m6A demethylase ALKBH5 inhibits pancreatic cancer tumorigenesis by decreasing WIF-1 RNA methylation and mediating Wnt signaling

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Abstract

Background: Pancreatic cancer is one of the most lethal types of cancer with extremely poor diagnosis and prognosis, and chemo-resistance remains a major challenge. The dynamic and reversible N6-methyladenosine (m6A) RNA modification has emerged as a new layer of epigenetic gene regulation.

Methods: qRT-PCR and IHC were applied to examine ALKBH5 levels in normal and pancreatic cancer tissues. Cancer cell proliferation and chemo-resistance were evaluated by clonogenic formation, chemosensitivity detection, and Western blotting assays. m6A-seq was performed to identify target genes. We evaluated the inhibitory effect of ALKBH5 in both in vivo and in vitro models.

Results: Here, we show that m6A demethylase ALKBH5 is downregulated in gemcitabine-treated patient-derived xenograft (PDX) model and its overexpression sensitized pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) cells to chemotherapy. Decreased ALKBH5 levels predicts poor clinical outcome in PDAC and multiple other cancers. Furthermore, silencing ALKBH5 remarkably increases PDAC cell proliferation, migration, and invasion both in vitro and in vivo, whereas its overexpression causes the opposite effects. Global m6A profile revealed altered expression of certain ALKBH5 target genes, including Wnt inhibitory factor 1 (WIF-1), which is correlated with WIF-1 transactivation and mediation of the Wnt pathway.

Conclusions: Our work uncovers the tumor suppressive and chemo-sensitizing function for ALKBH5, which provides insight into critical roles of m6A methylation in PDAC.

Keywords: Pancreatic cancer, m6A methylation, Chemo-resistance, ALKBH5, WIF-1, Wnt

Background

Pancreatic cancer is one of the few malignancies with the mortality approaching the incidence, ranking the six and seventh leading cause of cancer death in China and worldwide, respectively [1–3]. It caused an estimation of 458,918 new cases and an associated 432,242 deaths globally in 2018 [4]. Despite improvements in surgical techniques and medical therapy, pancreatic cancer still has extremely poor diagnosis and prognosis, with a median survival of 5 to 8 months (less than 10% survival rate) [5, 6]. As the etiology for this highly lethal disease has yet to be well characterized, it is urgent to explore genetic or epigenetic factors that contribute to the initiation and development of this cancer so as to identify novel therapeutic targets or biomarkers.

N6-Methyladenosine (m6A), the most abundant post-transcriptional methylation of mRNA in eukaryotes, occurs in approximately 25% of transcripts at the genome-wide level [7]. m6A-dependent mRNA modification regulates RNA splicing, translocation, stability, and translation into protein, which is vital in mammals and affects various biological processes including self-renewal and differentiation, tissue development, DNA damage response,
primary microRNA processing, and RNA–protein interactions [7, 8]. This modification is reversible and relies on the RNA methyltransferases (writers), the demethylases (erasers), and m^6^-A-binding proteins (readers), which are frequently upregulated in a variety of human cancers and might play a crucial role in the process of carcinogenesis [7–10].

As a demethylase, alkylation repair homolog protein 5 (ALKBH5) is implicated in mediating methylation reversal. Overexpression of ALKBH5 has been reported in multiple cancers, such as breast cancer, glioblastoma, ovarian cancer, and gastric cancer [9, 11–13]. As regards to pancreatic cancer, ALKBH5 expression was reported to be positively associated with overall survival in the TCGA and ICGC cohorts [14]. However, ALKBH5 was also found to be downregulated in pancreatic cancer tissues and inhibit pancreatic cancer motility by demethylating long non-coding RNA KCNK15-AS1 [15]. Accordingly, the exact role of ALKBH5 in tumorigenesis of pancreatic cancer deserves further investigation.

Aberrant mutational activation of the Wnt signaling pathway is pivotal during development and progression of pancreatic cancers, especially its most common type, pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC). Direct or indirect epigenetic alterations of the Wnt signaling pathway lead to increased cell proliferation and resistance of the tumor cells to chemotherapy, implying its potential value as a therapeutic target in pancreatic cancers [16–18].

