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Regulated Splicing of the $\alpha 6$ Integrin Cytoplasmic Domain Determines the Fate of Breast Cancer Stem Cells

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SUMMARY

Although the $\alpha 6\beta 1$ integrin has been implicated in the function of breast and other cancer stem cells (CSCs), little is known about its regulation and relationship to mechanisms involved in the genesis of CSCs. We report that a CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} population, enriched for CSCs, is comprised of distinct epithelial and mesenchymal populations that differ in expression of the two $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic domain splice variants: $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$. $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ expression defines the mesenchymal population and is necessary for CSC function, a function that cannot be executed by $\alpha 6A$ integrins. The generation of $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ is tightly controlled and occurs as a consequence of an autocrine vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) signaling that culminates in the transcriptional repression of a key RNA-splicing factor. These data alter our understanding of how $\alpha 6\beta 1$ contributes to breast cancer, and they resolve ambiguities regarding the use of total $\alpha 6$ (CD49f) expression as a biomarker for CSCs.

INTRODUCTION

Most solid tumors, including breast carcinomas, harbor a relatively small population of cells with characteristics of stem cells, including the ability to self-renew and populate new tumors. This population is often referred to as tumor-initiating cells or cancer stem cells (CSCs) (Al-Hajj et al., 2003; Baccelli and Trumpp, 2012; Visvader and Lindeman, 2012). Understanding the biology of CSCs is highly significant because this population of cells is likely responsible for tumor recurrence in response to therapy and it may contribute to metastasis (Calcagno et al., 2010; Dean et al., 2005; Pinto et al., 2013). A frequent observation is that high expression of the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit (CD49f) is a biomarker for breast and other CSCs (Goel et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010; Vieira et al., 2012). This subunit heterodimerizes

with either the $\beta 1$ or $\beta 4$ subunits to generate the $\alpha 6\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6\beta 4$ integrins, which function primarily as laminin receptors (Mercurio, 1990). Interestingly, however, the $\beta 4$ subunit appears to be expressed at very low levels, if at all, in CSCs compared to non-CSCs, indicating that $\alpha 6\beta 1$ is the dominant $\alpha 6$ integrin expressed by CSCs (Goel et al., 2013; Lathia et al., 2010). Although the $\alpha 6\beta 1$ integrin has been implicated in the function of breast and other CSCs (Cariati et al., 2008; Goel et al., 2013; Lathia et al., 2010), much needs to be learned about the contribution of this integrin to the genesis of CSCs. Specifically, $\alpha 6\beta 1$ is expressed in both differentiated (e.g., luminal) and dedifferentiated breast carcinoma cells (e.g., triple-negative [TPN]) and the relationship between $\alpha 6\beta 1$ and differentiation status is unclear, especially in the context of CSCs. There are also reports that high $\alpha 6\beta 1$ expression is not always characteristic of CSCs (Sario et al., 2012). The fact that the $\alpha 6$ integrin exists as two distinct cytoplasmic domain variants, $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$, which are generated by alternative mRNA splicing (Hogervorst et al., 1991; Tamura et al., 1991), could be relevant to our understanding of the function of this integrin in CSCs, but little is known about the relative contribution of these variants to self-renewal and tumor initiation.

This study was prompted by our analysis of the CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} population of breast cancer cells, a minor population known to be tumorigenic and enriched for stem cell properties (Al-Hajj et al., 2003; Azzam et al., 2013; Iliopoulos et al., 2011). Unexpectedly, we discovered that this population is comprised of distinct epithelial and mesenchymal populations and that these populations differ in their expression of the $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ integrin subunits. The epithelial population is characterized by predominantly $\alpha 6A$ and very low levels of $\alpha 6B$ expression, and $\alpha 6B$ expression predominates in the mesenchymal population. This observation prompted us to investigate the relevance of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ expression to self-renewal and tumor initiation. We discovered that the $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ integrin is the critical $\alpha 6\beta 1$ variant that drives CSC function in TPN breast cancer and promotes tumor initiation and that this function cannot be executed by $\alpha 6A$ integrins. Given that splicing regulates the differential expression of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$, we discovered that $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ expression is sustained by a vascular endothelial growth factor

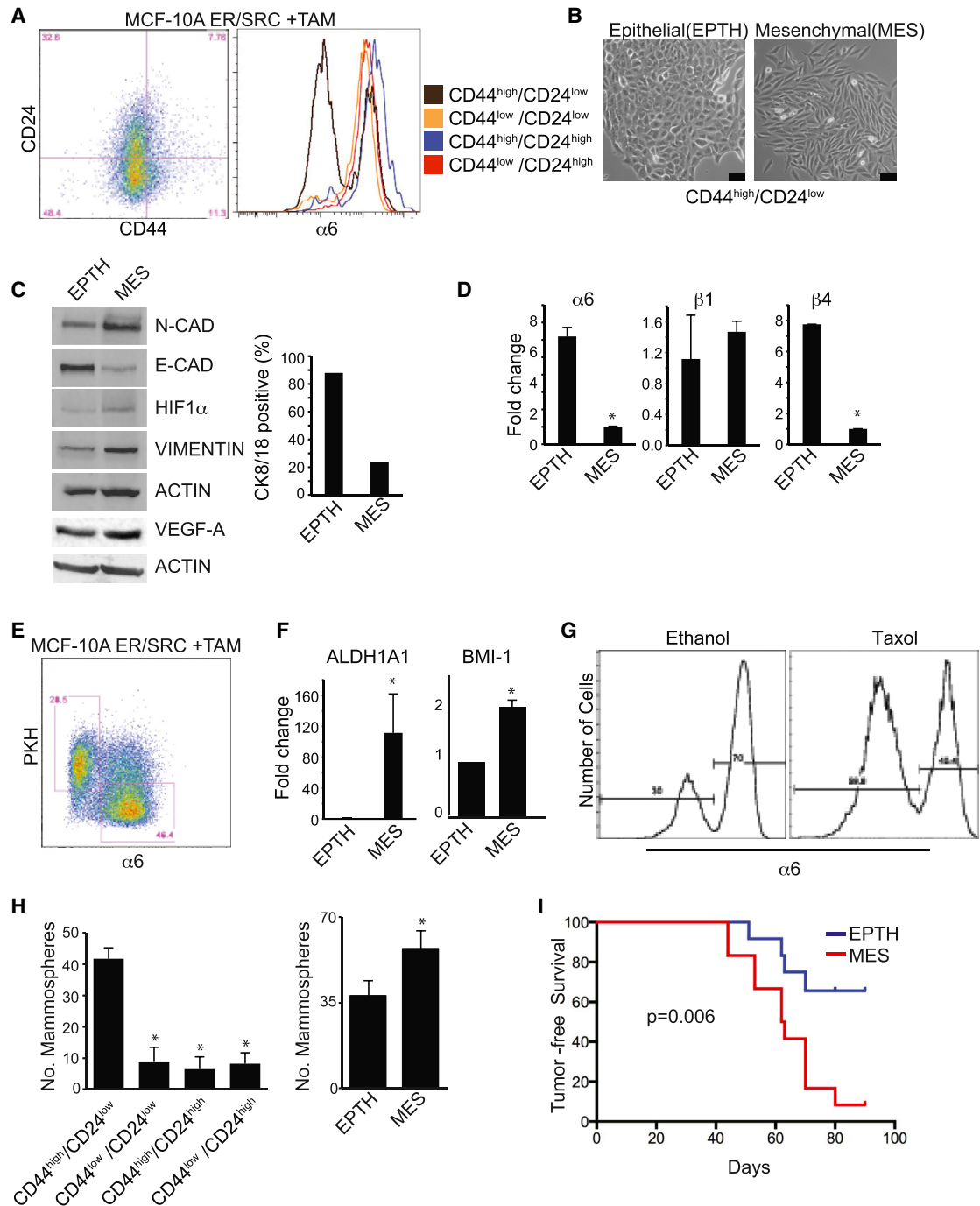


Figure 1. Identification of Distinct $CD44^{high}CD24^{low}$ Populations that Differ in Morphology and Stem Cell Properties

(A) MCF-10A ER-SRC cells were treated with 4-hydroxytamoxifen (TAM) and FACS analyzed using CD44, CD24, and $\alpha 6$ (GoH3) antibodies. (B) The $CD44^{high}CD24^{low}$ population isolated from TAM-treated MCF-10A ER-SRC cells was sorted by FACS into two subpopulations based on expression of the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit. Photomicrographs of these two subpopulations designated as EPTH ($\alpha 6$ high) and MES ($\alpha 6$ low) are shown. The scale bar represents 100 μm . (C) Cell extracts from EPTH and MES cells were immunoblotted to assess expression of N-cadherin, E-cadherin, HIF-1 α , vimentin, actin, and VEGF-A (left panel). EPTH and MES cells were immunostained for CK8 and CK18, and the quantitation of positive cells is presented (right panel). (D) Expression of integrin $\alpha 6$, $\beta 1$, and $\beta 4$ mRNAs was quantified in EPTH and MES cells using qPCR. (E) The $CD44^{high}CD24^{low}$ population from TAM-treated MCF-10A ER-SRC cells was stained with PKH26 and cultured for 14 days. Cells were analyzed by FACS for PKH and integrin $\alpha 6$ expression. (F) Expression of ALDH1A1 and BMI-1 mRNAs was quantified in EPTH and MES cells using qPCR.

