

Integrin $\alpha 6A$ splice variant regulates proliferation and the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway in human colorectal cancer cells

Jean-François Groulx, Véronique Giroux¹,
Marco Beauséjour, Salah Boudjadi, Nuria Basora,
Julie C. Carrier¹ and Jean-François Beaulieu*

Laboratory of Intestinal Physiopathology, Department of Anatomy and Cell Biology and ¹Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Université de Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, Quebec J1H 5N4, Canada

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: +1 819 564 5269;
Fax: +1 819 564 5320;
Email: jean-francois.beaulieu@usherbrooke.ca

The integrin $\alpha 6$ subunit pre-messenger RNA undergoes alternative splicing to generate two different splice variants, named $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$, having distinct cytoplasmic domains. In the human colonic gland, these splice variants display different patterns of expression suggesting specific functions for each variant. We have previously found an up-regulation of the $\alpha 6\beta 4$ integrin in colon adenocarcinomas as well as an increase in the $\alpha 6A/\alpha 6B$ ratio, but little is known about the involvement of $\alpha 6A\beta 4$ versus $\alpha 6B\beta 4$ in this context. The aim of this study was to elucidate the function of the $\alpha 6A\beta 4$ integrin in human colorectal cancer (CRC) cells. Expression studies on a panel of primary CRCs confirmed that the up-regulation of the $\alpha 6$ subunit in CRC is a direct consequence of the increase of the $\alpha 6A$ variant. To investigate the functional significance of an $\alpha 6A$ up-regulation in CRC, we specifically knocked down its expression in well-established CRC cell lines using a small-hairpin RNA approach. Results showed a growth rate reduction in all $\alpha 6A$ knockdown CRC cell lines studied. The $\alpha 6A$ silencing was also found to be associated with a significant repression of a number of Wnt/ β -catenin pathway end points. Moreover, it was accompanied by a reduction in the capacity of these cells to develop tumours in xenografts. Taken together, these results demonstrate that the $\alpha 6A$ variant is a pro-proliferative form of the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit in CRC cells and appears to mediate its effects through the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway.

Introduction

The integrin superfamily is composed of the transmembrane receptors responsible for mediating epithelial-basement membrane interactions. Integrins are formed by the heterodimeric association of an α and a β subunit and, to date, 18 α and 8 β subunits have been identified, which can combine to form 24 distinct integrins (1). The existence of multiple splice variants and post-translational modification of most subunits increases the variety of integrins (2). These receptors can mediate intracellular signalling despite their lack of intrinsic kinase activity. Indeed, ligand binding (i.e. laminin, collagen and fibronectin) induces the recruitment of intracellular kinases and adaptor proteins via the cytoplasmic C-terminal domains of either integrin subunit, mediating intracellular signalling to regulate a large spectrum of cell processes including proliferation, adhesion, migration and apoptosis (3,4).

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the second leading cause of cancer death in North America (5) and accumulating studies confirm an important role for integrin receptors in human colorectal tumourigenesis (6–9). Interestingly, the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit can heterodimerize with either $\beta 1$ or $\beta 4$ to form the $\alpha 6\beta 1$ or $\alpha 6\beta 4$ integrins but in the gut epithelium

Abbreviations: APC, adenomatous polyposis coli; BrdU, 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine; CRC, colorectal cancer; IF, immunofluorescence; ISEL, *in situ* terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling; mRNA, messenger RNA; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; qPCR, quantitative PCR; RM, resection margin; WB, western blot.

as well as in CRC, the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit predominantly associates with $\beta 4$ (10–12). Moreover, both the $\alpha 6$ and $\beta 4$ integrin subunits appear to be over-expressed in primary tumours of the human colon (12–14) and CRC cell lines (12,13,15), suggesting an important role for this integrin in CRC progression (7,9). Although the $\beta 4$ subunit exists as five splice variants, it is the $\beta 4A$ variant subunit that is predominantly expressed in the gut (11). We have previously described a cytosolic variant of $\beta 4A$ resulting from the proteolytic cleavage of the C-terminal domain (cdt), called $\beta 4cdt-$, that is non-functional for adhesion to laminin and associated with normal intestinal proliferative epithelial cells but it is the wt form, $\beta 4cdt+$, that is predominantly present in CRC and in all CRC cell lines studied (11,13). To date, signalization from $\beta 4$ in cancer has been well characterized. For instance, outside-in signalling leads to phosphorylation of the cytoplasmic C-terminal domain of $\beta 4$, recruitment of SHC/GRB2 and/or IRS1/IRS2 and downstream activation of the MAPK/ERK and PI3K/AKT pathways (16), thus regulating major cell processes involved in tumourigenesis (16–19).

Although the majority of $\alpha 6\beta 4$ functions in cancer have been attributed to the $\beta 4$ subunit, recent evidence suggests that signalization events mediated by the $\alpha 6$ subunit can also regulate the processes involved in tumourigenesis including proliferation and metastasis (20–25). However, the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit exists as two splice variants, $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$, generated by the alternative splicing of exon 25, resulting in the formation of two distinct cytoplasmic domains (26). The existence of two variants with distinct C-tails suggests that each may have a specific function in the regulation of cellular processes. In support of this, a study performed using two yeast hybrids has shown that the PDZ domain of each variant can interact with specific intracellular molecules (27,28). Furthermore, other studies have demonstrated that each variant initiates different intracellular signalling events, such as paxilin phosphorylation (29) and RAS-MEK-ERK activation (30). In human tissues, the $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ variant subunits display distinct patterns of expression (26) as for instance in the skin where $\alpha 6A$ is exclusively associated with basal cells. Previous results from our laboratory have shown that in the normal human small intestine, the $\alpha 6A$ variant is predominantly associated with proliferative cells in the glands, whereas the $\alpha 6B$ variant is mainly localized in quiescent and differentiated cells in the villus epithelium (31). Although also detected in the normal colon, this pattern of expression is lost in primary tumours where $\alpha 6A$ becomes ubiquitously expressed in all CRC cells (12), supporting the possibility that inclusion of the $\alpha 6A$ subunit into $\alpha 6\beta 4$ integrin generates a pro-proliferative integrin (7). In the context where deregulation of cell proliferation is one of the hallmarks of cancer and that the $\alpha 6$ subunit appears to be involved in the process (20–25), we propose that the pro-proliferative function of $\alpha 6$ is specifically mediated by its $\alpha 6A$ splice variant in CRC.

In the present study, we tested this hypothesis using a knockdown approach targeting the mature $\alpha 6A$ messenger RNA (mRNA) and found that $\alpha 6A$ ablation significantly reduced CRC cell proliferation both *in vitro* and in xenografts. Furthermore, we also found that this effect was accompanied by a decline in the Wnt/ β -catenin signalling pathway.

Materials and methods

Primary antibodies and materials

Primary antibodies used for the detection of the $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ variants were anti- $\alpha 6A$ [western blot (WB): 1/500, immunofluorescence (IF): 1/100] (1A10, Millipore, Etobicoke, Ontario) and anti- $\alpha 6B$ (WB: 1/500, IF: 1/100) (6B4, Millipore). These antibodies were originally a generous gift from Dr A. Sonnenberg (Division of Cell Biology, The Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, The Netherlands). Other primary antibodies used were anti-integrin $\beta 4$ (WB: 1/5000, IF: 1/100) (3E1, Millipore), anti-integrin $\alpha 6$ (IF: 1/1000)

(GOH3, Millipore), anti- β -actin (WB: 1/75 000) (C4, Millipore), anti-active- β -catenin (WB: 1/2500) (8E7, Millipore) recognizing the dephosphorylated form of β -catenin on Ser37 and Thr41 (sites of GSK3 β phosphorylation), anti- β -catenin (WB: 1/2500) (610153, BD Biosciences, Mississauga, Ontario), anti-DVL2 (WB: 1/2500) (30D2, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA), anti-cytokeratin 18 (WB: 1/1 000 000) (CY-90, Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, Ontario), anti-histone H1 (WB: 1/1000) (AE-4, Santa Cruz Biotechnologies, Santa Cruz, CA), anti-integrin β 1 (WB: 1/1000) (Mab13, BD Biosciences), anti-GSK3 β (WB: 1/5000) (27C10, Cell Signaling Technology) and anti-H3K27me3 (WB: 1/1000) (07-449, Millipore). The pharmacological inhibitor of GSK3 β (SB216763, S3442, Sigma-Aldrich) was used at a final concentration of 20 μ M. The protease inhibitor cocktail (P8340) was purchased from Sigma.

Cell culture and generation of CRC cells knocked down for α 6A subunit expression

The CRC cell lines Caco-2/15 and T84 (polarized) as well as HT29 and DLD-1 (non-polarized) were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (www.ATCC.org) and cultured as described (11–13). All cells were grown in an atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂ at 37°C. Colon cancer cells were plated at 60% confluence 24 h prior to infection with lentiviruses prepared with MISSION® shRNA (Sigma-Aldrich) plasmids for the human α 6A integrin containing the shRNA sequence: 5'-CCG GCC TTT GGA CTG AAA GGA GAA ACT CGA GTT TCT CCT TTC AGT CCA AAG GTT TTT G. The negative control shGFP contained the sequence: 5'-CCG GGT GGG CAT CAA AGA CGT GTT TCT CGA GAA ACA CGT CTT TGA TGC CCA CTT TTT G and shct: 5'-CCG GGT GGG CAT CAA AGA CGT GTT TCT CGA GAA ACA CGT CTT TGA TGC CCA CTT TTT G. At 3 days post-infection, stable cell lines were selected by adding 5–10 μ g/ml puromycin to the culture medium (Qiagen, Mississauga, Ontario). Cultures were used after 14 days of selection.

