

Investigating isoform switching in RHBDF2 and its role in neoplastic growth in breast cancer (#69682)

1

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Investigating isoform switching in RHBDF2 and its role in neoplastic growth in breast cancer

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Breast cancer is the second leading cause of cancer-related deaths globally, and its prevalence rates are increasing day by day. One major reason is the assumption that a “one gene leads to one protein” approach in most studies undergoing predicting therapeutic drug targets for cancer therapy. Therefore, there is always an immense need to find promising and novel anti-cancer drug targets. Proteases have an integral role in cell proliferation and growth because the proteolysis mechanism is an irreversible process that aids in regulating cellular growth during tumorigenesis. Therefore, they can be considered an important target for cancer treatment. Apart classifying rhomboids into active and inactive rhomboids, alternative splicing tends to produce more transcript isoforms of inactive rhomboids “iRhom2”. Speculatively, previous studies on gene expression analysis of RHBDF2 gene encoding iRhom2 showed heterogenous behaviour during tumorigenesis. Consistent with this, several studies have reported the antagonistic role of iRhom2 in tumorigenesis, i.e. either they are involved in negative regulation of EGFR ligands via ERAD pathway or positively regulate EGFR ligands via EGFR signalling pathway. Additionally, different opinions suggest iRhom2 mediated cleavage of EGFR ligands takes place TACE dependently or TACE independently. However, how to reconcile these seemingly opposing roles is still unclear and might be attributed to more than one transcript isoform of iRhom2. To observe the differences at isoform resolution, the current strategy identified isoform switching in RHBDF2 via differential transcript usage using RNA-seq data during breast cancer initiation and progression. Furthermore, interacting partners were found via correlation and enriched to explain its antagonistic role. Isoform switching was observed at DCIS, grade 2 and grade 3 from canonical to the cub isoform. Neither EGFR nor ERAD was found enriched. However, pathways leading to TACE dependent EGFR signalling pathways were more observant, specifically MAPK signalling pathways, GPCR signalling pathways, and Toll-like receptor pathways. Nevertheless, it was noteworthy that during CTCs, the cub isoform switches back to the canonical isoform, the proteasomal

degradation pathway and cytoplasmic ribosomal protein pathways were found significantly enriched. Therefore, it could be inferred that cub isoform functions during cancer initiation in EGFR signalling whereas during metastasis where invasion is the primary task, isoform switches back to the canonical.

1 Investigating Isoform Switching in *RHBDF2* 2 for its role in Human Neoplastic Growth in 3 Breast

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13 ABSTRACT

14 Breast cancer is the second leading cause of cancer-related deaths globally, and its prevalence rates
15 are increasing day by day. One major reason is the assumption that a “one gene leads to one protein”
16 approach in most studies undergoing predicting therapeutic drug targets for cancer therapy. Therefore,
17 there is always an immense need to find promising and novel anti-cancer drug targets. Proteases have
18 an integral role in cell proliferation and growth because the proteolysis mechanism is an irreversible
19 process that aids in regulating cellular growth during tumorigenesis. Therefore, they can be considered
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21 boids, alternative splicing tends to produce more transcript isoforms of inactive rhomboids “iRhom2”.
22 Speculatively, previous studies on gene expression analysis of RHBDF2 gene encoding iRhom2 showed
23 heterogenous behaviour during tumorigenesis. Consistent with this, several studies have reported the
24 antagonistic role of iRhom2 in tumorigenesis, i.e. either they are involved in negative regulation of
25 EGFR ligands via ERAD pathway or positively regulate EGFR ligands via EGFR signalling pathway.
26 Additionally, different opinions suggest iRhom2 mediated cleavage of EGFR ligands takes place TACE
27 dependently or TACE independently. However, how to reconcile these seemingly opposing roles is still
28 unclear and might be attributed to more than one transcript isoform of iRhom2. To observe the differences
29 at isoform resolution, the current strategy identified isoform switching in RHBDF2 via differential transcript
30 usage using RNA-seq data during breast cancer initiation and progression. Furthermore, interacting
31 partners were found via correlation and enriched to explain its antagonistic role. Isoform switching was
32 observed at DCIS, grade 2 and grade 3 from canonical to the cub isoform. Neither EGFR nor ERAD
33 was found enriched. However, pathways leading to TACE dependent EGFR signalling pathways were
34 more observant, specifically MAPK signalling pathways, GPCR signalling pathways, and Toll-like receptor
35 pathways. Nevertheless, it was noteworthy that during CTCs, the cub isoform switches back to the
36 canonical isoform, the proteasomal degradation pathway and cytoplasmic ribosomal protein pathways
37 were found significantly enriched. Therefore, it could be inferred that cub isoform functions during cancer
38 initiation in EGFR signalling whereas during metastasis where invasion is the primary task, isoform
39 switches back to the canonical.

40 INTRODUCTION

41 Breast Cancer is the second leading cause of cancer-related deaths globally, and its prevalence rates
42 are increasing day by day. Cancer treatment has emerged as a serious challenge due to the inadequate
43 availability of therapeutic targets (Mansoori et al., 2017). One of the major reasons lies in stressing
44 over the assumption of a “one gene to one protein to one functional pathway” approach in most studies
45 undergoing predicting therapeutic drug targets for cancer therapy. Therefore, there is always an immense
46 need to find promising and novel anti-cancer therapeutic drug targets. Proteases have an integral role in

47 cell proliferation and growth because the proteolysis mechanism is an irreversible process that aids in
48 regulating cellular growth during tumorigenesis (Park et al., 2020). Therefore, they can be considered
49 an important target for cancer treatment.

50 Rhomboid proteases hydrolyse the peptide bonds in other proteins and are almost found in all
51 kingdoms of life. However, some members of the rhomboid family lack essential catalytic residues
52 necessary for proteolysis, suggesting that they cannot cleave substrates. Rather, they can do so by
53 complex formation with client proteins known as inactive rhomboids or pseudoprotease. One of the
54 member's known as iRhom2 encodes by the gene RHBDF2 has developed a new pseudo enzyme
55 function regulating trafficking, orchestrating inflammatory response and growth factor signalling by
56 interacting with client proteins (Bergbold and Lemberg, 2013). Both active and inactive rhomboids
57 have many transcript isoforms in mammals, with several of them can code for alternative forms of the
58 proteins. Whereas iRhom2, have two functionally important isoforms, ENST00000313080 (canonical)
59 and ENST00000591885 (cub) which are also reported in public databases (ENSEMBL and Refseq) along
60 with 18 computationally mapped transcript isoforms.

61 It is anticipated that alternative splicing and its related proteins are thought to be involved in the
62 dynamic phenotypic changes in cancer cells (Chabot and Shkreta, 2016). The importance of analysing
63 isoforms instead of genes has been highlighted because cancer cell growth is directly linked to the aberrant
64 use of one alternatively spliced formed isoform over another under unfavourable circumstances. One
65 splicing phenotype in cancers can be Isoform switching (Soneson et al., 2020). In mammalian cells,
66 the dynamic phenotypic changes are mostly due to the growth, proliferation and differentiation held
67 by EGFR signalling pathways to maintain homeostasis. However, epithelial cancers are characterized
68 by enhanced EGFR activation (Nicholson et al., 2001). Aberrant functioning of EGFR could be due
69 to overexpression of EGFR and its ligands, excessive transactivation of EGFR ligands, aberrant ligand
70 processing or mutations affecting EGFR (Nickel et al., 1983). Important EGFR ligands such as AREG,
71 HB-EGF, TGF- α and EGF binds to EGF receptors (EGFR's) as proproteins (inactive form) and must be
72 cleaved to shed into the extracellular compartment inactive form for further signalling. These ligands
73 are membrane-tethered and different proteases like pseudoproteases helps in cleaving membrane-bound
74 EGFR pro-ligands to convert them into biologically active proteins during proliferation (Dulloo et al.,
75 2019).

