Loss of ZNRF3/RNF43 Unleashes EGFR in Cancer

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Abstract

ZNRF3 and RNF43 are closely related transmembrane E3 ubiquitin ligases with significant roles

in development and cancer. Conventionally, their biological functions have been associated with

regulating WNT signaling receptor ubiquitination and degradation. However, our proteogenomic

studies have revealed EGFR as the most negatively correlated protein with *ZNRF3/RNF43* mRNA

levels in multiple human cancers. Through biochemical investigations, we demonstrate that

ZNRF3/RNF43 interact with EGFR via their extracellular domains, leading to EGFR

ubiquitination and subsequent degradation facilitated by the E3 ligase RING domain.

Overexpression of *ZNRF3* reduces EGFR levels and suppresses cancer cell growth *in vitro* and *in*

vivo, whereas knockout of *ZNRF3*/*RNF43* stimulates cell growth and tumorigenesis through

upregulated EGFR signaling. Together, these data highlight ZNRF3 and RNF43 as novel E3

ubiquitin ligases of EGFR and establish the inactivation of ZNRF3/RNF43 as a driver of increased

EGFR signaling, ultimately promoting cancer progression. This discovery establishes a connection

between two fundamental signaling pathways, EGFR and WNT, at the level of cytoplasmic

membrane receptor, uncovering a novel mechanism underlying the frequent co-activation of

EGFR and WNT signaling in development and cancer.

Introduction

Zinc And Ring Finger 3 (ZNRF3) and Ring Finger Protein 43 (RNF43) are two closely related single-pass transmembrane E3 ligases with significant roles in embryonic development, tissue homeostasis and regeneration, and diseases (Basham *et al*, 2019; Hao *et al*, 2012; Koo *et al*, 2012; Lee *et al*, 2020; Planas-Paz *et al*, 2016; Sun *et al*, 2021; Szenker-Ravi *et al*, 2018). Extensive research has demonstrated their involvement in critical processes such as limb development (Szenker-Ravi *et al.*, 2018), liver zonation (Planas-Paz *et al.*, 2016), and mammalian sex determination (Harris *et al*, 2018). These two enzymes also function as tumor suppressors, as evidenced by the promotion of intestinal and adrenal hyperplasia (Basham *et al.*, 2019; Koo *et al.*, 2012) and hepatocellular carcinogenesis (Mastrogiovanni *et al*, 2020) upon tissue-specific inactivation of *Znrf3/Rnf43*. Similarly, *Rnf43* deficiency leads to thickened mucosa, hyperplasia and cellular atypia in the stomach (Neumeyer *et al*, 2019), and enhanced tumor growth in a mouse model of inflammatory colorectal cancer (Eto *et al*, 2018). Conversely, overexpression of ZNRF3 and RNF43 suppresses cancer cell proliferation, migration and invasion, and drug resistance in multiple human cancer cell lines (Jiang *et al*, 2013; Pangestu *et al*, 2021; Qiu *et al*, 2016; Radaszkiewicz *et al*, 2021; Zhou *et al*, 2013). Importantly, in cancer patients, ZNRF3 and RNF43 are frequently inactivated by gene deletion or loss-of-function mutations (Hao *et al*, 2016; Yu *et al*, 2020). For instance, *ZNRF3* is the most altered gene in adrenocortical carcinomas (ACCs), homozygously deleted in approximately 20% of ACCs (Assie *et al*, 2014). *RNF43* is mutated in approximately 15% of endometrial cancer, 12% of stomach cancer, 11% of colorectal cancer, and 7% of pancreatic cancer (Tu *et al*, 2019). These findings highlight the clinical significance of ZNRF3/RNF43 and the importance of fully understanding the molecular mechanism(s) by which they affect development and cancer.

The primary known molecular function of ZNRF3/RNF43 is the regulation of WNT signaling. As

transmembrane E3 ligases, they ubiquitinate the WNT signaling receptor Frizzled, targeting it for

degradation thus dampening WNT signaling (Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012). Conversely, R-

spondins (RSPO1-4) act as antagonistic peptide ligands, binding to ZNRF3/RNF43 and promoting

their auto-ubiquitination and membrane clearance, thus maintaining WNT receptor levels and

potentiating WNT signaling (Carmon *et al*, 2011; de Lau *et al*, 2011; Dubey *et al*, 2020; Glinka *et*

al, 2011; Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012; Lebensohn & Rohatgi, 2018; Park *et al*, 2018; Park *et*

al, 2020; Szenker-Ravi *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, activation of WNT signaling transactivates

ZNRF3 and *RNF43* expression via β-Catenin (Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012), creating a

negative feedback loop that tightly regulates WNT signaling during normal development and

tissue homeostasis. However, in cancer cells, alterations such as recurrent *RSPO* gene fusion or

ZNRF3/RNF43 deletion or mutations disrupts this feedback loop, resulting in hyperactive WNT

signaling and subsequent cancer development and progression (Hao *et al.*, 2016; Seshagiri *et al*,

2012).

Although most molecular functions of RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43 have been linked to their modulation

of WNT signaling, emerging evidence suggests that ZNRF3 and RNF43 may possess WNT-

independent functions. For instance, RSPO and WNT ligands exhibit non-equivalent roles in

various processes, including mammary epithelial cell growth (Klauzinska *et al*, 2012), mammary

side branches (Geng *et al*, 2020), intestinal stem cell self-renewal (Yan *et al*, 2017), and cochlea

development (Mulvaney *et al*, 2013). Furthermore, loss of RNF43 function promotes mouse

gastric epithelium proliferation and human gastric cancer cell xenograft growth, without detectable

impact on WNT signaling activity (Neumeyer *et al*, 2020; Neumeyer *et al.*, 2019). Additionally,

the inhibitory effects of RSPO-ZNRF3 on BMP signaling are not abolished by *β-Catenin*

knockdown (Lee *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, approximately 40% of *ZNRF3* or *RNF43*-mutant colon

tumors also harbor alterations in either *APC* or *CTNNB1*, suggesting the involvement of these E3

ligases beyond the regulation of WNT signaling (Cerami *et al*, 2012; Gao *et al*, 2013). This is

further supported by a recent report of a hotspot *RNF43* G659 frameshift mutation that does not

appear to affect WNT signaling (Fang *et al*, 2022). However, the extent to which ZNRF3 and

RNF43 act on other substrates, apart from WNT receptors, to influence development and cancer

has been unclear.

In this study, we report a new function of ZNRF3 and RNF43. Initially, we observed a strong

negative correlation between *ZNRF3/RNF43* mRNA levels and EGFR protein expression in

datasets of human adrenocortical carcinomas and colorectal cancers. Subsequently, we

investigated the impact of depleting *ZNRF3* or *RNF43* on EGFR clearance at the cell surface in

mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) and human cancer cell lines including *APC*-mutated

colorectal cancer cells. Notably, we discovered that ZNRF3/RNF43 interact with EGFR through

their extracellular domains, leading to EGFR ubiquitination and degradation via the E3 ligase

RING domain. Additionally, we substantiated our findings in multiple cell lines, human cancer

cell xenograft models, and genetically engineered mouse models, wherein the loss of

ZNRF3/*RNF43* resulted in elevated EGFR levels and facilitated cancer progression.

Results

121   **EGFR protein levels negatively correlate with *ZNRF3/RNF43* mRNA expression in multiple**

122   **human cancers**

123   To elucidate novel signaling pathways regulated by ZNRF3/RNF43 in cancer, we conducted

124   integrative proteogenomic analyses of human cancer datasets using LinkedOmics (Vasaikar *et al*,

125   2018). Given the critical role of *ZNRF3* in adrenal hemostasis (Basham *et al.*, 2019) and its

126   frequent deep deletion in approximately 20% of adrenocortical carcinomas (ACCs) (Assie *et al.*,

127   2014), our initial focus was to examine the ACC dataset from TCGA, comprising 92 samples, to

128   identify proteins exhibiting correlations with *ZNRF3* mRNA levels. Among the proteins evaluated

129   by Reverse Phase Protein Array (RPPA), our analysis revealed EGFR protein levels to be most

130   negatively correlated with *ZNRF3* mRNA levels (r = -0.50 and p = 4.5e-4) (Fig. 1A and Fig. S1A).

131   Notably, ACC tumors with deep deletion in *ZNRF3* exhibited highest EGFR protein levels

132   compared to ACC tumors with other alterations in the *ZNRF3* locus (Fig. 1B). These findings

133   suggest that disruption of the gene function of *ZNRF3* may lead to upregulation of EGFR in ACCs.