(legend continued on next page)

(VEGF)-signaling pathway that promotes dedifferentiation and culminates in the repression of a key splicing factor that impedes the genesis of $\alpha 6B$. These data reveal an integrated pathway that regulates integrin splicing and the consequent formation of an $\alpha 6$ splice variant necessary for self-renewal and tumor initiation.

RESULTS

Identification of Two Distinct Populations of CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} Cells that Differ in Stem Cell Properties and Expression of $\alpha 6$ Integrin Splice Variants

Expression of SRC in MCF-10A cells using a tamoxifen-inducible ER-SRC construct increases the number of CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} cells when compared with nontransformed cells (Iliopoulos et al., 2011). Flow cytometry using an $\alpha 6$ -specific antibody (Ab) revealed two distinct populations of cells within the CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} population that differ in their relative expression of $\alpha 6$: populations of relative high and low $\alpha 6$ expression. In contrast, only the high $\alpha 6$ peak was seen in the other, non-CSC subpopulations (CD44^{low}CD24^{low}, CD44^{high}CD24^{high}, and CD44^{low}CD24^{high}; Figure 1A). Moreover, SRC transformation alters the distribution of $\alpha 6$ expression with a shift toward the $\alpha 6$ -low peak (Figure S1A). To gain insight into the nature of these two $\alpha 6$ populations, we sorted CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} cells with fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) in order to isolate the $\alpha 6$ -high and low cells and characterized them. Surprisingly, these two populations differed markedly in their morphology. The $\alpha 6$ -low population had a distinct mesenchymal morphology (MES) compared to the epithelial morphology (EPTH) of the $\alpha 6$ -high population (Figure 1B). Consistent with their morphology, EPTH cells express more E-cadherin and MES cells express more N-cadherin, vimentin, hypoxia-inducible factor 1 α (HIF-1 α), and VEGF. Cytokeratin 8 and cytokeratin 18, markers of differentiated secretory epithelia, are enriched in the EPTH population (Figure 1C). Snai1 and Zeb1, epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT)-associated transcription factors (Nieto and Cano, 2012), are expressed in the MES population (Figure S1B). Also, expression of the $\beta 4$ integrin subunit is high in EPTH cells and low in MES cells, indicating that EPTH cells express primarily $\alpha 6\beta 4$ and MES express $\alpha 6\beta 1$ (Figure 1D). We also observed that EPTH cells are stable and maintain their epithelial nature in culture but that MES cells slowly transition to epithelial cells (Figure S1C).

Although the CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} population is considered to have stem cell properties (Al-Hajj et al., 2003; Azzam et al., 2013; Iliopoulos et al., 2011), our data indicate that this population is heterogeneous and that the EPTH and MES populations may differ in stem cell characteristics. Indeed, we observed increased expression of ALDH1 and BMI1, which are established stem cell markers (Douville et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2006), and increased retention of PKH, a marker for slow-cycling cells

(Pece et al., 2010), in the MES population (Figures 1E and 1F). To substantiate these results, we treated SRC-transformed MCF-10A cells with Taxol, which selectively kills growing cells and enriches for slow-cycling cells (Tanei et al., 2009). Taxol treatment enriched cells in the first peak of $\alpha 6$ integrin (MES cells), supporting the hypothesis that these are slow-cycling cells (Figure 1G). Most importantly, the EPTH and MES cells exhibited significant differences in their ability to form mammospheres (Figures 1H and S1D) and initiate tumors upon mammary fat pad implantation in nonobese diabetic (NOD).Cg-Prkdc^{scid} IL2rg^{tm1Wjl} (NSG) mice (Figure 1I), indicating that the MES population is enriched for CSCs.

The fact that MES population exhibited reduced $\alpha 6$ integrin expression but enhanced CSC properties compared to the EPTH population prompted us to assess the relative expression of the $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ splice variants. We observed that EPTH cells express predominantly $\alpha 6A$ and very low levels of $\alpha 6B$ and that $\alpha 6B$ is the predominant variant in the MES population (Figure 2A). Based on this result, we evaluated the relative expression of these variants in normal (MCF-10A), luminal (T47D and SK-BR-3), and TPN (MDA-MB-435, MD-MB-231, and SUM1315) breast cancer cell lines. Normal and luminal cell lines tested expressed predominantly $\alpha 6A$ and TPN cells expressed predominantly $\alpha 6B$ as detected by immunoblotting (Figure 2B).

The $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ Integrin Promotes the Function of Breast CSCs, and Its Expression Is Tightly Regulated by Epithelial Splicing Factor ESRP1

To investigate the relative contribution of the $\alpha 6A\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ integrins, we used TPN breast cancer lines, which are enriched with CSCs. Given that these cells predominantly express $\alpha 6B$ but also some $\alpha 6A$, we sought to obtain equivalent surface expression of $\alpha 6A\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6B\beta 1$. Also, it is not possible to design small hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) that target $\alpha 6B$ specifically because of sequence homology between the two variants. For these reasons, we used an shRNA that targets the 3' UTR that is common to both $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ to deplete the expression of endogenous $\alpha 6$ integrins, and then we re-expressed either $\alpha 6A$ or $\alpha 6B$ (Figures S2A and 2C). The cell lines generated predominantly express only one of these cytoplasmic variants (Figure 2C), and these two integrin variants exhibit similar levels of surface expression (Figure S2B). Cells expressing $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ had decreased E-cadherin and increased vimentin expression and proliferated more slowly compared to cells expressing $\alpha 6A\beta 1$ (Figures S2C and S2D). Also, compared to cells expressing either empty vector or $\alpha 6A\beta 1$, cells expressing $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ had significantly more self-renewal ability as measured by mammosphere serial passage (Figures 2D, S2E, and S2F), more retention of PKH (Figure S3A), and increased anchorage-independent growth (Figures 2E and S2G). To test whether tumor cell populations that express $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ have a greater number of CSCs

(G) The CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} population isolated from TAM-treated MCF-10A ER-SRC cells was treated with either Taxol or ethanol for 7 days, and integrin $\alpha 6$ surface expression was analyzed by FACS.

(H) TAM-treated MCF-10A ER-SRC cells were FACS sorted into subpopulations based on expression of CD44 and CD24 and assayed for mammosphere formation (left panel). EPTH and MES cells were assayed for mammosphere formation (right panel).

(I) EPTH and MES cells (10⁶ cells per mouse) were implanted in the mammary fat pads of NSG mice (n = 12), and tumor formation was assessed by palpation. The curve comparison was done using log rank test (p = 0.006).

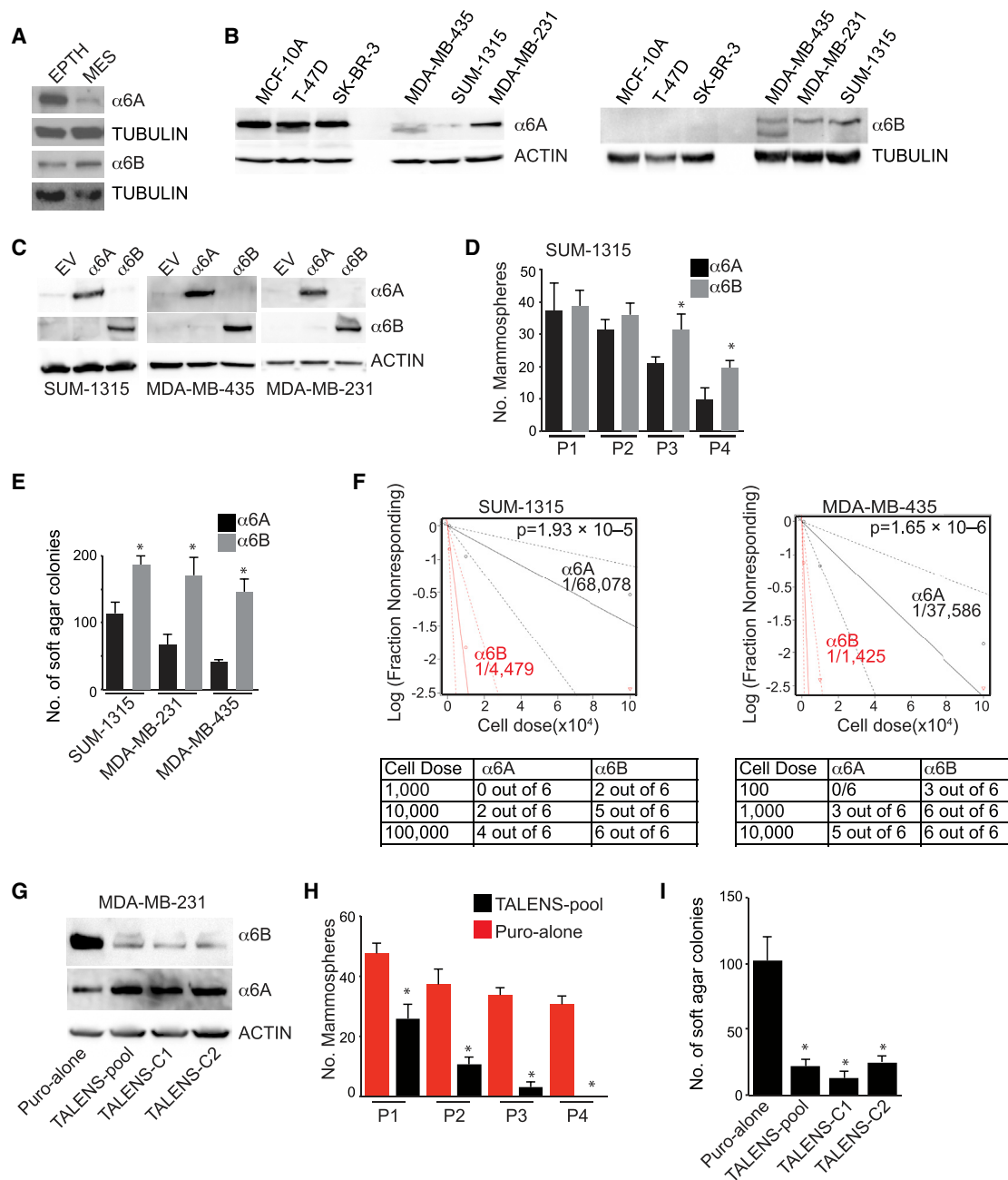


Figure 2. α6B Cytoplasmic Variant Expression Determines Tumor-Initiating Potential in Breast Cancer Cells

