loading control.
- (C) Southern blot of EcoRI-digested tumor DNA using a 3' probe, external to the IRES-βGeo-pA cassette. Densitometry was used to quantify the ratio of the intensity of the lower (3.1kb) band, representing the wild-type allele to that of the upper (3.9kb) band corresponding to mutant Brca2.
- (D) Representative confocal images (x400) of Rad51 nuclear foci induced in KPCB lines by exposure to 100 ng/ml MMC for 24 hr. Scale bar = 50 µm.
- (E) A graph quantifying the experiments depicted in (D) using the Cellomics HCS Arrayscan VTI (ThermoFisher) shows the average number of nuclear Rad51 foci per cell (n \geq 800 cells in each sample). DAPI-stained nuclei are shown in blue, whereas Rad51 foci are represented in white. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (SEM) from 20 imaging fields per sample.

(F and G) Viability curves of representative KPCB lines following exposure for 72 hr either to Mitomycin C (F) or the PARP1 inhibitor, Olaparib (G). Error bars represent SD from the mean value from quintuplicate wells. Median IC50 values for MMC and Olaparib differed significantly across the three groups (KPCB carrying $wild-type \textit{Brca2}, KPCB^{Tr/WT}, and KPCB^{Tr/\Delta 11}) (p=0.0090 \ and \ p=0.0092, respectively; Kruskal-Wallis \ test). \ Dunn's \ post-test \ was \ used for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ comparisons \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ post-test \ was \ used \ for \ individual \ post-test \$ between the three groups (n = 5 for each group). Asterisks denote statistical significance at p < 0.05. See also Figure S3.



Table 2. Clinical Features and BRCA2999del5 LOH Analysis in Seven Pancreatic Cancer Cases from Confirmed Carriers of this Icelandic **Founder Mutation**

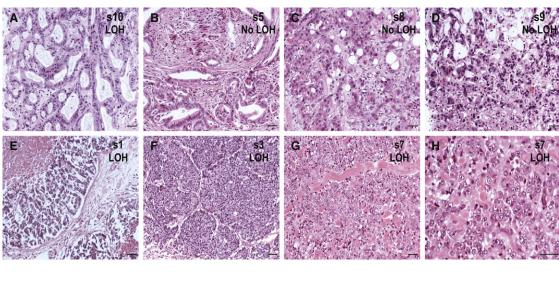
Sample		Age at	LOH at		
identifier	Sex	diagnosis	BRCA2 ^{999 del5}	Histology	Other pathologies
s1	М	70	Υ	Acinar-cell carcinoma (head)	N/A
s7	F	59	Υ	Acinar-cell carcinoma (head)	Lobular breast cancer (58)
s5	М	43	N	Adenocarcinoma (moderately differentiated)	N/A
s9	F	50	N	Adenocarcinoma (moderately differentiated)	Ductal breast cancer; myxopapillary ependymoma (48)
s10	F	78	Υ	Adenocarcinoma (moderately differentiated)	N/A
s3	М	71	Υ	Acinar-cell carcinoma	N/A
s8	М	67	N	Adenocarcinoma NOS (tail)	N/A

The number in brackets in the last column refers to age in years at diagnosis.

DISCUSSION

We suggest, on the basis of our findings, a revised model for carcinogenesis associated with BRCA2 deficiency in the pancreas (Figure 6), which incorporates several interesting

features. We find that germline heterozygosity for Brca2 mutations suffices to promote the development of Kras G12Ddriven pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas, typically representing >90% of human pancreatic tumors, irrespective of the functional status of Trp53. Unexpectedly, these tumors retain



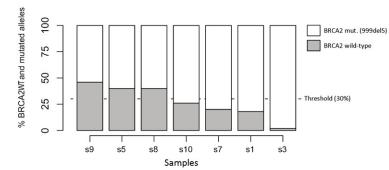


Figure 5. BRCA2 Alleles in Pancreatic Cancers from Carriers of the 999del5 Mutation

(A–H) Histology of pancreatic neoplasms in confirmed carriers of the pathogenic BRCA2^{999del5} mutation.

