



Universiteit
Leiden
The Netherlands

Precision modeling of breast cancer in the CRISPR era

Annunziato, S.

Citation

Annunziato, S. (2020, January 16). *Precision modeling of breast cancer in the CRISPR era*. Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/1887/82703>

Version: Publisher's Version

License: [Licence agreement concerning inclusion of doctoral thesis in the Institutional Repository of the University of Leiden](#)

Downloaded from: <https://hdl.handle.net/1887/82703>

Note: To cite this publication please use the final published version (if applicable).

Cover Page



Universiteit Leiden



The handle <http://hdl.handle.net/1887/82703> holds various files of this Leiden University dissertation.

Author: Annunziato, S.

Title: Precision modeling of breast cancer in the CRISPR era

Issue Date: 2020-01-16

Genetic dissection of cancer development, therapy response and resistance in mouse models of breast cancer

Stefano Annunziato^a, Marco Barazas^a, Sven Rottenberg^{a,b} and Jos Jonkers^{a,c}

^a Division of Molecular Pathology, The Netherlands Cancer Institute, Plesmanlaan 121, 1066 CX Amsterdam, The Netherlands

^b Institute of Animal Pathology, Vetsuisse Faculty, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland

^c Cancer Genomics Netherlands, The Netherlands Cancer Institute, Plesmanlaan 121, 1066 CX Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Abstract

The cancer genomics revolution has rapidly expanded the inventory of somatic mutations characterizing human malignancies, highlighting a previously underappreciated extent of molecular variability between and within patients. Also in breast cancer, the most commonly diagnosed malignancy in women, this heterogeneity complicates the understanding of the stepwise sequence of pathogenic events and the design of effective and long-lasting target therapies. To disentangle this complexity and pinpoint which molecular perturbations are crucial to hijack the cellular machinery and lead to tumorigenesis and drug resistance, functional studies are needed in model systems that faithfully and comprehensively recapitulate all the salient aspects of their cognate human counterparts. Mouse models of breast cancer have been instrumental for the study of tumor initiation and drug response, but also involve cost and time limitations that represent serious bottlenecks in translational research. To keep pace with the overwhelming amount of hypotheses that warrant *in vivo* testing, continuous refinement of current breast cancer models and implementation of new technologies is crucial. In this review, we summarize the current state-of-the-art in modeling human breast cancer in mice, and we put forward our vision on future developments.

Breast cancer is the most commonly diagnosed invasive cancer worldwide, with more than 1,6 million new cases each year. Rather than a single disease, it represents a spectrum of malignancies, encompassing several distinct biological entities and subtypes, each associated with specific histopathological and molecular characteristics, responses to therapy and clinical outcomes. Multiple taxonomies have been developed to divide breast cancer cases into different categories. Histopathological classification comprises several morphological and immunohistochemical phenotypes that can be further divided into different grades. Among the various morphologies, advanced mammary tumors mostly fall into the class of invasive ductal carcinomas (IDC), followed by invasive lobular carcinomas (ILC). Molecular classification based on gene expression patterns distinguishes five major subtypes of breast cancer: luminal A and B, ErbB2⁺, basal-like and claudin-low (Perou *et al.*, 2000). Although these distinctions have proven useful for clinical decision-making, there are limitations in predicting disease prognosis and response to therapy. For example, a recent prospective, randomized phase-III study showed that nearly half of the women with early breast cancer who are at high risk based on standard clinicopathological parameters, might not require adjuvant chemotherapy (Cardozo *et al.*, 2016). The additional use of a 70-gene expression signature may help to identify breast cancer patients who do not require adjuvant chemotherapy, but the identification of molecular signatures that reliably predict chemotherapy response remains elusive. Moreover, sequencing studies have shown that even within the same molecular subtype an extreme heterogeneity in the mutational landscape exists, which may account for discrepancies in prognosis and therapy response between different patients (Cancer Genome Atlas Network, 2012; Stephens *et al.*, 2012; Nik-Zainal *et al.*, 2016). Another complicating factor is intratumoral heterogeneity. Individual tumors are mosaics of multiple clones of neoplastic cells, each characterized by a distinct genetic makeup and differential responses to the selective pressures to which they are exposed, making the tumor mass not static but continuously shaped by a branching evolutionary process resembling Darwinian evolution. Distinguishing causal disease variants (driver mutations) from background alterations (passenger mutations) is a major goal in breast cancer research, as it can pinpoint evolutionary conserved processes that mammary tumor cells apply during step-wise transformation and to which they might be addicted. To exploit these potential Achilles' heels, we require a comprehensive knowledge of how these signaling networks physiologically function, how they become aberrant and how they can be directly or indirectly disrupted.

Given this complexity, genetically engineered mouse models (GEMMs) of breast cancer, together with patient-derived tumor xenografts (PDX) and GEMM-derived tumor allografts, have proven valuable resources for deepening our understanding of how mammary tumors initiate, progress, metastasize and respond to therapy in a physiologically relevant *in vivo* setting (Vargo-Gogola and Rosen, 2007). These mouse

models are increasingly being used in longitudinal preclinical studies for translation of novel therapies to clinical testing. Moreover, GEMMs provide unique opportunities to infer cause-effect relationships on *de novo* induced malignancies growing in intact organisms, rather than correlative observations on end-stage patient tumor samples.

Over the past 15 years, our research has been focused on the generation and characterization of mouse models for two breast cancer subtypes: invasive lobular carcinomas and basal-like invasive ductal carcinomas. To achieve this, we engineered a number of tumor-specific driver mutations in the relevant target cells of mouse models, recapitulating the key dependencies of the resulting lesions to the corresponding deranged signaling pathways. In this review, we will discuss how these models can be used for functional dissection of tumorigenic cascades, unraveling new therapeutic vulnerabilities and mechanisms of therapy resistance; in particular in light of the advent of new technologies such as CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing, which are opening new avenues in breast cancer modeling in mice.

Invasive lobular breast carcinoma (ILC) models

ILC accounts for 8-14% of all breast cancer cases and is hallmarked at the morphological level by tumor cells growing in single “indian files” within a dense fibrous stroma. This phenotype can be explained at the molecular level by loss of integrity of cell adherens junctions due to mutations or methylation of the *CDH1* gene, which encodes the transmembrane protein E-cadherin (Martinez *et al.*, 1979; Borst *et al.*, 1993; Moll *et al.*, 1993; Vos *et al.*, 1997; Droufakou *et al.*, 2001). To our surprise, we found that mammary gland-specific Cre-mediated inactivation of *Cdh1* alleles in mice was insufficient to induce mammary tumors, probably because normal cells undergo apoptosis and are counter-selected when E-cadherin is lost (Boussadia *et al.*, 2002; Derksen *et al.*, 2006; Derksen *et al.*, 2011). This prompted us to investigate which co-operating oncogenic events are required for malignant transformation of E-cadherin deficient mammary epithelial cells. We have found that multifocal ILC formation is promoted by dual mammary-specific loss of E-cadherin and p53 (Derksen *et al.*, 2006; Derksen *et al.*, 2011) or E-cadherin and PTEN (Boelens *et al.*, 2016), with tumor architecture and molecular profiles closely resembling their human ILC counterparts (Table 1). However, it remains elusive which biological processes are rescued by co-depletion of E-cadherin with one of these factors. In order to identify novel candidate cancer genes and networks that collaborate with E-cadherin loss in mammary tumorigenesis, we used the *Sleeping Beauty* (SB) transposon system (Collier *et al.*, 2005; Dupuy *et al.*, 2005) to perform an insertional mutagenesis screen in *WAPcre;Cdh1^{F/F}* mice (Kas *et al.*, 2017). Retrieval of recurrent integrations in SB-induced *WAPcre;Cdh1^{F/F}* mammary tumors identified common insertion sites in several genes, some known to be mutated in human ILC, suggesting that mutagenesis of these genes

