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Loss of transforming growth factor beta type II receptor increases aggressive tumor behavior and reduces survival in lung adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma

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Abstract

Purpose—Lung adenocarcinoma (AdC) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) are the most common non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) subtypes. This study was designed to determine whether reduced expression of transforming growth factor β type II receptor (TGF β RII) promotes lung AdC and SCC carcinogenesis.

Experimental Design—We examined TGF β RII expression at the protein and mRNA levels in human NSCLC samples and assessed the relationship between TGF β RII expression and clinicopathologic parameters. To determine if sporadic TGF β RII deletion in airway epithelial cells induces NSCLC formation, we targeted TGF β RII deletion alone and in combination with oncogenic Kras^{G12D} to murine airways using a keratin 5 (K5) promoter and inducible Cre recombinase.

Results—Reduced TGF β RII expression in human NSCLC is associated with male gender, smoking, SCC histology, reduced differentiation, increased tumor stage, increased nodal metastasis, and reduced survival. Homozygous or heterozygous TGF β RII deletion in mouse airway epithelia increases the size and number of Kras^{G12D}-initiated AdC and SCC. TGF β RII deletion increases proliferation, local inflammation, and TGF β ligand elaboration; TGF β RII knockdown in airway epithelial cells increases migration and invasion.

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Conclusions—Reduced TGF β RII expression in human NSCLC is associated with more aggressive tumor behavior and inflammation that is at least partially mediated by increased TGF β 1 expression. TGF β RII deletion in mouse airway epithelial cells promotes AdC and SCC formation, indicating that TGF β RII loss plays a causal role in lung carcinogenesis. That TGF β RII demonstrates haploid insufficiency, suggests that a 50% TGF β RII protein reduction would negatively impact lung cancer prognosis.

Keywords

lung adenocarcinoma; lung squamous cell carcinoma; TGF β ; tumor progression; mouse model

Introduction

Although over 175,000 cases of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) are diagnosed annually in the United States, the five-year survival rate remains less than 20% (1). Lung adenocarcinoma (AdC) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) are the most common histologic subtypes and although most (~85%) lung cancer is smoking related, lung SCC is more strongly associated with smoking exposure (2). It is hypothesized that lung AdC arises from the distal airway epithelial progenitor (3), while lung SCC arises from the keratin-positive basal cell population that contains the upper airway epithelial progenitor (4). Transforming growth factor β (TGF β) is a multi-functional cytokine that promotes epithelial differentiation and inhibits cell growth (5) and defective TGF β signaling is often associated with more aggressive tumor behavior (6). TGF β binds a heterodimer of TGF β type I and type II receptors (TGF β RI and TGF β RII) that signal by phosphorylating Smad family transcription factors (5).

In previous small studies with poorly defined patient populations, reduced TGF β RII expression was reported in 40–80% of NSCLC at the protein and/or mRNA level (7–9). Although TGF β RII mutations are uncommon (10), both microsatellite instability and promoter methylation have been associated with reduced TGF β RII expression (8, 11). From these studies, it is unknown whether reduced TGF β RII expression in human NSCLC is associated with specific histologic subtypes, more aggressive tumor behavior, or reduced patient survival. In lung cancer cell lines, TGF β RII restoration reduces proliferation, anchorage-independent growth, and xenograft growth (7) while TGF β RII knockdown increases transwell migration (12). In mouse models, TGF β RII deletion promotes the development of oncogene-initiated malignancies in the pancreas, colon, breast, and oral epithelium (13–16) and a recent study shows that TGF β RII loss increases the invasiveness of Kras-initiated lung adenocarcinomas (17). However, because most lung cancer mouse models produce predominantly, if not exclusively, adenomas and adenocarcinomas (18), it is unknown whether TGF β signaling disruption affects development of other NSCLC subtypes.

In this study we evaluated TGF β RII expression at the protein and mRNA level in a large number of human NSCLC samples and show that reduced TGF β RII expression is associated with more aggressive tumor behavior, including reduced tumor differentiation, higher tumor stage, increased nodal metastases, and reduced survival. To generate a model that can produce lung SCCs and to determine if TGF β RII loss initiates or promotes lung carcinogenesis, we targeted TGF β RII deletion to the conducting airway epithelium with the keratin-5 Cre*PR transgene (K5Cre*PR) (19). The K5 promoter targets the multi-potent basal cell progenitor of the upper airway (20). Cre*PR is a humanized Cre recombinase-progesterone receptor (Cre*PR) fusion protein that can be activated by RU486 but has low ligand-independent activity (21). Tracheal RU486 activates Cre*PR in sporadic airway epithelial cells (21), hence oncogenic alterations driven by this construct allow for the clonal

expansion of cells with somatic mutations, analogous to what occurs in human cancer. Using this system, we show that TGF β R2 deletion markedly promotes the development of Kras-initiated lung tumors, indicating that TGF β R2 loss plays a causal role during lung carcinogenesis. Our studies in human samples show that reduced TGF β R2 expression is negative prognostic marker in lung cancer.

Methods

NSCLC samples

After IRB approval, 38 NSCLC samples were obtained from the Oregon Health & Sciences University (OHSU) Department of Pathology Tumor Bank. Demographic and pathologic data were recorded when banked; histology and grade were confirmed by a second pathologist (S. White). RNA was extracted from 13 corresponding frozen samples. We also purchased a tissue microarray (T8235724, lot A606098, Biochain, Hayward, CA) comprised of 64 NSCLC sections with accompanying demographic and pathologic data. With IRB approval, 85 NSCLC samples were obtained from the Colorado Lung SPORE Tissue Bank Core. Pathologic diagnosis of these samples was confirmed by a second pathologist (W. Franklin). Additional clinical and pathological data was extracted from pathology reports and medical records; survival data was obtained by searching the social security death index (SSDI) database. Of these samples, 77 had paraffin blocks available for immunostaining and 37 had matched tumor and non-malignant lung RNA available for analysis.