76 Several studies have reported the antagonistic role of iRhom2, i.e. either they are involved in negative
77 regulation of EGFR ligands via ERAD pathway or positively regulate EGFR ligands via EGFR signalling
78 pathway. Additionally, different opinions suggest iRhom2 mediated cleavage of EGFR ligands takes
79 place TACE dependently or TACE independently. Consistent with this, insilico analysis of publically
80 available gene expression datasets on Breast Cancer showed heterogenous expression behaviour of
81 RHBDF2 according to the intrinsic molecular subtypes and histological grading and staging. However,
82 progression to carcinoma is not as simple and we found little literature for studying mRNA expression
83 during neoplastic growth i.e. cancer initiation and progression. ICD-10 classifies neoplasms into four
84 groups, benign neoplasm, in situ neoplasm, malignant neoplasm and neoplasm of uncertain or unknown
85 behavior. Studies state that alternative splicing mechanism is pathologically altered during neoplastic
86 growth impacting the cell behavior and causing tissue specific changes.

87 Proposed Work

88 In the present study, we explore the antagonistic role and heterogenous expression behaviour of RHBDF2
89 encoding iRhom2 during the neoplastic growth in Breast, considering the bidirectional role that might be
90 attributed to the presence of more than one functionally important isoforms of RHBDF2 in mammals
91 during tumorigenesis.

92 METHODS

93 Data Collection

94 The paired end fastq files containing raw reads for samples in each dataset (GSE52194, GSE130660, 
95 GSE69240, GSE110114, GSE45419, GSE51124, GSE148991) were downloaded using an FTP link from
96 EMBL-EBI (The European Bioinformatics Institute), having accession numbers followed by the SRR
97 acronym. The datasets were classified as follows (GSE52194, GSE130660 for normal versus primary
98 tumour), (GSE69240 for normal versus ductal carcinoma insitu- DCIS), (GSE110114, GSE45419 for

99 normal versus invasive ductal carcinoma- IDC), (GSE148991 for normal versus circulating tumour cells-
100 CTCs) and (GSE51124 for normal versus grade2 and grade3).

101 **Transcriptome Reconstruction and Quantification**

102 The raw data was pre-processed for adapter sequences using fastp (Soneson et al., 2020). The transcrip-
103 tome data was then analyzed using new Tuxedo pipeline (Pertea et al., 2016). The filtered reads were
104 aligned on the reference genome GRch38 using Hisat2. The mapped reads from each sample along with
105 the genome GTF file were used to perform annotation-based transcriptome assembly using StringTie.
106 The assemblies were then compared and merged. The StringTie merge function creates a set of merged
107 transcripts that are comparable for the subsequent analysis.

108 **Differential Isoform Expression**



109 StringTie produces a set of read or coverage tables/files of the quantification or abundance data that were read
110 into R for isoform expression analysis using IsoformSwitchAnalyzeR. Importing data include preparing
111 a transcript sequence FASTA file, a parent directory containing coverage table/files, quantification files
112 of the samples in GTF format, and a design file enlisting the phenotypic data, i.e. sample ID and its
113 corresponding condition. The FASTA sequence file for transcripts was generated using a program utility
114 called gffread (Pertea and Pertea, 2020). The utility generates a FASTA file with DNA sequences
115 for all the transcripts present in the GTF file. The inter-sample normalisation was done using edgeR
116 embedded in the importRdata() function that concatenates all the information into SwitchAnalyzeRlist.
117 This SwitchAnalyzeRlist acts as an object containing all the data frames and phenotypic data related to
118 the dataset. The abundance files generated via StringTie are already normalised for intra-sampling using
119 the FPKM approach. EdgeR works best for inter-sample normalisation via the TMM (trimmed mean of
120 M values) method on pre-normalised count data (Maza, 2016). The normalised data was prefiltered to
121 remove the uninterested data of transcripts and genes from the switch list object such as non-expressed
122 isoforms or genes and genes with only one isoform. The differential isoform usage test was performed
123 using the function isoformswitchTestDEXSeq() enabling the switch identification.

124 **Annotating Unknown transcript isoform**

125 During stringTie-merge step, transcripts are labelled as MSTRGs. These could sometimes be either novel
126 transcripts, false positives or true transcripts that are left unannotated. The transcripts with MSTRGs
127 labels were annotated via BLASTp. To ensure either they are novel or already exist and are mislabelled,
128 BLASTp check the sequence similarity of these MSTRGs to already annotated transcript sequences
129 deposited in the public databases. The input sequence of these MSTRGs for BLASTp was extracted
130 via extract sequence function(). The MSTRGs were further considered for downstream analysis based
131 on E-value cutoff = 0, per cent identity .ie. 100% and query length matching the length of the already
132 existing annotated transcript i.e, the target sequence length. For canonical transcript (ENST00000313080)
133 it should be 856 aa and for cub transcript (ENST000591885) it should be 827 aa. The final transcripts
134 were analysed to predict their functional consequences using external tools. CPC2 (jian Kang et al.,
135 2017) was used to check the coding potential and pFam (Finn et al., 2016) to predict the biological
136 domains. The input FASTA files for the tools were manipulated using the Seqkit (Shen et al., 2016)
137 package according to the requirements of each tool.

138 **Finding interacting partners via Correlation**

139 The interacting partners were found using correlation. prepDE.py python script was used to obtain read
140 count information from the quantification file generated via StringTie. The count files were then subjected
141 for differential analysis on the GALAXY server using DESeq2. The normalised differential counts were
142 then input for correlation analysis at significance level $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ and correlation cutoff ± 0.7 .

143 **Enrichment**

144 The most significant correlated partners were enriched using GSEA (Gene set enrichment analysis)
145 (Subramanian et al., 2005).

146 RESULTS

147 Annotation of MSTRGs via BLASTp

148 To ensure either MSTRGs labelled transcripts are novel or already exist and are mislabelled, BLASTp
 149 was used to annotate them (Acland et al., 2013). If any of these transcripts would match the already
 150 annotated transcripts based on the query length, percent identity, and E-value as already mentioned, they
 151 would be merged with already annotated transcripts for further analysis.

152 The MSTRG labelled transcripts (MSTRG.15617.1, MSTRG.15617.2, MSTRG.15617.3) from the
 153 dataset GSE110114 of query length 827 amino acid (AA) showed 100% identity with isoform-2 of
 154 RHBDF2 under accession id (NP_001005498.2) of length 827 AA exactly matching the query length, i.e.
 155 827 AA and E-value 0. Similarly, following MSTRG labelled transcripts fulfilled the above mentioned
 156 criteria : the transcripts (MSTRG.20860.1, MSTRG.20860.2, MSTRG.20860.3, MSTRG.20860.4)
 157 from the dataset GSE69240, the transcripts (MSTRG.17267.4 and MSTRG.17267.5) from the dataset
 158 GSE52194, the transcripts (MSTRG.17431.2, MSTRG.17431.3, MSTRG.17431.4, MSTRG.17431.5,
 159 MSTRG.17431.8, MSTRG.17431.9, MSTRG.17431.10) from the dataset GSE45419, the transcript
 160 (MSTRG.15555.1) from the dataset GSE130660, the transcripts (MSTRG.19489.1, MSTRG.19489.3,
 161 MSTRG.19489.4, MSTRG.19489.5, MSTRG.19489.8) from the dataset GSE51124, the transcripts
 162 (MSTRG.22199.1, MSTRG.22199.5, MSTRG.22199.7, MSTRG.22199.9) from the dataset GSE148991.
 163 These transcripts were further selected for analysis also shown in Table 1.