In this study, we assessed m^6^-A’s clinicopathological relevance to PDAC and explored the underlying mechanisms. The m^6^-A eraser ALKBH5 was found to be downregulated in gemcitabine-treated patient-derived xenograft (PDX) model and its overexpression sensitized PDAC cells to chemotherapy. Additionally, ALKBH5 deficiency boosts PDAC cell proliferation, migration, and invasion both in vitro and in vivo, which is dependent on m^6^-A modification of Wnt inhibitory factor 1 (WIF-1) and activation of Wnt signaling.

**Materials and methods**

**Chemicals and antibodies**

Lipofectamine 2000 transfection and TRIZOL LS reagents were bought from Invitrogen (Grand Island, NY, USA). The DAB substrate kit has been purchased from Vector Laboratories, Inc. (Burlingame, CA, USA). Abcam (Cambridge, MA, USA) provided antibodies towards ALKBH5, FTO, WTAP, VIRMA, RBM15, C-myc, Cyclin D1, MMP-2, MMP-9, E-cadherin, Fibronectin, Vimentin. METTL3, METTL14, WIF-1, and β-actin antibodies were got from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA). Anti-α-catenin antibody was made by BD (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Unless in any other case noted, all other used chemicals were from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA).

**Cell culture**

Human PDAC cell lines AsPC-1, PANC-1, BXPC-3, HPDE6-C7, Capan-1, CFPAC-1, Capan-2, and MIA Paca-2 were purchased from the ATCC (American Type Culture Collection). Cells were cultured in DMEM (Gibco, Grand Island, New York, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco), 1% penicillin and 1% streptomycin, and incubated in an incubator with 5% CO₂ at 37°C.

**m^6^-A-seq**

m^6^-A-IP and library preparation were performed according to the reported protocol (Dominissini et al., 2012). Briefly, poly-A-purified RNA was fragmented and incubated with m^6^-A primary antibody for 2 h at 4°C. The mixture was then immunoprecipitated by incubation with Protein A beads (Thermo Fisher) for 2 h at 4°C. Captured RNA was washed for 3 times, eluted with m^6^-A nucleotide solution and purified by RNAClean and Concentrator kit (Zymo). Sequencing was carried out on Illumina HiSeq 2000 according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

**MeRIP-qPCR**

Intact poly-A-purified RNA was denatured to 70°C for 10 min, transferred immediately on ice and then incubated with m 6 A antibody in 1 ml buffer containing RNasin Plus RNase inhibitor 400 U (Promega), 50 mM Tris-HCl, 750 mM NaCl and 0.5% (vol/vol) Igepal CA-630 (Sigma Aldrich) for 2 h at 4 °C. Dynabeads Protein G (Invitrogen) were washed, added to the mixture and incubated for 2 h at 4 °C with rotation. m^6^-A DNA was eluted twice with 6.7 mM N 6 -methyladenosine 5’-monophosphate sodium salt at 4 °C for 1 h and precipitated with 5 mg glycogen, one-tenth volumes of 3 M sodium acetate in 2.5 volumes of 100% ethanol at – 80°C overnight. m^6^-A enrichment was determined by qPCR analysis. Fragmented mRNA was directly incubated with m^6^-A antibody containing buffer and treated similarly. The primer sequences used for qRT-PCR and MeRIP-PCR are in the Additional file 13: Table S2.

**Immunohistochemistry**

The tissues were fixed in 4% (wt/vol) paraformaldehyde in PBS overnight at 4°C and embedded in paraffin wax, Paraffin-embedded tissues cut into 1 μm sections, after deparaffinization and rehydration, 0.01 M citrate (pH 6.0) was used for heat-induced antigen recovery. Endogenous peroxidase was blocked with 3% hydrogen peroxide for 15 min at RT in the dark. Unspecific binding was blocked with 5% serum for 1 h at room temperature. Slides were incubated overnight at 4°C in primary antibodies diluted with blocking solution. Slides were incubated at room temperature for 1 h with
secondary antibodies added with avidin-biotin peroxidase complex, including biotinylated anti-rabbit antibodies in goats and anti-mouse antibodies in goats. Stained with DAB reagent and counterstained with hematoxylin. Finally, observation and statistical analysis were performed. Fluorescent images were captured and analyzed using Nikon Eclipse 90i microscope.

**Statistical analysis**
The experiments were conducted in triplicates, and the data are presented as mean ± SD. Comparisons between groups were performed by Student’s two-tailed t test. The overall survival rate curves of PDAC patients based on Kaplan-Meier method were plotted using the log-rank test. P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

The detailed methodology can be found in the Supporting Materials and Methods.

