

# TGF- $\beta$ RII knock-down promotes tumor growth and chemoresistance to gemcitabine of pancreatic cancer cells via phosphorylation of STAT3

Vincent Drubay, Nicolas Skrypek, Lucie Cordiez, Romain Vasseur, Céline Schulz, Nihad Boukrout, Bélinda Duchêne, Lucie Coppin, Isabelle Van Seuningen, Nicolas Jonckheere

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1	TGF- $\beta$ RII knock-down promotes tumor growth and chemoresistance to gemcitabine of
2	pancreatic cancer cells via phosphorylation of STAT3
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4	Vincent Drubay <sup>1, 2, 3,</sup> #, Nicolas Skrypek <sup>1, 2, 3,</sup> #, Lucie Cordiez <sup>1, 2, 3,</sup> #, Romain Vasseur <sup>1, 2, 3</sup> ,
5	Céline Schulz <sup>1, 2, 3, 4</sup> , Nihad Boukrout <sup>1, 2, 3</sup> , Bélinda Duchêne <sup>1, 2, 3</sup> , Lucie Coppin <sup>1, 2, 3</sup> , Isabelle
6	Van Seuningen <sup>1, 2, 3</sup> , Nicolas Jonckheere <sup>1, 2, 3</sup>
7	
8	1 Inserm, UMR-S1172, Jean Pierre Aubert Research Center, Team "Mucins, epithelial
9	differentiation and carcinogenesis", rue Polonovski, 59045 Lille Cedex, France
10	2 Université Lille Nord de France, 1 Place de Verdun, 59045 Lille cedex, France
11	3 Centre Hospitalier Régional et Universitaire de Lille, Place de Verdun, 59037 Lille cedex,
12	France.
13	4 UGSF - UMR 8576 CNRS
14	# Authors contributed equally to this manuscript
15	
16	Corresponding author: Nicolas Jonckheere, Inserm UMR-S1172/JPARC, rue Polonovski,
17	59045 Lille Cedex, France, Phone: +33 3 20 29 88 50, Fax: +33 3 20 53 85 62, E-Mail:
18	nicolas.jonckheere@inserm.fr

## Abstract

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Pancreatic adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is one of the most deadly cancers in the western countries because of a lack of early diagnostic markers and efficient therapeutics. At the time of diagnosis, more than 80% of patients have metastasis or locally advanced cancer and are therefore not eligible for surgical resection. Pancreatic cancer cell also harbour a high resistance to chemotherapeutic drugs such as gemcitabine that is one of the main palliative treatment for PDAC.

TGF-β possesses both tumor-suppressive and oncogenic activities in pancreatic cancer. 28 TGF-B signalling pathway plays complex role during carcinogenesis by initially inhibiting 29 epithelial growth and later promoting the progression of advanced tumors and thus emerged 30 31 as tumor suppressor pathway. TGF- $\beta$  binds to its receptor TGF- $\beta$ RII and activates different pathways: canonical pathway involving the Smad proteins and alternative pathways such as 32 MAPKs. Smad4 is mutated in 50-80% of PDAC. Mutations of TGF-βRII also occurs (5-10%). 33 In order to decipher the role of TGF-ß in carcinogenesis and chemoresistance, we decided to 34 characterize the knocking down of TGF-BRII that is the first actor of TGF-B signalling. We 35 developed pancreatic cancer cell lines stably invalidated for TGF-BRII and studied the impact 36 on biological properties of pancreatic cancer cells both in vitro and in vivo. We show that 37 TGF-BRII silencing alters tumor growth and migration as well as resistance to. TGF-BRII 38 39 silencing also leads to S727 STAT3 and S-63 c-Jun phosphorylation, decrease of MRP3 and increase of MRP4 ABC transporter expression and induction of a partial EMT phenotype. 40

In the future, the better understanding TGF-β signaling pathways and underlying cellular
mechanisms in chemoresistance to gemcitabine may bring new therapeutic tools to
clinicians.

44 Keywords: TGF-βRII receptor, STAT3, metastasis, gemcitabine, ABC transporters

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# Introduction

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Pancreatic cancers (PC) are projected to become the second leading cause of cancer-48 related death by 2030 (Rahib et al., 2014). The survival curve is extremely short (6 months) 49 and the survival rate at 5 years is very low (3%). This dramatic outcome is related to a lack of 50 therapeutic tools and early diagnostic markers which makes pancreatic cancer the most 51 deadly cancer. At the time of diagnosis, more than 80% of PC are already metastatic or 52 locally advanced and only about 10 to 15% of patients are considered eligible for surgical 53 54 resection (Vincent et al., 2011). Remaining patients that do not benefit of surgery will receive palliative chemotherapy and notably gemcitabine, a fluorinated analog of deoxycytidine that 55 is a major chemotherapeutic drug used in firstline in advanced PC. Unfortunately, PC is 56 characterized by an intrinsic and acquired chemoresistance that lead to relapse and death 57 58 (Kleeff et al., 2016). Deciphering mechanisms responsible for PC cell resistance to gemcitabine is thus crucial to improve efficacy of the drug and propose more efficient 59 60 therapies.