Table 1. Characteristics of human ILC and BRCA1-associated breast cancer and the corresponding GEMMs developed in our laboratory

Invasive lobular carcinoma	Human	<i>WAPcre;Cdh1^{fl/fl};Pten^{fl/fl}</i> mouse model
Morphology	Lobular	Lobular
Invasive	Yes	Yes
Grade	Low	Low
Mitotic index	Low	Low
ER expression	Yes	Yes
Molecular subtype	Luminal	Luminal
Collagen deposition	Yes	Yes
Stroma-rich	Yes	Yes

BRCA1-associated breast cancer	Human	<i>K14cre;Brca1^{fl/fl};p53^{fl/fl}</i> mouse model
Morphology	Ductal	Ductal
Invasive	Yes	Yes
Grade	High	High
Mitotic index	High	High
ER/ PR expression	No	No
Molecular subtype	Basal-like	Basal-like
Genomically unstable	Yes	Yes
HR-deficient	Yes	Yes

ILC, invasive lobular carcinoma; BRCA1, breast cancer gene 1; GEMMs, genetically engineered mouse models; ER, estrogen receptor; PR, progesterone receptor; HR, homologous recombination.

leads to malignant transformation. Moreover, analysis of enriched targeted pathways and mutually exclusive insertions revealed regulation of the actin cytoskeleton as a completely novel oncogenic pathway in both mouse and human ILC.

Furthermore, recent genomic studies on collections of human ILCs have unveiled that, in addition to somatic inactivation of E-cadherin, activation of PI3K/AKT signaling appears to be a common event in this breast cancer subtype (Ciriello *et al.*, 2015; Desmedt *et al.*, 2016; Michaut *et al.*, 2016). To validate these findings, we developed GEMMs of ILC that combine mammary gland-specific ablation of E-cadherin and activation of different oncogenic *Pik3ca* or *Akt* mutants (van Miltenburg *et al.*, *in prep.*). To rapidly generate breast cancer models carrying these allelic variants, we used a novel strategy for fast-track production of GEMMs, called GEMM-ESC, which is based on Flp-recombinase-mediated introduction of additional mutant alleles into the *Col1a1* locus of embryonic stem cells (ESC) derived from existing GEMMs (Huijbers *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, the resulting mice showed rapid development of tumors with strong resemblance to human ILC in terms of morphology, gene expression and invasiveness, on which we are now

testing a panel of anticancer therapeutics to identify promising genotype-specific drug sensitivities.

Basal-like breast cancer models

Basal-like breast cancers represent a heterogeneous class of malignancies with poor clinical outcome that accounts in total for 10-15% of all breast cancer cases (Perou *et al.*, 2000; Badve *et al.*, 2011). The majority of basal-like tumors lack expression of estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR) and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2), and are therefore referred to as triple-negative breast cancers (TNBC). These tumors are not targetable with hormonal therapy or HER2-inhibitors, which leaves clinicians with only few effective options for therapeutic intervention.

Approximately 50% of basal-like breast cancers display a dysfunctional BRCA pathway due to germline or somatic mutations in *BRCA1/2* or *BRCA1* promoter hypermethylation (Cancer Genome Atlas Network, 2012; Nik-Zainal *et al.*, 2016). Also a fraction of non-basal-like tumors are BRCA-deficient, mostly due to germline mutations in *BRCA2*. As these genes are crucial in the error-free repair of DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) by homologous recombination (HR), BRCA defects are associated with chromosomal instability and hypersensitivity to DNA DSB-inducing drugs such as alkylating agents, PARP inhibitors (PARPi) and radiotherapy (Jaspers *et al.*, 2009; Bouwman and Jonkers, 2012; Barazas *et al.*, *in prep.*). However, drug resistance mechanisms have been described in both clinical and preclinical studies of BRCA associated tumors, posing serious concerns as no other therapies are currently available for relapsing patients.

In order to study tumorigenesis and drug resistance mechanisms, we developed several conditional mouse models for BRCA1- and BRCA2-associated breast cancer (Evers and Jonkers, 2006; Bouwman and Jonkers, 2008). In our *K14cre;Brca1^{F/F};p53^{F/F}* (KB1P) and *K14cre;Brca2^{F/F};p53^{F/F}* (KB2P) models, mammary inactivation of *Brca1/2* is accompanied by loss of p53, as mutations in this tumor-suppressor frequently co-occur with *BRCA1/2* mutations in breast cancer (Jonkers *et al.*, 2001; Liu *et al.*, 2007). These mice develop mammary tumors after a latency period of 6-8 months, suggesting that additional mutations are required for tumorigenesis (Table 1). However, in contrast to ILC where point mutations are the most common somatic alterations, *BRCA*-mutated breast cancers are characterized by complex patterns of DNA copy number aberrations (CNAs), including translocations and gains/losses of entire chromosome arms (Vollebergh *et al.*, 2012). Using cross-species oncogenomics, we identified *MYC* amplification and *RB1* loss as recurrent CNAs in both mouse and human *BRCA1/2*-mutated breast cancers (Holstege *et al.*, 2010). Exploiting the GEMM-ESC strategy, we could model conditional overexpression of *MYC* in our *WAPcre;Brca1^{F/F};p53^{F/F}* (WB1P) mouse model, and found

that mammary tumor development was indeed strongly accelerated compared to the original line (Annunziato *et al.*, *in prep.*). Moreover, we observed that the number of CNAs in WB1P-MYC tumors was markedly reduced compared to WB1P tumors, showing only few recurrent CNAs that most likely harbor additional cancer drivers that collaborate with MYC overexpression and loss of BRCA1/p53 in breast tumorigenesis. We are currently performing cross-species comparisons of the recurrent CNAs in WB1P-MYC tumors with CNA profiles from human breast cancers to identify candidate cancer genes, which will be validated in the WB1P-MYC model. We believe this iterative CNA profiling approach in progressively complex GEMMs will be instrumental for deciphering the key driver events in BRCA1-associated breast cancer and for uncovering novel therapeutic vulnerabilities.