**Results**

**ALKBH5 expression is downregulated in gemcitabine-treated PDX pancreatic cancer**

Gemcitabine resistance usually develops within weeks of treatment initiations, which limits its overall efficacy as the first line chemotherapy in PDAC [19]. To figure out the related proteins, a gemcitabine-treated PDX model was established (Fig. 1a). Surgically resected primary pancreatic cancer tissue was finely trimmed and directly transplanted into CB17-SCID mice, which were randomized and treated with either saline (vehicle) or gemcitabine every generation. RNA-seq was performed as a first step toward uncovering the underlying mechanism of gemcitabine resistance. ALKBH5 stood out among the most significantly differentially expressed genes between P3-PDX treated with control or gemcitabine (Additional file 1: Figure S1). Consistently, decreased ALKBH5 and increased METTL3 protein levels were detected in gemcitabine-treated PDXs (Fig. 1b, c), and immunofluorescence assay showed the similar result (Fig. 1d). Additionally, we found frequent deletion and downregulated expression of ALKBH5 in 2 Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) datasets (GSE16515 and 106,901) of PDACs compared to their matched normal tissues (NT), which was also validated by qRT-PCR analysis of matched tumor and adjacent tissues (Additional file 2: Figure S2a and Fig. 1e-g). Moreover, low levels of ALKBH5 predicted poor clinical outcome in PDAC and multiple other cancers including Phenochromocytoma and Paraganglioma, Stomach adenocarcinoma, and Uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma (Fig. 1h and Additional file 2: Figure S2b-d). However, such correlation was not observed in breast cancer and head-neck squamous cell carcinoma (Additional file 2: Figure S2e, f). In bladder cancer, low levels of ALKBH5 was even associated with better patients’ survival (Additional file 2: Figure S2g), suggesting the role of ALKBH5 might be context-dependent. In terms of PDAC, ALKBH5 expression was remarkably downregulated in cancer tissues compared with adjacent normal tissues as determined by immunohistochemistry assay, which was also correlated with certain clinicopathological features like TNM staging, tumor size, lymph node metastasis, and distant metastasis (Additional file 2: Figure S2h and Additional file 12: Table S1). Overall, the results derived from human datasets and PDX models strongly implied that ALKBH5 might act as a tumor suppressor in PDAC and be implicated with the chemoresistance to gemcitabine.

**Overexpression of ALKBH5 results in sensitization of cancer cells to chemotherapy**

To examine this hypothesis, PDAC cell lines BXPC-3, Mia Paca-2, AsPC-1 and PANC-1 were transfected with lentiviral vectors encoding human ALKBH5 inserts or shRNAs according to the endogenous expression of ALKBH5. The transfection efficiency was confirmed by immunoblotting and qRT-PCR (Fig. 3a, Fig. 4 a and Additional file 3: Figure S3). Subsequently, cell viability and colony formation assays were performed on these cells under treatment of different doses of gemcitabine to detect the impact of ALKBH5 on chemoresistance. As expected, ALKBH5 overexpression sensitized BXPC-3 and Mia Paca-2 cells to gemcitabine treatment, while knockdown of ALKBH5 prompted resistance in AsPC-1 and PANC-1 cells (Fig. 2 a-f and Additional file 4: Figure S4). To further explore the effect of ALKBH5 on chemoresistance in a physiologic tumor context, we developed a xenograft model, employing gemcitabine-treated AsPC-1 cells expressing control or shRNAs targeting ALKBH5. Notably, xenografts injected with gemcitabine-treated AsPC-1 cells bearing ALKBH5 shRNA exhibited significant lower survival rate compare to controls (Fig. 2g). Consistent with these findings, PDAC patients with high ALKBH5 expression showed better overall survival to gemcitabine treatment (Additional file 5: Figure S5). In addition, ALKBH5 deficiency rendered remarkable resistance to gemcitabine treatment in the xenograft mice as measured by increased tumor growth rate, size and Ki67 positive cells compared to control mice (Fig. 2h-k). Taken as a whole, these results illustrate that ALKBH5 overexpression contributes to sensitization of PDAC cells to gemcitabine treatment.

