R-spondin 2-LGR4 system regulates growth, migration and invasion, epithelial-mesenchymal transition and stem-like properties of tongue squamous cell carcinoma via Wnt/β-catenin signaling

Liping Zhang a,b, Yan Song c, Zihang Ling a,b, Yuanyuan Li a,b, Xianyue Ren a,b, Jing Yang a,b, Zhi Wang a,b, Juan Xia a,b, Weizhen Zhang d,⁎⁎, Bin Cheng a,b,⁎

a Hospital of Stomatology, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou 510060, China
b Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Stomatology, Guanghua School of Stomatology, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou 510080, China
c First Affiliated Hospital, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou 510080, China
d School of Basic Medical Science, Peking University, Beijing 100191, China

ABSTRACT

Background: R-spondins (Rspo) and leucine-rich repeat-containing G-protein-coupled receptors (LGR) play important roles in development, stem cells survival, and tumorigenicity by activating Wnt signaling pathway. Whether R-spondins-LGR signaling affects the progression of squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) remain unknown. This study aims to uncover the role of R-spondin2/LGR4 in tongue SCC (TSCC).

Methods: The expression of Rspo2 in TSCC specimens and its correlation with TSCC clinical outcome were evaluated. Levels of Rspo2 or LGR4 were altered by pharmacological and genetic approaches, and the effects on TSCC progression were assessed.

Findings: Aberrantly high levels of Rspo2 were detected in TSCC specimens. Its levels were closely related with lymph node metastasis, clinical stage and survival rate in patients with tongue SCC. Exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of Rspo2 promoted growth, migration and invasion, epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) and stem-like properties in SCC both in vivo and in vitro. Silence of Rspo2 abolished these phenotypes. LGR4 was functionally upregulated by Rspo2 in TSCC. Overexpression of Rspo2 increased, whereas Rspo2 silencing decreased the expression of LGR4, leading to subsequent phosphorylation of LRP6 and nuclear translocation of β-catenin in TSCC cell lines. This nuclear translocation of β-catenin was associated with a significant alteration in TCF-1, a downstream nuclear transcription factor of β-catenin, as well as its target genes: CD44, CyclinD1 and c-Myc.

Interpretation: Rspo2-LGR4 system regulates growth, migration and invasion, EMT and stem-like properties of TSCC via Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway.

© 2019 The Authors. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 1 February 2019
Received in revised form 13 March 2019
Accepted 26 March 2019
Available online 13 May 2019

Keywords:
R-spondin2-LGR4
Tongue squamous cell carcinoma
Proliferation
Epithelial-Mesenchymal transition
Stem-like properties
Wnt/β-catenin signaling

1. Introduction

Squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) is a common, morbid and aggressive epithelial cancer. This lethal malignant lesion occurs more frequently in head and neck. Despite advances in understanding the pathogenesis, diagnosis and therapy of SCC, the overall survival rate remains virtually no improvement over the past 40 years [1]. The high mortality has been largely attributed to lymph node metastasis, distant organ metastasis and loco-regional recurrence [2,3]. A better understanding of the molecular mechanism underlying its pathogenesis is critical for effective therapy of SCC.

R-spondins (Rspo) are a member of a superfamily of thrombospondin type 1 repeat (TSR-1)-containing secreted proteins [4]. There are four secreted Rspordin proteins ((Rspo1-4) which share 40–60% identity between each other and a similar structure with a cysteine-rich furin-like domain preceding a thrombospondinlike domain [5]. Rspos have pleiotropic functions in cellular and biological processes ranging from sex determination, embryonic development, stem cell growth, bone formation to tumorigenesis [6–8]. The leucine-rich repeat-containing G protein-coupled receptors (LGR) 4–6 have been identified as high-affinity cell-surface receptors for R-spondin proteins [9]. Despite that
LGRs are coupled to heterotrimeric G proteins, they do not activate Gi, Gs, or Gq pathways [10]. Rspo2-LGR4-6 axis potentiates Wnt signaling to regulate survival of stem cells and carcinogenesis [9,11]. The intracellular signaling mechanism underlying the interaction between LGRs to regulate survival of stem cells and carcinogenesis is not well understood.

Rspo2, one of the R-spondin family members, is originally reported to be closely associated with Dupuytren's disease in human and vertebrate embryo development [12]. Despite of the conflicting reports, Rspo2 has been recently proposed to play an important role in the pathogenesis in a variety of tumors. Over-expression of Rspo2 in mammary epithelial cells increases tumor formation and metastasis in athymic nude mice [13]. Recurrent gene fusion of Rspo2 occurs in prostate cancer, colon cancer, and human Schwann cell tumors [14–16]. Further study suggests that Rspo2 stimulates the progression of colorectal cancer by enriching LGR5+ stem cell [17]. Rspo2-induced enhancement of stemness associated traits in susceptible pancreatic cancer cells is associated with canonical Wnt signaling [18]. In contrast, other studies indicate that Rspo2 suppresses colorectal cancer through Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway. Study by Wu et al. demonstrates that Rspo2 inhibits Wnt/β-catenin signaling in colorectal cancer to suppress cell proliferation [19]. In addition, Dong et al. have reported that Rspo2 reduces colorectal cancer metastasis by counteracting the Wnt5a/Fzd7-driven activation of noncanonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling [20]. These observations indicate that Rspo2 may function as either a tumor suppressor or stimulator depending on the specific type of cancer. To the best of our knowledge, the role of R-spondins/LGRs in SCC progression has not been described.

In this study, we examined the expression of Rspo2 in clinical specimens and cell lines of TSCC. Its effects on the growth, metastasis, as well as stem like properties of TSCC cells were evaluated using an approach of gain or loss of function of Rspo2. In addition, we explored the interaction of Rspo2-LGR4 with Wnt/β-catenin signaling and the subsequent influence on the targeted genes associated with Wnt/β-catenin signaling in TSCC cell lines. We found that Rspo2-LGR4 increased phosphorylation of LRP6 and the dishevelled3 (DVL3) while decreased phosphorylation of GSK-3β, leading to the subsequent nuclear translocation of β-catenin and the expression of its downstream dynamics Cxcl1, c-Myc and Cdc44. Our results indicate that Rspo2-LGR4 promotes TSCC cell proliferation, migration and invasion, EMT and cancer stem cell properties via activating Wnt/β-catenin signaling.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Patients tissue specimens

Seventy-three TSCC patients from the First Affiliated Hospital, Sun Yat-sen University between June 2005 and December 2013 were enrolled in this study. All patients received radical surgery without any form of pre-surgical adjuvant therapy. Patients were informed and consented before the study. The study protocol was approved by the ethical committees of the Hospital of Stomatology of Sun Yat-sen University. Paraffin embedded TSCC samples and noncancerous adjacent tissues (NTs) were sectioned and used for immunohistochemical (IHC) assays. Clinopathological stage of the cancer was determined per the TNM classification system of UICC [21]. DFS time was calculated from the date of surgery to the date of final follow-up or tumor recurrence.