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135   Besides frequent deletions in ACC, *ZNRF3* and *RNF43* are also important tumor suppressors in

136   the more commonly occurring colorectal cancer (CRC) (Bond *et al*, 2016; Koo *et al.*, 2012); thus,

137   we next analyzed the TCGA colorectal adenocarcinoma (n=629) and CPTAC colon

138   adenocarcinoma (n=210) datasets. By incorporating RPPA-based (TCGA CO/READ) and mass

139   spectrometry-based (CPTAC COAD) proteomic data, we confirmed EGFR protein also to be the

140   one most negatively correlated with *ZNRF3* and *RNF43* mRNA expression in CRC (Fig. 1C and

141   Fig. S1B-E). Of note, we utilized mRNA abundance of *ZNRF3/RNF43* mRNA abundances rather

142   than protein levels due to the lack of protein measurements for these two low-abundance enzymes

143   in the current proteomic datasets. Mutations in *ZNRF3/RNF43* are found in approximately 15% of

CRCs overall, with high frequencies observed in the microsatellite instability-high (MSI-H)

subtype (60%-80%) (Bond *et al.*, 2016; Giannakis *et al*, 2014; Tu *et al.*, 2019; Vasaikar *et al*,

2019). In particular, the *RNF43* G659Vfs*41 frameshift mutation accounts for 40-50% of all

RNF43 mutations in multiple MSI-H cancer types (Tu *et al.*, 2019). Interestingly, CRCs harboring

the *RNF43* G659Vfs*41 mutation exhibited significantly higher levels of EGFR protein compared

to *RNF43* wild-type (WT) tumors (Fig. 1D and Fig. S1F). A similar difference was observed in

stomach cancer, which also displayed a high frequency of the *RNF43* G659Vfs*41 mutation (Fig.

S1G). Additionally, in the microsatellite stable (MSS) subtype of CRCs, predominantly expressing

WT RNF43, we found a negative association between *RNF43* mRNA and EGFR protein levels

(r=-0.36 and p=0.0018) (Fig. 1E). Using cBioPortal (Cerami *et al.*, 2012; Gao *et al.*, 2013), we

also detected a negative correlation between *ZNRF3/RNF43* expression and EGFR protein in

multiple other cancer types, including prostate cancer where *ZNRF3* or *RNF43* is deleted or

mutated with a rate of 5% (Fig. 1F). Collectively, these results suggest that disruption of *ZNRF3*

and *RNF43* may up-regulate EGFR protein levels in human cancers.

ZNRF3 and RNF43 downregulate the EGFR protein level

To test whether ZNRF3 and RNF43 regulate EGFR protein, we performed gain-of-function and

loss-of-function experiments in several cell lines. In MDA-MB-231, a breast cancer cell line with

intermediate levels of ZNRF3/RNF43, overexpression of either ZNRF3 or RNF43 substantially

reduced EGFR protein levels (Fig. 2A). Remarkably, ZNRF3 and RNF43 decreased EGFR as

robustly as CBL, the best-known E3 ligase of EGFR (Levkowitz *et al*, 1998; Waterman *et al*,

1999). Similarly, in 293T cells, ZNRF3/RNF43 overexpression reduced the levels of EGFR (Fig.

S2A). As predicted, the phosphorylated form of EGFR declined as well (Fig. S2A). Notably, the

reduction in both total EGFR and P-EGFR levels reached an extent comparable to that achieved

by CBL (Fig. S2A). Consistent with their known function, ZNRF3/RNF43 overexpression reduced

the level of their substrate FZD5 (Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012) (Fig. S2A). Additionally,

these two E3 ligases exhibited selectivity in their regulation of growth factor receptors since

overexpression of ZNRF3 or RNF43 did not decrease levels of TGFβ receptor-I (Fig. S2B) or

FGFR1 (Fig. S2C).

To test the impact of *ZNRF3/RNF43* loss on EGFR levels, we compared WT and *Znrf3* knockout

(KO) MEFs because the WT MEFs have adequate *Znrf3* expression but very minimal *Rnf43*

expression (Lienert *et al*, 2011). We found that *Znrf3* KO enhanced both EGFR and P-EGFR levels,

both in the absence and presence of recombinant EGF (Fig. 2B). To test the effect of *RNF43* KO,

we utilized HT29, a colorectal cancer cell line that expresses WT *RNF43* at a high level but

minimal *ZNRF3*. CRISPR-KO of *RNF43* enhanced EGFR and P-EGFR levels regardless of EGF

stimulation (Fig. 2C). We validated these results using three additional independent *RNF43*

gRNAs (Fig. S2D) and extended our analysis to HCC1954, a breast cancer cell line (Fig. S2E).

Since this line expresses the EGFR family member HER2, we also assayed the effects of *RNF43*

KO on HER2. We found that knockout of either *ZNRF3* or *RNF43* enhanced the protein levels of

HER2 (Fig. S2E), suggesting that ZNRF3 and RNF43 downregulate the levels of EGFR and its

family members and that the loss of these E3 ligases unleashes this family of receptor tyrosine

kinases.

RSPO1-4 are the antagonistic ligands of ZNRF3 and RNF43 (Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012).

They bind to both ZNRF3/RNF43 and LGR4/5/6, resulting in ZNRF3/RNF43 auto-ubiquitination

and degradation (Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012). Approximately 18% of CRCs harbor

amplification or mutations of *RSPO1-4* or *LGR4/5/6*, and 10% of CRCs show recurrent *RSPO2/3*

gene fusions (Seeber *et al*, 2019; Seshagiri *et al.*, 2012). These genetic alterations potentially lead

to the inhibition of ZNRF3/RNF43, thereby activating WNT and EGFR signaling. Therefore, we

tested whether RSPO affected EGFR protein levels in CRC. Short-term treatment with

recombinant RSPO2 increased EGFR levels in two CRC cell lines (Fig. 2D and E) as well as 293T

cells (Fig. S2F). Further, this impact of RSPO2 depended on the presence of intact ZNRF3/RNF43,

as RSPO2 failed to elevate EGFR levels in HT29 cells further knocked-out for *RNF43,* the

predominant one compared to *ZNRF3* (Fig. S2G). Conversely, the RSPO2 R65A/Q70A mutant,

which cannot bind to ZNRF3/RNF43 (Xie *et al*, 2013), failed to elevate EGFR levels (Fig. 2F).

On the other hand, the RSPO2 F105A/F109A mutant, which cannot bind to LGRs (Xie *et al.*,

2013), still enhanced EGFR levels similar to RSPO2 WT (Fig. 2E). These data collectively suggest

that RPSO2 regulation of EGFR does not rely on LGR-binding but requires its interaction with

ZNRF3/RNF43.

ZNRF3 and RNF43 induce EGFR ubiquitination and degradation

After demonstrating that ZNRF3 and RNF43 regulate EGFR protein levels, we next sought to

elucidate the underlying mechanism. We first examined whether ZNRF3 and RNF43 regulate

EGFR transcripts and found that ZNRF3/RNF43 did not impact *EGFR* mRNA levels in both MEFs

and HT29, as determined by qPCR (Fig. 3A and B). Then we studied the protein stability of EGFR

in WT and *RNF43* KO HT29 cells. We treated cells with recombinant EGF to induce EGFR

internalization/degradation and then collected cell lysates at different time points to measure

EGFR protein levels by Western blotting. We found that knockout of *RNF43* delayed EGFR

degradation and sustained P-EGFR levels (Fig. 3C). Since EGFR clearance is initiated at the cell

membrane and accelerated by EGF treatment, we also evaluated the impact of ZNRF3/RNF43 on

EGFR levels at the cell surface. Flow cytometry revealed that *ZNRF3* knockout in MEFs (Fig. 3D)

or *RNF43* knockout in HT29 (Fig. 3E) increased cell surface EGFR and inhibited EGF-induced

internalization of surface EGFR (indicated by the comparison of the black bar vs. red bar in Fig.

3D and E). These data together suggest that ZNRF3 and RNF43 induce cell surface EGFR

internalization and degradation.

EGFR degradation is primarily mediated by ubiquitination (Galcheva-Gargova *et al*, 1995;

Levkowitz *et al.*, 1998). To examine the impact of ZNRF3 and RNF43 on EGFR ubiquitination,

we performed EGFR immunoprecipitation (IP) followed by ubiquitin (Ub) immunoblotting (IB).

Remarkably, RNF43 overexpression in MDA-MB-231 cells enhanced EGFR ubiquitination as

potently as CBL overexpression (Fig. 4A). Conversely, in *RNF43* KO HT29 cells and MDA-MB-

231 cells, anti-Ubiquitin IP brought down substantially less EGFR protein (Fig. 4B and Fig. S3A),

and anti-EGFR IP produced much less ubiquitinated forms of EGFR (Fig. 4C), indicating that

RNF43 knockout diminished EGFR ubiquitination. Next, we asked whether the E3 ligase activity

of ZNRF3/RNF43 is needed for regulating EGFR ubiquitination. The RING domain is required

for ZNRF3/RNF43 E3 ubiquitin ligase function (Pickart & Eddins, 2004). Therefore, we compared

the impact of ZNRF3/RNF43 vs. their RING domain deletion mutants (ΔRING) on EGFR protein

levels. We found that both ΔRING mutants failed to decrease EGFR levels (Fig. 4D and E) or

HER2 levels (Fig. S3B). Furthermore, while WT ZNRF3 overexpression increased EGFR

ubiquitination detectable even in the absence proteasome or lysosome inhibitors, the ΔRING

mutant failed to induce detectable upregulation of EGFR ubiquitination even in the presence of

both proteasome and lysosome inhibitors (MG132 and BAF, respectively) (Fig. 4F). Together,

these results demonstrate that ZNRF3 and RNF43 regulate EGFR ubiquitination and degradation

through their E3 ligase activity.