(I) Allele-specific quantification of wild-type and mutant BRCA2 alleles in seven human pancreatic tumor samples using quantitative RT-PCR. The proportion of BRCA2 alleles, wild-type (gray) and mutated (white), is displayed for individual tumors. The threshold line for determining loss of the wild-type allele (≤30%) is based on concordance with copy number changes measured by array CGH. See also Figure S4.



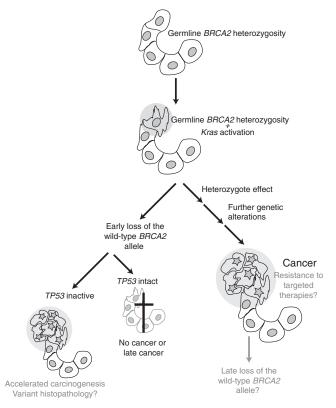


Figure 6. A Revised Model for Tumor Suppression by BRCA2

Our work models germline inheritance of the $Brca2^{Tr}$ allele in all somatic tissues (first hit, top), and $Kras^{G12D}$ activation in the pancreas (second hit), combined either with early LOH of the second Brca2 allele (third hit, left-hand side) or with its retention (heterozygote effect, right-hand side). The effect of Trp53 status is also indicated. Late loss of the second Brca2 allele occurs in some tumors, even if it is not essential for carcinogenesis and may further fuel tumor progression. Early loss of the second allele on the other hand, if tolerated, may divert tumor evolution down a distinct trajectory, toward acinarcell carcinomas.

a functional Brca2 allele. Consistent with these results, we also demonstrate that three out of four human ductal pancreatic cancers arising in carriers of the BRCA2999del5 mutation do not exhibit LOH at the mutation site. Together, these findings offer strong evidence that somatic deletion of the second BRCA2 allele is not always necessary for carcinogenesis, revising current conceptual understanding of the tumor suppressive role of BRCA2. Interestingly and in support of our model, heterogeneous loss of the second allele was recently reported in twelve cases of human BRCA2-linked breast cancer (King et al., 2007), lending further weight to our suggestion. It will therefore be important to reassess the widely held view (Gudmundsson et al., 1995; Osorio et al., 2002) that the second BRCA2 allele is consistently lost in human breast, ovarian, pancreatic, or other tumors arising in mutation carriers. However, we emphasize that our model does not preclude loss of the wild-type BRCA2 allele in some of these cancers, but instead posits that this event may be less frequent than previously supposed because it is not essential for carcinogenesis. We cannot unequivocally exclude in the available human samples that the second BRCA2 allele has been silenced or affected by deleterious intragenic mutations, possibilities that require further investigation using larger sample groups.

Interestingly, three pancreatic tumors from *BRCA2*^{999del5} mutation carriers that showed evidence of LOH at the mutation site were classified as acinar-cell carcinomas. This histological type normally constitutes only 1%–2% of all pancreatic neoplasms (Hruban et al., 2007), making it unlikely that this clustering has occurred by chance. Also, an acinar-carcinoma component was exclusively observed in the KPCB^{Tr/Δ11} mouse cohort with enforced, early, biallelic *Brca2* inactivation, a phenotype not encountered in any of the 30 KPCB^{Tr/WT} or KPCB^{WT/WT} mice. Thus, our findings raise the possibility that LOH in *Brca2*, when it occurs early and is tolerated, can divert pancreatic carcinogenesis down a distinct evolutionary pathway.

Our results indicate that the activation of oncogenes like *Kras* may unmask the cancer-promoting effect of *Brca2* heterozygosity, which has not been previously observed in murine models in which *Brca2* alone is conditionally or constitutively inactivated (Evers and Jonkers, 2006). Whether this phenotype reflects a unique cooperative effect between oncogenic *Kras* ^{G12D} and mono-allelic *Brca2* mutations or a more broadly applicable principle for the effect of *Brca2* dosage on oncogene activation is at present unknown.

