

Δ Np63 is regulated by insulin/IGF-1 signaling in normal basal/progenitor mammary cells and in luminal-type breast cancer cells

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Breast cancers are a heterogeneous group of tumors classified according to their histological growth patterns and receptor expression characteristics. Intratumor heterogeneity also exists, with subpopulations of cells with different phenotypes found in individual cancers, including cells with stem or progenitor cell properties. At least two types of breast cancer stem cells (CSCs) exist, the epithelial and the basal/mesenchymal subtypes, although how these phenotypes are controlled is unknown. Δ Np63 is a basal cell marker and regulator of stem/progenitor cell activities in the normal mammary gland and is expressed in the basal-like CSC subpopulation in some estrogen receptor-positive (ER⁺) and/or human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-positive (HER2⁺) breast adenocarcinomas. Whilst p63 is known to directly impart CSC properties in luminal breast cancer cells, how p63 is regulated and induced in these cells is unknown. We initially confirmed the existence of a small subpopulation of Δ Np63⁺ cells in lymph node metastases of ER⁺ human ductal adenocarcinomas, indicating together with previous reports that Δ Np63⁺ tumor cells are present in approximately 40% of these metastases. Notably, Δ Np63⁺ cells show a preferential location at the edge of tumor areas, suggesting possible regulation of Δ Np63 by the tumor microenvironment. Subsequently, we showed that the high levels of Δ Np63 in basal non-transformed MCF-10A mammary epithelial cells rely on insulin in their culture medium, whilst Δ Np63 levels are increased in MCF-7 ER⁺ luminal-type breast cancer cells treated with insulin or insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1). Mechanistically, small molecule inhibitors and siRNA gene knockdown demonstrated that induction of Δ Np63 by IGF-1 requires PI3K, ERK1/2, and p38 MAPK activation, and acts through FOXO transcriptional inactivation. We also show that metformin inhibits Δ Np63 induction. These data reveal an IGF-mediated mechanism to control basal-type breast CSCs, with therapeutic implications to modify intratumor breast cancer cell heterogeneity and plasticity.

Key words: breast cancer stem cells; Δ Np63; insulin; IGF-1; tumor microenvironment

Δ Np63 is an oncogenic isoform of the p53-related transcription factor p63 and is essential for stem cell activities in many epithelial tissues [1, 2]. In particular, Δ Np63 is a marker of basal/myoepithelial cells in the mammary gland [3], where mammary stem/progenitor cells reside [4]. Expression of Δ Np63 in luminal cells is sufficient to induce a basal cell phenotype [5], and Δ Np63 promotes stem cell activities during mammary gland development and in tumors [6–8]. Within breast cancers, high levels of Δ Np63 are characteristic for the basal subtype of triple negative cancers [7–10], where these cancers typically contain 20–80% of p63⁺ cells [11, 12], and Δ Np63 acts to aid survival, proliferation, and migration,

activate epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) signaling, and recruit myeloid-derived suppressor cells to the tumor microenvironment [7, 13–16]. Δ Np63 is also sometimes found in a small population of cancer cells in human estrogen receptor-positive (ER⁺) or human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-positive (HER2⁺) luminal-type breast cancers [17, 18]. The phenotype of Δ Np63⁺ cells in luminal breast cancer is that of the “basal-like” or “mesenchymal-like” cancer stem cell (CSC) subtype, characterized by expression of CD44 or CD271 and lack of epithelial markers [17–19], contrasting with “epithelial-like” breast CSCs that were described as CD44⁻/CD271⁻ and ALDH⁺/milk mucin⁺ [17, 19]. These



two different types of CSC are also reported to show distinct locations, with epithelial CSCs seen mainly in the tumor body and basal CSCs at the tumor periphery [17–19].

Whilst previous studies have shown the presence of Δ Np63 in luminal ER⁺ breast cancers, and have demonstrated that Δ Np63 directly induces a CSC phenotype in these cells [8, 20, 21] (reviewed in [22]), how Δ Np63 is regulated in luminal ER⁺ tumor cells is unknown. Based on their location and the evidence that CSCs depend on their microenvironment (the CSC niche) [23–25], we hypothesized that stromal-derived factors may be responsible for inducing Δ Np63 in cells at the tumor/stroma interface. We identified insulin/insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1) as a major inducer of Δ Np63 in both non-transformed mammary basal progenitor cells (MCF-10A) and ER⁺/PR⁺/HER2⁻ luminal-A breast cancer cells (MCF-7). Small molecule inhibitors and siRNAs were used to delineate the regulatory pathway for Δ Np63 induction in luminal breast cancer cells, involving extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK)/mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) activity and forkhead box O (FOXO) signaling. These data implicate insulin/IGF-1 signaling as a modulator of breast cancer cell phenotypes with implications for therapeutic intervention.

Patients and methods

Human breast cancer samples. Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded blocks of axillary lymph nodes containing metastatic deposits of ER⁺ ductal breast carcinoma from 28 patients who were diagnosed and underwent surgery at the Masaryk Memorial Cancer Institute in Brno were retrieved. The use of lymph node metastases avoids the problem of identifying non-malignant Δ Np63⁺ myoepithelial cells that might be present surrounding the tumor in primary cancers—metastatic tumor deposits contain only the malignant cell population and are devoid of contaminating normal myoepithelium. Permission for the use of anonymized excess human tissues was approved by the Biobank of Clinical Samples at the Masaryk Memorial Cancer Institute following a local ethical committee review (NS/10357-3), and the study was performed in compliance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Cell culture. MCF-7 (ER⁺/PR⁺/HER2⁻) breast cancer cells were obtained from ATCC (Manassas, VA, USA; HTB-22) and maintained in high glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), 1% sodium pyruvate and penicillin/streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich). The authenticity of MCF-7 cells was verified by STR DNA profiling (Eurofins Genomics GmbH, Vienna, Austria).

Non-transformed MCF-10A cells (ATCC; CRL-10317) were used within less than 10 passages. MCF-10A cells are routinely cultured in serum-free mammary epithelial basal medium (MEBM) supplemented with SingleQuot mammary growth additives (insulin, EGF, bovine pituitary extract, and

hydrocortisone; Lonza, Slough, UK), where they retain a basal stem/progenitor cell phenotype [26].

Growth factor treatments. The supplements in MCF-10A culture comprise four individual components (insulin 5 μ g/ml; human epidermal growth factor (hEGF) 20 ng/ml; hydrocortisone 0.5 μ g/ml; bovine pituitary extract 0.2% (v/v)). To test the effect of each component, cells were grown in a medium that contained only three of the four supplements, and cells were assessed for p63 by immunohistochemistry after 24 h growth (i.e., MCF-10A cells were cultured in five different conditions, using complete medium or medium that lacked each individual growth factor but contained the other three growth factors at their standard concentrations). Based on the results obtained, MCF-7 cells were treated with insulin (5 μ g/ml) or IGF-1 (100 ng/ml; Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific) added to their standard growth medium (DMEM containing 10% FBS). Unless indicated otherwise, cells were collected for analysis 24 h after the addition of the growth factor.

Immunohistochemistry. Sections (4 μ m) of paraffin-embedded tumors were collected onto Superfrost Plus adhesive-coated microscope slides (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and dried overnight. Sections were dewaxed, rehydrated, and endogenous peroxidase was blocked in 3% hydrogen peroxide in PBS for 5 min. Antigen retrieval was performed by boiling in 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0 for 20 min. After cooling, sections were blocked in antibody diluent (Dako, Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and immunostained using a mouse monoclonal antibody specific for Δ Np63 (clone Δ Np63-1.1), an affinity-purified rabbit antibody (ENN-47) specific for Δ Np63, and a mouse monoclonal antibody recognizing all p63 isoforms but not recognizing p73 or p53 (clone PAN-p63-6.1) [14, 27]. Sections stained without primary antibody served as the negative controls. See Table S1 for antibody details. Primary antibodies were applied overnight at 4°C and antibody binding was detected with Envision horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-polymer anti-mouse or anti-rabbit reagents (Dako) and 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB+, Dako) as the chromogen.