Growth curve assay

Stable cell populations of T84, Caco-2/15, HT29 and DLD-1 were seeded in 6-well plates at 2×10^5 cells/dish in their respective media. Cell number was measured, using a Z1 Coulter Counter (Beckman, Mississauga, Ontario).

Cell proliferation assays

Proliferation assays using 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine (BrdU) incorporation were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Roche, Laval, Quebec) as described previously (12). All experiments were performed in triplicate and repeated three times.

In situ terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated deoxyuridine triphosphate nick-end labelling (ISEL) assays

Analysis of apoptosis index was evaluated using the ApopTag® Plus Fluorescein In Situ Apoptosis Detection Kit (S7111, Millipore) and performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 5×10^4 cells were seeded onto serum-pretreated coverslips in a 12-well plate (Falcon) and allowed to adhere for 48 h under normal culture conditions and processed for *in situ* terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling (ISEL) ISEL assays. The percentage of apoptotic cells was evaluated by the number of positive ISEL cells over the total number of cells stained by 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole ($\times 100$). Cytochalasin D (Sigma-Aldrich) was added at 1 μ M for a positive control of apoptosis.

Nuclear extracts

Nuclear extracts were prepared using cells at 80% confluence. Briefly, cells were washed three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) 1x and harvested with 4 ml PBS 1x. Cells were centrifuged at 3000 r.p.m. for 5 min at 4°C then rapidly resuspended in a hypotonic buffer (HB: 10 μ M *N*-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-*N'*-2-ethanesulfonic acid, 1.5 μ M MgCl₂, 3 μ M KCl, 0.5 μ M dithiothreitol and 1% protease inhibitor cocktail in bidistilled H₂O) and centrifuged at 3000 r.p.m. for 5 min at 4°C. Supernatants were removed and cells were resuspended in HB for 10 min at 4°C. Cells were then homogenized with a micropestle and centrifuged for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was removed and cells were resuspended in low salt buffer (20 μ M *N*-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-*N'*-2-ethanesulfonic acid, 1.5 μ M MgCl₂, 6 μ M KCl, 25% glycerol, 0.2 μ M ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, 5 μ M dithiothreitol and 1% protease inhibitor cocktail in bidistilled H₂O) followed by resuspension in a high salt buffer (20 μ M *N*-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-*N'*-2-ethanesulfonic acid, 1.5 μ M MgCl₂, 0.4 M KCl, 25% glycerol, 0.2 μ M ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, 5 μ M dithiothreitol and 1% protease inhibitor cocktail in bidistilled H₂O), shaken for 30 min at 4°C and centrifuged at 14 000 r.p.m. for 30 min at 4°C. The supernatants were solubilized 1:3 in 4X concentrated Laemmli buffer prior to loading and analysis for nuclear proteins by WB.

Cellular fractionation

Subcellular fractionation was performed using the Subcellular Proteome Extraction Kit (539790, Millipore) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Cells were allowed to grow 3 days prior to subcellular compartment extraction (cytosolic: F1; membrane: F2; nuclear: F3; cytoskeletal: F4). Enriched fractions were confirmed by WB for the detection of GSK3 β (cytoplasmic soluble fraction), integrin β 1 (membrane fraction), trimethylated lysine 27 on histone 3 (nuclear fraction) and keratin 18 (cytoskeletal fraction).

Western blot

WB analyses were performed on sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis gels under denaturing conditions as described previously using 50 μ g of whole cell lysate per lane, except for α 6A and α 6B immunodetections, which were performed under non-denaturing conditions using 120 μ g of whole cell lysate per lane (12,31). Primary antibodies were detected with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies (anti-mouse, anti-rabbit, GE Healthcare—Amersham Bioscience, Baie d'Urfe, Quebec) and developed using the Immobilon Western® kit (Millipore).

Immunofluorescence

IF was performed as described previously (32). Briefly, 5×10^4 T84 cells were seeded onto serum-pretreated coverslips in a 12-well plate (Falcon), allowed to adhere for 48 h under normal culture conditions and processed for IF experiments. For α 6 and β 4 staining, cells were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde, non-specific sites were blocked for 1 h at room temperature with 5% Blotto–PBS (pH 7.4) and both primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in 5% Blotto–PBS (pH 7.4). For α 6A and α 6B staining, cells were fixed in MeOH and EtOH, respectively. Non-specific sites were blocked for 1 h at room temperature in a 2% bovine serum albumin solution in PBS (pH 7.4) and both primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in 2% bovine serum albumin–PBS (pH 7.4). Cells were treated with a 0.2% Triton X-100 solution for 5 min prior to antibody incubation. Primary antibodies were detected with Alexa Fluor 488 or 594 goat anti-mouse secondary antibodies (Invitrogen, A11017, A11032) and Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rat secondary antibody (Invitrogen, A11006).

Transfections and luciferase assays

TOPflash and FOPflash reporter plasmids (Millipore) were transfected into CRC cell lines with Effectene transfection reagent (Qiagen) using the manufacturer's instructions. Firefly and renilla luciferase activities were measured using the dual luciferase reporter assay system (Promega, Madison, WI) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, each cell line was plated at 5×10^4 cells/well in 12-well plates. Cells were co-transfected with TOPflash or FOPflash reporter plasmids and the renilla luciferase expression plasmid (Promega) and treated with dimethyl sulfoxide or SB216763 for 48 h. Data were obtained by calculating the ratio of firefly/renilla luciferase expressions for the TOPflash and FOPflash reporter plasmids. The FOPflash ratio was subtracted from the TOPflash ratio. Data represent three separate experiments performed in triplicate.

Human colorectal tissues

Samples of 97 CRC and paired normal tissues (at least 10 cm from the tumour) were obtained from patients undergoing surgical resection without prior neoadjuvant therapy. Tissues were obtained after patients' written informed consent, according to a protocol approved by the Institutional Human Subject Review Board of the Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Sherbrooke. Diagnoses, staging and grading were performed by the pathologists of the Department of Pathology of the Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Sherbrooke.

RNA extraction, reverse transcription–polymerase chain reaction and quantitative PCR

RNA extraction and reverse transcription were performed as described previously (33). For competitive PCR, conditions and primers used to co-amplify α 6A and α 6B have been described previously (31). For quantitative PCR (qPCR), primers used to amplify α 6, RPLPO and B2M have been described previously (12,13,33). α 6A was amplified using a PrimeTime assay (IDT, Coralville, IA) composed of primers with the sequences 5'-GATCCTTACAGCATGGTATCGG and 5'-AAGAGAGGCTTACTTCTGATGC and a double-quenched hydrolysis probe containing the 5' fluorophore FAM and the sequence 56-FAM/TCGTACCTA/ZEN/GAGCGTTTAAAGAATCCACAC/3IABkFQ. α 6B was amplified using a PrimeTime assay (IDT) composed of primers with the sequences 5'-ATT CTC GCT GGG ATC TTG ATG and 5'-GAT CCT TAC AGC ATG GTA TCG G and a double-quenched hydrolysis probe containing the 5' fluorophore FAM and the sequence 56-FAM/TGG AAG TGT/ZEN/GGA TTC TTT AAA CGC TCT/3IABkFQ. Other primers used were for LGR5—LGR5-F: 5'-TGC TCT TCA CCA ACT GCA TC and LGR5-R: 5'-CTC AGG CTC ACC AG ATC CTC; for CCD2—CCD2-F: 5'-TGG GGA AGT TGA AGT GGA AC and CCD2-R: 5'-TCA TCG ACG GTG GGT ACA T; for CCD1—CCD1-F: 5'-AAC TAC CTG GAC CGC TTC CT and CCD1-R: 5'-CCA CTT GAG CTT GTT CAC CA and for DVL2—DVL2-F: 5'-GCC TAT CCA GGT TCC TCC TC and DVL2-R: 5'-AGA GCC AGT CAA CCA CAT CC. qPCR was performed

using an Mx3000P (Stratagene, Mississauga, Ontario) as described previously (33). Relative mRNA levels were established by normalization to a pool of cDNA and calculated according to the Pfaffl mathematical model (34).

Xenografts

Female CD1 nu/nu mice were purchased from Charles River (Wilmington, MA). All experimental protocols were approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experimentation of the Université de Sherbrooke. For tumour growth, a total of 2×10^6 cells suspended in 100 μ l Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium were injected into the dorsal subcutaneous tissue of 5-week-old female CD1 nu/nu mice. After injection of sh $\alpha 6$ A and shctl T84, HT29 and DLD-1 cell populations, tumour volumes were determined by external measurement [$V = (d^2 \times D)/2$] as soon as growing tumours became palpable and were followed until killing. At the time of killing, tumours were dissected and weighed. A portion of each tumour was used for mRNA extraction and subsequent qPCR analysis. Another portion was embedded in Optimum Cutting Temperature compound (Canemco-Marivac, Lakefield, Quebec), cut into 5–10 μ m sections and stained with haematoxylin and eosin for histological analysis. Slide sections were viewed using an FSX100 Bio Imaging Navigator microscope (Olympus, Center Valley, PA).