**Knockdown of ALKBH5 significantly increased PDAC cell proliferation, colony formation, and migration**

To explore the function of ALKBH5 in tumorigenesis, we first investigated its impact on cell proliferation and colony formation. Obviously, AsPC-1 and PANC-1 cells devoid of ALKBH5 manifested strikingly elevated
proliferation rate and increased colonies (Fig. 3a-d), suggesting its suppressive effect on cell proliferation and colony formation. Furthermore, ALKBH5 knockdown greatly promoted cell migratory and invasive abilities (Fig. 3e). Since epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) is known to be associated with migration and invasion, we next examined EMT markers in AsPC-1 and PANC-1 cells with or without ALKBH5 depletion (Additional file 6: Figure S6). The epithelial markers (E-cadherin and α-catenin) were decreased and the mesenchymal markers (N-cadherin, Fibronectin, and Vimentin) were increased in ALKBH5-deficient cells. These data indicate that ALKBH5
inhibition also stimulates EMT in PDAC. Similar results were observed in the xenograft mice model. The mice injected with AsPC-1 cells expressing the indicated vectors, whereas depletion of ALKBH5 substantially increased tumor growth and Ki67 positive cells (Fig. 3f-h). Furthermore, ALKBH5 deficiency apparently increased the size of liver tumor and number of mice with liver metastasis (2 of 5, shCtr, 5 of 5, shALKBH5) (Fig. 3i-k). Based on the above findings, we hypothesized that ALKBH5 probably not only gave rise to gemcitabine sensitization but also inhibited PDAC tumorigenesis and metastasis.

Overexpression of ALKBH5 inhibited PDAC cells proliferation, colony formation, cell migration and tumor growth in a nude mice model

To further test this notion, BXPC-3 and MIA Paca-2 cells with excessive expression of ALKBH5 were subjected to the same phenotypic assays as mentioned above, including cell proliferation, colony formation, EMT markers, migration and invasion assessment (Fig. 4a-d and Additional file 7: Figure S7). Not surprisingly, ALKBH5 overexpression reduced the oncogenic behaviors of PDAC cells in proliferation, colony formation, EMT, migration,
and invasion. Consistent with in vitro observations, xenografts injected with BXPC-3 cells bearing ALKBH5 vectors displayed diminished tumor growth and liver metastasis compared to control models (Fig. 4e-h). Hence, ALKBH5 impairs not only proliferation, but also EMT, migration, and invasion of PDAC cells, consequently suppressing in vivo tumor growth and metastasis.

### WIF-1 as a downstream target of ALKBH5-mediated m6A modification

To identify transcripts regulated by m6A modification mediated by ALKBH5, we profiled m6A distribution at the transcriptome level in BXPC-3 and MIA Paca-2 cells bearing control or ALKBH5 vectors as well as AsPC-1 and PANC-1 cells transfected with control or shRNAs...
targeting ALKBH5 by RNA immunoprecipitation followed sequencing using an anti-m\(^6\)A antibody (Fig. 5a and Additional file 8: Figure S8). We next analyzed the genes that were differentially modified by m\(^6\)A between control and ALKBH5-overexpressing or -deficient cells. The top gene whose m\(^6\)A modification was decreased in ALKBH5-overexpressing cells was Wnt inhibitory factor 1 (WIF-1) (Fig. 5a). m\(^6\)A levels at the 3′ UTR region of the WIF-1 mRNA was significantly lower in cells with ectopic expression of ALKBH5 than control cells (Fig. 5b). The decrease in m\(^6\)A modified WIF-1 mRNA elicited by ALKBH5 overexpression was confirmed by anti-m\(^6\)A immunoprecipitation followed qRT-PCR analysis of the m\(^6\)A immunoprecipitated RNAs. By contrast, ALKBH5 deficiency increased m\(^6\)A modification at the 3′ UTR region of the WIF-1 mRNA (Fig. 6b). As a result, mRNA expression of WIF-1 was downregulated in ALKBH5-deficient cells, and upregulated in ALKBH5-overexpressing cells (Fig. 5c, d, and a). Meanwhile, down-regulated mRNA expression of WIF-1 was completely rescued by 3-deazadenosine (DAA, 3.9 \(\mu\)M), an inhibitor of methylation, suggesting the regulatory effect of ALKBH5 on WIF-1.
expression is dependent on m^6^A modification (Fig. 6d). Consistently, luciferase reporter assays in transformed BXPC-3 and MIA Paca-2 cells showed that forced expression of ALKBH5 transcriptionally activated the promoter of WIF-1, which was not observed in BXPC-3 and MIA Paca-2 cell with the WIF-1 mutation (Fig. 6c and Additional file 9: Figure S9). Concurrently, Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed the enriched signature related to ALKBH5-dependent transcription in PDAC, namely, Wnt signaling pathway (Fig. 5e, f). These data together provide compelling evidence that ALKBH5 suppresses m^6^A modification at the 3′ UTR region of the WIF-1 mRNA to promote its transcription, which probably interferes with the Wnt signaling.