Preclinical trials in BRCA-associated breast cancer models

While phase-I and II clinical trials are mostly carried out in heavily pretreated volunteer patients who suffer from end-stage metastatic cancer, mouse models provide the opportunity to initiate treatment on naïve tumors in a clinically relevant *in vivo* setting. Treatment of mammary tumor-bearing KB1P mice with a panel of DSB-inducing agents showed heterogeneous responses between individual tumors, but also marked

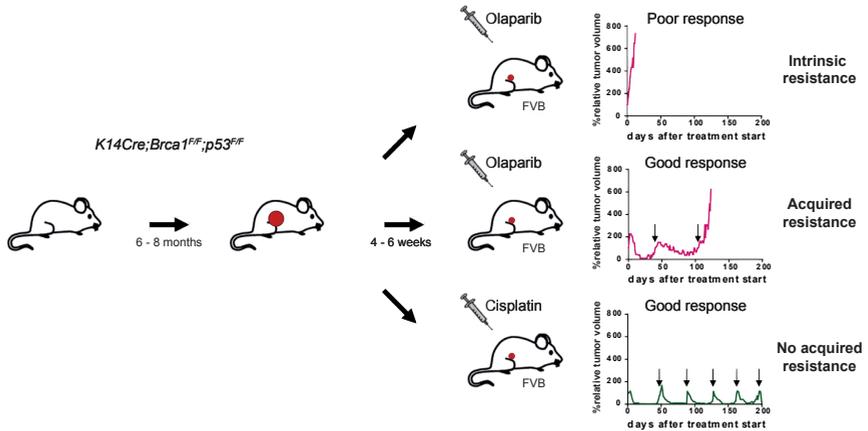


Figure 1 Large-scale intervention studies using breast cancer gene (BRCA)-deficient orthotopic allografts. Spontaneous tumors develop with a latency of 6–8 mo in $K14cre;Brca1^{F/F};p53^{F/F}$ (KB1P) or $K14cre;Brca2^{F/F};p53^{F/F}$ (KB2P) genetically engineered mouse models (GEMMs). Retransplantation of spontaneous tumors in syngeneic FVB wild-type mice highlighted intertumor heterogeneity in treatment response. In the case of olaparib, some tumors displayed intrinsic resistance, whereas others displayed initial good response followed by the emergence of acquired resistance. In contrast, resistance never developed in cisplatin-treated animals, despite multiple consecutive rounds of treatment (indicated by black arrows).

differences in tumors treated with doxorubicin or docetaxel and those treated with cisplatin (Rottenberg *et al.*, 2007). While KB1P tumors eventually developed resistance to doxorubicin and docetaxel, no acquired resistance was observed for cisplatin. Even though these tumors could never be completely eradicated by maximum tolerated dose (MTD) concentrations of cisplatin, the relapsing tumors remained responsive to subsequent treatments, resulting in a typical saw-tooth tumor response. A major breakthrough came when it was found that spontaneous KB1P and KB2P tumors could be orthotopically allografted in syngeneic mice whilst maintaining their genetic characteristics and drug sensitivity profile. This approach reduced the time to produce cohorts of tumor-bearing mice from 7-9 months to 4-6 weeks, and enabled large-scale intervention studies in which the response of a single donor to different chemotherapeutic strategies could be compared, ruling out any inter-tumor heterogeneity (Figure 1). Intervention studies with the PARP inhibitor olaparib in KB1P tumor allografts led to the development of carboplatin and olaparib switch-maintenance therapy for *BRCA1*-mutated breast cancer (Rottenberg *et al.*, 2008). This preclinical concept was confirmed in a clinical trial with olaparib maintenance therapy in *BRCA*-mutation carriers with platinum-sensitive ovarian cancer (Ledermann *et al.*, 2012; Ledermann *et al.*, 2014), and eventually led to clinical approval of olaparib (Deeks *et al.*, 2015). Similarly, intervention studies in KB2P tumor allografts showed that alkylators such as nimustine could induce complete tumor eradication (Evers *et al.*, 2010). Eradication of *BRCA*-mutated and *BRCA*-like cancer by high-dose alkylating chemotherapy was subsequently confirmed by retrospective analysis of data from clinical trials (Vollebergh *et al.*, 2011; Vollebergh *et al.*, 2014; Schouten *et al.*, 2015). These and other studies illustrate the utility of GEMMs of human cancer in translational cancer medicine.

PARPi resistance mechanisms in *BRCA*-associated breast cancer models

In addition to accelerating preclinical trials, the KB1P and KB2P allograft platforms also enabled large-scale induction of acquired resistance to a drug of choice and subsequent identification of the underlying resistance mechanisms. The power of this approach was demonstrated with the PARP inhibitor olaparib, which was described to display selective toxicity against *BRCA1/2*-deficient cells (Bryant *et al.*, 2005; Farmer *et al.*, 2005). Indeed, KB1P tumor allografts initially responded well to treatment, but eventually relapsed and developed stable resistance (Rottenberg *et al.*, 2008). This has provided a valuable collection of matched treatment-naïve and treatment-resistant tumors, which could be analyzed using next-generation sequencing or (phospho)-proteomics, thereby taking advantage of the clean genetic background of inbred mice and the known genetic profile of treatment-naïve tumors. We found that *Abcb1a* and *Abcb1b*, encoding P-glycoprotein (P-gp) efflux pumps, were up-regulated in resistant tumors and we confirmed that P-gp played an important role in mediating export of olaparib from

tumor cells (Figure 2A; Rottenberg *et al.*, 2008). Resistance could be reversed when P-gp mediated drug efflux was inhibited by co-administration of tariquidar. While the clinical relevance of P-gp upregulation as cause of drug resistance remains controversial (Amiri-Kordestani *et al.*, 2012), expression of *MDR1*, the human counterpart of *Abcb1*, was recently found to be inversely correlated to olaparib response in human ovarian cancer cells (Vaidyanathan *et al.*, 2016). Such increased expression may result from complex genomic rearrangements that fuse a distant promoter to the *MDR1* gene and thereby bypass the *MDR1* promoter methylation (Patch *et al.*, 2015). The case of P-gp shows that a thorough mechanistic understanding is instrumental to combat resistant tumors, for example by co-administration of tariquidar or by switching treatment to chemotherapeutics that are poor substrates for P-gp (Jaspers *et al.*, 2013).

To dissect P-gp independent mechanisms of PARPi resistance, the KB1P mouse model was refined through germline genetic deletion of *Mdr1* resulting in the *K14cre;Brca1^{f/f};p53^{f/f};Mdr1a/b^{-/-}* (KB1PM) model (Jaspers *et al.*, 2013). Alternatively, KB1P tumors were treated with the PARP-inhibitor AZD2461, which is a poor substrate for P-gp (Oplustil O'Connor *et al.*, 2016). PARPi resistance developed in these models despite the exclusion of P-gp related mechanisms. To identify the underlying resistance mechanisms, next-generation sequencing data from treatment-naïve and PARPi-resistant tumors were combined with data from unbiased functional genetic screens *in vitro*. Through an insertional mutagenesis screen in conditional BRCA1-knockout mouse ESCs, we found that loss of 53BP1 rescues the proliferation defect, HR deficiency and PARPi hypersensitivity of BRCA1-deficient cells by enhancing DSB end-resection (Figure 2B; Bouwman *et al.*, 2010). This work from our lab and similar studies from the Nussenzweig lab (Bunting *et al.*, 2010) have led to novel mechanistic insights in DSB repair and to date several downstream effector proteins of 53BP1 have been shown to suppress HR in BRCA1-deficient cells, including RIF1 (Chapman *et al.*, 2013; Di Virgilio *et al.*, 2013; Escribano-Diaz *et al.*, 2013; Zimmermann *et al.*, 2013), PTIP (Callen *et al.*, 2013), Artemis (Wang *et al.*, 2014) and REV7/MAD2L2 (Boersma *et al.*, 2015; Xu *et al.*, 2015). Thorough analysis of mutational status and expression levels of 53BP1 and REV7 in PARPi-resistant KB1P(M) tumors confirmed that loss of 53BP1 or REV7 causes *in vivo* resistance to PARPi (Jaspers *et al.*, 2013; Xu *et al.*, 2015). Interestingly, although KB1P(M) tumors with 53BP1 loss are cross-resistant to topotecan and doxorubicin, they are still responsive to cisplatin, suggesting that platinum drugs may be a useful salvage therapy for this class of PARPi-resistant tumors (Jaspers *et al.*, 2013).