ZNRF3 and RNF43 form a complex with EGFR through the extracellular domain

We next investigated whether ZNRF3 and RNF43 interact with EGFR to regulate its ubiquitination.

In a co-IP experiment using lysates from MDA-MB-231 cells co-infected with lentivirus carrying

EGFR and Myc-tagged ZNRF3/RNF43, anti-EGFR IP pulled down overexpressed

ZNRF3/RNF43 (Fig. 5A), indicating a complex between EGFR and ZNRF3/RNF43. Mass

spectrometry of anti-EGFR immunoprecipitates identified endogenous ZNRF3 protein (Fig. S4A),

confirming ZNRF3 as an interacting partner of EGFR. Importantly, a proximity ligation assay

(PLA) provided visual confirmation of the close interaction between co-transfected ZNRF3 and

EGFR *in situ* (Fig. 5B). Next, we sought to determine the specific regions involved in the

interaction between ZNRF3/RNF43 and EGFR. ZNRF3 and RNF43 are transmembrane proteins

comprising a long extracellular domain (ECD), a single-span transmembrane domain (TM), and a

catalytic intracellular domain (ICD) (Fig. 5C). We thus generated constructs expressing ZNRF3

ECD-TM and TM-ICD, with an N-terminal 3X Myc-tag inserted after the signal peptide for

detection (Fig. 5C). Immunofluorescence (IF) confirmed the membrane localization of these two

peptides (Fig. 5D), after which we performed co-IP using anti-Myc. EGFR was co-

immunoprecipitated with Myc-tagged ZNRF3 full-length (FL) and ECD-TM, but not TM-ICD,

(Fig. 5E). Conversely, anti-EGFR IP pulled down ZNRF3 FL and ECD-TM, but not TM-ICD (Fig.

5E). Similar results were obtained when performing anti-HA IP of HA-tagged RNF43 FL and

ECD-TM, which also brought down EGFR (Fig. S4B and C). These data collectively indicate that

ZNRF3 and RNF43 interact with EGFR via their extracellular domains, in accordance with

evidence indicating the ZNRF3/RNF43 interaction with Frizzled via extracellular domains

(Tsukiyama *et al*, 2015). while in contrast with reports detecting ZNRF3/RN43 interaction with

Frizzled via their intracellular domains and other adaptor proteins (Jiang *et al*, 2015).

The protease-associated (PA) domain is the only conservative part between the extracellular

fragments of ZNRF3 and RNF43 (Tsukiyama *et al*, 2021). Therefore, we tested whether this

domain is necessary for the interaction between ZNRF3/RNF43 with EGFR. We created PA

domain-deletion mutants of ZNRF3/RNF43 (Fig. S5A) and found that these deletion mutants

(ΔPA) also interacted with EGFR (Fig. S5B and C), indicating that the PA domain is dispensable

for ZNRF3/RNF43 interaction with EGFR. In accordance with previous reports that the PA

domain is dispensable for suppression of WNT signaling (Jiang *et al.*, 2015; Radaszkiewicz &

Bryja, 2020), we found that ΔPA ZNRF3 retained the ability to suppress the Top-Flash WNT

reporter (Fig. S5D).

Loss of ZNRF3 and RNF43 unleashes EGFR-mediated cell growth in 2D culture and

organoids

EGFR is an important tyrosine kinase that mediates many cellular activities, especially cell growth

(Wieduwilt & Moasser, 2008; Yue *et al*, 2021). To study the biological consequence of

ZNRF3/RNF43 down-regulating EGFR, we first compared cell growth of WT and

ZNRF3/RNF43-depleted cells. *Znrf3* knockout in MEFs led to the upregulation of EGFR (Fig. 2B)

and an increase in cell growth (Fig. 6A), without affecting canonical WNT signaling activity based

on qPCR for WNT target genes (*Sox2*, *Axin2*, *Ccnd1*) (Fig. 6B). EGF and EGFR signaling are also

critical for the culture and maintenance of organoids derived from *Apc*-deficient mouse intestinal

adenomas (Sato *et al*, 2011), which exhibits constitutively canonical WNT signaling that is no

longer modulated by the RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43 control at the membrane receptor level

(Tsukiyama *et al.*, 2021; Tsukiyama *et al*, 2020). Therefore, we established intestinal tumor

organoids using the intestinal polyps from the *Apc*^{min} mice (Evans *et al*, 1992) and supplemented

RSPO1 in the organoid culture medium to investigate the effect of ZNRF3/RNF43 deactivation

on organoid growth and EGFR. Remarkably, the addition of RSPO1 increased the size of *Apc*^{min}

mouse intestinal tumor organoids (Fig. 6C and D) in agreement with a previous report (Lahde *et*

al, 2021) although it did not significantly affect the frequency of organoids detected (Fig. 6E).

Immunoblotting analysis confirmed elevated EGFR levels after RSPO1 treatment (Fig. 6F) while

qPCR showed no significant increase of *Egfr* nor WNT target genes including *Axin2*, *Myc*, *Sox2*,

and *Cd44* (Fig. 6G). Furthermore, we performed functional assays in HT29 cells, which bear *APC*

mutations. Overexpression of ZNRF3 in HT29 substantially inhibited cell growth (Fig. 6H) and

reduced EGFR levels (Fig. 6I). Conversely, knockout of *RNF43* in HT29 activated multiple EGFR

downstream effectors, as RPPA detected increased levels of P-AKT, P-ERK, P-GSK3, P-STAT1,

and P-PRAS40 (Fig. S6). Importantly, after confirming abolishment of EGFR phosphorylation

(Fig. 6J), the EGFR activity inhibitor erlotinib was found to block the growth gain caused by

RNF43 knockout (Fig. 6K). Together, these data indicate that loss of *ZNRF3* and *RNF43* in cancer

cells can promote tumor cell growth through EGFR signaling without significantly engaging

canonical WNT signaling.

ZNRF3/RNF43 inactivation enhances EGFR and promotes tumor growth *in vivo*

To demonstrate the function of the ZNRF3/RNF43-EGFR signaling pathway *in vivo*, we first

xenografted luciferase-labeled HT29 cells overexpressing either GFP or ZNRF3 into NSG mice

by flank injection and monitored tumor growth by bioluminescence imaging (Fig. 7A). We found

that overexpression of ZNRF3 significantly inhibited tumor growth (Fig. 7A). These tumors

exhibited decreased EGFR and P-EGFR levels compared to WT tumors (Fig. 7B). However,

canonical WNT signaling, based on levels of active-β-Catenin (non-phosphorylated at

Ser33/37/Thr41; Fig. 7B), remained unaffected, suggesting that ZNRF3 suppresses tumor growth

through down-regulation of EGRF signaling without substantial involvement of canonical WNT

signaling.

Furthermore, we validated this finding in human prostate cancer, where *ZNRF3* and *RNF43* mRNA

levels negatively correlated with EGFR protein levels (Fig. 1F). Specifically, we tested whether

ZNRF3/RNF43 loss affects EGFR signaling and promotes prostate tumorigenesis *in vivo*. By

breeding mice that are floxed at *Znrf3* and *Rnf43* (Koo *et al.*, 2012) with mice transgenic for

Probasin-Cre (Wu *et al*, 2001), we generated prostate-specific *Znrf3/Rnf43* knockout mice. At one

year of age, these mice exhibited multi-focal prostatic dysplasia and multifocal invasive tumors,

as shown by the H&E images (Fig. 7C) and pathological scores (Fig. 7D and S7A-D).

Immunohistochemical staining revealed elevated levels of both EGFR and P-EGFR in *Znrf3/Rnf43*

knockout prostatic dysplasia and tumors, compared to WT prostate tissues (Fig. 7E), indicating

EGFR signaling activation due to *Znrf3/Rnf43* knockout. In contrast, while β-Catenin staining was

more intense in knockout tissues and tumors than in WT mice for unknown significance, the β-

Catenin signals were mainly restricted to the cell membrane in both WT and *Znrf3/Rnf43* knockout

mouse prostate tissues and tumors (Fig. 7E), suggesting no substantial activation of canonical Wnt

signaling. Together, these results suggest that loss of *ZNRF/RNF43* elevates EGFR levels and

signaling, promoting tumor development.