2.2. Cell lines and cell culture

Human TSCC cell lines SCC-15, SCC-25, and Cal-27 were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD, USA), HSC-6, HSC-3, Cal-33 and normal oral keratinocytes (NOK) were kindly provided by Dr. Xiaofeng Zhou (University of Illinois at Chicago, IL, USA). UM1 was provided by Dr. Xiaofeng Zhou (University of Illinois at Chicago, IL, USA). HSC-6, HSC-3, Cal-27 and Cal-33 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Gibco, Rockville, MD, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). SCC-15 and SCC-25 cells were maintained in DMEM-F12 (Gibco, Rockville, MD, USA) supplemented with 10% FBS and 400 ng/mL Hydrocortisone (HYD, Sigma Aldrich). UM1 cells were cultured in DMEM-F12 supplemented with 10% FBS and NOK cells were cultivated in serum-free medium containing human recombinant epidermal growth factor and bovine pituitary extract (KSF, Gibco, Rockville, MD, USA). Cells were cultured in medium without serum for 6 h before exposure to exogenous Rspo2. Wnt3a was used as positive control. All cells were incubated at 37°C in a humid atmosphere containing 5% CO2.

2.3. Transient transfection

Rspo2 siRNA or LGR4 siRNA (50 nM, GenePharma, Shanghai, China), and the negative controls (siNC) were transfected into TSCC cells using the Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Transfection Reagent (Invitrogen, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The efficiency of transfection was evaluated by Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) and Western blotting. The Rspo2 and LGR4 siRNA sequences were shown in Supplementary Table 1.

2.4. Viral vector constructs and stable infection

The Rspo2 shRNA lentiviral vector (pHBLV-U6-GFP-Puro Rspo2), and control vector; the retroviral vector expressing Rspo2 (pHBLV-CMVIE-ZsGreen-T2A-Puro Rspo2) and the negative control plasmid (pHBLV-CMVIE) were constructed by Hanbio (Shanghai, China). To establish stable cell line, relevant vectors packaged as pseudoviral
particles were infected into HSC-3 cells. Cells were selected with 0.5 μg/mL of puromycin (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) for four weeks. Sequences of Rspo2 and its shRNAs were shown in Supplementary Table 1. Stable overexpression or silencing efficiency of Rspo2 in HSC-3 cells were evaluated by both qRT-PCR and Western blotting.

2.5. Cell proliferation and colony formation assay

Cell proliferation was analyzed using the Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8, Sigma-Aldrich, USA). HSC-3 or SCC-15 cells were seeded at a density of 2 × 10^4 in triplicates into a 96-well plate. For gene manipulation experiments, cells were transfected with siRNA of Rspo2 or LGR4 for 48 h, and stable overexpression or silence of Rspo2 were used. For exogenous Rspo2 stimulation, cells were starved in serum free medium for 6 h before treating with Rspo2 (5 ng/mL, 15 ng/mL) or Wnt 3a (20 ng/mL). Cell viability was assessed at 1–6 days. The absorbance was measured at 450 nm using a microplate reader (Genios TECAN, Männedorf, Switzerland).

For colony formation assays, 5 × 10^4 HSC-3 or SCC-15 cells were seeded into 6-well plates. After culturing for 10 days, visible cells were washed with PBS, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, and stained with 0.1% crystal violet. Colonies with >50 cells were counted.

2.6. Migration and invasion assays

Cells were prepared as described above. For migration assays, 3 × 10^4 (HSC-3) or 4 × 10^4 (SCC-15) were seeded into the upper chambers with 0.1% crystal violet and counted under an inverted microscope with 0.1% crystal violet. Colonies with >50 cells were counted.

2.7. Tumor sphere formation assay

For cells (HSC-3 or SCC-15) transfected with siRNA of Rspo2 or LGR4, 2 × 10^5 cells were seeded into ultra-low attachment 6-well plates in serum free medium with 2% B-27 without vitamin A (Inвитrogen, USA), 10 ng/mL epithelial growth factor (EGF, Invitrogen), 10 ng/mL basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF, Invitrogen, USA), and 1% penicillin/streptomycin [22–24]. For the exogenous Rspo2 treatment, cells were cultured in the sphere medium containing Rspo2 (5 or 15 ng/mL) or Wnt3a (20 ng/mL). The medium was changed every 12 (Migration) or 24 (Invasion) h at 37 °C. Then the cells on the upper surface of the membrane were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, stained with 0.1% crystal violet and counted under an inverted microscope (Zeiss, Germany).

2.8. ALDH, CD133 and CD44 staining assay

ALDH activity was measured by ALDEFLUOR™ detection kit (StemCell Technology, 01700) according to the manufacturer’s instruction and the data were acquired using the CytoFLEX (Beckman Coulter). CD133 and CD44 staining were performed using mAb against CD133 and CD44 (MAC Miltenyi Biotech) and detected by CytoFLEX. Results were analyzed by Flowjo software (version 10; Tree Star, Ashland, OR).

2.9. Tumor transplantation

All animal research procedures were performed according to the guidelines of the Animal Care and Use Ethics Committees of Sun Yat-Sen University. Four- to six-week-old female immunocompromised BALB/c nude mice were purchased from the Animal Care Unit of Guangdong, China and maintained in pathogen-free conditions.

For subcutaneous tumor transplantation, 1 × 10^6 HSC-3 cells with stable overexpression or silence of Rspo2 or control vector in 100 μL were injected into the right dorsal flank of immunocompromised mice (n = 6 per group). Tumor sizes were measured every 7 days for 6 weeks. Tumor volume (mm3) was calculated using the following formula: V = L × W^2/2, where L represents length and W represents width. Mice were sacrificed, and tumors were collected and weighed at the end of 6 weeks after injection.

2.10. RNA-sequencing analysis

To explore the transcriptome after Rspo2 treatment, total RNA was isolated from HSC-3 cells treated with 15 ng/mL Rspo2 and blank control (three biological repeat) for 24 h using TRIZOL. RNA sequencing was performed by BGI (Wuhan, PR China). Briefly, RNA integrity was validated with the 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). cDNA libraries were generated and sequenced on Illumina Hiseq 2500 as single-end 50 base. Gene different expression analysis between samples was performed by passion distribution. Gene ontology analysis and pathway enrichment analysis were used to analysis the different expression gene and related pathway.

2.11. DKK1 inhibitory assay

To validate the role of Rspo2 in activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling, HSC-3 cells with stable Rspo2 expression were treated with 50 ng/mL DKK1 (R&D, USA). CCK8 proliferation and migration assays were performed. Western blotting was used to examine the protein expression of Wnt/β-catenin singling related molecules.

