TGF-β-driven downregulation of the Wnt/β-Catenin transcription factor TCF7L2/TCF4 in PDGFRα[+] fibroblasts

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Keywords: Myofibroblasts, Stem cells, Regeneration, MSCs, PDGFRa, Myoblasts

Summary statement

TGF-β signaling suppresses the expression of the Wnt transcription factor TCF7L2 and

compromises TCF7L2-dependent functions in tissue-resident PDGFRα^+ fibroblasts.

Abbreviations

Cycloheximide, CHX

Connective tissue, CT

Duchenne muscular dystrophy, DMD

Extracellular matrix, ECM

Fibro-adipogenic progenitors, FAPs

Fluorescence-activated cell sorting, FACS

Histone deacetylases, HDACs

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, IPF

Mesenchymal stromal cells, MSCs

Myocardial infarction, MI

Muscle stem cells, MuSCs

Muscular dystrophy, MD

Platelet-derived growth factor receptor alpha, PDGFRα

T-cell factor/lymphoid enhancer, Tcf/Lef

Transcription factor, TF

Transforming growth factor type-beta, TGF-β

Trichostatin A, TSA

Ubiquitin-proteasome system, UPS

ABSTRACT

Mesenchymal stromal/stem cells (MSCs) are multipotent progenitors essential for organogenesis, tissue homeostasis, regeneration, and scar formation. Tissue injury upregulates TGF-β signaling, which modulates myofibroblast fate, extracellular matrix remodeling, and fibrosis. However, the molecular determinants of MSCs differentiation and survival remain poorly understood. The canonical Wnt Tcf/Lef transcription factors regulate development and stemness, but the mechanisms by which injury-induced cues modulate their expression remain underexplored. Here, we studied the cell-specific gene expression of Tcf/Lef and, more specifically, we investigated whether damage-induced TGF-β impairs the expression and function of TCF7L2, using several models of MSCs, including skeletal muscle fibro-adipogenic progenitors. We show that Tcf/Lefs are differentially expressed and that TGF-β reduces the expression of TCF7L2 in MSCs but not in myoblasts. We also found that the ubiquitin-proteasome system regulates TCF7L2 proteostasis and participates in TGF-β-mediated TCF7L2 protein downregulation. Finally, we show that TGF-β requires HDACs activity to repress the expression of TCF7L2. Thus, our work found a novel interplay between TGF-β and Wnt canonical signaling cascades in PDGFRα^+ fibroblasts and suggests that this mechanism could be targeted in tissue repair and regeneration.

INTRODUCTION

The remarkable long-term capacity of adult skeletal muscle to grow and regenerate is largely based on the presence of tissue-resident muscle stem cells (MuSCs) (formerly called satellite cells) (Lepper et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2011; Sambasivan et al., 2011). However, another tissue-resident population of quiescent mesenchymal stromal/stem cells (MSCs) is also essential for effective regeneration and maintenance of the skeletal muscle and its connective tissue (CT). Following acute damage, PDGFRα^+ MSCs provide regenerative cues, regulate extracellular matrix (ECM) remodeling, and MuSCs behavior, thus facilitating muscle regeneration and maintenance (Contreras, 2019d; Heredia et al., 2013; Joe et al., 2010; Scott et al., 2019; Uezumi et al., 2010; Wosczyna et al., 2019). These stromal mesenchymal progenitors are also called fibro-adipogenic progenitors (FAPs) in mouse and human skeletal muscle (Agley et al., 2013; Dulauroy et al., 2012; Uezumi et al., 2014a; Vallecillo-García et al., 2017; Wosczyna and Rando, 2018). Muscle MSCs have the potential to differentiate *in vivo* and *in vitro* into myofibroblasts, adipocytes, chondrogenic, and osteogenic cells (Agley et al., 2013; Contreras et al., 2019c; Oishi et al., 2013; Uezumi et al., 2014b; Uezumi et al., 2010; 2011; Wosczyna et al., 2012). PDGFRα^+ mesenchymal progenitors are found in most mammalian tissues, where they regulate tissue homeostasis, repair, and regeneration (Carr et al., 2019; Riquelme-Guzmán and Contreras, 2020; Lemos and Duffield, 2018; Lynch and Watt, 2018; Rognoni et al., 2018). Despite their required normal activity during muscle regeneration, we and others have suggested dysregulated behavior of these mesenchymal precursor cells in models of chronic muscle damage, muscular dystrophy (MD), neurodegenerative diseases, and aging (Acuña et al., 2014; Contreras et al., 2016; Contreras et al., 2019c; González et al., 2017; Ieronimakis et al., 2016; Kopinke et al., 2017; Madaro et al., 2018; Mahmoudi et al., 2019; Lemos et al., 2015; Lukjanenko et al., 2019; Uezumi et al., 2014a). Fibrosing disorders are a common outcome of the dysregulation of these fibroblastic cells, which include non-malignant fibroproliferative diseases with high morbidity and mortality (Lemos and Duffield, 2018; Wynn and Ramalingam, 2012). However, ==the participation of mesenchymal progenitors in repair and regeneration remains poorly understood.==

The Wnt signaling pathway has a key role in many aspects of developmental biology, tissue homeostasis, stem cells fate, organogenesis, cancer, and tissue fibrogenesis. Secreted Wnt ligands, which are 19 secreted lipid-modified glycoproteins, bind to the Frizzled receptors and its co-receptor LRP5/6 on the cell surface to initiate a

signaling pathway that regulates the proteostasis of cytoplasmic β-catenin. In the absence
of canonical Wnt ligands, β-catenin is a target for the UPS-mediated degradation (Aberle
et al., 1997). Once the canonical cascade starts, the accumulation of β-catenin leads to its
translocation to the nucleus, where it recognizes and binds the T-cell factor (TCF) or
Lymphoid enhancer (LEF) transcription factors (TFs), but it also recruits transcriptional
partners and chromatin remodeling complexes which in concert regulate the expression of
Tcf/Lef target genes. These TFs recognize Tcf/Lef-binding elements on its target genes to
regulate the expression of thousands of genes (Cadigan and Waterman, 2012; Clevers,
2006; Schuijers et al., 2014). Therefore, the Tcf/Lef TFs are the final effectors of the
canonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling cascade in metazoans (Nusse and Clevers, 2017;
Schuijers et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2008). Mammalian cells express four Tcf/Lef protein-
coding genes: Tcf1 (Tcf7), Lef1, Tcf7l1 (formerly named Tcf3), and Tcf7l2 (formerly named
Tcf4) (Cadigan and Waterman, 2012; van de Wetering et al., 1991). They have critical
roles regulating the body plan establishment, cell fate specification, proliferation, survival,
and differentiation, which are predominant features in fast and constantly renewing tissues
(Clevers, 2006; Korinek et al., 1998). Accumulating evidence indicates that pathologically
activated canonical Wnt signaling plays a major role in the pathogenesis of fibrosis in
multiple tissues (Chilosi et al., 2003; Cisternas et al., 2014; Colwell et al., 2006; Cosin-
Roger et al., 2019; He et al., 2009; He et al., 2010; Henderson et al., 2010; Konigsho et
al., 2008; Liu et al., 2009; Surendran et al., 2002; Trensz et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2011). For
example, the conditional genetic loss of β-catenin in cardiac fibroblast-myofibroblast
lineages (Tcf21^{+} or Periostin[+]) causes the reduction of interstitial fibrosis and attenuates
heart hypertrophy induced by cardiac pressure overload (Xiang et al., 2017). Furthermore,
upregulated Wnt activity during aging accounts in part for the declining regenerative
potential of muscle with age and increased fibrosis (Brack et al., 2007). Transgenic mice
overexpressing canonical Wnt-10b demonstrated that activation of this pathway is
sufficient to induce fibrosis *in vivo* (Akhmetshina et al., 2012). Mechanistically, it has been
demonstrated that Wnt/β-catenin pathway regulates the expression of several ECM genes
in fibroblasts from different organs (Akhmetshina et al., 2012; Hamburg-Shields et al.,
2015; Xiang et al., 2017). Altogether, these studies suggest that Wnt/β-catenin signaling in
stromal cells is required for pathogenic ECM gene expression and collagen deposition
during fibrogenesis.

Transforming growth factor type-beta (TGF-β) regulates the differentiation program
of a variety of cell types (for review see David and Massagué, 2018; Derynck and Budi,
2019), including MSCs. Mechanistically, TGF-β signaling stimulates PDGFRα$^+$ cells
proliferation, ECM production, and myofibroblast differentiation (Contreras et al., 2019b;
Lemos et al., 2015; Uezumi et al., 2011). Three TGF-β isoforms -TGF-β1, TGF-β2, and
TGF-β3- are expressed in mammals (Massagué, 1998). These isoforms and their
mediated signaling pathways are exacerbated in Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD)
patients (Bernasconi et al., 1999; Smith and Barton, 2018), skeletal muscle of the *mdx*
mice (Gosselin et al., 2004; Lemos et al., 2015), and during fibrogenesis in several organs
(Kim et al., 2018). Thus, it is recognized that dysregulated TGF-β activity is a driver for
reduced muscle regeneration, impaired tissue function and fibrosis (Juban et al., 2018;
Mann et al., 2011; Pessina et al., 2015; Vidal et al., 2008). Interestingly, the inhibition of
TGF-β improves the pathophysiology of MD (Accornero et al., 2014; Acuña et al., 2014;
Ceco and McNally, 2013; Cohn et al., 2007; Danna et al., 2014).

Here, we show that Tcf/Lef members are differentially expressed in tissue-resident
PDGFRα$^+$ cells and demonstrate that *Tcf7l2* is a novel TGF-β target gene. The ubiquitin-
proteasome system (UPS) participates, both, in modulating the TCF7L2 proteostasis and
TGF-β-mediated downregulation of TCF7L2. We also found that TGF-β requires the
activity of HDACs to repress *Tcf7l2* gene expression and to alter Wnt signaling gene
signature. Finally, these effects were not observed in myogenic cells, suggesting that this
crosstalk is fibroblast/MSC specific.