Immunostaining and qRT-PCR of human NSCLC samples

Immunostaining was performed as previously described (14) with anti-TGF β R2 antibody (1:200 Santa Cruz C16) and staining intensity was graded as 3+ (intensity greater than normal airway) 2+ (equal to normal airway), 1+ (reduced compared to normal airway) or 0 (absent) by two independent observers (SPM and SMH). Due to the low frequency of samples with increased (3+) or absent (0) staining, samples were grouped as having preserved (2+ or 3+) or reduced (0 or 1+) staining for analysis. Immunostaining for lymphocytes and macrophages was performed with anti-CD3 antibody (Abcam #5690 at 1:250) and anti-MAC387 (Abcam #22506 at 1:200). Staining was quantified by counting the number of positive cells on four random 10x fields in at least 24 independent human NSCLC samples. RNA was harvested by homogenization in RNazol (InVitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) then purification with RNeasy columns (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). RT-qPCR was performed with the Brilliant II kit (Stratagene, Santa Clara, CA) using a GAPDH internal control and Taqman probe Hs00559657 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) on an ABI 7900 thermal cycler. Data were analyzed by the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method and expressed as fold reduction compared to paired non-malignant lung. When paired non-malignant lung was unavailable expression in tumor samples was compared to grouped non-malignant samples run on the same plate. Differences in immunostaining frequency between groups were analyzed by a chi-squared or Fisher's exact test depending on the expected frequency values. Differences in mRNA expression between groups were analyzed by non-parametric methods (Mann-Whitney or Kruskal-Wallis). Survival curves were obtained using the Kaplan-Meier method and comparisons across groups were made with logrank and stratified logrank tests. Analyses were performed with Prism5 (Graph Pad, La Jolla, CA) and SAS version 9.2 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, North Carolina).

NSCLC mouse model

All animal studies were IACUC approved. The TGF β R2 conditional allele, lox-stop-lox-Kras^{G12D} conditional allele, and K5Cre*PR transgene have been previously described (16, 19, 22, 23). Mice were treated with tracheal RU486 (500 μ g in 25 μ l 10% acetone/90% sesame oil) between 4–6 weeks of age as previously described (21). Mice were monitored

weekly and euthanized at one year of age or if they lost >15% of their body weight. When euthanized, a blood sample was collected by cardiac puncture, tumors were enumerated and measured, and a bronchioalveolar lavage (BAL) sample was collected by instillation of two 1mL aliquots of sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS). The left lung was inflated with 10% formalin then paraffin embedded. Blood was allowed to clot then serum isolated by centrifugation (5900g, 15', 25°C) and stored at -80°C. After 300µl of BAL was cytospun (500rpm, 5', 25°C) onto a slide, remaining BAL cells were separated by centrifugation (5900g, 15', 25°C) and BAL supernatant stored at -80°C. BAL cells in four 40x objectives were scored by morphologic criteria and differences between genotypes compared by unpaired t tests.

Analysis of mouse NSCLC

Lung tumors were separated from grossly normal lung and DNA extracted with the DNeasy kit (Qiagen); PCR for the recombinant TGFβRII allele was performed as previously described (16). RNA extraction, RT-qPCR, and TGFβRII IHC were performed as described above. Total TGFβ1 in BAL and serum was quantified by ELISA after acid activation per the manufacturer's instructions (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) and differences between groups were compared by one-way ANOVA or unpaired t test. Lesions were classified as atypical adenomatous hyperplasia (AAH), adenoma, adenocarcinoma, or squamous carcinoma on H&E sections by two investigators (SPM and SMH) using previously described criteria (24) with independent confirmation by a pathologist (DM) on a subset (~10%) of lesions. Tumors were immunostained with antibodies against keratin 5 (K5, 1:1000, Abcam #53121) and thyroid transcription factor (TTF, 1:100, Abcam #40880) to further confirm histologic subtype. Images were acquired on a Nikon Eclipse 80i and analyzed with Nikon Elements Software. Lesions were quantified per lung section and per mm² lung and differences compared by one-way ANOVA or unpaired t test. Immunostaining for proliferating cellular antigen (PCNA, 1:100, Santa Cruz SC-56) and leukocytes (1:500 anti-CD3, Abcam #5690) was performed as described above and quantified by counting the number of positive cells per tumor area.

Migration and invasion assays in Beas2b cells with TGFβRII knockdown

Beas2B human bronchial epithelial cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA) were cultured in BEGM basal media supplemented with BEGM SingleQuot growth factors (Lonza, Basel, Switzerland) under standard conditions. Experiments were performed between the 50th and 65th passages. A stable TGFβRII knockdown line was produced by transfecting the pcPUR+U6 plasmid containing the shRNA against TGFβRII (25) with the pcPUR+U6 cassette as a control (iGene Therapeutics, Tokyo, Japan). Cells were transfected at 60% confluence with 16µg/mL plasmid DNA and 40µL/mL Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen); 48h post transfection, puromycin (1.0 µg/mL; InvivoGen, San Diego, CA) selection was initiated. TGFβRII knockdown was confirmed by qPCR and Western blotting against TGFβRII (1:200; SC400 Santa Cruz Biotechnology) with GAPDH (1:40000; Abcam #8245) control. Scratch assays were performed by seeding 4×10^5 cells into six well plates, allowing cells to grow to confluence then wounding with a P200 pipette tip. Wounds were photographed at 0h and 24h and wound closure quantified as a percentage of the original wound area (26). Transwell assays were performed using 200µL Blindwell Boyden chambers (50mm² area) and PVP-free polycarbonate membranes with 12µm pores (Neuro Probe, Gaithersburg, MD) (27). Migration membranes were coated with 0.01% porcine gelatin; invasion membranes were coated with 5% growth factor reduced Matrigel (BD Biosciences, Minneapolis, MN). Media conditioned for 24h with 3T3 cells was used as a chemo-attractant in the lower chamber and 3.5×10^4 cells were seeded into the upper chamber. After 24h, non-migrating cells were removed, membranes were fixed, stained with Diff-Quik (Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics Inc, Newark, DE), and photographed at 100X. Cells from 5 fields of view per

insert were counted, experiments were repeated five times, and differences between groups were compared by unpaired t-tests.

Results

Reduced TGF β RII expression is more common in males, smokers, and lung SCC

Reduced TGF β RII expression has been previously reported in a small study with limited demographic data (7). We analyzed TGF β RII expression in 187 NSCLC samples (full demographic data shown in Supplemental Table 1) using a combination of immunostaining and qRT-PCR. Immunostaining was performed on 172/187 samples and each sample was scored as having either preserved (intensity equal to or greater than normal airway) or reduced (intensity less than 50% of normal airway in at least 50% of cells) immunostaining. mRNA expression was analyzed in 48/187 samples and was compared to TGF β RII expression in either paired non-malignant lung (37/48 samples) or grouped non-malignant lung (11/48 samples). In Figs. 1–2 immunostaining data are expressed as the fraction (%) of NSCLC samples with reduced staining and mRNA expression data are expressed as fold reduction of TGF β RII expression compared to non-malignant lung. We found that 45% of NSCLC samples had reduced TGF β RII immunostaining and that samples with reduced TGF β RII immunostaining also had reduced TGF β RII mRNA expression (Fig. 1A). Although reduced TGF β RII immunostaining was somewhat more common in males and smokers this did not reach statistical significance (Fig. 1B–1C top panels); in contrast, both males and smokers had significantly reduced TGF β RII mRNA expression (Fig. 1B–1C bottom panels) and the degree of reduced TGF β RII expression was weakly correlated with smoking exposure (Supplemental Fig. 1). Interestingly, reduced TGF β RII immunostaining and mRNA expression were markedly more common in SCCs compared to AdCs (Fig. 1D).