2.12. Quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA was isolated from cells using TRIZOL (Invitrogen, USA) and cDNA were synthesized with Transcriptor First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (Roche, Switzerland). The PCR primers listed in Supplementary Table 1 were purchased from Invitrogen Biotechnology Co. (USA). qRT-PCR reactions were performed according to the manufacturer’s protocol of Light Cycler® 480 SYBR Green I Master Kit (Roche, Switzerland). The relative gene expression value (2^(-ΔΔCt)) was normalized to GAPDH in the same cDNA using the ΔCt method. The ΔCt value was determined by subtracting the average GAPDH Ct value from the average Ct value of each target gene.

2.13. Western blotting

After treatments, cells were collected with lysis buffer containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors cocktail (Thermo Fisher, 78442). Nuclear protein was extracted with NE-PER Nuclear and Cytoplasmic Extraction Kit (Thermo Fisher, 78833). Thirty μg or 40 μg proteins were separated on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and transferred onto polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes in transfer buffer. Membranes were blocked with 5% skim milk for 1 h, then incubated with following specific antibodies: Rspo2 (1:1000, ab73161, Abcam), LGR4 (1:1000, ab137480, Abcam); CDK2 (1:1000,70B2, #2546), Cyclin B1 (1:1000, v152, #4135), Cyclin D1 (1:1000, 92G2, #2978), p21 (1:1000, 12D1, #9323), N-cadherin (1:1000, D4R1H, #13116), E-cadherin (1:1000, 24E10, #3195), vimentin (1:1000, D21H3, #5741), c-Myc (1:1000, #3218), pGSK-3 β (1:1000, D1C7J, #14962), Phospho-LRP6 (1:1000, Ser1490, #2568), Dvl3 (1:1000, #3570), Oct-4 (1:1000, C52G3, #2890), Sox2 (1:1000, 156-3C11, #3570), Cyclin D1 (1:1000, 92G2, #2978), p21 (1:1000, 24E10, #3195), vimentin (1:1000, D21H3, #5741), c-Myc (1:1000, #3218), pGSK-3β (1:1000, SB3, #9323), β-Catenin (1:1000, D10A8, #8480), TCF-1 (1:1000, C6D9, #2203), H3 (1:2000, #9715) and GAPDH (1:2000, D16H11, #5174). All these antibodies
were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology. The blots were visualized by Immobilon Western Chemiluminescent HRP Substrate (WBKLS0500, EMD Millipore), and the intensity of specific bands was quantified using NIH ImageJ analysis software.

2.14. Immunohistochemical staining

Paraformaldehyde fixed and paraffin-embedded tissues were cut into 4 μm sections. These sections underwent antigen retrieval in sodium citrate buffer (pH = 6.0) at boiling temperature for 15 min. Sections were washed in PBS plus 0.1% Triton X 100, blocked with 10% goat serum and incubated with primary antibody against Rspo2 (1:100, ab73761) at 4 °C overnight. The sections were then probed with the IgG secondary antibody conjugated to horseradish peroxidase and visualized with 3, 3-diaminobenzidine (DAB, EMD Millipore, DAB150) and counterstaining with hematoxylin. Immunohistochemical staining was assessed and scored by two senior pathologists blinded to the clinical data. Five fields for each sample were randomly selected under the microscope (Zeiss, German) with a 400× magnification. The staining score for Rspo2 was scored according to the staining intensity (0, no staining; 1, weak, light yellow; 2, moderate, yellow brown; 3, strong, brown) and the proportion of positive cells (0, ≤10%; 1, 11–25%; 2, 25%–50%; 3, 51%–75%; 4, ≥76%). The staining index (SI) was calculated per the formula: SI = the proportion of positively stained cells x the staining intensity [25]. Cases with SI > 4 were classified as high-expression group, and those with SI ≤ 4 as low-expression group. This scoring method was also applied to evaluate the Sox2 (1:100, D1C7J, #14962), CD133 (1:100, D2V8Q, #64326), β-catenin (1:100, D10A8, #8480 s), and LGR4 (1:100, ab137480).

2.15. Immunofluorescent staining

Cultured cells grown on laser confocal culture dish were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and permeabilized with 0.1% X-Triton, blocked

Fig. 1. Rspo2 predicts poor clinical outcomes of TSCC and promotes tumor growth. a, Rspo2 immunoreactivity in noncancerous adjacent tissues (NT, n = 27) and tumor tissues (T, n = 73). Scale bar: 200 μm. Staining index of Rspo2 was expressed as mean ± s.d and analyzed by Student t-test. b, Kaplan-Meier curves for disease-free survival (DFS) of TSCC patients with low (n = 25) vs. high levels (n = 48) of Rspo2 (First panel); Relation between Rspo2 expression and lymph nodes metastasis (Second panel), clinical stage (Third panel) or pathological differentiation (Last panel) in TSCC patients. c-d, Plate colony-formation assays (c) and CCK-8 assays (d) on HSC-3 and SCC-15 cells treated with exogenous Rspo2 or siRspo2, n = 3. e, Plate colony-formation assays and CCK-8 assays of HSC-3 cells with stable overexpression of Rspo2 or silencing of Rspo2, n = 3. f-g, Subcutaneous tumor xenograft of HSC-3 cells with stable overexpression (f, n = 6 per group) or silencing of Rspo2 (g, n = 4–5 per group). Tumor volumes and tumor weight was expressed as mean ± s.d and analyzed by Student’s t-test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.
Table 1  
Correlation of Rspo2 expression with clinical and pathological variables of TSCC patients.

| Characteristic          | Subcharacteristic | n   | Rspo2 expression |
|-------------------------|-------------------|-----|------------------|
|                         |                   |     | Low | High | P    |
| **Gender**              | Male              | 47  | 16  | 31   | 0.961|
|                         | Female            | 26  | 9   | 17   | 0.512|
| **Age**                 | ≤55               | 36  | 14  | 22   | 0.052|
|                         | >55               | 37  | 11  | 26   | 0.007|
| **Tumor size**          | ≤4 cm             | 62  | 24  | 38   | 0.006|
|                         | >4 cm             | 11  | 1   | 10   | 0.007|
| **LN metastasis**       | No                | 47  | 22  | 25   | 0.0001|
|                         | Yes               | 26  | 3   | 23   | 0.2288|
| **Pathological differentiation** | Well/Moderately | 65  | 23  | 42   | 0.007|
|                         | Poorly            | 8   | 2   | 6    | 0.018|
| **T classification**    | T1-T2             | 62  | 24  | 38   | 0.006|
|                         | T3-T4             | 11  | 1   | 10   | 0.028|
| **Clinical stage**      | I-II              | 43  | 21  | 22   | 0.002|
|                         | III-IV            | 30  | 4   | 26   | 0.0001|

Abbreviations: LN, lymph node. Differences were considered significant at P < 0.05.

with 5% BSA, then incubated with primary antibody against β-catenin (1:50, D10A8, #8480) at 4 °C overnight. After that, cells were washed with PBS and incubated with second antibody conjugated with IgG-FITC for 1 h at room temperature. Cells were counterstained with DAPI for 5 min at room temperature, then mounted with prolong diamond antifade Mounting medium (Invitrogen). Specific staining was observed with an LSM780 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss). Images were analyzed with ZEN2012 software (Carl Zeiss).