TGF-ß signalling pathway plays a complex role during carcinogenesis. TGF-ß initially inhibits 61 epithelial growth whereas it appears to promote the progression of advanced tumors and 62 thus emerged as tumor suppressor pathway in pancreatic cancer (Principe et al., 2014). 63 TGF- $\beta$  can act in an autocrine manner or as a paracrine factor secreted by the 64 microenvironment (Derynck et al., 2001). After binding to its receptor TGF-BRII, TGF-B 65 signals via activation of several pathways. The canonical pathway involves the Smad 66 proteins, but activation of other pathways such as MAPKs, PI3K or small GTPases (Derynck 67 et al., 2001) pathways may also mediate TGF-B effects. It is also interesting to note that 68 69 Smad4/DPC4 (deleted in pancreatic cancer 4) is mutated in 50-80% of PDAC whereas mutations of TGF-βRII are less common (5-10%) (Kleeff et al., 2016; TCGA-Network., 2017). 70 We previously showed that TGF- $\beta$  can regulate gene expression via canonical or alternative 71 signalling pathways (Jonckheere et al., 2004). 72

In order to design new therapeutic strategies, it is thus mandatory to better characterize the 73 74 signaling pathways and complex gene networks that are altered during carcinogenesis 75 progression. Therefore, to better understand the role and contribution of TGF-BRII in TGF-B signalling and biological properties of PC cells in vitro and in vivo, we developed PC cell lines 76 77 stably invalidated for TGF-βRII. Our results show that TGF-βRII silencing alters tumor growth and migration and increases resistance to gemcitabine in vitro and in vivo. TGF-BRII 78 79 silencing also leads to STAT3 and c-Jun phosphorylation, alteration of MRP3 and MRP4 80 ABC transporters expression and induction of a partial EMT phenotype.

This work underlies the importance of TGF-β signaling pathways and associated cellular
mechanisms as inducers of chemoresistance to gemcitabine and proposes potential new
therapeutic tools to clinicians, surgeons and anatomopathologists for this deadly disease.

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#### Material and methods

### 86 Cell culture

87 CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 PC cell lines were cultured as previously described (Jonckheere et al., 2004). TGF-BRII-knocked down (KD) cells were obtained following stable transfection of 88 CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cells with four different pGeneClipTM puromycin vectors encoding 89 TGF-BRII ShRNA (SA BiosciencesTM) as previously described (Jonckheere et al., 2012). 90 91 The empty vector was used to raise control clones called Non Targeting (NT). Four selected clones of NT and each TGF-BRII-KD cells were pooled in order to avoid clonal variation and 92 were designated TGF-BRIIKD6, TGF-BRIIKD7, TGF-BRIIKD8 and TGF-BRIIKD9. All cells 93 were maintained in a 37°C incubator with 5% CO2 and cultured as the parental cells. 94

95

## 96 **qRT-PCR**

Total RNA from PC cells was prepared using the NucleoSpin® RNA II kit (Macherey Nagel, 97 Hoerdt, Germany). cDNA was prepared as previously described (Van Seuningen et al., 98 99 2000). Semi-quantitative PCR was performed as previously described (Mesquita et al., 2003). gPCR was performed using SsoFastTM Evagreen Supermix kit following the 100 manufacturer's protocol using the CFX96 real time PCR system (Bio-Rad). Primer 101 102 information is given in table 1. Each marker was assayed in triplicate in three independent 103 experiments. Expression level of genes of interest was normalized to the mRNA level of 104 GAPDH housekeeping gene.

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# 106 Protein extraction and western-blotting

Total cellular extracts were performed as previously described in Van Seuningen et al. (Van
Seuningen et al., 1995) and Jonckheere et al. (Jonckheere et al., 2009). Western-blotting on
nitrocellulose membrane (0.2 μm, Whatman) was carried out as previously described
(Piessen et al., 2007). Membranes were incubated with antibodies against STAT3 (79D7,
Cell signalling), phospho S727 STAT3 (9134, signalling), c-Jun (60A8, Cell signalling),
phospho S63 c-Jun (54B3, Cell signalling) and β-actin (AC-15, sigma). Antibodies were

diluted in 5% (w/v) non-fat dry milk in Tris-Buffered Saline Tween-20 (TBS-T). Peroxydaseconjugated secondary antibodies (Sigma-Aldrich) were used and immunoreactive bands
were visualised using the West Pico chemoluminescent substrate (Thermo Scientific, Pierce,
Brebières, France). Chemo-luminescence was visualised using LAS4000 apparatus
(Fujifilm). Density of bands were integrated using Gel analyst software® (Claravision, Paris,
France) and represented as histograms. Three independent experiments were performed.