Reduced TGF β RII expression is associated with more aggressive NSCLC behavior

Although reduced TGF β RII immunostaining or expression has been associated with increased invasion in human lung AdC (12, 17) and more aggressive tumor behavior in other human malignancies (28–30) the relationship between reduced TGF β RII expression and clinical tumor behavior in human NSCLC has not been defined. We found that reduced TGF β RII immunostaining and mRNA expression were more common in more poorly differentiated tumors (Fig. 2A), tumors with higher tumor (T) stage (Fig. 2B), and tumors with nodal metastases (Fig. 2C). Interestingly there was no association between the degree of reduced TGF β RII mRNA expression and tumor size as a continuous variable (not shown), suggesting that reduced TGF β RII expression with higher tumor stage may be driven more by the invasive parameters that dictate clinical tumor stage (*e.g.*, invasion) as opposed to size. Since tumor stage and nodal status dictate overall clinical stage, reduced TGF β RII immunostaining was also more common with increasing clinical stage (not shown) and reduced TGF β RII immunostaining was associated with reduced overall survival in NSCLC (Fig. 2D). After adjusting for stage in a Cox proportional hazards survival model, preserved TGF β RII immunostaining remained associated with improved survival with a hazard ratio of 0.49 (95% CI: 0.24–0.98, $p=0.04$).

TGF β RII deletion promotes growth and multiplicity of Kras-induced NSCLC

TGF β RII deletion promotes development and malignant conversion of Kras-initiated tumors in both oral epithelium (14) and pancreas (13). To address the role of TGF β RII loss in lung cancer development *in vivo*, we developed a mouse model combining TGF β RII deletion with oncogenic Kras^{G12D} activation. We used the K5Cre*PR transgene that contains an RU486-inducible Cre recombinase (19) and tracheal RU486 to direct TGF β RII deletion (16) and oncogenic Kras^{G12D} (22) activation to the airways (21). As expected, the recombinant TGF β RII allele could be detected in tumors but not in adjacent grossly normal lung (Fig.

3A) and TGF β R2 immunostaining was reduced in tumors with TGF β R2 deletion (hereafter referred to as Kras.TGF β R2 +/- and Kras.TGF β R2 -/-) compared to Kras tumors (Fig. 3B). In addition, TGF β R2 mRNA expression in whole lung homogenate negatively correlated with increasing tumor burden (Fig. 3C)

We only observed one lung tumor in 30 K5Cre*PR.TGF β R2 ff animals (hereafter referred to as TGF β R2-/-), however approximately 65% of animals harboring both the K5Cre*PR transgene and a lox-stop-lox Kras^{G12D} allele (K5Cre*PR.LSL-Kras; hereafter referred to as Kras) developed lung tumors after tracheal RU486 (Supplemental Table 2). Kras animals typically developed 2–3 tumors per animal; deletion of one or both TGF β R2 alleles increased tumor multiplicity by approximately 10-fold (Fig. 4A) and also increased overall tumor size (Supplemental Fig. 2). Because of the increased number of small tumors with TGF β R2 deletion, we analyzed the largest single tumor in each animal to assess the effect of TGF β R2 deletion on established tumor growth (Fig. 4B); this analysis showed that TGF β R2 deletion increased the growth of established Kras-initiated lung tumors. Although there was a low level of tumor formation in vehicle treated Kras.TGF β R2-/- animals, there was a clear, dose-dependent increase in tumor formation with increasing tracheal RU486 dose (Supplemental Table 2). These data demonstrate that the K5Cre*PR transgene can be used for lung targeting and that TGF β R2 deletion greatly increases both the number and size of Kras-initiated lung tumors.

Kras.TGF β R2-/- mice develop both adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas

In our mouse model that employs a keratin 5 promoter and tracheal RU486 to target our genetic manipulations (19, 21), we observed the formation of both adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas. Adenocarcinomas displayed typical glandular morphology and stained negative for keratin 5 (K5) and positive for thyroid transcription factor (TTF) while squamous cell carcinomas displayed keratinization and intercellular bridges and were K5 positive and TTF negative (Supplemental Fig. 3). To analyze the effect of TGF β R2 deletion on the formation of specific tumor types, we classified individual lesions according to consensus recommendations (24) and found that TGF β R2 deletion increased the number of both benign (atypical adenomatous hyperplasias (AAH) and adenomas) and malignant (adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma) lesions (Fig. 4C–D). In sum, TGF β R2 deletion increases Kras^{G12D}-dependent tumor initiation and allows for the formation of a spectrum of malignant lesions that includes the two most common human NSCLC subtypes.

TGF β R2 deletion increases proliferation and inflammation *in vivo*

Because TGF β signaling inhibits epithelial proliferation (5), we compared proliferation in Kras and Kras.TGF β R2-/- tumors and found that Kras.TGF β R2-/- tumors had a 5-fold increase in staining for the proliferation marker proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA; Fig. 5A, immunostaining example shown in Supplemental Fig. 4A). Loss of functional TGF β signaling can cause a compensatory increase in TGF β 1 ligand production (14, 31) which can then promote tumor development through increased angiogenesis and inflammation in the tumor microenvironment (14, 32, 33). We found that TGF β R2 deletion increased TGF β 1 ligand in the bronchioalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid (Fig. 5B) and that increasing tumor burden correlated with higher BAL TGF β 1 (Supplemental Fig. 4B). TGF β R2 deletion was also associated with increased serum TGF β 1 ligand levels (not shown) similar to the increased serum TGF β 1 levels reported in humans with NSCLC (34). Similarly, TGF β R2 knockdown in human Beas2B cells increased TGF β 1 ligand production (Supplemental Fig. 5C). We did not find increased angiogenesis in TGF β R2-/- lung tumors (not shown), but observed that TGF β R2 deletion increased the number of macrophages, lymphocytes, and neutrophils in the BAL (Fig. 5C) and that the BAL macrophage count correlated with increasing tumor burden (Supplemental Fig. 4C). In

addition, compared to Kras tumors, Kras.TGF β R2-/- tumors had increased infiltration of CD3+ lymphocytes (Fig. 5D, immunostaining example shown in Supplemental Fig. 4D). To determine whether a similar relationship between reduced TGF β R2 expression and increased inflammation exists in human lung cancer, we immunostained human NSCLC samples for both lymphocytes and macrophages and found that human lung cancers with reduced TGF β R2 expression had increased numbers of infiltrating CD3+ lymphocytes but not macrophages (Supplemental Fig. 6). In sum, these data show that TGF β R2 deletion in a murine lung cancer model increases both proliferation and local inflammation and human lung cancer with reduced TGF β R2 expression also have increased inflammation.

