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IL6 mediated inflammatory loop reprograms normal to EMT+ metastatic CSCs in pre-neoplastic liver of TGF β deficient β 2SP+/- mice

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Abstract

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the second-leading cause of cancer-related deaths world-wide with poor survival rate. As many as 40% of HCCs are clonal, with alteration of key tumor suppressor pathways in stem cells is the primary cause of HCC initiation. However, mechanisms that generate metastatic stem cells in pre-neoplastic liver tissue are not well understood. We hypothesized that chronic inflammation is a major driver of the transformation of genetically defective liver stem cells (LSCs) into highly metastatic liver cancer cells in premalignant liver tissue. We developed models of chronic inflammation in wild-type (WT) and β 2-spectrin (β2SP)^{+/-} (SPTBN1) mice. CD133⁺ LSCs derived from pre-neoplastic livers of β2SP^{+/-} mice treated with pIL6 (^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs) were highly tumorigenic and metastatic, whereas those derived from WT mice treated with pIL6 (IL6WT LSCs) had significantly less proliferation and no tumorigenic properties. ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs not only exhibited nuclear localization of Twist and Slug, markers of epithelial-mesenchymal transition, but also constitutive activation of NF κ B (RELA). Knockdown of NF κ B decreased the EMT phenotypes and metastatic capacity of these cells. NF κ B in ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs was activated by TGF β -activated kinase 1 (TAK1) (MAP3K7), which is associated with poor survival in HCC and IL6 expression. The amount of constitutively activated NFκB increased dramatically from normal to cirrhotic to HCC tissues from human patients. In conclusion, our findings suggest that IL6-mediated inflammation programs constitutive activation of the TAK1-NFxB signaling cascade in CD133⁺ LSCs and this program interacts with deficient

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TGF β signaling, thereby accelerating the transformation of normal LSCs to metastatic cancer stem cells. Indeed, this study is the first to delineate the development of EMT-positive mCSCs in HCC-free liver tissue upon chronic inflammation.

Keywords

EMT; CSCs; metastasis; HCC; NFκB; TAK1; β2SP

Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the fifth most common cancer and the second leading cause of cancer related deaths worldwide (1). HCC accounts for 70-85% of the total number of primary liver related malignancies (2). Owing to its poor prognosis—HCC patients' 5-year survival rate is less than 5%—identifying new therapeutic options for the disease is warranted (3). The clinical course of HCC is related to a broad spectrum of etiological factors, including hepatitis viruses, fatty diets, chronic alcohol consumption, exposure of hepatotoxins and microorganisms (4). In addition to these etiological factors, repetitive liver injury can initiate chronic inflammation that can lead to fibrosis, cirrhosis, and eventually HCC.

Injured liver tissue has an abundance of the pleiotropic cytokines, transforming growth factor β (TGF β). The TGF β signaling pathway, which has a dynamic effect on HCC development, has a pro-fibrogenic role mediated by the activation of hepatic stellate cells. As chronic liver disease progresses to fibrosis, cirrhosis, and finally HCC, TGF β signaling takes on a tumor suppressive role. This is evidenced by the downregulation of the TGF β receptor in approximately 25% of large, high-grade HCCs that quickly recur (5, 6). In vitro administration of recombinant human TGF β 2 inhibits the proliferation of HCC cells (7).

For the inhibitory function of TGF β signaling in HCC progression, the dynamic scaffolding protein β 2-spectrin (β 2SP) provides key insights into the mechanistic regulation of tumor suppression. β 2SP is required to stabilize the SMAD3/SMAD4 complex which transmits TGF β signaling in the nucleus (8). Loss of β 2SP is frequently detected in human HCC (3). Forty to seventy percent of β 2SP^{+/-} mice spontaneously develop HCC within 15 months (3). Histological analysis has revealed that tumorigenic liver tissues from β 2SP^{+/-} mice have aberrant vascular structures, expansion of endothelial progenitor cells, hyperproliferative hepatocytes, and an upregulation of several oncogenes that promote liver tumorigenesis (3). One recent study demonstrated that β 2SP^{+/-} mice have twice as many epithelial cell adhesion molecule⁺ (EpCAM⁺) progenitor cells as do WT mice (9). This finding suggests that β 2SP inhibits progenitor cells' transformation from a normal to a malignant phenotype in inflamed liver tissue. Also, in vitro and in vivo functional studies have revealed that β 2SP negatively regulates cyclin-dependent kinase 4, cyclin D1, and retinoblastoma protein (3, 10), and corroborating β 2SP's critical role in TGF β -induced cell cycle arrest during the G1 phase.