Although the majority of KB1P(M) tumors acquired PARPi resistance through restoration of HR, a substantial fraction of PARPi-resistant tumors remained defective in the formation of ionizing radiation-induced nuclear RAD51 foci (RAD51-IRIFs), which are a hallmark of HR. Moreover, when we analyzed the BRCA2-deficient KB2P tumors with

acquired PARPi resistance, none of these showed restoration of HR as measured by RAD51-IRIF assays (Gogola *et al.*, *in prep.*). This suggests the existence of alternative resistance mechanisms. It was recently shown that chemoresistance in BRCA2-deficient cells might be mediated through protection of replication forks (RF), for instance by depletion of PTIP (Chaudhuri *et al.*, 2016). It will be important to investigate if RF protection is a common feature of PARPi-resistant KB1P(M) and KB2P tumors.

In patients, mutated BRCA1 or BRCA2 proteins are often still expressed in tumors. Therefore, the large intragenic *Brca1/2* deletions present in KB1P(M) and KB2P tumors – although instrumental in genetic studies – might not fully recapitulate the biology of BRCA-associated tumors in mutation carriers. To this end, we generated several mouse models mimicking pathogenic *BRCA1* variants that are often encountered in the clinic (Drost *et al.*, 2011; Drost *et al.*, 2016). These models provided evidence that the type and location of the *BRCA1* mutation can have significant implications for the response of

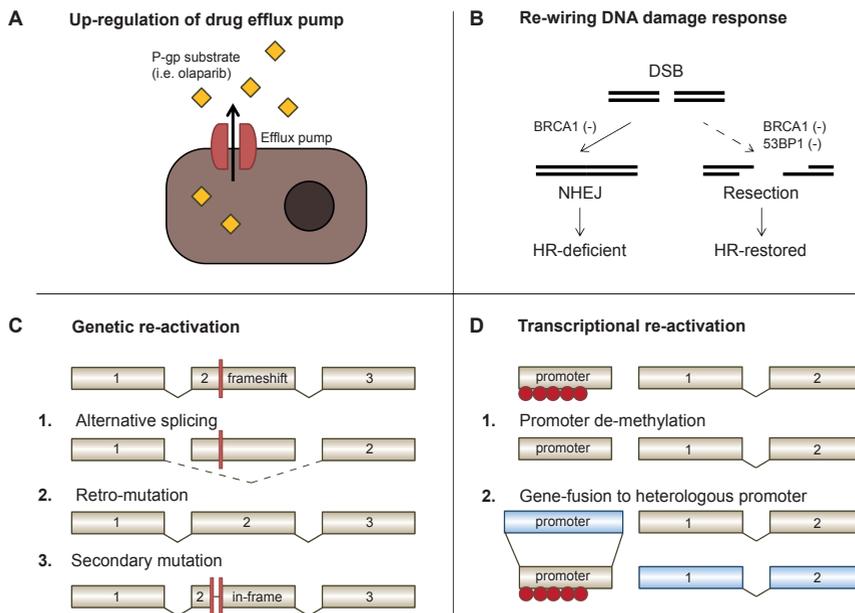


Figure 2 Overview of resistance mechanisms identified using mouse models of breast cancer gene (*BRCA*)-deficient breast cancer. (A) Up-regulation of drug efflux pumps (i.e., MDR1) reduces intracellular drug concentration. (B) The DNA damage response pathway can be rewired to restore homologous recombination (HR), in this case by loss of 53BP1. (C) Genetic reactivation of *BRCA1*-mutated alleles can occur because of alternative splicing, retrorandomizations, or secondary mutations restoring the *BRCA1* reading frame. (D) Transcription of silenced *BRCA1* alleles can be restored upon promoter demethylation or gene fusions to distant promoters. P-gp, P-glycoprotein; DSB, double-strand break; NHEJ, nonhomologous end joining; HR, homologous recombination.

these tumors to DSB-inducing agents and PARPi. It was found that tumor cells harboring the *BRCA1*^{185delAG} allelic variant, which was modeled in mice by a *Brca1*^{185stop} allele, can use a downstream alternative start site leading to the expression of a RING-less BRCA1 protein (Drost *et al.*, 2016). This RING-less BRCA1 protein maintains hypomorphic HR activity, which is sufficient to induce a poor response to platinum drugs or olaparib. These results illustrate the importance of testing *BRCA1* allelic variants not only for genetic counseling, but also for providing adequate treatment.

PDX models provide a solution to narrow the gap between mouse and human cancer biology and as such represent a novel *in vivo* platform for studying therapy response and resistance. Although PDX models have been relatively difficult to generate in the past, recent advances have made it possible to generate PDX biobanks covering a heterogeneous population of tumors (Hidalgo *et al.*, 2014). Once the (epi)genetic landscape of a PDX model is characterized, this provides an effective tool to study the drug response of a specific tumor and to predict which resistance mechanisms might evolve during treatment. We recently demonstrated the feasibility of such an approach by treatment of PDX models of BRCA1-deficient breast cancer with alkylating agents or olaparib (Ter Brugge *et al.*, 2016). Similar to the GEMM tumors, these PDX tumors generally responded well to treatment, but eventually developed resistance. The underlying mechanism was dependent on the type of *BRCA1* inactivation: whereas therapy-resistant *BRCA1*-methylated PDX tumors frequently showed *BRCA1* promoter de-methylation, *BRCA1*-mutated tumors acquired resistance via genetic reversion through secondary mutations that restored the *BRCA1* reading frame (Figure 2C-D). These events have also been known to mediate resistance in ovarian cancer patients (Swisher *et al.*, 2008; Patch *et al.*, 2015), showing the predictive potential of PDX models. The PDX models also revealed a novel resistance mechanism involving gene-fusions that placed *BRCA1* under transcriptional control of a heterologous promoter. It is intriguing that resistance mechanisms in PDX tumors are mainly centered on re-expression of functional BRCA1 protein rather than inactivation of 53BP1 or related factors, highlighting the strong selective pressure on complete restoration of BRCA1 function when BRCA1-deficient tumor cells are exposed to DSB-inducing therapy. However, a fraction of tumors acquired resistance in the absence of BRCA1 re-expression, showing that alternative resistance mechanisms also occur in PDX models.

Taken together, these studies illustrate the power of mouse models in unraveling resistance mechanisms prior to their emergence in patients. It will be important to investigate until which extent these play a role in the clinic. This is not trivial, as they likely occur in a limited group of *BRCA*-patients and thus require careful patient selection. It is noteworthy that resistance caused by mutations in additional DNA repair genes such as 53BP1 or REV7 might expose new treatment vulnerabilities e.g. sensitivity to combined PARP and ATM inhibition (Bunting *et al.*, 2010). It will therefore be important

to determine if and how each resistance mechanism can be exploited therapeutically. Ultimately, this may provide a framework for oncologists to combat resistance in the clinic.

