HNF1A is a novel BRD4 target and critical for BET-inhibitor response in pancreatic ductal

adenocarcinoma

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Running Title: BET-inhibitors target HNF1A in pancreatic cancer

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Abstract

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is an exceedingly lethal cancer that lacks actionable

molecular drivers, limiting precision treatment options. We previously identified the transcription

factor, HNF1A, as a novel driver of tumorigenesis and pancreatic cancer stem cell (PCSC)

properties in PDAC; however, HNF1A-targeting modalities do not currently exist. Here we show

that HNF1A is a direct target of the epigenetic reader protein, BRD4, and its expression is

exquisitely sensitive to BET-inhibitors (BETi), which inhibit PDAC cell proliferation and block

PCSC-properties in a panel of HNF1A-expressing cell lines and patient-derived xenograft cells.

Remarkably, we report that the antineoplastic activity of BETi/BRD4 knockdown can be

overcome by restoration of HNF1A expression, but not by re-expression of canonical BETi

target MYC. RNA-sequencing analyses revealed that a subset of BETi-responsive transcripts is

dependent on HNF1A expression, including receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs), regulators and

ligands. Consistent with these data, we found that HNF1A restoration rescued EGFR/ERBB3-

signaling and the protective effects of HNF1A restoration could be overcome with EGFR-

inhibitors. Furthermore, we found that expressions of HNF1A, BRD4, and ERBB3 were strongly

correlated across PDAC patient samples using multispectral immunofluorescence, supporting a

connection between these players in PDAC biology, and high expression of ERBB3 associated

with better survival, supporting the clinical importance of this network in patient outcomes.

These findings demonstrate that BETi can be used to ablate HNF1A expression and that the

inhibition of HNF1A is critical for BETi activity, while supporting HNF1A as novel therapeutic

target in PDAC.

Significance

This study demonstrates that the oncogenic transcription factor HNF1A is a direct target of

BRD4, and that the ablation of HNF1A by BET-inhibitors is central to their antineoplastic activity

in PDAC.

Introduction

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) has a dismal 5-year survival rate of 13.3%

and is projected to be the 2nd leading cause of cancer related deaths by 2030[1]. In contrast to

many other cancers where known oncogenes have led to effective targeted therapies, PDAC

suffers from a dearth of targeted therapies despite an increasing comprehensive understanding

of the biology of the disease. Therapeutic agents targeting KRAS, which is mutated in >90% of

PDAC cases, are still in their infancy, while other targeted therapies such as MEK-inhibitors

have underperformed for unclear reasons. Erlotinib, an EGFR-inhibitor, remains one of the few

targeted therapies approved for PDAC[2, 3], but its benefits are often modest, and it remains

unclear what factors dictate response in the clinic. As such, there is a need to identify additional

actionable targets and driver programs to expand treatment options and potentially predict

response rates in PDAC patients.

In recent years there has been an expansion in the appreciation of transcription factors,

epigenetic modulators, and transcriptional programs in PDAC biology. At least two dominant

transcriptional subtypes (herein referred to as classical and non-classical) of PDAC have been

identified by multiple groups, each being able to stratify patient survival. These subtypes have

also been able to stratify responses to targeted therapies, such as erlotinib[3, 4] and dasatinib[5],

and conventional chemotherapeutics[4, 5], although the underlying determinants of these differing

responses remain unclear. MYC, a well understood oncogenic transcription factor, has been

shown to play roles in non-classical subtype determination and response to KRAS-pathway

inhibition in PDAC[6, 7]. Other transcription factors, such as GATA6[8] and TP63[8, 9], have been

implicated as master regulators of the classical and non-classical subtype, respectively, but their

roles in therapeutic response and whether they are "actionable" drivers remains to be

determined. Nonetheless, efforts to target transcription factors directly, or indirectly through

targeting upstream and downstream epigenetic modulators, are increasingly being explored in

PDAC.

Bromodomain and extra-terminal domain (BET) proteins are a family of epigenetic

reader proteins consisting of four members: BRD2, BRD3, BRD4, and testis-specific BRDT.

Containing two non-redundant bromodomains (BD) each[10], BET proteins bind to acetylated

lysines on histones and transcription factors, allowing them to coordinate the recruitment of

other transcriptional components such as the RNA polymerase II complex and control the

transcription of a subset of genes[11]. BET proteins are widely studied in cancer biology for their

abilities to control the transcription of oncogenes such as MYC[12] and BCL2[13]. As such, multiple

generations of BET-inhibitors (BETi), which mimic acetylated lysines and bind competitively to

either (BD1- or BD2-selective) or both (pan-BETi) BD to block BET protein-dependent

transcription[11]. BETi show antineoplastic activity in many cancer types including PDAC[14-16],

often attributed to the transcriptional inhibition of MYC[12, 17-19]. However, the efficacy of BETi in

PDAC does not strictly correspond to inhibition of MYC[15], suggesting that other critical targets of

BETi exist in PDAC.

Hepatocyte nuclear factor 1-alpha (HNF1A) is a gastrointestinal lineage transcription

factor that has recently gained attention for driving malignancy programs in multiple cancers,

including colorectal[20], gastric[21], and prostate cancers[22]. We reported that HNF1A is elevated in

and a critical driver of pancreatic cancer stem cell (PCSCs)[23] and metastasis[24], both widely-

pursued but currently untargetable components of PDAC biology. We found that knockdown of

HNF1A inhibited proliferation and promoted apoptosis of PDAC cells, disrupted PCSC-

properties such as tumorsphere formation and expression of the surface markers EPCAM,

CD44 and CD24, and blocked tumor growth[23], making HNF1A a potentially desirable target for

PDAC. However, like many transcription factors, there are currently no direct means of targeting

HNF1A expression or activity.

In this study, we explored whether BETi could be used to target HNF1A in PDAC in a

manner analogous to MYC. We report that HNF1A expression is potently inhibited by multiple

generations of BETi and is a direct transcriptional target of BRD4. Surprisingly, re-expression of

HNF1A can overcome the antiproliferative effects of BETi and BRD4 knockdown both *in vitro*

and *in vivo* and restores the expression of a subset BETi-responsive genes including EGFR-

ligands and ERBB3. Consistent with this, we found that EGFR and ERBB3 phosphorylation

were suppressed by BETi and rescued by HNF1A restoration, with EGFR inhibitors capable of

overcoming HNF1A's protective effects. These findings support that HNF1A is novel and critical

target of BETi in PDAC and may shed light on the mechanisms behind transcriptional programs

in PDAC and response to targeted therapeutics like erlotinib.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell lines, cell culture, and inhibitors

AsPC-1(RRID: CVCL_0152), HPAF-II (RRID: CVCL_0313), and BxPC-3 (RRID: CVCL_0186)

cells were purchased from ATCC (Manassas, VA). UM5, UM15 and UM53 (formally NY5, NY15,

NY53, respectively) were established as low-passage cells isolated from human patient-derived

xenografts as previously described[23]. PDX-derived cells were passaged less than 10 times in

culture for these studies. All cells were maintained in RPMI-1640 with GlutaMAX™-I

supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco), 1% antibiotic-antimycotic (Gibco), and 100µg/ml

gentamicin (Gibco). Cells were routinely tested for mycoplasma contamination using the

MycoScope PCR Detection kit (Gentlantis, San Diego, CA) and authenticated by STR profiling

(Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center Genomics Shared Resource). All inhibitors were

purchased from SelleckChem (Houston, TX).

Lentiviruses

pENTR/D-TOPO/LacZ and pENTR/D-TOPO/HNF1A were previously described[23]. Human MYC

was amplified from AsPC-1 cDNA with primers 5'-

AGGCTCCGCGGCCGCCCCCTTCACCATGCCCCTCAACGTTAGCTTCACC -3' and 5'-

TGGGTCGGCGCGCCCACCCTTTTACGCACAAGAGTTCCGTAGCTG -3' and cloned into

pENTR/D-TOPO using NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly master mix and protocol (New England

Biolabs). All cDNAs were shuttled into pLenti6.3/UbC/V5-DEST[23] using LR Clonase II enzyme

mix and protocol. miR30-based BRD4 targeting shRNAs (5'-

AACGGTACCAAACACAACTCAATAGTGAAGCCACAGATGTATTGAGTTGTGTTTGGTACCGT

G-3' and 5'-

AGACGAGATTGAAATCGACTTATAGTGAAGCCACAGATGTATAAGTCGATTTCAATCTCGTCG

-3') were purchased from Transomic Technologies but subcloned into pENTR/D-TOPO along

with non-targeting shRNA (5'-

ATCTCGCTTGGGCGAGAGTAAGTAGTGAAGCCACAGATGTACTTACTCTCGCCCAAGCGAG

AG-3'). shRNAs were shuttled into pLentipuro5/TRE3G/V5-DEST, an all-in-one doxycycline

inducible lentiviral vector developed for this study, using LR Clonase II enzyme mix and

protocol. For the HNF1A promoter reporter, the HNF1A promoter was amplified with using

primers 5'-GATATCCTCGAGAAGTCAAGGCTGCAGTAAGCCATGATCG-3' and 5'-

GGTGGCGGATCCGGCTCGGCTGCCACAGGGCCACGCGGCC-3', digested with with XhoI

and BamHI (New England Biolabs), and ligated upstream of PatGFP[23] in pENTR/D-TOPO and

recombined into pLentipuro3/BLOCK-iT-DEST[25]. Viruses were packaged in 293FT cells as

previously described[23]. BRD4 shRNAs were co-packaged to maximize knockdown efficiency.