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# 120 Cell proliferation

Cells were seeded at 1x10<sup>5</sup> cells per well in 6-well plates. Cells were counted daily using a
Malassez counting chamber using Trypan Blue exclusion dye (Life Technologies) during 96h.
Experiments were performed three times in triplicate.

124

# 125 Wound healing test

126 1500 cells were seeded per wells in 96 well plates (Image LockTM plates, Essen Bioscience) 127 and cultured until confluence was reached. The wound was realized using IncuCyte wound 128 maker (Essen BioScience). Cells were washed three times with PBS 1X and complete 129 medium was added to the cells. Wound widths were analyzed using Incucyte platform (Live-130 Cell imaging System, Essen Bioscience) and pictures collected every 2h.

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## 132 Cytotoxicity assay

Cells were seeded in growth medium into 96-well plates at a density of 10<sup>4</sup> cells per well. 133 After 24h incubation, the medium was replaced by fresh medium containing gemcitabine at 134 35 nM and incubated for 72h at 37°C. The viability of cells was determined using the 3-(4,5-135 136 dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide assay (MTT, Sigma-Aldrich) as previously described (Skrypek et al., 2013). Percentage of viability = [(A<sub>treated</sub> - A<sub>blank</sub>)/(A<sub>neg</sub>. -137 A<sub>blank</sub>)] x 100; where A<sub>treated</sub> is the average of absorbance in wells containing cells treated with 138 gemcitabine, A<sub>nea</sub>, is the average of wells containing cells without gemcitabine treatment, and 139 A<sub>blank</sub> is the average of wells containing medium without cells. 140

141

## 142 Subcutaneous xenografts

NT or TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-1 (10<sup>6</sup> cells in 100 µl Matrigel) and CAPAN-2 (2x10<sup>6</sup>) cells were 143 injected subcutaneously (SC) into the flank of seven-week-old male Severe Combined 144 Immunodeficient (SCID) mice (CB17, Janvier, France). Six mice were used per group. Tumor 145 size was evaluated weekly by measuring the length (I) and the width (L) and tumor volume 146 147 was calculated with the formula ( $l^2xL$ ). Once palpable tumors were developed (250 mm<sup>3</sup>), gemcitabine (15 mg/kg) or PBS (200 µl) were injected intra-peritoneously, twice a week. All 148 procedures were in accordance with the guideline of animal care committee (Comité Ethique 149 Expérimentation Animale Nord Pas-de-Calais, #122012). 150

151

# 152 Immunohistochemistry

Xenografts were fixed in 10% (w/v) buffered formaldehyde, embedded in paraffin, cut at 4 µm 153 thickness and applied on SuperFrost® slides (Menzel-Glaser, Braunschweig, Germany). 154 155 Manual IHC was carried out as previously described (van der Sluis et al., 2004). The antibodies were used as followed: anti-STAT3 (1:200, #483 Santa Cruz), anti-c-Jun (1:200, 156 60A8 Cell signaling), anti-E-Cadherin (1:200, 3195 Cell signalling) and anti-vimentin (1:200, 157 sc5741, Santa Cruz). Intensity of staining was graded as weak (1), moderate (2) or strong 158 (3). The percentage of ductal stained cells was graded as 1 (0-25%), 2 (25-50%), 3 (50-159 160 75%) and 4 (75–100%). Total score was calculated by multiplying the intensity score and 161 percentage score.

162

# 163 Expression analysis in CCLE database

TGF-βRII, ABCB1/MDR1, ABCC1/2/3/4/5 and ABCG2 z-score expressions were extracted
from databases available at cBioPortal for Cancer Genomics (Cerami et al., 2012; Gao et al.,
2013). The queries were realized in CCLE (44 pancreatic samples, Broad Institute, Novartis
Institutes for Biomedical Research) (Barretina et al., 2012).

# 169 Statistical analyses

- 170 Statistical analyses were performed using the Graphpad Prism 6.0 software (Graphpad
- softwares Inc., La Jolla, USA). Differences in data of two samples were analysed by the
- 172 student's t test or ANOVA test with selected comparison using tukey post-hoc test and were
- 173 considered significant for P-values <0.05 \*, p<0.01 \*\* or p<0.001 \*\*\*.
- 174