Significantly, our work suggests that the integrity of Trp53 shapes the cellular outcome of the second Brca2 allele loss during carcinogenesis; thus, Brca2 LOH in cells with intact Trp53 may favor cell death rather than outgrowth (Jonkers et al., 2001; Ludwig et al., 1997). In the setting of inactive Trp53, on the other hand, biallelic Brca2 inactivation leads to rapid tumor progression, as evidenced by the dramatically curtailed PDAC-free survival of KPCBTr/Δ11 mice, suggesting that the loss of the second Brca2 allele is tolerated and fuels tumor progression under these conditions. Indeed, our data raise the possibility that in the fraction of pancreatic tumors where the second allele is lost, this event may have occurred late in the tumorigenic process, subsequent to the inactivation of TP53 (and/or other checkpoint genes, whose loss is similarly permissive). Support for this possibility comes from studies on samples from three human pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas, in which BRCA2 LOH appeared to be a late event (Goggins et al., 2000). Moreover, selection against complete BRCA2 inactivation may persist even in established tumors as suggested by the failure to disrupt both alleles using gene targeting in a pancreatic cancer cell line (Gallmeier et al., 2007).

Taken together, our findings, and the revised model for tumor suppression by BRCA2 that they suggest, have several implications for cancer therapy. The clinical use of drugs such as PARP1 (insert 1 as before) inhibitors that selectively kill cancer cells homozygous but not heterozygous for *BRCA2* mutations (Bryant et al., 2005; Farmer et al., 2005) is based on the premise that the wild-type *BRCA2* allele is consistently deleted in tumor cells. Consequently, patient selection for these therapies currently relies on the documentation of *BRCA2* mutation carrier status using normal tissues (usually, peripheral blood mononuclear cells). However, our data raise the possibility that a proportion of PDACs arising in mutation carriers will retain a functional *BRCA2* allele, and may exhibit resistance to targeted therapies like PARP1 inhibitors. We therefore suggest that these agents should preferably be used after LOH is confirmed in tumor



samples. In the specific setting of pancreatic acinar-cell carcinomas arising in BRCA2 mutation carriers, however, our findings suggest that biallelic BRCA2 inactivation may be more frequent. Targeted therapies could therefore be of particular value for this histological type, a suggestion that warrants further examination. Thus, our work using a murine model that faithfully recapitulates tissue-specific familial carcinogenesis in BRCA2 mutation carriers revises current concepts for disease pathogenesis and helps to inform the design of clinical trials using targeted agents.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Animal Strains, Husbandry, and Maintenance

LSL-Kras G12D/+; LSL-Trp53 R270H/+; Brca2 F11/WT animals were generated by crossing the previously described LSL-Kras G12D/+; LSL-Trp53 R270H/+ (Olive et al., 2009) and Brca2F11/WT (Jonkers et al., 2001) strains, the latter backcrossed six times to the FVB/N background. Pdx1-Cre; Brca2Tr/WT doubletransgenic mice were generated by crossing the previously described Pdx1-Cre transgenic (Hingorani et al., 2005; Olive et al., 2009) and Brca2^{Tr/WT} (Friedman et al., 1998) strains (the latter also backcrossed six times to the FVB/N background). These strains were interbred to generate the experimental animals used in the study. Thus, all experiments were performed using littermate mice from a mixed but uniform C57BL/6;129;FVB/N genetic background. Mice were maintained in a specific pathogen-free environment under a 12 hr light/dark cycle. The animals were euthanized using a Schedule 1 method when they met predetermined severity endpoint criteria. All experiments were performed in accordance with national and institutional guidelines, and the study was approved by the ethical review committee of the University of Cambridge.