164 From the dataset GSE52194, the transcript (MSTRG.17267.1), from the dataset GSE45419, the tran-
 165 scripts (MSTRG.17431.1, MSTRG.17431.13), from the dataset GSE148991, the transcripts (MSTRG.22199.2,
 166 MSTRG.22199.10) of query length 856 AA showed 100% identity with isoform-1 of RHBDF2 under
 167 accession id (NP_078875.4) amino acid length 856 AA exactly matching the query length, i.e. 856 AA
 168 and E-value 0. These transcripts were further selected for analysis also shown in Table 2.

Dataset	Similarity match with cub isoform
GSE52194	MSTRG.17267.4, MSTRG.17267.5
GSE130660	MSTRG.15555.1
GSE69240	MSTRG.20860.1, MSTRG.20860.2, MSTRG.20860.3, MSTRG.20860.4
GSE110114	MSTRG.15617.1, MSTRG.15617.2, MSTRG.15617.3
GSE45419	MSTRG.17431.2, MSTRG.17431.3, MSTRG.17431.4, MSTRG.17431.5, MSTRG.17431.8 MSTRG.17431.9, MSTRG.17431.10
GSE51124	MSTRG.19489.1, MSTRG.19489.3, MSTRG.19489.4, MSTRG.19489.5, MSTRG.19489.8
GSE148991	MSTRG.22199.1, MSTRG.22199.5, MSTRG.22199.7, MSTRG.22199.9

Table 1. MSTRG labelled transcripts showing similarity match with cub isoform.

Dataset	Similarity match with canonical isoform
GSE52194	MSTRG.17267.1
GSE45419	MSTRG.17431.1, MSTRG.17431.13
GSE148991	MSTRG.22199.2, MSTRG.22199.10

Table 2. MSTRG labelled transcripts showing similarity match with canonical isoform.

169 Cross-validation of BLASTp hit sequences

170 The MSTRGs transcripts showing 100% identity and similarity match hit with NCBI sequences using
 171 BLASTp. The NCBI protein sequence database sources are RefSeq and Genbank mainly. ENSEMBL
 172 gene sets are derived from multiple sources, partly from RefSeq, partly from uniprot and partly from
 173 Havana annotation. Although, as stated above, the criteria have been set for matching query length using
 174 ENSEMBL annotated transcripts, it was important to find whether a transcript from ENSEMBL has a
 175 close match to the transcript from BLASTp hit. To cross-validate, the ENSEMBL annotated sequences

176 to the corresponding BLASTp annotated sequences, multiple sequence alignment was performed via
 177 CLUSTAL. The FASTA sequences were extracted from the NCBI for accession id (NP_001005498.2 and
 178 NP_078875.4) corresponding to selected MSTRG transcripts. The alignment showed 100% similarity
 179 between NP_001005498.2 and ENST0000591885 (cub) and 100% similarity between NP_078875.4 and
 180 ENST0000313080 (canonical). Thus, selected MSTRGs were merged with already annotated transcripts
 181 and were further subjected for calculations.

182 Isoform Expression

183 The Figure 1 shows the isoform expression via parameter isoform fraction of the two transcript isoforms
 184 canonical and the cub across the two conditions. Isoform fraction is calculated by taking the ratio between
 185 isoform expression and gene expression values in each condition. The isoform expression in normal
 186 versus primary tumor conditions (GSE52194 and GSE130660) of both the transcripts (canonical and cub)
 187 significantly decreases. Whereas, for the dataset(GSE110114 and GSE45419) where the comparison is
 188 between normal versus IDC condition the change in the isoform expression is insignificant. Interestingly
 189 for the dataset (GSE69240) normal versus DCIS, (GSE51124) normal versus grade 2 and grade 3,
 190 (GSE148991) normal versus CTCs , the change in isoform expression is statistically significant.

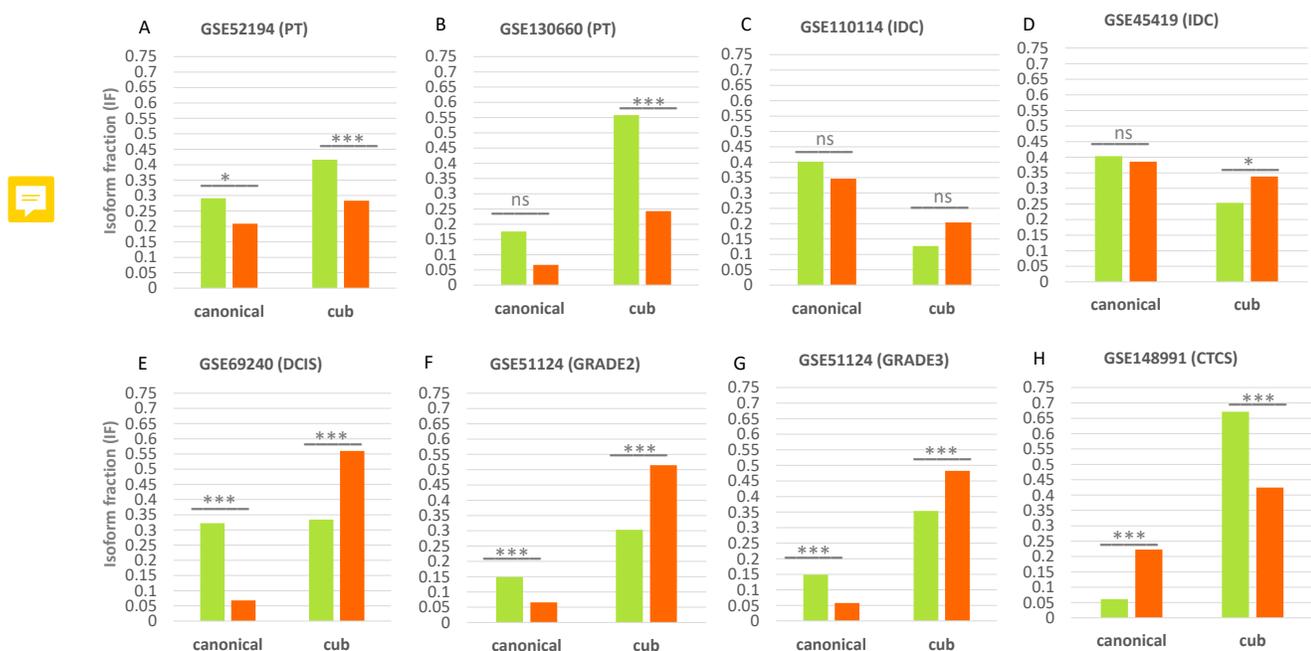


Figure 1. Isoform fraction of canonical and cub transcript in normal and tumour condition.