Cells were treated with lentivirus-containing conditioned media for 72-96 hours and then

selected with either blasticidin (for cDNAs) or puromycin (for shRNAs and HNF1A promoter

reporter) for up to two weeks before use in studies. Pooled populations of cells overexpressing

LacZ or HNF1A were continuously regenerated throughout the study to prevent genetic drift.

Knockdown experiments

Non-targeting control (Ctl) (Cat# D-001810-01-20), HNF1A (Cat#M-008215-01-0005), MYC

(Cat#M-003282-07-0005), BRD2 (Cat#M-004935-02-0005), BRD3 (Cat#M-004936-01-0005),

and BRD4 (Cat#M-004937-02-0005) siRNAs were purchased from Dharmacon (Lafayette, CO)

and were transfected at 25 nM using Lipofectamine® RNAiMAX Reagent (Invitrogen) for the

times indicated in each figure legend.

Western blot analysis

All lysates were collected and boiled in 1x Laemmli sample buffer with β-mercaptoethanol for 5

minutes followed by electrophoresis on 4-20% Mini-PROTEAN TGX precast Tris-Glycine-SDS

gels (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA), transfer to low-fluorescent PVDF (Bio-Rad) and incubated

overnight in primary antibodies (1 μg/ml) in 1x Animal-Free Blocking Solution (Cell Signaling

Technology, Danvers, MA) plus 0.1% Tween-20. Blots were incubated in DyLight™ 700 or 800-

conjugated secondary antibodies in 5% milk in TBS plus 0.1% Tween-20 and 0.005% SDS at

room temperature for 1 hour and imaged/quantitated by an Odyssey® CLx imaging system (Li-

Cor, Lincoln, NE). β-Actin (AC-15; RRID: AB_10950489) antibody was purchased from Thermo

Fisher Scientific. HNF1A (D7Z2Q; RRID: AB_2728751), HNF4A (C11F12; AB_2295208),

HNF4G (E4V2B), MYC (D3N8F; RRID: AB_2631168), BRD2 (D89B4; RRID: AB_10835146),

BRD4 (E1Y1P), phospho-RB (S807/811) (D20B12; RRID: AB_111786578), phospho-Histone H3

S10 (D7N8E; RRID: AB_2799431), and GFP (D5.1; RRID: AB_1196615) were purchased from

Cell Signaling. BRD3 (2088C3a; RRID: AB_868478) antibody was purchased from Abcam

(Cambridge, MA).

Quantitative reverse transcription-PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA was extracted using the Direct-zol RNA Miniprep kit and protocol (Zymo Research,

Tustin, CA) and reverse transcribed with High-Capacity RNA-to-cDNA Master Mix

(Applied Biosystem). SYBR Green PCR was performed using cDNA and iTaq Universal SYBR

Green Supermix (Bio-Rad) on a QuantStudio 7 Pro Real-Time PCR System with QuantStudio

Design & Analysis Software 2.8.0 (ThermoFisher Scientific). Conditions used for qPCR were

95°C for 10 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 seconds, 60°C for 15 seconds, and

72°C for 20 seconds. Primers for HNF1A were 5'-CCCACCAAGCAGGTCTTCAC-3' and 5'-

TGAAGGTCTCGATGACGCTG-3'. All quantitations were normalized to an endogenous control

ACTB (5'-TACCTCATGAAGATCCTCACC-3' and 5'-TTTCGTGGATGCCACAGGAC-3'). The

comparative Ct method (ΔCt) was used to quantitate fold changes in HNF1A mRNA.

Cell viability assay

Cells/colonies were incubated in 1x alamarBlue™ HS Cell Viability Reagent diluted in warmed

complete media. Cells/colonies were allowed to incubate until reagent was ~75% converted in

one or more groups. Media was collected and analyzed for gain in fluorescence using 540nM

excitation/590nM emission wavelengths on a BioTek Synergy HTX multi-mode reader (RRID:

SCR_019749) and Gen5 3.03 software (RRID_ SCR_017317). All signal intensities were

normalized back to their respective control groups, set to 100% viability.

Colony formation assay

200 cells were plated per well of a 12-well cell culture plate. Cells were allowed to attach

overnight before treatment with inhibitors. Media and inhibitors were replaced every three days

for two to three weeks, depending on cell line, to allow for colony formation. At endpoint, colony

viability was measured by alamarBlue™ assay as above, followed by fixing of colonies with 5%

formaldehyde and staining with crystal violet for representative images. For knockdown studies,

cells were transfected with siRNA 72 hours prior to plating for colony formation.

Flow cytometry

For analysis of PCSC markers, cell labeling and analysis was performed as previously

described[23]. Briefly, cells were trypsinized, washed with HBSS/2% FBS twice, and resuspended

in HBSS/2% FBS at a concentration of 1 million cells/100µL. Primary antibodies were diluted

1:40 in cell suspensions and incubated for 30 minutes on ice with vortexing every 5 minutes.

Cells were washed twice with HBSS/2% FBS and resuspended in this solution. Mouse anti-

human EPCAM (CD326) clone HEA-125 (RRID: AB_2751108) was purchased from Miltenyi

Biotec (San Diego, CA). Mouse anti-human CD44 clone G44-26 and CD24 clone ML5

purchased from BD Biosciences (San Jose, CA). Side scatter and forward scatter profiles were

used to eliminate cell doublets. For PI staining, cells were trypsinized, washed in PBS and fixed

in ice-cold 70% ethanol by drop-wise addition to cell suspensions and fixed at 4°C for 30 mins.

Cells were then washed twice with PBS following removal of ethanol and RNA digestion was

performed using 200µg/mL RNAase for 30 mins at 37°C. Cells were then stained with 167µg/mL

propidium iodide for 30 mins. All flow cytometry experiments were performed using LSRII B

analyzer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA; RRID: SCR_002159). Analyses for marker expression

and cell cycle were performed using FCS Express 7 flow cytometry software (DeNovo Software,

Pasadena, CA; RRID: SCR_016431).

Tumorsphere assay

Cells grown under normal 2D conditions were either treated with inhibitors or siRNA for the time

points indicated in the legends. Cells were then trysinized, washed, and resuspended as single

cells in tumorsphere culture media containing 1% N2 supplement, 2% B27 supplement, 1%

antibiotic-antimycotic, 20 ng/mL epidermal growth factor (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA), 20 ng/mL

human bFGF-2 (Invitrogen), 10 ng/mL BMP4 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), 10 ng/mL LIF

(Sigma-Aldrich). Cells were plated in 12-well Ultra-Low Attachment Plates (Corning, Corning,

NY), 200-1000 cells per well, depending on the cell line. Media with inhibitors or plain media (for

knockdowns) was supplemented every 3 days. Tumorspheres were allowed to form for 10-14

days before manually counting.

Mice and xenograft studies

NOD/SCID/IL2γR$^{-/-}$ (NSG) were bred and maintained at Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer

Center's animal care facilities. Evenly mixed sex mice, 8-10 weeks old were subcutaneously

implanted with 250,000 tumor cells in a volume of 50 µl (1:1 volume of cell suspension in growth

media and Matrigel) in the left midflank regions of the mice. Once tumors were measurable,

mice were put on doxycycline (2mg/ml)/5% sucrose water and doxycycline chow (VWR) to

induce the expression of the non-targeting or BRD4-targeting shRNAs. Tumor growth was

monitored weekly by digital caliper and tumor volumes calculated by the (length x width^2)/2

method, and all mice were sacrificed once tumors in any group reached 20mm^3 in volume.