2.16. Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 20.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) or the GraphPad Prism 7.0 software (La Jolla, CA, USA). Two-group comparisons were analyzed using Student’s t-test, the Wilcoxon test; multiple-group comparisons were assessed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The Kaplan–Meier method and log-rank test were performed to determine the survival outcomes. Univariate and multivariate analyses were performed using a Cox proportional regression hazards model. Hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals were derived from the model, and the likelihood ratio test was used to compare the groups. Differences were considered significant at P < 0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Aberrant Rspo2 is positively associated with poor survival in TSCC patients

We first examined the expression levels of R-spodins in TSCC cells. Rspo2 was the only member of four R-spodins which was consistently up-regulated in all kinds of TSCC cell lines relative to NOK. Levels of other three Rpos increased only in proportion of these SCC cell lines (supplementary Fig. S1a). The expression of Rspo2 protein was further confirmed in SCC cell lines. Consistently, the expression of Rspo2 in all SCC cell lines was significantly elevated relative to NOK (supplementary Fig. S1b). We thus focused our study on Rspo2.

To investigate the role of Rspo2 in SCC progression, expression levels of Rspo2 in human TSCC tissues (n = 73) and noncancerous adjacent tissues (NT) (n = 27) were examined by IHC using specific antibody against Rspo2. Representative images showing the different scoring intensity (0–3) and percentage of positive cells (0–4) were included in Supplementary Fig. S1c. Average levels of Rspo2 were significantly increased in TSCC tissues (T: NT: 6.909 ± 2.812: 2.643 ± 1.909) (Fig. 1a, p < 0.0001). Rspo2 expression levels were also upregulated in specimens with lymph node metastasis, advanced clinical stage, and poorly pathological differentiation (Fig. 1b, p < 0.05). Based on the median levels of Rspo2, 73 TSCC patients were divided into low-expression and high-expression group. Correlation analysis showed that high expression level of Rspo2 was closely associated with lymph node metastasis (P = 0.007) and advanced clinical stages (P = 0.002) (Table 1). Nearly 50% of patients with high-level of Rspo2 developed cervical lymph node metastasis; whereas Rspo2 low-level group demonstrated only 12% of regional lymph node metastasis (Table 1). Almost 90% patients in advanced clinical stages III-IV expressed high-levels of Rspo2 (Table 1). Additionally, high levels of Rspo2 were positively correlated with tumor size (P = 0.056) and T classification (P = 0.056). Being positively associated with TSCC growth and metastasis, Rspo2 may thus be a potential marker for the prognosis of TSCC. To test this concept, we performed the Kaplan-Meier analysis in 73 patients with TSCC. As shown in Fig. 1b, patients with high-level of Rspo2 had a significantly higher recurrence and poor survival rate relative to those with low-level expression of Rspo2 defined by the disease-free survival (DFS) curves (log-rank test, P = 0.0096). The correlations between Rspo2 expression levels and the clinical characteristics of TSCC patients were examined with Univariate analysis. Rspo2 (P = 0.018) was significantly associated with lymph node metastasis (P = 0.028), clinical stage (P = 0.033).
The prognostic value of Rsps2 for DFS in TSCC patients was further validated in a multivariable Cox proportional hazards model adjusted for lymph node metastasis and clinical stages (Table 2). Collectively, these results suggest that Rsps2 correlates with the clinical outcomes of TSCC. Thus, Rsps2 may promote TSCC growth and metastasis.

3.2. Rsps2 promotes TSCC growth

To determine whether Rsps2 influences the occurrence of TSCC, we used approaches with gain-or-loss functions of Rsps2 in HSC-3 and SCC-15 cells, two TSCC cell lines in which Rsps2 is highly expressed (Supplementary Fig. S1a-b). Exogenous recombinant Rsps2 significantly increased cell proliferation rate relative to control evidenced by the plate colony-formation and CCK-8 cell proliferation assays (Fig. 1c-d). Knockdown of Rsps2 using small interference RNA was validated by qRT-PCR and Western blotting (Supplementary Fig. S2a-b). Deficiency of Rsps2 markedly decreased the proliferation of TSCC cells (Fig. 1c-d). To further investigate the effect of Rsps2 on SCC tumorigenesis, we established HSC-3 cells with stable overexpression or silence of Rsps2 using lentivirus. The transfection efficiency was evaluated and validated with qRT-PCR and Western blotting (Supplementary Fig. S2c-d). Plate colony formation assays and CCK-8 proliferation confirmed that overexpression of Rsps2 up-regulated dramatically,
whereas Rspo2 silencing decreased the proliferation of HSC-3 cells (Fig. 1e). We then injected subcutaneously these cells with gain-or-loss function of Rspo2 into immunocompromised mice for the evaluation of tumorigenesis of Rspo2 in vivo. As shown in Fig. 1, overexpression of Rspo2 obviously upregulated tumorigenesis in nude mice (Fig. 1f). On the other hand, knock-down of Rspo2 decreased tumorigenesis (Fig. 1g). Tumor sizes and weight in Rspo2 overexpression (Lv-Rspo2) group were significantly increased relative to control (Lv-NC) group (Fig. 1f) over a period of 6 weeks, whereas sh-Rspo2 group demonstrated a significant decrease (Fig. 1g). These results indicate that Rspo2 promotes TSCC proliferation.

Next, we examined the effect of Rspo2 on cell cycles of TSCC. Exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of Rspo2 significantly increased cells from G0/G1 phase to S/G2M phase relative to control (Fig. 2a and Supplementary Fig. S3a). Rspo2 siRNA or shRNA arrested cells in the G0/G1 phase, decreasing the cells in S phase and G2/M phase (Fig. 2a and Supplementary Fig. S3a). Consistently, exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of this gene significantly upregulated levels of cell cycle activators such as Cyclin D1, Cyclin-dependent kinase 2 (CDK2) and Cyclin B1, whereas decreasing CDK inhibitor and tumor suppressor gene p21 (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig. S3b-c). Interference of Rspo2 down-regulated these cell cycle activators with concurrent increase of p21 (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig. S3b-c). These results indicate that Rspo2 stimulates the growth of TSCC cells by activating cell cycle with concurrent inhibition of tumor suppressor.