A-H, The primary tumour dataset shows that isoform fraction of both the isoforms canonical and cub are significantly less in tumour state whereas in IDC the change in isoform fraction is insignificant. For DCIS, grade2 and grade3 isoform fraction of cub isoform in tumour state is significantly more than canonical isoform. Interestingly, in CTCs cub isoform fraction start decreasing significantly.

191 Differential Isoform Usage

192 Two parameters are considered for significant isoform switching i.e, the statistical significance and the
 193 effect size. Statistical significance is calculated via p - value and it should be <0.05 . Whereas effect size
 194 tells the association between the two variables and here Differential isoform fraction (dIF) measures the
 195 change in the isoform fractions of the pair of isoforms across the condition. For isoform switching, in
 196 each dataset, the pair of isoforms should show opposite increase or decrease in the isoform usage across
 197 the conditions. It is calculated by taking the difference between the isoform fraction values. The cut off

198 for $dIF \geq 0.05$. The Figure 2 shows that the isoform switches from canonical to the cub transcript isoform
 199 at DCIS, grade2 and grade3 whereas, it switches back to the canonical isoform at CTCs.

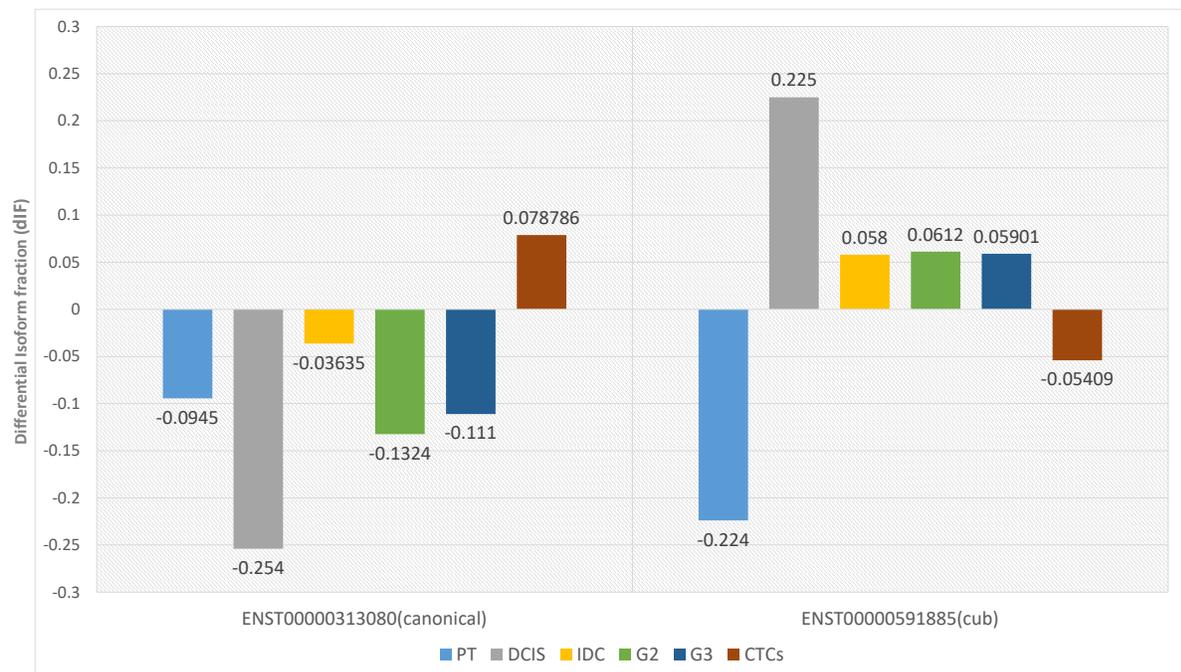


Figure 2. Differential isoform fraction of canonical and cub transcript. The blue bar represent that both the isoforms canonical and cub showed decreased usage. During DCIS (gray), grade2 (green), grade3 (dark blue) canonical isoform shows decreased usage whereas cub isoform shows increased usage. During IDC (yellow) although there is an opposite usage but unable to fulfill dIF cutoff. Interestingly, during CTCs (brown bar) isoform expression is revereted where cub isoform shows decreased usage and canonical isoform shows increasaed usage.

200 Relative isoform fraction

201 The analyses were done on two primary tumour datasets and two IDC datasets, hence to make better
 202 inference, the IF values of the two primary tumour datasets and two IDC datasets were merged by taking
 203 the average values, even though a better approach would have been to do the meta-analysis but it has
 204 been seen in the literature that this approach also gives comparable results. The final plot in Figure 3 is
 205 constructed, showing the relative usage of the isoform fractions of the two isoforms across conditions.
 206 Here, in normal vs primary tumour, the relative change of the two isoforms across two conditions remains
 207 the same, i.e. in normal conditions, canonical is 30% and the cub is 70% similarly in tumour condition
 208 canonical is 30%, and the cub is 70%. However, in normal vs DCIS, it can be seen that in normal
 209 conditions, the contribution of the canonical and cub transcript to the overall gene expression is equal,
 210 i.e. 50%, while in tumour condition, cub transcript expression rises up to being 90% to the overall gene
 211 expression relative to the canonical transcript which is just 10%. Hence, it can be said that a switch
 212 in expression has occurred. Surprisingly, the same trend can be seen in normal vs IDC like normal vs
 213 primary tumour. The relative change of the two isoforms across two conditions is the same, i.e. in normal
 214 conditions, canonical is 68%, and the cub is 32%. Similarly, in tumour condition, canonical is 68%, and
 215 the cub is 32%. In normal vs grade 2, in normal condition, the relative usage of the canonical transcript
 216 is 22%, and cub transcript is 78%. In contrast, there is a drastic change in relative usage across the
 217 conditions. Here, the cub transcript contributes 94% to the overall gene expression compared to canonical,
 218 which is 6%. Similarly, in normal vs grade 3, in normal condition, the relative usage of the canonical
 219 transcript is 22%, and cub transcript is 78%. In comparison, in tumour conditions, the relative usage

220 of the canonical transcript is 8%, and the cub transcript is 92%. Finally, in normal vs CTCs, in normal
 221 conditions, the relative usage of the canonical transcript is 9%, and cub transcript is 91%. In comparison,
 222 in tumour conditions, the relative usage of the canonical transcript is 28%, and the cub transcript is 72%.
 223 Hence, it is clear from the plot that isoform switching from canonical to cub transcript exists at DCIS,
 224 grade 2 and grade 3, while at CTCs, the transcript again switches from cub to canonical.