Immunofluorescence staining of tissues

Multispectral immunofluorescent (mIF) staining on formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE)

PDAC tissue microarray (TMA) was performed using the Opal 6-Plex Detection Kit (AKOYA

Biosciences, Marlborough, MA). HNF1A (GT4110, 1:150, Opal 620; RRID: AB_2538735) from

ThermoFisher, BRD4 (E2A7X, 1:1000, Opal 780; RRID: AB_2687578), ERBB3 (D22C5, 1:75,

Opal 570; RRID: AB_2721919), and phospho-ERBB3 Y1289 (D1B5, 1:200, Opal 690; RRID:

AB_11178795) from Cell Signaling, FGFR4 (sc-136988, 1:75, Opal 520; RRID: AB_2103663)

from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, and Cytokeratin AE1/AE3 (M3515, 1:150, Opal 480; RRID:

AB_2132885) from Agilent Dako were used for staining. Slides were imaged on the

PhenoImager™ HT (AKOYA Biosciences). Further analysis of the slides was performed using

inForm® Software v2.6.0 (AKOYA Biosciences). 220 PDAC patient cores[26] with sufficient live

cells (threshold > 100 cells per core) were stained and quantitated. Phenoptr software (RRID:

SCR_026104) was used to report the percentage of cells that were positive for each protein

stained. For correlation of staining intensities and survival data, average whole cell staining

intensity was measured for each core. For the violin plot, the Pearson correlation coefficients

were calculated for each core first. Then the R values from each core are used to make the

violinplot. 115 patient cores with associated survival data were used for survival analyses. Likely

dead cells were excluded from both percent positivity and staining intensity analyses. TMA

cores were obtained from PDAC patients who had been treated at Thomas Jefferson University

Hospitals between the years 2002 and 2010 Institutional Review Board approval.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation

AsPC-1 cells were fixed with 1% formaldehyde for 10 minutes (one confluent 15cm plate per

precipitation). Mnase-sheared chromatin was generated using the SimpleChIP Plus Enzymatic

Chromatin IP kit and protocol (Cell Signaling). BRD4 (E1Y1P) or normal IgG (Cell Signaling)

antibodies were used for precipitation of chromatin. Quantitative PCR was performed using

immunoprecipitated DNA and 2% chromatin input DNA a previously described[23]. Percent Input

for immunoprecipitated DNA was calculated using the formula $2\% \times 2^{(Ct\ 2\%\ Input\ Sample\ -\ Ct\ IP\ Sample)}$.

Primers for the HNF1A promoter (5'-TTGGCTAGTGGGGTTTTGG-3'and 5'-

GGCTCGGCTGCCACAGGG-3') were used, as were primers for the HNF1A intron 2 (5'-

TGAGGTCTTGCCATGTTGCCC-3' and 5'-GTTTCTGTTATAGCAGACACAG-3') as a negative

cis-locus control. MYOD (primers 5'-AGACTGCCAGCACTTTGCTATC-3' and 5'-

ATAGAAGTCGTCCGTTGTGGC-3') was used as a non-BRD4 target gene control.

RNA sequencing and transcriptomic analysis

The sequencing libraries were prepared from 200ng total RNA purified using the TruSeq

Stranded Total RNA kit (Illumina Inc). Following manufacturer's instructions, the first step

depleted rRNA from total RNA. After ribosomal depletion, the remaining RNA was purified,

fragmented and primed for cDNA synthesis. Fragmented RNA was then reverse transcribed

into first strand cDNA using random primers. The next step removed the RNA template and

synthesized a replacement strand, incorporating dUTP in place of dTTP to generate ds cDNA.

AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) were used to separate the ds cDNA from the second

strand reaction mix resulting in blunt-ended cDNA. A single 'A' nucleotide was then added to the

3' ends of the blunt fragments. Multiple indexing adapters, containing a single 'T' nucleotide on

the 3' end of the adapter, were ligated to the ends of the ds cDNA, preparing them for

hybridization onto a flow cell. Adapter-ligated libraries were amplified by PCR, purified using

Ampure XP beads, and validated for appropriate size on a 4200 TapeStation D1000 Screentape

(Agilent Technologies, Inc.). The DNA libraries were quantitated using KAPA Biosystems qPCR

kit, and were pooled together in an equimolar fashion, following experimental design criteria.

Each pool was denatured and diluted to 16 pM for On-Board Cluster Generation and

sequencing on a HiSeq2500 sequencer using the appropriate paired-end cluster kit and rapid

mode SBS reagents following the manufacturer's recommended protocol (Illumina Inc.). Raw

feature counts were normalized and differential expression analysis using DESeq2. Differential

expression rank order was utilized for subsequent Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA),

performed using the fgsea (v1.8.0) package in R. Gene sets queried included those from the

Hallmark Gene Sets available through the Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB). Sample

level gene set enrichment on normalized expression counts was performed via gene set

variation analysis (GSVA)[27], utilizing PDAC subtype gene sets[4, 28, 29]. Venn diagrams for

overlapping gene sets were generated using DeepVenn (www.deepvenn.com).

Statistical analysis

299   Data throughout are expressed as the mean ± SEM. Statistically significant differences between

300   two groups were determined by the two-sided Student's t-test for continuous data, while ANOVA

301   was used for comparisons among multiple groups with Tukey's or Dunnett's post hoc tests

302   where appropriate, with significance defined as $p < 0.05$. GraphPad Prism 10 was used for

303   these analyses.

Study approval

306   All animal protocols were approved by The Institute Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)

307   at Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center. The animal welfare assurance number for this

308   study is A3143-01.

RESULTS

BET-inhibitors block HNF1A expression in PDAC cells

As BET-inhibitors (BETi) have been used extensively to block the expression of oncogenic

transcription factors like MYC, we sought to determine whether this approach could be used to

block HNF1A expression. Using conventional human PDAC cell lines AsPC-1 and HPAF-II, and

human patient-derived xenograft (PDX) lines UM5 and UM15, all of which express HNF1A, we

found that HNF1A expression was potently reduced by pan- BETi OTX-015, with partial

reduction noted at 50nM and complete ablation at 500nM at 72 hours across all lines (**Fig. 1A**).

Interestingly, MYC, which is most commonly associated with BETi, only showed partial reduction

in expression by BETi in these cells, and only at higher concentrations of OTX-015. To better

characterize the kinetics with which OTX-015 blocks HNF1A expression, we performed a time

course study using both short (3 and 6 hours) and long (24, 48, and 72 hours) timepoints.

HNF1A protein was mostly depleted by 24 hours in all cell lines, with decrease of the protein

levels of HNF1A target genes HNF4A and HNF4G peaking between 48 and 72 hours (**Fig. 1B**).

BET family proteins possess two bromodomains (BD1 and BD2) with overlapping as well

as non-redundant activities. A number of bromodomain-selective BETi have been developed in

recent years, with BD1-selective inhibitors showing similar activities to pan- BETi, while BD2-

selective inhibitors affect the transcription of a subset of BET protein target genes, possibly

resulting in a safer drug profile in patients. To determine whether BD-selective BETi have

differential effects on the expression of HNF1A, we utilized the BD1-selective inhibitor GSK778

and BD2-selective inhibitors GSK046 and GSK620. While GSK778 most drastically reduced the

expression of HNF1A in AsPC-1 cells, expression of HNF1A was also substantially diminished

by GSK046 and GSK620 (**Supp. Fig. 1A**), indicating that the activity of both bromodomains of

BET proteins are required for HNF1A expression in PDAC cells. A third BD2-selective inhibitor,

ABBV-744, also demonstrated the ability to reduce HNF1A expression at doses a low as 10nM

in multiple PDAC lines (AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5 and UM15) (**Fig. 1C**) and as early as 24hrs (**Fig.**

1D), similar to OTX-015. Because of their high potencies and representation of distinct classes

of BETi, we opted to use OTX-015 and ABBV-744 for the duration of this study. Consistent with

transcriptional blocking of HNF1A expression, we found that both OTX-015 and ABBV-744

significantly reduced *HNF1A* mRNA levels within 24 hours of treatment (**Fig. 1E**).

Inhibition of HNF1A expression is critical for BET-inhibitor activity

Stable transcriptional inhibition of oncogenic transcription factors and networks, such as MYC,

have been shown to be critical for the responsiveness of cancer cells to BETi, and the

restoration of these transcriptional programs can portend intrinsic or adaptive resistance to

BETi[30]. Consistent with our previous studies[23, 24], knockdown of HNF1A suppressed colony

formation of PDAC cells (**Supp. Fig. 1B**), supporting its role as a critical oncogenic transcription

factor. To determine whether restoration of HNF1A could similarly rescue the effects of BETi in

PDAC, we overexpressed HNF1A from a BETi insensitive promoter (human UbC). Consistent

with the HNF1A transcriptional network being disrupted by BETi, the expression of HNF1A

target proteins HNF4A and HNF4G were reduced in response to BETi across multiple cell lines

(**Fig. 2A**). Re-expression of HNF1A resulted in rescued expression of HNF4A and HNF4G in all

cases (**Fig. 2A**). Additionally, we observed the rescued expression of MYC (**Fig. 2A**), and both

the inhibition and rescue of HNF4A, HNF4G, and MYC occurred in dose-dependent manner

mirroring inhibition/re-expression of HNF1A (**Fig. 2B**). The rescued expression of MYC in

particular suggested that the antiproliferative effects of BETi may be dependent on HNF1A

expression. In support of this, we observed that re-expression of HNF1A rescued cell viability

across cell lines treated acutely (7 days) with either OTX-015 or ABBV-744 (**Fig. 2C**). To

determine if rescue of MYC expression was responsible for the rescued viability observed with

HNF1A re-expression, we overexpressed MYC using the human UbC promoter. Levels of re-

expressed MYC were comparable to those observed with HNF1A re-expression in the presence

of BETi (**Fig. 2D**). Interestingly, while HNF1A re-expression was able to rescue colony formation

and viability across a range of BETi doses (**Fig. 2E, Supp. Fig. 2A,B**), re-expression of MYC

was unable to rescue growth (**Fig. 2E**, **Supp. Fig. 2B**). Nonetheless, HNF1A overexpression

could not rescue the anti-proliferative effects of direct MYC knockdown (**Supp. Fig. 2C,D**),

indicating that while MYC expression is required for PDAC cell proliferation even with HNF1A

present, its re-expression is not sufficient to rescue PDAC cell growth. Collectively, these data

support that HNF1A re-expression drives resistance to BETi through processes beyond control

of MYC expression.