3.3. Rspo2 promotes migration and invasion of TSCC through EMT

To determine whether Rspo2 promotes SCC metastasis, we performed Transwell assays with or without Matrigel. Exogenous Rspo2
or overexpression of Rspo2 stimulated the migration and invasion rate of HSC-3 (Fig. 3a, Supplementary Fig. S4c) and SCC-15 (Supplementary Fig. S4a) cells relative to negative control. Silencing of Rspo2 decreased the migration and invasion of TSCC cells (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Figs. S4a and d). These results imply that Rspo2 promotes TSCC migration and invasion.

Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition is critical for invasion and metastasis of various types of cancers [26–28]. Morphological alteration of HSC-3 and SCC-15 upon treatment with Rspo2 (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig. S4b and e) indicated that exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of Rspo2 induced a transformation of TSCC cells into a spindle or elongated mesenchymal shape, while decrease of Rspo2 reversed this phenotype (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig. S4b and e). Consistently, exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of this gene significantly increased the mesenchymal markers such as N-cadherin and Vimentin, while concurrently decreasing the epithelial marker E-cadherin (Fig. 3c and Supplementary Figs. S4f–g). Our results thus suggest that Rspo2 induces TSCC cells undergoing epithelial to mesenchymal transition.

3.4. Rspo2 promotes stem-like properties

Cancer stem cells (CSCs) are highly tumorigenic compared to other cancer cells, accounting for the biological characteristics of cancer, namely, rapid growth, invasion, and metastasis [29–31]. Stem-like cell properties are important for cancer initiation, progression and metastasis. We thus investigated whether Rspo2 alters the stem-like properties of TSCC cells. Exogenous Rspo2 promoted the sphere formation efficiency of HSC-3 and SCC-15 (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. S5a), whereas knockdown of Rspo2 attenuated it (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. S5a). Both the percentage of CD133+CD44+ and ALDH1high cells were significantly increased in HSC-3 and SCC-15 cells treated with exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of Rspo2 gene. Silence of Rspo2 gene markedly decreased the percentage of TSCC cells with high levels of CD133+CD44+ and ALDH1high (Fig. 4b–c and Supplementary Fig. S5b–e). Consistently, overexpressing or exogenous Rspo2 significantly promoted the sphere formation and up-regulated the protein levels of common cancer stem cell marker genes such as ALDH1, CD133, CD44, Sox2 and Oct4 in HSC-3 and SCC-15 cells. Silencing of Rspo2 impaired sphere formation decreased these stemness-related markers (Fig. 5a, Supplementary Fig. S5f and Supplementary Fig. S6a–c). Additionally, Sox2 and CD133 were significantly up-regulated in TSCC specimens from 18 patients with higher Rspo2 expression relative to NT (Fig. 5b–c). The higher expression of Sox2 and CD133 was positively correlated with Rspo2 expression (Fig. 5d–e). Together, these data indicate that Rspo2 endows TSCC cells with cancer stem-like properties to promote the progression of TSCC.
3.5. Rspo2 activates LGR4 to promote TSCC progression

LGRs, a highly conserved GPCR family, are important for embryonic development and maintenance of stem cells. Levels of LGR4 immunoreactivity was significantly higher in the TSCC specimens relative to NT (Fig. 6a). Notably, a positive correlation was found between levels of Rspo2 and LGR4 (Fig. 6b). We then evaluated the effects of LGR4 knockdown on the TSCC progression induced by Rspo2. Knockdown of LGR4 by small interfering RNA in cells with stable overexpression of Rspo2 showed that cell clone formation efficiency, proliferation rate and sphere formation efficiency were significantly reduced (Fig. 6c–d, Supplementary Fig. S6d). Transwell assay also showed that the metastasis rate was dramatically impaired when LGR4 was knockdowned (Fig. 6e) in these cells. This observation suggests that LGR4 plays important roles in TSCC progression triggered by Rspo2.

3.6. Rspo2-LGR4 exacerbates TSCC progression via β-catenin signaling pathway

To identify the intracellular signaling pathway mediating the effects of Rspo2-LGR4 on TSCC cells, RNAseq analysis was performed on HSC-3 cells treated with 15 ng/mL of exogenous Rspo2 for 24 h. Gene ontology analysis revealed that genes relevant to cellular processes and signaling transduction pathway were significantly enriched after Rspo2 stimulation (Supplementary Form.S1). In particular, Wnt/β-catenin signaling and its related genes were significantly up-regulated (Supplementary...
Form S1 and S2 and Supplementary Fig. S7). Alteration of genes involved in β-catenin signaling pathway was further confirmed by qRT-PCR. LR6 (Low Density Lipoprotein Receptor Related Protein 6), APC (Adenomatous Polyposis Coli), Dvl3, β-catenin, as well as TCF-1 and its downstream target genes CyclinD1, CD44 and c-Myc were up-regulated, while Axin1 (Axis Inhibition Protein) and GSK-3β being down-regulated in HSC-3 cell with stable Rspo2 overexpression relative to control (Fig. 7a). Western blotting on cells with Rspo2 stable overexpression and silencing also confirmed that Rspo2 upregulated LGR4, β-catenin and TCF-1 protein expression while inhibited phosphorylation of GSK-3β (Fig. 7b). Immune staining of β-catenin showed that both the intensity of β-catenin in cytoplasm and nucleus were significantly up-regulated by overexpression of Rspo2 or exogenous Rspo2 treatment, while silencing of Rspo2 reversed the accumulation of β-catenin both in cytoplasm and nucleus (Fig. 7c and Supplementary Fig. S8). These results suggest Rspo2 could upregulate β-catenin expression and promote its translocation to the nuclei in HSC-3 cells.

We next confirmed the activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling in HSC-3 and SCC-15 by Western blotting. Exogenous Rspo2 significantly elevated LGR4 expression, phosphorylation of LR6 and accumulation of Dvl3, while inhibited phosphorylation of GSK-3β. These alterations were associated with the subsequent accumulation of β-catenin and TCF-1 expression. On the other hand, silencing of Rspo2 dramatically reversed these protein expression pattern (Fig. 8a). Rspo2 significantly increased nuclear levels of β-catenin and TCF-1 relative to control, whereas silencing of Rspo2 reduced the nuclear levels of β-catenin and TCF-1 (Fig. 8b). Additionally, knockdown of LGR4 in both HSC-3 cells (Fig. 8c) and cells with stable overexpression of Rspo2 (Fig. 8d) showed that β-catenin and TCF-1 expression were significantly decreased. These results suggest that Rspo2 may function via LGR4 to activate Wnt/β-catenin signaling in TSCC cells. Consistent with this concept, immunostaining for β-catenin in 18 human TSCC tissues with higher Rspo2 expression showed a significant increase in the expression of β-catenin not only in the cytoplasm membrane but also in the nuclei of TSCC cells. The expression level of β-catenin was positively correlated with Rspo2 (Fig. 8e).