(A) Cell extracts from EPTH and MES were immunoblotted for integrin α6A, α6B, and tubulin.

(B) Cell extracts from breast cancer cell lines were immunoblotted for α6A (left blot) and α6B (right blot).

(C) Integrin α6-depleted SUM1315, MDA-MB-435, and MDA-MB-231 cells were stably transfected with either empty vector (EV), α6A, or α6B. Transfectants were analyzed by immunoblotting using α6A, α6B, or actin Abs.

(D) Mammospheres from SUM1315 transfectants (α6A or α6B) were passaged serially, and the number of mammospheres is presented.

(E) Integrin α6A and α6B transfectants of SUM1315, MDA-MB-435, and MDA-MB-231 cell lines were assessed for growth in soft agar.

(F) Integrin α6A and α6B transfectants of SUM1315 (left panel) and MDA-MB-435 (right panel) cells were transplanted into mammary fat pads of NSG mice using 10-fold serial dilution. The formation of palpable tumors was used to evaluate tumor initiation. Data are presented as a log-log plot, and frequency of stem cells is calculated by extreme limiting dilution analysis. Red, SUM1315-α6B (1/4,479) or MDA-MB-435-α6B (1/1,425); black, SUM1315-α6A (1/68,078) or MDA-MB-435-α6A (1/37,586).

(G) Expression of α6B was depleted in MDA-MB-231 cells using α6B-specific TALENs in combination with a donor plasmid containing a puromycin expression cassette, and expression of α6A, α6B, and actin was assessed by immunoblotting.

(H) Mammospheres from the transfectants in G (Puro-alone or TALENS-pool) were passaged serially, and the number of mammospheres is presented.

(I) Soft agar growth from the transfectants in G (Puro-alone, TALENS-pool, TALENS-C1, and TALENS-C2) is presented as the mean number of colonies in 20 fields.

compared to cells that express $\alpha 6 A \beta 1$, we performed limiting dilution experiments *in vivo*. As few as 100 cells for MDA-MB-435- $\alpha 6 B$ (three out of six mice) and 1,000 cells for SUM1315- $\alpha 6 B$ (two out of six mice) were sufficient for tumor initiation, whereas no tumor formation was observed by the corresponding number of $\alpha 6 A$ transfectants. Based on the limiting dilution assay, the frequency of CSCs was calculated to be approximately 1/1,425 (MDA-MB-435- $\alpha 6 B$), 1/37,586 (MDA-MB-435- $\alpha 6 A$), 1/4,479 (SUM1315- $\alpha 6 B$), and 1/68,078 (SUM1315- $\alpha 6 A$; Figure 2F). These data demonstrate that breast cancer cells expressing $\alpha 6 B \beta 1$ are significantly more enriched in stem cell properties than cells expressing $\alpha 6 A \beta 1$.

We made use of transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs) to disrupt the alternative splicing site in the $\alpha 6$ integrin mRNA as a rigorous approach to substantiate the role of $\alpha 6 B$ and to circumvent the fact that RNAi cannot be used to target this splice variant specifically. TALEN-mediated disruption of the alternative splicing site resulted in markedly reduced $\alpha 6 B$ expression and a concomitant increase in $\alpha 6 A$ expression (Figure 2G). Importantly, depletion of $\alpha 6 B$ significantly inhibited self-renewal (Figure 2H) and colony formation in soft agar (Figure 2I).

Differential expression of $\alpha 6 A$ and $\alpha 6 B$ is determined by alternative splicing of the $\alpha 6$ subunit, a process mediated by specific splicing factors (Warzecha et al., 2010). We compared EPTH and MES cells for the expression of splicing factors (ESRP1, ESRP2, RBFOX2, and MBNL) that have been implicated in epithelial differentiation/EMT and CSCs and that could regulate $\alpha 6$ splicing (Brown et al., 2011; Shapiro et al., 2011; Yae et al., 2012; Han et al., 2013). ESRP1 is the only factor that exhibited a marked difference in expression between the two populations (24-fold lower in MES compared to EPTH cells; Figure 3A). The other factors are expressed at low levels in both populations (Figure 3A). Also, expression of ESRP1 is extremely low in TPN compared to luminal (MCF7) or normal (MCF-10A) breast cancer cells (Figure 3B). Based on these observations, we hypothesized that loss of ESRP1 increases $\alpha 6 B$ and decreases $\alpha 6 A$. Indeed, downregulation of ESRP1 in SRC-transformed MCF-10A cells significantly increased $\alpha 6 B$ and reduced $\alpha 6 A$ expression (Figure 3C). Similarly, exogenous expression of ESRP1 in TPN MDA-MB-435, SUM1315, MDA-MB-231, and SUM159 cells increased $\alpha 6 A$ and reduced $\alpha 6 B$ expression, and it diminished the ability of these cells to form colonies in soft agar (Figures 3D, 3E, and S3B). Downregulation of ESRP1 significantly increased the number of soft agar colonies and self-renewal ability (Figure S3C). Taxol treatment of SRC-transformed MCF-10A cells, which enriches for CSCs (Tanei et al., 2009), increased $\alpha 6 B$ expression and reduced expression of ESRP1 and $\alpha 6 A$ (Figure 3F). Expression of ESRP1 in TPN cell lines reduced their self-renewal potential as measured by serial passaging of mammospheres (Figure 3G).

To assess whether the correlation between $\alpha 6$ integrin variants and ESRP1 exists in clinical samples from breast cancer patients, we quantified ESRP1, $\alpha 6 A$, and $\alpha 6 B$ mRNA expression in TPN and non-TPN breast tumor samples. VEGF expression was also quantified in the same samples because we previously reported that VEGF is highly expressed in TPN samples compared to non-TPN (Goel et al., 2013). As shown in Figures

4A and 4B, expression of $\alpha 6 A$, as well as ESRP1, is significantly lower in TPN compared to non-TPN tumors. In contrast, VEGF and $\alpha 6 B$ expression is significantly higher in TPN samples. We also observed that ESRP1 is positively correlated with $\alpha 6 A$ but negatively correlated with VEGF and $\alpha 6 B$ (Figure 4C). We also immunoblotted tumor samples with an $\alpha 6 B$ -specific Ab and observed that $\alpha 6 B$ is significantly higher in TPN samples ($n = 17$) compared to non-TPN ($n = 18$) and its expression is negatively correlated with ESRP1 (Figures 4D–4F).

VEGF/NRP/GLI1 Signaling Suppresses ESRP1 via BMI1

Based on the interesting negative correlation observed in tumor specimens between VEGF and ESRP1 expression, we investigated the possibility that VEGF signaling suppresses ESRP1 and, consequently, induces $\alpha 6 B$ expression. Previously, we reported that autocrine VEGF signaling, mediated through a neuropilin-2/ $\alpha 6 \beta 1$ complex, promotes the initiation of TPN tumors via GLI1 (Goel et al., 2012a, 2013). In support of this possibility, we observed that cells expressing $\alpha 6 B$ (MDA-MB-435, MDA-MB-231, and SUM1315), as well as the MES cells, exhibited increased expression of VEGF, NRP1, and NRP2 compared to cells expressing $\alpha 6 A$ and the EPTH cells (Figures 5A and 5B). Inhibition of either VEGF (using small interfering RNA [siRNA]) or NRP (using an inhibitory peptide c-furSEMA) significantly reduced the self-renewal ability of the $\alpha 6 B$ transfectants (Figure 5C). Finally, depletion of VEGF caused a significant increase in ESRP1 and $\alpha 6 A$ expression but reduced $\alpha 6 B$ (Figure 5D).