Data presentation and statistical analyses

Each experiment was repeated at least three times and representative results were shown. Student's paired *t*-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Bonferroni's multiple comparison test were used to analyse the results and data were considered to be significantly relevant at $P \leq 0.05$ and are presented as mean \pm SEM. Statistical calculations were performed using Prism 3.0 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA).

Results

Correlation between total $\alpha 6$ subunit and $\alpha 6A$ variant expression in CRC

We have shown previously that $\alpha 6B/\alpha 6A$ integrin subunit ratios were significantly reduced in a relatively small set of human CRC samples at the transcript level (12). In an attempt to extend these observations, the mRNA levels of total $\alpha 6$ as well as the individual $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ variants were analyzed by qPCR in 97 CRCs and their corresponding resection margins (RMs). The level of total $\alpha 6$ subunit mRNA was found to be increased in CRC samples compared with RMs by more than 2-fold, as well as that of $\alpha 6A$, whereas the level of $\alpha 6B$ remained stable (Figure 1A). Moreover, a close correlation was observed between the levels of $\alpha 6$ and $\alpha 6A$ mRNA ($P \leq 0.0001$, Pearson $r = 0.588$) in human CRC (Figure 1B). When each sample was analyzed individually, the expression of $\alpha 6A$ in CRC compared with corresponding RMs was found to be increased in 69 patients, similar in 16 patients and reduced in 12 patients. Taking into consideration that significant levels of $\alpha 6A$ are expressed in the crypt of the normal colonic mucosa of the RM, these results confirm that a large proportion of CRC cells express significant levels of $\alpha 6A$. Furthermore, up-regulation of $\alpha 6A$ was observed for all tumour stages or grades (Supplementary Figure 1, available at *Carcinogenesis* Online) although the presence of somatic mutations of adenomatous polyposis coli (APC) had no impact on $\alpha 6A$ expression (data not shown). Taken together, these data confirm a sustained up-regulation of the $\alpha 6A$ splice variant in human CRC.

Specific $\alpha 6A$ knockdown in CRC cells

To investigate the involvement of the $\alpha 6A$ variant in CRC cell behaviour, four well-characterized CRC cell lines—Caco-2/15, DLD-1, T84 and HT29 cells—were infected with an shRNA targeting the $\alpha 6A$ variant. The $\alpha 6A$ shRNA was designed in order to recognize a unique sequence of the short exon 25 (119pb) specific to the $\alpha 6A$ mRNA transcript. Specificity of knockdown of $\alpha 6A$ was first confirmed by competitive PCR using primers that amplify both variants of $\alpha 6$. The results revealed a decrease in $\alpha 6A$ variant mRNA expression in sh $\alpha 6A$ versus shctl-treated CRC cells in all four cell lines tested (Figure 2A). Further analysis by qPCR revealed that knocking down $\alpha 6A$ led to a decrease of $\sim 50\%$ of total $\alpha 6$ mRNA levels (Figure 2B). Analysis of splice variants showed an 80–90% decrease in $\alpha 6A$ transcript levels in sh $\alpha 6A$ cells compared with controls, without affecting mRNA

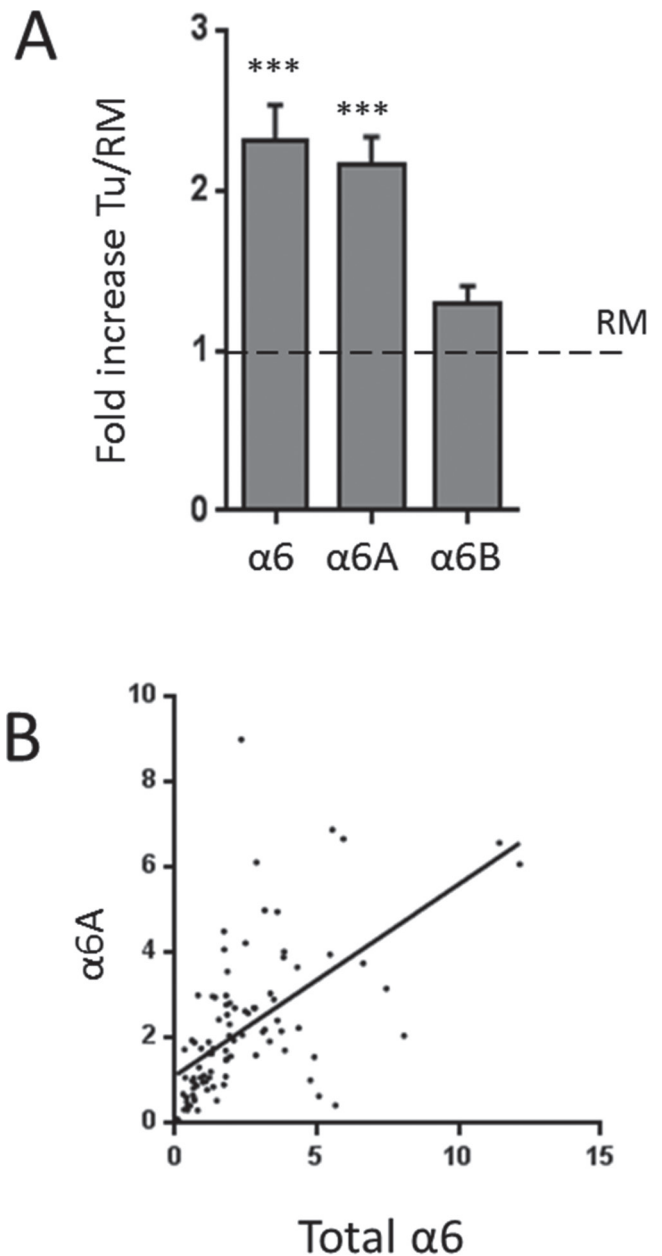


Fig. 1. Expression of the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit in human CRCs. (A) qPCR analysis of $\alpha 6$, $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ transcript levels in 97 primary colorectal tumours (Tu) relative to their matched RMs. Data were normalized using *B2M* levels as the reference gene. *** $P \leq 0.001$. (B) Graph showing the correlation between $\alpha 6$ and $\alpha 6A$ transcript expression in the 97 primary colorectal tumours. Pearson $r = 0.588$, $P \leq 0.0001$.

levels of $\alpha 6B$ (Figure 2B). WB analysis of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ performed to extend our observations at the protein level confirmed the specific abolition of the $\alpha 6A$ variant, without significantly affecting $\alpha 6B$ in all CRC cell lines (Figure 2C).

$\alpha 6A$ knockdown does not affect the intracellular localization of $\alpha 6B$

In order to verify the localization of $\alpha 6B$ in sh $\alpha 6A$ cells, we first used IF staining on T84 cells, which display hemidesmosomes. Co-staining using a rat anti- $\alpha 6$ antibody and a mouse anti- $\beta 4$ antibody showed that the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunits co-localize with the $\beta 4$ subunit in both shctl (Supplementary Figure 2A–C, available at *Carcinogenesis* Online) and sh $\alpha 6A$ cells (Supplementary Figure 2D–F, available at *Carcinogenesis* Online) with a typical punctuated hemidesmosome-like staining pattern. As expected, the relative intensity of staining for