We have previously shown that HNF1A contributes to both proliferation and stemness in

PDAC[23, 24]. As such, we next sought to determine whether re-expression of HNF1A rescues cell

cycle progression. At the protein level, we found that markers of cell cycle progression, including

phosphorylated RB and Histone H3, were reduced by BETi treatment but rescued by HNF1A re-

expression (**Fig. 3A**). Using propidium iodide (PI) staining, we found that BETi induced a G0/G1

arrest in AsPC-1, HPAF-II, and UM5 cells that could be rescued by HNF1A re-expression (**Fig**

3B, **Supp. Fig 2E**). Corresponding alterations in S phase and G2/M were partially or fully

rescued by HNF1A re-expression in a cell-specific manner (**Fig 3B**, **Supp. Fig 2E**). We

previously demonstrated that co-expression of the surface markers EPCAM (ESA) and CD44

identifies pancreatic cancer stem cells (PCSCs) and is responsive to HNF1A manipulation[23]. In

line with this, we found that BETi reduced the co-expression of EPCAM and CD44, primarily

through loss of EPCAM (an HNF1A target gene) expression (**Fig. 3C,D**), and the depletion of

EPCAM+/CD44+ cells was reversed by re-expression of HNF1A. To determine if PCSC function

is also disrupted in an HNF1A-dependent manner, we performed tumorsphere assays with

AsPC-1 and HPAF-II cells treated for 7 days prior to replating in tumorsphere conditions and

then either left untreated (pretreated) or maintained in continuous treatment of BETi. In both

pretreated and continuously treated conditions, BETi significantly reduced tumorsphere

formation, which in both cases were reversed by HNF1A re-expression (**Fig. 3F, G**). These

findings suggest that PDAC stemness can be disrupted by either transient or continuous

treatment with BETi, and that this stemness is dependent on HNF1A expression. Collectively,

these data demonstrate that BETi prevent cell cycle progression and disrupt stemness in an

HNF1A-dependent manner.

BRD4 directly regulates HNF1A expression in PDAC cells

The BET-family consists of four family members – the ubiquitously expressed BRD2, BRD3, and

BRD4, and testes-specific BRDT – all of which are equivalently targeted by BETi. To determine

which BET family members regulate HNF1A expression, we knocked down BRD2, BRD3,

BRD4, or all three expressed proteins (BRDT was not expressed in any cells examined, data

not shown). Knockdown of BRD4 reduced HNF1A protein and mRNA levels in cells tested, while

knockdown of BRD2 also reduced HNF1A expression in AsPC-1 and UM15 cells (**Fig. 4A, B**).

Additionally, treatment of AsPC-1 cells with the BRD4-selective degrader ZXH-3-26[31] markedly

reduced HNF1A expression without affecting BRD2 or BRD3 levels (**Supp. Fig. 3A**). The effects

of combined knockdown of BET proteins on HNF1A expression were not significantly different

from BRD4 knockdown alone, suggesting that BRD4 is the BET protein most responsible for

regulation of HNF1A (**Fig. 4A, B**). To determine whether the regulation of HNF1A by BRD4 is

direct, we mined publicly available BRD4 and Histone H3 acetyl-lysine 27 (a BRD4 binding

moiety[10]) ChIP-sequencing (ChIP-seq) data from the ENCODE Project[32]. We found that Histone

H3 acetyl-lysine 27 was enriched at the proximal promoter and first intron of HNF1A in HNF1A+

cells (HepG2, A549, and 22Rv1) but absent in HNF1A- cells (K562, Panc1, and HCT116) (**Fig.**

4C). Similarly, a broad BRD4 peak was present in HepG2 cells at the proximal promoter and the

5' end of the first intron of HNF1A (**Fig. 4C**), supporting direct regulation of HNF1A by BRD4. To

validate these findings, we performed ChIP-PCR in AsPC-1 cells treated with OTX-015 for 24

hours and found that BRD4 was both present at the HNF1A promoter and dissociated by

treatment with BETi (**Fig. 4D**). We further validated the direct regulation of HNF1A by BRD4 by

performing reporter assays using an HNF1A promoter-driven GFP lentiviral construct (**Fig. 4E**).

We found that GFP expression was decreased in response to both BETi treatment and

knockdown of BRD4 (**Fig. 4F**), indicating that BRD4 directly regulates transcription of HNF1A

from its proximal promoter. Lastly, we found that mRNA levels of *HNF1A* and *BRD4* were

significantly correlated in RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) datasets from Moffitt *et al.*, 2015[29] and

TNMplot[33] (**Fig. 4G, H**), while correlation of HNF1A with BRD2 or BRD3 was either weaker or

non-existent (**Supp. Fig. 3B, C**). Collectively, these data support that BRD4 is a direct regulator

of HNF1A expression, and BETi directly block HNF1A transcription by dissociating BRD4 from

its promoter.

To determine if genetic ablation of BRD4 phenocopies the biological effects of BETi in

regard to HNF1A, we performed BRD4 knockdowns in our LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing

PDAC lines. Similar to our earlier findings, the knockdown of BRD4 reduced the expression of

HNF4A and HNF4G, which could be partially rescued by HNF1A re-expression (**Fig. 5A**). Re-

expression of HNF1A was also able to rescue cell viability with short-term (96 hours) BRD4

knockdown (**Fig. 5B**) and in colony formation assays (**Fig. 5C, D**). As with BETi treatment,

BRD4 knockdown depleted EPCAM+/CD44+ cells and tumorsphere formation, which were both

rescued by HNF1A re-expression (**Fig. 5A, F**). Finally, to test the effects of BRD4 knockdown

and HNF1A re-expression on tumor growth, we generated AsPC-1 LacZ and HNF1A cells with

inducible BRD4 shRNA and implanted them subcutaneously into NSG mice. Once tumors were

established, mice were administered doxycycline to induce the expression of the BRD4 shRNA.

As expected, the knockdown of BRD4 greatly delayed tumor growth, while HNF1A re-

expressing tumors grew at rates comparable to their control shRNA cohorts (**Fig. 5G**). Analyses

of the resultant tumors showed that BRD4 knockdown was maintained throughout the duration

of the experiment (**Fig. 5H**), while staining of tumors for Ki-67 revealed a reduction in

proliferating cells in BRD4 knockdown tumors that were rescued by HNF1A re-expression (**Fig.**

5I).

A subset of BETi target genes is dependent on HNF1A expression

In order to gain a greater understanding of the transcriptomic contribution of HNF1A to the

response of PDAC cells to BETi, we performed RNA-seq on LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing

AsPC-1 cells in the presence of OTX-015 and ABBV-744, and compared the resultant gene

signatures to our previously published RNA-seq of AsPC-1 cells knocked down for HNF1A[24]

(**Fig. 6A**). Using a padj.<0.05 cutoff, HNF1A knockdown resulted in 1596 downregulated and

1411 upregulated genes (**Fig. 6A, Supp. File 1**). Treatment with OTX-015 resulted in 1300

unique downregulated and 1197 unique upregulated genes, while treatment with ABBV-744

resulted in 1541 distinct downregulated and 1145 distinct upregulated genes, with 1247

downregulated (including HNF1A) and 776 upregulated genes shared by both BETi (**Fig. 6A,**

Supp. File 1). Of the shared BET-regulated genes, 288 (23.1%) were also downregulated and

123 (15.9%) were upregulated by HNF1A knockdown (**Supp. File 1**). Upon re-expression of

HNF1A, 1494 BETi downregulated transcripts, including 305 (20.4%) that were downregulated

by HNF1A knockdown, were significantly upregulated (rescued) (**Fig. 6C**), including *HNF4A* and

EPCAM. Collectively, we found 87/237 previously identified HNF1A-activated genes, including

23/56 associated with poor patient survival[23], rescued by HNF1A re-expression (**Fig. 6D,E**).