Non-germline GEMMs of breast cancer

Large-scale cancer genome sequencing studies and forward genetic screens have jointly boosted the discrimination between passenger and driver mutations and the identification of genetic determinants of drug sensitivity and resistance in breast cancer. The systematic translation of these long catalogues of structural aberrations into functional information requires the assessment of the pathophysiological impact of candidate gene perturbations in reliable preclinical models. This inevitably poses a practical challenge for *in vivo* validation experiments, due to the considerable costs and time requirements associated with establishing new breast cancer GEMMs. Novel technologies, especially CRISPR/Cas9-based methods, are revolutionizing the genetic engineering field by providing fast ways for precise and efficient ESC manipulation and GEMM development (Wang *et al.*, 2013). However, as sequencing expenses of human tumors keep decreasing, research will shift from testing oncogenicity of single driver alleles to investigating the impact of multiple allelic variants on tumor development and therapy response. At the same time, forward genetics strategies will evolve from genome-wide approaches based on simple gene (in)activation to more refined chemical mutagenesis and gene-based CRISPR screens capable of identifying novel hypomorphic, dominant-negative and separation-of-function mutants at the base pair level. We foresee that the number of testable hypotheses will far exceed the capacity of transgenic facilities, warranting the development of new *in vivo* platforms for systematic, multiplexed interrogation of putative cancer drivers. Ideally, such models should sort out current temporal and economical limitations of GEMM establishment, bypass extensive mouse husbandry, but also allow a high degree of manipulability and flexibility by enabling spatiotemporal control of tumor initiation and progression.

To develop such a platform for breast cancer, we explored the possibility of non-germline modeling of mammary tumors by exploiting intraductal injection in the nipple of adult female mice as a way to deliver high-titer lentiviral or adenoviral preparations to mammary epithelium and achieve somatic genome engineering. We have shown that intraductally injected lentiviruses can target tumor-initiating cells of both the basal and the luminal compartment, allowing modeling of both ILC and basal-like tumors in mice with the corresponding set of relevant predisposing alleles. For example, intraductal injection of Cre-encoding lentiviruses in *Cdh1^{F/F};Pten^{F/F}* mice induced formation of ILCs that were undistinguishable from the ILCs arising in the original *WAPcre;Cdh1^{F/F};Pten^{F/F}* model (Annunziato *et al.*, 2016). Somatic Cre delivery may more accurately recapitulate

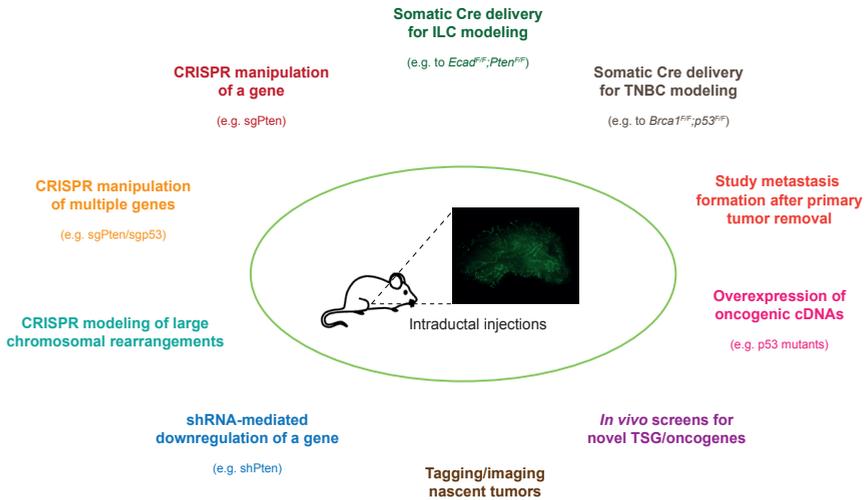


Figure 3 Multiple applications for somatic genome engineering of the mammary tissue via intraductal injection to study tumor biology. ILC, invasive lobular carcinoma; TNBC, triple-negative breast cancer; sgPten, single-guide phosphatase and tensin homolog; shPTEN, short-hairpin phosphatase and tensin homolog; TSG, tumor suppressor gene.

sporadic tumor initiation by allowing titratable and spatiotemporally controlled delivery of viruses to mammary tissue. Moreover, targeting specificity can be modulated by using viruses with cell type-specific promoters and/or post-transcriptional control elements (Tao *et al.*, 2014).

Importantly, the potential of non-germline modeling extends far beyond simple exogenous administration of Cre to established GEMMs. A diverse array of viral and non-viral constructs can be employed to achieve desired permutations of specific candidate genes even in the absence of germline conditional alleles: (a) vectors for overexpression of wild-type, truncated or mutated cDNAs; (b) vectors for shRNA-mediated downregulation or CRISPR-mediated (epi)genetic manipulation of single or multiple endogenous genes (Sander and Joung, 2016); (c) CRISPR vectors for modeling large chromosomal rearrangements (Maddalo *et al.*, 2014); (d) vectors for tagging and imaging of tumors (Figure 3). Regarding CRISPR-based *in vivo* editing approaches, we and others have shown that somatic delivery of the bacterial Cas9 protein has the considerable drawback of eliciting strong and specific immune responses in immunocompetent animals (Wang *et al.*, 2015; Annunziato *et al.*, 2016). This problem can be overcome by employing knock-in models that are tolerant to Cas9 due to constitutive or conditional expression of Cas9 or catalytically inactive dCas9-effector fusions (which allow for transcriptional silencing/activation of endogenous alleles) (Platt *et al.*, 2014; Sánchez-Rivera and Jacks, 2015). We have recently reported somatic

induction of oncogenic loss-of-function mutations in mice with mammary-specific expression of Cas9 by intraductal injection of sgRNA-encoding lentiviruses, which eventually led to ILC formation (Annunziato *et al.*, 2016).

Mammary tumor organoids

Another exciting technological breakthrough came from the possibility to derive organotypic 3D culture models of normal and malignant mammary tissue. Human and murine tumor organoid cultures retain key features of donor tumors, including cellular heterogeneity and molecular characteristics (Clevers, 2016; Fatehullah *et al.*, 2016). Compared to the laborious and time-consuming establishment of 2D cell lines, which requires adaptation to monolayer growth on plastic surfaces, tumor organoid cultures are much easier to derive, can be expanded indefinitely *ex vivo*, and upon xenografting/allografting undergo polyclonal expansion and efficiently produce tumors that preserve the cellular heterogeneity and drug response profiles of the original tumors (Duarte *et al.*, 2017). For example, we found the differential olaparib sensitivity of isogenic treatment-naïve and PARPi-resistant KB1P mammary tumors to be stable upon organoid derivation and subsequent re-transplantation. Using CRISPR/Cas9 technology, we were able to introduce *Trp53bp1* frameshift mutations in the treatment-naïve KB1P organoid line and demonstrate that this permutation rendered the organoid-derived tumors refractory to olaparib. We are exploiting the KB1P tumor organoid platform to test additional candidate drug resistance genes for their *in vivo* relevance, including candidates retrieved from forward genetic screens and from sequencing of drug-resistant tumors (Figure 4). Moreover, given the short latency period and polyclonal tumor outgrowth, GEMM and PDX tumor organoids are particularly amenable for *in vivo* genetic screens using shRNA, CRISPR, CRISPRi and CRISPRa libraries.

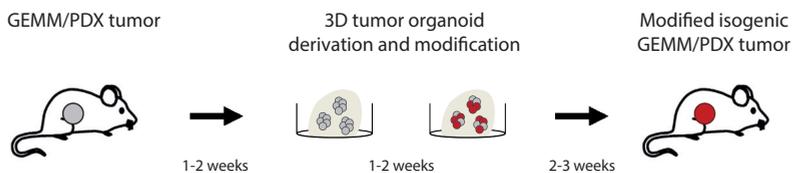


Figure 4 3D tumor organoid cultures can be rapidly derived from established genetically engineered mouse model (GEMM)/patientderived xenograft (PDX) tumors, modified *ex vivo* with desired genetic permutations and retransplanted in mice to evaluate *in vivo* treatment responses.