RESULTS

Wnt canonical Tcf/Lef transcription factors are differentially expressed in PDGFRα⁺ mesenchymal progenitor cells and fibroblasts

We first determined the relative expression of the Wnt T-cell factor/Lef members in the mesenchymal stromal/stem cell line C3H/10T1/2 and mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) (Fig. 1A). *Tcf7l1* and *Tcf7l2* were the two most highly expressed members of this family, while *Lef1* and *Tcf7* were almost not expressed in MSCs or MEFs (Fig. 1A). Then, we evaluated the expression of these transcription factors in *ex vivo* FACS-isolated skeletal muscle PDGFRα-H2BEGFP⁺ FAPs (Fig. 1B, Fig. S1A). Our results using muscle PDGFRα⁺ cells further corroborated the observations described above (Fig. 1C). We further corroborated these results using RNA-seq data of mononuclear muscle fractions (Scott et al., 2019). We focused on a Lin⁻(CD31⁻CD45⁻Ter119⁻) LY6A/Sca1⁺ population and observed that *Tcf7l2* and *Tcf7l1* transcripts were enriched in the Lin⁻Sca1⁺ fraction (Fig. 1D,E). Thus, these results suggest that among the Wnt Tcf/Lef members, *Tcf7l1* and *Tcf7l2* but not *Lef1* or *Tcf7*, are highly expressed in PDGFRα⁺ cells. We next evaluated TCF7L2 protein expression in skeletal muscle tissue and MSCs. The protein products detected by western blotting in most tissues and cells are ~78 and ~58 kDa in size (Tang et al., 2008; Weise et al., 2010). We found that these TCF7L2 protein isoforms are present in limb muscles and MSCs, representing the E and M/S isoforms (Fig. 1F, Fig. S1B) (Jin, 2016). We also found that the TCF7L2 TF is predominantly expressed in the nucleus of muscle-resident interstitial cells of the undamaged diaphragm muscle, isolated EGFP⁺ FAPs from PDGFRα^H2BEGFP mice, *mdx*;PDGFRα^H2BEGFP dystrophic mice, and MEFs (Fig. 1G, Fig. S1B-D). The tissue-specific expression of the Tcf/Lef members and their relative expression in MSCs was further corroborated by additional single-cell RNAseq data (Fig. S1F,G) (The Tabula Muris Consortium et al., 2018). Next, we evaluated the expression of TCF7L2 in transiently activated PDGFRα⁺ FAPs and confirmed that TCF7L2 TF is present in these cells three days after notexin injury (Fig. 1H,I). Stromal PDGFRα⁺ fibroblasts are also found in the heart, playing supportive roles in cardiac development and repair (Chong et al., 2011; Farbehi et al., 2019; Fu et al., 2018; Furtado et al., 2016; Soliman et al., 2020; Tallquist and Molkentin, 2017). Similar to what we found in MSCs cell lines and muscle PDGFRα⁺ FAPs, *Tcf7l1* and *Tcf7l2* are the two highest expressed members of this family in cardiac PDGFRα⁺ fibroblasts whereas *Lef1* and *Tcf7* have very low expression levels (Fig. 1J). We further corroborated these results using RNA-seq data from cardiac fibroblasts (Fu et al., 2018). We also found that *Tcf7l2* and *Tcf7l1* transcripts were

<mark>enriched in the heart PDGFRα^+-Tcf21$^+$ fibroblast population (Fig. 1K).</mark> Similar to muscle,

both E and M/S TCF7L2 protein isoforms were also found in cardiac tissue and PDGFRα^+

fibroblasts (Fig. 1M, N). Altogether, these results establish that specific Tcf/Lef

transcription factors, namely TCF7L2/TCF7L1, are highly expressed in PDGFRα^+ MSCs

and fibroblasts as well as in total skeletal muscle and cardiac tissue.

Dynamics of TCF7L2 expression in stromal fibroblasts during regeneration and

repair

Us and other investigators demonstrated that sub-populations of stromal MSCs co-express

both TCF7L2 and PDGFRα during skeletal muscle development and also in

adulthood (Contreras et al., 2016; Contreras et al., 2019a,b; Murphy et al., 2011; Vallecillo-

García et al., 2017). As a consequence of the stromal expansion caused by injury, both

TCF7L2 and PDGFRα protein levels are increased in dystrophic tissue, denervated

muscle, and after chronic barium chloride-induced damage (Contreras et al., 2016).

Interestingly, the number of TCF7L2$^+$ cells and TCF7L2 bulk protein levels correlate with

the extension of damage, fibrosis, and TGF-β levels in muscles of the *mdx* mice

(Contreras et al., 2016; Contreras et al., 2019a). Additionally, the expansion of TCF7L2$^+$

MSCs in human regenerating muscle closely associates with regenerating myofibers *in*

vivo (Mackey et al., 2017). Thus, to study whether the expression of TCF7L2 changes

during regeneration and repair, we used two previously described muscle injury models

(Uezumi et al., 2010; Kopinke et al., 2017). First, we aimed to study whole tissue TCF7L2

protein levels during skeletal muscle regeneration following glycerol-induced acute

damage, a model that leads to transient expansion of PDGFRα^+ cells (Contreras et al.,

2019c; Kopinke et al., 2017). As expected, glycerol acute damage caused an increase in

total TCF7L2 protein levels, which transiently peak at day 3 following glycerol

intramuscular injection (Fig. 2A,B). PDGFRα bulk protein levels increased with similar

kinetics of expression as TCF7L2 after acute injury (Fig. 2A,B). We also found that β-

Catenin, the transcriptional partner of TCF7L2, increased after glycerol damage (Fig.

2A,B). Myosin heavy chain expression, a marker of regenerating myofibers, peaked at day

7 after damage (Fig. 2A,B). As mentioned above, we previously described that TCF7L2$^+$

stromal cells and TCF7L2 bulk expression increases in the dystrophic diaphragm (Fig.

2C,D) (Contreras et al., 2016). Intriguingly, we found a reduction in the expression levels

of TCF7L2 in the expanded population of TCF7L2$^+$ cells in the dystrophic diaphragm,

where the proportion of TCF7L2^{+} cells expressing low levels of TCF7L2 was larger
compared to undamaged muscle. In the latter case, TCF7L2 expression was generally
high (Fig. 2C). To further explore our observation, we used confocal microscopy and z-
stack reconstructions of transverse muscle sections to analyze the cellular amount of
TCF7L2 in TCF7L2^{+} cells in the dystrophic diaphragm (Fig. 2C,E, Fig S1H). TCF7L2[high]
cells were distributed throughout the muscle interstitium, consistent with previous studies
of fibroblast distribution (Fig. 2C, Fig. S1H) (Contreras et al., 2016; Contreras et al., 2019c;
Mathew et al., 2011; Merrell et al., 2015; Murphy et al., 2011). On the other hand,
TCF7L2[medium/low]-expressing cell number expanded, and their expansion corresponded to
increased phosphorylation of Smad3, an index of activated TGF-β signaling in interstitial
cells and muscle fibers, as well as in collagen type 1-enriched areas (Fig. 2F-H, Fig. S1H).
We further corroborated our results using RNA-seq data from undamaged PDGFRα[+]
cardiac fibroblasts and after myocardial infarction (MI) (Fu et al., 2018). Proliferation, TGF-
β, and Matrisome-ECM-modifying genes were most highly induced at the initial stages
(days 3 and 7) but then they were downregulated 2 and 4 weeks after MI (Fig. S2).
However, we observed that the expression of *Tcf7l2* and *Tcf7l1* was highest in quiescent
fibroblasts and became downregulated upon fibroblast activation, while expression of *Lef1*
followed the opposite trend (Fig. S2). *Pdgfra* and *Tcf21* followed a similar kinetic pattern to
that of *Tcf7l2* and *Tcf7l1*. Altogether, these results suggest that the magnitude of
TCF7L2[medium/low] cells expansion depends on the extent of tissue inflammation, TGF-β
levels, damage, and fibrosis, and hence they were abundant in the inflammatory
dystrophic model and after MI.
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TGF-β signaling downregulates the expression of the WNT TCF7L2 transcription
factor in PDGFRα[+] FAPs, MSCs and fibroblasts
Chronic upregulation of TGF-β is found in several models of organ damage, where it is
known to regulate the severity of tissue fibrosis. Activated extracellular TGF-β not only
promotes MSCs survival and proliferation but also primes these progenitor cells to become
myofibroblasts (Contreras et al., 2019b, 2019c; Cho et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2018; Lemos
et al., 2015). TCF7L2^{+} cells expand near CD68^{+} macrophages in dystrophic muscles (one
of the major cell sources of TGF-β in DMD) (Contreras et al., 2016; Juban et al., 2018;
Tidball and Villalta, 2010). Our previous results suggest that the cell-specific expression of
TCF7L2 negatively correlates with damage and inflammation in dystrophic muscle. Hence,
damage-associated signaling pathways might regulate TCF7L2 expression and function

endogenously during tissue repair. Therefore, we aimed to investigate the role of TGF-β

signaling on the expression of TCF7L2 in fibroblast-related cell types and tissue-resident

PDGFRα⁺ cells. We first used the multipotent mesenchymal progenitor cell line

C3H/10T1/2 as an *in vitro* model of MSCs, because these cells have been extensively

used to study mesenchymal biology (Braun et al., 1989; Contreras et al., 2019c; Reznikoff

et al., 1973; Riquelme-Guzmán, et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2003). TGF-β1 diminished

TCF7L2 protein expression in C3H/10T1/2 MSCs in a concentration-dependent manner,

with effects already noticeable at the pathophysiological concentration of 0.5 ng/ml (Fig.

3A,B, Fig. S3A,B). We confirmed that C3H/10T1/2 cells respond to TGF-β1 in a

concentration dependent-manner, by increasing the expression of ECM-related proteins

(fibronectin, β1-Integrin, CCN2/CTGF) and αSMA (myofibroblasts marker), as well as by

reducing the expression of PDGFRα (Fig. 3A,B) (Contreras et al., 2019c). Moreover, TGF-

β1-mediated reduction of TCF7L2 expression began 8 h after stimulation, reaching a

maximum at 24 and 48 h. At this point the expression of TCF7L2 had decreased by ~85

per cent (Fig. 3C,D). Similar effects were also seen in the embryonic fibroblast NIH-3T3

cell line (Fig. 3E,F, Fig. S3A,B). Taken together, these results suggest that TGF-β

downregulates TCF7L2 protein expression in a concentration- and time-dependent

manner in MSCs and fibroblasts. Consistently with the above-mentioned results, we found

that TGF-β1 reduced the expression of TCF7L2 by ~50% in FACS-isolated muscle

PDGFRα⁺ FAPs (Fig. 3G,H). As expected, TGF-β increased the expression of the ECM

protein fibronectin (Fig. 3G) (Uezumi et al., 2010; Contreras et al., 2019c). Taken together,

our results indicate that, concurrently with the induction of fibroblast activation and

differentiation, TGF-β inhibits the expression of TCF7L2 in skeletal muscle PDGFRα⁺

FAPs, and in two different mesenchymal cell lines, C3H/10T1/2 and NIH-3T3 fibroblasts.

Not only were the TCF7L2 protein levels decreased in response to TGF-β, but the

relative levels of *Tcf7l2* mRNA were also diminished 2 h, 8 h and 24 h after TGF-β1

stimulation (Fig. 3I). *Tcf7l2* gene expression was also sensitive to the inhibition of mRNA

synthesis with actinomycin D treatment, which suggests active *Tcf7l2* gene transcription

and TCF7L2 translation in MSCs (Fig. 3J, Fig. S3C-E). The expression of PDGFRα was

also very sensitive to the inhibition of mRNA synthesis with actinomycin D (Fig. 3J, Fig.