Autocrine VEGF signaling has been shown to induce expression of GLI1 (Goel et al., 2013), a hedgehog target gene that has been implicated in the function of CSCs (Fiaschi et al., 2009; Goel et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2006). Indeed, we observed increased GLI1 expression in the MES population and $\alpha 6 B$ transfectants (Figures 5B and 5E). Importantly, GLI1 expression is significantly reduced by TALEN-mediated downregulation of $\alpha 6 B$, supporting the role of $\alpha 6 B \beta 1$ in this VEGF/NRP/GLI1-signaling pathway (Figure 5F). Given that TALEN-mediated downregulation of $\alpha 6 B$ increased $\alpha 6 A$ and decreased GLI1, we hypothesized that GLI1 may inhibit ESRP1 expression. This hypothesis is supported by experiments in which we modulated GLI1 expression in SUM1315 and MCF-10A cells and observed a significant effect on ESRP1 expression (Figure 5G). We also detected a negative correlation between ESRP1 and GLI1 expression in a cohort of 310 breast cancer patients ($p = 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; Figure 5H) using cBIOPORTAL (<http://cbioprotal.org>; MSKCC). To substantiate the negative regulation of ESRP1 by GLI1, we analyzed mammary tumors in mouse mammary tumor virus (MMTV)-GLI1 and MMTV-polyoma virus middle T (PyV-MT) mice. Mammary tumors in MMTV-GLI1 mice have enhanced expression of VEGF, NRP2, and BMI-1 compared to MMTV-PyV-MT tumors (Goel et al., 2013). We detected reduced expression of ESRP1 and $\alpha 6 A$ and increased expression of $\alpha 6 B$ in MMTV-GLI1 compared to MMTV-PyV-MT tumors (Figure 5I).

To investigate how ESRP1 expression is inhibited by GLI1, we focused on BMI1 because GLI1 promotes breast CSC function by inducing BMI1 (Goel et al., 2013) and BMI1 functions as a transcriptional repressor (Bunker and Kingston, 1994; Goel et al., 2012b). Moreover, expression of GLI1 and BMI1 is significantly higher in the $\alpha 6 B$ transfectants and MES cells than in the

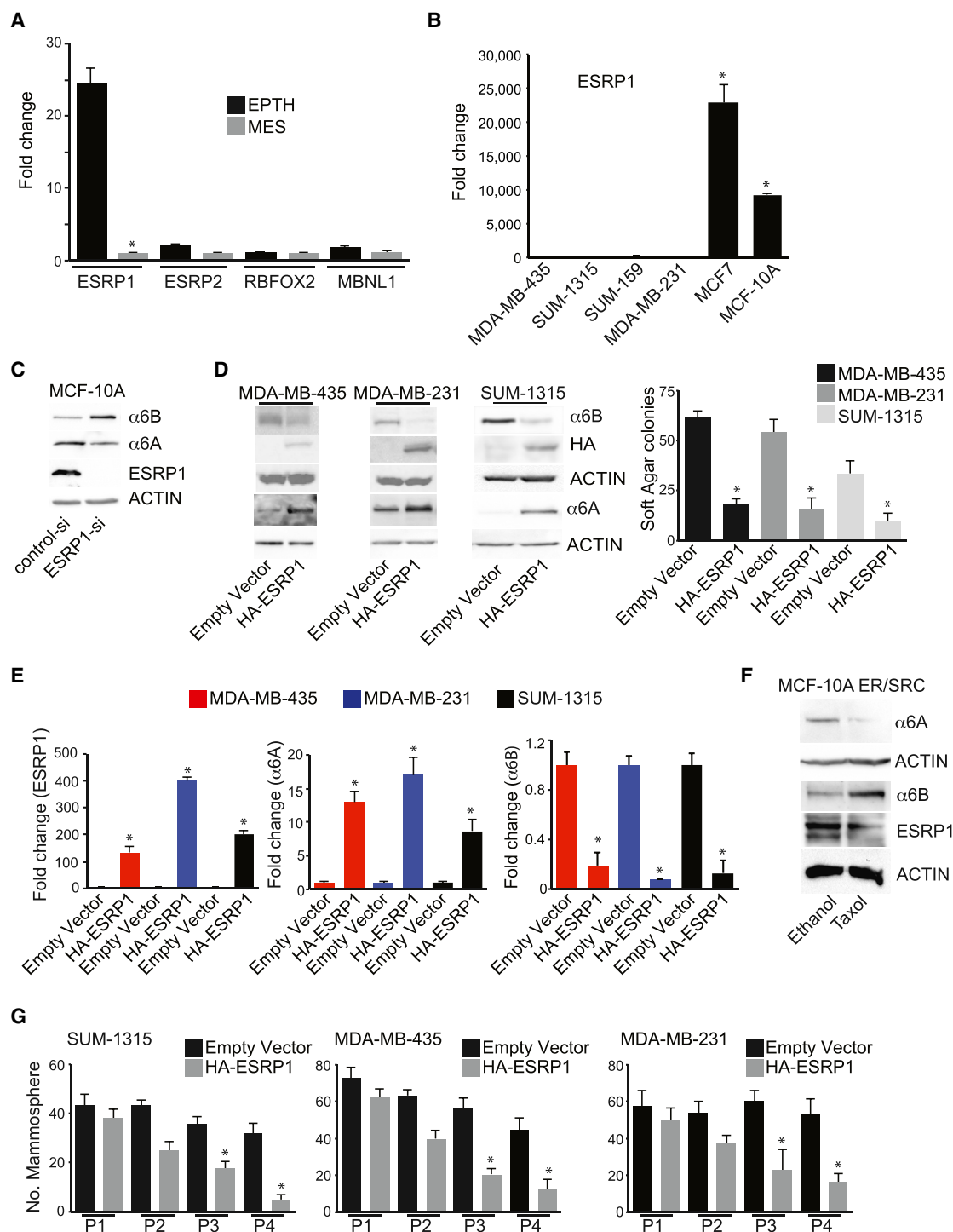


Figure 3. ESRP1 Promotes Integrin α 6A Expression

(A) Expression of ESRP1, ESRP2, RBFOX2, and MBNL1 mRNAs was quantified in EPTH and MES cells using qPCR.

(B) Expression of ESRP1 mRNA was quantified in breast cancer cell lines using qPCR.

(C) ESRP1 was downregulated in MCF-10A cells, and cell extracts were immunoblotted to assess the expression of integrin subunits α 6A, α 6B, ESRP1, and actin.

(D) The effect of ESRP1 on α 6B and α 6A expression, as assessed by immunoblotting (left panels), or on the ability of breast cancer cell lines to form colonies in soft agar (right panel).

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$\alpha 6A$ transfectants and EPTH cells (Figures 6A and S4A). Exogenous expression of $\alpha 6B$ in MCF7 cells increased GLI1 (Figure S4B) and BMI1 (Figure 6B), as well as their self-renewal ability and other established markers of stemness (Figures S4B and S4C). Expression of BMI1 in MCF-10A cells suppressed ESRP1 and $\alpha 6A$ expression but increased $\alpha 6B$ expression (Figure 6C). Conversely, downregulation of either BMI1 or GLI1 in MDA-MB-435 cells increased ESRP1 and $\alpha 6A$ expression but reduced $\alpha 6B$ expression (Figure 6D). We performed chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) to assess BMI1 binding to the ESRP1 promoter and observed binding to specific sequences within this promoter (Figure 6E). Self-renewal ability mediated by $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ is dependent upon BMI1 because BMI1 downregulation inhibits the ability of $\alpha 6B$ transfectants to form mammospheres in serial passage (Figure 6F). Finally, a negative correlation between BMI1 and ESRP1 was observed in our analysis of the human breast cancer data set described above (Figure 6G).

Collectively, our data indicate that autocrine VEGF signaling controls the splicing of the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit by a mechanism that involves GLI1-mediated induction of BMI1 and BMI1-mediated repression of ESRP1. To validate this mechanism, we engineered MDA-MB-231 to express GFP under control of the VEGF promoter. FACS analysis revealed a small population of GFP⁺ cells (~1%) that expresses significantly higher levels of VEGF in comparison to the bulk population (Figure 7A). We isolated these populations and assessed their properties. These VEGF-high cells grow much more slowly (data not shown) and are more resistant to Taxol than the bulk population (Figure S5A). VEGF-high cells are unstable in culture, and they slowly become a mixture of VEGF-high and VEGF-low cells. In contrast, the VEGF-low population does not change in culture (data not shown). VEGF-high cells form more colonies in soft agar compared to VEGF-low cells, and colony formation is inhibited by VEGF downregulation in these cells (Figures 7B and S5B). VEGF-high, but not VEGF-low cells, are sensitive to VEGF and NRP inhibitors (Figure S5C), establishing the validity of this model system. Tumor onset upon orthotopic fat pad implantation, as well as self-renewal assays, indicate that VEGF-high cells are enriched for CSCs compared to VEGF-low cells (Figures 7C and 7D). Consistent with these findings, VEGF-high cells express high levels of $\alpha 6B$, NRPs, GLI1, and BMI1 but reduced levels of $\alpha 6A$ and ESRP1 (Figures 7E and 7F). Finally, expression of ESRP1 in VEGF-high cells increased $\alpha 6A$ expression (Figure 7G) but reduced self-renewal ability in vitro and tumor onset in vivo (Figures 7H and 7I). VEGF/GLI1 signaling also promotes chemoresistance because VEGF downregulation and GLI1 inhibition increased sensitivity to Taxol (Figure S5D).