175	Results
176	
177	Generation and characterization of stable TGF- $\beta$ RII-KD cellular clones
178	Expression of TGF-βRI, TGF-βRII, TGF-βRIII Smad2, Smad3, and Smad7 was confirmed by
179	RT-PCR in CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cells. Wild type Smad4, as it is mutated, is not detected
180	in CAPAN-1 (Jonckheere et al., 2004; Schutte et al., 1996). Altogether this suggests that
181	CAPAN-2 cells harbor a functional TGF- $\beta$ signaling pathway whereas the canonical Smad
182	pathway is not functional in CAPAN-1 cells. Moreover, strong TGF- $\beta$ 1 and mild TGF- $\beta$ 2
183	mRNA levels were observed in both cell lines suggesting TGF- $\beta$ growth factor autocrine
184	expression (Figure 1A).
185	We generated CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 stable cell lines in which TGE-BRII was knocked
186	down (TGE-BRII-KD) by a shRNA approach. Four different shRNA sequences were used to
187	establish four different cell lines designated as TGE-BRIIKD6_TGE-BRIIKD7_TGE-BRIIKD8
188	and TGE-BRIIKD9. Using aPCR, we confirmed that TGE-BRII mRNA levels are decreased in
100	all CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 TGE-BPILKD cells compared to NT control cells (p<0.005 ***)
109	(Eigure 1P) $M_{0}$ were not able to produce TCE (PUKDZ cell line in CAPAN 2)
190	(Figure TB). We were not able to produce TGF-pRIRD7 cell line in CAFAN-2.
191	In CAPAN-2 KD cells, the inhibition of TGF- $\beta$ RII expression was correlated with a loss of
192	activity of the Smad binding elements (SBE)-Luc synthetic promoter (Figure 1C). In CAPAN-
193	2 NT cells, TGF- $\beta$ treatment induces a 10-fold increase of SBE-Luc relative activity whereas
194	this effect was lost in TGF- $\beta$ RII-KD cells (p<0.001). As expected, in CAPAN-1 cells mutated
195	for Smad4, we did not observe any activity of SBE-Luc construct with or without TGF- $\beta$
196	treatment (not shown). Interestingly, TGF- $\beta$ RII knocking down led to decreased TGF- $\beta$ 1
197	mRNA level in CAPAN-1 TGF- $\beta$ RII-KD cells (44-87% decrease) (Figure 1D) whereas the
198	effect was less pronounced (21-25%) in TGF- $\beta$ RII-KD CAPAN-2 cell lines.
199	

# 200 Involvement of TGF-βRII in PC cell biological properties

We investigated the effect of TGF-BRII silencing on CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 proliferation 201 and migration properties. Cell migration was assessed by wound healing test. In CAPAN-2 202 203 NT cells, the wound was entirely closed at 60h. In CAPAN-2 TGF-BRII-KD cells, we observed a strong delay of wound closure that was statistically significant at 16-18h 204 (p<0.001, \*\*\*) (Figure 2A, left panel). Interestingly, we did not observe any statistically 205 significant difference in wound closure in CAPAN-1 TGF-β-RIIKD or NT cells suggesting the 206 207 involvement of a functional Smad4 signaling pathway in wound closure (Figure 2A, right panel). TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-1 or CAPAN-2 cells also showed a trend toward increased 208 proliferation at 96h compared to the respective NT control cells but that remained not 209 significant (not shown). 210

211 In order to determine the role of TGF-BRII on pancreatic carcinogenesis in vivo, CAPAN-1/-2 212 TGF-βRII-KD8 and NT SC xenograft studies were carried out. We selected the TGF-βRII-213 KD8 cell lines for in vivo studies as this cell line harboured the best KD in CAPAN-1 and 214 CAPAN-2. The results indicate that the tumour volume was significantly higher in xenografted mice with CAPAN-1 TGF-βRII-KD8 compared to CAPAN-1 NT controls. The 215 relative tumour volume was 2.26±0.1 cm<sup>3</sup> when compared to NT control tumour volume 216 (1.66±0.14 cm<sup>3</sup>) at day 21. The increase was statistically significant (\*\*, p<0.01). Similar 217 218 results were obtained with CAPAN-2 TGF-βRII-KD8 xenografts (0.423±0.05 vs 0.828±0.08 cm<sup>3</sup>) at day 42 (Figure 2B). Furthermore, we also evaluated the presence of micro-219 metastasis in the liver by detecting the presence of human GAPDH in the liver of the mouse 220 by qPCR (Figure 2C). We detected micro-metastases in 5/7 (71%) CAPAN-2 controls 221 whereas only 2/10 (20%) of CAPAN-1 TGF-BRII-KD8 xenografted mice harboured micro-222 223 metastases. Contingency analysis showed that difference was close to statistical significance (p=0.058). We did not observe any difference in CAPAN-1 TGF-βRII-KD8 (4/6) compared to 224 CAPAN-1 NT controls (4/6). No human GAPDH mRNA was detected in mice without 225 226 xenografts. Our results suggest that TGF-βRII signalling is involved in tumor growth and migration of pancreatic cancer cells both in vitro and in vivo. 227