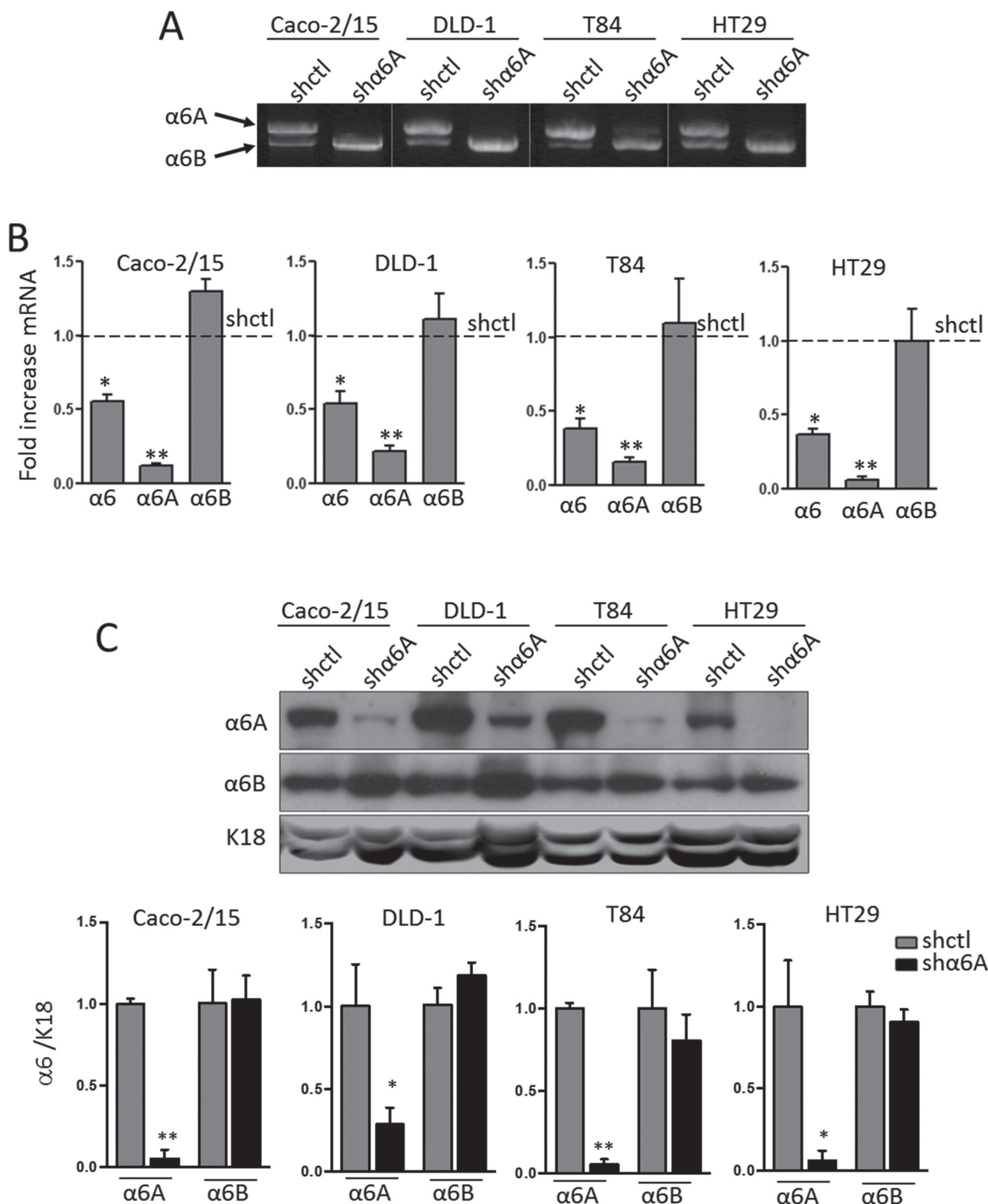


Fig. 2. Knockdown of the α6A subunit in human CRC cells. (A) Representative gel showing the results of a competitive reverse transcription–polymerase chain reaction for the detection of α6A and α6B transcripts in stably expressing shctl and sha6A Caco-2/15, DLD-1, T84 and HT29 cells. (B) qPCR using probes specific for total α6, α6A and α6B confirming the specificity of abolition of α6A variant expression by sha6A relative to shctl; **P* ≤ 0.05, ***P* ≤ 0.01, ANOVA, *n* = 3. (C) Representative WB for detection of α6A and α6B subunits in shctl- and sha6A-infected Caco-2/15, DLD-1, T84 and HT29 cells. Keratin 18 (K18) was used as loading control. Densitometric analysis of α6A and α6B protein levels in shctl- versus sha6A-infected cell populations; **P* ≤ 0.05, ***P* ≤ 0.01, *t*-test, *n* = 3.

both integrin subunits was lower in sha6A cells. Furthermore, using α6 variant-specific antibodies, a significant reduction of the α6A staining observed in shctl cells (Supplementary Figure 2G, available

at Carcinogenesis Online) was noted in sha6A cells (Supplementary Figure 2H, available at Carcinogenesis Online), whereas the α6B staining remained comparable between shctl and sha6A cells

(Supplementary Figure 2I and J, available at *Carcinogenesis* Online). These results suggested that abolition of $\alpha 6 A$ does not alter the distribution of $\alpha 6 B$. In order to confirm this observation, cell subfractionation was performed on shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ DLD-1 cells, which do not display organized hemidesmosomes. WB analysis confirmed that the membrane localization of $\alpha 6 B$ was not altered by the ablation of $\alpha 6 A$ expression (Supplementary Figure 3, F2, available at *Carcinogenesis* Online). As expected, a decrease in the $\beta 4$ integrin was observed relative to the $\beta 1$ integrin. Taken together, these two sets of observations indicate that $\alpha 6 A$ knockdown has no significant effect on $\alpha 6 B$ expression and localization.

$\alpha 6 A$ regulates cell proliferation

As the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit was reported to be involved in cell proliferation (20,21), we further investigated if this function could be attributed to the $\alpha 6 A$ splice variant. Therefore, the involvement of the $\alpha 6 A$ variant in cancer cell growth was first assessed by establishing a growth curve using CRC cell populations knocked down for $\alpha 6 A$, but expressing $\alpha 6 B$, *in vitro*. As shown in Figure 3A, a significant reduction in cell number was observed throughout the culture beginning as early as 2 days post-seeding for T84, HT29 and DLD-1 sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells in comparison with shctl cells and at 4 days for Caco-2/15 sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells. Overall, abolition of the $\alpha 6 A$ subunit led to a significant and sustained reduction of the growth rate in all CRC cells tested.

To confirm that the decrease in cell number was the result of a specific reduction in cell proliferation, all cell lines were subjected to BrdU incorporation and ISEL assays. A significant reduction in cells entering S-phase was revealed by BrdU incorporation for the four sh $\alpha 6 A$ cell lines relative to their corresponding shctl cells (Figure 3B), while at the same time, ISEL experiments showed that the apoptotic index was negligible in all colorectal cell lines (Figure 3C). These results confirm the pro-proliferative function of the $\alpha 6 A$ variant on human CRC cells.

$\alpha 6 A$ variant knockdown reduces tumour growth in xenografts

The capacity of $\alpha 6 A$ knockdown cells to form tumours *in vivo* was next evaluated by subcutaneous injection of nude mice with T84, HT29 and DLD-1 cells. Caco-2/15 cells were not included in this assay because of the long latency period required to observe tumour formation in nude mice with this cell line. Interestingly, we found that the latency period for the detection of palpable tumours was significantly delayed for T84/sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells compared with T84/shctl (36 days versus 12 days) (Figure 4A), whereas this was not so for HT29 and DLD-1 cells. However, abolition of $\alpha 6 A$ in T84 and HT29 strongly diminished their growth capacity as tumours in nude mice (Figure 4A and B), resulting in a significant reduction of the tumour weight at the time of the killing (Figure 4C and D). The decrease in proliferation rate observed in DLD-1 sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells *in vitro* was not transposed into a significant reduction in tumour growth and weight (data not shown). However, histological haematoxylin and eosin analysis showed that DLD-1 shctl xenograft tumours displayed large necrosis/oedema regions, a feature not observed in DLD-1 sh $\alpha 6 A$ xenograft tumours (Figure 4E). This observation could explain the lack of difference in tumour size development observed, despite the decrease in proliferation in DLD-1 sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells. On the other hand, no histological difference was observed between shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ xenograft tumours from T84 and HT29 cells (Figure 4E). As shown in Figure 4F, qPCR analysis of $\alpha 6 A$ and $\alpha 6 B$ in tumours confirmed that the $\alpha 6 A$ knockdown is retained in HT29 and DLD-1 and tends to be retained in T84 xenografts even after 50 days ($P < 0.01$ for HT29 and DLD-1; $P < 0.08$ for T84). Taken together, these results demonstrate that the $\alpha 6 A$ variant can regulate tumour growth in at least a subset of CRC cell lines in xenografts, confirming the pro-proliferative effect of the $\alpha 6 A$ variant.

$\alpha 6 A$ knockdown regulates the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway

The Wnt/ β -catenin pathway is one of the most important regulators of cell proliferation in various systems and is often strongly deregulated in human CRC (35,36), thus suggesting a possible link between $\alpha 6 A$

expression and Wnt/ β -catenin activity in CRC cells. Wnt/ β -catenin activity was first evaluated by determining the level of GSK3 β phosphorylation of β -catenin at ser37/thr41 using an active β -catenin antibody. WB analyses of whole cell lysates showed a statistically significant decrease in the levels of active β -catenin in all sh $\alpha 6 A$ cell lines relative to total β -catenin compared with shctl cells (Figure 5A). This overall decrease was also reflected in WB analyses of nuclear extracts, where β -catenin was reduced in $\alpha 6 A$ knockdown Caco-2/15, DLD-1 and T84 (Figure 5B). These results suggest that in these CRC cells, depletion of the $\alpha 6 A$ integrin variant interferes with the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway by enhancing the phosphorylation of β -catenin by GSK3 β , targeting it to proteasome degradation and consequently reducing its accumulation in the nucleus.

To evaluate the functional significance of reduced β -catenin levels, the activity of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway was further analyzed by the luciferase assay using a responsive β -catenin/TCF4/LEF reporter plasmid (TOPflash). As shown in Figure 5C, a sharp decrease in TOPflash activity was observed in Caco-2/15, DLD-1 and T84 sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells compared with shctl. In our hands, HT29 cells displayed a below-detection level of TOPflash activity compared with the other cell lines.

Inhibition of GSK3 β rescues Wnt/ β -catenin pathway

To further investigate the possible contribution of GSK3 β to $\alpha 6 A$ -mediated β -catenin activation, we evaluated the effect of GSK3 β inhibition on the rescue of responsive β -catenin/TCF4/LEF reporter plasmid activity and target gene expression in $\alpha 6 A$ knocked down T84 cells. As shown in Figure 6, we found that the pharmacological inhibition of GSK3 β with SB21673 led to a significant stimulation of TOPflash activity in both shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells (Figure 6A). Moreover, GSK3 β inhibition stimulated TOPflash activity to the same level in both shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells. To further extend these observations, the effect of $\alpha 6 A$ knockdown and GSK3 β inhibition on Wnt/ β -catenin target gene expression was analyzed by qPCR. We chose to investigate LGR5, CCD1 and CCD2, three well-documented target genes of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway in the intestine (37,38). First, sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells were found to display a significant reduction of mRNA levels for LGR5 and CCD2 relative to shctl cells (Figure 6B), confirming the inhibition of Wnt/ β -catenin transcriptional activity on these two target genes. GSK3 β inhibition in sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells resulted in a significant stimulation of LGR5 and CCD2 mRNA expression (Figure 6B). When both shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells treated with the GSK3 β inhibitor were compared, LGR5 mRNA expression was still significantly lower in sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells than in shctl cells, whereas CCD2 mRNA expression was similar (Figure 6B), suggesting at least a partial rescue. No significant change in CCD1 mRNA expression was observed under these conditions (data not shown). These results suggest a role for the $\alpha 6 A$ integrin subunit in the control of Wnt/ β -catenin activity and some of its target genes through GSK3 β , which in turn may regulate CRC proliferation.