Chronic activation of pro-inflammatory pathways is critical to the progression of hepatitis to liver cancer. Among numerous pro-inflammatory factors, IL6-mediated signaling has been

extensively studied in the context of chronic liver diseases and HCC development (11-13). One study found elevated IL6 levels in 40% of liver cancer patients, which suggests that IL6 is associated with HCC progression (14). Indeed, a high IL6 titer is strongly correlated with adverse prognosis in HCC patients (15). Also, the TGF β pathway induces IL6 secretion to develop chemotherapeutic resistance in HCC (16). As a principal mediator of prooncogenesis, IL6 is associated with malignant transformation, expansion of cancer stem cells (CSCs), metastasis, and therapeutic resistance in numerous epithelial cancers (17-19). Together, these observations strongly suggest that IL6 is associated with the development of CSCs in liver cancer. However, it is not investigated on how IL6 driven inflammation interacts with alteration of tumor suppressor pathway to promote CSC initiation.

In injured liver tissue, hepatic stem or progenitor cells must expand to replace damaged hepatocytes which restore normal liver functions. However, chronic inflammation leads to the secretion of cytokines, chemokines, free radicals, and other DNA-damaging molecules, thereby changing the hepatic microenvironment (20). Persistent inflammation during this long-term regenerative process leads to an expansion of hepatic stem and progenitor cells that accumulate genetic and epigenetic alterations. Characterizing the bidirectional interaction between stem cells and the hepatic inflammatory milieu would provide great insight into the early phases of HCC initiation. Also, determining whether epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT)-positive CSCs are generated during the early phases of HCC initiation is important. Furthermore, elucidating aberrant signaling pathways in EMT⁺ CSCs may help to develop specific and individualized therapies for preventing HCC progression.

In this study, we investigated the role of the interaction between deficient TGF β signaling and IL6-mediated chronic inflammation in reprogramming normal liver stem cells (LSCs) to develop into metastatic liver cells (mCSCs). Our results provide a clinically relevant insight into the early development of mCSCs and suggest a potential therapeutic target to eradicate these in pre-neoplastic liver tissue.

Materials and Methods

Chemical reagents and antibodies

Collagenase type I, DNase I, and Pronase were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. The anti-CD133 antibody was purchased from Miltenyi Biotech. The anti- α SMA, anti-IL6, anti-pNF κ B (S536), anti-NF κ B, and anti-TAK1 antibodies were purchased from Abcam. The anti- β 2SP antibody was a gift from Dr. Lopa Mishra's laboratory. The anti-pYSTAT3, anti-STAT3, anti-TAK1, anti-pI κ K α/β and anti-pTAK1 antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology. The anti-I κ K β was purchased from R&D systems.

Mice

Ten- to twelve-week-old female wild-type (WT) and $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice were provided by Dr. Lopa Mishra's laboratory (8). They were maintained in a specific-pathogen-free facility in accordance with guidelines approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of M.D.Anderson Cancer Center. The PiggyBac Transposon System (pB513B transposon and Super PB transposase vector) was purchased from System Biosciences, Inc. Mouse IL6

cDNA was obtained from GE Dharmacon, Inc., and subcloned into the pB513B vector. IL6 cytokine–encoding DNA or control plasmid DNA (5 μ g in 1.5 ml of 0.45% saline solution per mouse) was injected hydrodynamically through the tail vein twice per month for 3 months. Eight- to ten-week-old female immunodeficient NOD SCID gamma chain knockout (NSG) mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory.

Western blotting

Cell lysis and Western blotting with antibodies against pNF κ B, NF κ B, pTAK1, TAK1, and GAPDH were performed as described previously (21). For all samples, the total protein concentrations were determined with a bicinchoninic protein assay kit (Pierce). Western blots were detected with an enhanced chemiluminescence kit (Cell Signaling Technologies).

Isolation and culture of primary tumor cell lines

Mice were humanely killed after 3 months of treatment or 15 months old non-treated $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mouse and single cell suspension from liver was made as described previously (22). A magnet-activated cell-sorting column with an anti– α -CD133 antibody was used to identify CD133⁺ LSCs, which were then cultured in poly-D-lysine/laminin–coated plates containing liver-specific supplements in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium/F12 media with 10% heat-inactivated serum. The liver specific supplements were rHGF (hepatocyte growth factor) (50ng/ml), rEGF (epidermal growth factor) (20ng/ml), insulin-transferrinselenium (1×), rFGF (fibroblast growth factor) (20 ng/ml), dexamethasone (1× 10⁻⁷ mol/l) and nicotinamide (10 mmol/l) (22).

Immunofluorescent staining of tissue sections

Tissue microarrays (TMAs) of patient liver tissues were purchased from Biomax, Inc., in accordance with a protocol approved by MD Anderson's Institutional Review Board. Antigen retrieval was performed with heat-induced $1 \times$ citrate buffer (Sigma Aldrich) for 30 minutes. Tissue staining was performed as described previously (23). Stained TMAs were analyzed with the Vectra automated quantitative pathology imaging system (Perkin Elmer), which is capable of multispectral imaging. Cell segmentation analysis and protein scoring (based on fluorescence or 3, 3'-diaminobenzidine staining) were performed using the inForm software program (Perkin Elmer).