DISCUSSION

This study revealed that the contribution of the $\alpha 6\beta 1$ integrin to the function of breast CSCs is not dependent on its level of

expression as often assumed but rather on the relative expression of a specific splice variant of this integrin, $\alpha 6B\beta 1$. Conversely, the $\alpha 6A$ integrins lack the ability to promote breast CSC function. The importance of $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ is highlighted by our discovery that expression of the $\alpha 6B$ subunit is repressed by the ESRP1-splicing factor and intimately associated with a VEGF autocrine signaling pathway that sustains CSCs and promotes tumor initiation. The fact that $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ initiates a signaling pathway that sustains its expression argues for the existence of a feedforward loop involved in tumor initiation that has the $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ splice variant at its nexus.

A major conclusion of this study is that the $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ cytoplasmic domains differ completely in their contribution to the function of CSCs. The realization that the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit exists as two distinct variants that differ only in their cytoplasmic domains was made more than 20 years ago (Hogervorst et al., 1991; Tamura et al., 1991). Early studies focused primarily on correlating $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ expression with specific cell types and developmental stages (Hierck et al., 1993; Hogervorst et al., 1993). Interestingly, oncogenic transformation of keratinocytes was observed to increase $\alpha 6B$ expression, but the functional consequences were not investigated (Tennenbaum et al., 1995). Mice that lack $\alpha 6A$, generated by removing the exon that encodes its cytoplasmic domain, developed normally and were characterized primarily by defects in lymphocyte migration (Gimond et al., 1998). More recently, $\alpha 6A$ has been implicated in the proliferation of colon carcinoma cells (Groulx et al., 2014). We observed that downregulation of $\alpha 6A$ did not impact mammosphere formation or $\alpha 6B$ expression (Figure S5E). Together, these results support our hypothesis that $\alpha 6B$ is the splice variant that is critical for slow-cycling stem cell function. In this context, it is worth noting that $\alpha 6B$ expression had been associated with embryonic stem cells (Cooper et al., 1991; Tamura et al., 1991), but its functional contribution was not pursued. A major hindrance to the functional analysis of $\alpha 6B$ had been the lack of an approach to target this variant specifically. RNAi is not feasible because of sequence homology between $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$. Specific function-blocking antibodies do not exist and could be difficult to generate. We were successful in circumventing these issues using gene-editing TALENs directed at the alternative splice site in the $\alpha 6$ subunit. This approach enabled us to inhibit $\alpha 6B$ expression specifically and establish its contribution to CSCs.

Our data infer that $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ -mediated signaling is distinct from other $\alpha 6$ integrin signaling because it can promote the function of CSCs. This conclusion is supported by the finding that only $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ has the ability to induce GLI1 and inhibit ESRP1 transcription. Interestingly, $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ is a component of a VEGF signaling pathway that represses $\alpha 6A$ and sustains $\alpha 6B$ expression as evidenced by the fact that TALEN-mediated knockdown of $\alpha 6B$ increases $\alpha 6A$ expression and our previous finding that an $\alpha 6\beta 1$ /NRP2 complex mediates VEGF signaling (Goel et al.,

(E) The effect of ESRP1 expression on ESRP1 (left panels), integrin $\alpha 6A$ expression (middle panel), or integrin $\alpha 6B$ expression (right panel) was analyzed using qPCR.

(F) The CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} population from TAM-treated MCF-10A ER-SRC cells was treated with either Taxol or ethanol for 7 days, and expression of $\alpha 6B$, $\alpha 6A$, and ESRP1 was analyzed by immunoblotting.

(G) The effect of ESRP1 expression on self-renewal ability was analyzed by serial passage of mammospheres.

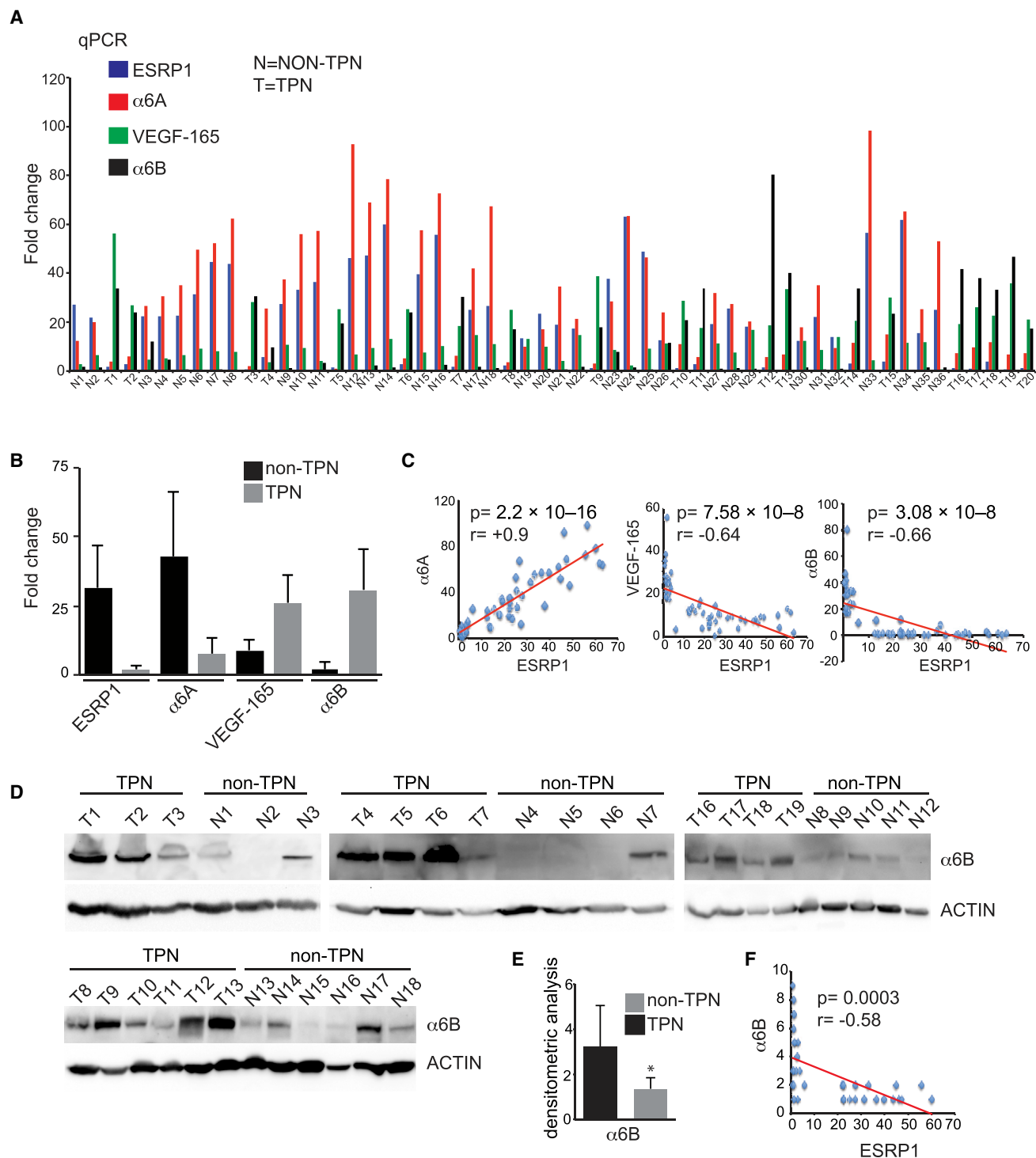


Figure 4. ESRP1 and Integrin $\alpha 6A$ Expression Is Low in Triple-Negative Tumors and Negatively Correlated with Integrin $\alpha 6B$ and VEGF

(A) Frozen clinical specimens from TPN (n = 20) and non-TPN (n = 36) breast tumors were used to compare ESRP1, integrin $\alpha 6A$, integrin $\alpha 6B$, and VEGF-165 by qPCR. (B) Graph depicts the fold change in mRNA levels between the TPN and non-TPN specimens shown in (A). (C) Correlation graphing reveals a significant positive correlation between $\alpha 6A$ and ESRP1 expression (left panel), a significant negative correlation between VEGF-165 and ESRP1 expression (middle panel), and a significant negative correlation between $\alpha 6B$ and ESRP1 expression (right panel). (D) Frozen clinical specimens from TPN (n = 17) and non-TPN (n = 18) breast tumors were used to compare expression of integrin $\alpha 6B$ by immunoblotting. (E) Densitometric analysis of the immunoblot shown in (D). (F) Correlation graphing reveals a significant negative correlation in the expression of integrin $\alpha 6B$ and ESRP1.