Down-regulation of DVL2

The promoting effect of $\alpha 6 A$ on the expression of the active/nuclear form of β -catenin and the fact that inhibition of GSK3 β could rescue the activity of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway suggest that $\alpha 6 A$ could interfere with a signalling event upstream to GSK3 β . Thus, we investigated the possibility that $\alpha 6 A$ could act through the main GSK3 β regulator, DVL2 (39). Interestingly, WB analyses of whole cell lysates revealed that knockdown of $\alpha 6 A$ led to a significant decrease in the protein levels of DVL2 in all four cell lines tested (Figure 6C) although its transcript levels were not affected (Figure 6D), suggesting that integrin $\alpha 6 A \beta 4$ regulates the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway through DVL2.

Discussion

Over the past several years, there has been an increase in evidence showing that integrin receptors can have important functions in

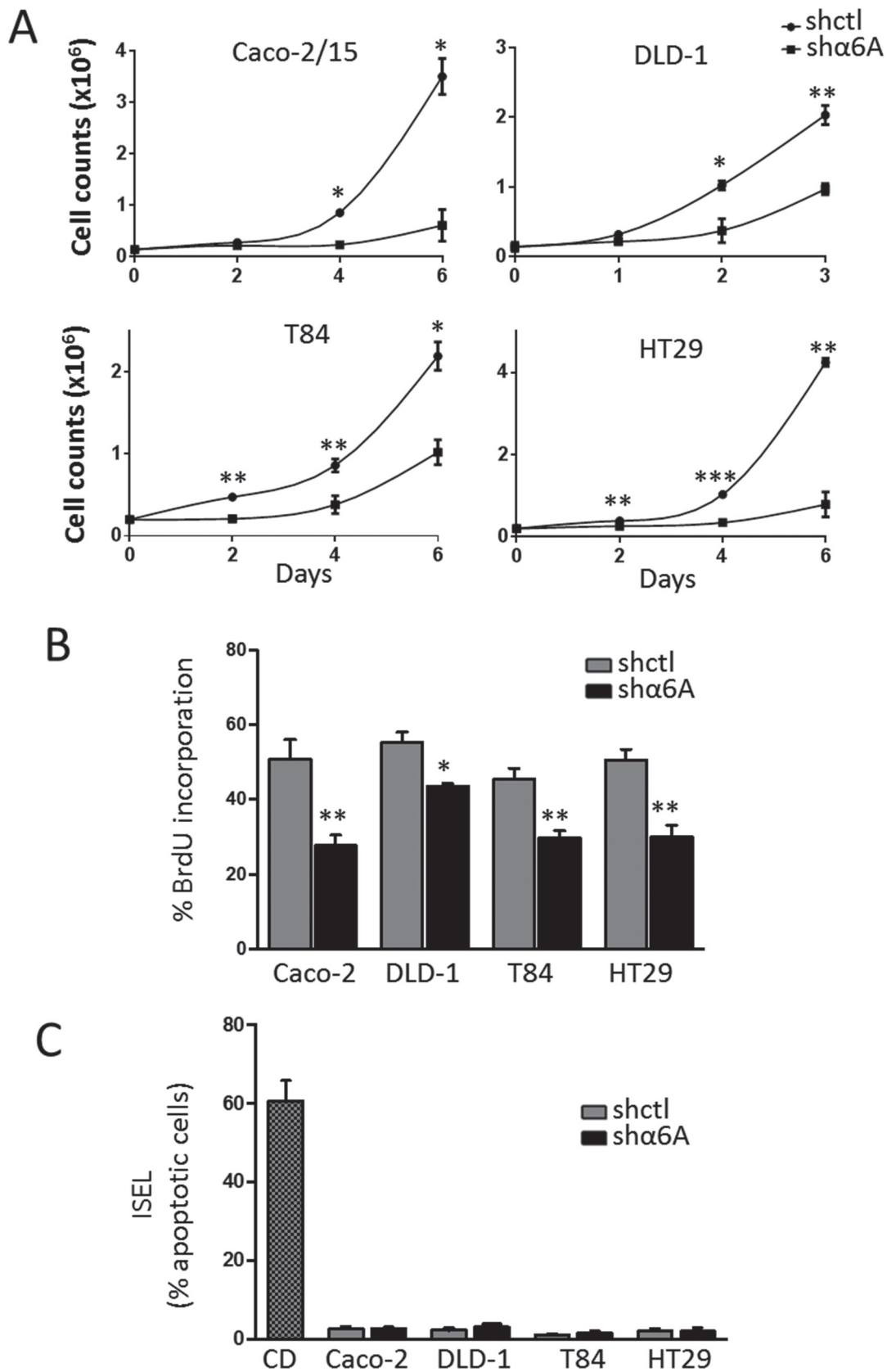


Fig. 3. Knocked down $\alpha 6A$ splice variant decreases cell proliferation. (A) Cell counts over a 3–6 day period after the seeding of Caco-2/15, DLD-1, T84 and HT29 stably expressing sha6A or shctl . Cells were counted at the indicated times. (B) BrdU labelling assay in Caco-2/15, DLD-1, T84 and HT29 sha6A and shctl cells at 2 days post-seeding. (C) ISEL assay in Caco-2/15, DLD-1, T84 and HT29 sha6A and shctl cells at 2 days post-seeding. Cytochalasin D (CD)-treated cells were used as positive control for apoptosis. Statistical analysis between shctl and sha6A : * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$, *** $P \leq 0.001$, t -test, $n = 3$.