Discussion

The two homologous E3 ubiquitin ligases, ZNRF3 and RNF43, and their antagonistic ligand RSPO

have been extensively studied as WNT signaling modulators during normal development and

diseases (Basham *et al.*, 2019; Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012; Lee *et al.*, 2020; Planas-Paz *et*

al., 2016; Sun *et al.*, 2021; Szenker-Ravi *et al.*, 2018). Their primary role has been attributed to

negatively regulating WNT receptors Frizzled through ubiquitination and degradation (Hao *et al.*,

2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012), and the early mass spectrometry analysis of 293T cells following inducible

expression of RNF43 only detected downregulation of Frizzled and LRP5 (Koo *et al.*, 2012).

However, a few later reports suggested that ZNRF3/RNF43 might also regulate other substrates

and exert distinct functions in context-dependent manners. For instance, ZNRF3/RNF43 may

induce degradation of BMP receptor BMPR1A (Lee *et al.*, 2020), maternal dorsal determinant

Huluwa (Zhu *et al*, 2021), non-canonical WNT component VANGL2 (Radaszkiewicz *et al.*, 2021),

and cell adhesion protein E-Cadherin (Zhang *et al*, 2019) in different physiological or pathological

conditions. In the context of cancer, *ZNRF3* and *RNF43* are frequently deactivated by gene

deletion, mutation, or other means (Hao *et al.*, 2016; Seshagiri *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, this study

focused on elucidating ZNRF3/RNF43-regulated signaling pathways in cancer. We discovered

that EGFR protein is the most negatively associated with *ZNRF3*/*RNF43* expression using

proteogenomic data of cancer patients and that ZNRF3/RNF43 interact with EGFR and down-

regulate EGFR through ubiquitination and degradation. Using multiple cell lines and animal

models, we demonstrated that loss-of-function changes of ZNRF3/RNF43 elevate EGFR signaling

activity to promote cancer progression.

In colorectal cancer (CRC), *ZNRF3* and *RNF43* mutations occur frequently (Bond *et al.*, 2016;

Giannakis *et al.*, 2014; Tu *et al.*, 2019; Vasaikar *et al.*, 2019) and have been mainly associated

with the potentiation of WNT signaling (Hao *et al.*, 2016; Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012).

However, our findings suggest that ZNRF3/RNF43 deactivation may unleash other key oncogenic

pathways in CRC, especially in the context of APC/CTNNB1 co-mutations that bypass the need

for WNT receptor activation for pathway activation (Cerami *et al.*, 2012; Gao *et al.*, 2013). We

provide evidence that in human colorectal cancer cells with a hyperactive WNT pathway due to

APC mutations, knockout of *RNF43* promotes cancer cell growth by activating EGFR signaling.

Additionally, we found that the *RNF43* G659Vfs*41 mutant, a hotspot frameshift mutation in

human colorectal tumors that may not potentiate WNT signaling (Li *et al*, 2020; Tu *et al.*, 2019),

elevates EGFR protein levels, suggesting that this mutation may exert its oncogenic role in cancer

through EGFR upregulation. Our data also have clinical implications, as germline polymorphisms

and tumor gene expression levels of ZNRF3/RNF43 and RSPO may be related to tumor response

to anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody cetuximab-based treatment in CRC patients (Battaglin *et al*,

2020), providing insights into understanding the interplay between RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43 and

EGFR protein levels and anti-EGFR activity in CRC treatment.

By identifying ZNRF3/RNF43 as crucial regulators linking EGFR and WNT signaling at the

membrane receptor level, our work reveals a novel mechanism of EGFR and WNT coactivation,

which is commonly observed in human cancers (Hu & Li, 2010). Further work should explore the

extent to which EGFR and WNT receptors (Frizzled and LRP5/6) each transmit the effect of

ZNRF3/RNF43 deactivation at different cancer stages and investigate the efficacy of blocking both

EGFR and WNT signaling in treatment of ZNRF3/RNF43-deactivated tumors. Our findings also

have implications for organoid culture and normal development. For example, while RSPO and

EGF are both required for organoid growth and maintenance, our data suggest that RSPO can both

help sustain surface EGFR levels by deactivating ZNRF3/RNF43 and synergize with EGF to boost

EGFR signaling activity. Comparative studies on ZNRF3/RNF43 regulation of EGFR versus

WNT receptors in terms of substrate abundance, enzyme-substrate binding affinity, *in vivo* ligand

availability, and temporal and spatial regulatory mechanisms can provide a comprehensive

understanding of the RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43-regulated signaling network. A recent manuscript

reports that RSPO1 addition to *Apc*-deficient mouse intestinal organoids led to an increased size

but a decreased number, and implicated abnormal recruitment of the TGF-β/SMAD pathway via

LGR5/TGFBRII heterodimers as a mechanism (Lahde *et al*, 2021). We did not detect enhanced

TGF-β signaling in our Apc^{min} mouse intestinal tumor culture treated by RSPO1 for two days or

eight days (Fig. S8). Furthermore, we did not observe an impact of ZNRF3/RNF43 overexpression

on TGFβ receptor I protein levels in our 293T culture studies (Fig. S2B), although our

bioinformatic analysis of patient CRCs revealed that SMAD4, a crucial transcription factor

downstream of TGF-β receptors, was among the proteins downregulated by ZRNF3/RNF43 (Fig.

1C). Therefore, whether TGFβ signaling is directly affected by the RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43-

regulated signaling network needs to be further investigated.

Structural studies have identified the key amino acids and motifs mediating ZNRF3/RNF43

binding with their peptide ligand RSPO (Chen *et al*, 2013; Peng *et al*, 2013; Zebisch *et al*, 2013)

and also suggested that RSPO has the closest structural homology with EGFR (domain IV) and

insulin receptor (domain II) (Chen *et al.*, 2013). Our co-IP data indicate that ZNRF3/RNF43

interact with EGFR through their extracellular domains by co-IP. It would also be interesting to

determine further the specific domains and amino acids that are responsible for ZNRF3/RNF43

and EGFR interaction and to study whether clinically relevant point mutations at the extracellular

domains of ZNRF3/RNF43 and/or EGFR hinder their binding affinity, thereby enhancing EGFR

signaling to promote cancer initiation and progression.

RSPO1-4 bind to both ZNRF3/RNF43 and LGR4/5/6, resulting in ZNRF3/RNF43 auto-

ubiquitination and degradation (Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012). RSPO2/3 can also inhibit

ZNRF3/RNF43 independently of LGR4/5/6 (Lebensohn & Rohatgi, 2018; Park *et al.*, 2018;

Szenker-Ravi *et al.*, 2018) because RSPO2/3 can bind to the RNF43/ZNRF3 with relatively high

affinity, especially in the presence of heparan sulfate proteoglycans (HSPGs) (Dubey *et al.*, 2020).

Approximately 18% of CRCs harbor amplification or mutations of *RSPO1-4* or *LGR4/5/6* while

10% of CRCs have recurrent *RSPO2/3* gene fusions (Seshagiri *et al.*, 2012). These genetic

alterations potentially lead to enhanced inhibition of ZNRF3/RNF43, activating WNT and EGFR

signaling (Seeber *et al.*, 2019). While the involvement of each co-receptor (LGR4/5/6; HSPGs) in

regulating RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43 degradation of EGFR requires more investigation, LGR4/5/6

may be dispensable for RSPO2-ZNRF3/RNF43 regulation of EGFR because we found that RSPO2

mutant that cannot bind to LGR4/5/6 still enhanced EGFR protein levels. It is worth noting that

LGR4/5/6 may have a parallel mechanism controlling EGFR levels as we have previously

observed that LGR4 can enhance EGFR signaling independently of WNT activation (Yue *et al.*,

2021).

Our work also uncovers a new mechanism of regulating EGFR levels in cancer. Hyperactivation

of EGFR in cancer has been attributed to activating mutations, gene amplification, aberrant gene

expression, and defective endocytosis/degradation (Nakai *et al*, 2016). But these mechanisms

cannot account for all the 60-80% of CRC cases whose EGFR levels are upregulated (Cohen,

2003). ZNRF3/RNF43 loss-mediated EGFR stabilization represents a novel mechanism of EGFR

upregulation, explaining the elevated EGFR protein levels observed in many human cancers

without EGFR gene amplification or overexpression. In our study, ZNRF3/RNF43 can regulate

EGFR levels under basal culture conditions as well as with EGF ligand stimulation, but the

commonly known EGFR E3 ligase, CBL, mediates ligand-dependent EGFR ubiquitination and

degradation (Batzer *et al*, 1994; Duan *et al*, 2011; Grovdal *et al*, 2004; Levkowitz *et al*, 1999;

Levkowitz *et al.*, 1998; Waterman *et al*, 2002; Waterman *et al.*, 1999). Therefore, future studies

should investigate whether ZNRF3/RNF43 and CBL regulate EGFR ubiquitination and

degradation differently, whether ZNRF3/RNF43 regulate both ligand-independent and ligand-

dependent EGFR ubiquitination/degradation and consequently affecting different downstream

signaling pathways, and whether different EGFR ligands or ligand concentrations direct EGFR to

ZNRF3/RNF43 versus CBL for ubiquitination and degradation (Harris *et al*, 2003; Roepstorff *et*

al, 2009). In addition, a feedback regulation often contributes to tight controls of signaling

activation (Chandarlapaty, 2012). In accordance, ZNRF3/RNF43 regulation of WNT signaling is

feedback-controlled by *ZNRF3/RNF43* as WNT target genes (Hao *et al.*, 2012; Koo *et al.*, 2012).