228

## 229 Role of TGF-βRII on PC cells sensitivity to gemcitabine

We investigated the effect of TGF-BRII silencing on CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cell sensitivity 230 231 to gemcitabine. We show that the lack of TGF-BRII induces a significant increase of 232 resistance to gemcitabine treatment in both CAPAN-1 (87-152% increase of survival rate, Figure 3A) and CAPAN-2 (50-161% increase, Figure 3B) cell lines compared to NT control 233 cells. All differences were statistically significant. We then carried out SC xenograft of NT or 234 TGF-βRII-KD8 CAPAN-2 cells that were subsequently treated with gemcitabine for 46 days. 235 236 Gemcitabine treatment decreased the normalized tumor volume in CAPAN-2 NT xenografts (2.7±1.02 vs 1.4±0.11 at D83) compared to initial tumor volume (D36). On the contrary, the 237 tumor growth was exacerbated in TGF-βRII-KD xenografts following gemcitabine treatment 238 (2.9±1.7 vs 4.36±1 at D83) (Figure 3C). Altogether, our results suggest that TGF-βRII alters 239 240 sensitivity of PC cells to gemcitabine both in vitro and in vivo.

241

### 242 Identification of signalling pathways altered following TGF-βRII knocking down

Impact of TGF-BRII knocking-down on intracellular signaling was studied using phospho 243 array that detect relative site-specific phosphorylation of 43 proteins simultaneously (Figure 244 4). Intensities of each spots for TGF-βRII were measured and normalized to the CAPAN-2 245 NT proteins (Figure 4A). We observed an important increase of phosphorylation of S63 c-Jun 246 (3.3-fold) and S727STAT3 (1.5-fold) in CAPAN-2 TGF-βRII-KD8 compared to NT cells. We 247 also observed a mild decrease of phosphorylation of Y694 STAT5a (0.6-fold) and β-catenin 248 (0.5-fold) (Figure 4B). Similar experiments were conducted for CAPAN-1 TGF-βRII-KD8 and 249 NT cells. Only weak variations were observed (30%). By western blotting, we confirmed the 250 increased of phospho-S727 STAT3 (4.49-fold) (Figure 5A) and phospho-S63 (7-fold) 251 252 (supplemental figure 1A) in CAPAN-2 TGF-βRII-KD8 cells compared to CAPAN-2 NT cells.

Gemcitabine treatment also induced an increase of phospho-S727 STAT3 (1.95-fold) (Figure 253 5A) and phospho-S63 c-Jun (3.18-fold) (supplemental figure 1A) in NT cells (compared to 254 255 untreated cells). This effect was not found in in TGF-BRII-KD8 cells. We then performed immunohistochemistry for STAT3 and c-Jun in NT or TGF-BRII-KD8 CAPAN-2 SC 256 xenografts (Figure 5B and supplemental figure 1B). Nuclear and cytoplasmic IHC staining 257 were scored. We show that STAT3 nuclear H-score in TGF-BRII-KD8 tumors was 258 259 significantly higher than in NT tumors (\*, p=0.0429) (Figure 5C). We also observed that STAT3 nuclear staining was increased following gemcitabine treatment (\*, p=0.0286). A mild 260 261 increase of nuclear STAT3 was observed in TGF-BRII-KD8 tumors following gemcitabine treatment but was not statistically significant (p=0.33) (Figure 5C). No alteration of c-jun 262 expression was observed in NT and TGF-BRII-KD8 untreated xenograft tumors 263 (supplemental figure 1B). H score measurement indicates that gemcitabine treatment led to a 264 significant decrease of cJun staining in TGF-BRII-KD8 tumors (Supplemental figure 1C). 265 Altogether, our results indicate that TGF-BRII signalling implicates STAT3 and c-Jun 266 phosphorylation in pancreatic cancer cells. 267

268

# TGF-βRII silencing alters the expression of ABC transporters and EMT markers in PC cells

271 To go further and understand which molecular mechanisms could be responsible for the induced chemoresistance, we investigated the effect of TGF-BRII silencing on the expression 272 of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters that are commonly known to confer resistance to 273 274 xenobiotics including chemotherapeutic drugs. Using qPCR, we investigated the expression 275 of ABCB1/MDR1, ABCC1/MRP1, ABCC2/MRP2, ABCC3/MRP3, ABCC4/MRP4, ABCC5/MRP5 and ABCG2 in NT and TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cells. MRP1 276 was not detected. We found that MDR1 (x4.2-fold, \*\*), ABCG2 (x1.9-fold, \*\*\*) and MRP4 277 (x1.4-fold, \*) mRNA levels were significantly increased in TGF-βRII-KD CAPAN-1 cells 278

compared to NT cells (Figure 6A). MRP3 mRNA level was decreased in TGF- $\beta$ RII-KD CAPAN-1 cells (x0.42-fold, \*\*\*) and CAPAN-2 (x0.65-fold, p=0.13) (Figure 6A). TGF- $\beta$ RII and ABC transporter expression was analyzed from 44 pancreatic cancer cell lines from CCLE. We showed that TGF- $\beta$ RII mRNA relative level was correlated with expression of MRP3 (Pearson r=0.3856, p=0.0097) (Figure 6B) and inversely correlated with MRP4 (Pearson r=-0.3691, p=0.037) (Figure 6C).