Screening of cell signaling pathways

^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (~1 × 10⁴ cells/well) were treated with different inhibitors targeting HCCrelated cell signaling pathways for 24 or 48 h. All inhibitors were used at biologically effective concentrations. To measure the viability of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs after treating with different inhibitors, 100 µl of CyQUANT NF Cell Proliferation Assay reagent was added to each well after aspiration of medium. After incubation for 1 h at 37°C, fluorescence was measured (excitation 485 nm, emission 538 nm) on a SpectraMax Geminin EM microplate reader (Molecular Devices).

Generation of NF_kB-knockdown primary tumor cell line

MISSION shNF κ B plasmid was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (NM_009045). 5 µg plasmid was nucleofected in ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs using AMAXA nucleofector (program Q25). Cells were maintained in puromycin (10 µg/ml) for 3 weeks to grow the NF κ B knockdown cell line. NF κ B knockdown was confirmed by Western blotting with an anti– α -NF κ B antibody.

Results

The adaptor protein β 2SP plays an essential role in translocating the SMAD3/SMAD4 complex in the nucleus to drive TGF β -mediated tumor suppression (24). Thus, the disruption of TGF β signaling via a reduced accumulation of nuclear β 2SP is critical to HCC progression. Given the prominent role of nuclear β 2SP in the tumor suppressor activity of TGF β signaling, the nuclear accumulation of β 2SP was compared and quantitated by immunohistochemical staining (IHC) in humans with normal, cirrhotic, and HCC liver tissues. In normal liver tissue, β 2SP was strongly expressed in both the nucleus (mean IHC score = 0.188) and the cytoplasm (Fig. 1 a). In contrast, the nuclear accumulation of β 2SP was diminished in cirrhotic liver tissue (mean IHC score = 0.15) and significantly decreased in HCC tissue (mean IHC score = 0.097; p < 0.0001) (Fig. 1 c).

Clinical and pre-clinical studies have identified a definite association between chronic inflammatory responses and HCC pathogenesis (25), and accumulating evidence indicates that a high IL6 serum level is associated with the progression of pre-neoplastic liver to HCC (25, 26). To investigate this association, we assessed IL6 protein levels in human normal, cirrhotic, and HCC liver tissues. IHC staining revealed that the IL6 expression level in normal liver tissue (mean IHC score = 0.201) was significantly lower than that in cirrhotic liver tissue (mean IHC score = 0.251; p = 0.05) (Fig. 1 b and d). The difference between IL6 expression levels of cirrhotic and HCC tissues (mean IHC score = 0.190) was not significant.

To investigate a possible connection between IL6 protein level and nuclear localization of $\beta 2SP$ in HCC progression, we performed a regression analysis between IL6 protein level to nuclear $\beta 2SP$ in human normal, cirrhotic, and HCC liver tissues. We found that the slopes of the regression for each cancer stage are significantly different (p=0.0118). For an increase in IL6, we expect a larger increase of $\beta 2SP$ in normal group than cirrhosis group ($\beta = 0.1468$, p=0.046), or a larger increase of $\beta 2SP$ in cirrhosis group than HCC group ($\beta = 0.1448$, p=0.0181). Interestingly, our study revealed that higher protein level of IL6 and lower nuclear accumulation of $\beta 2SP$ in cirrhotic patients shifted the distribution towards right of the points of normal subjects. Paradoxically the distribution of majority of points in HCC patients were on the left hand side of the normal subjects. It can be explained by less protein level of IL6 in hepatic tissue of HCC patients and significantly lower accumulation of nuclear $\beta 2SP$ compared to cirrhotic stage of patients.

IL6-mediated chronic inflammation enable to program quiescent CD133⁺ LSCs to become highly proliferative in β 2SP^{+/-} mice

To confirm that reciprocal concurrent IL6 expression and β 2SP dysfunction is essential in promoting hepatic tumorigenesis, we established models of IL6-mediated chronic inflammation in both WT and β 2SP^{+/-} mice by periodic injection of the IL6 gene via hydrodynamic injection once every 2 weeks for 3 months (Fig. 2 a). Compared with their counterparts treated with control vector, both WT and β 2SP^{+/-} mice treated with IL6 had significantly higher percentages of infiltrating immune cells surrounding the central vein areas, indicating liver inflammation (Fig. 2 b). Significantly greater liver inflammation in WT and β 2SP^{+/-} mice treated with IL6 than that in the controls was confirmed by histological quantitation (Fig. 2 c). In both WT and β 2SP^{+/-} mice, fibrosis intensity (as measured by α SMA expression) was closely associated with IL6 expression following IL6 treatment (Fig. 2 b and d). In hepatic tissue lysates, exogenous IL6 expression was linked to inflammation and fibrosis (Fig. 2 e).