For immunostaining of cells cultured in the presence or absence of growth factors, cells were plated onto sterile glass slides and allowed to attach and grow for 24 h before treatment and were analyzed 24 h after treatment. After the culture medium was aspirated, cells were immediately fixed and permeabilized in methanol/acetone (50/50) at -20°C for 10 min and allowed to dry. Cells were blocked in 3% BSA in PBS followed by overnight incubation at 4°C with primary antibodies that recognize all p63 isoforms (mouse monoclonal 4A4 or PAN-p63-6.1), or are specific to Δ Np63 isoforms (affinity-purified rabbit serum ENN-47 or mouse monoclonal Δ Np63-1.1) [14, 27] (see Supplementary Table S1 for details of primary antibodies). After washing three times in PBS, staining was detected with Envision HRP-polymer reagents (Dako) or ABC Elite peroxidase (Vector Laboratories, Peterborough, UK) for rabbit or mouse primary

antibodies, using DAB as the chromogen. The omission of the primary antibody was used as the negative control.

All slides were counterstained with hematoxylin, dehydrated, cleared, mounted in resin, and viewed under bright field light microscopy. Positive cells were manually counted using at least 10 high-power fields for each experimental replicate, and experiments were performed at least three times.

Flow cytometry. Cells were trypsinized and single-cell suspensions were fixed in 4% buffered formaldehyde for 15 min at room temperature, permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 min, blocked with 1% BSA in PBS, and incubated with p63 antibody (4A4; Dako) in blocking solution for 1 h at room temperature. After two washes in PBS, cells were incubated with DyLight488-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) for 1 h, washed in PBS, and resuspended in 500 μ l PBS. Fluorescence was measured using a FACSVerser flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, Berks, UK).

Small molecule inhibitors of insulin/IGF signaling. To define which components of the insulin/IGF-1 signaling pathway are involved in Δ Np63 induction in MCF-7 cells, we used low molecular weight inhibitors of phosphoinositide 3 kinase (PI3K) (50 μ M wortmannin; InvivoGen, Toulouse, France); mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) (10 μ M rapamycin; Enzo Life Sciences, Farmingdale, NY, USA and 10 μ M Ku-006379; BioVision, Milpitas, CA, USA); p38 MAP kinase (50 μ M SB202190; Sigma-Aldrich); ERK1/2 (50 μ M U0126; Tocris Bioscience, Bristol, UK), and a dual inhibitor of PI3K/mTOR kinases (10 μ M BEZ235; SelleckChem, Houston, TX, USA). Cells were treated simultaneously with 100 ng/ml IGF-1 and inhibitor (or with an equal volume of solute as control) for 24 h before collection. Antibodies to phosphorylated target proteins (Supplementary Table S1) were used to assess the efficiency of these inhibitors on their target pathways.

Cells were also treated with the biguanide metformin (Sigma-Aldrich) that targets the AMPK/mTOR pathway. For these experiments, freshly plated cells were cultured overnight in low glucose (1 mg/ml) DMEM (Sigma-Aldrich) containing 10% FBS, 1% sodium pyruvate, sodium bicarbonate, and penicillin/streptomycin. Cells were then exposed to 100 ng/ml IGF-1 with or without 2 mM metformin for 24 h in the same medium. We were also able to retrieve paraffin-embedded tissue blocks of a matched pair of mouse xenografts of MCF-7 tumors from a previous experiment in which one mouse received sucrose solution in their drinking water and the other received phenformin in sucrose solution [28]. Sections were stained for Δ Np63 and the numbers of positive cells were counted in at least 10 high-power magnification fields for each sample (see Supplementary Information for details).

siRNA inhibition of FOXO signaling. One million MCF-7 cells were resuspended in 100 μ l 4 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 120 mM NaH₂PO₄/Na₂HPO₄, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.2,

containing 400 nM siRNA specific to *FOXO1* or *FOXO3A*, or non-specific control siRNA using ON-TARGETplus SMART pools (Catalog numbers L-003006-00-0005; L-003007-00-0005; D-001810-OX, respectively; Horizon Discovery, Perkin-Elmer, Cambridge, UK; the sequences of these proprietary siRNAs are not provided by the supplier). Cells were transfected using electroporation (Amaxa Nucleofector II, Lonza, Basel, Switzerland) and allowed to grow for 24 h before IGF-1 addition, and were cultured for an additional 24 h before collection. Western blotting with FOXO antibodies (Supplementary Table S1) was used to assess the efficacy of the siRNAs on their targets.

Western blotting. Cells were lysed in NET buffer (150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 50 mM NaF, 5 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktails (Sigma-Aldrich). Protein concentrations were measured by Bradford assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Watford, UK) and equal amounts of protein were separated by SDS-PAGE and blotted onto nitrocellulose. Membranes were blocked in 5% non-fat milk in PBS containing 0.1% Tween-20 (PBST) and incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies diluted in a blocking solution. Following the supplier's recommendation, 5% BSA in TBST was used for blocking and antibody dilution for the detection of p-ERK1/2. Membranes were washed in PBST and PBS and incubated with HRP-conjugated swine anti-rabbit or rabbit anti-mouse (Dako) secondary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature. After further washes, blots were developed using enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL, Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Bucks, UK), quantified using Fiji [29], and normalized to loading controls in the same sample (see Supplementary Table S1 for antibody details).

Reverse-transcription and quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). Total RNA was isolated using RNeasy (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) or TRIzol (Invitrogen) and converted into cDNA using random primers and RevertAid H Minus Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific). SYBR Green MasterMix (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) was used for amplification and quantification in an ABI 7900HT Fast Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). RT-qPCR was performed in technical triplicates and the experiments were repeated twice to provide three biological replicates. Relative quantification of mRNA was determined based on $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ using *ACTB* (β -actin) or *GAPDH* as a control. Primers were obtained from Geni Biotech (Hradec Kralove, Czech Republic; Supplementary Table S2) or as QuantiTect Primer Assay (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) for *GAPDH*.

Statistical tests. Statistical tests were performed using VassarStats (<https://VassarStats.net/>). After confirming the normality of data distributions using Shapiro-Wilk tests, unpaired 2-tailed t-tests were employed for comparing cell line immunostaining, FACS, and RT-qPCR data. Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyze xenograft data due to the uneven and non-random distribution of Δ Np63 staining *in vivo*. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM.

Results

Δ Np63 is present in a small subpopulation of tumor cells adjacent to the stroma in ER+ breast cancer metastases. Δ Np63 is known to be highly expressed in the basal (BL2) subtype of triple-negative breast cancer, where p63⁺ cells

generally constitute a high percentage (10–80%) of the tumor cell population and show a random distribution of positive cells throughout the tumor [7, 10–12]. Previous studies have shown the presence of Δ Np63⁺ tumor cells in a proportion of human luminal breast cancers, where these cells represent basal-like breast CSCs (positive for CD44 or CD271; negative