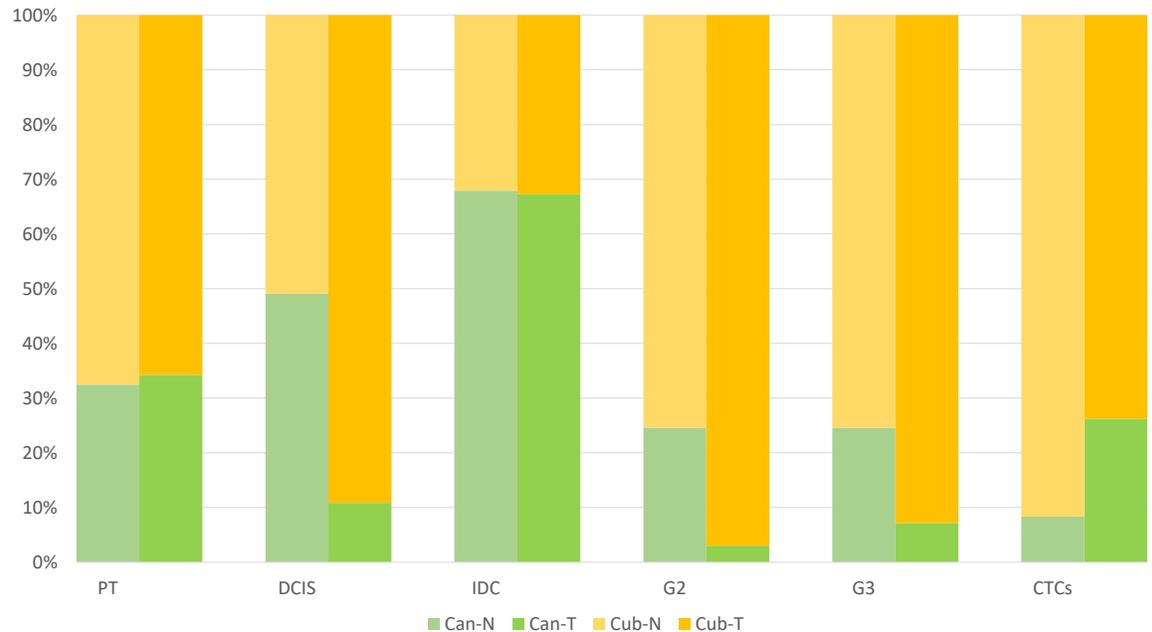


Figure 3. The plot shows the relative isoform usage of the canonical and cub isoform in normal and tumour conditions. The light green bar represents canonical isoform usage in normal conditions (Can-N), and the dark green bar represents canonical isoform usage in tumour conditions (Can-T). In contrast, the light orange bar represents cub isoform usage in normal condition (Cub-N) and the dark orange bar represents cub isoform usage in the tumour condition (Cub-T).

225 Finding Interactive partners via Correlation

226 Isoform switching was observed at DCIS, grade 2, grade 3 and CTCs, so it was important to find the
 227 interacting gene partners via correlation analysis. Correlation analysis at +0.7 to -0.7 cut-off to find the
 228 statistically significant correlated gene partners was performed. Interacting genes were then subjected for
 229 enrichment analysis via GSEA (Subramanian et al., 2005). GSEA determines a defined set of genes and
 230 their biologically meaningful interpretation across two conditions or phenotypes. Since our interacting
 231 genes were already ranked according to the correlation criteria, the analysis was done using pre-ranked
 232 GSEA. Pre-ranked GSEA was run on default parameters except for the minimum gene set size parameter
 233 set to 5, i.e. gene sets smaller than five were excluded from the analysis. There were no common
 234 interacting gene partners among DCIS, grade 2 and grade 3, so the union of interacting gene partners and
 235 their correlation values were input for pre-ranked GSEA as a ranked list of genes. Since during CTCs,
 236 the cub isoform switches back to canonical isoform in tumour condition, a list of the ranked gene for
 237 CTCs was run separately. The biological and molecular processes corresponding to mitogen-activated
 238 protein kinase (MAPK), G-protein coupled receptor (GPCR) and Toll-like receptor-related signalling
 239 pathways were most commonly observed among all the databases. Table 3 shows the GSEA results for
 240 the interacting partners for DCIS, G2 and G3 and Table 4 shows for CTCs along with p-value and the
 241 number of the genes in an enriched geneset.

Biological processes	Size	<i>p</i> – Value
MAPK SIGNALING PATHWAY	38	0
G PROTEIN SIGNALING PATHWAYS	12	0.008475
TOLLLIKE RECEPTOR SIGNALING PATHWAY	6	0.00352

Table 3. Enriched biological processes for the most correlated genes with RHBDF2 during DCIS, GRADE 2 and GRADE 3.

Biological processes	Size	<i>p</i> – Value
MAPK SIGNALING PATHWAY	16	0.047
G PROTEIN SIGNALING PATHWAYS	9	0.043
TOLLLIKE RECEPTOR SIGNALING PATHWAY	5	0.006
PROTEASOME DEGRADATION	7	0.0026
CYTOPLASMIC RIBOSOMAL PROTEINS	17	0.004

Table 4. Enriched biological processes for the most correlated genes with RHBDF2 during CTCs.

242 **Running Leading Edge Analysis**

243 Not all the members in a geneset are particularly contributing to the biological pathway. Often it is useful
 244 to extract the core genes that are contributing more to the enrichment score of the significant biological
 245 pathways. The leading-edge subset in a gene set is those genes that appear in the ranked list at or before
 246 the point at which enrichment score (ES) reaches its maximum deviation from zero. After running GSEA,
 247 leading-edge analysis helps to examine the genes in the leading-edge subsets of the enriched gene sets.
 248 A gene in many of the leading-edge subsets is more likely to be of interest than a gene in only a few
 249 of the leading-edge subsets. The subset of genes from the leading-edge analysis is shown in Figure 4.
 250 The heatmap shows the names of those subsets of genes that were found mostly enriched in in one or all
 251 genesets. RELA, RELB, RRAS, GNA12, PRKACA are the interesting genes found in 2 out of 3 gene sets
 252 for DCIS, grade2 and grade3 whereas NFKB1 is the only interesting gene found in 2 out of 5 gene sets
 253 for CTCs. Here, genesets corresponds to the biological process that are enriched.

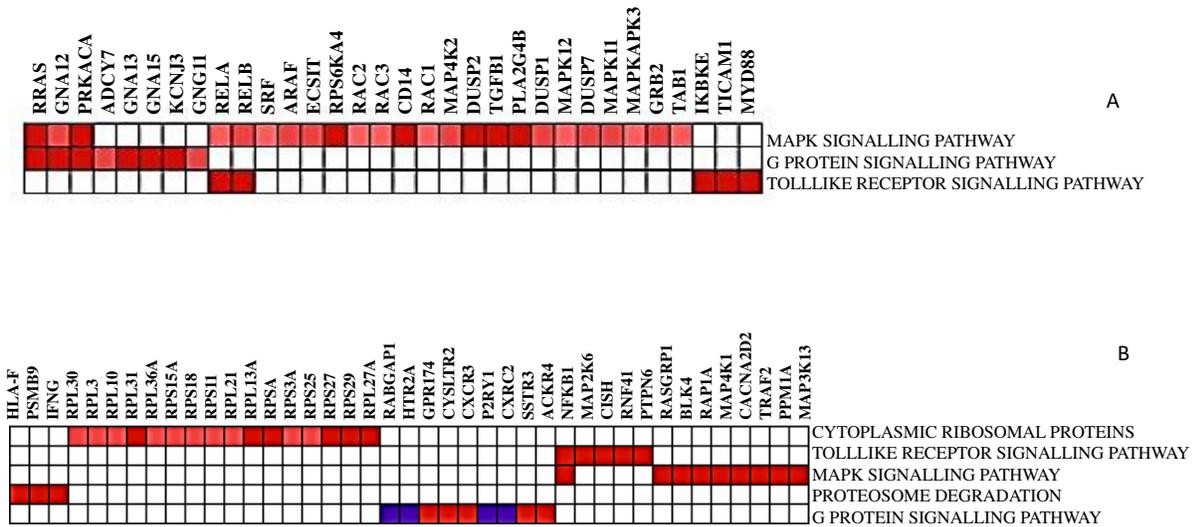


Figure 4. The heat map shows the (clustered) genes in the leading-edge subsets. **Heatmap(A)** is for DCIS, g grade2, and grade 3, whereas **Heatmap(B)** is for CTCs. The range of colours (red, pink, light blue, dark blue) shows the range of correlation values (high, moderate, low, lowest) in an enriched geneset.