After confirmation of chronic inflammation and liver fibrosis following IL6 treatment in both WT and $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice, we isolated CD133⁺ stem cells from the mice's livers. Under optimal culture conditions, the CD133⁺ LSCs from pIL6-treated $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice (^{IL6} $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ LSCs) were highly proliferative and formed crypt-shaped structures within 2 weeks (Fig. 2 f). Assessing the cells' surface expression of CD133 (Supplementary Fig. 1 a); subjecting the cells to sphere-forming assays and staining the spheres for the stem cell–associated markers Oct4A and Nanog (Supplementary Fig. 1 b and c); and staining the cells for pluripotency markers such as SSEA-1 and TRA1-60 (Supplementary Fig. 1 d) confirmed that ^{IL6} $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ LSCs cells maintained stem-like phenotypes.

Compared with ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs, CD133⁺ stem cells derived from pIL6-treated WT mice (^{IL6}WT LSCs) showed significantly slower proliferation on days 3 and 6 (Fig. 2 g). Also, immunostaining with the proliferation marker Ki67 showed that ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs were much more proliferative than ^{IL6}WT LSCs were (Fig. 2 h). These data suggest that the partial disruption of β 2SP is critical to the acceleration of the development of highly proliferative LSCs subjected to chronic inflammation. Notably, IL6-mediated chronic inflammation for 1 or 2 months did not generate highly proliferative CD133⁺ stem cells from either WT or β 2SP^{+/-} mice.

^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs have EMT-positive metastatic CSC phenotypes

To assess the tumor-forming ability of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs, we performed both in vitro and in vivo assays using CD133⁺ liver tumorigenic stem cells derived from a spontaneous HCC in a β 2SP^{+/-} mouse (β 2SP^{+/-} CSCs) as a control. Anchorage-independent growth assays showed that ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs formed more colonies per field than β 2SP^{+/-} CSCs did (Fig. 3 a). In Boyden chamber migration assays, the migratory capacity of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs was 50% greater (p < 0.0001) than that of β 2SP^{+/-} CSCs (Fig. 3 b). Similarly, Matrigel-based invasion assays showed ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs to be more invasive than β 2SP^{+/-} CSCs. Because EMT is associated with increased migration and invasion capacities of tumor cells, we investigated for expression of EMT-related proteins Twist and Slug. ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs had very high nuclear accumulation of Twist and Slug, whereas these proteins were undetected

or present at only basal levels in $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ CSCs (Fig. 3 c). These in vitro data suggest that $^{IL6}\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ LSCs are highly aggressive, EMT-positive cells.

To corroborate our in vitro results, we assessed the progression and metastasis of tumors formed by IL6B2SP+/- LSCs or B2SP+/- LSCs in immunodeficient mice. IL6B2SP+/- LSCs or β 2SP^{+/-} CSCs (~ 1 × 10⁵) were injected subcutaneously into NOD SCID gamma chain knockout (NSG) mice (n = 6 per cell line). Tumors formed by $^{IL6}\beta 2SP^{+/-}LSCs$ grew faster than tumors formed by $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ CSCs did (p < 0.0001; Fig. 3 d and e). To determine whether the tumors had the clinicopathological characteristics of HCC, we stained tissue sections with hematoxylin and eosin; ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs and β2SP^{+/-} CSCs retained all major HCC histological characteristics, such as granular eosinophilic cytoplasm, rounded nuclei, and prominent nucleoli (Fig. 3 f). Also, some mice injected with ^{IL6}B2SP^{+/-} LSCs, but no mice injected with β2SP^{+/-} CSCs, had spontaneous liver metastasis (2-8 nodules per liver) (Fig. 3 g and h). Also, our orthotopic inoculation study showed similar trend where ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs inoculated NSG mice showed significantly (p=0.0027) poor survivability compared to β2SP^{+/-} CSCs inoculated NSG mice (Supplementary Fig. 2 a). Interestingly, ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs inoculated NSG mice had metastasis in intestinal lymph nodes (Supplementary Fig. 2 b). Together, these data exhibited the metastatic nature and EMT phenotypes of ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs.