Generation of PDAC Cell Lines

Pancreatic cancer cell lines from explanted murine tumors were established using previously published methods (Schreiber et al., 2004; Olive et al., 2009). All experiments reported in this study were conducted in early passage cell lines (≤P10) grown in complete medium (DMEM+10%FBS+1% Penicillin/ Streptomycin).

Statistical Analyses

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 5.01 for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). Kaplan-Meier estimates of pancreatic cancer-free survival were compared using the log-rank test. A Bonferroni-corrected p value < 0.0167 was considered statistically significant, in order to account for the three possible individual comparisons between strains. Deaths due to causes other than pancreatic cancer were treated as censored observations. The IC50 values for MMC and Olaparib were grouped according to the Brca2 status of the corresponding PDAC cell lines and compared using the Kruskal-Wallis test. Pair-wise comparisons between individual genotypes were based on Dunn's post-test. Scatter plots depict the range and median values. The nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was also used to compare the average number of cleaved caspase-3-positive cells per 20x field in pancreata from 6 day old neonatal mice grouped according to their genotype and Dunn's post-test was again used for pair-wise comparisons. A p value < 0.05 was considered significant in both cases.

Rad51 Foci Formation

One hundred thousand cells of the indicated genotypes were plated on coverslips (22x22 mm) in 6 well plates and allowed to grow overnight before treatment with 100 ng/ml of Mitomycin C (Sigma-Aldrich) for 24 hr. Cells were washed free of medium using PBS, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 10 min at room temperature, and then stained with a mouse monoclonal antibody to Rad51 (14B4, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) at a dilution of 1:1000 following a previously described protocol (Ayoub et al., 2009). Coverslips were imaged on a Zeiss LSM510 Meta confocal microscope, using a 40x objective. Quantification of Rad51 nuclear foci was performed as previously described (Ayoub et al., 2009). A minimum of 800 cells were analyzed in each sample to determine the average number of nuclear foci per cell. The data were exported in Excel format and plotted in Graphpad Prism v5.01.

Viability and Apoptosis Assays

Murine PDAC cell lines maintained in the logarithmic phase of growth were trypsinized, passed through a 70 µm nylon cell strainer to remove cell clumps, counted, and plated at 2500 cells/well in 96 well plates in a total volume of 100 μl of complete medium. Five wells were plated per drug concentration per cell line. Twenty-four hours later, the medium was replaced with a medium that contained increasing concentrations of Mitomycin C (Sigma-Aldrich) or Olaparib (JS Research Chemicals Trading). All cells treated with Olaparib were exposed to the same concentration of vehicle (DMSO). Cell viability was assessed following 72 hr exposure to drug, using the Cell Titer Blue Viability Assay (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Results were plotted as mean values with standard deviations (n = 5 for each different drug concentration). Curve fits were generated using nonlinear regression function (Graphpad Prism). For quantification of apoptosis, we used the Apo-ONE Homogeneous Caspase-3/7 Assay (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Apoptosis was quantified 48 hr after addition of Olaparib or vehicle and expressed as a fold increase in activity compared with vehicle-only treated cells, adjusted for cell viability that was assessed as previously described. For western blotting for cleaved caspase-3. cells were treated with 2.5 μM of Olaparib for 48 hr before harvesting.