TGF β R2 knockdown in bronchial epithelial cells increases migration and invasion

That reduced TGF β R2 expression was associated with both increased aggressiveness of human NSCLC and progression of murine lung tumors, prompted us to assess whether TGF β R2 knockdown promotes cell migration and invasion *in vitro*. We stably knocked down TGF β R2 in a human bronchial epithelial cell line (Beas2B) using a small-hairpin RNA approach (25) and achieved reduced TGF β R2 expression at both the RNA and protein level (Supplemental Fig. 5A). Interestingly, TGF β R2 knockdown did not affect proliferation of Beas2B cells (Supplemental Fig. 5D), potentially because these cells are SV40 T antigen immortalized and hence not sensitive to TGF β -mediated growth inhibition. In a scratch assay, TGF β R2 knockdown increased *in vitro* wound closure by almost 3-fold (Fig 6A–B). In a Matrigel transwell invasion assay, TGF β R2 knockdown increased migration by approximately 2-fold and invasion by approximately 3-fold (Fig. 6C–D). These data suggest that increased lung tumor aggressiveness in tumors with reduced TGF β R2 expression is at least partially mediated through increased invasion and migration of tumor cells.

Discussion

Reduced TGF β R2 expression in human NSCLC is associated with more aggressive tumor behavior

In this study we found that reduced TGF β R2 expression is common in NSCLC and occurs more frequently in males, smokers, and tumors with SCC histology; this grouping of associations is not surprising given that lung SCCs are more common in males and are more strongly associated with tobacco exposure (35), however, this is the first description clearly linking reduced TGF β R2 expression with smoking exposure. Consistent with previous reports that TGF β R2 expression in NSCLC can be reduced through promoter methylation or microsatellite instability (8, 11), we found both reduced TGF β R2 at both the mRNA and protein levels, suggesting that reduced TGF β R2 expression occurs pretranslationally. We also show that reduced TGF β R2 expression is associated with more aggressive NSCLC behavior including reduced differentiation, higher T stage, nodal metastases, and reduced patient survival. This is consistent with TGF β R2 functioning as a NSCLC tumor suppressor, although other molecules clearly also contribute to malignant progression. These associations suggest a causal role of TGF β R2 reduction in NSCLC progression, which is further supported by our animal study in which TGF β R2 deletion increases NSCLC development *in vivo*.

Targeting TGF β R2 deletion to keratin 5-positive airway cells promotes formation of multiple NSCLC subtypes

We targeted TGF β R2 deletion to the conducting airway epithelium using a K5-driven, RU486-inducible Cre recombinase and tracheal RU486 (19, 21). Because keratin expression in the lung is limited to basal cells which are thought to contain the SCC progenitor cell (4, 36), we expected these animals to develop exclusively SCCs. To our surprise, while these animals did develop some SCCs, they predominantly developed adenomas and

adenocarcinomas. In the murine airway, K5/K14 positive basal cells function as stem cells or facultative progenitors capable of giving rise to multiple cell types (20, 37); our data suggest that K5 positive cells contain both AdC and SCC progenitors.

TGF β RII deletion alone in the airway epithelium results in a very low incidence of lung tumors; this is consistent with the observation that targeting TGF β RII deletion to a large fraction of lung epithelial cells by AdCre also fails to initiate tumor formation (17). In contrast, TGF β RII deletion markedly increases Kras-initiated lung tumor number and size, suggesting that intact TGF β signaling inhibits lung tumor growth and that TGF β signaling disruption increases both tumor initiation and progression. Increased proliferation and tumor size is likely driven by loss of TGF β -mediated growth inhibition while increased tumor multiplicity may be a result of impaired immune surveillance from increased TGF β . These data are consistent with TGF β RII function in other oncogene-initiated cancer models (13–16) as well as a recent report showing that invasive lung adenocarcinoma is modeled by Kras activation and TGF β RII deletion targeted by adenoviral-delivered Cre recombinase (AdCre) (17). Our data demonstrate that TGF β RII deletion in mice increases tumor number, tumor size, and the number of malignant lesions; these observations are consistent with our observation that reduced TGF β RII expression in human NSCLC is associated with more aggressive tumor behavior. Our study shows that in addition to abrogation of TGF β -induced growth arrest, TGF β RII loss also promotes tumor cell migration and invasion. Although Kras.TGF β RII $^{-/-}$ tumors had little evidence of epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT), we have previously shown that TGF β RII loss causes an EMT-independent migratory and invasive phenotype in keratinocytes (38).

Interestingly, deleting one TGF β RII allele had an effect similar to deleting both TGF β RII alleles, indicating that TGF β RII exhibits haploid insufficiency, and that a 50% reduction (*i.e.*, roughly the amount used to score human NSCLCs) is sufficient to promote lung cancer growth. This is similar to what was observed in both a head and neck cancer model (14) and a pancreatic cancer model (13), where deletion of a single TGF β RII allele caused intermediate phenotypes in terms of tumor penetrance or survival, respectively. In another study, TGF β 1 haploid insufficiency also increased progression of Kras-initiated lung tumors and shortened survival (39), suggesting that reduced TGF β signaling in tumor epithelial cells promotes lung tumor progression.