Likewise,1490 BETi upregulated genes, including 260 (13.8%) that were upregulated by HNF1A

knockdown were downregulated by HNF1A re-expression (**Supp. Fig. 4A**), including 12/45 we

previously identified as HNF1A repressed genes[23] (**Supp. Fig. 4B**). We had previously shown a

significant overlap[24] between HNF1A upregulated genes and genes upregulated in PDAC

metastases[34]. Of these 252 overlapping transcripts, 62 (24.6%) were significantly

downregulated by both BETi, with 40/62 being rescued by HNF1A re-expression, including

metastasis driver *FGFR4*[24] (**Supp. File 1**). This would indicate that BETi target metastasis

associated genes and drivers in an HNF1A-dependent manner.

HNF1A is associated with the classical subtype of PDAC[28, 35] and has been proposed to

serve as a barrier to transdifferentiation into non-classical subtypes[8]. To determine whether

manipulation of HNF1A and/or BETi drive subtype switching in PDAC, we performed gene set

variation analysis (GSVA) using well-established PDAC subtype gene sets[4, 28, 29]. While the

classical signatures defined by Collisson *et. al.*, and Moffitt *et. al.*, were not significantly altered

by HNF1A knockdown, we did observe a downregulation of the analogous Bailey *et. al.*,

progenitor subtype signature. Interestingly, the knockdown of HNF1A also downregulated the

Moffitt *et. al.*, basal subtype and Bailey *et. al.*, squamous subtype signatures without

significantly altering the Collisson quasimesenchymal (QM) subtype signature (**Fig. 6F**),

indicating that HNF1A positively regulates genes associated with multiple subtypes, similar to

our previous work[23]. Likewise, we did not observe an induction of the non-classical signatures

with BETi treatment, but rather a suppression of these signature genes in most cases and in a

similar manner to classical/progenitor genes (**Fig. 6G**). Overexpression of HNF1A significantly

downregulated the classical/progenitor signatures upregulated the Collison *et. al.*, QM signature

(**Fig. 6G**), indicating that HNF1A's role in subtype determination is likely more complicated than

previously suggested[8].

Receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) signaling is coordinated by HNF1A downstream of BETi

In order to determine the mechanism by which HNF1A re-expression rescues the

antiproliferative effects of BETi, we performed gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) using our

BETi/HNF1A rescue RNA-seq results. As expected, numerous pathways were altered by both

BETi; however, only a small subset of pathways showed rescue by HNF1A re-expression (49

pathways rescued up, 13 pathways rescued down) (**Supp. Fig 4C**). Among the 49 pathways

that were downregulated by BETi and rescued by HNF1A re-expression, six involved

components of EGFR/ERBB-signaling (PID_ERBB_NETWORK_PATHWAY,

GOBP_REGULATION_OF_EPIDERMAL_GROWTH_FACTOR_ACTIVATED_RECEPTOR_ACT

IVITY, GOBP_EPIDERMAL_CELL_DIFFERENTIATION,

GOBP_KERATINOCYTE_PROLIFERATION,

GOBP_POSITIVE_REGULATION_OF_ERBB_SIGNALING_PATHWAY, and

GOBP_REGULATION_OF_KERATINOCYTE_PROLIFERATION) (**Supp. Fig 4C**). In examining

our HNF1A knockdown and BETi rescue RNA-seq data, we observed multiple components of

EGFR/ERBB-signaling significantly altered, including mRNA levels of receptors (*EGFR* and

ERBB3), ligands (*AREG*, *EREG*, *TGFA*, and *HBEGF*), and regulator proteins (*TRIB3* and

ERRFI1) showing downregulation by HNF1A knockdown and BETi and rescued expression by

HNF1A restoration (**Fig. 7A, B**). Consistent with our mRNA data, we observed decreased levels

of total and/or phosphorylated EGFR and ERBB3 across multiple PDAC cell lines in response to

BETi treatment, which was in turn rescued by re-expression of HNF1A (**Fig. 7C**, **Supp. Fig. 5A**).

Similar results were observed with direct knockdown of BRD4 and HNF1A re-expression (**Supp.**

Fig. 5B), indicating that EGFR/ERBB3-signaling are both responsive to BETi/BRD4-ablation

and are HNF1A-dependent. To determine whether restoration of EGFR/ERBB3-signaling was

responsible for the rescue phenotype imparted by HNF1A restoration, we targeted EGFR

activity with the EGFR-specific inhibitor, erlotinib, and pan-ERBB inhibitor, afatinib. Both

inhibitors reduced the phosphorylation of EGFR and ERBB3 (**Fig. 7D**, **Supp. Fig. 5C**) and

abolished the protective effects of HNF1A re-expression in the presence of BETi (**Fig. 7E**,

Supp. Fig. 5D). While single-agent activity of both inhibitors was observed, no baseline

differences in sensitivity due to HNF1A re-expression was seen, supporting that EGFR/ERBB3-

signaling functions downstream of HNF1A. To determine whether HNF1A was more broadly

associated with EGFR/ERBB3-signaling components in PDAC, we mined the Moffitt *et. al.*, and

Bailey *et. al.*, datasets for correlations between *HNF1A* mRNA and expression levels of *EGFR*,

ERBB3, *AREG*, *EREG*, *TGFA*, *HBEGF*, *TRIB3* and *ERRFI1*. Of these genes, *HNF1A* mRNA

was correlated with *ERBB3* mRNA across both datasets (**Fig. 7F, G**), while *TRIB3* and *ERRFI1*

mRNA only in the Moffitt *et. al.*, dataset (**Supp. Fig. 6A, B**). Examining our own HNF1A ChIP-

seq datasets[23, 24], we identified a strong enrichment peak for HNF1A approximately -77kbp to

the transcriptional start of ERBB3 in both UM5 and UM15, indicating possible distal regulation of

ERBB3 by HNF1A in PDAC (**Supp. Fig. 6C**).

HNF1A, BRD4, and RTK expression are correlated in PDAC patients

In the PDAC cell models examined in this study we observed an epistatic hierarchy wherein

BETi target BRD4, which directly regulates HNF1A, which either directly or indirectly drives

EGFR/ERBB3-signaling to promote PDAC proliferation and stemness. To examine whether this

hierarchy exists more broadly in PDAC patients, we performed multispectral

immunofluorescence on a tissue microarray (TMA) consisting of 220 PDAC patient cores[26].

Using pan-cytokeratin (AE1/AE3) to label PDAC cells, we co-stained cores for HNF1A, BRD4,

ERBB3, phospho-ERBB3, and established HNF1A target and RTK FGFR4[24] (**Fig. 7A, B**). Using

both percent positivity and staining intensity, we found that HNF1A and BRD4 were the most

strongly correlated of the markers tested (**Fig. 7C-E**), with these markers showing significant

correlations when measuring percent positivity (**Fig. 7D**). Interestingly, when examining the

correlation coefficients (Pearson R) for staining intensities for each core, we found the R values

for FGFR4 and ERBB3 to be the strongest of all pairwise comparisons (**Fig. 7E**). As both of

these RTKs are part of a metastatic signature in PDAC (**Supp. File 1**)[24], these findings lend

credence to the possibility that HNF1A orchestrates PDAC malignancy, at least in part, through

upregulation of RTK-signaling, and that this axis is vulnerable to BETi.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we demonstrated that the oncogenic transcription factor HNF1A is directly

regulated by BRD4, and therefore sensitive to BETi, and that this suppression of HNF1A

expression is a major contributor to the antineoplastic activity of BETi in HNF1A-expressing

PDAC cells. These findings uncover a novel mechanism of BETi activity in PDAC and highlight

HNF1A as a potential therapeutic target.