Conclusions

A number of known and unknown biological discrepancies inevitably exist between mouse models and humans. Moreover, refinements in mouse modeling should be compliant with practical and ethical issues associated with model establishment. Nevertheless, the systematic and synergistic deployment of complementary *in vitro* and *in vivo* platforms (GEMMs, PDX models, organoids, non-germline models) is envisioned to provide a quantum leap in the oncology arena and in breast cancer research in particular. Cutting-edge mouse cancer clinics will enable so-called co-clinical trials, in which clinical studies will be paralleled by preclinical intervention studies in mouse avatars. This will allow clinicians to infer in real-time genotype-specific drug response profiles from mouse models and design more effective and long-lasting patient-tailored treatment schemes. The emergence of drug resistance is an invariable and intrinsic consequence of Darwinian tumor growth dynamics, but instead of “whack-a-mole” treatment schedules, co-clinical trials could assist in the design of more sophisticated and personalized regimens in which tumors are forced through evolutionary bottlenecks that render them exquisitely sensitive to secondary therapies. Re-iteration of this adaptive process is possible only by the use of ever-smarter mouse models, which will ultimately lead to improved long-term management of this devastating disease.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Peter Bouwman for critical reading of the manuscript. Research in the Jonkers and Rottenberg labs described in this review has been supported by grants from the Dutch Cancer Society (NKI 2007-3772, NKI 2008-4116, NKI 2009-4303, NKI 2011-5197, NKI 2011-5220, NKI 2012-5220, NKI 2014-6532, NKI 2015-7877, EMCR 2014-7048), the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO; Cancer Genomics Netherlands (CGCNL), Cancer Systems Biology Center (CSBC), NCI Zenith 93512009, VIDI -91711302, VICI 91814643), the Swiss National Science Foundation (310030-156869), the Swiss Cancer Research Foundation (MD-PhD-3446-01-2014), the European Union Seventh Framework Programme (EurocanPlatform project 260791, Infrafrontier-I3 project 312325, CHEMORES project 037665) and the European Research Council (ERC SyG CombatCancer, ERC CoG-681572). Additional support is provided by the Mouse Clinic for Cancer and Aging (MCCA), financed by NWO as part of the National Roadmap for Large-Scale Research Facilities.

References

- Amiri-Kordestani L, Basseville A, Kurdziel K, Fojo AT, Bates SE. 2012. Targeting MDR in breast and lung cancer: discriminating its potential importance from the failure of drug resistance reversal studies. *Drug Resist Updat* 15: 50-61.
- Anunziato S, Kas SM, Nethe M, Yucel H, Del Bravo J, Pritchard C, Bin Ali R, van Gerwen B, Siteur B, Drenth AP et al. 2016. Modeling invasive lobular breast carcinoma by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated somatic genome editing of the mammary gland. *Genes Dev* 30: 1470-1480.
- Badve S, Dabbs DJ, Schnitt SJ, Baehner FL, Decker T, Eusebi V, Fox SB, Ichihara S, Jacquemier J, Lakhani SR et al. 2011. Basal-like and triple-negative breast cancers: a critical review with an emphasis on the implications for pathologists and oncologists. *Mod Pathol* 24: 157-167.
- Boelens MC, Nethe M, Klarenbeek S, de Ruiter JR, Schut E, Bonzanni N, Zeeman AL, Wientjens E, van der Burg E, Wessels L et al. 2016. PTEN Loss in E-Cadherin-Deficient Mouse Mammary Epithelial Cells Rescues Apoptosis and Results in Development of Classical Invasive Lobular Carcinoma. *Cell Rep* 16: 2087-2101.
- Boersma V, Moatti N, Segura-Bayona S, Peuscher MH, van der Torre J, Wevers BA, Orthwein A, Durocher D, Jacobs JJ. 2015. MAD2L2 controls DNA repair at telomeres and DNA breaks by inhibiting 5' end resection. *Nature* 521: 537-540.
- Borst MJ, Ingold JA. 1993. Metastatic patterns of invasive lobular versus invasive ductal carcinoma of the breast. *Surgery* 114: 637-641; discussion 641-632.
- Boussadia O, Kutsch S, Hierholzer A, Delmas V, Kemler R. 2002. E-cadherin is a survival factor for the lactating mouse mammary gland. *Mech Dev* 115: 53-62.
- Bouwman P, Aly A, Escandell JM, Pieterse M, Bartkova J, van der Gulden H, Hiddingh S, Thanasoula M, Kulkarni A, Yang Q et al. 2010. 53BP1 loss rescues BRCA1 deficiency and is associated with triple-negative and BRCA-mutated breast cancers. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* 17: 688-695.
- Bouwman P, Jonkers J. 2008. Mouse models for BRCA1 associated tumorigenesis: from fundamental insights to preclinical utility. *Cell Cycle* 7: 2647-2653.
- Bouwman P, Jonkers J. 2012. The effects of deregulated DNA damage signalling on cancer chemotherapy response and resistance. *Nat Rev Cancer* 12: 587-598.
- Bryant HE, Schultz N, Thomas HD, Parker KM, Flower D, Lopez E, Kyle S, Meuth M, Curtin NJ, Helleday T. 2005. Specific killing of BRCA2-deficient tumours with inhibitors of poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase. *Nature* 434: 913-917.
- Bunting SF, Callen E, Wong N, Chen HT, Polato F, Gunn A, Bothmer A, Feldhahn N, Fernandez-Capetillo O, Cao L et al. 2010. 53BP1 inhibits homologous recombination in Brca1-deficient cells by blocking resection of DNA breaks. *Cell* 141: 243-254.
- Callen E, Di Virgilio M, Kruhlak MJ, Nieto-Soler M, Wong N, Chen HT, Faryabi RB, Polato F, Santos M, Starnes LM et al. 2013. 53BP1 mediates productive and mutagenic DNA repair through distinct phosphoprotein interactions. *Cell* 153: 1266-1280.
- Cancer Genome Atlas N. 2012. Comprehensive molecular portraits of human breast tumours. *Nature* 490: 61-70.
- Cardoso F, van't Veer LJ, Bogaerts J, Slaets L, Viale G, Delaloge S, Pierga JY, Brain E, Causeret S, DeLorenzi M et al. 2016. 70-Gene Signature as an Aid to Treatment Decisions in Early-Stage Breast Cancer. *N Engl J Med* 375: 717-729.
- Chapman JR, Barral P, Vannier JB, Borel V, Steger M, Tomas-Loba A, Sartori AA, Adams IR, Batista FD, Boulton SJ. 2013. RIF1 is essential for 53BP1-dependent nonhomologous end joining and suppression of DNA double-strand break resection. *Mol Cell* 49: 858-871.
- Chaudhuri AR, Callen E, Ding X, Gogola E, Duarte AA, Lee JE, Wong N, Lafarga V, Calvo JA, Panzarino NJ et al. 2016. Replication fork stability confers chemoresistance in BRCA-deficient cells. *Nature* 535: 382-387.
- Ciriello G, Gatza ML, Beck AH, Wilkerson MD, Rhie SK, Pastore A, Zhang H, McLellan M, Yau C, Kandoth C et al. 2015. Comprehensive Molecular Portraits of Invasive Lobular Breast Cancer. *Cell* 163: 506-519.