DISCUSSION

254

255 Breast cancer has become the leading cause of oncologic mortality and morbidity among women world-
 256 wide. Virtually all breast carcinomas appear to originate from the uncontrolled production of epithelial
 257 cells of breast tissues forming a lump as shown in Figure 5. When normal epithelium begun to undergo
 258 malignant transition, the first progressive phase of excessive proliferation known as hyperplasia occurs,
 259 followed by the appearance of aberrant cells. At a later phase known as carcinoma in situ, these cells
 260 acquire malignant phenotype but lack invasive property due to the loss of cell motility. In the final phase
 261 of progression, the cell undergoes complete morphological changes causing the cells to break through
 262 basal membranes, thereby becoming invasive carcinoma (Allred et al., 2001). These cancer cells then
 263 grow into a solid tumour, eventually causing new blood vessels to grow, called angiogenesis. Next, they
 264 invade through EMT, a process called invasion, and get into the bloodstream (intravasation). Finally,
 265 these tumour cells are called CTCs (circulating tumour cells). They extravasate into the secondary site
 266 surviving the microenvironment. They grow into metastatic cancer or sometimes remain dormant for
 267 years (Harbeck et al., 2019).

268

269 Apart from the transcriptional factors, it is anticipated that alternative splicing factors and their related
 270 proteins are thought to be involved in regulating the cellular programs and the dynamic phenotypic changes
 271 in cancer cells (Chabot and Shkreta, 2016). Studies have shown that splicing is often pathologically
 272 altered, impacting cell behaviour during cancer initiation and progression (xiang Lu et al., 2015). More
 273 than 90% of the eukaryotic genes in mammals generate multiple isoforms, and aberrant splicing has
 274 become the cause of many diseases in humans (Sorek et al., 2004). The investigation of aberrant splicing
 275 events and isoform quantification has been shaped not only by the development of the techniques but also
 276 by the statistical approaches and algorithms being designed for their authentic biological interpretations.
 277 With the advent of the AS analysis tools, it became necessary to categorize how existing gene-level
 278 expression can be differentiated from transcript-level expression. The importance of analysing isoforms
 279 instead of genes has been highlighted by many examples showing functionally essential changes in the
 body (Zhang et al., 2013). Typically, coding genes have a transcript isoform expressed significantly

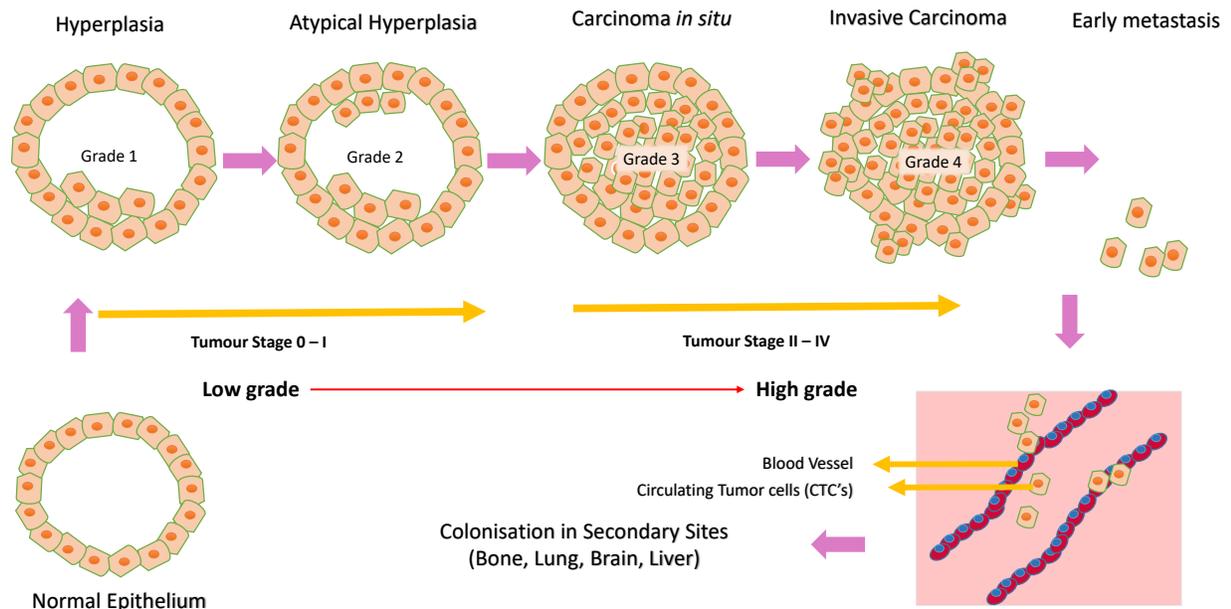


Figure 5. cancer initiation and progression.Steps in neoplastic growth during Breast Cancer

280 higher than other alternatively spliced transcript isoforms, often known as canonical isoforms. Under
 281 unfavourable circumstances like disease states, the dominance completely shifts from canonical to the
 282 other alternative transcript isoforms. One splicing phenotype in cancers can be Isoform switching (Di
 283 et al., 2018). Isoform switching is the relative abundance of different isoforms of the same gene that is
 284 reversed in different cell types or when disease tissue are compared to normal tissues.

285 Besides the classification into active rhomboids and inactive rhomboids, mechanistic alternative
 286 splicing produces even more transcript variants or isoforms with distinct functionalities. Interestingly,
 287 mammal harbours two inactive rhomboids, namely iRhom1 encoded by the RHBDF1 gene and iRhom2
 288 encoded by the RHBDF2 gene. Both share highly conserved protein sequences, and the distinction lies
 289 in the protein sequences of the cytosolic region, where they possess different deletions and extensions.
 290 The KO studies on iRhom2 showed more severe phenotypic changes, whereas the phenotype of iRhom1
 291 KO mice is much less clear. Thus, this makes iRhom2 an interesting gene to study. Several studies have
 292 reported antagonistic role of iRhom2 in tumorigenesis and other diseases i.e, either they are involved in
 293 negative regulation of EGFR ligands via ERAD pathway or they positively regulate EGFR ligands leading
 294 to EGFR signaling pathway. There are parallel studies suggesting iRhom mediated cleavage of EGFR
 295 ligands via TACE dependent or TACE independent pathway (Al-Salihi and Lang, 2020).

296 Some studies claim iRhom2 to be negative regulators of EGFR ligands (Lee et al., 2016). Evidence
 297 showed onset of sleep like phenotype in *D.melanogaster* is because of iRhoms are involved in negative
 298 regulation of EGFR signaling through ERAD pathway in nervous system whereas active rhomboids
 299 regulate cleavage of EGFR membrane bound precursors (Adrain and Freeman, 2012). There exist some
 300 conserved mechanistic link between mammals and drosophila in regulation of EGFR signaling and in
 301 maintaining cell quality control machinery for efficient trafficking (Etheridge et al., 2013). iRhom2 can
 302 negatively regulate EGFR signaling via breakdown of EGF like substrates (Lee et al., 2016). They increase
 303 ERAD activity by bringing clients passively by delaying ER retention, hence enhancing the chance of
 304 exposure to ERAD machinery. While (Zetl et al., 2011) suggest that they can perform this mechanism
 305 by specifically destabilizing some substrates in ER, inhibiting their access to active rhomboids leading
 306 to degradation. Apart from cancer, (Lyu et al., 2018) identified the high expression of iRhom2 in renal
 307 tubules as target of PPAR γ thus promoting EGF degradation via ERAD.