S3C). Next, we evaluated whether TGF-β2 and TGF-β3 cytokines also impair TCF7L2

expression in MSCs. Similar to TGF-β1, both TGF-β2 and TGF-β3 strongly reduced

TCF7L2 protein levels in MSCs (Fig. S3F,G). Thus, the three TGF-β ligands decrease the

expression of TCF7L2 in PDGFRα⁺ cells. Next, to investigate whether the function of the

Wnt-effector TCF7L2 TF was also altered by TGF-β, we determined, by quantitative PCR,

the gene expression levels of several validated TCF7L2 target genes in response to TGF-

β. We found that the expression of *Sox9*, *Axin2*, and *Tcf7l1* was repressed, while *Nfatc1*,

Lef1, and *Tcf7* expression was increased in response to TGF-β1 (Fig. S3H). We did not

find changes in *β-Catenin* or *Ccnd1* mRNA levels (Fig. S3H). Furthermore, RNA-seq

analyses of TGF-β-treated idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) lung (Scott et al., 2019) and

cardiac fibroblasts (Schafer et al., 2017) show that TGF-β alters the expression of several

validated target genes of the Wnt/β-Catenin/TCF7L2 pathway. *Dkk1*, *Dkk3*, *Lrp5*, *Lef1*,

Tcf7l1, *Tgfbr2*, *Ctbp2*, *Sox9*, *Cxcl12*, *Nfatc4* expression is reduced, whereas *Fn1*, *Col1a1*,

Ctgf, *Tgfb1*, *Foxo1*, *Wnt5a*, *Wnt5b*, *Wnt11*, *Wnt9a*, *Myc*, and *Oat* TCF7L2-target genes are

increased after TGF-β treatment (Fig. 3K,M). Altogether, these data suggest that TGF-β

signaling reduces the expression of TCF7L2, and therefore, alters its TF function in

PDGFRα⁺ cells, such as FAPs, MSCs, and fibroblasts. Since TGF-β-induced myofibroblast

differentiation of MSCs correlates with reduced TCF7L2 expression and impaired function,

we investigated the impact that the *in vitro* differentiation towards other lineages, such as

adipocytes and osteocytes, might have on *Tcf7l2* expression. We used the expression of

Adipoq and *Runx2* as markers of effective adipogenic and osteogenic commitment in

MEFs (Fig. S4). Adipogenic differentiation did not alter *Tcf7l2* mRNA expression (Chen et

al., 2018), while increased expression of *Tcf7l2* was found after osteogenic differentiation

(Fig. S4A). Interestingly, expression of *Tcf7l1*, *Lef1* and *Tcf7* also varied in response to

adipogenic or osteogenic differentiation (Fig. S4A). These data suggest that different

molecular mechanisms are involved in the regulation of *Tcf7l2* gene expression during

differentiation to diverse cell lineages.

Extracellular TGF-β reduces the expression of TCF7L2 in a TGF-β receptor type-I-

dependent manner

Having detected a drop in the total levels of TCF7L2 TF, we next determined the extent of

decrease of TCF7L2 protein levels in the nuclei of TGF-β-treated cells. A subcellular

fractionation method (see Materials and Methods section for details) allowed us to

determine that TCF7L2 TF was relatively abundant in the nucleus, although TCF7L2

protein was also detected in cytoplasm (Fig. S4B,C). TGF-β stimulation downregulated the

expression of TCF7L2 in the nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions (Fig. 4A, Fig. S4B,C). Next,

we studied further the association between TGF-β-mediated fibroblast activation and

reduced TCF7L2 levels. Using confocal microscopy, we confirmed that TCF7L2 nuclear

expression was decreased in response to TGF-β and that TCF7L2 repression correlated

with TGF-β-induced myofibroblast phenotype in FAPs and NIH-3T3 fibroblasts (Fig. 4B,C,

Fig. S4D). In addition, TGF-β signaling did not alter the subcellular distribution of TCF7L2

protein (Fig. 4D,E). Overall, these data indicate that TGF-β, in addition to inducing the

differentiation of MSCs and fibroblasts into myofibroblasts, also represses the expression

of the Wnt-effector TCF7L2. Then, to investigate the role of TGF-β receptors in the

regulation of TCF7L2 by TGF-β, we used the TGFBR1 specific small-molecule inhibitor

SB525334 (Callahan et al., 2002). TGF-βs ligand binding to the type II receptor TGFBR2

leads to recruitment and phosphorylation of the type I receptor ALK-5 (TGFBR1).

Treatment with the TGFBR1 inhibitor completely abolished the downregulation of TCF7L2

expression by TGF-β1 in wild-type PDGFRα^+ FAPs and C3H/10T1/2 MSCs, without

affecting the total levels of the TCF7L2-binding partner β-catenin (Fig. 4F,G). These

results suggest that TGF-β-mediated TCF7L2 downregulation requires the activation of

TGF-β receptors signaling cascade.

TGF-β requires HDACs activity to repress *Tcf7l2* expression

The TGF-β family acts via Smad and non-Smad signaling pathways to regulate several

cellular responses (Derynck and Budi, 2019; Zhang, 2017). To investigate the role of

Smad and non-Smad cascades in the regulation of TCF7L2 by TGF-β, we used specific

small-molecule inhibitors of Smad3, p38 MAPK, JNK, and ERK1/2 (Fig. 5A). None of these

inhibitors were able to abolish the effect of TGF-β1 on the expression of TCF7L2 (Fig.

5A,B). Although we recently found that p38 MAPK participates in TGF-β-mediated

downregulation of PDGFRα expression (Contreras et al., 2019c), we did not detect any

significant effect of co-treatment with the p38 MAPK inhibitor SB203580 on TGF-β-induced

TCF7L2 downregulation (Fig. 5A,B, Fig. S5A). Interestingly, we found that co-treatment

with SIS3, a Smad3 inhibitor, augmented the inhibitory effect of TGF-β on the expression

of TCF7L2 (Fig. 5A,B, Fig. S5B). Overall, these results suggest that another, not yet

identified, Smad-independent pathway may participate in TGF-β-mediated downregulation

of TCF7L2 expression or that rather than Smad3 activation, Smad2/Smad4 cofactors

could be participating in TGF-β-mediated TCF7L2 downregulation.

It has been suggested that TCF7L2 might be a non-histone target of histone
deacetylases (HDACs). This was based on the observation that treatment with trichostatin
A (TSA), a commonly used histone deacetylase inhibitor (HDI), reduced the protein
expression of TCF7L2 by 50% in the human colon cancer cell type HCT116 (Götze et al.,
2014). Since HDACs regulate transcription of many genes (Bolden et al., 2006; Greet et
al., 2015; Seto and Yoshida, 2014), we first evaluated whether the HDI TSA affects
TCF7L2 protein levels in MSCs. Indeed, TSA treatment reduced TCF7L2 levels, although
to a lesser extent than TGF-β (Fig. 5C,D). Based on recent findings that demonstrated that
TGFβ-mediated fibroblast activation requires HDAC-mediated transcriptional repression
(Jones et al., 2019), we examined whether inhibiting HDACs with TSA may modify TGF-β-
mediated reduction of TCF7L2 expression. Therefore, the cells were treated with TGF-β1
and/or TSA for 8 h and then TCF7L2 protein levels were evaluated by western blot.
Interestingly, whereas TGF-β1 decreased TCF7L2 expression, TSA partially blocked TGF-
β-mediated repression of TCF7L2 expression (Fig. 5E,F). RNA sequencing analysis from
recent work on IPF lung fibroblasts helped us to corroborate our results (Fig. 5G) (Jones et
al., 2019). The pan HDAC inhibitor, pracinostat, attenuated TGF-β-mediated repression of
Tcf7l2 gene expression and induced extracellular matrix gene signature (Fig. 5G).
Furthermore, TGF-β also impairs TCF7L2-mediated target gene expression and Wnt
signaling via HDACs (Fig. S6). Taken together, these data suggest that HDACs participate
in the regulation of TGF-β-mediated *Tcf7l2* repression.

TGF-β reduces TCF7L2 protein levels by stimulating its degradation via the
ubiquitin-proteasome system
To gain knowledge of the mechanisms involved in TGF-β-induced TCF7L2 repression, we
performed a time-course analysis with the protein synthesis inhibitor cycloheximide. Thus,
we determined that the half-life of TCF7L2 TF is quite short, being approximately 3.5 h in
both proliferating C3H/10T1/2 MSCs and PDGFRα$^+$ FAPs ($T_{1/2}$=3.5 h) (Fig. 6A-C). Then,
to study the molecular mechanism governing TGF-β-mediated TCF7L2 downregulation,
we evaluated the human TCF7L2 interactome using BioGRID datasets (Stark et al., 2006).
Remarkably, several protein-quality-control-related proteins are interacting partners of
TCF7L2, among them: RNF4, RNF43, RNF138, NLK, UHRF2, UBE2I, UBE2L6, USP4,
UBR5, and XIAP (Fig. 6D). Since these TCF7L2 interacting proteins belong to or are
related to the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS), we performed *in silico* analyses and

identified several top-ranked potential ubiquitination sites along the TCF7L2 protein
sequence (Fig. 6E). Next, we used MG132, a potent proteasome inhibitor that reduces the
degradation of ubiquitin-conjugated proteins (Nalepa et al., 2006), to evaluate the
participation of the UPS in the downregulation of TCFL72 induced by TGF-β.
Mechanistically, MG132 completely blocked TGF-β-mediated downregulation of TCF7L2
protein after 9 h of co-treatment in MSCs and FAPs (Fig. 6F,G, Fig. S7A,B). MG132 also
increased TCF7L2 basal protein levels when administered alone, which suggests that an
intrinsic ubiquitin-mediated protein degradation mechanism controls TCF7L2 steady-state
levels or proteostasis (Fig. 6F,G, Fig. S7). Remarkably, a 12% SDS-PAGE gel allowed us
to identify an unknown higher molecular weight form (~65-70 kDa) of TCF7L2 not present
at steady-state, but sensitive to proteasome-mediated proteolysis inhibition by MG132
(Fig. S7B). Finally, because our BioGRID analysis suggests the interaction of TCF7L2 with
deubiquitinating enzymes (e.g. USP4), we evaluated the amount of TCF7L2 protein in
C3H/10T1/2 MSCs treated with the ubiquitin-specific protease 7 (USP7) inhibitor HBX
41108 (HBX) in proliferating conditions (Colland et al., 2009; de la Vega, et al., 2020; Yuan
et al., 2018). Treatment with only HBX diminished TCF7L2 protein levels in a time-
dependent manner (Fig. 6H). We also found that USP7-mediated TCF7L2 degradation
was sensitive to the inhibition of protein synthesis (Fig. 6H). Taken together, these results
suggest the participation of the ubiquitin-proteasome system and ubiquitin-specific
proteases in the regulation of TCF7L2 steady-state proteostasis and TGF-β-mediated
repression of TCF7L2 protein expression.
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TGF-β does not affect the expression of TCF7L2 in C2C12 myoblasts

Myoblasts are known to respond to TGF-β signaling (Droguett et al., 2006; Massagué et
al., 1986; Riquelme et al., 2001; Riquelme-Guzmán et al., 2018; Schabort et al., 2009).
Therefore, we investigated whether TCF7L2 downregulation by TGF-β signaling was
stromal cell-type-specific or whether it also occurred in myoblasts. C2C12 myoblasts
express very low levels of the TCF7L2 transcription factor and β-catenin compared to
C3H/10T1/2 MSCs (Fig. 7A,B, Fig. S8A,B). Similar to what we found in stromal cells, the
TCF7L2 protein was expressed predominantly in myoblasts' nuclei (Fig. S8A). However,
TGF-β1 stimulation did not alter the expression of TCF7L2, both at the protein and mRNA
levels, in C2C12 myoblasts at the different concentrations used for 24 or 48 h (Fig. 7C-E,
Fig. S8C,D). However, myoblasts did respond to TGF-β by increasing the expression of

the two ECM components fibronectin and the matricellular protein CCN2/CTGF (Fig. 7C,E,

Fig. S8C), as previously reported (Riquelme-Guzmán et al., 2018). Finally, we did not find

changes in TCF7L2 subcellular distribution in myoblasts after TGF-β treatment (Fig. 7F,G,

Fig. S9E). Thus, although TGF-β induces myoblast activation it does not change the

expression of the TCF7L2 TF, which is expressed a relatively low levels in these cells

compared to PDGFRα^+ fibroblasts.