285 Furthermore, TGF- $\beta$  is commonly described as an inducer of epithelial-mesenchymal 286 transition (EMT) that is associated with chemoresistance (Voulgari & Pintzas, 2009). We vimentin (mesenchymal marker) and E-cadherin (epithelial 287 performed marker) 288 immunohistochemical staining on FFPE sections of NT or TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-2 xenografts treated with gemcitabine to check their status. Surprisingly, we observed a slight increase of 289 290 vimentin in TGF-βRII-KD CAPAN-2 cells xenografts compared to NT tumors (supplemental figure 2). Moreover, we found that gemcitabine treatment induced a loss of E-cadherin 291 292 staining and a gain of vimentin staining suggesting an EMT phenotype following gemcitabine 293 treatment.

Altogether, these results suggest that TGF-βRII silencing alters MRP3 and MRP4 ABC
 transporters expression in pancreatic cancer cells and induces a partial EMT phenotype that
 could lead to chemoresistance to gemcitabine.

297

## 299 Discussion

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In the present manuscript, we characterized pancreatic cancer cell lines stably invalidated for 301 TGF-βRII and investigated the consequences on both biological properties and response to 302 303 chemotherapy in vitro and in vivo. We show an increase of tumor growth and a reduction of cell migration. We also show for the first time an increased resistance to gemcitabine that 304 could be mediated by S727 STAT3 phosphorylation and via deregulation of MRP3 and 305 MRP4 ABC transporter expression. TGF- $\beta$  signalling pathway has been described as a 306 307 double edge sword during carcinogenesis (Akhurst & Derynck, 2001); acting as a tumor suppressor in the early stages but promoting metastasis in the advanced carcinoma 308 (Principe et al., 2014). Moses's laboratory generated TGF-BRII knock out mice crossed with 309 310 Ptf1a-Cre; LSL-KrasG12D and showed that compound mice developed well differentiated 311 PDAC (ljichi et al., 2006) mostly highlighting the role as a tumor suppressor. TGFbR2 targeting by a monoclonal antibody is also effective at reducing metastasis (Ostapoff et al., 312 2014). In our cellular models, we confirmed that TGF-βRII inhibition led to an increased 313 tumor growth in vivo and TGF-BRIIKD CAPAN-2 tumors led to less metastasis in the liver. 314

315 STAT3 targeting has been proposed as a therapeutic target in pancreatic adenocarcinoma (Sahu et al., 2017). Combined treatments of gemcitabine and a JAK inhibitor (AZD1480) led 316 317 to stroma remodeling, increased density of microvessel, enhanced drug delivery and improved survival of in Ptf1a-Cre; LSL-KrasG12D; TGF-BRII<sup>KO</sup> vivo models suggesting an 318 effect of the treatment via the stroma (Nagathihalli et al., 2015). S727 phosphorylation was 319 320 previously studied in prostate carcinogenesis and was shown to promote cell survival and 321 cell invasion (Qin et al., 2008). In the present work, we also showed that TGF-BRII inhibition led to STAT3 S727 phosphorylation and increased gemcitabine resistance of the tumor cells 322 suggesting the crucial role of STAT3 in both tumor and stromal cells. STAT3 knockdown was 323 324 shown to be associated with increased response to gemcitabine in pancreatic cancer cells

325 (Venkatasubbarao et al., 2013). It is interesting to note that Erlotinib treatment that inhibits 326 epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) tyrosine kinase also inhibited phosphorylation of 327 STAT3 (Miyabayashi et al., 2013). Among the targeted therapy for PDAC, erlotinib 328 associated with gemcitabine is the only drug showing statistically significantly improved 329 survival (Moore et al., 2007).

330 TGF-β signaling is mediated through canonical SMAD and non- canonical non-SMAD pathways (Principe et al., 2014). Accordingly, we only observed increase of c-Jun and 331 332 STAT3 phosphorylation in CAPAN-2 TGF-βRIIKD cells but not in the CAPAN-1 model that is SMAD4 mutated. It was previously shown that STAT3-induced senescence requires 333 334 functional TGFBR signaling and notably a functional SMAD3/SMAD4 pathway. STAT3 promotes SMAD3 nuclear localization (Bryson et al., 2017). We hypothesize that the TGF-335 336 βRIIKD-induced gemcitabine resistance, shown in the present manuscript, is mediated by STAT3 which similarly requires SMAD3/SMAD4 dependent pathway. 337

In Smad4 mutated CAPAN-1 cells we observed an increased expression of MRP4, ABCG2 and MDR1. This increased expression could be responsible for the gemcitabine resistance of CAPAN-1 TGF- $\beta$ RIIKD cells. The link between ABC transporters and TGF- $\beta$  pathway is scarcely described. TGF- $\beta$ 1 has been shown to upregulate ABCG2 expression in MiaPACA2 pancreatic cells which is contradictory with our findings (Kali et al., 2017). In breast cancer cells, silencing of TGF- $\beta$ RII leads to overexpression of multidrug resistance protein ABCG2 and tamoxifen resistance (Busch et al., 2015).