**ALKBH5 suppresses C-MYC, Cyclin D1, MMP-2, and MMP-9 expression by inhibiting Wnt signaling**

To address this possibility, we first examined the expression of C-MYC, Cyclin D1, MMP-2, and MMP-9 in the presence and absence of ALKBH5, which are direct target genes of the Wnt signaling pathway. Apparently, knockdown of ALKBH5 increased the expression of these genes in AsPC-1 and PANC-1 cells, whereas ALKBH5 overexpression reduced the expression in
BXPC-3 and MIA Paca-2 cells (Fig. 7a-c, and Additional file 10: Figure S10a). In line with these findings, diminished promoter activations of C-MYC, Cyclin D1, MMP-2, and MMP-9 were observed in ALKBH5-overexpressing BXPC-3 and MIA Paca-2 cells (Fig. 7d, and Additional file 10: Figure S10b-d). As a Wnt signaling activator, lithium chloride (LiCl) effectively triggered activation of C-MYC, Cyclin D1, MMP-2 and MMP-9 promoters. This effect, however, was totally abolished by excessive expression of ALKBH5, indicating that ALKBH5 suppresses the expression of C-MYC, Cyclin D1, MMP-2 and MMP-9 at the transcriptional levels. To figure out the mechanisms by which ALKBH5 inhibits Wnt signaling, we next assessed the expression and promoter activity of β-catenin in ALKBH5-overexpressing or -deficient cells (Fig. 7e-g). Unlike the negative relationship between ALKBH5 and Wnt target genes or positive correlation between ALKBH5 and WIF-1 at transcriptional level (Additional file 11: Figure S11), ALKBH5 didn’t have any impact on β-catenin promoter activity or mRNA expression. On the other hand, ALKBH5 deficiency substantially enhanced β-catenin
Fig. 7 ALKBH5 suppresses C-MYC, Cyclin D1, MMP-2, and MMP-9 expression by inhibiting Wnt signaling. **a-c** qRT-PCR to measure C-MYC, cyclin D1, MMP-2, and MMP-9 mRNA levels in transformed AsPC-1, PANC-1, and BxPC-3 cells described above. **d** Luciferase reporter assays in BxPC-3 and MIA Paca-2 cells showing the impact of ALKBH5 overexpression on the promoter activities of C-MYC in the absence or presence of LiCl, a Wnt signaling activator. **e, f** qRT-PCR to measure β-catenin mRNA levels in transformed BxPC-3, MIA Paca-2, AsPC-1, and PANC-1 cells described above. **g** Luciferase reporter assays showing the impact of ALKBH5 overexpression or knockdown on the promoter activities of β-catenin in BxPC-3, MIA Paca-2, AsPC-1, and PANC-1 cells. **h** Immunoblotting to measure WIF-1, β-catenin, C-myc, cyclin D1, MMP-2, and MMP-9 protein levels in transformed AsPC-1 and BxPC-3 cells described above. **i** Representative images of IHC staining for ALKBH5, WIF-1, and β-catenin in tumor sections from human PDAC specimens. **j** ALKBH5 protein levels were positively correlated with WIF-1 protein levels in human PDAC specimens. **k** ALKBH5 protein levels were negatively correlated with β-catenin protein levels in human PDAC specimens. Scale bar = 200 μm (i). The data are shown as the means ± S.D. **P < 0.01; ## < 0.01.
protein levels as well as the target proteins of the Wnt signaling pathway, whereas overexpression of ALKBH5 led to the opposite effect (Fig. 7h). Meanwhile, both immunoblotting and IHC experiments illustrated a positive relationship between ALKBH5 and WIF-1 as well as a negative relationship between ALKBH5 and β-catenin at the protein level (Fig. 7i-k). Collectively, these observations indicate that ALKBH5 inhibits Wnt signaling and its downstream targets via upregulating WIF-1 rather than directly mediating β-catenin expression.