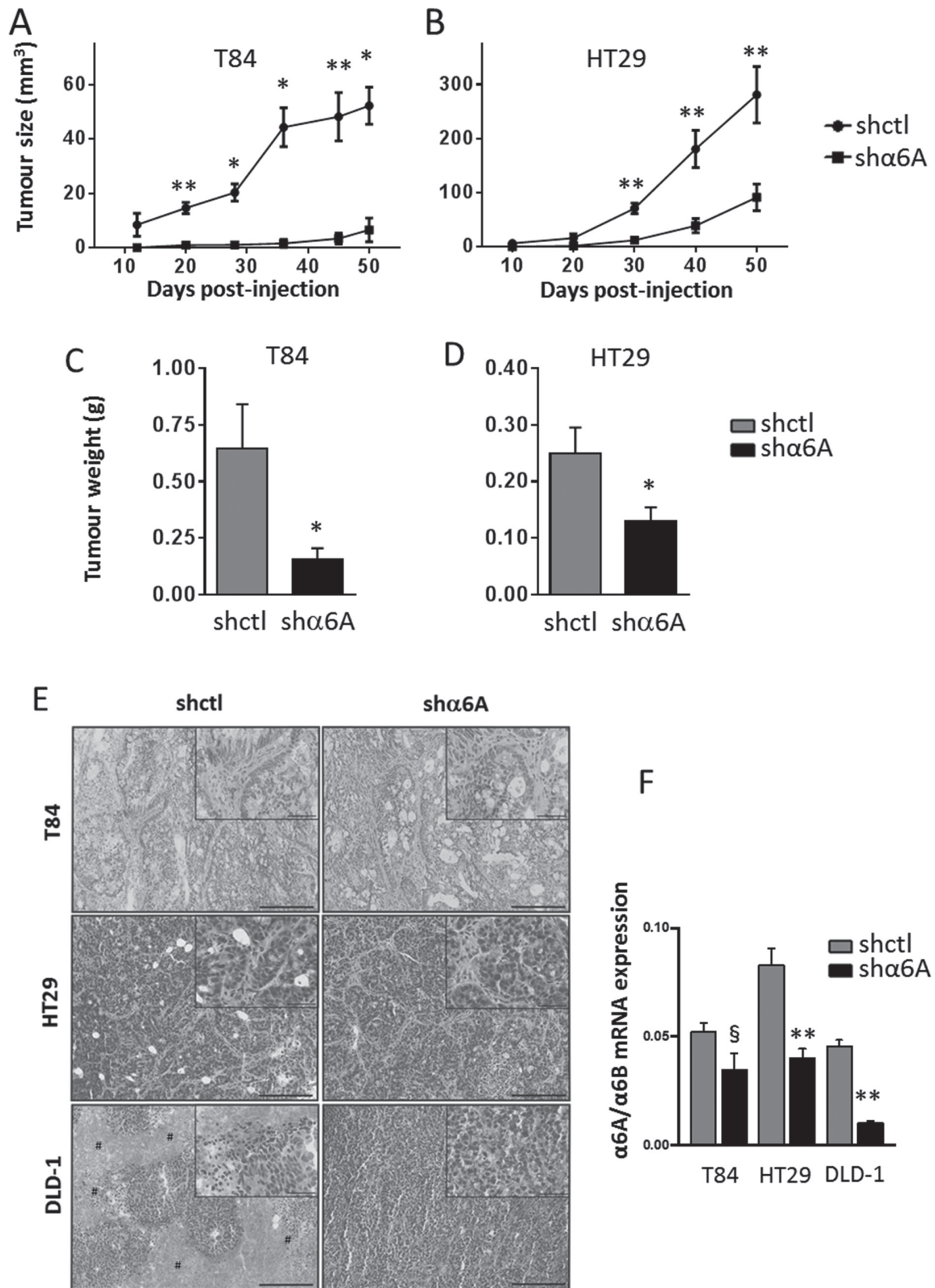


Fig. 4. Knockdown of $\alpha 6 A$ variant in human CRC cells inhibits their growth in xenografts. (**A** and **B**) Tumour growth (mm³) following subcutaneous injection of 2×10^6 T84 and HT29 stably expressing sh $\alpha 6 A$ and shctl cells into nude mice. Tumour volumes were determined by external measurement [$V = (d^2 \times D)/2$]. (**C** and **D**) Weight (g) of tumours from T84 and HT29 shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells at the time of killing. Statistical analysis between shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$: * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$, t -test, $n = 4$. (**E**) Representative haematoxylin and eosin staining images for T84, HT29 and DLD-1 shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ xenograft tumours. Scale bars = 200 μ m for main panels and 50 μ m for inserts. Hash symbols denote necrosis/oedema regions. (**F**) qPCR analyses for the expression of $\alpha 6 A$ and $\alpha 6 B$ transcript levels in xenograft tumours from T84, HT29 and DLD-1 shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells. Data are expressed by $\alpha 6 A$ normalized to $\alpha 6 B$ levels. ** $P \leq 0.01$, § $P = 0.0783$, t -test, $n = 4$.

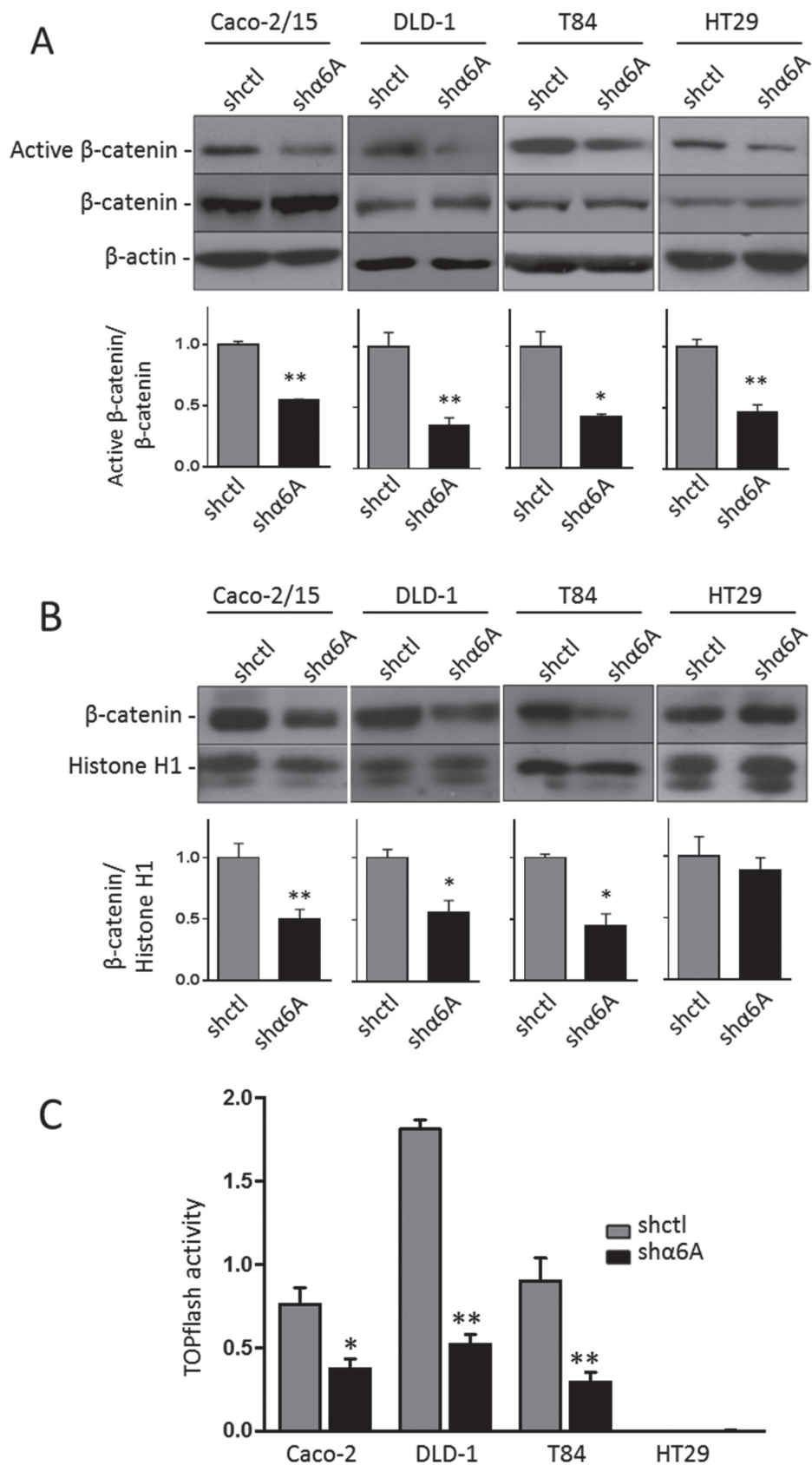


Fig. 5. Regulation of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway by the $\alpha 6A$ variant subunit. Representative WB and graph of the densitometric analysis for the detection of active β -catenin and total β -catenin in the whole cell extract (A) and β -catenin in nuclear extracts (B). β -Actin served as loading control in cell extracts and histone H1 for nuclear extracts. Statistical analysis between shctrl and sha6A: * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$, *t*-test, $n = 3$. (C) TOPflash assay of the response of β -catenin/TCF4 promotor activity in the $\alpha 6A$ variant knocked down cell lines and their corresponding shctrl. Results showed the net luciferase/renilla ratio (Topflash – FOPflash). Statistical analysis between shctrl and sha6A: * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$, *t*-test, $n = 3$.

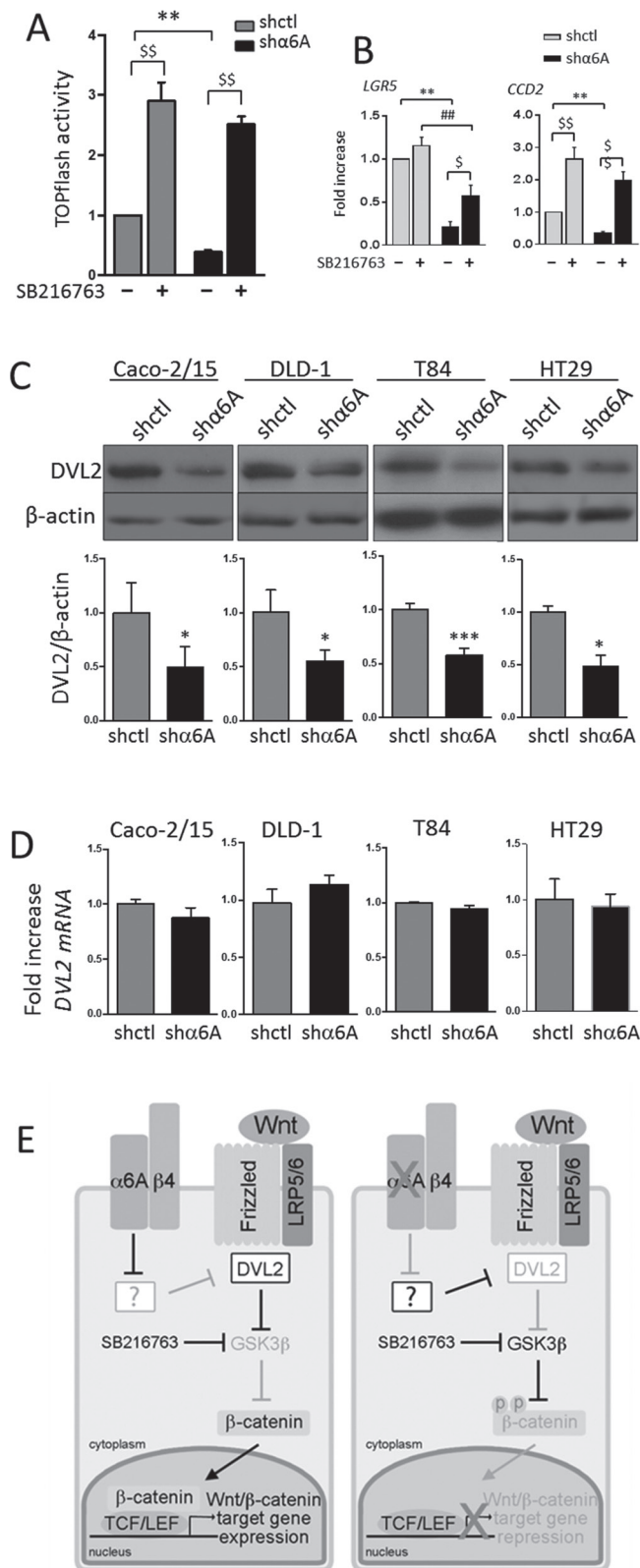


Fig. 6. Regulation of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway. (A and B) Inhibition of GSK3 β rescues Wnt/ β -catenin activity. (A) Response of β -catenin/TCF4 promoter activity in $\alpha 6 A$ knocked down T84 cells and controls \pm SB216763. Statistical analysis between shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$: $**P \leq 0.001$; statistical analysis between - versus + SB216763: $^{SS}P \leq 0.001$; ANOVA, $n = 3$. (B) qPCR analysis for the expression of *LGR5* and *CCD2* transcript levels in shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells. T84 cells were treated for 24 h \pm SB216763 prior to