308 Whereas, (Hosur et al., 2014) debate on EGFR signaling independent of TACE and states that cleavage
309 of EGFR ligands occurs via essential residues within peptidase domains. The study was challenged
310 few months later by (Hosur et al., 2018) on the idea of TACE independent mediated regulation of
311 EGFR ligand. Later in 2018, conditional deletion of ADAM17, in RHBDF2 impaired AREG mediated
312 sebaceous gland enlargement, wound healing and alopecia suggesting ADAM17 is essential for shedding
313 of EGFR ligand (Hosur et al., 2018). Another study on breast cancer has stated iRhoms can regulate
314 proliferation during tumorigenesis via GPCR (G-protein coupled receptor) signaling by transactivation of
315 EGFR signaling (Christova et al., 2013). EGFR transactivation via iRhom1 in Breast Cancer promotes
316 the survival of epithelial tumor (Miyazaki et al., 1998). These pseudoproteases are important for the
317 maturation and trafficking of ADAM17 also known as TACE (TNF- α converting enzyme) to plasma
318 membrane from Endoplasmic reticulum through Golgi apparatus and also linked to the fates of TNF- α
319 and EGFR ligands (Lee et al., 2016). In mammalian cells, growth, proliferation and differentiation is
320 held by EGFR signaling pathways. Important EGFR ligands such as AREG, HB-EGF and EGF binds to
321 EGF receptors (EGFR's) as proproteins and must be cleaved to shed into the extracellular compartment in
322 active form for signaling. But these ligands are membrane tethered and different proteases like active
323 rhomboids and pseudoproteases via client proteins helps in cleaving membrane bound EGFR proligands
324 to convert them into biologically active proteins during proliferation (Dulloo et al., 2019). Moreover,
325 the physiological targets as substrate for enzymes like iRhoms are critical to find but many studies on
326 mice models and *D. melanogaster* suggest EGF ligands as potential substrates for these pseudo enzymes
327 (Urban and Dickey, 2011).

328 In order to test the hypothesis of the research, RNA-seq datasets (GSE52194, GSE130660, GSE69240,
329 GSE110114, GSE45419, GSE51124, GSE148991) from GEO were used to find the isoform abundance
330 via new tuxedo pipeline. Furthermore, they were analysed for differential isoform usage using isoform-
331 SwitchAnalyzeR. The research reports isoform switching from canonical to the cub transcript at DCIS,
332 grade 2, grade 3 and from cub to canonical at CTCs during neoplastic growth. In order to get insight into
333 its paradoxical role during cell proliferation, its interacting partners were found using correlation and
334 were subjected for enrichment analysis. Neither ERAD nor EGFR signalling pathways were found but
335 the biological processes leading to TACE dependent EGFR pathway were found enriched i.e., MAPK sig-
336 nalling pathway, GPCR pathway and Toll-like receptor pathways. Leading-edge analysis was performed
337 to find the interesting genes across the enriched processes. RELA, RELB, RRAS, GNA12, PRKACA
338 were the gene found among 2/3 of the biological processes for DCIS, grade2 and grade3, while NFKB1
339 was found in 2/5 of the biological processes for CTCs. In order to explain the paradoxical role of iRhom2
340 as mentioned earlier, we propose a tentative pathway working in the switch hence Cubs pathway as
341 shown in Figure 6. Previously it is known that, TACE is synthesized in endoplasmic reticulum as an
342 immature form containing an inhibitory prodomain that prevents its proteolytic activity. iRhom forms
343 a complex with FRMD8 protein which is an interacting protein. This complex along with an enzyme
344 called furin helps in the removal of the prodomain and converts the TACE into active form in Golgi.
345 The mature TACE trafficks to the plasma membrane with iRhom. The binding of 14-3-3 proteins to
346 iRhom N-terminal domain seems to result in weakening of interaction with TACE at the cell surface.
347 The TACE at the plasma membrane then simultaneously cleaves the EGFR ligands and TNF- α ligands
348 via its sheddase activity thereby mitigating the onset of signaling and inflammatory pathways (Dulloo
349 et al., 2019). Without iRhoms there is no TACE maturation and therefore no TACE activity. Mounting
350 literature and evidence from physiological and molecular data claims the alterations in TACE function
351 due to evident mutations or deletions in N-terminal (Blaydon et al., 2012), (Brooke et al., 2014), (Siggs
352 et al., 2014), (Li et al., 2015).

353 Evidence suggests that various ADAM metalloproteases (ADAM10, ADAM12, ADAM17) are
354 activated by GPCR agonists to produce mature EGFR ligand leading to EGFR transactivation. EGFR
355 transactivation via GPCR agonist. It has been well documented that EGFR transactivation via GPCR
356 plays a crucial role in proliferation and migration associated physiological functions. GPCR signalling
357 pathway begins with activating the receptors with suitable agonists (ligand activation) and ends with
358 the downstream regulation of various cellular processes such as proliferation, migration, angiogenesis,
359 differentiation, and survival. Activated via agonists (lipids, proteins, amino acids, bio-amines, nucleotides,
360 hormones, or neurotransmitters), GPCRs function by interacting with intracellular G-proteins. G-proteins
361 are guanine nucleotide-binding heterotrimeric proteins, also known as regulatory proteins. They are
362 formed by the combination of three subunits α , β , γ . They are identified via G α monomers, further

363 grouped into four families ($G\alpha_s$, $G\alpha_i$, $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{12}$. This is the classic GPCR activation mode and
364 further associated with specific effector proteins and require second messengers such as (activation of
365 CA^{2+} , activation of protein kinase C (PKC) and generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that amplify
366 downstream pathways (MAPK/ERK/Ras/Raf, P13K/mTOR signalling/Akt).

367 PRKACA is a protein kinase cAMP activated catalytic subunit alpha and helps in the phosphorylation
368 of different enzymes and proteins. cAMP-dependent phosphorylation of proteins is important to many
369 cellular processes, including differentiation, proliferation, and apoptosis. Several mutations in this gene
370 promote a wide variety of cancers. In addition, PRKACA has been found to regulate resistance to HER2
371 targeted therapy (Moody et al., 2014). GNA12 is an α guanine nucleotide-binding protein. These
372 heterotrimeric subunits link GPCRs to the nucleotide exchange factors, which in turn interacts with Rho
373 GTPases that regulate cell invasion in breast cancer (Chia et al., 2014). The research also states that the
374 activation of GNA12 in BC stimulates the promoter activity via NF- κ B binding of interleukins and matrix
375 metalloproteinase (MMP-2). RELA (*v-rel avian reticuloendotheliosis viral oncogene homolog A*), also
376 known as p65 transcription factor and NF- κ B subunit, is a protein-coding gene. NF- κ B is a transcription
377 factor involved in several biological processes like cell growth, inflammation, tumorigenesis, immunity
378 and apoptosis. It is ubiquitous, i.e., present in an inactive form in the cytoplasm by specific inhibitors;
379 upon degradation of these inhibitors, NF- κ B moves to the nucleus and regulates specific genes. NF- κ B
380 comprises NF- κ B1 or NF- κ B2 bound to either subunit (Rel like domain-containing proteins) REL, RELA
381 or RELB (Chaturvedi et al., 2011). RELA-NF- κ B1 appears to be the most abundant complex. RELA
382 is expressed in many cells like epithelial, neuronal, endothelial, and activation of this gene is positively
383 correlated with multiple cancers. Post-transcriptional modification like methylation is associated with
384 NF- κ B1 in Breast cancer (Cancer, 2019). RELB is found to be expressed at higher levels in Breast
385 cancer in regulating the non-canonical NF- κ B pathway. It promotes cell proliferation and enhances cell
386 motility by activating epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) (Wang et al., 2020). These signaling
387 pathways are initiated by the binding of extracellular growth factors (ligands/ signaling molecules) to
388 transmembrane receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs) such as EGFR. RTKs are linked indirectly to Ras via
389 two proteins, GRB2 and Sos.