DISCUSSION

Here, we first reported differential gene expression of the four Wnt Tcf/Lef TFs in PDGFRα⁺ fibroblasts from skeletal muscle and cardiac tissue, MSCs cell lines, and MEFs. Second, we established that TCF7L2 is a novel TGF-β target gene. Therefore, not only the gene and protein expression of TCF7L2 are strongly reduced by TGF-β signaling but also the expression of several TCF7L2-target genes is altered upon TGF-β stimulation (Fig. 8). Third, we showed via TCF7L2 BioGRID-based interaction network, *in silico* prediction of TC7L2 ubiquitination residues, and proteasome inhibition, that TGF-β regulates TCF7L2 protein stability via the UPS (Fig. 8). We also described that two pan HDACs inhibitors, TSA and pracinostat, counteracted TGF-β-mediated repression of TCF7L2 (Fig. 8). Finally, we observed that TGF-β-driven TCF7L2 downregulation is fibroblast-specific, as this effect did not occur in C2C12 myoblasts.

Tcf/Lef can act as activators or repressors of gene transcription, like other high-mobility group box-containing proteins, mostly depending on their binding cofactors, activators or repressor and in a tissue- and cell-specific fashion (Frietze et al., 2012; Jin, 2016; Lien and Fuchs, 2014; Tang et al., 2008; Weise et al., 2010). TCF7L2, emerges as an interesting TF to study because TCF7L2⁺ MSCs are increased in fibrotic muscles from the *mdx* mice and DMD (Contreras et al., 2016; Pessina et al., 2015), and also in damaged and atrophied muscles of the symptomatic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) transgenic mice hSOD^{G93A} (Gonzalez et al., 2017). TCF7L2⁺ cells peak at day 5 following acute injury and then return to their basal levels once the damage is resolved (Murphy et al., 2011). In addition, TCF7L2 is a known transcriptional regulator in several cancers (Clevers, 2006; Cosin-Roger, 2019; Jin, 2016; Ravindranath et al., 2008; Tang et al., 2008; van de Wetering et al., 2002), and is the gene more closely associated with risk of type 2 diabetes to date (Grant et al., 2006; Jin, 2016). Nevertheless, most of the knowledge concerning canonical Wnt signaling comes from β-Catenin translocation to the nucleus or dysregulated activity of upstream β-Catenin-stability regulators like GSK-3β or CSNK1, but the precise contribution of Tcf/Lef members to fibrogenesis has not been addressed yet. Even though TCF7L2 has been described as a marker for muscle CT fibroblasts (Contreras et al., 2016; Kardon et al., 2003; Mathew et al., 2011; Merrell et al., 2015), increasing evidence suggests that these cells share many properties with muscle PDGFRα⁺ FAPs (Contreras et al., 2019b; Malecova et al., 2018; Woszczyna and Rando, 2018).

A recent report demonstrated that TCF7L2 protein but not mRNA levels are
increased during adipocyte differentiation, thereby TCF7L2 plays a regulatory role in
fibroblast-adipocyte fate decisions *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Chen et al., 2018). In agreement
with Chen and Cols. (2018) we did not find *Tcf7l2* gene expression changes after
adipogenic differentiation. However, the precise role of TCF7L2 in regulating the fate and
lineage restriction of fibroblast still needs to be addressed. It is important to mention that
our work may have some experimental limitations. For example, we have not explored the
role of different Tcf/Lef TFs on the fate of MSCs yet. Here, we also reported that *Tcf7l1*
(*Tcf3*) is a Tcf/Lef gene with high expression in PDGFRα^+ cells. The regulation of the
expression of *Tcf7l1* seems to resemble that of *Tcf7l2* but its role in fibroblast biology still
needs to be further addressed. Interestingly, *Tcf7* and *Lef1* were expressed at very low
levels under resting conditions, but they were strongly upregulated by tissue damage and
TGF-β. This might be explained as a compensatory regulation of them or as a TCF7L2-
mediated response. Tcf7 and Lef1 are target genes of TCF7L2 (Frietze et al., 2012; Lien
et al., 2014), which may explain why these two members are upregulated when TCF7L2 is
downregulated by TGF-β. However, future studies need to address the questions raised
above.

The UPS has emerged as an essential component in cell and molecular biology via
regulation of cellular proteostasis in homeostasis and disease (Nalepa et al., 2006; Yuan
et al., 2018). Here, we demonstrated the participation of both the UPS and the
deubiquitinase enzyme USP7 in the regulation of TCF7L2 steady-state levels and stability
in response to TGF-β. Although we did not address the ubiquitination status of TCF7L2, to
our knowledge this is the first study suggesting potential cross-modulation between TGF-β
and the Wnt pathway through deubiquitinating enzymes and the UPS. Post-translational
modifications of TCF7L2 occur at the phosphorylation (Ishitani et al., 2003), acetylation
(Elfert et al., 2013), and SUMOylation level (Yamamoto et al., 2003). Although recent
reports demonstrated the ubiquitination of some Tcf/Lef members (Han et al., 2017; Song
et al., 2018, Yamada et al., 2006), the extent and importance of ubiquitin-mediated
regulatory mechanisms for these TF activity are still elusive. TCF7L1 half-life was reported
to be longer than 12 h, where the DNA-binding of TCF7L1 regulates its protein stability,
and therefore, Wnt signaling (Shy et al., 2013). Since TGF-β signaling is a known
chromatin-modifying factor (Massagué, 2012), an intriguing possibility is that TCF7L2
DNA-binding regulates its stability and that TGF-β-induced chromatin remodeling might

negatively affect TCF7L2 stability. However, the complexity of different molecular events
maintaining TCF7L2 protein or mRNA levels in PDGFRα⁺ cells remains unclear. A
limitation of this study is that we did not investigate the role of TCF7L2 in TGF-β-mediated
ECM remodeling and myofibroblast differentiation. As TCF7L2 TF is known for regulating
the expression of thousands of genes in a cell-type-specific manner (Frietze et al., 2012;
Schuijers et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2008; Weise et al., 2010), we propose that TGF-β-
induced TCF7L2 TF downregulation should have a massive and profound impact on
fibroblast's transcriptome.
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Recently, histone deacetylase inhibitors (HDACi) have emerged as potential
compounds for use in pre-clinical and clinical studies to improve tissue regeneration and
repair in DMD (Bettica et al., 2016; Minetti et al., 2006). Central to this idea is that
PDGFRα⁺ cells are specifically targeted by HDACi in muscular dystrophies (Mozzetta et
al., 2013; Saccone et al., 2014). HDACi reduce DMD progression by increasing muscle
regeneration while inhibiting fibro-fatty differentiation of PDGFRα⁺ cells. Mechanistically,
HDACi favor intercellular communication between PDGFRα⁺ FAPs and myogenic
progenitors during regeneration and repair (Bettica et al., 2016; Mozzetta et al., 2013;
Saccone et al., 2014). Here, we observed that two well-characterized and known pan-
HDACi reduce TGF-β-mediated ECM gene signature and also block TGF-β-induced
downregulation of *Tcf7l2* expression. This corresponds with our results showing that
HDACi modulate TGF-β-mediated Wnt-TCF7L2 downstream genes. Further studies
should unravel the mechanism by which HDACi regulate Wnt-TCF7L2-dependent gene
network.
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Canonical Wnt signaling activation through Wnt-1 upregulates collagen ECM
deposition and promotes fibroblasts differentiation into myofibroblasts (Akhmetshina et al.,
2012). Similarly, TGF-β activates the canonical Wnt cascade by inducing β-Catenin
nuclear accumulation and increasing Tcf/Lef-responsive elements activity in reporter
assays. Therefore, TGF-β mediates the reduction of the expression of the Wnt inhibitor
DKK-1 (Akhmetshina et al., 2012). This seems to be in agreement to our results showing
that TGF-β reduces the expression of several TCF7L2 target genes such as *Dkk1*, *Dkk3*,
Lrp5, *Lef1*, *Tcf7l1*, *Tgfbr2*, *Ctbp2*, *Sox9*, *Cxcl12*, and *Nfatc4* in IPF lung and heart
fibroblasts. Furthermore, pharmacological inhibition of Wnt/β-catenin signaling by the small

molecule ICG-001, reduced proliferation and TGF-β1-induced myofibroblast differentiation
of lung resident MSCs *in vitro* and triggered organ protection via attenuation of bleomycin-
induced lung fibrosis *in vivo* (Cao et al., 2018). These studies and others suggest that the
canonical Wnt cascade is required for TGF-β-mediated effects, and vice versa (Cosin-
Roger et al., 2019; Działo et al., 2018; Girardi and Le Grand, 2018; Piersma et al., 2015).
Here, we hypothesize that extracellular TGF-β release after injury primes PDGFRα[+]
progenitor cells into differentiating TCF7L2 non-expressing myofibroblasts, which are then
refractory to the self-renewal Wnt signals. Central to this idea is the significance of
restraining an exacerbated stromal response to control scar formation. Thus, Wnt/TCF7L2
and TGF-β signaling could interact in a cell-specific and complex arrangement during
regeneration and repair.