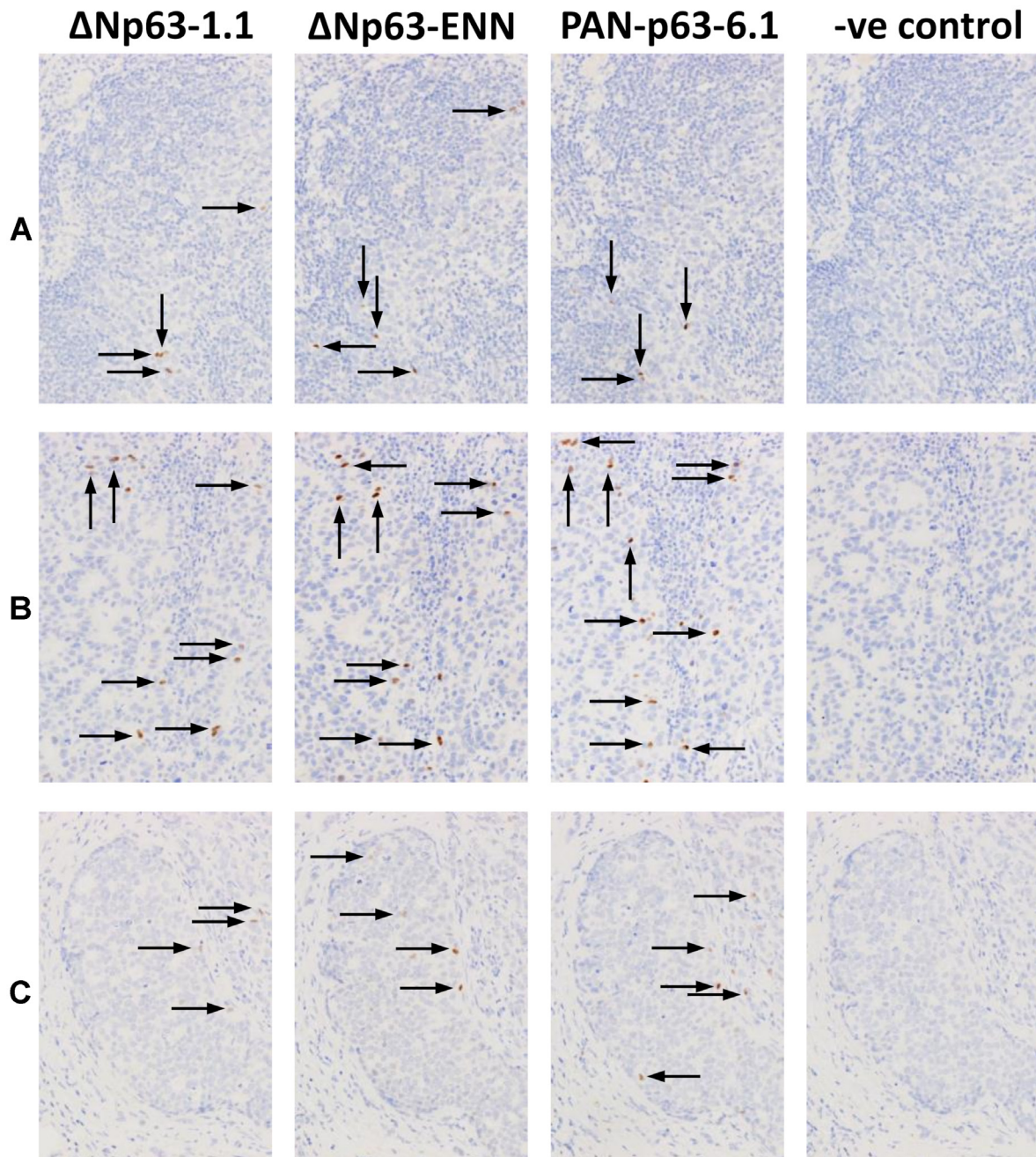


Figure 1. Δ Np63 is present in a population of metastatic breast cancer cells adjacent to the tumor stroma. A–C) Examples of lymph node metastases of primary human luminal-type (ER⁺/HER2⁻) breast cancers from three different patients. Consecutive sections were stained using two different antibodies specific for Δ Np63 (Δ Np63-1.1 and ENN-47), and an antibody for total p63 (PAN-p63-6.1). A negative control section where the primary antibody was omitted is also shown. Positive staining is seen as a brown color in the nucleus, and nuclei are counterstained blue with hematoxylin. Examples of p63⁺ cells are indicated by arrows.

for ER and EMA or milk mucin) [17, 18]. Because $\Delta Np63$ is expressed in normal basal/myoepithelial cells that may be present as a discontinuous layer surrounding the edges of primary breast cancers [3, 30], we initially confirmed the presence of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells in local lymph node metastatic deposits, in which contaminating non-malignant basal cells will not be present. Immunohistochemistry from 28 patients with ER⁺/HER2⁻ breast cancer showed a small population of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells in eight (29%) cases (Figures 1A–1C). These results confirm and extend previous observations of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells [18] and CD271⁺/ $\Delta Np63^+$ cells [17] in luminal breast cancer. Combining the current results with data from the previous reports shows that the incidence of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells in ER⁺/HER2⁻ breast cancer metastasis is 39% (32 of 81 samples contain a subpopulation of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells, see Supplementary Table S3 for details and statistical analysis). Notably, $\Delta Np63^+$ basal-like breast CSCs commonly show a distinct location at the edge of tumor cell islands adjacent to the tissue stroma (Figures 1A–1C), suggesting that paracrine effects of the tumor microenvironment may be involved.

Insulin regulates $\Delta Np63$ in basal mammary cells and luminal-type breast cancer cells. When grown as monolayers in their standard growth conditions, non-transformed MCF-10A cells are bi-potential progenitor basal mammary epithelial cells that express high levels of $\Delta Np63\alpha$ [26, 31], and MCF-7 cells are an ER⁺/PR⁺/HER2⁻ luminal A breast adenocarcinoma cell line with very low $\Delta Np63$ levels [17, 18, 20, 21]. Immunohistochemistry using isoform-specific $\Delta Np63$ antibodies showed that 4% of MCF-7 cells were p63⁺, compared to more than 50% of MCF-10A cells in their standard growth medium (Figure 2A). We previously reported that growing MCF-7 cells as mammospheres in suspension culture (which selects for CSCs) increased the number of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells [18]. Since the culture medium used for mammosphere production is similar to that of the MCF-10A culture medium (serum-free medium containing the same exogenous growth factors), we tested whether any of these additives are responsible for the different levels of $\Delta Np63$ in MCF-7 and MCF-10A cells in monolayer culture. MCF-10A cells grown in medium lacking insulin showed a more than 3-fold reduction in the percentage of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells (mean = 55.52% of 2,833 cells scored in the control vs. 17.54% of 3,149 cells without insulin; $p < 0.001$), whereas removing other SingleQuote constituents did not affect the percentage of $\Delta Np63^+$ MCF-10A cells. Conversely, adding insulin at the same concentration to MCF-7 cells increased the proportion of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells by more than 6-fold (mean = 3.94% of 3,533 cells counted in control MCF-7 vs. 25.10% of 1,913 cells after insulin addition; $p < 0.001$) (Figure 2B).

RT-qPCR showed that $\Delta Np63$ and $p63\alpha$ mRNAs are the predominant isoforms in both MCF-7 and MCF-10A cells, as previously reported [18, 21, 31]. In agreement with immunostaining data, MCF-10A cells had higher levels of $\Delta Np63$ and $p63\alpha$ mRNAs than MCF-7 under their recommended culture media (Supplementary Figure S1). The absence of insulin

from MCF-10A culture medium decreased $\Delta Np63$ and $p63\alpha$ mRNAs to 33% to 40% of their original levels ($p < 0.05$ for $\Delta Np63$ and $p < 0.001$ for $p63\alpha$). In contrast, adding insulin to MCF-7 cells increased these mRNAs by 4 to 5-fold ($p < 0.01$ for $\Delta Np63$) (Figure 2C).

IGF-1 regulates $\Delta Np63$ in MCF-7 cells. The level of insulin used to culture MCF-10A cells stimulates both the insulin receptor and the IGF receptors [32]. Therefore, we tested whether IGF-1 also regulates $\Delta Np63$ in a similar manner. Western blotting and RT-qPCR showed that IGF-1 increased $\Delta Np63$ protein and mRNA levels in MCF-7 cells after 24 h (Figures 3A, 3B). Flow cytometry also indicated a more than 3-fold increase in the number of p63⁺ MCF-7 cells after 24 h treatment with IGF-1 ($p < 0.001$) (Figures 3C, 3D). Time course experiments showed that the rise in $\Delta Np63$ levels was first visible within 4 h of IGF-1 treatment and continued to increase up to 24 h (Figure 3E).