DKK1 (Dickkopf-related protein 1), a secreted protein with two cysteine rich regions, is involved in embryonic development. It is an important endogenous inhibitor of Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway. By binding to LR5/6, DKK1 inhibits Wnt/β-catenin signaling [32]. We thus used DKK1 to further validate whether Wnt/β-catenin signaling mediates the effect of Rspo2-LGR4 system. DKK1 significantly reduced cell proliferation and migration in TSCC cells with stable overexpression of Rspo2 (Fig. 8f–g). Further, the expression levels of β-catenin and TCF-1 in TSCC cells overexpressing Rspo2 were significantly attenuated with DKK1 (Fig. 8h). To further confirm that Rspo2 activates Wnt/β-catenin signaling in TSCC cells, we analyzed levels of β-catenin immunoreactivity in TSCC tissues with higher expression of Rspo2. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 9, levels of cytosol and nuclear β-catenin were significantly up-regulated in these tumor tissues. Taken together, our results show that Rspo2-LGR4 regulates TSCC progression through Wnt/β-catenin signaling.
4. Discussion

By analyzing human TSCC samples and the genetic manipulation with gain-or-loss function of Rspo2 and LGR4 in TSCC cells, we provide solid evidence that Rspo2-LGR4 system contributes to the tumor growth, migration and invasion of TSCC by activating the β-catenin signaling pathway. Rspo2 may function as a biomarker for the prognosis, as well as a potential therapeutic target of TSCC. This conclusion is supported by following observations: (1) Rspo2 is positively associated with tumor size, node metastasis, clinical stages and survival rate in TSCC patients. (2) Exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of this gene stimulates the growth, metastasis, EMT and stem-like properties of TSCC cells, whereas suppression of Rspo2 by siRNA or shRNA demonstrates an opposite effect. (3) Activation of LGR4 by Rspo2 potentiates β-catenin signaling by upregulating phosphorylation of LRP6, decreasing phosphorylation of GSK-3β, leading to subsequent increase in the nuclear transcription of TCF-1 and its downstream target genes CD44, c-Myc and Cyclin D1 in TSCC cells.

Although Rspo2 has been reported to be closely related to the malignancy of carcinomas in a variety of solid organs such as breast, liver, pancreas, colon and nervous system [14–19,33], its role in the squamous cell carcinoma remains unknown. Our studies extend the action site of Rspo2 to SCC, the most common malignant tumor in head and neck. High level of Rspo2 is associated with an aggressive behavior of TSCC evidenced by increase in tumor growth and regional metastasis, as well as advanced clinical stages and poor survival. Consistent with our observation, previous studies have identified Rspo2 as a candidate oncogene. Rspo2 is highly expressed in H1299 colon cell lines and HCT116 spheroid cells [17,34,35]. In contrast, other studies have demonstrated that Rspo2 is significantly down-regulated in colorectal carcinoma, indicating a nature of tumor suppressor [19,20]. Employing both pharmacological and genetic approaches to alter levels of Rspo2, we found that this protein promotes the tumorigenesis of TSCC cells measured by the in vitro proliferation assays, colony formation, and in vivo tumor cell transplantation. This occurs through activation of cell cycle process from the arrested G0/G1 phase to S and G2/M phases. Our data clearly demonstrate that Rspo2 functions as an activator for TSCC.

EMT, characterized by decreased epithelial and increased mesenchymal properties, has been implicated in a variety of physiological and pathological processes such as embryonic development, organ fibrosis and cancer progression [26,36,37]. Although two literatures have reported that EMT is dispensable for cancer metastasis [38,39], EMT is commonly considered as a critical player for the dissociation of cancer cells from their primary tumor and subsequent intravasation into blood vessels [37,40]. Employing genetic approaches with gain-or-loss functions, we demonstrate that Rspo2 stimulates the transition of TSCC cells from epithelial states to mesenchymal states. Increase of Rspo2 promotes the EMT of TSCC cells, whereas deficiency of Rspo2 inhibits this process. This up-regulation in EMT is consistent with our observation that lymph node metastasis is significantly increased in TSCC patients. Our studies thus suggest that Rspo2 may function as a driving force for the adopting migratory and invasive behavior of TSCC by activating the EMT. Consistent with our observation, Rspo2-LGR5 promotes colon HCT116 spheroid cells invasion through enhancing its EMT [12]. Taken together, our findings suggest that Rspo2-LGR4 induced EMT is essential for TSCC metastasis.

Cancer stem cells (CSC) have been increasing recognized as a critical player in determining the recurrence and metastasis of cancer [29,41]. Our studies suggest that Rspo2 stimulates the stem-like properties of...
TSCC cells. Exogenous Rspo2 or overexpression of this gene increases the tumor sphere formation of TSCC cells, as well as the expression of cancer stem cell markers such as CD133, CD44, ALDH, Sox2 and Oct4. Suppression of Rspo2 by either siRNA or shRNA inhibits the stem-like properties of TSCC cells. These observations suggest that Rspo2 may confer TSCC cell stem-like properties, leading to aggressive phenotypes of TSCC cells such as active proliferation, migration and invasion. Previous studies have also demonstrated that Rspo2 up-regulates LGR5 (+) spheroid cancer stem cell in colon cancer [17], enhances the stemness-associated traits in susceptible pancreatic cancer cells [18]. Thus, Rspo2 may increase the recurrence and metastasis of TSCC by promoting their stem-like properties.

LGR4 is widely expressed in various organs in adults such as cartilage, kidney, nerve system and digestive system [42]. Our studies indicate that LGR4 is abundantly expressed in TSCC tissues with high Rspo2 expression. Further, its expression is up-regulated by Rspo2 in TSCC cells. Genetic manipulation of LGR4 with siRNA significantly impairs cell clone formation and sphere formation, inhibits cell proliferation, decreases cell migration and invasion rate. These results indicate that LGR4 functions as the receptor of Rspo2 to alter the TSCC progression.