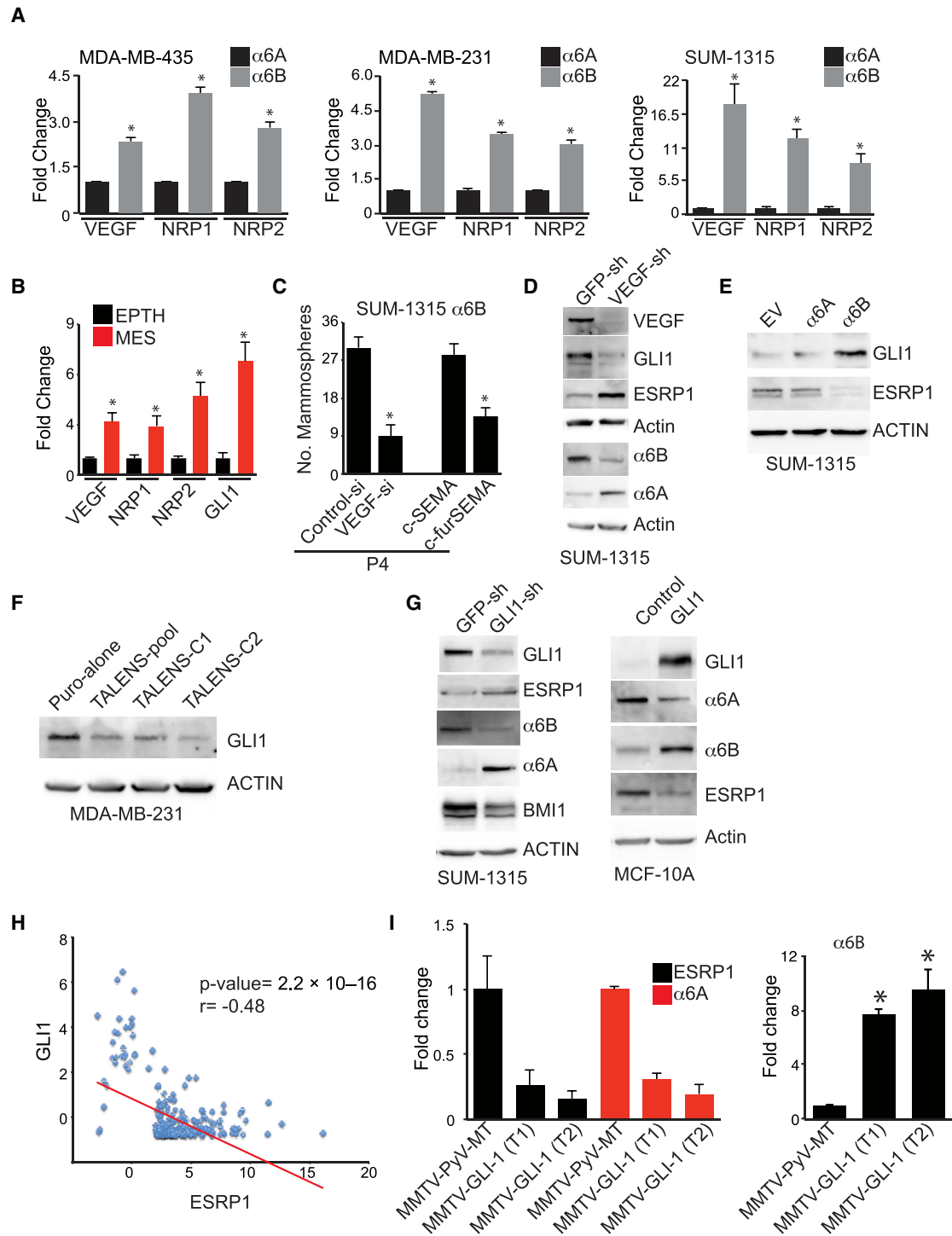


Figure 5. VEGF/NRP2/GLI1 Signaling Represses ESRP1 Expression and Promotes Integrin- α 6 β 1-Mediated Self-Renewal

(A) VEGF-A, NRP1, and NRP2 mRNA expression was quantified by qPCR in breast cancer cell lines expressing integrin α 6A or α 6B variants. (B) EPTH and MES populations were analyzed for VEGF-A, NRP1, NRP2, or GLI1 mRNA expression using qPCR. (C) SUM1315- α 6B transfectants were depleted of VEGF and NRP using either VEGF siRNA or NRP inhibitors, and these cells were assayed for their ability to be passaged serially as mammospheres. The number of mammospheres observed at passage 4 is shown. (D) VEGF was depleted in SUM1315 cells, and the expression of VEGF, GLI1, ESRP1, α 6A, α 6B, and actin was assessed by immunoblotting. (E) Cell extracts from SUM1315 transfectants (EV, α 6A, or α 6B) were immunoblotted with Abs specific to GLI1, ESRP1, and actin. (F) Expression of α 6B was depleted in MDA-MB-231 cells using α 6B-specific TALENs, and expression of GLI1 and actin was assessed by immunoblotting.

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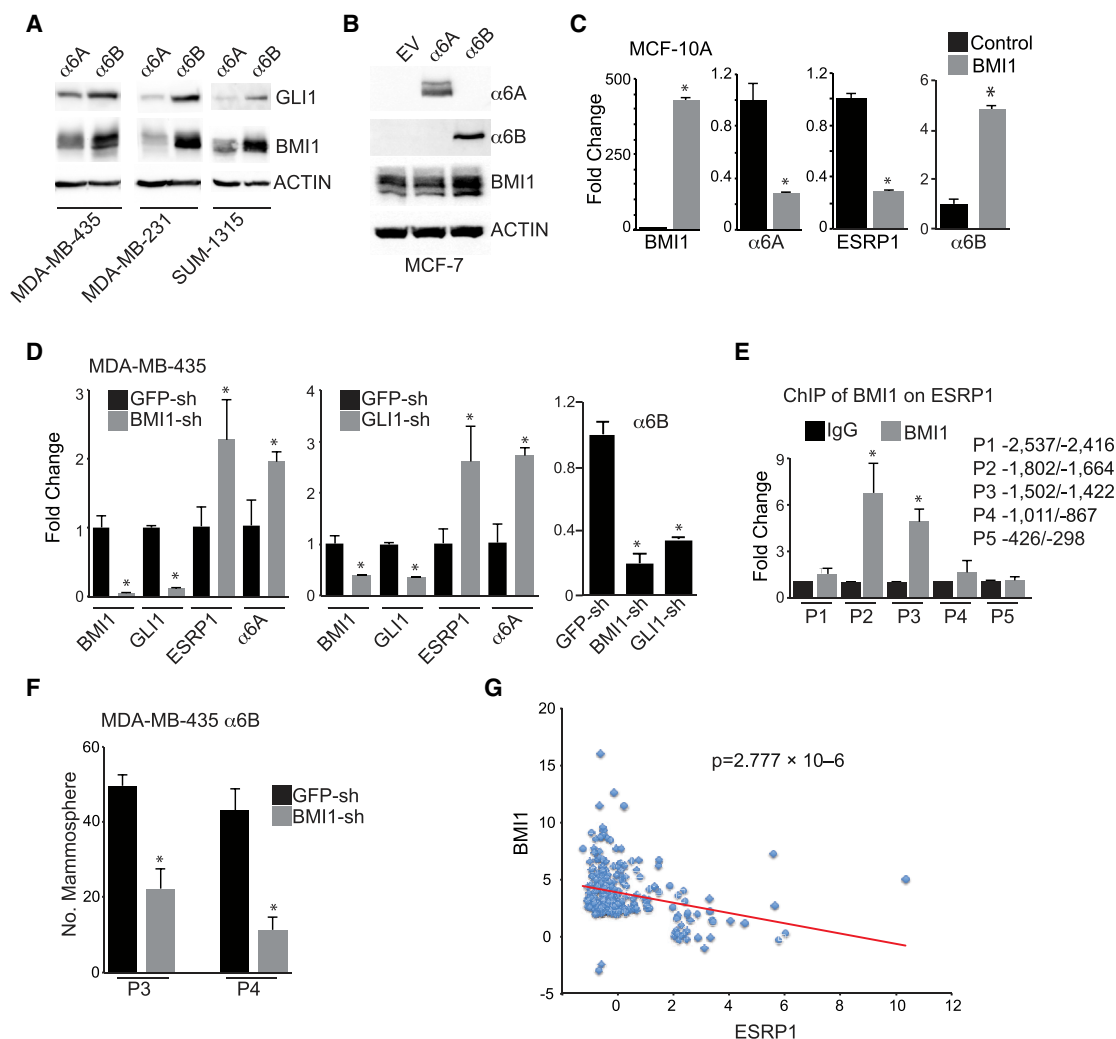


Figure 6. BMI1 Suppresses ESRP1 and Controls $\alpha6\beta1$ -Mediated Self-Renewal

(A) Extracts from $\alpha6A$ - or $\alpha6B$ -expressing breast cancer cells were immunoblotted with Abs to GLI1, BMI1, and actin. (B) MCF-7 cells expressing either EV, $\alpha6A$, or $\alpha6B$ were analyzed for expression of $\alpha6A$, $\alpha6B$, BMI1, and actin. (C) BMI1 was expressed in MCF-10A cells, and its effect on $\alpha6A$, ESRP1, and $\alpha6B$ expression was assessed by qPCR. (D) Downregulation of BMI1 or GLI1 significantly increased ESRP1 and $\alpha6A$ but reduced $\alpha6B$ mRNA levels. (E) Binding of BMI1 on the ESRP1 promoter was analyzed using ChIP. Primers P2 and P3, which span the region $-1,422$ to $-1,802$ upstream of the transcription start site of ESRP1, show significant binding of BMI1. IgG, immunoglobulin. (F) Effect of BMI1 downregulation on the self-renewal potential of $\alpha6B$ transfectants is shown at mammosphere passages 3 and 4. (G) A significant negative correlation between expression of BMI1 and ESRP1 was observed in breast cancer patient cohorts.