Whether and how EGFR signaling may affect levels and activities of ZNRF3/RNF43 and their

partners including RSPOs and LGRs as a feedback regulation remain to be understood.

In conclusion, our study unveils a novel ZNRF3/RNF43-EGFR signaling axis in cancer and

provides critical insights into RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43 signaling during cancer progression.

Understanding how ZNRF3/RNF43 regulates EGFR and the crosstalk between EGFR and WNT

receptors may offer potential therapeutic targets for cancer treatment. Additionally, our findings

have implications in organoid culture and normal development, highlighting the significance of

RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43 signaling in various physiological processes. Further research on

ZNRF3/RNF43 regulation of EGFR versus WNT receptors in different cancer stages can

contribute to a comprehensive understanding of RSPO-ZNRF3/RNF43 signaling in cancer

progression and provide valuable knowledge for potential therapeutic interventions.

Materials and Methods

Animal Studies

All experiments using mice were performed utilizing procedures approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee at Baylor College of Medicine and the Van Andel Institute. The

Rnf43-flox; *Znrf3*-flox were obtained from the laboratory of Hans Clevers (Koo *et al.*, 2012).

CMV-Cre animals were ordered from Jackson Laboratories (JAX stock #006054) (Schwenk *et al*,

1995). C57Bl/6J used for backcrossing were ordered from Jackson Laboratories (JAX stock

#000664). Probasin-Cre animals were developed in the laboratory of Pradip Roy-Burman (Wu *et*

al., 2001). NOD.Cg-Prkdc scid Il2rg tm1Wjl /SzJ (NSG) mice were purchased from Jackson

Laboratories (JAX stock #005557) and bred in-house.

Cell lines

MDA-MB-231, MDA-MB-468, and HEK293T cells were purchased from ATCC. HT29 and

LS180 cells were provided by Q. Liu; HCT116 cells were provided by N. Shroyer; MEF cells were

generated from e12.5 embryos using standard methods (Herrera *et al*, 1996). MDA-MB-231,

MDA-MB-468, HT29, HCT116, HEK293T, and MEF cells were cultured in DMEM (CORNING,

10-013-CV) with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. LS180 cells were cultured in

RPMI1640 (CORNING, 10-013-CV) with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. All cell lines

were routinely tested for mycoplasma contamination.

Constructs

Plasmids expressing Flag-FZD5, RNF43, HA-RNF43, or HA-RNF43 (CD8 sp) were provided by

Q. Liu. Plasmids expressing Myc-RNF43, Myc-ZNRF3, or Myc-ZNRF3 ΔRING were provided

by F. Cong. Plasmids for Myc-ZNRF3-ECD-TM, Myc-ZNRF3-TM-ICD, Myc-ZNRF3 ΔPA, HA-

RNF43 ΔPA, HA-RNF43 ΔRING, HA-RNF43-ECD-TM were constructed by subcloning using

In-Fusion (TaKaRa, 639642). Plasmids were further constructed for lentiviral expression by

subcloning into pBobi vector by In-Fusion.

Generation of *RNF43* or *ZNRF3* knockout cancer cell lines

HT29 *RNF43* knockout cells were provided by Q. Liu (guide RNA sequence, g0: 5'-

GGCTGCTGATGGCTACCCTGC-3'). Other CRISPR guide sequences for knocking out *RNF43*

were designed by http://crispr.mit.edu and cloned into lentiCRISPR v2 (Addgene 52961).

Sequences were as follows: g1: 5'-TGGACGCACAGGACTGGTAC-3'; g2: 5'-

CAGAGTGATCCCCTTGAAAA-3'; g3: 5'-GGGCAGCCAGCTGCAGCTGG-3'. Lentiviral

construct for knocking out *ZNRF3* was provided by Q. Liu (guide RNA sequence, 5'-

AGGACTTGTATGAATATGGC-3') (Jiang *et al.*, 2015; Tu *et al.*, 2019). Cancer cells were

infected with lentivirus-carrying CRISPR constructs or vector, and then selected in the culture

medium containing 2 µg/ml puromycin (InvivoGen, ant-pr-1).

Generation of *Znrf3* knockout MEFs

Global null alleles of *Rnf43* and *Znrf3* were generated *in vivo* by crossing *Rnf43*-flox; *Znrf3*-flox mice (Koo *et al.*, 2012) with CMV-Cre (Schwenk *et al.*, 1995). The resulting mice were backcrossed to C57Bl/6J animals to remove the Cre transgene and generate global deletion mouse colonies. Global deletions were confirmed using allele-specific PCR for both *Rnf43* and *Znrf3*. Mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were generated using standard protocols (Durkin *et al*, 2013). Briefly, *Rnf43*-KO/+; *Znrf3*-KO/+ mice were crossed, and embryos were collected at E12.5. Yolk sacs were collected for genotyping, and embryo heads and internal organs were removed. The remaining tissue was minced using a razor blade and 0.5mL 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA was added. The suspension was incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes then cultured in MEF media (DMEM, 10% FBS, 1x PenStrep) for subsequent experiments.

***Apc*^{min} mouse intestinal tumor organoid culture**

Intestinal polyps from 6-month-old female *Apc*^{min} mice (Evans *et al.*, 1992) were isolated and maintained using previously described protocols (Sato *et al.*, 2011; Xue & Shah, 2013), embedded in Matrigel (Corning, 356231), and cultured in basal culture medium (advanced Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium/F12 (Invitrogen, 12634-028), penicillin/streptomycin (Invitrogen, 15140-122), 10 mmol/L HEPES (Invitrogen, 15630-080), 2mM Glutamax (Invitrogen, 35050-061), 1× N2 (Invitrogen, 17502-048), 1× B27 (Invitrogen, 17504-044), 1 mmol/L N-acetylcysteine (Sigma-Aldrich, A9165-5G)) supplemented with 50 ng/ml mouse recombinant EGF (Invitrogen, PMG8043). The organoids were trypsinized with 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA (Invitrogen, 25300054) to obtain single cells, counted and embedded into Matrigel in equal numbers, cultured in basal culture medium supplemented with EGF or basal culture medium supplemented with EGF and 10%

RSPO1 conditioned medium for 8 days. The organoids were imaged using Leica DMi8 Inverted

Microscope and then harvested for immunoblot analysis.

RNA extraction and quantitative PCR

Cells were lysed with TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, 15596-026). Total RNA was extracted by

chloroform and isopropanol precipitation. cDNA was obtained using the SuperScript III First-

Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen, 18080-051). qPCR analyses were performed with primers

listed below using SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (BIO-RAD, 1725270) in at

least duplicate in three independent experiments. Plotted are data normalized to *ACTB* or *Actb* and

relative to the control. The following primers were used: *ACTB*: 5'-

ACTCTTCCAGCCTTCCTTCC-3', 5'-CAGTGATCTCCTTCTGCATCC-3'; *EGFR*: 5'-

TGCCCATGAGAAATTTACAGG-3', 5'-ATGTTGCTGAGAAAGTCACTGC-3'; *Actb*: 5'-

CATTGCTGACAGGATGCAGAAGG-3', 5'-TGCTGGAAGGTGGACAGTGAGG-3'; *Egfr*: 5'-

GGACTGTGTCTCCTGCCAGAAT-3', 5'-GGCAGACATTCTGGATGGCACT-3'; *Axin2*: 5'-

ATGGAGTCCCTCCTTACCGCAT-3', 5'-GTTCCACAGGCGTCATCTCCTT-3'; *Sox2*: 5'-

AACGGCAGCTACAGCATGATGC-3', 5'-CGAGCTGGTCATGGAGTTGTAC-3'; *Ccnd1*: 5'-

GCAGAAGGAGATTGTGCCATCC-3', 5'-AGGAAGCGGTCCAGGTAGTTCA-3'. The

primer sequences for *Tgfbr1*, *Tgfbr2*, *Smad4*, *Ep300*, *Bach1* were from ORIGENE.

Flow cytometric analysis

Cells were trypsinized and resuspended in antibody dilution buffer (0.5% BSA in PBS). 5 X 10^5

cells were incubated with EGFR (D1D4J) XP Rabbit antibody (PE Conjugate) (Cell Signaling

Technology, 48685) for 1 hr at 4 °C. Cells were then washed with antibody dilution buffer and

resuspended in antibody dilution buffer. The cells were then subjected to flow cytometry using a

BD FACSCanto II (BD, NJ, USA). The resulting data were analyzed using the BD FACSDiva™

software.