Emerging studies suggest a functional crosstalk between Wnt cascade and TGF-β
signaling in modulating MSCs activation and fate (Burgy and Königshoff, 2018; Cosin-
Roger et al., 2019; Vallée et al., 2017; Hamburg-Shields, et al., 2015). For example, the
canonical Wnt3a ligand upregulates TGF-β signaling via Smad2 in a β-catenin-dependent
mechanism, and therefore, promotes the differentiation of fibroblasts into myofibroblasts
(Carthy et al., 2011). Moreover, Wnt/β-catenin/TCF7L2 pathway mediates the
transcriptional regulation of the TGF-β-target gene, TMEPAI (Nakano et al., 2010). TGF-β
promotes the secretion of Wnt proteins, via transforming growth factor beta-activated
kinase 1 activation, which in turn activates the canonical Wnt cascade (Blyszczuk et al.,
2016). Therefore, this TGF-β-dependent Wnt secretion induces myofibroblasts formation
and myocardial fibrosis progression (Blyszczuk et al., 2016). Elevated canonical Wnt/β-
catenin signaling is found in dystrophic *mdx* muscles and controls MuSCs fate via
crosstalk with TGF-β2 (Biressi et al., 2014). Also, TGF-β induces the production of the
canonical ligand Wnt3a, which in turn increases TGF-β secretion, establishing an
amplification circuit between TGF-β and Wnt signaling pathways in cardiac fibroblasts
(Seo et al., 2019). Also, it has been demonstrated that TGF-β3-induced epithelial-
mesenchymal transformation proceeds via transcription complexes of
Smad2/Smad4/LEF1 that directly inhibit E-cadherin gene expression (Nashaw et al.,
2007). Tian et al., (2013) reported that β-catenin is a co-factor of Smad3 during TGF-β1-
mediated epithelial-mesenchymal transformation. Therefore, these studies and ours
suggest a novel interplay between TGF-β and the canonical Wnt pathway.

The study of the heterogeneity and plasticity of tissue-resident mesenchymal

stromal populations emerges as an attractive field to understand regeneration versus

degenerative fibrosis (Riquelme-Guzmán and Contreras, 2020; Mahmoudi et al., 2019;

Lemos and Duffield, 2018; Lynch and Watt, 2018). Different MSC populations and their

lineage may have intrinsic properties that favor either permanent scar formation or

regeneration via scar regression (Driskell et al., 2013; Malecova et al., 2018; Plikus et al.,

2017; Rinkevich et al., 2015; Rognoni et al., 2018; Soliman et al., 2020; Furtado et al.,

2016). Thus, investigating different sub-populations of fibroblasts, with particular niches

and genetic programs, is important to understand how these cells and their progeny

influence wound healing, tissue repair, and regeneration. Dynamic downregulation of

fibroblast markers following damage has also been identified in resident PDGFRα^+ cardiac

fibroblasts (Asli et al., 2018 preprint; Farbehi et al., 2019; Kanisicak et al., 2016; Tallquist

and Molkentin, 2017; Soliman et al., 2020) and skeletal muscle (Contreras et al., 2019c;

Malecova et al., 2018). We have recently reported that the *in vivo* and *in vitro* expression

of PDGFRα is strongly downregulated by damage-associated TGF-β signaling in skeletal

muscle and heart PDGFRα^+ fibroblasts (Contreras et al., 2019c). Conversely, TGF-β

mediates the differentiation of PDGFRα^+ cells into myofibroblasts at the expenses of their

adipogenic differentiation (Contreras et al., 2019c; Uezumi et al., 2014a; Uezumi et al.,

2011). In summary, the work of others and our results suggest that stromal stem cell

and/or progenitor markers are often downregulated by TGF-β, probably after a complex

array of niche signals during regeneration or disease, as cells change phenotypically

towards an activated cell state. These mesenchymal progenitor and/or fibroblast

downregulated markers include Sca-1, PDGFRα, Tcf21, and Hic1 (Asli et al., 2018

preprint; Contreras, 2019d; Contreras et al., 2019c; Fu et al., 2018; Kanisicak et al., 2016;

Scott et al., 2019; Soliman et al., 2020). With our work, we added TCF7L2 to the growing

list.

Our understanding of the cellular and molecular determinants of fibrosis has

advanced immensely (Ceco and McNally, 2013; Kim et al., 2018; Piersma et al., 2015;

Smith and Barton, 2018). Nevertheless, the lack of successful antifibrotic therapy to date

prompts us to continue the search for new potential candidates to fight against non-

malignant proliferative disorders. Compelling evidence from this work raises the idea that

TCF7L2 should be explored as a therapeutic target in fibrotic diseases, as the Wnt

β/Catenin pathway emerges as a novel and attractive signaling cascade to target for

improving tissue function in myopathies, fibrosis-related disorders, and aging.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice and study approval

Housing, husbandry and experimental protocols were conducted in strict accordance and

with the formal approval of the Animal Ethics Committee of the Pontificia Universidad

Católica de Chile (Doctoral ID protocol: 160512005) and following institutional and national

guidelines at the University of British Columbia, Canada. Mice were housed in standard

cages under 12-h light-dark cycles and fed *ad libitum* with a standard chow diet. Five-

month-old C57BL/10ScScJ male mice (hereafter referred to as wild type, WT; stock

#000476) and dystrophic C57BL/10ScSn-Dmdmdx/J mice (stock #001801) male mice

(both from Jackson Laboratories) were used in experiments for Fig. 1E, Fig. 2, and Fig.

S3H. *Pdgfra$^{tm11(EGFP)Sor}$* mice (hereafter referred to as PDGFRα^{H2BEGFP} mice) were

purchased from Jackson Laboratories (stock #007669 B6.129S4-Pdgfra$^{tm11(EGFP)Sor}$/J;

Hamilton et al., 2003). For FAP detection in *mdx* muscles, we crossed male

C57Bl/10ScSn-*mdx* mice with hemizygous female B6.129S4-Pdgfra$^{tm11(EGFP)Sor}$/J mice. We

used the F1 male *mdx*;PDGFRα^{H2BEGFP} offspring (5- to 6-month-old), and the comparisons

were performed among siblings. All surgeries were performed after the mice had been

anesthetized with 2.5–3% of isoflurane gas in pure oxygen. The mice were euthanized

with cervical dislocation at the ages indicated in each figure, and the tissues were

immediately processed, either by direct freezing in liquid nitrogen for protein and RNA

extraction or in 2-methyl butane cooled with liquid nitrogen for histological analysis as

described below.

Muscle acute injury

For acute glycerol injury, the tibialis anterior (TA) muscle from 2- to 3-monthold

PDGFRα^{H2BEGFP} mice was injected with 50 µl 50% v/v glycerol. Tissue collection was

performed as indicated in the corresponding figures after glycerol injections. Notexin

muscle damage was induced by intramuscular injection of 0.15 µg notexin snake venom

(Latoxan) into the TA muscle (Contreras et al., 2019c; Joe et al., 2010; Lemos et al.,

2015). Non-injected muscles from the contralateral limb were used as controls. Muscles

were isolated and collected for analysis at the indicated time points in the corresponding

figures.

Tissue preparation, flow cytometry and FACS

Tissue preparation for skeletal muscle and heart FAPs was performed mainly as described
before (Contreras et al., 2019c; Soliman et al., 2020). One-step digestion of tissue for
FAPs was performed mainly as described before with some modifications (Judson et al.,
2017; Lemos et al., 2015). All the steps were performed on ice unless otherwise specified.
Briefly, skeletal muscle from both hindlimbs (limb FAPs), and diaphragm (diaphragm
FAPs) was carefully dissected, washed with 1×PBS, cut into small pieces with scissors
until homogeneous. Collagenase D (Roche Biochemicals) 1.5 U/ml and Dispase II (Roche
Biochemicals) 2.4 U/ml, in 2.5 mM $CaCl_2$, was added to every two hindlimbs in a total
volume of 3 ml per mouse, and the preparation was placed at 37°C for 45 min with
rotation. Preparations were passed through a 70 µm, and then 40 µm cell strainer (Becton
Dickenson), and washed with FACS buffer (PBS, 2% FBS, 2 mM EDTA pH 7.9). Resulting
single cells were collected by centrifugation at 1000 g for 5–10 min. Cell preparations were
incubated with primary antibodies for 20–30 min at 4°C in FACS buffer at ~3×10^7
cells/ml.We used the following monoclonal primary antibodies: anti-CD31 (clones
MEC13.3, Cat. no. 553372, Becton Dickenson; clone 390, Cat. no. CL8930F-3, 1:500,
Cedarlane Laboratories), anti-CD45 (clone 30-F11, Cat. no. 557659, 1:400, Becton
Dickenson), anti-CD45.1 (1:400; clone A20, Cat. no. 553775, 1:400, Becton Dickenson),
anti-CD45.2 (clone 104, Cat. no. 11-0454-85, eBiosciences), anti-Sca-1 (1:2000–1:5000;
clone D7, Cat. no. 25-5981-82, Invitrogen) and anti-α7 integrin (1:11500; Clone R2F2, Cat.
no. 67-0010-05, AbLab). For all antibodies, we performed fluorescence minus one control
by staining with appropriate isotype control antibodies (rat IgG2a kappa, PE-Cyanine7,
clone eBR2a, Cat. no. 25-4321-82, eBioscience. 1:400; mouse anti-IgG2a k, FITC, clone
G155-178, BD, Cat No: 553456; rat IgG2b kappa, APC, clone eB149/10H5, Cat. no. 17-
4031-82 – all from eBioscience). To assess viability, cells were stained with propidium
iodide (1 µg ml–1) and Hoechst 33342 (2.5 µg ml–1) and resuspended at ~1×10^6 cells
ml–1 immediately before sorting or analysis. The analysis was performed on a LSRII
(Becton Dickenson) flow cytometer equipped with three lasers. Data were collected using
FacsDIVA software. Cell sorting was performed on a FACS Vantage SE (Becton
Dickenson), BD Influx flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson), or FACS Aria (Becton
Dickenson), all equipped with three lasers, using a 100-µm nozzle at 18 psi to minimize
the effects of pressure on the cells. Sorting gates were strictly defined based on isotype
control (fluorescence minus one) stains. All flow cytometry data were analyzed using
FlowJo 10.5.3v.
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Reagents

The TGFBR1 inhibitor SB525334 (used at 5 µM; S8822, Sigma-Aldrich), p38 MAPK

SB203580 inhibitor (used at 20 µM; 5633, Cell Signaling Technology), PI3K/AKT inhibitor

LY294002 (used at 10 µM; 440202, Merck-Calbiochem), the inhibitor of MEK1/2/ERK1/2

kinases UO126 (used at 10 µM; 9903, Cell Signaling Technology), Smad3 inhibitor SIS3

(used at 6 µM; 1009104-85-1, Merck-Calbiochem), the inhibitor of JNK activity SB600125

(used at 20 µM; Cell Signaling Technology), trichostatin A (TSA) (used at 10 µM; T8552,

Sigma-Aldrich), and the inhibitor of USP7 activity HBX 41108 (used at 10uM; 4285; Tocris)

were all diluted in DMSO. DMSO alone was used as a control. Cycloheximide (C104450,

Sigma-Aldrich) was diluted in ethanol and used at 30µg/ml final concentration. All the

inhibitors used were added at the same time and co-incubated with TGF-β1. Other

reagents, unless otherwise is indicated, were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

Cell culture and nuclei cytoplasmic fractionation

The murine mesenchymal stromal cell (MSC) cell line C3H/10T1/2, Clone 8, and the

embryonic fibroblast cell line NIH-3T3 were obtained from American Type Culture

Collection (ATCC) and grown at 37°C in 5% CO_2 in growth medium (GM): high-glucose

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Invitrogen) with 10% fetal bovine serum

(FBS; Hyclone) and supplemented with antibiotics (Gutiérrez et al., 2015). The murine

C2C12 myoblast cell line (American Type Culture Collection (ATCC), VA, USA) were

cultured at 37 °C in 8% CO_2 in growth medium (GM); DMEM high glucose (Invitrogen, CA,

USA) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Hyclone, UT, USA) and supplemented with

antibiotics. Cells were treated with recombinant hTGF-β1 (#580702, Biolegend, USA),

recombinant hTGF-β2 (#583301, Biolegend, USA), recombinant hTGF-β3 (#501123524,

eBioscience, CA, USA) in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented

with 2% (v/v) FBS and penicillin/streptomycin in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere at concentration

and time indicated in the corresponding figure legend. Adipogenic or osteogenic

differentiation of MEFs was induced for 28 days with MesenCult™ Adipogenic

Differentiation Kit (Mouse) (STEMCELL Technologies, Canada) and MesenCult™

Osteogenic Stimulatory Kit (Mouse), respectively. Our cell cultures were periodically tested

to ensure no mycoplasma contamination using polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Cell

fractionation was performed mainly according the principles of rapid, efficient and practical

(REAP) method for subcellular fractionation with a few modifications (Suzuki et al., 2010).