TGF β RII deletion in airway epithelia increases inflammation that could promote malignant progression

In our mouse model, TGF β RII deletion increased TGF β 1 ligand elaboration, BAL inflammation, and tumor-associated macrophages and lymphocytes. In human lung cancer samples, reduced TGF β RII expression was associated with increased lymphocyte infiltration but not with increased macrophage infiltration. Because macrophages are recruited to areas of tissue damage, it is possible that macrophage infiltration in human lung samples may predominantly be driven by environmental factors (*e.g.*, smoking) as opposed to reduced TGF β RII expression. In contrast, increased TGF β 1 ligand produced by TGF β RII negative tumors may recruit other inflammatory cells, *e.g.*, CD3 positive T lymphocytes, to the local environment where these cells could promote lung tumor progression. Supporting this notion, increased lymphocyte infiltration (of CD4 cells, CD8 cells, and B cells) was also reported with AdCre-mediated Kras.TGF β RII $^{-/-}$ lung tumorigenesis (17). In contrast to AdCre mediated targeting that likely affects multiple cell types, targeting in our model was restricted to sporadic epithelial cells, thus inflammation was likely a result of secreted pro-inflammatory cytokines/chemokines, such as TGF β 1, by targeted epithelial cells. TGF β 1 can recruit myeloid cells (16) and induce development of Treg and Th17 lymphocytes (41), all of which can facilitate tumor growth. However, the paracrine effects of inflammatory cytokines in our model were insufficient to elicit the intense fibroblastic stromal response

seen in AdCre-initiated $Kras^{G12D}.TGF\beta RII^{-/-}$ tumors (17), presumably because AdCre targeting results in recombination in much higher proportion of epithelial cells than does K5Cre*PR targeting. Finally, although TGF β RII deletion and TGF β 1 overexpression have been associated with increased angiogenesis in other systems (14, 33), we did not observe increased angiogenesis in $Kras.TGF\beta RII^{-/-}$ lung tumors, potentially because the lung has a higher oxygen tension that limits the need for tumor neovascularization, particularly of small tumors.

In summary, our study demonstrates that reduced TGF β RII expression in human NSCLC is a negative prognostic marker associated with more aggressive tumor behavior and worse clinical outcome. In addition, TGF β RII loss plays a causal role in promoting the development of multiple NSCLC subtypes. Our study should instigate investigation into mechanisms underlying the effects of reduced TGF β RII expression on both tumor epithelium and tumor stroma. This could potentially facilitate selection of patients for therapies targeting events downstream of TGF β RII loss.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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Translational Relevance

Although lung cancer is a common malignancy, the 5 year survival remains low, illustrating a need for an improved understanding of basic molecular mechanisms that can subsequently be translated into novel therapeutic strategies. In this study, we found that reduced TGF β RII expression in human NSCLC samples is associated with more aggressive tumor behavior and reduced patient survival. Our mouse model shows that TGF β RII deletion in sporadic airway epithelial cells promotes formation of both adenocarcinomas and squamous carcinomas, supporting a causal role of TGF β RII loss in lung carcinogenesis and suggesting that reduced TGF β RII expression is a negative prognostic marker in lung cancer. Our mouse model will be a useful resource for testing novel therapeutic approaches directed toward NSCLC with reduced TGF β RII expression.

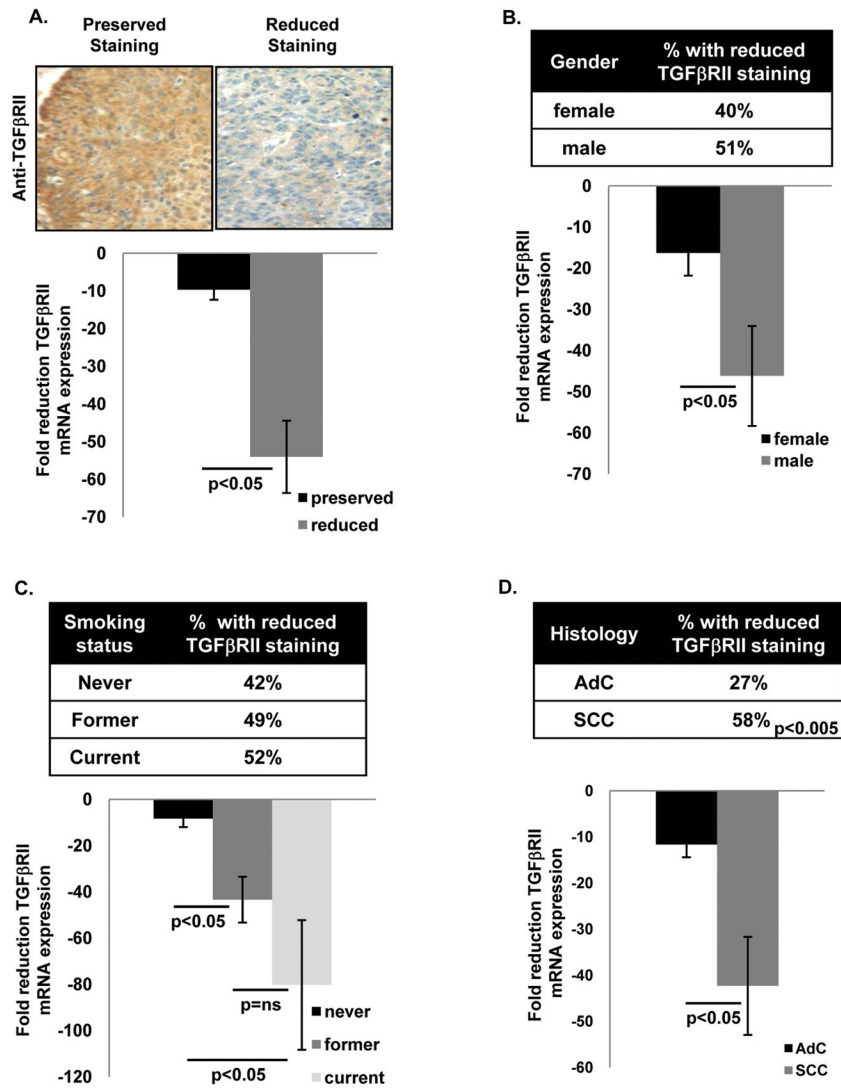


Figure 1. Reduced TGF β RII immunostaining and mRNA expression in human NSCLC is more common in males, smokers, and SCC histology

(A) Example of reduced TGFβRII immunostaining in human NSCLC. Staining intensity (compared to normal airway) was characterized as preserved (equal to or greater than normal airway) or reduced. Reduced TGFβRII immunostaining was observed in 45% of NSCLC and correlated with reduced expression by qPCR (bottom panel A). (B and C) Reduced TGFβRII immunostaining and mRNA expression are more common in males and current smokers although only reduced mRNA expression reached significance in these comparisons. Immunostaining data are expressed as the fraction (%) of samples with reduced TGFβRII immunostaining. (D) Reduced TGFβRII immunostaining and mRNA expression are both more common in SCC than AdC.