Pharmacological inhibition of epigenetic writers (e.g., HATs), erasers (e.g., HDACs), and

readers (e.g., BET proteins) have been widely pursued in the treatment of many cancers and

have been explored in clinical trials for PDAC[36]. However, in the case of BETi, enrollment of

PDAC patients in clinical trials has been limited, making the efficacy of BETi challenging to

assess. Nonetheless, larger PDAC-focused clinical trials examining the efficacy of BETi would

likely be met with a number of challenges. One foreseeable limitation would be the evaluation of

effective BETi delivery and on-target activity, particularly as the tumor microenvironment may

present a barrier to drug delivery[37]. While MYC has long been regarded as the most notable

target of BETi and may serve as a biomarker for BETi efficacy, the responsiveness of MYC

expression to BETi in PDAC and other cancers is variable[15, 38], and further supported by this

study. Here, we found HNF1A expression exquisitely sensitive to BETi, even at doses and in cell

lines in which MYC was not responsive. It is therefore feasible that the expression of HNF1A in

patient tumors may serve as a biomarker for BETi activity as well as a critical downstream target

of BRD4. Another limitation of BETi in cancer therapeutics is on-target toxicities caused by the

disruption of BET-dependent gene transcription, and as such, bromodomain-selective inhibitors

with more restricted effects have been proposed as safer alternatives to pan-BETi[39, 40]. ABBV-

744 was initially demonstrated to have potent antiproliferative activity against prostate cancer

while exhibiting a more modest effect on gene expression than pan-BETi[39]. In our hands, ABBV-

744 and OTX-015 exhibited very distinct effects on gene expression, supporting that the activity

of BD2-selective BETi and pan-BETi are indeed distinct in PDAC cells; however, we were able

to demonstrate that both classes of BETi disrupt HNF1A-dependent gene expression and inhibit

PDAC cell growth and stem-like properties in an HNF1A-dependent manner. This supports the

idea that multiple classes of BETi, including future generations of improved BETi or BRD4-

targeting modalities may be utilized to target HNF1A in PDAC or other HNF1A-driven cancer

types. Alternatively, direct inhibition of HNF1A activity/expression (e.g., PROTAC or RNAi) may

serve as a strategy to cripple its transcriptional network in PDAC cells without widespread

transcriptional disruption seen with inhibition of common epigenetic/transcriptional regulators.

565   The role(s) of HNF1A in cancer, particularly PDAC, remain controversial. HNF1A

expression has been shown to mark and possibly contribute to early onset resistance to

androgen-ablation in prostate cancer[22], as well as drive super-enhancer remodeling and liver

metastasis in colorectal cancer[20]. Early genome-wide association (GWA) studies in PDAC

identified multiple risk variant single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) of the HNF1A locus[41-43],

although no studies to date have ascribed a function to any of these risk variants that would

support gain or loss of HNF1A function or expression. Supporting an oncogenic role for HNF1A

in PDAC, our group and others have demonstrated that HNF1A promotes metastasis[44],

maintains cancer stem cell function[23], and is necessary for tumor growth in HNF1A-expressing

PDAC cells[23, 45]. By contrast, Hoskins *et al*., was the first to suggest HNF1A as a putative tumor

suppressor in PDAC, observing that the HNF1A transcriptional network was dysregulated in

PDAC[46], a phenomenon that can now be attributed to the different molecular subtypes of PDAC

and their unique transcriptional regulators[4, 28, 29, 35, 47]. Additionally, overexpression of HNF1A in

non-classical PDAC cells (Panc-1 and MiaPaCa-2) resulted in growth arrest and apoptosis,

possibly due to super-physiological levels of HNF1A expression or incompatibility of HNF1A with

endogenous transcriptional programs. Additionally, the requirement for HNF1A in HNF1A-

expressing cells was not examined. Of note, we did not observe anti-proliferative effects from

overexpression of HNF1A from the weaker UbC promoter in either Panc-1 or MiaPaCa-2 (data

not shown), suggesting that the dose of overexpression may affect HNF1A's proliferative/anti-

proliferative activities. In addition to being proposed as a tumor suppressor, it has also been

suggested that HNF1A, in concert with GATA6 and HNF4A[8] or KDM6A[48], might serve as

transcriptional roadblock to the non-classical subtype(s) of PDAC, potentially complicating the

implementation of HNF1A-targeting therapies. While we found that BETi and short-term

knockdown of HNF1A diminished the classical gene signature in AsPC-1 cells, we did not

observe a significant increase in non-classical gene expression. We also observed positive

regulation of some non-classical signature genes, such as *AREG*, by HNF1A, indicating that

HNF1A does not solely regulate classical signature genes. These observations are consistent

with our previous long-term knockdown studies in PDX lines[23], indicating that loss of HNF1A

alone is insufficient to transdifferentiate classical PDAC to non-classical PDAC. Nonetheless,

non-classical PDAC cells have been shown to be sensitive to BETi[16], presumably through

disruption of their unique master transcription factors like MYC, RUNX3, and TP63[9, 16], and

taken together with this study, support the use of BETi to overcome critical transcriptional

networks.

Key among the findings of this study are the connections between HNF1A, BETi, and

EGFR/ERBB3-signaling. While resistance to BETi mediated through EGFR-signaling has been

reported in other cancers[49], the role of this pathway in response to BETi in PDAC has not been

explored, nor has its regulation by HNF1A. Recently, Rao *et al*. reported that high expression of

HNF1A could be used to stratify patient responses to a combination of gemcitabine and

erlotinib, with HNF1A positivity correlating with better survival. While this study did not explore

whether HNF1A status correlated with expression or phosphorylation of EGFR or ERBB3, it is in

line with our observation that ERBB3-high patients within our cohort had better outcomes. This

finding, however, disagrees with early observations that high ERBB3 predicted poorer survival in

patients with resected PDAC[50], though this may reflect differences in how ERBB3, and perhaps

HNF1A, impact treatment responses. It is worth noting that ERBB3 was among the classical

PDAC signature genes initially described by Collisson *et al.*, who also demonstrated that

classical PDAC cells were more sensitive to erlotinib than quasi-mesenchymal PDAC cells[4].

While it is unclear whether HNF1A directly regulates ERBB3, we previously identified it as an

HNF1A-regulated gene and identified an HNF1A binding peak ~77 kbp upstream of the ERBB3

transcriptional start site[23]. Overall, these findings would suggest that HNF1A, rather than

functioning as a *bona fide* tumor suppressor, transcriptionally controls signaling networks (such

as RTKs) that can be exploited for therapeutic gain.

A perplexing finding of this study is the interplay between BETi, HNF1A, and MYC. Many

early studies on BETi in leukemias suggest that their antineoplastic activity stem from the

transcriptional inhibition of MYC[12, 17-19], although their activity in PDAC PDXs has been

demonstrated to not strictly correspond to inhibition of MYC[15]. Consistent with the latter, we

found that BETi variably affected MYC expression in PDAC cell and PDX lines, and generally

less effectively than their inhibition of HNF1A expression. Moreover, ectopic expression of MYC,

in contrast to ectopic HNF1A, did not rescue the antiproliferative effects of BETi, indicating that

inhibition of MYC alone is not the determinant of BETi activity in HNF1A-expressing PDAC cells.

However, HNF1A re-expression also rescued MYC protein (Fig. 2A) and mRNA levels (Fig. 5B,

Supplemental File 2), suggesting that HNF1A may control MYC expression independently of

BRD4, possibly bolstering HNF1A oncogenic activity in conjunction with RTK upregulation.

Future studies may be warranted to better understand the potential crosstalk between MYC and

HNF1A in PDAC and other HNF1A-expressing cancers.

In summary, this study highlights a novel role for HNF1A in determining the response of

HNF1A-expressing PDAC to BETi and may in part explain the association between HNF1A-

positive/classical subtype PDAC and responsiveness to EGFR-inhibitors. While these findings

have great implications for stratifying the use of targeted therapies like BETi and EGFR-

inhibitors in classical PDAC, it remains unclear whether this paradigm would apply to non-

classical PDAC, or what driver transcription factors might portend response in this subtype. A

better understanding of the critical targets of BETi in HNF1A-negative/nonclassical is needed

not only as potential biomarkers for response to BETi, but also to identify other potential

vulnerabilities, like the EGFR pathway in HNF1A-positive PDAC. Future studies should also

explore whether HNF1A expression, as well as its downregulation by BETi, can be used to

stratify patients and predict response to BETi in the clinic.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

K.S. Humphrey: Conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, validation, investigation,

methodology, and writing–original draft. **K.J. Crawford:** Data curation, formal analysis,

validation, investigation, writing–original draft, and editing. **B. Muppavarapu:** Data curation,

formal analysis, validation, investigation, funding acquisition and methodology. **M.M. Mayberry:**

Data curation, formal analysis, validation, investigation, and methodology. **W. Morris:** Data

curation, formal analysis, validation, investigation, and methodology. **E. Torres:** Data curation,

formal analysis, validation, investigation, and methodology. **M.D. Long:** Data curation, software,

and formal analysis. **J. Wang:** Data curation, software, methodology, and formal analysis. **E.S.**

Knudsen: Conceptualization, funding acquisition, resources, and editing. **A.K. Witkiewicz:**

Conceptualization, funding acquisition, resources, and editing. **E.V. Abel:** Conceptualization,

data curation, formal analysis, validation, investigation, supervision, funding acquisition,

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors have no financial or non-financial competing interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. BETi block HNF1A expression in PDAC cells. **A,** Western blotting of HNF1A, MYC and

Actin for AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells treated with the indicated doses of OTX-015

for 72 hours. **B,** Western blotting of HNF1A, MYC and Actin for AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5, and

UM15 cells treated with 0.5 µM OTX-015 for the indicated time points. **C,** Western blotting of