Upregulation of $\Delta Np63$ by IGF-1 requires PI3K/MAPK activity. Inhibitors of IGF-1-regulated pathways were used to identify the signaling cascade(s) involved in $\Delta Np63$ induction in MCF-7 cells, with the effectiveness of inhibitors assessed by phospho-specific antibodies to the relevant targets. Wortmannin, an inhibitor of PI3K, blocked AKT activation and prevented $\Delta Np63$ induction. Rapamycin, an inhibitor of mTORC1, reduced the levels of p-p70 S6K, as did the dual mTORC1/2 inhibitor Ku-006379, but these compounds did not reduce $\Delta Np63$ following IGF-1 treatment. IGF-1 induction of $\Delta Np63$ was prevented by SB202190 (p38 MAPK inhibitor) and U0126 (MEK1/2 inhibitor). The dual PI3K/mTOR inhibitor BEZ235 reduced both p-AKT and p-ERK1/2 and inhibited $\Delta Np63$ protein induction by IGF-1 (Figure 4A). RT-qPCR demonstrated increased $\Delta Np63$ mRNA levels in MCF-7 cells after 24 h IGF-1 treatment, which was reduced to basal levels in the presence of wortmannin. Inhibition of p38 MAP kinase or ERK1/2 activity by SB202190 or U0126 also decreased $\Delta Np63$ mRNA to lower than basal levels in the presence of these inhibitors and IGF-1, whilst BEZ235 inhibited $\Delta Np63$ mRNA induction after IGF-1 by 50%, and rapamycin and Ku-006379 had no effect (Figure 4B).

FOXO and metformin/phenformin inhibit $\Delta Np63$ induction by IGF-1. The FOXO family of transcription factors are key transcriptional regulators of insulin/IGF-1 signaling and are repressed by growth factor-mediated phosphorylation and cytoplasmic retention [33, 34]. FOXOs have been shown to regulate $\Delta Np63$ transcription, with roles reported for FOXO1 in keratinocytes and for FOXO3a but not FOXO1 in breast and squamous cells [35, 36]. Using siRNAs to *FOXO1* or *FOXO3*, we showed that the siRNA pools were specific and effective at reducing their target proteins, FOXO1 or FOXO3a, with a higher level of knock-down achieved by *FOXO3* than *FOXO1* siRNA (Figure 5A, Supplementary Figures S2, S3). In our experiments, siRNAs to these FOXO members did not reduce $\Delta Np63$ in IGF-1-treated MCF-7 cells but instead caused a 1.5-fold to 1.6-fold

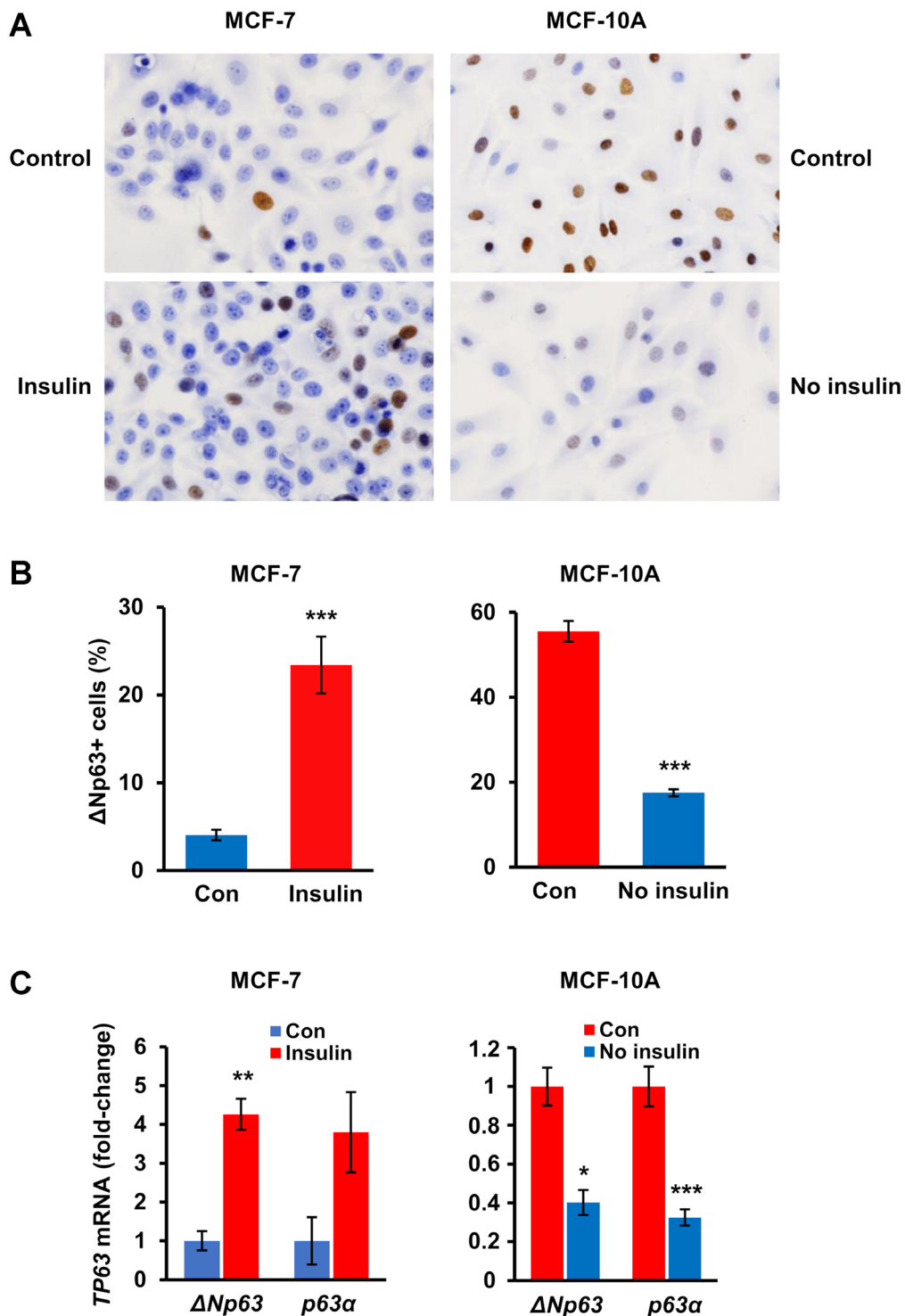


Figure 2. $\Delta Np63$ protein and mRNA levels are regulated by insulin in non-transformed MCF-10A and transformed MCF-7 cells. A) Immunostaining for $\Delta Np63$ in MCF-7 or MCF10-A cells cultured in the presence or absence of insulin in their growth medium. Positive staining is seen as a brown color and nuclei are stained blue with hematoxylin. B) Mean percentages of $\Delta Np63^+$ cells identified by immunohistochemistry and C) RT-qPCR of *TP63* mRNA (*$\Delta Np63$* and *p63 α* isoforms) in MCF-10A and MCF-7 cells. Cells were grown as monolayers in their standard growth conditions (Con) and in the absence of insulin (for MCF-10A) or in the presence of added insulin (for MCF-7 cells). Blue bars show cells grown in the absence of insulin and red bars show cells grown in the presence of insulin. mRNA data are shown as the fold-change in mRNA levels for *$\Delta Np63$* and *p63 α* normalized to *GAPDH* mRNA, with control cells set as a value of 1. Error bars show SEM (n = 3 biological replicates) *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001; t-test, control vs. test samples.

increase (Figure 5A). Since the insulin/IGF-1 pathway is intimately connected with cellular metabolism, we also investigated whether metformin influenced IGF-1 signaling to Δ Np63. For these experiments, MCF-7 cells were grown for 24 h in low-glucose medium. IGF-1 increased Δ Np63 protein and mRNA under these conditions, and the increases were reduced by metformin, with a larger effect seen on the protein level and a lower and non-statistically significant fall in mRNA (Figures 5B, 5C). In a preliminary *in vivo* investigation using MCF-7 mouse xenografts available from a previous study [28], the similar biguanide molecule, phenformin, reduced the number of Δ Np63⁺ cells in the single matched xenograft available for study, suggesting an *in vivo* effect similar to the *in vitro* effect (Supplementary Figure S4). More experiments will be required to confirm and delineate the mechanism of this effect.