**WIF-1 is critical to ALKBH5 suppressed Wnt signaling**

To ascertain whether WIF-1 is a major contributor to the function of ALKBH5 in PDAC tumorigenesis, we first asked whether depletion of WIF-1 could reverse the effects of ALKBH5 overexpression. Stable BXPC-3 cells expressing ALKBH5 vectors and/or shRNAs targeting WIF-1 were thus established (Fig. 8a). As anticipated, downregulation of WIF-1 expression robustly rescued the proliferation reduced by ALKBH5 overexpression (Fig. 8b). Additionally, coincident observations were achieved by colony formation assay that WIF-1 loss almost completely recovered the clonogenic abilities of BxPC-3 cells hampered by ALKBH5 overexpression (Fig. 8c). Likewise, both migration and invasion assay also showed that WIF-1 deficiency largely abrogated the inhibitory effects of ALKBH5 overexpression on these malignant behaviors in PDAC (Fig. 8d, e). Furthermore, WIF-1 loss recovered the protein levels of β-catenin as well as its downstream targets decreased by ALKBH5 overexpression (Fig. 8f). Conversely, forced expression of WIF-1 almost completely abolished the oncogenic phenotypes and Wnt signaling activation induced by ALKBH5 deficiency in AsPC-1 cells (Fig. 8g-i). In vivo evidence from mouse xenografts injected with the double-transfected AsPC-1 cells revealed that ectopic expression of WIF-1 counteracted the effects of ALKBH5 decline on tumor volumes and growth rate as measured by bioluminescence imaging and Ki67 positive cells, respectively (Fig. 8m-o). These data, together with the in vitro findings, suggest that upregulation of WIF-1 by ALKBH5 mediated m6A modification is vital for repressing the tumor progression and metastatic potential in PDAC.

**Discussion**

Although a previous study showed that ALKBH5 suppressed pancreatic cancer motility via demethylating long non-coding RNA [15], the molecular mechanisms of ALKBH5 in PDAC progression remain largely unclear. In this study, we showed that ALKBH5 serves as a tumor suppressor in PDAC progression as follows (Fig 9). 1) ALKBH5 is downregulated in gemcitabine-treated PDX model and its overexpression sensitized PDAC cells to chemotherapy. 2) Overexpression of ALKBH5 attenuates PDAC cell proliferation, migration, invasion, tumorigenesis, and metastasis. 3) ALKBH5 inhibits Wnt signaling by decreasing WIF-1 methylation and upregulating its transactivation.

As the most abundant mRNA modification in mammals, m6A influences almost every step of RNA metabolism, contributing to a variety of biological processes involved in cancer, such as the self-renewal of cancer stem cell, cell proliferation, and resistance to radiotherapy or chemotherapy. m6A modification was reported to be involved in the DNA damage response following ultraviolet irradiation, which is regulated by the methyltransferase METTL3 (methyltransferase-like 3) and the demethylase FTO (fat mass and obesity-associated protein), suggesting m6A might be a promising target for combined therapy with radiotherapy or chemotherapy [20]. Moreover, other groups have implicated FTO and METTL3 in the chemo- and radio-resistance in human cervical squamous cell carcinoma (CSCC) and human pancreatic cancer cells, respectively [21, 22]. Similarly, the results presented here demonstrate decreased ALKBH5 and increased METTL3 protein levels in gemcitabine-treated PDXs, and that ALKBH5 deficiency renders notable resistance to gemcitabine treatment both in vitro and in vivo. In addition, our studies have implied a critical role for ALKBH5 in predicting prognosis of gemcitabine treatment. Unlike the readers and writers, only two m6A demethylases have been identified so far, namely, FTO and ALKBH5, both of which are Fe (ii) and α-ketoglutarate dependent [23]. Recently, downregulation of m6A erasers FTO and ALKBH5 has been found to facilitate PARPi resistance by increasing m6A modification in FZD10 mRNA to promote Wnt signaling in BRCA1/2-mutated ovarian cancer cells [24]. This finding further validated the importance of m6A in treatments associated with DNA damage responses, including radio-, chemo-therapy and therapies targeting mutations related to DNA damage repair. Since crystal structure of FTO and ALKBH5 was determined, subsequent drug development and validation might be expected [25, 26].