HNF1A, MYC and Actin for AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells treated with the indicated

doses of ABBV-744 for 72 hours. **D,** Western blotting of HNF1A, MYC and Actin for AsPC-1,

HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells treated with 0.1 µM ABBV-744 for the indicated time points. **E,**

quantitative RT-PCR analysis of HNF1A mRNA levels following 24 hours of treatment of AsPC-

1, HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells with either DMSO, 0.1 µM ABBV-744, or 0.5 µM OTX-015. Bar

graphs represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by two-sided

Student t-test with Welch's correction; ns = non-significant, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001,

****p<0.0001.

Figure 2. Effects of HNF1A and MYC re-expression on to BETi. **A,** Western blotting for HNF1A,

HNF4A (top band), HNF4G (bottom band), MYC and Actin in LacZ or HNF1A overexpressing

AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells treated with DMSO, 0.5 µM OTX-015, or 0.1 µM ABBV-

744 for 72 hours to confirm overexpression and resistance to BETi. **B,** quantitation of LacZ or

HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cell viability (AlamarBlue) following 7

days of treatment with DMSO, 0.5 µM OTX-015, or 0.1 µM ABBV-744. Drugs were replenished

every 3 days. Bar graphs represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined

by two-sided Student t-test with Welch's correction; ns = non-significant, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, and

***p<0.001. **C,** Western blotting of HNF1A, MYC, HNF4A, HNF4G, and Actin in LacZ and

HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 cells treated with the indicated doses of OTX-015. **D,** Western

blotting for HNF1A, MYC and Actin in LacZ, HNF1A, and MYC overexpressing AsPC-1, UM5,

and UM15 cells treated with DMSO, 0.5 µM OTX-015, or 0.1 µM ABBV-744 for 72 hours to

confirm overexpression and resistance to BETi. **E,** dose curves colony formation experiments

for LacZ, HNF1A, and MYC overexpressing AsPC-1, UM5, and UM15 cells. Cells were plated at

200 cells per well and treated with the indicated concentrations of OTX-015 or ABBV-744 for 2

weeks. Resultant colonies were quantitated by AlamarBlue viability assay. Data points represent

the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons test; ns = non-significant, $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

Figure 3. Re-expression of HNF1A restores cell cycle progression and stemness. **A,** Western

blotting for HNF1A, phospho-RB S807/S811, phospho-Histone H3 S10, and Actin for LacZ and

HNF1A overexpressing cells treated with 0.5 µM OTX-015 or 0.1 µM ABBV-744 for 72 hours. **B,**

quantitation of propidium iodide staining of LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 and

HPAF-II cells treated with 0.5 µM OTX-015 or 0.1 µM ABBV-744 for 72 hours. Relative

percentages of G0/G1, S, and G2/M phase cells are shown. **C,** flow cytometry analysis of CD44

and EPCAM surface expression on LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 cells treated with

0.5 µM OTX-015 for 72 hours. **D,** quantitation of EPCAM+/CD44+ LacZ and HNF1A

overexpressing AsPC-1 and **E,** HPAF-II cells treated with 0.5 µM OTX-015 or 0.1 µM ABBV-744

for 72 hours. **F,** representative images of tumorspheres formed from LacZ and HNF1A

overexpressing HPAF-II cells. Cells were treated for one week in 2D cell culture with either

DMSO or 0.5 µM OTX-015 before being replated in non-adherent tumorsphere culture. For

OTX-015 treated cells, replated cells were either maintained in DMSO (pretreated) or additional

0.5 µM OTX-015 (continuous). Media and inhibitor were replenished every 3 days for 14 days

before imagining and quantitation of spheres. **G,** LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 and

HPAF-II were treated with DMSO, 0.5 µM OTX-015 or 0.1 µM ABBV-744 as described in **F.**

quantitation of resultant tumorspheres is shown. All bar graphs in this figure represent the mean

± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons test; ns = non-significant, $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

Figure 4. BRD4 directly regulates HNF1A expression. **A,** Western blotting for HNF1A, BRD2,

BRD3, BRD4, and Actin for AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells transfected with control

(Ctl), BRD2, BRD3, BRD4, or combined BET protein siRNAs for 96 hours. **B,** quantitative RT-

PCR analysis of HNF1A mRNA levels following 96 hours of knockdown of AsPC-1, HPAF-II,

UM5, and UM15 cells with Ctl or BRD4 siRNA. Bar graphs represent the mean ± SEM, n=3.

Statistical difference was determined by two-sided Student t-test with Welch's correction; ns =

non-significant, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. **C,** UCSC Genome Browser ChIP-

seq tracks for the HNF1A locus. ChIP-seq experiments for Histone H3 acetyl-lysine 27 and

BRD4 are shown for HNF1A-positive (HepG2, A594, 22Rv1) and HNF1A-negative (K562,

Panc1, HCT116) cells. The HNF1A proximal promoter region is indicated. **D,** ChIP-PCR was

performed on AsPC-1 cells treated with DMSO or 0.5 µM OTX-015 for 24 hours using normal

IgG or BRD4 antibody. Enrichment of the HNF1A promoter was compared to the second intron

of HNF1A as an intragenic control and the MYOD promoter as an inactive promoter control. Bar

graphs represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by two-sided

Student t-test with Welch's correction; ns = non-significant, *p<0.05. **E,** schematic

representation of a HNF1A reporter construct. A 1kbp region of the proximal promoter region,

including the 5' UTR was cloned upstream of a GFP reporter. **F,** Western blotting of HNF1A,

GFP, BRD4, and Actin for AsPC-1 reporter cells treated with DMSO, 0.5 µM OTX-015 or 0.1 µM

ABBV-744 for 24 hours or transfected with Ctl or BRD4 siRNA for 96 hours. **G,** correlation of

HNF1A and BRD4 mRNA from Moffitt *et al.*, 2015[29]. **H,** correlation of HNF1A and BRD4 mRNA

from PDAC tumors from TNMplot.com[33].

Figure 5. Re-expression of HNF1A overcomes effects of BRD4 knockdown. **A,** Western blotting

of LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing cells transfected with Control (Ctl) or BRD4 siRNA for 96

hours for BRD4, HNF4A and HNF4G, HNF1A, and Actin. **B,** quantitation of cell viability of LacZ

and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 cells following 96 hours of BRD4 knockdown. Bar graphs

represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparisons test; **p<0.01. **C,** representative AsPC-1 colonies after 2 weeks

of BRD4 knockdown. siRNA was re-transfected after the first week. **D,** quantitation of colony

viability performed in **C**. Bar graphs represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was

determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; ****p<0.0001. **E,** flow

cytometry analysis of CD44 and EPCAM surface expression on LacZ and HNF1A

overexpressing AsPC-1 cells following 96 hours of BRD4 knockdown. Bar graphs represent the

mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons test; ns = non-significant, *p<0.05. **F,** tumorsphere formation of LacZ and

HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 and HPAF-II cells. Cells were transfected 72 hours prior to

replating and grown under tumorsphere conditions for 2 weeks. Bar graphs represent the mean

± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons test; ns = non-significant, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001. **G,** subcutaneous tumor growth of

LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 cells. Once tumors reached a measurable size, mice

were administered doxycycline chow and water to induce control or BRD4 shRNA expression.

Tumors were monitored until humane endpoint was reached in any group. Data points represent

the mean tumor volumes ± SEM. n=11 mice per group. Statistical difference was determined by

two-way ANOVA. ns = non-significant, *p<0.05, ****p<0.0001. **H,** Western blotting of tumor

lysates (3 per group) for HNF1A, BRD4, and Actin confirming knockdown of BRD4 and HNF1A

downregulation/overexpression. **I,** representative immunohistochemistry staining for Ki-67 in

AsPC-1 xenografts from **G**. Bar graphs represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference

was determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; ns = non-

significant, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

Figure 6. Transcriptomic analysis of HNF1A-dependent gene expression. **A,** heatmap of

differentially regulated genes (DEGs) from AsPC-1 cells transfected with control or HNF1A

siRNA for 72 hours; 3 biological replicates per group, (p.adj < 0.05, FC > 2). **B,** clustered

heatmaps of DEGs from LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 cells treated with DMSO, 0.5

μM OTX-015 or 0.1 μM ABBV-744 for 72 hours. HNF1A-rescued, BETi-downregulated

transcripts are shown on the left, HNF1A-rescued, BETi-upregulated transcripts are shown on

the right. 3 biological replicates per group, (p.adj < 0.05, FC > 2). **C-E,** Venn diagrams showing

overlap of transcripts up-regulated by HNF1A rescue in OTX-015 and ABBV-744 treated cells

with transcripts down-regulated by knockdown of HNF1A in AsPC-1 cells (**C**), previously

reported HNF1A-activated genes[23] (**D**), and HNF1A-activated genes associated with poor

patient survival[23] (**E**). **F, G,** GSVA analysis of DEGs from HNF1A knockdown (**F**) and BETi

treatment/HNF1A-rescue (**G**) using previously described classical and non-classical gene sets

from Collisson et al., 2011[4], Moffitt *et al.*, 2015[29] and Bailey *et al.*, 2016[28].