Histology, Histochemistry, and Immunohistochemistry

Explanted tissues were fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin solution for 24 hr and transferred to 70% ethanol. Tissues were embedded in paraffin, cut in 5µm sections on poly-lysine coated slides, deparaffinized, rehydrated, and stained with H&E. The alcian blue and dPAS histochemical stains were performed according to established protocols (www.IHCWorld.com). Images were collected on an Olympus BX51 microscope using cellB software. For immunohistochemistry, following standard deparaffinization and rehydration, sections were unmasked in 10 mM citric acid (pH 6.0) in a microwave for 12.5-20 min depending on the antigen. Endogenous peroxidases were quenched in 3% H2O2/PBS for 15 min. Remaining steps were according to the Vectastain Elite ABC kit (rabbit) flowchart (Vector Labs, Burlingame, CA). The following primary antibodies were used: rabbit polyclonal antibody to Cytokeratin-19 (ab15463, Abcam, 1:100) and rabbit anti-cleaved caspase-3 polyclonal antibody (#9661, Cell Signaling Technology, 1:100). Primary antibody incubation was performed overnight (16 hr) at 4°C and detection was assessed using the ImmPACT DAB peroxidase substrate (Vector Labs). For fluorescent immunohistochemistry following deparaffinization, rehydration, and antigen retrieval, sections were blocked for 30 min (RT) with 10% normal goat serum (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, 005-000-001) in TBS-Tween supplemented with 0.2% Triton X-100. Primary antibody incubation was performed overnight (4°C) in TBT (1X TBS, 0.1% bovine serum albumin, 0.2% Triton X-100) using rabbit anti- γ H2AX polyclonal antibody (ab2893, Abcam, 1:200) and guinea pig anti-insulin polyclonal antibody (Dako, A0564,1:100). Following secondary antibody incubation with AlexaFluor 488 goat anti-guinea pig and AlexaFluor 568 goat anti-rabbit secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen), both at 1:1000 dilution in TBT for 30 min at 37°C, slides were mounted with Vectashield medium containing DAPI (Vector Laboratories, H-1200), covered with coverslips, and imaged on a Zeiss LSM510 Meta confocal microscope using a 40x objective. Images were acquired using constant zoom and imaging parameters (laser intensities and detector settings).

Laser-Capture Microdissection and Genomic PCRs

Microdissection of murine cancerous ducts was performed with the Zeiss P.A.L.M. system using $5\mu m$ tissue sections cut onto membrane-coated slides (Zeiss). DNA was extracted using the QIAamp DNA Micro Kit (QIAGEN) following the manufacturer's protocol. 1-3 ng of extracted DNA was used in PCR reactions to detect the conditional and recombined alleles. Primer pairs for individual PCR reactions are included in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. PCR conditions have been previously published (Hingorani et al., 2005; Jonkers et al., 2001; Perez-Mancera and Tuveson, 2006).

BRCA2999del5 LOH Analysis in Human Pancreatic Cancer Samples

Pancreatic tumor samples were obtained from patients that participated in earlier studies of familial BRCA-related cancers with permission from the Data Protection Authority (PV2006050307) and the National Bioethics



Committee (Iceland) (VSNb2006050001/03-16). Histological material available from these pancreatic tumors was evaluated and viable representative tumor tissue selected. Representative samples were subsequently dissected from 15 μm-thick sections of paraffin-embedded blocks. Genomic DNA was extracted following standard procedures for deparaffinization, rehydration, and crosslink removal using the High-Pure PCR template preparation kit (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Allele-specific quantitative PCR (gPCR) reactions to quantitatively determine the relative proportions of the wild-type and 999 del5 BRCA2 alleles were carried out using the 7500 Realtime PCR system (Applied Biosystems). We used a TaqMan method with a single BRCA2 specific, minor groove binding (MGB) probe (5'-end labeled with FAM, and with a nonfluorescent quencher at the 3' end), a single BRCA2 specific forward primer, and two allele-specific reverse primers. Therefore, the PCR for wild-type and mutant alleles was performed in separate wells. Details of the qPCR primers and TaqMan-MGB probe can be found in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. The BRCA2 wild-type to mutantallele ratios were quantified by measuring differences in fluorescence intensity of FAM performed in duplicate and the Ct values (number of cycles to reach intensity threshold) averaged. The wild-type to mutant allele ratios were calculated to wild-type allele frequencies by the following equation as previously described (Germer et al., 2000): frequency of allele₁ = $1/(2^{\Delta Ct}+1)$, where $\Delta Ct = (Ct \text{ of allele}_1 - Ct \text{ of allele}_2).$