Discussion

The CSC hypothesis proposes that tumors contain mixed populations of malignant cells that exhibit varying degrees of differentiation, including cells with stem or progenitor cell properties. According to this theory, CSCs are responsible for maintaining tumor growth, promoting therapy resistance, and initiating metastasis [24, 37]. In breast cancer, different CSC markers identify distinct cell populations [17, 19, 38] and at least two separate CSC subtypes exist, in which p63/CD271 or CD44 are markers of the basal subtype, and ALDH activity or milk mucin production are markers of the epithelial subtype [17, 18, 39]. It is also known that tumor cell phenotypes are not hard-wired, and phenotypic plasticity is an acknowledged feature of the CSC hypothesis, including the effects of the microenvironment [23–25, 39].

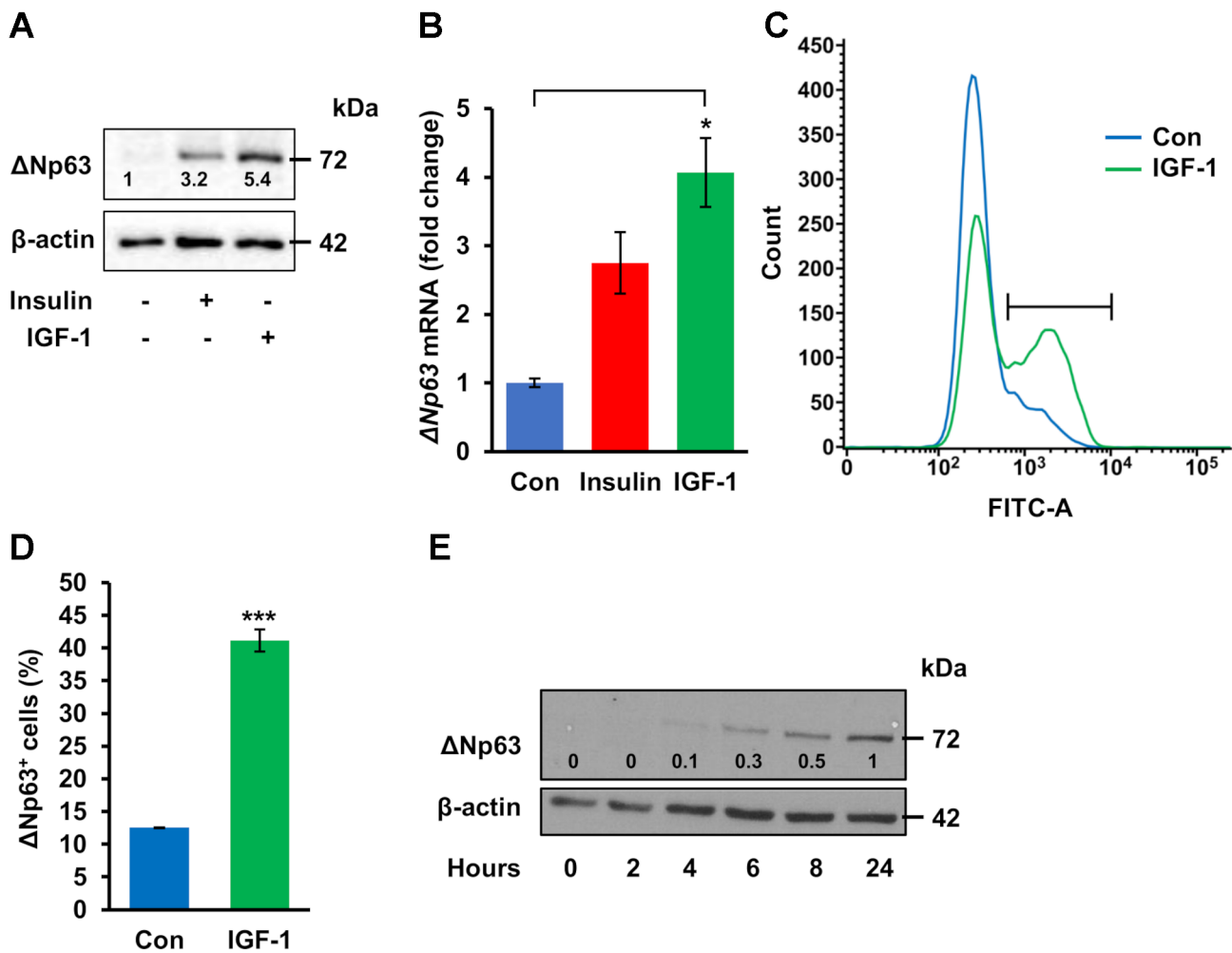


Figure 3. IGF-1 induces Δ Np63 in MCF-7 cells. A) Western blot of Δ Np63 protein and B) RT-qPCR of Δ Np63 mRNA in MCF-7 cells treated with 5 μ g/ml insulin or 100 ng/ml IGF-1 for 24 h. Control cells (Con) were grown in the same medium without additional growth factors (* p <0.05). Relative Δ Np63 protein and mRNA levels were normalized against β -actin. C) Representative flow cytometry of MCF-7 cells grown under standard conditions or in the presence of 100 ng/ml IGF-1. D) Mean percentages of Δ Np63⁺ cells derived from flow cytometry (** p <0.001). E) Western blotting of Δ Np63 in MCF-7 cells exposed to 100 ng/ml IGF-1 for the indicated times. β -actin served as a loading control. Numbers under the bands in western blots show the relative amount of Δ Np63 after normalization to the loading control and represent the mean values of replicate experiments.