Constitutive NF_{κ}B activation drives the EMT-positive phenotypes and metastatic properties of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs

We then sought to identify the mechanisms underlying the invasive and metastatic properties of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs. Hypothesizing that the disruption of key metastatic/driver pathways inhibits EMT and cellular invasiveness, we treated ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs with a panel of pharmacological pathway inhibitors at biologically relevant concentrations for 24 and 48 h. Compared with no treatment, treatment with the NF κ B inhibitor QNZ for 24 h significantly reduced the viability of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (Fig. 4 a). However the control cell line β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs did not show any change in viability upon treatment with QNZ for 48 h (data not shown), which suggesting that the constitutive activation of NF κ B enables the invasive and metastatic properties of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs. Western blotting confirmed that QNZ treatment dramatically reduced levels of constitutively phosphorylated NF κ B (pNF κ B) (Fig. 4 b). Immunofluorescent staining confirmed the reduced nuclear accumulation of pNF κ B following QNZ treatment (Fig. 4 c). In addition, ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs also demonstrated a reduction in nuclear localization and a decrease in the, the transcriptional activity of pNF κ B (Fig. 4 d).

To validate the role of NF κ B in driving metastasis, we created ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs with stable knockdown of NF κ B (shNF κ B ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs). Knockdown was confirmed by Western blotting (Fig. 4 e). Parental ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs and shNF κ B ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs had identical proliferation rates (data not shown). However, invasion and migration assays revealed that the metastatic capacity of shNF κ B ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs was significantly less than that of parental ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (P= 0.0007) (Fig. 4 f). Similarly, parental ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs injected intraosseously injected into NSG mice yielded more liver metastasis than shNF κ B ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs did (Fig. 4 g and h). The IL6-mediated constitutive activation of

STAT3, which has been demonstrated in certain aggressive tumors (27, 28), is one obvious mechanism underlying the invasive and metastatic nature of $^{IL6}\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ LSCs. However, immunofluorescence staining and Western blotting both showed that STAT3 was not constitutively activated or overexpressed in $^{IL6}\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ LSCs (Supplementary Fig. 3).

To understand the clinical relevance of our findings, we stained human normal, cirrhotic, and HCC tissues with antibodies against NF κ B and pNF κ B. The findings agree with those in the cellular model, in that NF κ B phosphorylation levels in HCC tissues and cirrhotic tissues were significantly higher than those in normal tissues (p < 0.0001) (Fig. 4 i and j).

Constitutively activated TAK1 directly phosphorylates NF_κB in ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs

To identify the putative serine/threonine kinase(s) responsible for the phosphorylation of the p65 (S536) subunit of NF κ B, we treated ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs with inhibitors of the kinases TAK1, IKK, RSK1, PKC, and CK2, which are known activators of NF κ B (29, 30). Compared with that of untreated control cells, the viability of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs treated with the TAK1 inhibitor was dramatically reduced (p < 0.0001) (Fig. 5 a). IKK inhibition had no noticeable effect on the viability of ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs or the phosphorylation status of NF κ B in ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (Supplementary Fig. 4). Western blot analyses revealed that TAK1 inhibition decreased the phosphorylation of NF κ B dramatically in ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (Fig. 5 b). Also, TAK inhibition did not alter the total NF κ B protein level. This study validated the results of our preliminary screening of the putative kinases with pharmacological inhibitors.

To evaluate the direct association between TAK1 and NFrkB, we performed coimmunoprecipitation experiments, which revealed interaction of pNF κ B and TAK1 in cell lysates (Fig. 5 c). Co-immunoprecipitation of pNFxB upon TAK1 pull-down from the cell lysate revealed that TAK1 inhibition noticeably decreased the interaction of TAK1 with NFkB (Fig. 5 c). TAK1 and pNFkB were colocalized in the cytoplasm of untreated IL6 \beta 2SP^{+/-} LSCs, but this colocalization was dramatically decreased in IL6 \beta 2SP^{+/-} LSCs treated with TAK1 inhibition (Fig. 5 d). Indeed, the TAK1-mediated phosphorylation of NF κ B was essential to NF κ B-driven reporter activities in ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (Fig. 5 e). These findings strongly showed that TAK1-mediated direct phosphorylation of NFrB facilitates NF κ B's transcriptional activity in the nucleus. Also, we are interested to know the direct role of IL6 to activate TAK1-NF κ B pathway in a TGF β disrupted liver tumor cells (Supplementary Fig. 5). Our recombinant IL6 (rIL6) treatment on $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ CSCs showed activation of NFrB in 1 h however its activation is alleviated at 4h and 8 h time points. Interestingly rIL6 treatment showed inducible protein expression of NF κ B in both 4h and 8h time points. Western blot analysis of phosphorylated TAK1 showed a sustained level of TAK1 activation in $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ CSCs but its total protein expression did not reflect any significant difference at different points of upon rIL6 treatment.