The Wnt/β-catenin pathway is a highly conserved pathway, and its aberrant activation contributes to progression of pancreatic cancers via increased cell proliferation and chemo-resistance of the tumor cells. PDAC patients often have several mutations of the Wnt ligands, and epigenetic silencing of extracellular Wnt inhibitors, such as WIF-1 and DICKKOPFs (DKks) may prompt the stabilization and accumulation of β-catenin in cancers despite mutational activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling [27–29]. Accumulating evidence has showed the epigenetic regulation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling in cancer, though, the impact of mRNA modification is still insufficiently studied. Until very recently, global analysis of m6A functions in 75 MeRIP-seq human samples using
Fig. 8 WIF-1 is critical to ALKBH5 suppressed Wnt signaling. a Immunoblotting of lysates from BxPC-3 cells transfected with control, ALKBH5, shCtrl, and/or shWIF-1. Expression of ALKBH5 and WIF-1 were measured. β-actin was used as a loading control. b MTT, c Colony formation, d Migration, e Invasion, and f Immunoblotting of WIF-1 downstream targets in cells described in (a). g Immunoblotting of lysates from AsPC-1 cells transfected with shCtrl, shALKBH5, control, and/or WIF-1 vector. Expression of ALKBH5 and WIF-1 were measured. β-actin was used as a loading control. h MTT, i Colony formation, j Migration (k) Invasion, and l Immunoblotting of WIF-1 downstream targets in cells described in (g). m Representative ventral view images and its quantification (n) of bioluminescence from xenograft mice implanted with AsPC-1 cells described in (g). o Quantification of IHC staining for Ki67 in tumor sections from xenograft mice described above. Scale bars = 50 μm (d, e, j and k). The data are shown as the means ± S.D. **P < 0.01; ## <0.01

Tang et al. Molecular Cancer (2020) 19:3
deep learning and network-based methods identified 709 functionally significant m^6^A-regulated genes, which were enriched in many critical biological processes including cancer-related pathways such as Wnt pathway [30]. YTH N^6^-methyladenosine RNA binding protein 1 (YTHDF1) regulates tumorigenicity and cancer stem cell-like activity in human colorectal carcinoma by mediating Wnt/β-catenin pathway [31]. Reduction of RNA m^6^A methylation activates oncogenic Wnt/PI3K-Akt signaling to promote malignant phenotypes of GC cells [32]. METTL3 promotes osteosarcoma cell progression by upregulating the m^6^A level of LEF1 and activating Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway [33]. Here, we clarified a novel mechanism of m^6^A modification that ALKBH5 inhibits Wnt signaling by downregulating m^6^A level of WIF-1, which attenuates PDAC cell proliferation, migration, invasion, tumorigenesis, and metastasis in vitro and in vivo. Our work demonstrates the downregulation of ALKBH5 in PDAC and attests its contribution to retention of malignant phenotypes in PDAC by gain of function and phenotypic rescue assays separately. We then screened and verified WIF-1 and Wnt signaling as the key target of ALKBH5-mediated m^6^A modification, and indicated that WIF-1 is critical to the tumor suppressive effect of ALKBH5 in PDAC. This may give rise to at least one piece of the jigsaw puzzle regarding to ALKBH5-mediated m^6^A modification in solid tumor, and open up new horizons for development of new treatment.

Although we provide robust evidence of ALKBH5’s effect on resistance to gemcitabine treatment, the underlying mechanism is not fully characterized. Previously, FTO was reported to enhance the chemoradiotherapy resistance by reducing m^6^A levels of β-catenin mRNA transcripts to regulate its expression [21]. YTHDF1 mediates Wnt/β-catenin pathway to regulate cancer stem cell-like activity [31], which is also a known factor affecting gemcitabine efficacy [34, 35]. Given the importance of Wnt signaling in regulating cancer stemness and chemo-resistance, ALKBH5’s function in resistance to gemcitabine might also rely on m^6^A modification of WIF-1 and subsequent repression of Wnt signaling, which deserves further investigation.
Conclusions
In conclusion, we show that ALKBH5 overexpression sensitizes PDAC cells to gemcitabine treatment, and it represses PDAC tumorigenesis by reducing m<sup>6</sup>A levels of WIF-1 and hindering activation of Wnt signaling. These findings shed light on novel molecular mechanisms of PDAC tumorigenesis regulated by m<sup>6</sup>A modification and provide new insight into developing effective therapeutic strategies in the treatment of PDAC.