Figure 7. HNF1A re-expression drives EGFR/ERBB3-signaling. **A, B,** heatmap of differentially

expressed genes in the EGFR/ERBB3-signaling pathway from RNA-seq of AsPC-1 cells

transfected with HNF1A siRNA (**A**) or overexpressing LacZ and HNF1A and treated with the

indicated BETi for 72 hours (**B**). **C,** Western blotting for phospho-EGFR Y1068, EGFR,

phospho-ERBB3 Y1197, ERBB3, HNF1A, and Actin from LacZ (L) and HNF1A (H)

overexpressing AsPC-1 cells treated with DMSO, 0.5 μM OTX-015, or 0.1 μM ABBV-744 for 72

hours. **D,** Western blotting for phospho-EGFR Y1068, EGFR, phospho-ERBB3 Y1197, ERBB3,

HNF1A, and Actin from LacZ (L) and HNF1A (H) overexpressing AsPC-1 cells treated with

DMSO, 1 μM erlotinib, 0.5 μM OTX-015, 0.1 μM ABBV-744, or combinations of erlotinib and

either OTX-015 or ABBV-744 for 72 hours. **E,** dose curves colony formation experiments for

LacZ, and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1 cells treated with DMSO, 1 μM erlotinib, 0.5 μM

OTX-015, 0.1 µM ABBV-744, or combinations of erlotinib and either OTX-015 or ABBV-744 (left

panels) or BETi in combination with 1 µM afatinib (right panel) for two weeks. Bar graphs

represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparisons test; ns = non-significant, *p<0.05, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. **F,**

G, correlation of HNF1A and ERBB3 mRNA expressions from Moffitt *et al.*, 2015[29] (**F**) and

Bailey *et al.*, 2016[28] (**G**).

Figure 8. Co-expression of HNF1A, BRD4, and RTKs in PDAC patient samples. **A, B,**

multispectral immunofluorescence of PDAC patient cores staining for pan-cytokeratin

(AE1AE3), HNF1A, BRD4, ERBB3, phospho-ERBB3 Y1289, and FGFR4. A core demonstrating

strong co-staining for all markers is represented in (**A**), while a core demonstrating only strong

staining for pan-cytokeratin is represented in (**B**). **C,** ranked heatmap showing correlation of

HNF1A, BRD4, ERBB3, phospho-ERBB3, and FGFR4 positivity across 220 patient cores. **D, E,**

correlation plots for markers based on percent positivity (**D**) and average staining intensity (**E**).

F, violin plot of the R values for each core comparing marker staining intensity. Pairwise

comparisons are indicated above.

Supplemental Figure 1. Inhibition of HNF1A expression by BD-selective BET-inhibitors and

effects of HNF1A loss on colony formation. **A,** Western blotting of HNF1A, MYC, and Actin for

AsPC-1 cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of GSK778 (BD1-selective),

GSK046 (BD2-selective), or GSK620 (BD2-selective) for 72 hours. **B,** Colony formation of

AsPC-1, HPAF-II, and UM5 following knockdown of HNF1A. Bar graphs represent the mean ±

SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by two-sided Student t-test with Welch's

correction; *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001.

Supplemental Figure 2. HNF1A overexpression protects against BETi. **A,** dose curves colony

formation experiments for LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing HPAF-II cells. Cells were plated at

200 cells per well and treated with the indicated concentrations of OTX-015 or ABBV-744 for 2

weeks. Resultant colonies were quantitated by AlamarBlue viability assay. Data points represent

the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons test; ns = non-significant, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$. **B,** representative LacZ,

HNF1A, and MYC overexpressing AsPC-1 colonies after 2 weeks of BETi treatment. **C, D,**

colony viability of AsPC-1 (**C**) and HPAF-II (**D**) LacZ and HNF1A overexpressing cells

transfected with MYC siRNA for 2 weeks. **E,** quantitation of propidium iodide staining of LacZ

and HNF1A overexpressing UM5 cells treated with 0.5 µM OTX-015 or 0.1 µM ABBV-744 for 72

hours. Relative percentages of G0/G1, S, and G2/M phase cells are shown. Statistical

difference was determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; ns =

non-significant, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$.

Supplemental Figure 3. Association of HNF1A with BET-family proteins in PDAC. **A,** Western

blotting of HNF1A, BRD2, BRD3, BRD4, HNF4G, MYC, and Actin in AsPC-1 cells treated with

the indicated concentrations of BRD4-selective degrader ZXH-3-26 for 72 hours. **B,** correlations

of HNF1A mRNA expression and BRD2 and BRD3 mRNA expressions from Moffitt *et al.*,

2015[29]. **C,** correlations of HNF1A mRNA expression and BRD2 and BRD3 mRNA expressions

from PDAC tumors from TNMplot.com[33].

Supplemental Figure 4. Transcriptomic and pathway analysis of BETi-responsive/HNF1A-

dependent genes. **A, B,** Venn diagrams showing overlap of transcripts downregulated by

HNF1A rescue in OTX-015 and ABBV-744 treated cells with transcripts upregulated by

knockdown of HNF1A in AsPC-1 cells (**A**) and previously reported HNF1A-repressed genes[23]

(**B**). **C,** clustered GSEA heatmap for pathways differentially regulated by OTX-015 or ABBV-744

treatment and HNF1A rescue in AsPC-1 cells.

Supplemental Figure 5. Regulation of EGFR/ERBB3-signaling by HNF1A, BETi, and BRD4. **A,**

Western blotting for phospho-EGFR Y1068, EGFR, phospho-ERBB3 Y1197, ERBB3, HNF1A,

and Actin from LacZ (L) and HNF1A (H) overexpressing HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells treated

with DMSO, 0.5 µM OTX-015, or 0.1 µM ABBV-744 for 72 hours. B, Western blotting for

phospho-EGFR Y1068, EGFR, phospho-ERBB3 Y1197, ERBB3, HNF1A, and Actin from LacZ

and HNF1A overexpressing AsPC-1, HPAF-II, UM5, and UM15 cells knocked down for BRD4.

C, Western blotting for phospho-EGFR Y1068, EGFR, phospho-ERBB3 Y1197, ERBB3,

HNF1A, and Actin from LacZ (L) and HNF1A (H) overexpressing HPAF-II cells treated with

DMSO, 1 µM afatinib, 0.5 µM OTX-015, 0.1 µM ABBV-744, or combinations of afatinib and

either OTX-015 or ABBV-744 for 72 hours. **D,** dose curves colony formation experiments for

LacZ, and HNF1A overexpressing HPAF-II and UM5 cells treated with DMSO, 1 µM erlotinib,

0.5 µM OTX-015, 0.1 µM ABBV-744, or combinations of erlotinib and either OTX-015 or ABBV-

744 (left panels) or BETi in combination with 1 µM afatinib (right panel) for two weeks. Bar

graphs represent the mean ± SEM, n=3. Statistical difference was determined by one-way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; ns = non-significant, *$p<0.05$, ***$p<0.001$,

****$p<0.0001$.

Supplemental Figure 6. Association of HNF1A with EGFR/ERBB3-signaling components. **A, B,**

Correlation of *TRIB3* (**A**) and *ERRFI1* (**B**) mRNA expressions with *HNF1A* mRNA expression

997 from Moffitt *et al.*, 2015[29]. **C,** UCSC Genome Browser HNF1A ChIP-seq tracks from UM5 and

998 UM15 cells showing the ERBB3 locus and adjacent gene bodies. **D,** Kaplan-Meier plot for

999 PDAC patient survival correlated with ERBB3 staining intensity. Patients were stratified by low,

1000 medium, and high expression of ERBB3. N=115 patients.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

A

B

A

AsPC-1

ZXH-3-26 (µM): 0 1 5 10

HNF1A

BRD2

BRD3

BRD4

HNF4G

MYC

Actin

B

Exp Pancreatic Ductal Adenocarcinoma Virtual Microdissection

Jen - 357 - custom - gpl20769
357 samples
HNF1A (HNF1A) vs BRD2 (BRD2)
R=0.264 7.0 percentage explained p=4.19e-07

Exp Pancreatic Ductal Adenocarcinoma Virtual Microdissection

Jen - 357 - custom - gpl20769
357 samples
HNF1A (HNF1A) vs BRD3 (BRD3)
R=0.292 8.5 percentage explained p=1.81e-08

C

Pearson R= -0.06
p= 0.37

Pearson R= -0.08
p= 0.20

Figure S4

A

B

C

D