TGF-β is usually considered as a bona fide inducer of EMT (Wendt et al., 2009). However, we were surprised to observe that TGF-βRII inhibition led to a partial EMT with an increase of vimentin. STAT3 signaling is linked to cancer cell plasticity and is able to promote EMT and CSC expansion (Junk et al., 2017). Previous work also showed that IL6, secreted by pancreatic stellate cells, triggers STAT3 activation in pancreatic cells which subsequently

- induces EMT via Nrf2 (Wu et al., 2017). Therefore, we hypothesize that the paradoxal EMT
- observed in TGF-βRII cells is a consequence of the STAT3 phosphorylation on S727.

3	5	3

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354 355

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#### 474 Figure legends

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476 Figure 1: Establishment of TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cell lines. (A) Analysis of mRNA expression of TGF-\u00b31, TGF-\u00b32, TGF-\u00b3RI, TGF-\u00b3RII, TGF-\u00b3RIII, Smad2, Smad3, 477 Smad4, Smad ATP7A, ATP7B and 28S in CAPAN-1, CAPAN-2 cells by RT-PCR. (B) 478 Analysis of mRNA relative expression of TGF-BRII in NT and TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-1 and 479 480 CAPAN-2 cell lines. Expression in NT cells was arbitrarily set to 1. (C) Smad-Binding-Elements (SBE) relative luciferase activity in untreated and TGF-<sup>β</sup> treated NT and TGF-<sup>β</sup>RII-481 KD CAPAN-2 cells. Relative luciferase activity was expressed as a ratio of SBE-Luc 482 normalized with pGL3 basic activity. (D) Analysis of mRNA relative expression of TGF-β1 in 483 NT and TGF-βRII-KD CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cell lines. 484

485

Figure 2: TGF- $\beta$ RII alters tumor growth and migration in pancreatic cancer cells. (A) 486 Wound healing closure of NT and TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cell lines using the 487 488 IncuCyte<sup>™</sup> chamber apparatus. (B) Subcutaneous xenografts of NT/TGF-βRII-KD8 CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cells in scid mice. Tumour growth (mm3) was evaluated until sacrifice. \*\*p < 489 0.01 and \*\*\*p < 0.001 indicate statistical significance of TGF- $\beta$ RII-KD1 compared with the NT 490 491 control. Ns: not significant. (C) Evaluation of the presence of micro-metastasis in the liver by 492 detecting the presence of human GAPDH in the liver of NT and TGF-BRII-KD CAPAN-1 and 493 CAPAN-2 xenografted mice by qPCR.

494

Figure 3: TGF-βRII alters sensitivity to gemcitabine in pancreatic cancer cells in vitro and in vivo. Survival rates in different TGF-βRII-KD CAPAN-1 (A) and CAPAN-2 (B) cell lines or their NT control cells were measured following treatment with gemcitabine using the MTT assay. Results are expressed as % of cell survival (/untreated cells). Three independent experiments were performed. (C) Subcutaneous xenografts of NT and TGF-βRII-KD8 CAPAN-2 cells in scid mice. Gemcitabine (15 mg/kg) or PBS (200 µl) were injected intraperitoneously, twice a week once palpable tumors were developed. Normalized tumor growth is expressed as the ratio of tumor progression relative to tumor volume on the first day of
gemcitabine treatment. Right graph represents tumor growth over time. Left graph represents
final tumor volume at day 83 (normalized as initial tumor volume at D36 equal to 1).

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Figure 4: Impact of TGF-βRII knocking-down on signaling pathways. (A) Impact of TGF βRII knocking-down on intracellular signaling was studied using phospho array that detect
 relative site-specific phosphorylation of 43 proteins. Boxes highlight spots for S63 c-Jun and
 S727 STAT3. (B) Heatmap representing the intensities of each spots (TGF-βRII vs NT) that
 were measured and normalized to the reference spots for CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cells.

511

Figure 5: TGF-BRII knockdown promotes STAT3 phosphorylation and nuclear 512 **Iocalisation in CAPAN-2 cells.** (A) STAT3, phospho-S727 STAT3 and β-actin expression 513 was analysed by western blotting. Bands intensities were quantified by densitometry and 514 ratios (KD vs NT or treated/untreated) are indicated in the graphs. Expression in NT (for 515 516 TGF-BRIIKD) or untreated (for gemcitabine/TGF-B) cells was arbitrarily set to 1. (B) IHC analysis of STAT3 on extracted xenografted NT and TGF-BRIIKD tumors. (C) Nuclear and 517 cytoplasmic IHC staining were scored in NT and TGF-BRIIKD xenografted tumors that were 518 treated with gemcitabine or PBS. \*p<0.05 indicates statistical significance of TGF-βRII-KD1 519 520 compared with the NT control.