Western Blotting

Logarithmically growing, spontaneously immortalized MEFs and cells from established PDAC lines were harvested by trypsinization and lysed in icecold RIPA lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCL [pH 7.4], 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% (v/v) deoxycholate, 0.1% (v/v) SDS and 1% (v/v) Igepal), supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 1mM PMSF, protease inhibitors (Amersham), and phosphatase inhibitor cocktails 1 and 2 (Sigma). Protein concentration was quantified using the BCA assay (Sigma). Total protein (100 μg) was resolved in 3%-8% Tris-Acetate precast Midi gels (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's protocol and transferred to PVDF membranes under semi-dry conditions using the Multiphor II electrophoresis system (Amersham). Membranes were blocked in 5% nonfat dry milk in TBS-Tween (150 mM NaCl, 5 mM Tris-HCL [pH 7.4]), and blotted with primary antibodies: rabbit polyclonal antibody against the N terminus of murine Brca2 (Sarkisian et al., 2001) (1:500), mouse monoclonal anti-β-actin (1:5000, Sigma-Aldrich), and horseradish peroxidaseconjugated anti-mouse and anti-rabbit secondary antibodies, both used at 1:10000 dilution. Signal was developed with the ECL Plus detection reagent for Brca2 and with ECL for β -actin (Amersham). Western blotting for cleaved caspase-3 was performed in the same way using a rabbit monoclonal antibody (#9664, Cell Signaling Technology) at 1:1000 dilution.

Southern Blotting

Genomic DNA from pancreatic tumors was prepared using the DNeasy kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Genomic DNA (7.5 μ g) was digested with EcoRI, and southern blot was set up with the alkaline transfer method, using the Hybond-XL membrane from Amersham. Prehybridization was carried out overnight with hybridization buffer (5× SSC, 5× Denhardt's reagent, and 0.1% SDS). DNA probe generated using the primers Brca2 3′ Probe Forward and Brca2 3′ Probe Reverse (see Supplemental Experimental Procedures) was labeled radioactively with 32PdCTP and allowed to hybridize overnight. Images were acquired using either a FUJIFILM FLA-5000 Image Reader or on X-ray film developed after 7–8 days incubation at -80° C. The ratio of the intensities of the bands corresponding to the wild-type and mutant Brca2 allele were densitometrically quantified.

Quantitative RT-PCR

Real-time quantification of mRNA corresponding to the C terminus of murine Brca2 using SYBR green was carried out with the Roche 480 light cycler. Normalization and target to reference ratios were calculated according to the manufacturer's instructions (Roche). RNA extraction from PDAC cell lines was carried out using the RNeasy kit (QIAGEN) according to the accompanying protocol. Total RNA (2 μ g) was converted to cDNA using the M-MLV Reverse Transcriptase kit (Invitrogen). Primers Brca2 22 Forward and Brca2 24 Reverse (see Supplemental Experimental Procedures) were used to quan-

tify the levels of cDNA corresponding to the 3^\prime end of murine Brca2 in each sample. Levels of amplified Gapdh cDNA were used as the reference.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes four figures and Supplemental Experimental Procedures and can be found with this article online at doi:10.1016/j.ccr.2010.10.015.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the past and present members of the Venkitaraman and Tuveson laboratories for helpful comments. We thank Jos Jonkers and Anton Berns (Netherlands Cancer Institute) for the $Brca2^{F11/WT}$ mouse strain, and Lewis A. Chodosh (University of Pennsylvania) for the rabbit polyclonal antibody against the N terminus of murine Brca2. F.S. was supported in A.R.V.'s laboratory by studentships from the Medical Research Council (MRC) and Onassis Foundation, and subsequently by a Cancer Research UK Clinical Research Training Fellowship. L.D.C. was supported by a Cancer Research UK Molecular Pathology of Cancer studentship in A.R.V.'s laboratory. Work in A.R.V.'s laboratory is supported by the MRC. The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Received: May 27, 2010 Revised: August 25, 2010 Accepted: October 18, 2010 Published online: November 4, 2010

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