Briefly, the initially PBS-scraped and pelleted cells were resuspended, by pipetting

up/down and vortexing for 5 s, using 900 µL of "cytoplasmic buffer": 10mM Tris pH 7.5,

3mM $MgCl_2$, 100mM $NaCl_2$, 1mM EGTA, 0.25% (v/v) Nonidet P-40. Next, 300 µL of the

initial lysate was removed and kept as "whole cell lysate" or Ho (Fig. 4A). The remaining

(~600 µL) material was centrifuged for 10 sec (two times) in 1.5 ml micro-centrifuge tubes

and 300 µL of the supernatant was removed and kept as the "cytosolic fraction". After the

remaining supernatant was removed, the pellet (~20 µL) was resuspended with 180 µL of

1 × Laemmli sample buffer and designated as "nuclear fraction". 100 µL of 4 x Laemmli

sample buffer was added to both the whole cell lysate and the cytosolic fractions. Finally,

samples were sonicated and 30 µL, 30 µL and 15 µL of whole cell lysate, cytoplasmic and

nuclear fractions, respectively, were loaded and electrophoresed using sodium dodecyl

sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) (see below).

FAP cell culture

PDGFRα+ FAPs were FACS-isolated from either wild-type or PDGFRα[H2BEGFP/+] mice and

grown in high-glucose DMEM (Invitrogen), supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% sodium

pyruvate, and 2.5 ng/ml bFGF (Invitrogen) at a density of 15,000 cell/cm^2 in a 48-well plate

or 24-well plate. Cells were isolated from undamaged muscles. For the TGF-β1 treatment

experiment, after 72 h to 96 h in culture and 70–80% confluence, FAPs were stimulated

with 5 ng/ml TGF-β1 (Contreras et al., 2019c). Cells were then collected for further

analyses.

Protein extraction and western blot analysis

Protein extracts from cells were obtained using RIPA 1x lysis buffer (9806, Cell Signaling,

MA, USA) plus protease/phosphatase inhibitors (#P8340/#P0044, Sigma-Aldrich, USA).

Whole-muscle and heart extracts were obtained by homogenization at 4°C in RIPA 1x lysis

buffer plus protease/phosphatase inhibitors. The cells were sonicated for 10 s and

centrifuged at 9,000 *g*. Whole-tissue homogenates were clarified by centrifugation at

10,000 *g* for 5 min. Proteins were quantified with the Micro BCA assay kit, following the

manufacturer's instructions (Pierce, IL, USA). Protein extracts (30–60 µg) were subjected

to SDS-PAGE electrophoresis in 9-10% (or 12% in Fig. S7B) polyacrylamide gels,

transferred to PDVF membranes (Millipore, CA, USA), and probed with primary antibodies:

goat anti-PDGFRα (1:1000; AF1062, R&D Systems), rabbit anti-TCF4/TCF7L2 (C48H11)

(1:1000; 2569, Cell Signaling), rabbit anti-c-Jun (60A8) (1:1000; 9165, Cell Signaling),

rabbit anti-β-Catenin (1:2000; 9562, Cell Signaling), rabbit anti-histone 3 H3 (1:1000; 9715,

Cell signaling), mouse anti-alpha smooth muscle actin (αSMA) (1:2000; Cat. No A5228,

Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), goat anti-CCN2/CTGF (1;500; Cat. no. sc-14939,

Santa Cruz Biotechnology), rabbit anti-Integrin β1 (M-106) (1:1000; sc-8978, Santa Cruz

Biotechnology), rabbit anti-fibronectin (1:2000; F3648, Sigma-Aldrich), mouse anti-Myosin

Skeletal Fast (1:1000; M4276, Sigma-Aldrich), rabbit anti-myogenin (1:500; sc-576, Santa

Cruz), mouse anti-GAPDH (1:5000; MAB374, Millipore), mouse anti-α-tubulin (1:5000;

T5168, Sigma-Aldrich), Then, primary antibodies were detected with a secondary antibody

conjugated to horseradish peroxidase: mouse anti-goat IgG (1:5000; 31400), goat anti-

rabbit IgG (1:5000; 31460) and goat anti-mouse IgG (1:5000; 31430), all from Pierce. All

immunoreactions were visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence Super Signal West

Dura (34075, Pierce) or Super Signal West Femto (34096, Pierce) by a ChemiDoc-It HR

410 imaging system (UVP). Western blot densitometry quantification was done using Fiji

software (ImageJ version 2.0.0-rc/69/1.52n). Briefly, minimum brightness thresholds were

increased to remove background signal. Remaining bands were bracketed, plot profiles

generated, and area under histograms auto traced. Protein levels were normalized with

the levels of the loading control. Ponceau S Red Staining Solution (0.1% (w/v) Ponceau S

in 5% (v/v) acetic acid) was used.

Indirect immunofluorescence and microscopy

Cells immunofluorescence was performed as previously described (Contreras et al.,

2018). For tissue section immunofluorescence, flash-frozen muscles were sectioned at 7

µm, fixed for 15 min in 4 % paraformaldehyde, and washed in phosphate-buffered saline

(PBS). Cells and tissue sections were blocked for 30–60 min in 1 % bovine serum albumin

(BSA) plus 1 % fish gelatin in PBS, incubated overnight at 4 °C in primary antibody: rat

anti-Laminin-α2 (1:250, Cat. No L0663, Sigma-Aldrich), rabbit anti-Collagen Type I (1:250,

Cat. No A34710, Abcam), rabbit anti phospho-Smad3 antibody (1:100; Cat. No 9520S,

Cell Signaling), mouse anti-alpha smooth muscle actin (αSMA) (1:250, Cat. No A5228,

Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). Then, washed in PBS, incubated for 1 h or at room

temperature with a secondary antibody (Alexa-Fluor-568 donkey anti-rabbit IgG (H+L),

Cat. no. A10042, Life Technologies; Alexa-Fluor-594 donkey anti-rabbit IgG (H+L), Cat.

no. A21207, Life Technologies; Alexa-Fluor-488 goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L), 1:500, Cat. no.

A11008, Life Technologies; Alexa-Fluor-555 donkey anti-mouse IgG (H+L), Cat. no.

A31570, Invitrogen; Alexa-Fluor-568 goat anti-rat IgG (H+L), Cat. no. A11077, Life

Technologies; all used at 1:500) and washed in PBS. Hoechst 33342 stain (2 mg/ml) and

wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) Alexa Fluor 594 conjugate (#W11262, Invitrogen, CA, USA) were added for 10 min in PBS before the slides were mounted, according to the supplier's instructions. Slides were then washed in PBS and mounted with fluorescent mounting medium (DAKO, USA). To stain F-actin Alexa Fluor 568 Phalloidin was added to the cells according to provider's instructions for 10 minutes (#A12380, Thermo-Fisher, MA, USA). Cells were imaged on a Nikon Eclipse C2 Si Confocal Spectral Microscope or Nikon Eclipse Ti Confocal Microscope using Nikon NIS-Elements AR software 4.00.00 (build 764) LO, 64 bit. Confocal images were acquired at the Unidad de Microscopía Avanzada (UMA), Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, using a Nikon Eclipse C2 Si confocal spectral microscope. Plan-Apochromat objectives were used (Nikon, VC 20✕ DIC N2 NA 0.75, 40✕ OIL DIC H NA 1.0, and, VC 60✕ OIL DIC NA 1.4). Cytospin confocal microscopy was performed using a Nikon eclipse Ti Confocal Microscope with a C2 laser unit. Confocal microscopy images shown in Fig. 1G, Fig. 2C and Fig. S1G were composed using maximum-intensity projection z-stack reconstructions (0.3 µm each stack) of 7-µm-thick transversal sections or cultured cells. Then, we automatically analyzed the intensity of fluorescence (amount) of TCF7L2 in TCF7L2$^+$ cells using the analyze particles plugging, and manually counted the cells using the cell counter plugging from Fiji software (ImageJ version 2.0.0-rc/69/1.52n, NIH). Counts of 6–8 randomly chosen fields were averaged from four independent experiments.

RNA isolation, reverse transcription, and quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR)

Total RNA from cultured cells was isolated using TRIzol (Invitrogen, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA integrity was corroborated as described before (Contreras et al., 2018). Two microgram RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA using random primers and M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, CA, USA). RT-qPCR was performed in triplicate with the Eco Real-Time PCR System (Illumina, CA, USA), using primer sets for (Supplementary Table 1): *Tcf7*, *Lef1*, *Tcf7l1 (Tcf3)*, *Tcf7l2 (Tcf4)*, *Ccnd1* (*CyclinD1*), *Sox9*, *Axin2*, *Nfatc1*, *Ctnnb1* (*β-catenin*) and the housekeeping gene *18s* (used as a reference gene). The ΔΔCt method was used for quantification, and mRNA levels were expressed relative to the mean level of the control condition in each case. We analyzed and validated each RT-qPCR expected gene product using a 2% agarose gel. Digital droplet PCR was performed as previously described (Soliman et al., 2020). Gene expression analysis was performed using Taqman Gene Expression Assays (Applied

Biosystems), on a 7900HT Real Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems). Sequence

information for the primers contained in the Taqman assays is provided here: Taqman

probes (Thermo Fisher Scientific): *Tcf7l2* mouse (Mm00501505_m1), *Tcf7l1* mouse

(Mm01188711_m1), *Lef1* mouse (Mm00550265_m1), *Tcf7* mouse (Mm00493445_m1),

Runx2 mouse (Hs01047973_m1), *Adipoq* (Hs00605917_m1), and the housekeeping gene

Hprt mouse (Mm03024075_m1). Data were acquired and analyzed using SDS 2.0 and

SDS RQ Manager software (Applied Biosystems).