various steps of cancer progression, as main modulators of cell survival, invasion, migration and proliferation (6–9,19,24). Moreover, in cancer, although integrins can be mutated, they are more often found to be regulated at the level of expression and constitutively activated in lipid rafts (1,4,6) as observed for the $\alpha 6 \beta 4$ integrin in CRC (12). Up-regulation of the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit is not restricted to CRC, as other cancer types such as breast cancer and glioblastoma have been shown to express high levels of $\alpha 6$, which correlates with poor survival (21,25). However, the integrin $\alpha 6$ subunit is expressed in the form of $\alpha 6 A$ and $\alpha 6 B$ variants in most tissues (26) although each variant may mediate distinct cell functions (27–31). In the human colon, the $\alpha 6 B$ variant has been detected in the quiescent cells of the surface epithelium, whereas the $\alpha 6 A$ variant has been found to be associated with the proliferative cells in the normal crypts and in colorectal primary tumours (12). In this study, we found that the overall increase of $\alpha 6$ subunit found in CRC occurs almost exclusively under its $\alpha 6 A$ splice variant form. More importantly, we also identified specific functions of the $\alpha 6 A$ variant as a pro-proliferative component for CRC cells and a regulator of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway.

Alternative splicing is a process by which exons are excluded/included into the mRNA, which allows for a considerable increase in protein diversity. Numerous studies have shown that alternative splicing is involved in the generation of pro-tumoural variants in cancer (40). Herein, we demonstrated that the inclusion of exon 25 during $\alpha 6$ integrin pre-mRNA processing is favoured in CRC and leads to the formation of a pro-proliferative variant of the $\alpha 6$ subunit, $\alpha 6 A$. Interestingly, this integrin seems to have a common effect on CRC cells, since all four tested CRC cell lines in which $\alpha 6 A$ was knocked down showed a reduction in *in vitro* cell proliferation and a decrease in S-phase entry. A reduction in tumour growth in xenografts was also observed. Interestingly, the reduction of cell proliferation and/or tumour growth of mammary carcinoma cells, MCF7 breast cancer cells, glioblastoma cells and human liposarcoma cells has been reported previously following the knockdown of $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit expression (20,21,23,41). However, this is the first time that such pro-proliferative and pro-tumoural growth mediated by the $\alpha 6$ integrin subunit can be specifically attributed to one of its variants, $\alpha 6 A$.

How the $\alpha 6 A (\beta 4)$ integrin specifically regulates the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway to modulate cell proliferation remains to be determined. Integrins interact with scaffold and kinase proteins to generate intracellular signalling events. Since $\alpha 6 A$ and $\alpha 6 B$ differ only by their cytoplasmic domains, the pro-proliferative function of the $\alpha 6 A$ variant could be attributed to the recruitment of and/or interaction with

analysis. Data were normalized to *RPLPO* as reference gene. Statistical analysis between untreated shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$: $**P \leq 0.001$; statistical analysis between - versus + SB216763: $^{SS}P \leq 0.05$, $^{SS}P \leq 0.001$; ANOVA, $n = 3$. (C and D) Knockdown of $\alpha 6 A$ reduces DVL2 protein levels in the four cell lines tested. (C) Representative WB and graph of the densitometric analysis of the detection of DVL2 protein levels in shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells. Statistical analysis between untreated shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$: $*P \leq 0.05$, $^{***}P \leq 0.0001$, *t*-test, $n = 3$. (D) qPCR analysis for the expression of *DVL2* transcript levels in shctl and sh $\alpha 6 A$ cells. Data were normalized to *RPLPO* levels. (E) Working model for the involvement of the $\alpha 6 A \beta 4$ integrin in the regulation of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway. (Left) The $\alpha 6 A \beta 4$ integrin is over-expressed in CRC. When present, $\alpha 6 A$ regulates positively DVL2 at the protein level. DVL2, which inhibits GSK3 β -mediated β -catenin phosphorylation, enhances β -catenin stability and translocation into the nucleus for the activation of the transcription of specific target genes involved in cell proliferation. (Right) Knockdown of the $\alpha 6 A$ subunit in CRC cells results in a decrease in DVL2 levels, thus allowing β -catenin phosphorylation by GSK3 β . β -Catenin being targeted to degradation is no longer translocated to the nucleus resulting in repression of the transcription of Wnt/ β -catenin-specific target genes. In this context, pharmacological inhibition of GSK3 β with SB216763 restores Wnt/ β -catenin pathway activity by bypassing the regulation of DVL2 by the $\alpha 6 A$ integrin subunit. The '?' box denotes a still unknown mechanism by which $\alpha 6 A$ could be involved in the repression of key proteins regulating DVL2 degradation. Pathways/molecules activated are in black, whereas those inhibited are in grey.

specific cytoplasmic partners. For instance, it has been reported that $\alpha 6A$ can interact with MSS4 and $\alpha 6B$ with BIN1 via their GFFKR motif (28). MSS4 has been found to act as a regulator of the stress response and apoptosis (42), whereas BIN1 has been characterized as a tumour suppressor through its strong ability to inhibit c-MYC transcriptional activity (43). On the other hand, GIPC, a glut1-binding protein, has been found to bind to the type I PDZ domains of both $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$, the interaction being stronger on $\alpha 6A$ (27). Incidentally, a small interfering RNA-targeting GIPC has been found to inhibit pancreatic cancer growth in an orthotopic mouse model (44).

The Wnt pathway has been recognized as the dominant force behind the proliferative activity of the intestinal epithelium both in its physiological state and in CRC (45), thus suggesting a possible relation between the pro-proliferative $\alpha 6A(\beta 4)$ integrin and the activation of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway in both normal colonic crypts and in CRC. In normal crypt cells, the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway is mainly modulated by the Wnt ligands of the stem cell niche (45). In CRCs, Wnt activation mainly occurs through mutation of the APC gene (35,46), which regulates β -catenin phosphorylation, thus favouring the accumulation of β -catenin in the nucleus, which after binding with T-cell factor results in the transcriptional activation of pro-proliferative target genes (47). However, it has been established that a number of mutations allow the retention of APC function and regulation of the activity of β -catenin in CRC cells despite mutation in APC (35,46,48). In agreement with these findings, herein using CRC cell lines that harbour various APC mutations (46), we demonstrated that abolition of $\alpha 6A$ expression has a significant impact on a series of end points used to monitor the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway. Indeed, based on the observations that down-regulation of $\alpha 6A$ levels results in a reduction of the relative amounts of both active (evaluated as the non-GSK3 β phosphorylated form) and nuclear β -catenin, whereas the pharmacological inhibition of GSK3 β restored the activity of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway as evaluated by TOPflash assays and the modulation of specific target genes including LGR5 and CCD2, we suggest that $\alpha 6A$ interferes with the activity of GSK3 β . Interestingly, the expression of DVL2, which is recruited to the Wnt receptor complex upon ligand activation and acts on the activation of Wnt/ β -catenin signalling by preventing constitutive proteolytic destruction of β -catenin (39), was significantly diminished at the protein level in $\alpha 6A$ knocked down CRC cells, suggesting that the $\alpha 6A\beta 4$ integrin acts upstream from GSK3 β . The mechanism still remains to be elucidated, but it is noteworthy that selective degradation pathways involving autophagy and prickle-1-dependent proteasomes have been reported previously for DVL. Indeed, during starvation-induced autophagy, the E3 ubiquitin ligase Von Hippel–Lindau protein tumour suppressor (pVHL) was shown to mediate DVL ubiquitination and its recognition by p62/SQSTM1, targeting it for selective autophagy (49). On the other hand, prickle-1, a planar cell polarity protein, can interact directly with DVL to mediate its ubiquitination and subsequent proteasome degradation via its destruction box (D-box) motif (50). Thus, via their regulatory functions on DVL degradation, pVHL and prickle-1 could negatively regulate Wnt/ β -catenin activity.

In conclusion, this study identified for the first time a specific cell function for the $\alpha 6A$ splice variant. Our results suggest that $\alpha 6A(\beta 4)$ regulates cell proliferation and the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway through DVL2/GSK3 β (Figure 6E). However, the $\alpha 6A$ cytoplasmic-associated protein responsible for this mechanism remains to be elucidated, as well as the molecular mechanisms responsible for the increase of $\alpha 6A$ in CRC cells.

Supplementary material

Supplementary Figures 1–3 can be found at <http://carcin.oxfordjournals.org/>

Funding

Canadian Institutes of Health Research (MOP-97836 to J.-F.B., CTP-82942 to CRC biobank).

Acknowledgements

We thank E.Herring for reviewing the manuscript and technical support, E.Tremblay for virus production and G.Bernarchez for the preparation of the colorectal tissue samples and cDNA. J.-F.B. is the recipient of a Canadian Research Chair in Intestinal Physiopathology. J.C.C. is a scholar of the Fonds de la Recherche du Québec - Santé (FRQS). J.-F.B. and J.C.C. are members of the FRQS-funded Centre de Recherche Clinique Étienne-Le Bel of the Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Sherbrooke.