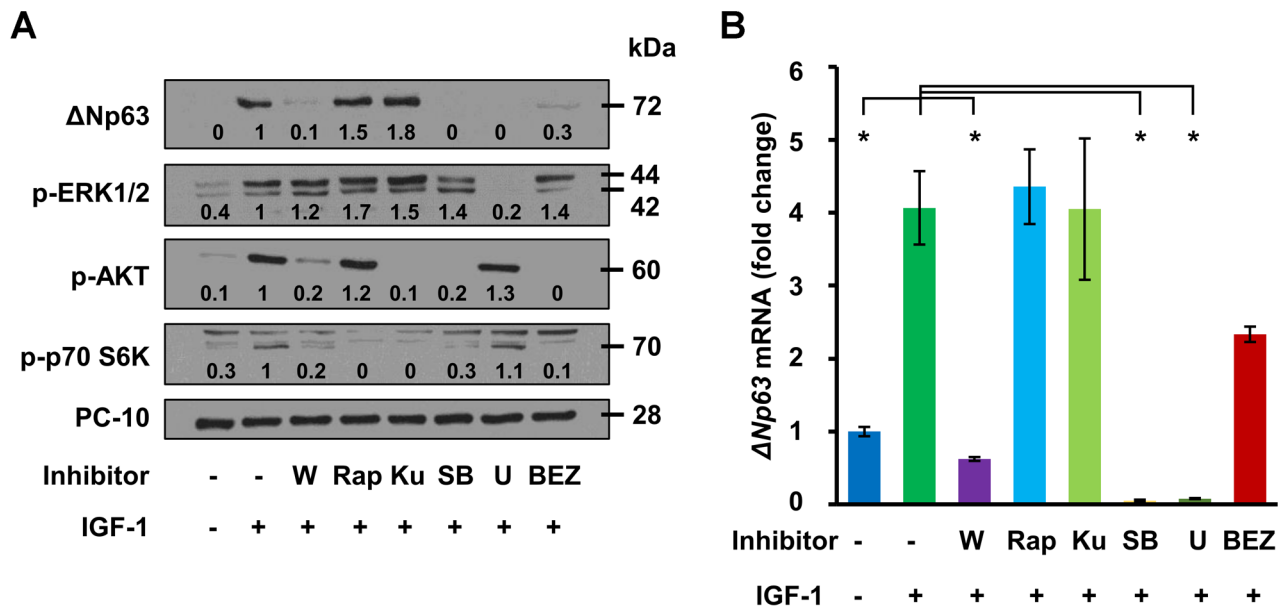


Figure 4. IGF-1 induction of Δ Np63 is dependent on PI3K and MAPK. A) Western blotting of control MCF-7 cells, cells treated with IGF-1, or cells treated with IGF-1 plus the indicated small molecule inhibitors. All cells were treated for 24 h. Numbers below bands refer to the relative levels of each protein normalized to PC-10 as a loading control, where IGF-1 treated cells without inhibitor are used as the comparator (value = 1.0). These numbers represent the mean of replicate experiments. Wortmannin (W), rapamycin (Rap), Ku-006379 (Ku), SB202190 (SB), U0126 (U), and BEZ235 (BEZ) were used as pathway inhibitors. Control blots for p-ERK1/2, p-AKT, p-p70 S6K as targets of the inhibitors are also shown. The addition of DMSO served as a negative control for inhibitors. Numbers under the bands in Western blots show the relative amount of Δ Np63 after normalization to the loading control and represent the mean values of replicate experiments. B) RT-qPCR for Δ Np63 mRNA in MCF-7 cells treated as above (* $p < 0.05$). p-ERK1/2, phosphorylated ERK1/2; p-AKT, phosphorylated AK strain transforming (also known as protein kinase B); p-p70 S6K, phosphorylated 70 kDa ribosomal protein S6 kinase.

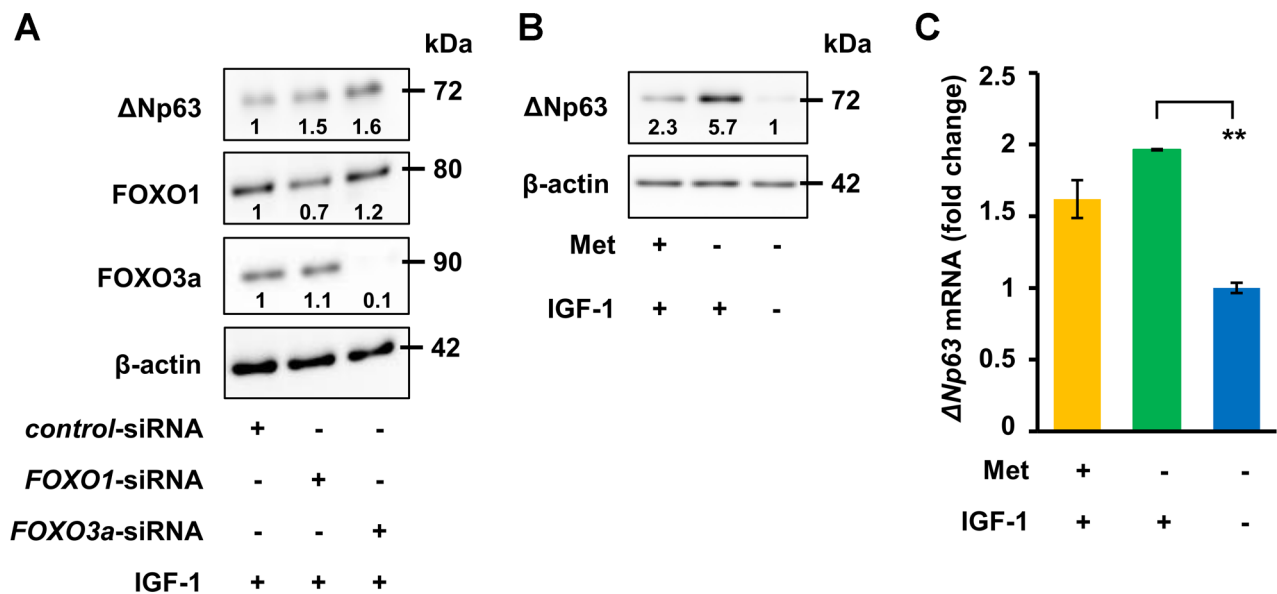


Figure 5. IGF-1 induction of Δ Np63 involves FOXO and is decreased by biguanides. A) Western blot of Δ Np63 in MCF-7 cells transfected with control, FOXO1 or FOXO3a siRNAs. FOXO protein levels are shown to indicate the efficiency of siRNA-mediated target inhibition relative to control siRNA, and Δ Np63 and FOXO protein levels are normalized to β -actin. B) Western blot and C) RT-qPCR of Δ Np63 levels in MCF-7 cells cultured in low-glucose medium with or without IGF-1 and metformin (Met). Relative Δ Np63 protein and mRNA levels were normalized against β -actin and are shown as mean values from replicate experiments (** $p < 0.01$).

Here, we investigated growth factors that potentially induce p63 in luminal ER⁺ breast cancers, where p63 is known to directly impart CSC properties. The current and previous data [17, 18] indicate that Δ Np63⁺ basal-like CSCs are present in about 40% of ER⁺/HER2⁻ breast cancers. These cells show a distinctive distribution at the tumor/stroma interface, which prompted us to investigate microenvironmental factors that may regulate Δ Np63. Using non-transformed MCF-10A mammary epithelial cells, which have high Δ Np63 levels under their normal growth conditions that maintain the undifferentiated bi-potential progenitor phenotype [18, 21, 31], we discovered that insulin is required to maintain Δ Np63 in these cells. Similarly, the addition of insulin to MCF-7 ER⁺/HER2⁻ luminal breast cancer cells increased Δ Np63 protein and mRNA levels, and IGF-1 caused a similar upregulation of Δ Np63. In particular, because IGF-1 is produced by breast fibroblasts present in the tumor stroma [40, 41], these findings implicate paracrine IGF signaling as one factor responsible for the upregulation of Δ Np63 in cells at the tumor/stroma interface. This notion is also in keeping with the effects of IGF signaling on promoting luminal progenitor and basal cell phenotypes in experimental breast cancers [42]. In addition to IGF, a variety of growth factors, cytokines, and cell adhesion molecules are all able to regulate Δ Np63 in cell-context-dependent manners (reviewed in [1, 2]), including IGF-1 or EGF induction of Δ Np63 in squamous epithelium [43–45]. On the other hand, Wnt signaling and STAT5 are reported to repress Δ Np63 in the mammary gland [5, 46], and p63 transcription is negatively regulated by methylation at the *TAp63* and/or *Δ Np63* gene promoters to silence transcription of each isoform independently in individual epithelial cell types [47, 48]. Similarly, epigenetic histone modifications at *Δ Np63* gene enhancers and binding of epigenome readers such as Brd4 determine transcription in a lineage-dependent manner in mammary epithelial cells [49, 50]. Thus, it is probable that insulin/IGF-1 is neither the sole regulator of Δ Np63 in mammary epithelium nor is it sufficient to induce Δ Np63 in luminal breast cancer cells in all situations.