Immunofluorescence

HEK293T cells were seeded on poly-D-lysine coated chamber slides (CORNING, 354632) and

transfected with empty vector, or constructs expressing wild-type or fragments of RNF43 or

ZNRF3. 48 hr after transfection, cells were fixed in 3.2% paraformaldehyde in PBS at RT for 15

min, permeabilized in 3% BSA / 0.1% saponin (Sigma-Aldrich, 47036) in PBS at RT for 30 min,

and then incubated in the secondary antibody anti-Rabbit Alex 488 (Invitrogen, A32731) at RT

for 1 hr. Afterward, the cells were stained with DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 62248) and

mounted.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunochemistry staining was performed using the Vectastain Elite ABC system (Vector

Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) and developed using DAB as chromogen (Agilent Dako, Santa

Clara, CA, USA). Primary antibodies used in the study included EGFR (D1P9C) rabbit antibody

(Mouse Preferred, Cell Signaling Technology, 71655), P-EGFR (Y1068) XP rabbit antibody (Cell

Signaling Technology, 2234), Non-phospho (Active) β-Catenin (Ser33/37/Thr41) (D13A1) rabbit

antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 8814).

Proximity ligation assay

HCT116 cells were seeded to poly-d-lysine–coated chamber slide (Corning) and co-transfected

with Myc-ZNRF3ΔR and EGFR. Two days after transfection, the cells were processed following

the standard protocol provided by Sigma-Aldrich (Duolink In Situ Red Starter Kit Mouse/Rabbit).

The primary antibodies, EGFR (D38B1) XP rabbit antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 4267)

and Myc-tag (9B11) mouse antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 2276), were used to detect

ZNRF3 and EGFR interaction. For negative control, no primary antibody was used. DAPI was

used to stain nuclei. The stained cells were imaged using Leica DMi8 Fluorescence Microscope.

Western blot

Cells were lysed on ice using RIPA lysis buffer supplemented with protease inhibitors (Sigma-

Aldrich, P8340) and phosphatase inhibitors (Sigma-Aldrich, P5726 and P0044). Cell lysates were

then centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatant was collected and the concentration

of protein lysate was quantified by BCA assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 23225). Cell lysates

were mixed with Laemmli sample buffer (BIO-RAD, 1610747) and β-mercaptoethanol (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, 21985023) before boiling for 5 min at 95 °C. Equal amounts of protein lysates

were loaded and run in 8-12% SDS-PAGE gel. Gels were transferred onto nitrocellulose

membrane (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 88018) at 100 V for 90 min at 4 °C. Membranes were then

blocked with 5 % non-fat milk in TBST at RT for 1 hr, incubated with primary antibodies overnight

at 4 °C and secondary antibodies at RT for 1 hr, and scanned using the Odyssey LI-COR imaging

system. Primary antibodies used in the study included EGFR (D38B1) XP rabbit antibody (Cell

Signaling Technology, 4267), EGFR (A-10) mouse antibody (Santa Cruz, sc-373746), EGFR

(D1P9C) rabbit antibody (Mouse Preferred, Cell Signaling Technology, 71655), P-EGFR (Y1068)

XP rabbit antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 3777), HA-tag mouse antibody (BioLegend

901501), HA-tag (C29F4) rabbit antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 3724), Myc-tag (9B11)

mouse antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 2276), Myc-tag (71D10) rabbit antibody (Cell

Signaling Technology, 2278), Flag-tag M2 mouse antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, F1804), Ub (P4D1)

mouse antibody (Santa Cruz, sc-8017), CBL mouse antibody (Santa Cruz, sc-1651), Non-phospho

(Active) β-Catenin (Ser33/37/Thr41) (D13A1) rabbit antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 8814),

β-Catenin mouse Antibody (BD Biosciences, 610153), GAPDH rabbit antibody (Santa Cruz, sc-

25778), β-Actin (Sigma, A5441) and α-Tubulin mouse antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, T9026).

Secondary antibodies used included anti-Mouse IRDye 680RD (LI-COR, 926-68070) and anti-

Rabbit IRDye 800CW (LI-COR, 926-32211).

Immunoprecipitation assay

Cells were lysed on ice using NP-40 or RIPA lysis buffer supplemented with protease inhibitors

(Sigma-Aldrich, P8340). Cell lysates were then centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 15 min at 4 °C.

Supernatant was collected and the concentration of protein lysate was quantified by BCA. Protein

lysates were incubated with either EGFR (Ab-13) mouse antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MS-

609-P1) or Ub (P4D1) mouse antibody (Santa Cruz, sc-8017), and Protein G Sepharose beads (GE

Healthcare, 17061801) overnight at 4 °C. Beads were washed with NP-40 or RIPA lysis buffer.

Whole-cell lysates and immunoprecipitates were analyzed by western blot analysis.

Immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry

The IP-MS experiments were performed as previously described (Chen *et al*, 2019). BCG823 cells

were starved overnight and then treated with 50 ng/ml EGF for 120 mins before sample collection.

For each IP experiment, 1 mg protein lysate was incubated with 5 µg EGFR (Ab-13) antibody for

2 hr at 4 °C and cleared by ultra-centrifugation (100,000 g, 15min). The supernatant was then

incubated with 30 µl 50% protein A-Sepharose slurry (GE Healthcare, 17-0780-01) for 1 hr at 4 °C.

The bead-bound complexes were washed 4 times with NETN buffer (20 mM Tris pH7.5, 1 mM

EDTA, 0.5% NP-40, 150 mM NaCl) and eluted with 20 µl 2X Laemmli buffer and heated at 95°C

for 10 min. IP samples were resolved on a NuPAGE 10% Bis-Tris gel (Life Technologies,

WG1201BX10) in 1x MOPS running buffer; the gel was cut into 3 molecular weight regions plus

the IgG heavy and light chain bands. Each band was in-gel digested overnight with 100 ng of

trypsin which cleaves peptide chains at the C-termini of lysine or arginine in 20 µl of 50 mM

NH_4HCO_3 at 37 °C. Peptides were extracted with 350 µl of 100% acetonitrile and 20 µl of 2%

formic acid, and dried in a Savant Speed-Vac. Digested peptides were dissolved in 10 µl of loading

solution (5% methanol containing 0.1% formic acid) and subjected to LC-MS/MS assay as

described previously (Dharmat *et al*, 2018).

Reverse phase protein array (RPPA)

RPPA assays were carried out as described previously with minor modifications (Creighton &

Huang, 2015). Protein lysates were prepared with modified TPER buffer supplemented with a

cocktail of protease and phosphatase inhibitors. Protein lysates at 0.5 mg/ml of total protein were

denatured in SDS sample buffer containing 2.5% β-mercaptoethanol at 100 °C for 8 min. The

Aushon 2470 Arrayer (Aushon BioSystems) with a 40 pin (185 µm) configuration was used to

spot samples and control lysates onto nitrocellulose-coated slides (Grace Bio-labs) using an array

format of 960 lysates/slide (2880 spots/slide). The slides were probed with a set of 216 antibodies

against total and phospho-proteins using an automated slide stainer Autolink 48 (Dako). Each slide

was incubated with one specific primary antibody, and a negative control slide was incubated with

antibody diluent instead of primary antibody. Primary antibody binding was detected using a

biotinylated secondary antibody followed by streptavidin-conjugated IRDye680 fluorophore (LI-

COR Biosciences). Total protein content of each spotted lysate was assessed by fluorescent

staining with Sypro Ruby Protein Blot Stain according to the manufacturer's instructions

(Molecular Probes). Fluorescence-labeled slides were scanned on a GenePix 4400 AL scanner,

along with accompanying negative control slides, at an appropriate PMT to obtain optimal signal

for this specific set of samples. The images were analyzed with GenePix Pro 7.0 (Molecular

Devices). Total fluorescence signal intensities of each spot were obtained after subtracting the

local background signal for each slide and were then normalized for variation in total protein,

background and non-specific labeling using a group-based normalization method. For each spot

on the array, the background-subtracted foreground signal intensity was subtracted by the

corresponding signal intensity of the negative control slide (omission of primary antibody) and

then normalized to the corresponding signal intensity of total protein for that spot. Each image and

its normalized data were evaluated for quality through manual inspection and control samples.

Antibody slides that failed the quality inspection were either repeated at the end of the staining

runs or removed before data reporting. Samples (in four biological replicates) were extracted from

the normalized data and then log2 transformed. The median value of the three technical replicates

was used for statistical analysis. Welch's t-tests were used for group comparisons. FDR-adjusted

p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Subcutaneous xenograft tumor model and IVIS imaging

5 X 10^5 luciferase-labeled HT29 cells were suspended in 0.1 ml serum-free DMEM and injected

into the right back flank of 21 to 24-week-old NSG mice. Bioluminescence was measured once a

week, by injection of 100 µl 15 mg/ml D-luciferin (LUCNA-1G, Goldbio) via the intra-orbital

sinus. Mice were imaged using IVIS Lumina II (Advanced Molecular Vision). The acquired

bioluminescence signals were normalized to the day 0 bioluminescence intensity.