Computational BioGRID database, Ubiquitination, and Tabula Muris open source

database

The image in Fig. 6D was generated with BioGRID based on the human TCF7L2

interactome (Stark et al., 2006). The data from figures and tables in the BioGRID webpage

(https://thebiogrid.org/) can be searched and sorted. For post-translational modification

detection and delineation of ubiquitination at a site-specific level we used UbiSite webpage

(http://csb.cse.yzu.edu.tw/UbiSite/) (Akimov et al., 2018). Murine Tabula Muris open

database was used to generate the figures shown in Fig. S1E,F (The Tabula Muris

Consortium et al., 2018). Data were extracted and analyzed from total tissues, diaphragm,

and limb muscles.

Statistical analysis

Mean ± s.e.m. values, as well as the number of experiments performed, are indicated in

each figure. All datasets were analyzed for normal distribution using the D'agostino

normality test. Statistical significance of the differences between the means was evaluated

using the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test followed by post-hoc Dunnett's

multiple comparison test and the significance level set at $P<0.05$. A two-tailed Student's *t*-

test was performed when two conditions were compared. Differences were considered

significant with $P<0.05$. Data were collected in Microsoft Excel, and statistical analyses

were performed using Prism 8 software for macOS (GraphPad).

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to the Unidad de Microscopía Avanzada (UMA) of Pontificia Universidad

Católica de Chile for its support in image acquisition. We acknowledge the services

provided by the UC CINBIOT Animal Facility funded by the PIA CONICYT* ECM-07

Program for Associative Research, of the Chilean National Council for Science and

Technology. We also acknowledge the animal unit staff and genotyping core facility at the

Biomedical Research Centre (UBC), especially Mr. Taka Murakami, Mrs. Krista Ranta, and

Mr. Wei Yuan. We thank Mr. Andy Johnson and Mr. Justin Wong of UBC Flow Cytometry.

We also acknowledge Martin Arostegui from Michael T. Underhill's Lab (Biomedical

Research Centre, UBC) for helping with MEFs culture. We acknowledge the Lab of Dr.

Hugo Olguín (Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile) for kindly providing USP7 small-

molecule inhibitor HBX 41108 and also the Lab of Dr. Martín Montecino (Instituto de

Ciencias Biomédicas, Universidad Andrés Bello) for kindly providing Trichostatin A. For

administrative assistance, we thank Ms. Vanessa Morales and Mrs. Vittoria Canale. We

finally acknowledge Mr. Eduardo Ramirez and Ms. Darling Vera for their technical support.

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Differential expression of Tcf/Lef transcription factors in mesenchymal
progenitor cells and fibroblasts

(A) *Tcf7*, *Tcf7l1*, *Tcf7l2*, and *Lef1* mRNA expression levels were analyzed by quantitative
PCR in C3H/10T1/2 cells and MEFs in growing conditions. ***$P<0.001$; *$P<0.05$; n.s., not
significant by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; n=4. (B) Skeletal muscle FAPs
were FACS-isolated from the PDGFR$\alpha^{H2BEGFP}$ mice. WGA staining labels lectins of the
ECM. Scale bar: 50 μm. (C) *Tcf7*, *Tcf7l1*, *Tcf7l2*, and *Lef1* mRNA expression levels were
analyzed by quantitative PCR in EGFP$^+$ FAPs in growing conditions. ***$P<0.001$; *$P<0.05$;
n.s., not significant by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; n=3. (D) *Tcf7l2* transcript
abundance in the different muscle cell fractions. (n = 3–4). (E) Heat map showing gene
expression of Tcf/Lef in muscle Lin$^-$Sca1$^+$ population (FAPs). (F) Representative western
blot analysis showing TCF7L2 protein levels in gastrocnemius muscle. GAPDH was used
as the loading control. (G) Confocal image of TCF7L2 immunofluorescence. Laminin-α2
(LN- α2) (*red*) and nuclei (Hoechst in *blue*) were also stained. Scale bar: 10 μm. (H)
Strategy used to isolate transit amplifying EGFP$^+$ FAPs at day 3 post NTX TA injury. (I) Z-
stack confocal image of cytospined EGFP$^+$ FAPs showing TCF7L2 nuclear expression. (J)
Tcf7, *Tcf7l1*, *Tcf7l2*, and *Lef1* mRNA expression levels were analyzed by quantitative PCR
in cardiac fibroblasts in growing conditions. ***$P<0.001$; n.s., not significant by one-way
ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; n=3. (K) Heat map showing gene expression levels of
Tcf/Lef in cardiac fibroblasts. Known cardiac fibroblast marker genes (*Pdgfra* and *Tcf21*)
are also shown. Each column represents an individual uninjured cardiac fibroblast (*n*=3).
(M) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2 protein levels in whole cardiac
tissue. GAPDH was used as the loading control. (N) Immunofluorescence of TCF7L2
(*magenta*) in FACS-isolated heart PDGFRα-EGFP$^+$ cells in growing conditions.

Fig. 2. Dynamics of TCF7L2 expression in the stromal compartment during skeletal
muscle regeneration and repair.

(A) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2, β-Catenin, PDGFRα, MyHC
fast, Myogenin, and GAPDH in TA muscle after damage with glycerol at different time
points (0, 3, 7 and 14 day). Ponceau red was used as the loading control. (B)

Quantification of TCF7L2, β-Catenin, PDGFRα, MyHC fast, and Myogenin protein
expression. n=3. (C) Z-stack confocal images showing the localization of TCF7L2$^+$ cells in
diaphragm muscle sections of adult wild-type and from the *mdx* mice. Scale bars: 50 μm
and 10 μm. (D) Pie charts showing the increase of TCF7L2$^+$ cells in dystrophic diaphragm.
(E) Quantification of fluorescence intensity of TCF7L2 in stromal TCF7L2$^+$ cells.
***P<0.001; by two-tailed Student's t-test. n=4. (F) Representative confocal image showing
the localization of phosphorylated-Smad3$^+$ cells in diaphragm muscle sections of adult
wild-type and *mdx* mice. Scale bar: 50 μm. (G) Quantification of the percentage of
phospho-Smad3$^+$ cells. n=4. (H) Representative confocal image showing the increase of
ECM collagen type 1 immunostaining in diaphragm of *mdx* compared to wild-type mice
(*n*=3).

Fig. 3. TGF-β signaling downregulates the expression of the Wnt TF TCF7L2 in
mesenchymal progenitors and fibroblasts.

(A) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2, fibronectin, β1-Integrin,
CCN2/CTGF, and αSMA/ACTA2 expression levels in C3H/10T1/2 MSCs after treatment
with different concentrations of TGF-β1 for 24 h. Tubulin was used as the loading control.
(B) Quantification of TCF7L2 protein expression. **P<0.005; *P<0.05 by one-way ANOVA
with Dunnett's post-test; n=4. (C,E) Representative western blot analysis showing
TCF7L2, fibronectin, CCN2/CTGF, and αSMA/ACTA2 expression levels in (C)
C3H/10T1/2 MSCs and (E) NIH-3T3 fibroblasts after treatment with TGF-β1 (5 ng/ml) at
different time points (0, 2, 8, 24, 48 h). Tubulin was used as the loading control. (D,F)
Quantification of TCF7L2 protein expression. ****P<0.0001; ***P<0.001; *P<0.05; n.s., not
significant by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; n=4. (G) Representative western
blot analysis showing TCF7L2 and fibronectin expression levels after treatment with 5
ng/ml TGF-β1 (24 h) in PDGFRα-EGFP$^+$ FAPs. Tubulin was used as the loading control.
(H) Quantification of TCF7L2 protein expression. **P<0.005 by two-tailed Student's t-test;
n=3. (I) *Tcf7l2* mRNA expression levels were analyzed by quantitative PCR in C3H/10T1/2
MSCs after 2, 8 and 24 h of treatment with TGF-β1 (5 ng/ml). ****P<0.0001; **P<0.005 by
one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; n=3. (J) Representative western blot analysis
showing TCF7L2 and PDGFRα expression levels after the treatment with actinomycin D at
different time points (0, 2, 3, 4, 7 h). GAPDH was used as the loading control. (K,M) Heat

Fig. 4. Extracellular TGF-β reduces the expression of TCF7L2 TF through TGFβR1 activation.

(A) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2, β1-Integrin, tubulin, GAPDH, and c-Jun expression levels in control and TGF-β1-treated C3H/10T1/2 cells. Ho: Whole cell lysate; Cyto: Cytoplasmic lysate; Nuc: Nuclei lysate. (B) Z-stack confocal images showing localization of TCF7L2 (*green*) and αSMA (*red*) in control and TGF-β1-treated (36 h) C3H/10T1/2 MSCs. Scale bars: 50 μm. (C) Quantification of the TCF7L2 fluorescence intensity in NIH-3T3 and EGFP[+] FAPs. (a.u.: arbitrary units). Each dot represents a single cell quantified were a ROI area was previously defined. ***$P<0.001$; by two-tailed Student's t-test. *n*=3. (D) Z-stack confocal images showing localization of TCF7L2 (*green*) and αSMA (*red*) in control and TGF-β1-treated (24 h) C3H/10T1/2 MSCs. Scale bars: 50 μm. (E) Label-distribution graph showing the fluorescence intensity of TCF7L2 and Hoechst along the cell axis as shown in (D) with the *white* line. Distance is shown in pixels. Dotted lines show the nucleus-cytoplasm boundary. (a.u.: arbitrary units). (F) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2 and β1-Integrin expression levels in wild-type PDGFRα[+] FAPs co-treated for 24 h with TGFBR1 inhibitor SB525334 (5 μM) and TGF-β1 (5 ng/ml). Tubulin was used as the loading control. (G) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2, β-Catenin, β1-Integrin, and CCN2/CTGF expression levels in C3H/10T1/2 MSCs co-treated for 24 h or 48 h with TGFBR1/ALK5 inhibitor SB525334 and TGF-β1. Tubulin was used as the loading control.

Fig. 5. Histone deacetylases participate in TGF-β-mediated repression of TCF7L2.

(A) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2, β1-Integrin, and CCN2/CTGF protein levels after TGF-β1 and SB525334, SIS3, SB203580, SP600125, and UO126 pharmacological co-treatments. Tubulin was used as the loading control. (B) Quantification of TCF7L2 protein expression. ****$P<0.0001$; ***$P<0.001$; **$P<0.005$; *$P<0.05$; by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; *n*=5. (C) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2 and PDGFRα protein levels after TGF-β1 (5 ng/ml) and Trichostatin A (TSA) (10 μM) treatments (8 h). Tubulin was used as the loading control. (D) Quantification of

TCF7L2 protein expression. ***$P<0.001$; **$P<0.005$ by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's

post-test; *n*=3. (E) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2 and PDGFRα

protein levels after TGF-β1 and Trichostatin A (TSA) co-treatments (8 h). Tubulin was

used as the loading control. (F) Quantification of TCF7L2 protein expression.