We also investigated the biochemical mechanism involved in p63 regulation by insulin/IGF in breast cancer cells, to identify potential targets to intercept this pathway. Insulin/IGF-1 signaling may act through a PI3K-dependent pathway involving AKT and mTOR, and/or through Ras/MEK/ERK/MAPK or JAK/STAT pathways [51, 52]. We identified that IGF-1 induction of Δ Np63 in MCF-7 cells is dependent on PI3K and ERK/MAPK, in keeping with previous data that p38 MAPK regulates Δ Np63 in other cell types [53, 54]. Conversely, the observations that Δ Np63 regulates p38 MAPK and ERK signaling pathways [55, 56] imply the existence of complex self-regulatory feedback loops, a common finding in p63 regulation [2]. Insulin/IGF-1 and other growth factors that signal through PI3K/AKT/mTOR and MAPK/ERK negatively regulate the FOXO

family of transcription factors by their phosphorylation and cytoplasmic retention, and the FOXO transcription factors play central roles in normal stem cells and in cancer but may show opposite effects depending on the cellular context [33, 34]. Thus, our findings that FOXO inhibition induces Δ Np63 are in keeping with increased Δ Np63 after growth factor treatment and the dependency of Δ Np63 on PI3K/mTOR signaling (current data and [43–45]). However, growth factor signaling has also been reported to decrease Δ Np63 in some situations through FOXO1 or FOXO3a [35, 50], which may relate to the cell-type specific functional effects of IGF-1 signaling on stem/progenitor cells in different breast cancer subtypes [57] and/or to the different duration and intensity of PI3K activation used in the different experimental settings (reviewed in [2]). Further studies of IGF dose and time course responses, and further delineation of FOXO effects will be required.

Finally, metformin has been shown to inhibit IGF-1 signaling in breast cancer, including inhibition of ERK1/2 activation [58, 59], and to downregulate Δ Np63 in squamous cell carcinoma cells [45]. We found that metformin inhibited IGF-1-mediated Δ Np63 induction in MCF-7 cells, further supporting the proposal that growth factor signaling pathways upregulate Δ Np63 in these luminal-type breast cancer cells. In these experiments, metformin decreased Δ Np63 protein levels to a higher extent than the mRNA levels, which is compatible with metformin acting to promote Δ Np63 protein ubiquitination and degradation in the proteasome [61]. Further experimental work will be required to delineate the precise mechanism by which metformin reduces Δ Np63 levels in mammary carcinoma cells. We also show preliminary data that the similar biguanide, phenformin, reduces Δ Np63 in MCF-7 xenografts *in vivo*. However, the effects of metformin in cancer patients are complex and involve modulation by metabolites produced by the stroma, as well as the direct effects on tumor cells [61, 62]. In addition, metformin added to standard therapeutic regimes prolongs invasive disease-free survival in HER2⁺ breast cancer patients but not ER⁺/HER2⁻ patients [63], suggesting that metformin has a more prominent effect in breast cancers that rely on growth factor receptor activation as their main oncogenic process.

There are limitations to our study, including the use of single cell line examples of luminal-type breast cancer (MCF-7) and of non-malignant basal progenitor cells (MCF-10A). Although these are typical examples of these cell types, it will be important to verify the commonality of our results. The availability of additional xenografts and other models, including patient-derived xenografts and organoids, will also be useful to investigate the reliability of our findings for breast cancer patients, including HER2⁺ and triple-negative cancers. Although we concentrated on the role of Δ Np63 due to its expression as the sole isoform in the cells studied, it will also be important to analyze additional p63 isoforms to investigate the precise variants

present, which may differ in different circumstances. Notwithstanding these limitations, our data clearly indicate a role for insulin/IGF as an important regulator of the breast basal CSC marker Δ Np63 in at least some clinically relevant situations.

In conclusion, we demonstrate that Δ Np63 is regulated by insulin/IGF-1 in both non-transformed mammary basal epithelial cells and MCF-7 luminal breast cancer cells, indicating IGF signaling as a potential regulator of intratumor phenotypic heterogeneity within luminal breast cancers. Dissection of the signaling components indicated a PI3K- and MAPK/ERK-dependent pathway involving FOXO repression, with relevance for therapeutic interference. Importantly, we also show that biguanides inhibit Δ Np63 induction by IGF, a finding that is likely to be involved in their clinical effects on the prophylaxis and treatment of human breast cancer.

Supplementary information is available in the online version of the paper.

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Δ Np63 is regulated by insulin/IGF-1 signaling in normal basal/progenitor mammary cells and in luminal-type breast cancer cells

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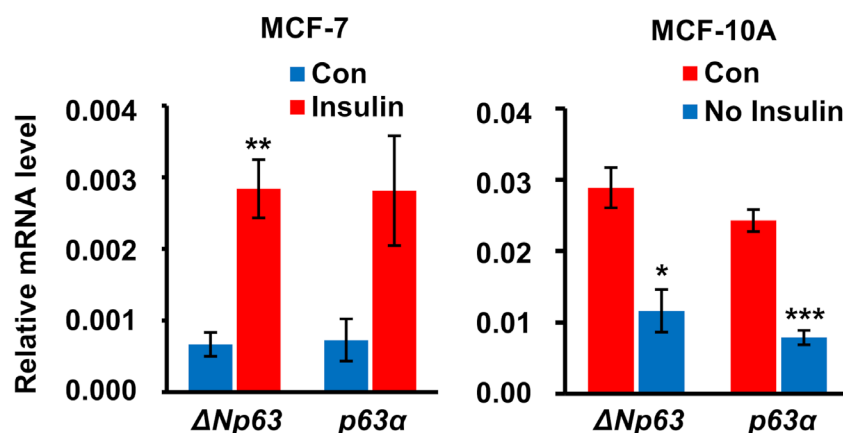
Supplementary Information

MCF-7 xenografts. A matched pair of formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded MCF-7 xenograft tissues from mice treated with the biguanide phenformin or control untreated mice were available from a previous study [1]. Animal procedures had been carried out under project licenses No. 60/3405 and 60/3729 after local ethical review and according to the guidelines of the UKCCCR. In brief, female NU/NU nude mice with established xenografts had been provided with water containing 300 mg/kg phenformin and 5% sucrose for palatability, or with 5% sucrose water only. In accordance with the recommended UKCCCR procedure guidelines, animals were killed by exposure to rising concentrations of carbon dioxide (20% chamber volume displacement/minute), confirmed by lack of respiration and cardiac arrest. Xenograft tumors were excised, fixed in formalin and processed to paraffin wax. Due to previous

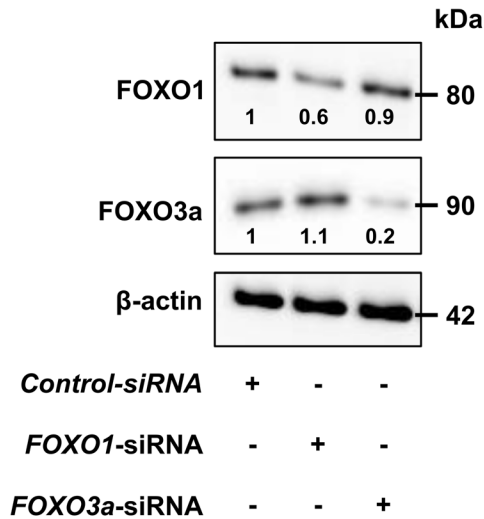
use of these tissues, only a single treated and concurrent control tumor xenograft were available for study. Fresh sections of xenografts (4 μ m) were collected onto adhesive slides and air-dried overnight. Sections were dewaxed and rehydrated before blocking endogenous peroxidase and antigen retrieval by boiling in 1mM EDTA for 20 min. After cooling and washing in PBS, sections were blocked in Dako blocking buffer before incubation in affinity purified rabbit anti- Δ Np63 antibody (ENN47) overnight and detection with HRP-polymer secondary reagents (Dako, Agilent, Santa Clara, California, USA). Sections were counterstained with hematoxylin, dehydrated and mounted in resin. Positive cells were counted in at least 10 independent high-power fields for each xenograft. Due to the uneven and non-random distribution of Δ Np63 staining *in vivo*, the Mann-Whitney U test was used for statistical analysis.