2013). Also, $\alpha6B$ is the predominant variant observed in cells that exhibit autocrine VEGF/NRP2 signaling. These findings are significant because they provide a mechanism for how $\alpha6B$ expression is regulated in cancer. The limited data published on the $\alpha6$ splice variants do not address how they are regulated differentially, especially in a pathophysiological context. In essence, our data support the existence of a feedforward

signaling loop that involves $\alpha6\beta1$ and that functions to sustain $\alpha6B$ and repress $\alpha6A$ expression. Interestingly, a contribution of $\alpha6B\beta4$ to this signaling pathway and the function of CSCs is not supported by our data despite the fact that $\alpha6\beta4$ integrin has been implicated in breast cancer formation and progression (Guo et al., 2006; Lipscomb et al., 2005; Shaw et al., 1997). The MES population of $CD44^{high}/CD24^{low}$ SRC-transformed

(G) Cell extracts from SUM1315 cells expressing either GFPsh or GLI1sh were immunoblotted using Abs to GLI1, ESRP1, $\alpha6A$, $\alpha6B$, BMI1, and actin (left panels). MCF-10A cells were transfected with GLI1 and analyzed for expression of GLI1, $\alpha6A$, $\alpha6B$, ESRP1, and actin (right panel). (H) A significant negative correlation between GLI1 and ESRP1 expression was observed in breast cancer patient cohorts. (I) Expression of ESRP1, $\alpha6A$, and $\alpha6B$ is compared between MMTV-PyV-MT and MMTV-GLI1 mouse tumor models.

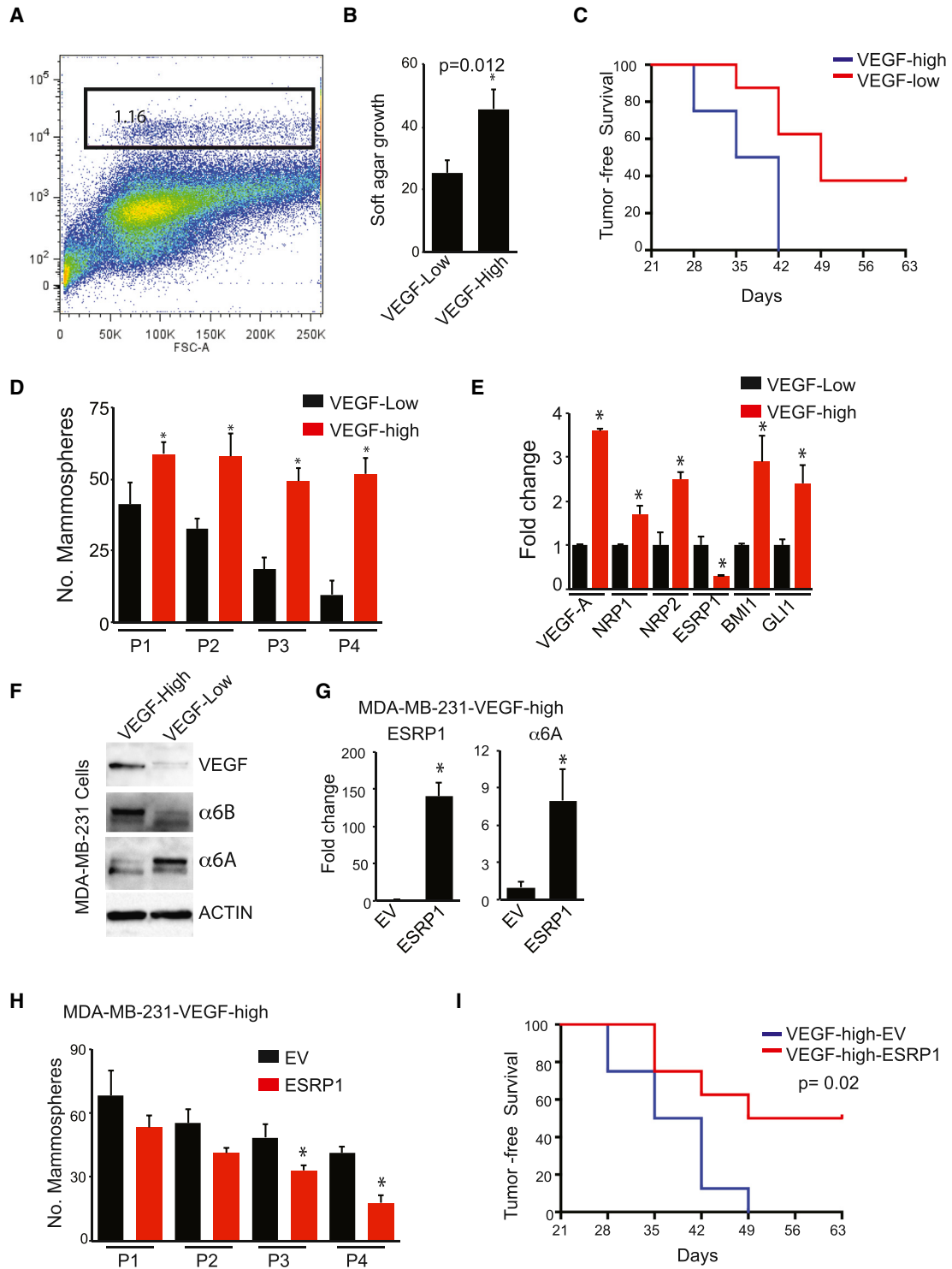


Figure 7. Integrin $\alpha 6\beta 1$ Is at the Nexus of a Feedforward VEGF-Signaling Loop that Sustains Self-Renewal and Tumor Initiation

(A) FACS profile of MDA-MB-231 cells stably expressing GFP under control of the VEGF promoter is shown.

(B) Freshly sorted VEGF-high or VEGF-low populations were used to measure colony formation in soft agar.

(C) VEGF-high or VEGF-low cells were implanted in the mammary fat pad of NSG mice ($n = 8$), and tumor formation was assessed by palpation. The curve comparison was done using log rank test ($p = 0.008$).

(D) The effect of VEGF expression on self-renewal ability was analyzed by serial passage of mammospheres.

(E) Expression of key signaling proteins in VEGF-high and VEGF-low cells was quantified by qPCR.

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MCF-10A cells, which has stem cell properties, expresses very little $\beta 4$ compared to the EPTH population (Figure 1D). This observation is consistent with the finding that $\beta 4$ expression is repressed during the EMT (Yang et al., 2009). Moreover, late-passage mammospheres, which are enriched for CSCs, lack detectable $\beta 4$ expression despite the fact that adherent cultures of the same cells express $\beta 4$ (Figure S5F). The intriguing issue that arises from these observations is the mechanism by which $\alpha 6\beta 4$ contributes to breast cancer formation (Guo et al., 2006; Lipscomb et al., 2005).

We conclude that the CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} population of cells enriched for CSCs in TPN breast cancer is actually comprised of distinct epithelial and mesenchymal subpopulations that differ markedly in stem cell properties and tumor-initiating potential. In this direction, a recent study observed heterogeneity in the tumor-initiating population of TPN breast cancer based on the level of CD24 expression (Azzam et al., 2013), substantiating the complexity of putative CSC populations and the need for more specific biomarkers. Our findings also bear on the current debate regarding the role of epithelial differentiation in the genesis of CSCs. Epithelial dedifferentiation and the EMT have been shown to have a causal role in the genesis of CSCs (Scheel et al., 2011; Scheel and Weinberg, 2012), and our data support the involvement of $\alpha 6\beta 1$ in this process. Nonetheless, recent studies have challenged this hypothesis and proposed that stem cell properties reside in an epithelial population (Ocaña et al., 2012; Sarrío et al., 2012). An advantage of our approach is that we were able to compare differentiated and dedifferentiated cells within the same population of cells enriched for stem cell makers and determine that their stem cell properties are manifested primarily in the dedifferentiated cells that are characterized by a high ratio of $\alpha 6\beta / \alpha 6A$ and expression of mesenchymal markers. Nonetheless, the epithelial subpopulation of CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} cells harbors some stem cell properties as evidenced by the data in Figure 1I, and we are intrigued by the possibility that this population may facilitate the function of the mesenchymal population. It is also worth noting that CSC properties differ among cancers and cancer subtypes (Visvader and Lindeman, 2012) and that our findings are relevant to TPN breast cancer.