- Clevers H. 2016. Modeling Development and Disease with Organoids. *Cell* 165: 1586-1597.
- Collier LS, Carlson CM, Ravimohan S, Dupuy AJ, Largaespada DA. 2005. Cancer gene discovery in solid tumours using transposon-based somatic mutagenesis in the mouse. *Nature* 436: 272-276.
- Deeks ED. 2015. Olaparib: first global approval. *Drugs* 75: 231-240.
- Derksen PW, Braumuller TM, van der Burg E, Hornsveld M, Mesman E, Wesseling J, Krimpenfort P, Jonkers J. 2011. Mammary-specific inactivation of E-cadherin and p53 impairs functional gland development and leads to pleomorphic invasive lobular carcinoma in mice. *Dis Model Mech* 4: 347-358.
- Derksen PW, Liu X, Saridin F, van der Gulden H, Zevenhoven J, Evers B, van Beijnum JR, Griffioen AW, Vink J, Krimpenfort P et al. 2006. Somatic inactivation of E-cadherin and p53 in mice leads to metastatic lobular mammary carcinoma through induction of anoikis resistance and angiogenesis. *Cancer Cell* 10: 437-449.
- Desmedt C, Zoppoli G, Gudem G, Pruneri G, Larsimont D, Fornili M, Fumagalli D, Brown D, Rothe F, Vincent D et al. 2016. Genomic Characterization of Primary Invasive Lobular Breast Cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 34: 1872-1881.
- Di Virgilio M, Callen E, Yamane A, Zhang W, Jankovic M, Gitlin AD, Feldhahn N, Resch W, Oliveira TY, Chait BT et al. 2013. Rif1 prevents resection of DNA breaks and promotes immunoglobulin class switching. *Science* 339: 711-715.
- Drost R, Bouwman P, Rottenberg S, Boon U, Schut E, Klarenbeek S, Klijn C, van der Heijden I, van der Gulden H, Wientjens E et al. 2011. BRCA1 RING function is essential for tumor suppression but dispensable for therapy resistance. *Cancer Cell* 20: 797-809.
- Drost R, Dhillon KK, van der Gulden H, van der Heijden I, Brandsma I, Cruz C, Chondronasiou D, Castroviejo-Bermejo M, Boon U, Schut E et al. 2016. BRCA1185delAG tumors may acquire therapy resistance through expression of RING-less BRCA1. *J Clin Invest* 126: 2903-2918.
- Droufakou S, Deshmane V, Roylance R, Hanby A, Tomlinson I, Hart IR. 2001. Multiple ways of silencing E-cadherin gene expression in lobular carcinoma of the breast. *Int J Cancer* 92: 404-408.
- Dupuy AJ, Akagi K, Largaespada DA, Copeland NG, Jenkins NA. 2005. Mammalian mutagenesis using a highly mobile somatic Sleeping Beauty transposon system. *Nature* 436: 221-226.
- Escribano-Diaz C, Orthwein A, Fradet-Turcotte A, Xing M, Young JT, Tkac J, Cook MA, Rosebrock AP, Munro M, Canny MD et al. 2013. A cell cycle-dependent regulatory circuit composed of 53BP1-RIF1 and BRCA1-CtIP controls DNA repair pathway choice. *Mol Cell* 49: 872-883.
- Evers B, Jonkers J. 2006. Mouse models of BRCA1 and BRCA2 deficiency: past lessons, current understanding and future prospects. *Oncogene* 25: 5885-5897.
- Evers B, Schut E, van der Burg E, Braumuller TM, Egan DA, Holstege H, Edser P, Adams DJ, Wade-Martins R, Bouwman P et al. 2010. A high-throughput pharmaceutical screen identifies compounds with specific toxicity against BRCA2-deficient tumors. *Clin Cancer Res* 16: 99-108.
- Farmer H, McCabe N, Lord CJ, Tutt AN, Johnson DA, Richardson TB, Santarosa M, Dillon KJ, Hickson I, Knights C et al. 2005. Targeting the DNA repair defect in BRCA mutant cells as a therapeutic strategy. *Nature* 434: 917-921.
- Fatehullah A, Tan SH, Barker N. 2016. Organoids as an in vitro model of human development and disease. *Nat Cell Biol* 18: 246-254.
- Hidalgo M, Amant F, Biankin AV, Budinska E, Byrne AT, Caldas C, Clarke RB, de Jong S, Jonkers J, Maelandsmo GM et al. 2014. Patient-derived xenograft models: an emerging platform for translational cancer research. *Cancer Discov* 4: 998-1013.
- Holstege H, van Beers E, Velds A, Liu X, Joosse SA, Klarenbeek S, Schut E, Kerkhoven R, Klijn CN, Wessels LF et al. 2010. Cross-species comparison of aCGH data from mouse and human BRCA1- and BRCA2-mutated breast cancers. *BMC Cancer* 10: 455.
- Huijbers IJ, Bin Ali R, Pritchard C, Cozijnsen M, Kwon MC, Proost N, Song JY, de Vries H, Badhai J, Sutherland K et al. 2014. Rapid target gene validation in complex cancer mouse models using re-derived embryonic stem cells. *EMBO Mol Med* 6: 212-225.
- Jaspers JE, Kersbergen A, Boon U, Sol W, van Deemter L, Zander SA, Drost R, Wientjens E, Ji J, Aly A et al. 2013. Loss of 53BP1 causes PARP inhibitor resistance in Brca1-mutated mouse mammary tumors. *Cancer Discov* 3: 68-81.