Reference

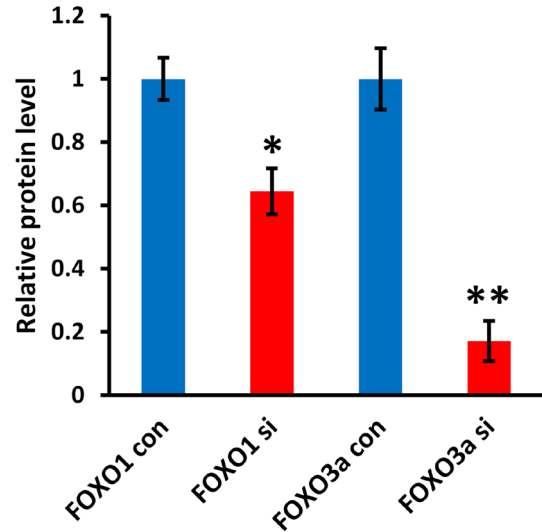
- [1] APPELYARD MVCL, MURRAY KE, COATES PJ, WULSCHLEGER S, BRAY SE et al. Phenformin as prophylaxis and therapy in breast cancer xenografts. *Br J Cancer* 2012; 106: 1117–1122. <https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.2012.56>



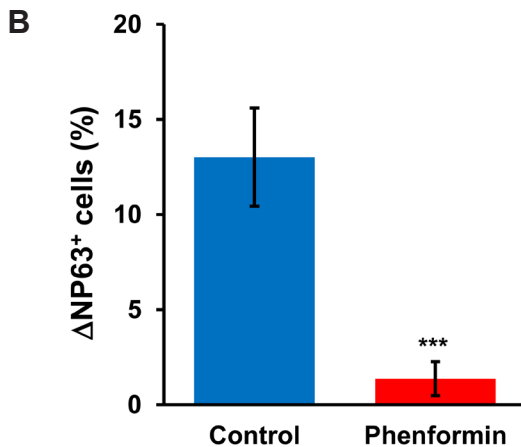
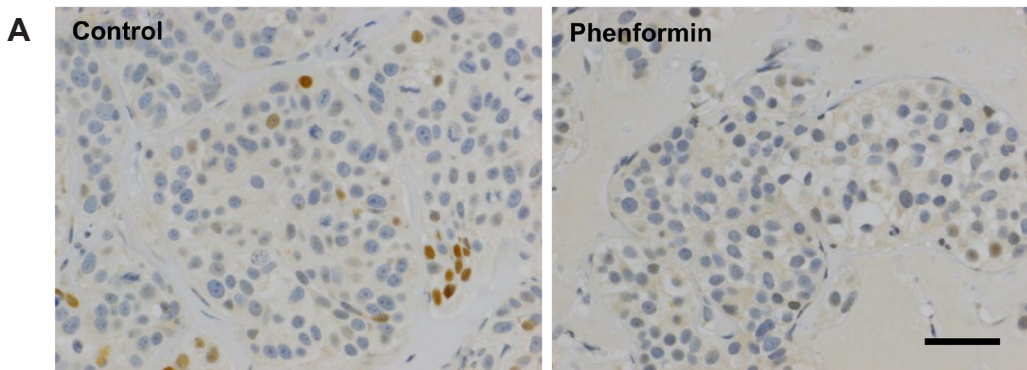
Supplementary Figure S1. RT-qPCR of p63 mRNA levels. The graphs show the mean levels of TP63 mRNAs (Δ Np63 and p63 α) in MCF-7 and MCF-10A cells with (red bars) or without insulin (blue bars) in their culture medium. The y axis shows the mRNA level normalized to GAPDH, which is set at 1.0. Error bars represent sem. Note that the y axes have different scales reflecting the different levels of p63 in the two cell lines. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001, two-tailed t-test.



Supplementary Figure S2. Efficiency and specificity of FOXO siRNAs. MCF7 cells were transfected with *control* siRNA or siRNA pools targeting either FOXO1 or FOXO3a. Western blotting for FOXO1 and FOXO3a was performed using cells collected 48 h after transfection. β-actin was used as loading control.



Supplementary Figure S3. Statistical analysis of FOXO siRNA effects on their targets. As in Figure 5, MCF7 cells were transfected with *control* siRNA, FOXO1 siRNA, or FOXO3a siRNA, and then treated with IGF for 24 h. Densitometry was performed to measure the levels of FOXO proteins, normalized to β-actin. The levels of FOXO1 or FOXO3a in cells transfected with *control* siRNA are set to 1. Error bars represent SEM. *p=0.0235; **p=0.0034; two-tailed t-test (n=3).



Supplementary Figure S4. ΔNp63 is reduced by biguanides in MCF-7 xenografts. A) Representative images of ΔNp63 immunohistochemical staining of MCF-7 xenografts from mice treated with phenformin (Phen) or untreated (Con). B) Quantitation of ΔNp63 immunohistochemistry on MCF-7 xenografts. ***p<0.001 (two-tailed Mann-Whitney U-test).

Supplementary Table S1. Primary antibodies.

Antigen	Species/type	Supplier ¹	Name
$\Delta Np63$	Mouse monoclonal	In-house	$\Delta Np63$ -1.1
$\Delta Np63$	Affinity purified rabbit polyclonal	In-house	ENN-47
p63	Mouse monoclonal	In-house	PAN-p63-6.1
FOXO1	Rabbit monoclonal	CST	C2DH4
FOXO3a	Rabbit monoclonal	CST	D19A7
p-AKT (Ser473)	Rabbit monoclonal	CST	736E11
p-ERK1/2	Rabbit monoclonal	CST	20G11
p-p70 S6K (Thr389)	Affinity purified rabbit polyclonal	CST	9205
β -actin ²	Mouse monoclonal	SC	C4
PCNA ²	Mouse monoclonal	In-house	PC10

¹CST-Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA; SC-Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA
²used as loading controls (please see <https://blog.cellsignal.com/choosing-a-western-blot-loading-control-cst-blog>; <https://www.ptglab.com/news/blog/loading-control-antibodies-for-western-blotting/>; <https://www.abcam.com/products?keywords=loading%20controls&selected.classification=Primary+antibodies>; <https://www.sigmaldrich.com/technical-documents/technical-article/protein-biology/western-blotting/loading-controls-western-blotting>)

Supplementary Table S2. Primer sequences qPCR. Sequences are given 5'-3'.

Isoform	Forward primer	Reverse primer
$\Delta Np63$	AGCCAGAAGAAAGGACAGCA	TCCTAAATTGAGTCTGGGCAT
<i>TAp63</i>	GTCCCAGAGCACACAGACAA	TAGCATGGACTGTATCCGCA
<i>p63α</i>	GAGGTGGGCTGTTTCATCAT	GAGGAGAATTCGTGGAGCTG
<i>p63β</i>	AACGCCCTCACTCCTACAAC	GCCAGATCCTGACAATGCTG
<i>p63γ</i>	GAAACGTACAGGCAACAGCA	GAAACGTACAGGCAACAGCA
<i>ACTB</i>	GCCGACAGGATGCAGAAGGAG	CTAGAAGCATTTCGCGTGGAC

Supplementary Table S3. Numbers of ER⁺ breast cancer metastases containing (Positive) or not containing (Negative) a subpopulation of $\Delta Np63$ -positive cells. Data are taken from the current study and two previous studies.

References	Total	Positive	Negative	Percent positive
Kim et al 2012	32	17	15	53%
Liu et al 2020	22	7	15	32%
Current study	28	8	20	29%
Total	82	32	50	39%

p=0.11; Chi-square test

References

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- LIU Y, NEKULOVA M, NENUTIL R, HORAKOVA I, APPLE-YARD MV et al. $\Delta Np63/p40$ correlates with the location and phenotype of basal/mesenchymal cancer stem-like cells in human ER⁺ and HER2⁺ breast cancers. *J Pathol Clin Res* 2020; 6: 83-93. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cjp2.149>