To substantiate the translational relevance of TAK1 expression with HCC progression, we analyzed TCGA dataset. Mantel-Cox log-rank analysis revealed that the overall survival rate of patients in the TAK1^{high} group was significantly lower than that of patients in the TAK1^{low} group (p = 0.0087) (Fig. 5 f). The median survival times for patients in the TAK1^{low} and TAK1^{high} groups were 813 days and 405 days, respectively. To understand the clinical significance of our findings, we stained human normal, cirrhotic, and HCC tissues

with anti-TAK1 and anti-pNF κ B antibodies. Our findings agree with those in the cellular model, in that the levels of pNF κ B and TAK1 colocalization in advanced HCC tissues and cirrhotic tissues were significantly higher than those in normal tissues (*P*< 0.0001) (Fig. 5 g and h). Together, these findings establish a strong linkage between TAK1-mediated NF κ B phosphorylation and liver tumor progression.

In summary, this study provides novel insight into the mechanism by which IL6-driven chronic liver inflammation reprograms normal stem cells to become mCSCs. Stable expression of IL6 in β 2SP-deficient murine liver induces chronic inflammation via resident immune cells. This inflammation constitutively activates the pro-tumorigenic TAK1-NF κ B signaling pathway to maintain the metastatic phenotypes of liver CSCs (Fig. 6).

Discussion

The influence of liver inflammation on oncogenesis has been intensively investigated to increase our comprehension of the underlying molecular mechanisms that may link chronic inflammatory responses with tumor initiation (31, 32). The prolonged secretion of cytokines and chemokines during inflammation promotes cancer growth and results in poor host survival. Although the nuclear translocation of β 2SP and IL6 levels are inversely related in HCC, metastatic initiation at the pre-neoplastic tissue had not been reported. To our knowledge, this study is the first to demonstrate that EMT⁺ mCSCs can be generated by inflamed livers. This induction depends on the overexpression of IL6 and the partial disruption of TGF β signaling, thus our study extends the current knowledge of IL6's role in promoting liver tumorigenesis (11, 33, 34). Multiple studies have shown that IL6 or its downstream signaling is capable of expanding CSCs and inducing EMT phenotypes in cancers of the breast, colon, ovary, lung, brain, and head and neck (35-37). A recent study showed that STAT3, following its IL6-mediated activation, binds to the promoter element of CD133 to induce HCC progression (38). Coculturing IL6-secreting tumor-associated macrophages with CD44⁺ liver CSCs induces more stemness and tumorigenesis (11). Determining whether IL6 can interact with other oncogenes or defective tumor suppressors to induce similar types of mCSCs is also of interest. In summary, our findings provide important insights into the reciprocal cross-talk between TGFB signaling and IL6-driven inflammation in pre-neoplastic liver tissues. However, we did not find any visible tumor incidence in these IL6 treated $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ female mice even after 6 months of post treatment. The possible explanation could be the protective effect of estrogen to restrict IL6 driven HCC development (39).

The variability in the clinical outcomes of HCC patients is associated with numerous populations of CSCs defined by the markers CD13, CD24, CD44, CD90, CD133, EpCAM, DLK1, and CSV (11, 22, 40). The discovery of diverse stem cell markers has increased research into the roles of hepatic stem/progenitor cells in HCC. Liver CSCs are critical to the development of malignant phenotypes, multi-drug resistance, and disease relapse in HCC patients. One study revealed that liver cancer patients with high levels of CD133 expression have shorter overall survival and higher relapse rates than those with low levels of CD133 expression (41). Whether CD133⁺ cells contribute to malignancy remains unclear. Several studies have shown that CD133⁺ CSCs in HCC are naturally resistant to cytotoxic

chemotherapy and other anti-cancer drugs (42). While most of these studies have focused on identifying and characterizing CSC surface markers, studies that focus on the tumorigenic or metastatic properties of these cells may be warranted. In addition, the influence of the liver immune microenvironment on modulating these normal stem cells' transition to mCSCs must be investigated. Such investigations would have clinical relevance including a significant impact on therapeutic strategies.

In liver cancer, sustained inflammation facilitates the progression of fibrosis to cirrhosis and eventually HCC. By activating hepatic stellate cells, the TGF β signaling pathway promotes the progression of chronic inflammation to fibrosis (43). Paradoxically, by inhibiting cell cycle regulators and promoting apoptosis, TGF β is instrumental in tumor suppression during the early stages of tumorigenesis (44, 45). Microarray and proteomic screening of human and mouse HCC tissues have revealed that dysregulated TGFB signaling is associated with the increased expression of pro-oncogenic pathways such as STAT3, Wnt, and CDK4 (46). Studies have shown that tumors develop in B2SP-haplodeficient mice, and that B2SP expression is significantly reduced in most HCC patients. (8, 9). These findings indicate that TGF β signaling inhibits the development of HCC. Furthermore, screening of human cancer cell lines has revealed that β 2SP expression was diminished in Huh-7 cells and reduced by a factor of 9 in SNU-398 cells (46). One recently published study revealed that β 2SP regulates the nuclear localization of β -catenin by increasing the expression of the Wnt inhibitor kallistatin (9). Given the importance of β 2SP as a regulator of HCC progression, researchers have also investigated its role in the development of liver CSCs. Studies have shown that β 2SP inhibition is required for the induction of stemness associated genes and the genesis of liver CSCs (47). Decreased B2SP expression in HCC cells facilitates sphere formation, tumor development, and aggressive phenotypes (9). Furthermore, $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice demonstrate a 2- to 4-fold expansion of Oct3/4-positive progenitor cells with activated WNT signaling (48, 49). The present study shows for the first time that the TGF β pathway restrains the development of metastatic clones of HCC CSCs in pre-neoplastic tissues. Thus, β2SP suppresses the transformation of normal stem cells into expandable liver CSCs.