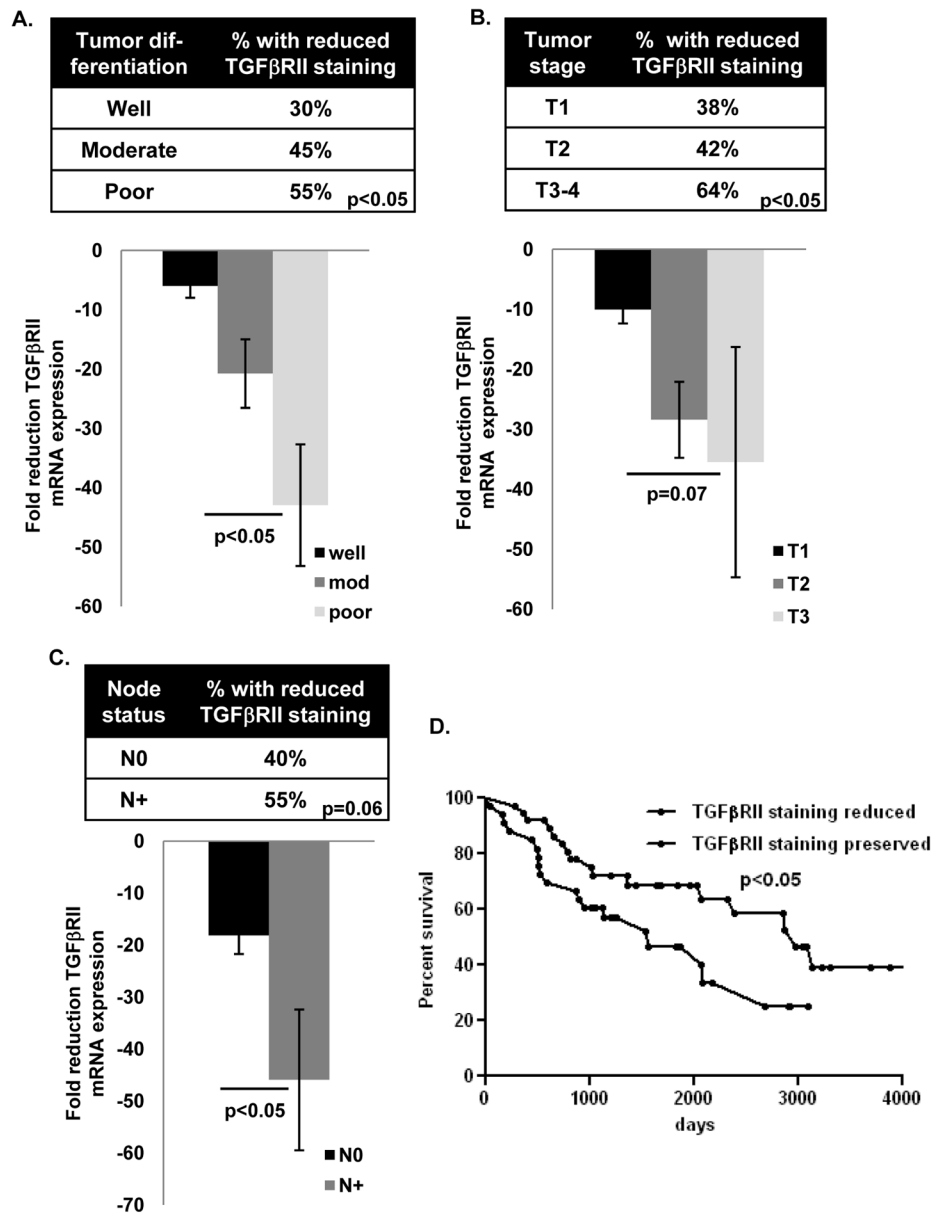


Figure 2. Reduced TGF β RII expression in human NSCLC is associated with more aggressive tumor behavior

(A–D) Reduced TGF β RII immunostaining and mRNA expression are more common with in NSCLC with reduced differentiation, higher T stage, and nodal involvement. Data were analyzed by chi-squared or Fisher's exact test (for immunostaining data) and non-parametric t test or ANOVA (for expression data). (D) Reduced TGF β RII immunostaining is associated with reduced NSCLC survival by Kaplan-Meier test and remained significant when adjusted for stage in a Cox proportional hazards survival model (not shown).

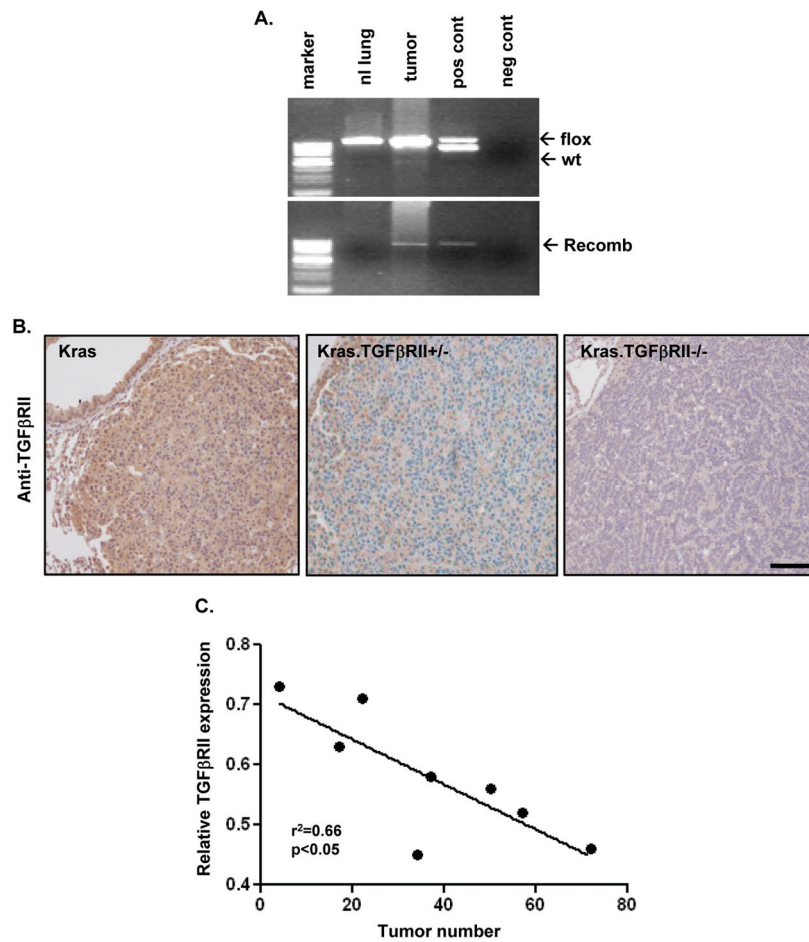


Figure 3. TGFβRII deletion in Kras induced mouse tumors

(A) The recombinant TGFβRII allele can be detected in lung tumors but not in grossly normal adjacent lung. Genotyping is shown in the upper gel; floxed and wild type alleles are indicated. (B) Reduced TGFβRII immunostaining in Kras.TGFβRII^{+/-} tumors and Kras.TGFβRII^{-/-} tumors compared to Kras tumors; scale bar is 100μm. (C) Reduced TGFβRII expression (in whole lung homogenate) is inversely correlated with increasing tumor burden in Kras.TGFβRII^{-/-} animals.