Conflict of Interest Statement: J.-F.G., N.B. and J.-F.B. are inventors of a patented technology related to integrin alpha 6. The other authors disclose no conflicts.

References

- Margadant, C. *et al.* (2011) Mechanisms of integrin activation and trafficking. *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.*, **23**, 607–614.
- de Melker, A.A. *et al.* (1999) Integrins: alternative splicing as a mechanism to regulate ligand binding and integrin signaling events. *Bioessays*, **21**, 499–509.
- Hynes, R.O. (2002) Integrins: bidirectional, allosteric signaling machines. *Cell*, **110**, 673–687.
- Giancotti, F.G. (2003) A structural view of integrin activation and signaling. *Dev. Cell*, **4**, 149–151.
- Siegel, R. *et al.* (2012) Cancer statistics, 2012. *CA Cancer J. Clin.*, **62**, 10–29.
- Guo, W. *et al.* (2004) Integrin signalling during tumour progression. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*, **5**, 816–826.
- Beaulieu, J.F. (2010) Integrin $\alpha 6\beta 4$ in colorectal cancer. *World J. Gastrointest. Pathophysiol.*, **1**, 3–11.
- Wang, S. *et al.* (2009) Integrin-linked kinase: a multi-functional regulator modulating extracellular pressure-stimulated cancer cell adhesion through focal adhesion kinase and AKT. *Cell. Oncol.*, **31**, 273–289.
- Mercurio, A.M. *et al.* (2001) Towards a mechanistic understanding of tumor invasion—lessons from the alpha6beta 4 integrin. *Semin. Cancer Biol.*, **11**, 129–141.
- Lee, E.C. *et al.* (1992) The integrin alpha 6 beta 4 is a laminin receptor. *J. Cell Biol.*, **117**, 671–678.
- Basora, N. *et al.* (1999) Expression of functionally distinct variants of the beta(4)A integrin subunit in relation to the differentiation state in human intestinal cells. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **274**, 29819–29825.
- Dydensborg, A.B. *et al.* (2009) Integrin alpha6beta4 inhibits colon cancer cell proliferation and c-Myc activity. *BMC Cancer*, **9**, 223.
- Ni, H. *et al.* (2005) Upregulation of a functional form of the beta4 integrin subunit in colorectal cancers correlates with c-Myc expression. *Oncogene*, **24**, 6820–6829.
- Falcioni, R. *et al.* (1994) Integrin beta-4 expression in colorectal-cancer. *Int. J. Oncol.*, **5**, 573–578.
- Chao, C. *et al.* (1996) A function for the integrin alpha6beta4 in the invasive properties of colorectal carcinoma cells. *Cancer Res.*, **56**, 4811–4819.
- Shaw, L.M. (2001) Identification of insulin receptor substrate 1 (IRS-1) and IRS-2 as signaling intermediates in the alpha6beta4 integrin-dependent activation of phosphoinositide 3-OH kinase and promotion of invasion. *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **21**, 5082–5093.
- Mercurio, A.M. *et al.* (2004) Autocrine signaling in carcinoma: VEGF and the alpha6beta4 integrin. *Semin. Cancer Biol.*, **14**, 115–122.
- Dans, M. *et al.* (2001) Tyrosine phosphorylation of the beta 4 integrin cytoplasmic domain mediates Shc signaling to extracellular signal-regulated kinase and antagonizes formation of hemidesmosomes. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **276**, 1494–1502.
- Chen, M. *et al.* (2009) Integrin alpha6beta4 controls the expression of genes associated with cell motility, invasion, and metastasis, including S100A4/metastasin. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **284**, 1484–1494.
- Wang, Y. *et al.* (2011) Integrin subunits alpha5 and alpha6 regulate cell cycle by modulating the chk1 and Rb/E2F pathways to affect breast cancer metastasis. *Mol. Cancer*, **10**, 84.
- Lathia, J.D. *et al.* (2010) Integrin alpha 6 regulates glioblastoma stem cells. *Cell Stem Cell*, **6**, 421–432.
- Marchiò, S. *et al.* (2012) A complex of $\alpha 6$ integrin and E-cadherin drives liver metastasis of colorectal cancer cells through hepatic angiopoietin-like 6. *EMBO Mol. Med.*, **4**, 1156–1175.
- Wang, L. *et al.* (2011) Integrin $\alpha 6$ (high) cell population functions as an initiator in tumorigenesis and relapse of human liposarcoma. *Mol. Cancer Ther.*, **10**, 2276–2286.

24. Desgrosellier, J.S. *et al.* (2010) Integrins in cancer: biological implications and therapeutic opportunities. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*, **10**, 9–22.
25. Friedrichs, K. *et al.* (1995) High expression level of alpha 6 integrin in human breast carcinoma is correlated with reduced survival. *Cancer Res.*, **55**, 901–906.
26. Hogervorst, F. *et al.* (1993) Biochemical characterization and tissue distribution of the A and B variants of the integrin alpha 6 subunit. *J. Cell Biol.*, **121**, 179–191.
27. Tani, T.T. *et al.* (2001) PDZ interaction sites in integrin alpha subunits. T14853, TIP/GIPC binds to a type I recognition sequence in alpha 6A/alpha 5 and a novel sequence in alpha 6B. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **276**, 36535–36542.
28. Wixler, V. *et al.* (1999) Identification of novel interaction partners for the conserved membrane proximal region of alpha-integrin cytoplasmic domains. *FEBS Lett.*, **445**, 351–355.
29. Shaw, L.M. *et al.* (1995) The alpha 6A beta 1 and alpha 6B beta 1 integrin variants signal differences in the tyrosine phosphorylation of paxillin and other proteins. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **270**, 23648–23652.
30. Wei, J. *et al.* (1998) Regulation of mitogen-activated protein kinase activation by the cytoplasmic domain of the alpha6 integrin subunit. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **273**, 5903–5907.
31. Dydensborg, A.B. *et al.* (2009) Differential expression of the integrins alpha6Abeta4 and alpha6Bbeta4 along the crypt-villus axis in the human small intestine. *Histochem. Cell Biol.*, **131**, 531–536.
32. Groulx, J.F. *et al.* (2012) Autophagy is active in normal colon mucosa. *Autophagy*, **8**, 893–902.
33. Dydensborg, A.B. *et al.* (2006) Normalizing genes for quantitative RT-PCR in differentiating human intestinal epithelial cells and adenocarcinomas of the colon. *Am. J. Physiol. Gastrointest. Liver Physiol.*, **290**, G1067–G1074.
34. Pfaffl, M.W. (2001) A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RT-PCR. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **29**, e45.
35. Segditsas, S. *et al.* (2006) Colorectal cancer and genetic alterations in the Wnt pathway. *Oncogene*, **25**, 7531–7537.
36. Van der Flier, L.G. *et al.* (2007) The intestinal Wnt/TCF signature. *Gastroenterology*, **132**, 628–632.
37. Barker, N. *et al.* (2007) Identification of stem cells in small intestine and colon by marker gene Lgr5. *Nature*, **449**, 1003–1007.
38. Huang, W. *et al.* (2007) GSK3 beta mediates suppression of cyclin D2 expression by tumor suppressor PTEN. *Oncogene*, **26**, 2471–2482.
39. Gao, C. *et al.* (2010) Dishevelled: the hub of Wnt signaling. *Cell. Signal.*, **22**, 717–727.
40. Miura, K. *et al.* (2012) Splice isoforms as therapeutic targets for colorectal cancer. *Carcinogenesis*, **33**, 2311–2319.
41. Cariati, M. *et al.* (2008) Alpha-6 integrin is necessary for the tumorigenicity of a stem cell-like subpopulation within the MCF7 breast cancer cell line. *Int. J. Cancer*, **122**, 298–304.
42. Walter, B.M. *et al.* (2012) Mss4 protein is a regulator of stress response and apoptosis. *Cell Death Dis.*, **3**, e297.
43. Sakamuro, D. *et al.* (1996) BIN1 is a novel MYC-interacting protein with features of a tumour suppressor. *Nat. Genet.*, **14**, 69–77.
44. Muders, M.H. *et al.* (2009) Targeting GIPC/synectin in pancreatic cancer inhibits tumor growth. *Clin. Cancer Res.*, **15**, 4095–4103.
45. van der Flier, L.G. *et al.* (2009) Stem cells, self-renewal, and differentiation in the intestinal epithelium. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*, **71**, 241–260.
46. Rowan, A.J. *et al.* (2000) APC mutations in sporadic colorectal tumors: a mutational “hotspot” and interdependence of the “two hits”. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **97**, 3352–3357.
47. Korinek, V. *et al.* (1997) Constitutive transcriptional activation by a beta-catenin-Tcf complex in APC–/– colon carcinoma. *Science*, **275**, 1784–1787.
48. Yang, J. *et al.* (2006) Adenomatous polyposis coli (APC) differentially regulates beta-catenin phosphorylation and ubiquitination in colon cancer cells. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **281**, 17751–17757.
49. Gao, C. *et al.* (2010) Autophagy negatively regulates Wnt signalling by promoting Dishevelled degradation. *Nat. Cell Biol.*, **12**, 781–790.
50. Chan, D.W. *et al.* (2006) Prickle-1 negatively regulates Wnt/beta-catenin pathway by promoting Dishevelled ubiquitination/degradation in liver cancer. *Gastroenterology*, **131**, 1218–1227.

Received July, 25, 2013; revised November 30, 2013;
accepted December 15, 2013