The intracellular signaling pathway mediating the biological functions of Rspo2 remains largely unknown. Previous studies have suggested that Rspo2–LGRs could potentiate the Wnt/β-catenin signaling activity [17,18]. Our RNAseq analysis also identifies this signaling as the major pathway up-regulated by Rspo2 in TSCC cells. Pharmacological and genetic approaches further validate that Rspo2 converges on Wnt/β-catenin signaling to impact TSCC cells. Our results demonstrate that Rspo2-LGR4 axis induces EMT and cancer stem cell properties via Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway. Previous study by Liu et al. has reported that FERMT1 activates the β-catenin transcriptional activity to promote EMT in colon cancer metastasis. Consistently, Wang et al. have shown that Antihelminthic Niclosamide inhibits cancer stemness, extracellular matrix remodeling, and metastasis through dysregulation of the nuclear β-catenin-c-Myc axis in OSCC. In our study, Rspo2-LGR4 triggers the expression of c-Myc and CD44, two important oncogenes tightly related with EMT and cancer stem cell properties in various human and mice tumors [43,44]. CD44 is the most common CSC surface marker which plays a pivotal role in communicating with the microenvironment and regulating CSC stemness properties [44]. Based on these observation, we propose that Rspo2-LGR4 axis induces the EMT phenotype and cancer stem cell properties of TSCC via Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway. The finding that DKK1 blocks the effect of stable overexpression of Rspo2 in TSCC cells further confirms that Wnt/β-catenin signaling mediates TSCC progression induced by Rspo2-LGR4 system. However, it is worth of noting that conflicting reports exist on whether Rspo2 potentiates or attenuates Wnt/β-catenin signaling in cancer cells. Exogenous Rspo2 have been demonstrated to enhance Wnt signaling in pancreatic cell lines with high levels of TCF1, leading to subsequent increase in stemness and EMT phenotype [18]. In contrast, studies by Wu et al. have shown that Rspo2 inhibits Wnt/β-catenin signaling, leading to the suppression of tumor growth in colorectal cancer [19]. In addition, studies by Dong et al. have indicated that Rspo2 suppresses colorectal cancer metastasis by counteracting the noncanonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway [20]. Whether the effect of Rspo2 on Wnt/β-catenin signaling depends on the cell type of cancers or the expression levels of its downstream target gene TCF-1 as reported by Ilmer et al. remains to be explored.

Our findings suggest that the interaction between Rspo2-LGR4 and Wnt/β-catenin in TSCC cells is mediated by LRP6. Levels of pLRP6 is up-regulated by exogenous or overexpression of Rspo2, while silencing of Rspo2 suppresses its levels. DKK1 is a classical inhibitor of Wnt/β-catenin signaling by binding to LRP5/6 [32]. The finding that DKK1 significantly attenuates the proliferation and migration of TSCC cells over-expressing Rspo2 further confirms this concept. Activation of LGR4 by Rspo2 stimulates phosphorylation of LRIP6, which decreases phosphorylation of GSK-3β, resulting in β-catenin accumulation and translocation into the nuclei to trigger TCF transcription and downstream signaling. This observation is consistent with previous reports demonstrating that LRIP6 inhibits phosphorylation of GSK-3β, which is well characterized as a key molecule regulating Wnt/β-catenin signaling [45]. Previous study also indicates that binding of LGR4 with Rspos directly interacts with the membrane-bound E3 ligases (RNF43 and 2NRF3). Rspos-LGR4- RNF43/2NRF3 complex induces the clearance of the E3 ligases, leading to reduced ubiquitination and elevated levels of Wnt receptors and increased Wnt signaling [11]. The molecular mechanism underlying the interaction between Rspo2-LGR4 and Wnt/β-catenin remains to be further explored.

In summary, our studies demonstrate that Rspo2-LGR4 is crucial for the growth, migration and invasion, EMT and stem-like properties of TSCC cells. These actions occur through the activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway. Our findings provide evidence that Rspo2-LGR4 pathway is activated in TSC and acts as a tumor-promoting factor. Rspo2 may thus function as a biomarker for predicting the prognosis and a potential intervention target of SCC.

Founding sources

This work was supported by grants from The State Key Project of National Science Foundations of China (81630025, 81730020), Natural Science Foundation of Guangdong Province, China (2017A030311033), Science and Technology Planning Project of Guangzhou, China (201704020063), and National Institutes of Health Grant 1 (R01DK110273-01A1).

Conflicts of interest

None potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

Authors’ contributions

Conception, design and supervision: Bin Cheng and Weizhen Zhang. Data Acquisition: Liping Zhang, Yan Song, Zihang Ling, Yuanyuan Li, Jing Yang. Analysis and interpretation of data: Liping Zhang. Writing, review, and/or revision of the manuscript: Liping Zhang, Bin Cheng, Weizhen Zhang. Technical support: Xianyu Ren, Zhi Wang, Juan Xia.

Fig. 8. Wnt/β-Catenin signaling dependent effect of Rspo2. a, Western blot analysis of the Wnt/β-catenin signaling related proteins: LGR4, pLRP6, Dvl3, pGSK-3β(β-Catenin, TCF-1 in HSC-3 (Upper panel) and SCC-15 (Lower panel) cells stimulated with exogenous Rspo2 (Left) or transfected with siRspo2 (Right), n = 3, GAPDH was used as internal control, n = 3, b, Western blot analysis of nuclear levels of Wnt/β-catenin signaling related proteins: β-Catenin, TCF-1 in HSC-3 (Upper panel) and SCC-15 (Lower panel) cells stimulated with exogenous Rspo2 (Left panel) or transfected with siRspo2 (Right panel), H3 was used as internal control, n = 3, c, d, Western blot analysis of Wnt/β-catenin signaling related proteins in HSC-3 cells without (c) or with (d) stably overexpressing Rspo2 with concurrent siLGR4, n = 3, e, Representative images of β-catenin immunoreactivity in TSCC tissues with high levels of Rspo2 (Upper panel) and relation between the expression levels of β-catenin vs. Rspo2 in (Lower panel, n = 18), f, Western blot analysis of Wnt/β-catenin signaling related proteins (h), n = 3 for each experiment. Results were expressed as mean ± s.d. Statistical difference was analyzed by ANOVA or Student’s t-test. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01.
Acknowledgement

We would like to thank Dr. Ruyao Li and Dr. Nan Xie (Department of Oral Pathology, Hospital of Stomatology, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, China) for their assistance in histopathologic assessment.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ebiom.2019.03.076.