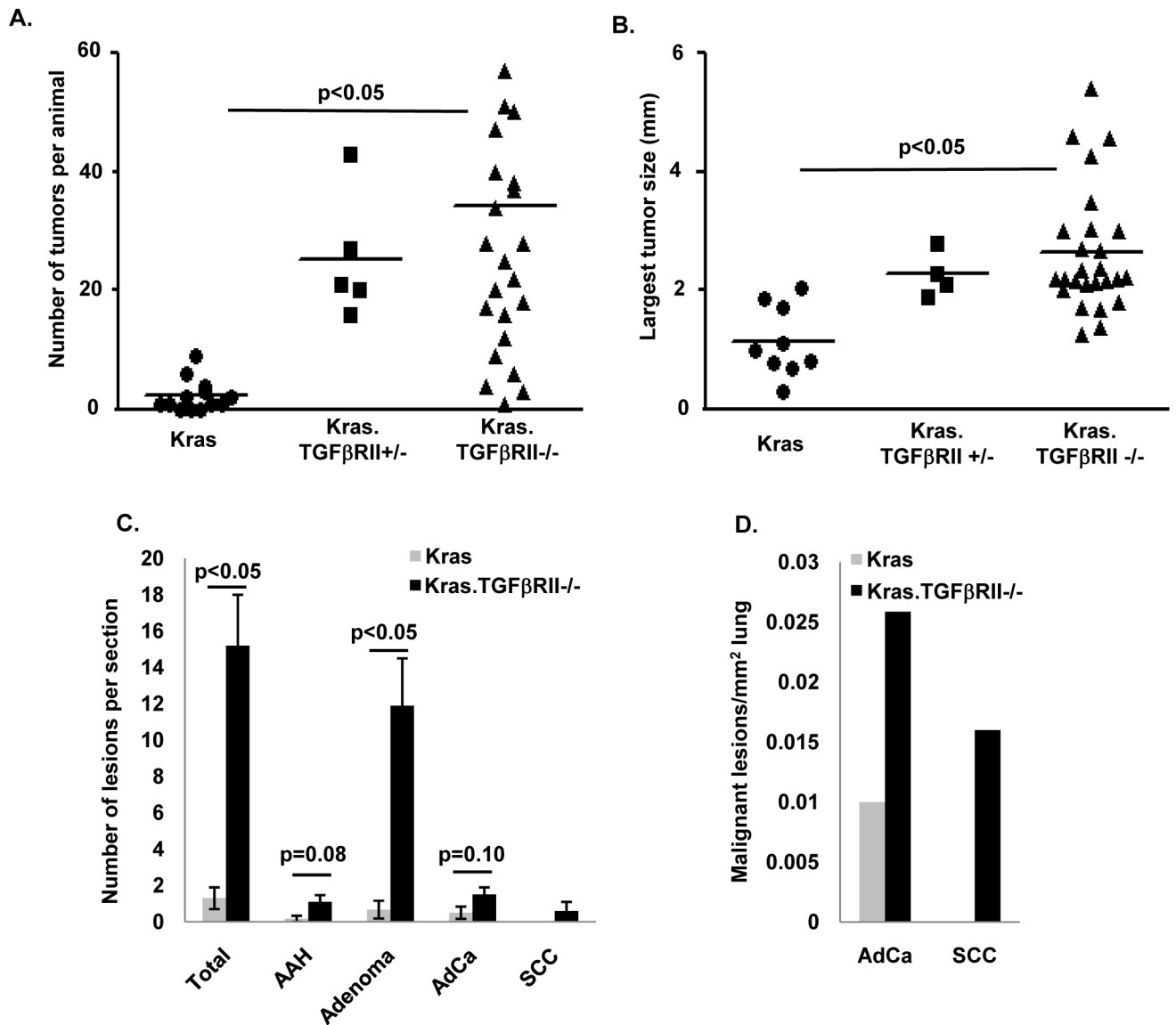


Figure 4. TGFβRII deletion in mouse airway epithelia increases formation of both adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas

(A) Deletion of one or both TGFβRII alleles increases the number of Kras-initiated lung tumors. Each data point represents the number of tumors observed in an individual animal; the mean overlies individual tumor data points. Kras animals had 3.2 ± 1.0 tumors per animal while Kras.TGFβRII+/- animals had 25.4 ± 4.7 tumors per animal and Kras.TGFβRII-/- animals had 34.4 ± 5.9 tumors per animal (both significant compared to Kras). (B) Deletion of one or both TGFβRII alleles increases the size of established Kras-initiated lung tumors. Each data point represents the single largest tumor from an individual animal; Kras tumors were 1.15 ± 0.20 mm while Kras.TGFβRII+/- tumors were 2.28 ± 0.19 mm and Kras.TGFβRII-/- tumors were 2.64 ± 0.20 mm (both significant compared to Kras). A separate analysis that includes all tumors is shown in Supplemental Fig. 2. (C–D) TGFβRII deletion increased the number of benign and malignant lung lesions per tumor section and the number of malignant lesions per mm² lung. Because SCCs were not observed in Kras animals, p values could not be calculated for these lesions. Additional data

regarding the age, number of animals, tracheal RU486 dosage, and tumor penetrance is presented in Supplemental Table 2.