Statistics

All statistical analyses in our study were conducted using GraphPad Prism or R. Two-tailed t-test

without equal variation assumption was used for data comparison between two experimental

groups. For data comparison with at least 3 groups, one-way ANOVA test was performed first to

assess the overall difference among groups. If differences existed, uncorrected Fisher's LSD test

were performed to assess the significance of differences between two groups. Two-way repeated

measures ANOVA and uncorrected Fisher's LSD test were used to assess the difference between

data sets with time series measurements, including growth curves of cell proliferation and *in vivo*

BLI signals. *p*-values less than 0.05 were considered significant.

Author contributions

F.Y., X.L., and Y.L. developed the concepts, designed the experiments, interpreted data, and wrote

the manuscript. F.Y., A.T.K., P.D.S., M.N.M, W.J., J.T., Z.S., and X.L. performed the experiments.

Y.W. performed mass spectrometry analysis. S.H. helped design and performed proteomics

experiments. F.Y. and Y. D. performed statistical and bioinformatic analyses. G.H. evaluated

slides and provided pathological reports. Q.L., B.O.W., B.Z., N.F.S., X.W, and X-H. F. provided

advice, technical expertise, and critical reagents. All authors read and approved the final

manuscript.

Competing interests Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability All data are available in the main text or the supplementary

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Fig.1 Proteogenomic analysis identifies EGFR as the top candidate protein down-regulated by

ZNRF3/RNF43 in cancers.

A, Volcano plot of proteins associated with *ZNRF3* mRNA expression in human adrenal cortical

carcinoma (ACC), using the TCGA dataset (n = 92).

B, Boxplot of EGFR protein levels in human adrenal cortical carcinomas with different *ZNRF3*

gene copy number alteration, using the TCGA dataset (n = 92).

C, The top ten proteins negatively correlated with *ZNRF3/RNF43* mRNA levels, ranked by

Stouffer's method, using the TCGA colorectal adenocarcinoma (CO/READ) (n = 629) and the

CPTAC colon adenocarcinoma (COAD) (n = 210) datasets.

D. Boxplot of EGFR protein levels in human colon adenocarcinomas expressing RNF43 WT or

G659Vfs*41 mutant, using the CPTAC dataset.

E. Scatterplot of EGFR protein level versus *RNF43* mRNA expression using microsatellite stable

(MSS) colon adenocarcinoma in the CPTAC dataset.

F. Bar graph of significant associations between *RNF43*/*ZNRF3* mRNA expression and EGFR

protein level in cancer datasets from TCGA PanCancer Altas Study. *, insignificant associations

were not shown.

Fig.2 ZNRF3/RNF43 downregulates EGFR protein level.

A. Overexpression of RNF43, ZNRF3, or CBL decreases EGFR protein level compared to GFP

control in MDA-MB-231 cells. Cells were infected with lentivirus expressing GFP, or E3 ligases.

B. *Znrf3* knockout increases P-EGFR and total EGFR levels in MEFs upon EGF stimulation (50

ng/ml, 10 min).

C. *RNF43* knockout increases P-EGFR and total EGFR levels in HT29 cells untreated or treated

with recombinant EGF (50 ng/ml, 10 min).

D, E. RSPO2 treatment (50 ng/ml, 2-4 hr) enhances EGFR protein levels in HT29 (**D**) and LS180

(**E**) cells.

F. Overexpression of RSPO2 WT or F105A/F109A mutant but R65A/Q70A mutant enhances

EGFR protein level, shown by representative western blot images (left panel) and quantification

results (right panel).

Means ± SEMs are shown. *p*-values were calculated by one-way ANOVA uncorrected Fisher's

LSD test. n.s., not significant.

Fig.3 Loss of ZNRF3/RNF43 delays EGFR protein degradation.

A. Knockout of *Znrf3* has no impact on *Egfr* mRNA level in MEFs.

B. Knockout of *RNF43* has no impact on *EGFR* mRNA level in HT29 cells.

C. *RNF43* knockout inhibits EGF-induced EGFR protein degradation in HT29 cells. Cells were

stimulated with EGF (50 ng/ml) for indicated times. Representative western blot images (left panel)

and quantification results (right panel) were shown.

D. *Znrf3* knockout increases the cell surface level of EGFR protein in MEFs unstimulated or

stimulated with EGF (50 ng/ml, 10 min).

E. *RNF43* knockout increases the cell surface level of EGFR protein in HT29 cells unstimulated

or stimulated with EGF (50 ng/ml, 10 min). The bars mark the relative peak shifts after EGF

stimulation in WT (black) or KO (red) cells.

Means ± SEMs are shown. *p*-values were calculated by Welch's t-test (**A**, **B**) or two-way ANOVA

uncorrected Fisher's LSD test (**C**). n.s., not significant.

982   Fig.4 ZNRF3/RNF43 enhances EGFR ubiquitination through the RING domain

983   **A**. Overexpression of RNF43 enhances EGFR ubiquitination level upon EGF (50 ng/ml) stimulation in MDA-MB-231 cells. CBL serves as a positive control. Cells were co-infected with lentivirus expressing EGFR and GFP, RNF43, or CBL.

986   **B**, **C**. Knockout of *RNF43* decreases EGFR ubiquitination in HT29 cells. (**B**) EGFR ubiquitination was examined by Ub IP followed by EGFR IB; (**C**) HT29 cells were pretreated with 20 µM MG132 and 100 nM Bafilomycin A1 for 4 hr. EGFR ubiquitination after EGF treatment (50 ng/ml, 30 min) was examined by EGFR IP followed by Ub IB.

990   **D**, **E**. ZNRF3/RNF43 downregulates EGFR protein level through the RING domain. 293T cells were co-transfected with EGFR and Vector, ZNRF3 WT or ΔRING mutant (**D**), RNF43 WT or ΔRING mutant (**E**).

993   **F**. ZNRF3 regulates EGFR ubiquitination through the RING domain. 293T cells were co-transfected with EGFR and Vector, ZNRF3 WT or ΔRING mutant. EGFR ubiquitination after EGF treatment (50 ng/ml, 10 min) was examined by EGFR IP followed by Ub IB. Cells were pretreated with 20 µM MG132 and 100 nM Bafilomycin A1 for 4 hr.

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Fig. 5 ZNRF3/RNF43 interacts with EGFR through the extracellular domain

A. Ectopically expressed EGFR is co-immunoprecipitated with Myc-tagged RNF43 and ZNRF3

in MDA-MB-231 cells.

B. Representative images of proximity ligation assay in HCT116 cells co-transfected with EGFR

and Myc-ZNRF3ΔRING. Red, PLA signals; Blue, DAPI nuclei staining; Scale bar=20 μm.

C. Schematic diagram of tagged ZNRF3/RNF43 proteins. SP, signal peptide; FL, full-length; ECD,

extracellular domain; TM, transmembrane domain; ICD, intracellular domain; RING, E3 ligase

RING domain.

D. Immunofluorescence staining for ZNRF3 in 293T cells expressing Myc-tagged ZNRF3 FL,

ECD-TM, TM-ICD. Scale bar=40 μm.

E. ZNRF3 extracellular domain is required for ZNRF3 interaction with EGFR. 293T cells were

co-transfected with EGFR and Myc-tagged ZNRF3 constructs and the lysate amounts were

adjusted to achieve comparable levels of EGFR protein in each IP system (Input, left panel). EGFR

interaction with ZNRF3 FL, ECD-TM, or TM-ICD were examined by Myc-tag IP followed by

EGFR IB (middle panel) or by EGFR IP followed by Myc-tag IB (right panel). *, IgG heavy chain.

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Fig. 6 ZNRF3/RNF43 inhibits EGFR-mediated cell growth

A. Knockout of *Znrf3* enhances MEF cell growth, as measured by cell counting at the indicated

time points.

B. qPCR analysis for WNT target genes in WT and *Znrf3* KO MEFs.

C-**E**. Supplementing RSPO1 promotes Apc^{min} mouse intestinal tumor organoid growth. The equal

number of single cells from Apc^{min} mouse intestinal tumor organoids were embedded in Matrigel

and cultured without or with 10% RSPO1 conditioned medium for 8 days. Representative images

(**C**), and quantification of the size (**D**) and number (**E**) of formed Apc^{min} mouse intestinal tumor

organoids are shown. Scale bar = 500 μm.

F. Supplementing RSPO1 enhances EGFR protein level in Apc^{min} mouse intestinal tumor

organoids. Representative images (left panel) and quantification (right panel) of EGFR protein

level are shown.

G. qPCR analysis for *Egfr* and WNT target genes in Apc^{min} mouse intestinal tumor organoids

cultured with or without RSPO1 supplements. Genes with no significant changes after RSPO1

treatment were plotted in grey, genes significantly down-regulated after RSPO1 treatment were

plotted in blue. **, *p*-value < 0.01.