390 Ras cycles between an inactive GDP-bound form and active GTP-bound form. Ras cycling requires the
391 assistance of two proteins, GEF and GAP. The SH2 domain in GRB2, an adapter protein, binds to specific
392 phosphotyrosines in activated RTKs. The two SH3 domains in GRB2 then bind Sos, a guaninenucleotide
393 exchange factor, thereby bringing Sos close to membrane-bound Ras·GDP and activating its exchange
394 function. Binding of Sos to inactive Ras causes a large conformational change that permits release of
395 GDP and binding of GTP. RAS becomes active by conversion of GDP to GTP leading to the activation
396 of RAF and MAPK signalling pathway. RRAS is a small GTPase binding protein, and it is involved in
397 angiogenesis, cell adhesion, neuronal regulation and vasculogenesis. Recently, a negative association
398 exists between activation of the RRAS gene and breast cancer progression, and loss of activation of this
399 gene leads to carcinogenesis (Song et al., 2014). The Ras then leads to the activation of RAF and MAPK
400 signalling pathway. MAPK signalling pathway then phosphorylates the iRhom2 N-terminal domain.
401 iRhom2 binding with ADAM17 controls several aspects of its activity, including stimulated shedding
402 activity on the cell surface. ADAM17 shedding stimuli triggers MAP kinase-dependent phosphorylation
403 of iRhom2 N terminal cytoplasmic tail. The regulation of sheddase activity at the cell surface is controlled
404 via several stimulatory agents like G protein-coupled receptors, Toll-like receptors and phorbol esters.
405 (Cavadas et al., 2017) focuses that iRhom2 does not control the trafficking to the cell surface; rather,
406 phosphorylated iRhom2 controls rapid stimulation of TACE activity. (Grieve et al., 2017) showed that
407 GPCR in the presence of histamine agonists triggers TACE dependent release of EGFR ligands like TGF
408 α and amphiregulin in an iRhom2 phosphorylation dependent manner.

409 Thus, it can be anticipated that during DCIS, grade2 and grade3 the isoform switches from canonical
410 to cub isoform where the cells need to proliferate cancer growth via EGFR signalling pathway and here
411 EGFR pathway is upregulated by all possible means often by indirect activation of TACE by GPCR
412 agonists. Whereas this phenomenon starts decreasing when cells undergo metastasises where the primary
413 task is invasion and the isoform switches back to canonical as observed during CTCs as well.

414 CONCLUSIONS

415 Therefore, neither EGFR nor ERAD was found enriched for its interacting partners according to the
416 hypothesis to explain the paradoxical role of RHBDF2. However, pathways leading to TACE depen-

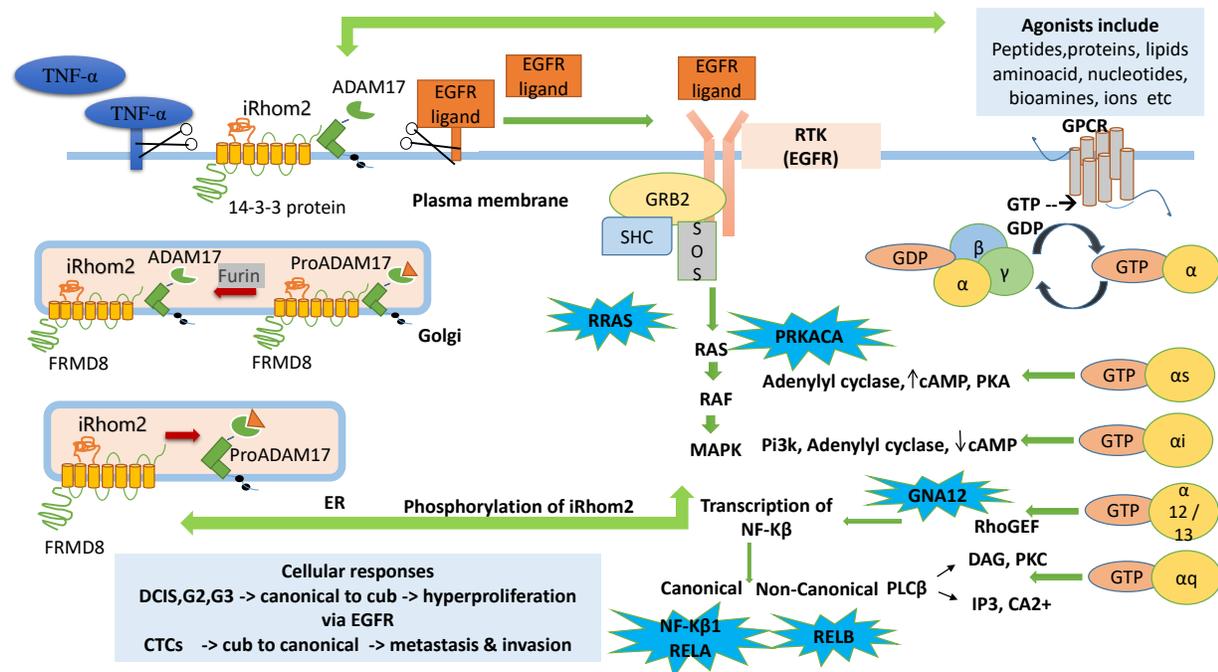


Figure 6. Cub pathway. The figure shows the proposed mechanistic links between signalling pathways GPCR, MAPK, RTK (EGFR) and the role of ADAM17 (TACE) dependent RHBDF2 (iRhom2) during tumorigenesis. The enriched genes (PRKACA, RRAS, GNA12, NF- κ B1, RELA, RELB) in the leading-edge analysis are highlighted in blue bubbles and shown at the site involved during downstream signalling.

417 dent EGFR signalling pathways were more observant, specifically MAPK signalling pathways, GPCR
 418 signalling pathways, and Toll-like receptor pathways in DCIS, grade 2 and grade 3. Nevertheless, it is
 419 noteworthy that during CTCs, the cub isoform switches back to the canonical isoform, so in addition to the
 420 processes mentioned above, the Proteasomal degradation pathway and cytoplasmic ribosomal protein
 421 pathways were also found significantly enriched. Therefore, it could be inferred that both the isoforms
 422 have separate physiological roles to play during tumorigenesis.

423 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

424 The authors would like to thank the Higher Education Commissions Pakistan for funding of the Project.
 425 Furthermore would like to thank the research fellows of Data Analytic Labs.

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