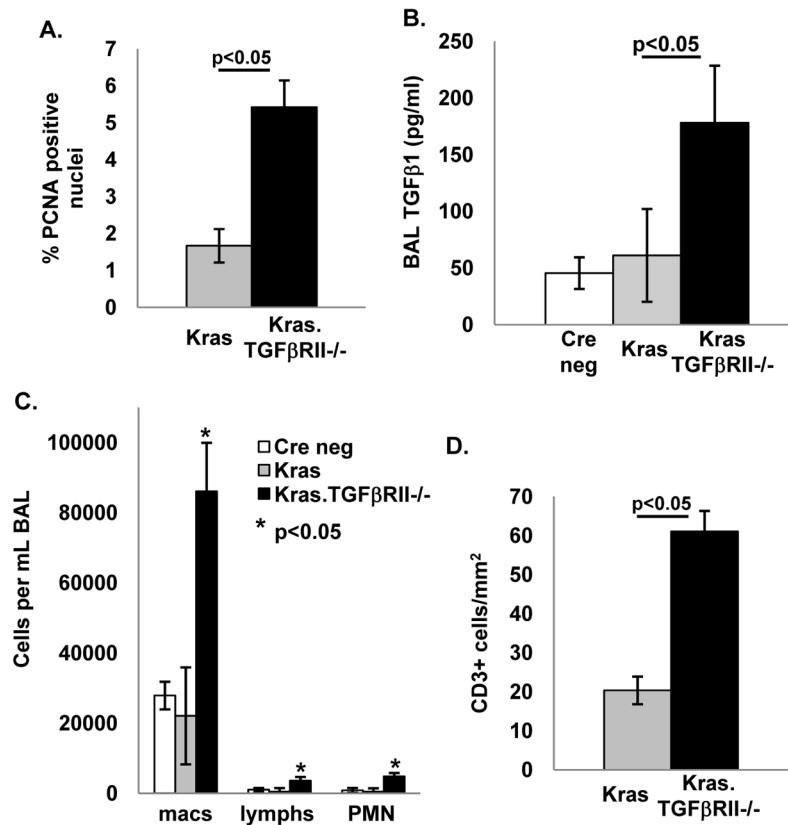


Figure 5. TGFβRII deletion in mouse airway epithelia increases proliferation, TGFβ1 ligand elaboration, and inflammation *in vivo*

(A) Kras.TGFβRII^{-/-} tumors have increased proliferation (PCNA staining) compared to Kras tumors (examples of immunostaining shown in Supplemental Fig. 4A). (B) TGFβRII deletion increases total TGFβ1 in the BAL. (C) TGFβRII deletion increases macrophages, lymphocytes, and neutrophils in the BAL. (D) TGFβRII deletion increases recruitment of CD3⁺ lymphocytes to lung tumors (examples of immunostaining shown in Supplemental Fig. 4D).

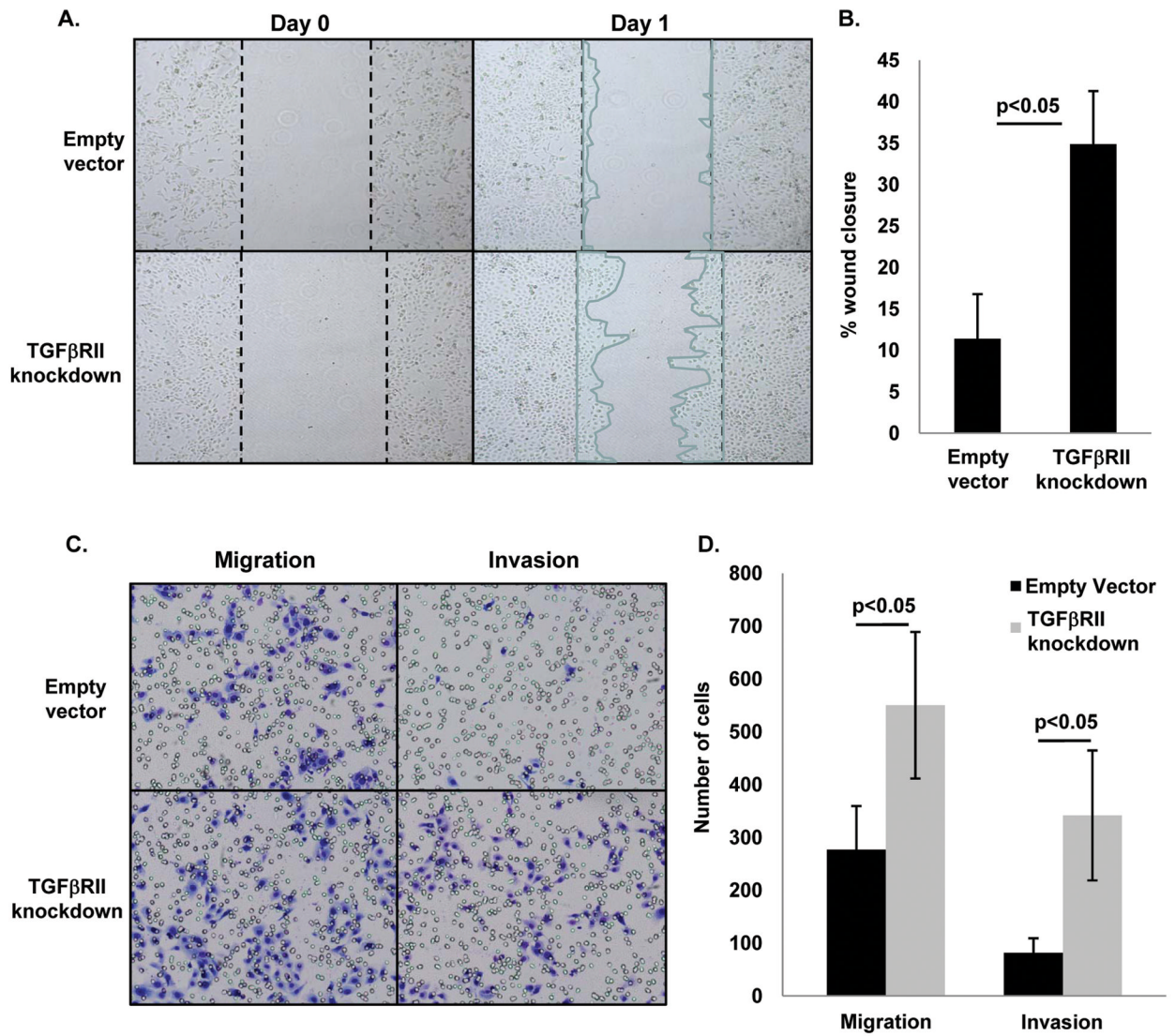


Figure 6. TGFβRII knockdown in Beas2B human airway epithelial cells increases migration and invasion *in vitro*

(A–B) Stable TGFβRII knockdown increases migration in an *in vitro* wound closure assay.

(C–D) TGFβRII knockdown increases both migration and invasion in a Matrigel transwell invasion assay.