****$P<0.0001$; **$P<0.005$; *$P<0.05$ by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; *n*=3. (G)

Heat map showing *Tcf7l2* expression (RPKMs) significantly repressed by TGF-β and

reversed by the pan HDAC inhibitor pracinostat. Known ECM pro-fibrotic mediators (e.g.

Collagens, *Ctgf/ccn2*, *Fibronectin*, and *Integrins*) that are significantly increased by TGFβ

and reversed by pracinostat are also shown. Each row is normalized to itself. Each

column, per treatment condition, represents an individual IPF lung fibroblast donor (*n*=3).

Fig. 6. TGF-β impairs TCF7L2 protein stability via the ubiquitin-proteasome system.

(A) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2 protein levels after treatment

with cycloheximide (CHX) (30 μg/ml) at different time points (0, 3, 6, 9, 12 h) in

C3H/10T1/2 cells. Ponceau was used as the loading control. (B) Quantification of three

independent experiments showing TCF7L2 protein levels (as a percentage [%]) after CHX

treatment. (C) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2 protein levels after

treatment with CHX at different time points (0, 3, 6, 9 h) in wild-type muscle PDGFRα^+

FAPs. (D) (A) BioGRID interactome analysis of the human TCF7L2 protein. Black circles

mark the protein-protein interaction between TCF7L2 and RNF4, RNF43, RNF138, NLK,

UHRF2, UBE2I, UBE2L6, USP4, UBR5, and XIAP. (E) *In silico* prediction of TCF7L2

ubiquitination sites, showing the aminoacidic sequence of human TCF7L2 protein variant

1. Potential TCF7L2-ubiquitinated lysine residues were ranked and are shown in *red*.

http://www.ubpred.org; http://bdmpub.biocuckoo.org/. (F) Representative western blot

analysis showing TCF7L2 and CCN2/CTGF protein levels after TGF-β1 (1 ng/ml) and

MG132 (15 μM) treatments (9 h). Tubulin was used as the loading control. (G)

Quantification of TCF7L2 protein levels. ***$P<0.001$; **$P<0.005$; *$P<0.05$ by one-way

ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test; *n*=6. (H) Representative western blot analysis from three

independent experiments that evaluate total levels of TCF7L2 following USP7 small-

molecule inhibitor HBX 41108 (10 μM) and CHX treatments at different time points (0, 4, 6,

8 h) in C3H/10T1/2 MSCs. Tubulin was used as the loading control.

Fig. 7. The expression of TCF7L2 remains unchanged in response to TGF-β in

myoblasts.

(A) Representative western blot analysis from three independent experiments, evaluating TCF7L2 and β-Catenin protein levels in proliferating C3H/10T1/2 MSCs and C2C12 myoblasts. GAPDH was used as the loading control. (B) Quantification of TCF7L2 protein levels. **$P<0.005$ by two-tailed Student's t-test. $n=3$. (C) Representative western blot analysis showing TCF7L2, fibronectin, and CCN2/CTGF protein levels after treatment with different concentrations of TGF-β1 for 24 h. (D) Quantification of TCF7L2 protein levels. n.s, not significant by two-tailed Student's t-test. $n=3$. (E) *Tcf7l2* and *CCN2/CTGF* mRNA expression levels were analyzed by quantitative PCR in C2C12 myoblasts after 8 h of treatment with TGF-β1 (5 ng/ml). ***$P<0.001$; n.s, not significant by two-tailed Student's t-test. $n=3$. (F) Representative Z-stack confocal images showing localization of TCF7L2 (*green*) and F-actin (*red*) in control and TGF-β1-treated (24 h) C2C12 myoblasts. Scale bar: 50 μm. (G) Quantification of the TCF7L2 fluorescence intensity in C2C12 myoblasts. Each dot represents a single cell quantified were a ROI area was previously defined. n.s; not significant by two-tailed Student's t-test. $n=3$. (a.u.: arbitrary units).

Fig. 8. Model of TGF-β-driven fibroblast-myofibroblast differentiation and the Wnt-TCF7L2 regulatory network.

MSCs and fibroblasts express high levels of TCF7L2 in the resting-quiescent state, but they lose this TF post-activation with TGF-β. *Tcf7l2* gene expression is active in unstimulated cells, and therefore, it continuously produces the TCF7L2 protein. TCF7L2 localizes mainly in the cell nucleus where it recognizes its target genes to activate or repress their expression, depending on the cell context and its transcriptional partners. The ubiquitin-proteasome system constantly regulates the proteostasis of TCF7L2. Following muscle damage, TGF-β ligands released from macrophages (paracrine) and FAPs (autocrine) bind to TGF-βRs. This event activates TGFBRs-dependent signaling cascades that downregulate TCF7L2 expression and impair TCF7L2-dependent gene expression and Wnt/β-catenin gene signature. Mechanistically, inhibition of the 26S proteasome activity with MG132 blocks TGF-β-mediated TCF7L2 protein degradation. Also, HDACs pan inhibitors (TSA and Pracinostat) attenuate TGF-β-mediated repression of TCF7L2 expression and ECM gene activation.

Funding

Fondo Nacional de Desarrollo Científico y Tecnológico (FONDECYT) grants 115016 and 1190144, Comisión Nacional de Investigación Científica y Tecnológica (CONICYT) grant AFB170005 to E.B.; Comisión Nacional de Investigación Científica y Tecnológica (CONICYT) Beca de Doctorado Nacional Folio 21140378 "National Doctorate Fellowship" to O.C.; and Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) grant FDN-159908 to F.M.V.R. supported this work. The funding agencies had no role in the design of the study, data collection, analysis, the decision to publish or preparation of the manuscript.

1004 **Availability of data and materials**

1005 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article.

Authors' contributions

Conceptualization: O.C., E.B.; Methodology: O.C., H.S., M.T.; Software: O.C.; Validation: O.C., H.S., M.T., F.M.V.R., E.B.; Formal analysis: O.C., H.S.; Investigation: O.C., H.S., M.T.; Resources: E.B., F.M.V.R., O.C.; Data curation: O.C.; Writing - original draft: O.C.; Writing - review & editing: O.C., E.B., F.M.V.R., H.S., M.T.; Visualization: O.C., H.S., M.T., F.M.V.R., E.B.; Supervision: O.C., E.B., F.M.V.R.; Project administration: O.C., E.B.; Funding acquisition: E.B., F.M.V.R., O.C.

1013   **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

1014   Not applicable.

1015

1016   **Consent for publication**

1017   Not applicable.

1018

1019   **Competing interests**

1020   The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

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Fig. 1. Differential expression of Tcf/Lef transcription factors in mesenchymal progenitor cells and fibroblasts.

Fig. 2. Dynamics of TCF7L2 expression in the stromal compartment during skeletal muscle regeneration and repair.

Fig. 3. TGF-β signaling downregulates the expression of the Wnt TF TCF7L2 in mesenchymal progenitors and fibroblasts.

Fig. 4. Extracellular TGF-β reduces the nuclear expression of TCF7L2 through TGFβR1 activation.

Fig. 5. Histone deacetylases participate in TGF-β-mediated repression of TCF7L2.

A

| | 0 | 3 | 6 | 9 | 12 | CHX (h) |

C3H 10T1/2 MSCs

B

$T_{1/2}$ = 3.5 h.

C

FAPs^WT

D Human TCF7L2 BioGRID

E *In silico* prediction of TCF7L2 ubiquitination sites

Protein sequence of Human TCF7L2 Variant 1:

MPQLNGGGGDDLGANDELISF**K**DEGEQEE**K**SSENSSAERDLADV**K**SSLV
NESETNQNSSSDSEAERRPPPRSESFRD**K**SRESLEEAA**K**RQDGGLFKGP
PYPGYPFIMIPDLTSPYLPNGSLSPTARTLHFQSGSTHYSAYKTIEHQIAVQY
LQMKWPLLDVQAGSLQSRQAL**K**DARSPSPAHIVSNKVPVVQHPHHVHPLT
PLITYSNEHFTPGNPPPHLPADVDP**K**TGIPRPPHPPDISPYYPLSPGTVGQI
PHPLGWLVPQQGGPVYPITTGGFRHPYPTALTVNASMSRFPPHMVPPHHT
LHTTGIPHPAIVTPTVKQESSQSDVGSLHSS**K**HQDSKKEEEKKKPHI**K**KPLN
AFMYMKEMRAKVVAECTLKESAAINQILGRRWHALSREEQA**K**YYELARKE
RQLHMQLYPGWSARDNYG**KKKK**RKRDKQPGETNEHSECFLNPCLSLPPI
TDLSAPKKCRARFGLDQNNWCGGRCRKKKCVRYIQGEGSCLSPPSSDG
SLLDSPPPSPNLLGSPPRDA**K**SQTEQTQPLSLSL**K**PDPLAHLSMMPPPPAL
LLAEATHKASALCPNGALDLPPAALQPAAPSSSIAQPSTSSLHSHSSLAGT
QPQPLSLVTKSLE

Residue	Score (Confidence)	Ubiquitination Sites
22	0.341 (Medium)	DELISF **K** DEGEQE
30	0.51 (High)	EGEQE**E K** SSENSS
45	0.58 (High)	RDLADV **K** SSLVNE
78	0.48 (Medium)	SESFR**D** SRESLE
88	0.43 (Medium)	SLE**EA**A **K** RQDGGL
150	0.57 (High)	QSR**Q**AL **K** DARSPS
204	0.58 (High)	PADVDP **K** TGIPRP
312	0.38 (Medium)	GSLHSS **K** HQ**D**SKK
328	0.43 (Medium)	KKKPHI **K** KPLNAF
375	0.48 (Medium)	SREEQA **K Y**YELAR
502	0.38 (Medium)	SPPRDA **K** SQTEQT
516	0.55 (High)	PLSLSL **K** PDPLAH

F

| | | + | | + | MG132 |
| | | | + | + | TGF-β1 (9 h) |

C3H 10T1/2 MSCs

G

TCF7L2 / Tubulin (a.u.)

Control, MG132, TGF-β1, TGF-β1 + MG132

H

Control | CHX

0h 4h 6h 8h | 0h 4h 6h 8h HBX

1.0 0.47 0.58 0.41 | 1.0 0.61 0.2 0.19 : TCF7L2/Tub.

Fig. 6. TGF-β signaling impairs TCF7L2 protein stability via the ubiquitin-proteasome system.

Fig. 7. The expression of TCF7L2 remains unchanged in response to TGF-β in myoblasts.

Fig. 8. Model of TGF-β-driven regulation of fibroblast-myofibroblast differentiation and the Wnt-TCF7L2 regulatory network.