521

Figure 6: TGF-βRII silencing alters ABC transporters expression. (A) mRNA expression of *TGF-βRII, c-Jun, STAT3, MRP1, MRP2, MRP3, MRP4, MRP5, ABCG2* and *MDR1* was analyzed in NT and TGF-βRII-KD CAPAN-1 and CAPAN-2 cells by qRT–PCR. The histogram represents the ratio of their expression in TGF-βRII-KD compared with NT cells. Three independent experiments were performed. \*p<0.05, \*\*p < 0.01 and \*\*\*p < 0.001 indicate statistical significance of TGF-βRII-KD1 compared with the NT control. TGF-βRII, MRP3 (B) and MRP4 (C) mRNA expression was extracted from pancreatic cell lines from

- 529 Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia (CCLE). Statistical analyses of MRP3/TGFbRII and
- 530 MRP3/TGF-βRII correlations were analysed Pearson's correlation coefficient.

531

# 532 Table 1 : Primers used for RT-PCR and qPCR experiments

# 534 Supplemental material

535

Supplemental Figure 1: TGF-BRII knockdown promotes c-Jun S-63 phosphorylation in 536 **CAPAN-2 cells.** (A) c-Jun, phospho-S63 c-Jun and  $\beta$ -actin expression was analysed by 537 western blotting. Bands intensities were quantified by densitometry and ratios (KD vs NT or 538 treated/untreated) are indicated in the graphs. Expression in NT (for TGF-BRIIKD) or 539 540 untreated (for gemcitabine/TGF-β) cells was arbitrarily set to 1. (B) IHC analysis of c-Jun on extracted xenografted NT and TGF-BRIIKD tumors. (C) IHC staining was scored in NT and 541 TGF-βRIIKD xenografted tumors that were treated with gemcitabine or PBS. \*p<0.05 indicate 542 statistical significance of TGF-BRII-KD compared with the NT control. 543

544

545 Supplemental Figure 2: TGF-βRII knockdown promotes partial EMT-like phenotype. 546 IHC analysis of E-cadherin and vimentin on extracted xenografted NT and TGF-βRIIKD 547 tumors. IHC staining was scored in NT and TGF-βRIIKD xenografted tumors that were 548 treated with gemcitabine or PBS. \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01 indicate statistical significance of TGF-549 βRII-KD compared with the NT control.



Figure 1



Figure 2













Gene	Orientation	Sequences of primers (5'-3')	T°m	Expected
			(°C)	size
		RT-PCR		
28S	Forward	GCAGGGCGAAGCAGAAGGAAACT	59	231
	Reverse	TGAGATCGTTTCGGCCCCAA		
TGF-β1	Forward	GAGGTGACCTGGCCACCATTCAT	60	194
	Reverse	CCAGCCGAGGTCCTTGCGGA		
TGF-β2	Forward	GCTTTTCTGATCCTGCATCTG	56	823
	Reverse	CAATACCTGCAAATCTTGCTTC		
TGF-βRI	Forward	CTCTCCTTTTTTTTCTTCAGATCTGC	55	328
	Reverse	AATCCAACTCCTTTGCCCTT		
TGF-βRII	Forward	GCCAACAACATCAACCACAACACA	61	1003
	Reverse	TAGTGTTTAGGGAGCCGTCTTCAG		
TGF-βRIII	Forward	TGCCTTACTTCTCTTGCCTTAA	56	100
	Reverse	GCAAAGTGGCATCATATTATT		
Smad2	Forward	GTCCATCTTGCCATTCACG	55	192
	Reverse	TGGTGATGGCTTTCTCAAGC		
Smad3	Forward	GGGCTCCCTCATGTCATCTA	60	443
	Reverse	GGCTCGCAGTAGGTAACTGG		
Smad4	Forward	CTCCTGAGTATTGGTGTTCC	56	796
	Reverse	CTAAAGGTTGTGGGTCTGC		
Smad7	Forward	GGCTCGCAGTAGGTAACTGG	55	448
	Reverse	TTGTTGTCCGAATTGAGCTG		
		qPCR		
TGF-β1	Forward	CACTCTCAAACCTTTACGAGACC	58	131
	Reverse	CGTTGCTAGGGGCGAAGATG		
TGF-βRII	Forward	AGGAGTATGCCTCTTGGAAGAC	58	123
	Reverse	AGCCAGTATTGTTTCCCCAAC		
Human	Forward	CCACATCGCTCAGACACCAT	58	70
GADPH	Reverse	CCAGGCGCCCAATACG		
Mouse	Forward	AGGTCGGTGTGAACGGATTTG	58	129
GADPH	Reverse	TGTAGACCATGTAGTTGAGGTCA		

# Table 1 : Primers used for RT-PCR and qPCR experiments