H. Overexpression of ZNRF3 inhibits HT29 cell growth. HT29 cells stably overexpressing GFP

or ZNRF3 were seeded in equal numbers and measured by confluence percentage using Incucyte.

I. Overexpression of ZNRF3 reduces EGFR protein level in HT29 cells.

J. Erlotinib treatment blocks EGFR phosphorylation in WT and *RNF43* KO HT29 cells. Cells

were treated with 5 μM erlotinib for 48 hr.

K. Erlotinib treatment inhibits cell growth in *RNF43* KO HT29 cells.

Means ± SEMs are shown. *p*-values were calculated by two-way ANOVA uncorrected Fisher's

LSD test (**A**, **H**), Welch's t-test (**B**, **D-G**), one-way ANOVA uncorrected Fisher's LSD test (**K**).

n.s., not significant.

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Fig. 7 ZNRF3/RNF43 loss enhances EGFR signaling and promotes tumorigenesis.

A. Overexpression of ZNRF3 suppresses HT29 tumor growth *in vivo*. Representative

bioluminescence images (top panel) and quantification (bottom panel) of flank-injected HT29 cells

expressing either GFP or Myc-tagged ZNRF3.

B. Overexpression of ZNRF3 inhibits P-EGFR and total EGFR levels in HT29 tumors.

Representative images (left panel) and quantification of P-EGFR (right-top panel) and total EGFR

(right-bottom panel) protein levels are shown.

C. Representative H&E images of prostate tissues from WT or prostate-specific *Znrf3*/*Rnf43*

knockout mice. Prostate tissue or tumor samples were collected at 1-year-old. Scale bar=300 μm.

D. Total pathological scores of prostate tissues from WT or prostate-specific *Znrf3*/*Rnf43* knockout

mice. n=6 mice per group.

E. Representative images of immunochemistry staining for EGFR, P-EGFR, and active-β-Catenin

in prostate tissues from WT or prostate-specific *Znrf3*/*Rnf43* knockout mice. Scale bar=40 μm.

Means ± SEMs are shown. *p*-values were calculated by two-way ANOVA uncorrected Fisher's

LSD test (**A**), Welch's t-test (**B**), Mann-Whitney (**D**).

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Fig. S1 EGFR protein level is negatively associated with *ZNRF3*/*RNF43* mRNA expression in

cancers.

A. Scatterplot of EGFR protein level (signal) versus *ZNRF3* mRNA expression (RSEM, Log2

(Val+1)) using the TCGA adrenal cortical carcinoma (ACC) dataset.

B. Scatterplot of EGFR protein level (z-normalized) versus *ZNRF3* mRNA expression (z-

normalized) using the TCGA colorectal adenocarcinoma (CO/READ) dataset.

C. Scatterplot of EGFR protein level (z-normalized) versus *ZNRF3* mRNA expression (z-

normalized) using the CPTAC colon adenocarcinoma (COAD) dataset.

D. Scatterplot of EGFR protein level (z-normalized) versus *RNF43* mRNA expression (z-

normalized) using the TCGA colorectal adenocarcinoma (CO/READ) dataset.

E. Scatterplot of EGFR protein level (z-normalized)   versus *RNF43* mRNA expression (z-

normalized) using the CPTAC colon adenocarcinoma (COAD) dataset.

F. Boxplot of EGFR protein levels (signal) in human colorectal adenocarcinomas expressing

RNF43 WT or RNF43 G659Vfs*41, using the TCGA dataset.

G. Boxplot of EGFR protein levels (signal) in human stomach adenocarcinomas (STAD)

expressing RNF43 WT or RNF43 G659Vfs*41, using the TCGA dataset.

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Fig. S2 ZNRF3/RNF43 negatively regulates EGFR protein level.

A. Overexpression of RNF43 or ZNRF3 decreases P-EGFR, total EGFR, and FZD5 protein levels

in 293T cells. GFP, EGFR, Flag-FZD5 constructs were co-transfected with E3 ligase constructs

or vector control. CBL overexpression serves as a positive control for EGFR downregulation.

RNF43 or ZNRF3 were expressed with their native signal peptides or CD8 signal peptide.

B. Overexpression of RNF43 or ZNRF3 has no impact on TGF-β receptor I (TGFβRI) protein

level in 293T cells. TGFβRI-Flag construct was co-transfected with RNF43, ZNRF3 or vector

control.

C. Overexpression of ZNRF3 or RNF43 does not decrease FGFR1 protein level in 293T cells.

Flag-FGFR1 construct was co-transfected with ZNRF3, RNF43, or vector control.

D. Expression of Cas9-CRISPR *RNF43* guide RNA enhances EGFR protein level in HT29 cells,

shown by representative western blot images (left panel) and quantification results (right panel).

E. Expression of Cas9-CRISPR *RNF43* guide RNA or *ZNRF3* guide RNA enhances both EGFR

and HER2 protein levels in HCC1954 cells.

F. RSPO2 treatment (50 ng/ml, 2-4 hr) enhances EGFR and LRP6 protein levels in 293T cells

infected with lentivirus expressing FUCGW-EGFR.

G. Overexpression of RSPO2 WT does not enhance EGFR protein level in HT29 *RNF43*

knockout cells.

Means ± SEMs are shown. *p*-values were calculated by one-way ANOVA uncorrected Fisher's

LSD test. n.s., not significant.

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1109   Fig. S3 RNF43 loss decreases EGFR ubiquitination.

1110   **A**. Depletion of *RNF43* by CRISPR/Cas9 decreases EGFR ubiquitination in MDA-MB-231

1111   cells. EGFR ubiquitination was examined by Ub IP followed by EGFR IB.

1112   **B**. RNF43 downregulates HER2 protein level through the RING domain. 293T cells were co-

1113   transfected with HER2 and Vector, RNF43 WT or ΔRING mutant.

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Fig. S4 ZNRF3/RNF43 interacts with EGFR

A. Relative abundance of the EGFR-associated proteins. BGC823 cells were starved overnight

and then treated with 50 ng/ml EGF for 0 min (control) or 120 mins (EGF-stimulated). Endogenous

EGFR was immunoprecipitated by anti-EGFR antibodies. EGFR-associated proteins with over

10^5 iBAQ (intensity Based Absolute Quantification) and over 2-fold increase in iBAQ after EGF

stimulation were plotted. The areas of the circles indicate the abundance of iBAQ of EGFR-

associated proteins obtained in EGF-stimulated IPs. The y axis indicates the fold change of iBAQ

of EGFR-associated proteins identified in EGF-stimulated versus control in the log2 scale, which

are arranged from low to high along the x axis.

B. Immunofluorescence staining for HA-tagged RNF43 FL and RNF43 ECD-TM in 293T cells

transfected with RNF43 constructs. Scale bar=40 μm.

C. RNF43 ECD-TM interacts with EGFR. 293T cells were co-transfected with EGFR and HA-

tagged RNF43 constructs. EGFR interaction with RNF43 FL and RNF43 ECD-TM were examined

by HA-tag IP followed by EGFR IB.

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Fig. S5 The protease associate domain of ZNRF3/RNF43 is dispensable for EGFR interaction.

A. Schematic diagram of tagged ZNRF3/RNF43 wild-type and mutant proteins. SP, signal peptide;

WT, wild-type; PA, protease associate domain; TM, transmembrane domain; RING, E3 ligase

RING domain.

B, **C**. EGFR interacts with the ΔPA mutant of Myc-tagged ZNRF3 (**B**) and HA-tagged RNF43

(**C**). 293T cells were co-transfected with EGFR and ZNRF3/RNF43 WT or ΔPA constructs.

D. Overexpression of ZNRF3 WT or ΔPA mutant inhibits canonical WNT signaling in 293T cells

in Super Top-Flash assay. ZNRF3 ΔRING mutant serves as a negative control.

Means ± SEMs are shown. *p*-values were calculated by one-way ANOVA uncorrected Fisher's

LSD test. n.s., not significant.

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1146   Fig. S6 RPPA identifies EGFR downstream signaling molecules upregulated by *RNF43* knockout

1147   in HT29 cells.

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1151 Fig. S7 Pathological assessment on eccentric thicken wall (A), dysplasia (B), micro-invasion (C),

1152 and frank invasion (D) of WT and *Znrf3*/*Rnf43* KO mouse prostate tissues.

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1156 Fig. S8 qPCR analysis for TGF-β signaling relevant genes in Apc^{min} mouse intestinal tumor
1157 organoids cultured with or without RSPO1 supplements. Genes with no significant changes after
1158 RSPO1 treatment were plotted in grey, genes significantly down-regulated after RSPO1 treatment
1159 were plotted in blue. Means ± SEMs are shown. Welch's t-test was used to assess statistical
1160 significance. **, p-value < 0.01.
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