Our investigation of aberrant molecular pathways in liver CSCs uncovered a novel interaction between TAK1 and NF κ B that promotes the EMT-driven metastatic process. A previous study showed that the hepatocyte-specific deletion of TAK1 in mice activates the TGF β signaling pathway to induce spontaneous inflammation, fibrosis, and eventually hepatic tumorigenesis (50). This discovery explains why TAK1 mediated mCSCs occur in livers when TGF β signaling is disrupted as it plays a tumor suppressor role. Overall, this reciprocal regulation between β 2SP and IL6 in the programming of liver CSCs provides insight into the mechanism by which normal stem cells transform into EMT-positive CSCs. Defining the mechanisms by which the loss of β 2SP regulates the transition of hepatic stem cells to cells with EMT phenotypes in an inflammation-driven hepatic immune environment may lead to the development of individualized therapies against liver cancer.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Fig. 1. Nuclear $\beta 2SP$ accumulation is inversely related to IL6 level in HCC tissues

(a and b) Representative photomicrographs of $\beta 2SP$ (a) and IL6 (b) immunohistochemical staining in normal, cirrhotic, and HCC tissues. (c and d) Quantification of staining inetsity. Nuclear $\beta 2SP$ and IL6 protein levels were scored using inFORM software. (e) Robust linear regression using Huber's M estimator (Huber 1981) was applied to compare the correlation between IL6 with nuclear $\beta 2SP$ by cancer stage. Data in panels c–d are the means \pm SEMs. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.0001, one-way ANOVA.



Fig. 2. Chronic IL6 treatment promotes highly proliferative CD133⁺ LSCs in $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice (a) Schematic representation of how chronic pIL6 treatment induces cancer stem cells in $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice. (b–e) Groups of WT and $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice were subdivided into two groups (n = 6 mice per group). Each group was given either control vector (pCtr) or pIL6 by hydrodynamic delivery twice per month for 3 months. (b) Inflammation (top) was evaluated by assessing the infiltration of immune cells, and liver fibrosis (bottom) was evaluated by assessing the expression of the α SMA protein. (c and d) Compared with WT and β 2SP^{+/-} mice treated with pCtr, both WT and $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice treated with pIL6 had significantly higher percentages of infiltrating immune cells (P < 0.0001; c) and significantly higher percentages of a SMA protein expression (P < 0.0001; d). (e) The concentration of IL6 in hepatic tissue lysate was measured colorimetrically using an ELISA kit. Compared with those from WT and $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice treated with pCtr, hepatic tissue lysates from both WT and $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice treated with pIL6 had higher concentrations of IL6 (P < 0.0001). (f) CD133⁺ LSCs from WT and $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice treated with pIL6 appeared in lysine/laminin-coated plates by day 14; only ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs were highly proliferative and formed crypt-shaped structures. (g) ^{IL6}WT LSCs and ^{IL6}B2SP^{+/-} LSCs were cultured in suitable supplements containing medium. Cell proliferation was measured using CyQUANT NF Cell Proliferation Assay reagent at day 3 and 6. (h) Representative immunofluorescent confocal microscopy images of Ki67 expression in ^{IL6}WT LSCs (left) and ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs (right). Data in panels c-e and g are the means \pm SEMs from two independent experiments. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.0001, one-way ANOVA.