- Jaspers JE, Rottenberg S, Jonkers J. 2009. Therapeutic options for triple-negative breast cancers with defective homologous recombination. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1796: 266-280.
- Jonkers J, Meuwissen R, van der Gulden H, Peterse H, van der Valk M, Berns A. 2001. Synergistic tumor suppressor activity of BRCA2 and p53 in a conditional mouse model for breast cancer. *Nat Genet* 29: 418-425.
- Ledermann J, Harter P, Gourley C, Friedlander M, Vergote I, Rustin G, Scott C, Meier W, Shapira-Frommer R, Safra T et al. 2012. Olaparib maintenance therapy in platinum-sensitive relapsed ovarian cancer. *N Engl J Med* 366: 1382-1392.
- Ledermann J, Harter P, Gourley C, Friedlander M, Vergote I, Rustin G, Scott CL, Meier W, Shapira-Frommer R, Safra T et al. 2014. Olaparib maintenance therapy in patients with platinum-sensitive relapsed serous ovarian cancer: a preplanned retrospective analysis of outcomes by BRCA status in a randomised phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol* 15: 852-861.
- Liu X, Holstege H, van der Gulden H, Treur-Mulder M, Zevenhoven J, Velds A, Kerkhoven RM, van Vliet MH, Wessels LF, Peterse JL et al. 2007. Somatic loss of BRCA1 and p53 in mice induces mammary tumors with features of human BRCA1-mutated basal-like breast cancer. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 104: 12111-12116.
- Maddalo D, Manchado E, Concepcion CP, Bonetti C, Vidigal JA, Han YC, Ogdowski P, Crippa A, Rekhtman N, de Stanchina E et al. 2014. In vivo engineering of oncogenic chromosomal rearrangements with the CRISPR/Cas9 system. *Nature* 516: 423-427.
- Martinez V, Azzopardi JG. 1979. Invasive lobular carcinoma of the breast: incidence and variants. *Histopathology* 3: 467-488.
- Michaut M, Chin SF, Majewski I, Severson TM, Bismeyer T, de Koning L, Peeters JK, Schouten PC, Rueda OM, Bosma AJ et al. 2016. Integration of genomic, transcriptomic and proteomic data identifies two biologically distinct subtypes of invasive lobular breast cancer. *Sci Rep* 6: 18517.
- Moll R, Mitze M, Frixen UH, Birchmeier W. 1993. Differential loss of E-cadherin expression in infiltrating ductal and lobular breast carcinomas. *Am J Pathol* 143: 1731-1742.
- Nik-Zainal S, Davies H, Staaf J, Ramakrishna M, Glodzik D, Zou X, Martincorena I, Alexandrov LB, Martin S, Wedge DC et al. 2016. Landscape of somatic mutations in 560 breast cancer whole-genome sequences. *Nature* 534: 47-54.
- Oplustil O'Connor L, Rulten SL, Cranston AN, Odedra R, Brown H, Jaspers JE, Jones L, Knights C, Evers B, Ting A et al. 2016. The PARP inhibitor AZD2461 provides insights into the role of PARP3 inhibition for both synthetic lethality and tolerability with chemotherapy in preclinical models. *Cancer Res*. doi: [10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-15-3240](https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-15-3240)
- Patch AM, Christie EL, Etemadmoghadam D, Garsed DW, George J, Fereday S, Nones K, Cowin P, Alsop K, Bailey PJ et al. 2015. Whole-genome characterization of chemoresistant ovarian cancer. *Nature* 521: 489-494.
- Perou CM, Sorlie T, Eisen MB, van de Rijn M, Jeffrey SS, Rees CA, Pollack JR, Ross DT, Johnsen H, Akslen LA et al. 2000. Molecular portraits of human breast tumours. *Nature* 406: 747-752.
- Platt RJ, Chen S, Zhou Y, Yim MJ, Swiech L, Kempton HR, Dahlman JE, Parnas O, Eisenhaure TM, Jovanovic M et al. 2014. CRISPR-Cas9 knockin mice for genome editing and cancer modeling. *Cell* 159: 440-455.
- Rottenberg S, Jaspers JE, Kersbergen A, van der Burg E, Nygren AO, Zander SA, Derksen PW, de Bruin M, Zevenhoven J, Lau A et al. 2008. High sensitivity of BRCA1-deficient mammary tumors to the PARP inhibitor AZD2281 alone and in combination with platinum drugs. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 105: 17079-17084.
- Rottenberg S, Nygren AO, Pajic M, van Leeuwen FW, van der Heijden I, van de Wetering K, Liu X, de Visser KE, Gilhuijs KG, van Tellingen O et al. 2007. Selective induction of chemotherapy resistance of mammary tumors in a conditional mouse model for hereditary breast cancer. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 104: 12117-12122.
- Sanchez-Rivera FJ, Jacks T. 2015. Applications of the CRISPR-Cas9 system in cancer biology. *Nat Rev Cancer* 15: 387-395.
- Sander JD, Joung JK. 2014. CRISPR-Cas systems for editing, regulating and targeting genomes. *Nat Biotechnol* 32: 347-355.

- Schouten PC, Marme F, Aulmann S, Sinn HP, van Essen HF, Ylstra B, Hauptmann M, Schneeweiss A, Linn SC. 2015. Breast cancers with a BRCA1-like DNA copy number profile recur less often than expected after high-dose alkylating chemotherapy. *Clin Cancer Res* 21: 763-770.
- Stephens PJ, Tarpey PS, Davies H, Van Loo P, Greenman C, Wedge DC, Nik-Zainal S, Martin S, Varela I, Bignell GR et al. 2012. The landscape of cancer genes and mutational processes in breast cancer. *Nature* 486: 400-404.
- Swisher EM, Sakai W, Karlan BY, Wurz K, Urban N, Taniguchi T. 2008. Secondary BRCA1 mutations in BRCA1-mutated ovarian carcinomas with platinum resistance. *Cancer Res* 68: 2581-2586.
- Tao L, van Bragt MP, Laudadio E, Li Z. 2014. Lineage tracing of mammary epithelial cells using cell-type-specific cre-expressing adenoviruses. *Stem Cell Reports* 2: 770-779.
- Ter Brugge P, Kristel P, van der Burg E, Boon U, de Maaker M, Lips E, Mulder L, de Ruiter J, Moutinho C, Gevensleben H et al. 2016. Mechanisms of Therapy Resistance in Patient-Derived Xenograft Models of BRCA1-Deficient Breast Cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 108.
- Vaidyanathan A, Sawers L, Gannon AL, Chakravarty P, Scott AL, Bray SE, Ferguson MJ, Smith G. 2016. ABCB1 (MDR1) induction defines a common resistance mechanism in paclitaxel- and olaparib-resistant ovarian cancer cells. *Br J Cancer* 115: 431-441.
- Vargo-Gogola T, Rosen JM. 2007. Modelling breast cancer: one size does not fit all. *Nat Rev Cancer* 7: 659-672.
- Vollebergh MA, Jonkers J, Linn SC. 2012. Genomic instability in breast and ovarian cancers: translation into clinical predictive biomarkers. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 69: 223-245.
- Vollebergh MA, Lips EH, Nederlof PM, Wessels LF, Schmidt MK, van Beers EH, Cornelissen S, Holtkamp M, Froklage FE, de Vries EG et al. 2011. An aCGH classifier derived from BRCA1-mutated breast cancer and benefit of high-dose platinum-based chemotherapy in HER2-negative breast cancer patients. *Ann Oncol* 22: 1561-1570.
- Vollebergh MA, Lips EH, Nederlof PM, Wessels LF, Wesseling J, Vd Vijver MJ, de Vries EG, van Tinteren H, Jonkers J, Hauptmann M et al. 2014. Genomic patterns resembling BRCA1- and BRCA2-mutated breast cancers predict benefit of intensified carboplatin-based chemotherapy. *Breast Cancer Res* 16: R47.
- Vos CB, Cleton-Jansen AM, Berx G, de Leeuw WJ, ter Haar NT, van Roy F, Cornelisse CJ, Peterse JL, van de Vijver MJ. 1997. E-cadherin inactivation in lobular carcinoma in situ of the breast: an early event in tumorigenesis. *Br J Cancer* 76: 1131-1133.
- Wang D, Mou H, Li S, Li Y, Hough S, Tran K, Li J, Yin H, Anderson DG, Sontheimer EJ et al. 2015. Adenovirus-Mediated Somatic Genome Editing of Pten by CRISPR/Cas9 in Mouse Liver in Spite of Cas9-Specific Immune Responses. *Hum Gene Ther* 26: 432-442.
- Wang H, Yang H, Shivalila CS, Dawlaty MM, Cheng AW, Zhang F, Jaenisch R. 2013. One-step generation of mice carrying mutations in multiple genes by CRISPR/Cas-mediated genome engineering. *Cell* 153: 910-918.
- Wang J, Aroumougame A, Loblrich M, Li Y, Chen D, Chen J, Gong Z. 2014. PTIP associates with Artemis to dictate DNA repair pathway choice. *Genes Dev* 28: 2693-2698.
- Xu G, Chapman JR, Brandsma I, Yuan J, Mistrik M, Bouwman P, Bartkova J, Gogola E, Warmerdam D, Barazas M et al. 2015. REV7 counteracts DNA double-strand break resection and affects PARP inhibition. *Nature* 521: 541-544.
- Zimmermann M, Lottersberger F, Buonomo SB, Sfeir A, de Lange T. 2013. 53BP1 regulates DSB repair using Rif1 to control 5' end resection. *Science* 339: 700-704.