We conclude from our data that autocrine VEGF signaling promotes CSC function by regulating the expression of splicing factors that contribute to posttranscriptional gene regulation. This conclusion establishes a connection between autocrine growth factor signaling and RNA splicing. Our data also impact the emerging importance of alternative RNA splicing to the EMT and stem cell biology (Brown et al., 2011; De Craene and Berx, 2013; Han et al., 2013; Shapiro et al., 2011; Warzecha et al., 2010; Yae et al., 2012). Epithelial cells harbor a complex, alternative splicing network that contributes to the expression of splice variants of key proteins that sustain the epithelial

phenotype (Warzecha et al., 2010). The regulated expression of splicing factors such as the ESRPs enables the expression of specific splice variants in epithelial cells. Alterations in the expression of splicing factors can disrupt epithelial splicing, resulting in an EMT (Brown et al., 2011; Shapiro et al., 2011; Warzecha et al., 2010) and contributing to the genesis of CSCs (Yae et al., 2012). An important observation from our perspective is that loss of ESRP1 expression, which occurs during the EMT, causes an increase in $\alpha 6B$ and a decrease in $\alpha 6A$ expression, a finding that implicates this splicing factor in the genesis of $\alpha 6\beta 1$ (Warzecha et al., 2010). More specifically, it has been shown that ESRP1 binds to a specific UGG-rich recognition motif in the $\alpha 6$ mRNA and promotes exon inclusion to generate $\alpha 6A$ (Warzecha et al., 2010). Loss of ESRP1 results in the deletion of this exon from the mature mRNA and the consequent generation of $\alpha 6B$ and diminution of $\alpha 6A$. The importance of our work is that we established that autocrine VEGF signaling sustains BMI1-mediated repression of ESRP1 and the consequent increase in $\alpha 6B$ and decrease in $\alpha 6A$ expression. This finding is significant because it establishes an integrated signaling pathway that regulates integrin splicing. Also, autocrine VEGF signaling is emerging as a critical pathway that drives CSC function and tumor initiation, but the mechanisms involved are still being elucidated (Beck et al., 2011; Goel et al., 2012b, 2013; Goel and Mercurio, 2013; Lichtenberger et al., 2010). Clearly, the involvement of RNA splicing adds a dimension to the mechanism by which autocrine VEGF signaling contributes to tumor initiation.

We propose that the ratio of $\alpha 6B$ to $\alpha 6A$ integrin subunit expression is more indicative of stem cell phenotype than total $\alpha 6$ expression, at least for TPN breast cancer. This conclusion is timely and significant for several reasons. Although high $\alpha 6$ (CD49f) expression is often used as a marker to identify breast and other CSCs (Cariati et al., 2008; Lathia et al., 2010; Meyer et al., 2010; Vieira et al., 2012), other studies on breast CSCs have observed a decrease in $\alpha 6$ expression (Vaillant et al., 2008). Based on our findings, we suggest that this discrepancy reflects differences in the relative expression of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$. In fact, we observed a marked decrease in overall $\alpha 6$ expression in the MES population of CD44^{high}/CD24^{low} cells compared to the EPTH population (Figure 1D) but a significant increase in $\alpha 6B$. Given the heterogeneity that exists within CSC populations based on our studies and others (Azzam et al., 2013), $\alpha 6B$ expression could be used as a biomarker to define CSCs more rigorously. The translational impact of our findings could be significant. High $\alpha 6B$ expression in primary tumors could be prognostic for poor outcome and it could also be used to monitor the efficacy of therapy in patients with TPN breast cancer. Finally, therapeutic approaches that target the splicing proteins involved in the genesis of $\alpha 6B$ or the signaling pathway that sustains its expression could be effective for the treatment of

(F) Expression of VEGF, $\alpha 6A$, and $\alpha 6B$ in VEGF-high and low populations was assessed by immunoblotting. VEGF-high cells express high levels of $\alpha 6B$ and low levels of $\alpha 6A$ compared to the VEGF-low population.

(G) ESRP1 expression in the VEGF-high population increases $\alpha 6A$ mRNA expression as measured by qPCR.

(H) Effect of ESRP1 expression on the self-renewal ability of VEGF-high cells was analyzed by serial passaging of mammospheres.

(I) Effect of ESRP1 expression in VEGF-high cells on tumor onset was analyzed by transplanting transfectants (10^5 cells/mouse) in mammary fat pads of NSG mice ($n = 8$). The curve comparison was done using log rank test ($p = 0.02$).

TPN and other drug-resistant breast cancers that are enriched with CSCs (Calcagno et al., 2010).

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Reagents and Antibodies

Matrigel was purchased from BD Biosciences; Taxol and 4-hydroxytamoxifen (TAM) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. The following Abs were used: $\alpha 6$ (AA6A, provided by Anne Cress; GoH3, purchased from Millipore); $\alpha 6A$ (1A10; Millipore); $\alpha 6B$ (6B4; Millipore); N-cadherin (Invitrogen); E-cadherin (Invitrogen); tubulin (Sigma-Aldrich); HIF-1 α (Novus Biologicals); ESRP1 (Sigma-Aldrich); actin (Sigma-Aldrich); tubulin (Sigma-Aldrich); hemagglutinin (HA) (Roche); GLI1 (Cell Signaling); BMI-1 (Cell Signaling); cytokeratin 8/cytokeratin 18 (Novocastra); phycoerythrin-conjugated anti-CD44 (BD Bioscience); Alexa Fluor 647 anti-CD24 (BD Bioscience); and VEGF (Calbiochem). A NRP-blocking peptide (c-furSEMA) was provided by Dr. C. Vander Kooi (University of Kentucky), and bevacizumab was obtained as described (Goel et al., 2013).

Primary Breast Tumors

Human breast tissues were obtained in compliance with the Institutional Review Board of the University of Massachusetts Medical School. Snap-frozen tumors were homogenized to isolate either RNA or protein. For quantitative PCR (qPCR), RNA was isolated using RNeasy kit (QIAGEN) and converted to cDNA using Transcriptor First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (Roche). We performed qPCR with a SYBR Green PCR master mix using an ABI Prism 7900HT instrument (Applied Biosystems). Sequences for primers used are provided in Figure S6. Tumor extracts were also immunoblotted to detect expression of $\alpha 6B$ integrin or actin.

Cells

SUM1315 and SUM159 cells were provided by Dr. Steve Ethier (Medical College of South Carolina). MCF-10A cells were obtained from the Barbara Ann Karmanos Cancer Institute. ER-SRC-transformed MCF-10A cells were provided by Dr. Kevin Struhl (Harvard Medical School). MDA-MB-231, MDA-MB-435, MCF7, SK-BR-3, and T-47D cells were obtained from American Type Culture Collection.

Molecular Reagents

Lentiviral constructs containing shRNAs specific for $\alpha 6$ integrin (TRCN0000296162), GLI1 (TRCN0000020484), ESRP1 (TRCN0000240875), or GFP (RHS4459) were obtained from Open Biosystems. An siRNA-SMARTpool to ESRP1 (L-020672-01-0005) was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific. A lentiviral plasmid (FUGW) expressing BMI-1 was obtained from Addgene. HA-ESRP1 constructs were provided by Dr. Chonghui Cheng (Northwestern University). pRC- $\alpha 6A$ or $\alpha 6B$ plasmids were prepared as described (Shaw et al., 1993) and subcloned into the lentiviral vector pCDH. A wild-type GLI1 construct was provided by Dr. Junhao Mao (UMASS Medical School). TALENs that target the splicing site for $\alpha 6B$ were designed by the UMASS Core facility. The donor plasmid was prepared by cloning 500 bp upstream of the TALENs target site (left arm) followed by SV40 enhancer plus promoter fragment, puromycin coding sequence, and then 500 bp downstream of the TALENs target site (right arm). Upon recombination, the puromycin gene along with its promoter plus enhancer region were inserted at the $\alpha 6B$ -splicing site. The sequence of TALENs is provided in Figure S6. We used an obligate heterodimer vector to avoid hits to the tal1-tal1 or tal2-tal2 sites. The plasmid expressing GFP under VEGF-A promoter was constructed by replacing the CMV promoter from pEGFP-N1 vector with the promoter region (−2,414 to −79) of human VEGF-A in the forward direction.

Cell-Based Assays

Flow cytometry was used to analyze surface expression of the $\alpha 6$ integrin, CD44, and CD24 in breast cancer cell lines. PKH-26 staining was performed as per manufacturer's instructions (Sigma). Mammosphere and ChIP assays were performed as described (Goel et al., 2012b, 2013). ChIP experiments

were performed at least thrice, and the variation was less than 20%. The primers used to amplify the ESRP1 promoter are provided in Figure S6.

Immunoblotting and qPCR

Cells were extracted in either a Triton X-100 buffer (1% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 1 mM phenylmethanesulfonylfluoride [PMSF], and protease inhibitors) or RIPA (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM PMSF, and protease inhibitors). The proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted using Abs as specified in the figure legends. For qPCR, RNA was isolated and qPCR was performed. Sequences for primers used are provided in Figure S6. Primers for $\alpha 6B$ mRNA quantitation were custom synthesized as described (Groulx et al., 2014).

Xenograft Experiments

MDA-MB-435 or SUM1315 transfectants expressing $\alpha 6A$ or $\alpha 6B$ were mixed with Matrigel at a 10-fold dilution and injected into a mammary fat pad of immunocompromised NSG mice. Tumor onset was determined by palpation. In some experiments, cells (10^6) were injected into a mammary fat pad of NSG mice and tumor onset was determined by palpation.

Transgenic Mice

MMTV-PyV-MT mice transgenic for the PyV-MT antigen under the control of the MMTV promoter (Jackson Laboratory) were generated as described (Nagle et al., 2004). The MMTV-GLI1 transgenic mouse model was generated previously (Fiaschi et al., 2009). These mice express transgenic GLI1 in the presence of doxycycline, which was added to drinking water with 5% sucrose. RNA was isolated from the tumors collected from these mice. All animal experiments were in accordance with institutional guidelines and are approved by Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis (mean, Student's t test, correlation, and ANOVA) was performed with R version 3.0.1 (Figure S7).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures and seven figures and can be found with this article online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2014.03.059>.

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