Fig. 3. ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs have EMT-positive tumorigenic phenotypes

(a) Ten thousand cells/well were overlaid on soft agar. Anchorage-independent colonies were allowed to grow for 2 weeks. (b) For invasion assays, the cells were seeded onto the Matrigel-coated transwell inserts (1×10^5 cells/well) and incubated overnight. Migration assays were performed using transwell inserts. Cells (1×10^4 cells/well) were added to the upper chamber and allowed to migrate toward the lower chamber overnight. Cell invasion and migration were assessed fluorometrically using calcein AM dye. (c) Early-passage ^{IL6} β 2P^{+/-} and β 2P^{+/-} CSCs were stained for the EMT markers Twist and Slug. (d) ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs or β 2SP^{+/-} CSCs (1×10^5) were subcutaneously injected into NSG mice. (e) Two-way ANOVA with the Tukey post hoc test was used to analyze tumor volume growth rates. (f) Hematoxylin and eosin–stained sections of primary tumor tissues (original magnification ×200). (g) Representative images of spontaneous liver metastases arising from ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (left) and β 2SP^{+/-} CSCs. Data in panels b and h are the means ± SEMs from two independent experiments. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.0001.



Fig. 4. Constitutively activated NFrB drives the tumorigenesis of ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs

(a) Screening with pharmacological inhibitors revealed that NF κ B inhibition decreased cell viability at both 24 and 48 h. (b) Western blotting for pNFrB and total NFrB in untreated cells and cells treated with QNZ (100 nM). (c) Representative confocal microscopy images of immunofluorescent staining for pNFxB in untreated cells and cells treated with QNZ (magnification \times 63). Immunofluorescent images were captured using PASCAL software on a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta confocal microscope at $63 \times$ magnifications. (d) ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (1 \times 10⁶) were nucleofected. Transfected cells were treated with or without 100 nM QNZ for 48 h. The cells were then lysed, and luciferase activities were measured and normalized. (e) Western blotting confirmed the stable knockdown of NF κ B in shNF κ B ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs. (f) Invasion and migration assays revealed that NFkB knockdown significantly decreased EMT phenotypes. (g) Representative images of liver metastases formed by ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs (left) and shNF κ B ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs (right). (h) Numbers of gross metastatic liver nodules in IL6 β2SP+/- LSCs and shNF κB IL6 β2SP+/- LSCs. (i) Representative images of immunohistochemical staining of pNF κ B (red) in paraffin-embedded specimens of normal, cirrhotic, and HCC tissues. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). (j) The intensity of histological staining was scored by cell segmentation analysis of inForm software. Data in panels a, d, f, h, and j are the means \pm SEMs from two independent experiments. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.0001, one-way ANOVA.



Fig. 5. TAK1 mediates the constitutive activation of NF κB in $^{IL6}\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ LSCs

(a) The proliferation of ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs treated with a TAK1 inhibitor was significantly lower than that of untreated ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs. (b) Western blotting for pTAK1, pNF κ B, and NF κ B in ^{IL6} β 2SP^{+/-} LSCs treated with the TAK1 inhibitor celastrol (500 nM) overnight. (c) Co-immunoprecipitation assays revealed that pTAK1 directly interacts with NFrB and mediates NF κ B's phosphorylation. Western blotting revealed that overnight treatment with the TAK1 inhibitor celastrol (500 nM) prevents the direct interaction of pTAK1 and pNF κ B in ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs. (d) Representative confocal microscopy images of immunofluorescent staining for a-pNFkB (green) and a-TAK1 (red) in ^{IL6}β2SP^{+/-} LSCs treated with or without celastrol (500 nM) for 24 h. Nuclei were stained with Draq5 (blue). Immunofluorescent images were captured using PASCAL software on a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta confocal microscope at 63× magnification. (e) $^{IL6}\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ LSCs (1 \times 10⁶) were nucleofected. Transfected cells were treated with or without 500 nM celastrol for 48 h. The cells were then lysed, and luciferase activities were measured and normalized. (f) The overall survival rate of HCC patients with low TAK1 gene expression levels (TAK1^{low}) was significantly higher than that of HCC patients with high TAK1 gene expression levels (TAK1^{high}; P = 0.0087). (g) Representative images of immunohistochemical staining of TAK1 (green) and pNF κ B (red) in paraffin-embedded specimens of normal, cirrhotic, and HCC tissues. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). (h) Cytoplasmic colocalization of TAK1 and pNFkB protein levels were scored using inFORM software. Data in panels a, e, and h are the means \pm SEMs from two independent experiments. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.0001, one-way ANOVA.



Tumor-suppressive pathway

Metastasis inducing pathway

Fig. 6. IL6-mediated chronic inflammation drives the reprogramming of normal LSCs to mCSCs in a TGF β disrupted background

An IL6-encoding Sleeping Beauty transposon was hydrodynamically injected into the livers of $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice twice per month for 3 months. The stable expression of IL6 in liver generates chronic inflammation and subsequent fibrosis in $\beta 2SP^{+/-}$ mice. After 3 months, CD133⁺ LSCs from these mice had EMT-positive mCSC phenotypes. Pathway screening with small molecule inhibitors and subsequent validation revealed that the constitutive activation of the TAK1-NF κ B pathway plays a critical role in maintaining these cells' EMT-positive metastatic phenotypes.