References

[1] Warnakulasuriya S. Global epidemiology of oral and oropharyngeal cancer. Oral Oncol 2009;45(4–5):309–16.
[2] Inglehart RC, Scanlon CS, O'Sullivan NJ. Reviewing and reconsidering invasion assays in head and neck cancer. Oral Oncol 2014;50(12):1137–43.
[3] Sano D, Myers JN. Metastasis of squamous cell carcinoma of the oral tongue. Cancer Metastasis Rev 2007;26(3–4):645–62.
[4] Yoon JK, Lee JS. Cellular signaling and biological functions of R-spondins. Cell Signal 2012;24(2):369–77.
[5] Kim KA, Zhao J, FauAndarmani S, Andarmani S, FauKakitani M, et al. R-spondin proteins: a novel link to beta-catenin activation. Cell Cycle 2006;5(1):23–6.
[6] Kazanskiy O, Okihara B, FauHeroult M, Herout M, FauWu W, et al. The Wnt signaling regulator R-spondin 3 promotes angioblast and vascular development. Development 2008;135(22):3655–64.
[7] Ootani A, Li X, FauSangiore S, FauMoriyama E, Ho QT, et al. Sustained in vitro epithelial cell culture within a Wnt-dependent stem cell niche. Nat Med 2009;15(6):701–6.
[8] Parmar P, Rudi O, FauVivdal F, FauV, et al. R-spondin1 is essential in sex determination, skin differentiation and malignancy. Nat Genet 2006;38(11):1304–9.
[9] Carmon KS, Gong X, Liu Q, Thomas A, Liu Q, et al. R-spondin signaling as ligands of the orphan receptors LGR4 and LGR5 to regulate Wnt/beta-catenin signaling. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2011;108(28):11452–7.
[10] Li Z, Zhang W, Mulholland MW, LGR4 and its role in intestinal epithelial cell differentiation and energy metabolism. Front Endocrinol (Lausanne) 2015;6:131.
[11] Gong X, Yi J, Carmon KS, et al. Aberrant Rspo3-Lgr4 signaling in Keap1-deficient lung adenocarcinomas promotes tumor aggressiveness. Oncogene 2015;34(36):4692–701.
[12] Kazanskiy O, Glinka A, del Barco Barrantes I, Stannek P, Niehrs C, Wu W. R-spondin2 is a secreted activator of Wnt/beta-catenin signaling and is required for Xenopus myogenesis. Dev Cell 2004;7(4):525–34.
[13] Klaunzinski M, Baljinnyam B, Raafat A, Rodriguez-Canales J, et al. Rspo2/Int7 regulates invasiveness and tumorigenic properties of mammary epithelial cells. J Cell Physiol 2012;227(5):1960–71.
[14] Robinson D, Van Allen EM, Wu YM, et al. Integrative clinical genomics of advanced prostate cancer. Cell 2015;161(5):1215–28.
[15] Seshagiri S, Durinck S, FauModrusan Z, FauVoosen P, et al. FOXQ1 is a transactivating function to enhance breast cancer stem cell phenotype. Nat Commun 2016;19(7):10180.
[16] Lu H, Ju DD, Yang GD, et al. Targeting cancer stem cell signature gene SMOC-2 overcomes chemoresistance and inhibits cell proliferation of endometrioid carcinoma. EBioMedicine 2019;40:276–89.
[17] Chiang K, Zielinska AE, Shaaban AM, et al. PRMT5 is a critical regulator of breast Cancer stem cell function via histone methylation and FOXO1 expression. Cell Rep 2017;21(12):3488–513.
[18] Xie Y, Gou Q, Xie K, Wang Z, Wang Y, Zheng H. ADAMTS6 suppresses tumor progression via the ERK signaling pathway and serves as a prognostic marker in human breast cancer. Oncotarget 2016;7(36):56273–83.
[19] De Wever O, Vanrussel P, De Craene B, FauSabbah M, et al. Molecular and pathological signatures of epithelial-mesenchymal transitions at the cancer invasion front. Histochimica et Cytochimica Acta 2008;130(3):481–94.
[20] Tarin D, Thompson E, FauNewgreen DF, FauNewgreen DF. The fallacy of epithelial mesenchymal transition in neoplasia. Cancer Res 2005;65(14):5996–6000.
[21] Yang J, Weinberg RA. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition: at the crossroads of development and tumor metastasis. Dev Cell 2008;14(6):818–29.
[22] Ajani JA, Song S, Hochster HS, Steinberg IB. Cancer stem cells: the promise and the potential. Semin Oncol 2015;42(Suppl. 1):53–17.
[23] Peinado H, Olmeda D, FauCano A, Cano A, Snail, Z and BH3 factors in tumour progression: an alliance against the epithelial phenotype? Nat Rev Cancer 2007;7(6):415–28.
[24] Smith T, Rana RS, Missiampa P, et al. High bat (Chiroptera) diversity in the Early Eocene of India. Naturwissenschaften 2007;94(12):1003–9.
[25] Fedri P, Balico A, FauNieto Soria A, FauSoria A, FauBurgess WH, et al. Isolation and biochemical characterization of the human Dkk-1 homologue, a novel inhibitor of mammalian Wnt signaling. J Biol Chem 1999;274(27):19465–72.
[26] Chartier C, Raval J, Axelrod F, et al. Therapeutic targeting of tumor-derived R-Spondin attenuates beta-catenin Signaling and tumorgenesis in multiple Cancer types. Cancer Res 2016;76(3):713–23.
[27] Kaneda H, Arai T, FauTanaka K, Tanaka K, FauTamura D, et al. FOXQ1 is overexpressed in colorectal cancer and enhances tumorigenicity and tumor growth. Cancer Res 2010;70(5):2053–61.
[28] Starr TK, Allaire R, KAT FauSilverstein, Silverstein K, FauStagg RA, et al. Ataxanospin-based genetic screen in mice identifies genes altered in colorectal cancer. Science 2009;323(5922):1747–50.
[29] Kalluri R, Weinberg RA. The basics of epithelial-mesenchymal transition. J Clin Invest 2009;119(6):1420–8.
[30] Thiery JP, Acloque H, RYV FauHuang, Huang R, FauNieto MA, Epithelial-mesenchymal transitions in development and disease. Cell 2009;139(5):871–90.
[31] Fischer KR, Durrans A, Lee S, et al. Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition is not required for lung metastasis but contributes to chemoresistance. Nature 2015;527(7579):472–6.
[32] Zheng X, Carstens JL, Kim J, et al. Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition is dispensable for metastasis but induces chemoresistance in pancreatic cancer. Nature 2015;527(7579):525–30.
[33] Yu M, Bardia A, FauWittner BS, FauStott SL. Circulating breast tumor cells exhibit dynamic changes in epithelial and mesenchymal composition. Science 2013;339(6123):1477–80.
[34] Kaneda H, Arao T, FauTanaka K, Tanaka K, FauTamura D, et al. FOXQ1 is overexpressed in colorectal cancer and enhances tumorigenicity and tumor growth. Cancer Res 2010;70(5):2053–61.
[35] Starr TK, Allaire R, KAT FauSilverstein, Silverstein K, FauStagg RA, et al. Ataxanospin-based genetic screen in mice identifies genes altered in colorectal cancer. Science 2009;323(5922):1747–50.
[36] Kalluri R, Weinberg RA. The basics of epithelial-mesenchymal transition. J Clin Invest 2009;119(6):1420–8.
[37] Thiery JP, Acloque H, RYV FauHuang, Huang R, FauNieto MA, Epithelial-mesenchymal transitions in development and disease. Cell 2009;139(5):871–90.
[38] Fischer KR, Durrans A, Lee S, et al. Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition is not required for lung metastasis but contributes to chemoresistance. Nature 2015;527(7579):472–6.
[39] Zheng X, Carstens JL, Kim J, et al. Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition is dispensable for metastasis but induces chemoresistance in pancreatic cancer. Nature 2015;527(7579):525–30.