Supplementary information
Supplementary information accompanies this paper at https://doi.org/10.1186/s12943-019-1128-6.

Additional file 1: Figure S1. (A) Heatmap summarizing genes differentially expressed in gemcitabine treated compared to control PDX mice of the 3rd passage. (B) Volcano plot displaying differentially expressed genes. Up-regulated genes are highlighted in pink. Down-regulated genes are highlighted in black.

Additional file 2: Figure S2. (A) TCGA database available from GISTIC for ALKBH5 expression multiple human cancers. (B-G) Kaplan-Meier analysis indicating overall survival of patients with high (red) or low (n = 83) ALKBH5 expression in multiple human cancers. (H) ALKBH5 expression was determined by immunohistochemistry assay.

Additional file 3: Figure S3. Immunoblotting (A) and qRT-PCR (B) to measure ALKBH5 expression in 8 PDAC cell lines.

Additional file 4: Figure S4. (A) Quantification of Fig.2a. (B-E) Colony formation of transformed cells described above with gemcitabine treatment.

Additional file 5: Figure S5. Kaplan-Meier analysis indicating overall survival of PDAC patients with high (A) or low (B) ALKBH5 expression in the absence (red) or presence (blue) of gemcitabine treatment.

Additional file 6: Figure S6. Immunoblotting (A) and qRT-PCR (B) to measure expression of EMT markers including E-cadherin, α-catenin, N-cadherin, Fibronectin, and Vimentin in transformed AsPC-1 and PANC-1 cells.

Additional file 7: Figure S7. Immunoblotting (A) and qRT-PCR (B) to measure expression of EMT markers including E-cadherin, α-catenin, N-cadherin, Fibronectin, and Vimentin in transformed BxPC-3, and MIA Paca-2 cells.

Additional file 8: Figure S8. Heatmap summarizing genes differentially expressed in AsPC-1-shCtrl and AsPC-1-shALKBH5 cells (A), PANC-1-shCtrl and PANC-1-shALKBH5 cells (B), MIA Paca-2-Vector and MIA Paca-2-ALKBH5 cells (C).

Additional file 9: Figure S9. Luciferase reporter assays showing the impact of ALKBH5 overexpression on WIF-1 promoters in MIA Paca-2 cells.

Additional file 10: Figure S10. (A) qRT-PCR to measure C-MYC, cyclin D1, MMP-2, and MMP-9 mRNA levels in transformed MIA Paca-2 cells described above.

Additional file 11: Figure S11. Correlation between ALKBH5 and WIF-1(A), β-catenin (B), C-MYC (C), cyclin D1 (D), MMP-2 (E), and MMP-9 (E) at mRNA level.

Additional file 12: Table S1 Correlations between ALKBH5 expression and clinicopathologic features in PDCA patients.

Additional file 13: Table S2 Primer sequences used for qRT-PCR and MeRIP-PCR.

Abbreviations
ALKBH5: Alkylation repair homolog protein 5; ATCC: American Type Culture Collection; CSCC: Cervical squamous cell carcinoma; EMT: Epithelial to mesenchymal transition; FBS: Fetal bovine serum; FTO: Fat mass and obesity-associated protein; GEO: Gene Expression Omnibus; LiCl: Lithium chloride; m<sup>6</sup>A: N<sup>6</sup>-methyladenosine; METTL3: methyltransferase-like 3; MTT: 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide; NT: Normal tissues; PDAC: Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma; PDX: Patient-derived xenograft; qRT-PCR: Quantitative reverse transcription PCR; RT-PCR: Reverse transcription PCR; sh: Short hairpin; TCGA: The Cancer Genome Atlas; WIF-1: Wnt inhibitory factor 1; YTHDF1: YTH N6-methyladenosine RNA binding protein 1.

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Authors’ contributions
BT, YHY and MK conceived of the study and BT carried out its design. YHY, MK, YSW, YW, and YB performed the experiments. YHY, KM and SQH collected clinical samples. BT, YB, FS, YHY and MK analyzed the data and wrote the paper. SQH, FS and BT revised the paper. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Availability of data and materials
The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Ethics approval and consent to participate
This study was approved by the institutional review board/ethics committee of the First Affiliated Hospital of Guangxi Medical University (2018-KY-GJ-009).

Consent for publication
We have received consents from individual patients who have participated in this study. The consent forms will be provided upon request.

Competing interests
The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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