

1 **PKC $\delta$ -mediated SGLT1 upregulation confers the acquired resistance of NSCLC to**  
2 **EGFR TKIs**

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51 Running title: SGLT1 mediates EGFR TKI resistance

## 52 **Abstract**

53 The tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) targeting epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) have been  
54 widely used for non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) patients, but the development of acquired  
55 resistance remains a therapeutic hurdle. The reduction of glucose uptake has been implicated in the  
56 anti-tumor activity of EGFR TKIs. In this study, the upregulation of the active sodium/glucose  
57 co-transporter 1 (SGLT1) was found to confer the development of acquired EGFR TKI resistance,  
58 and was correlated with the poorer clinical outcome of the NSCLC patients who received EGFR  
59 TKI treatment. Blockade of SGLT1 overcame this resistance *in vitro* and *in vivo* by reducing  
60 glucose uptake in NSCLC cells. Mechanistically, SGLT1 protein was stabilized through the  
61 interaction with PKC $\delta$ -phosphorylated (Thr678) EGFR in the TKI-resistant cells. Our findings  
62 revealed that PKC $\delta$ /EGFR axis-dependent SGLT1 upregulation was a critical mechanism  
63 underlying the acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs. We suggest co-targeting PKC $\delta$ /SGLT1 as  
64 a potential strategy to improve the therapeutic efficacy of EGFR TKIs in NSCLC patients.

## 66 **Introduction**

67 The epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), a membrane-bound tyrosine kinase  
68 receptor, has been found to be a critical oncogene in promoting the tumorigenesis,  
69 mitogenesis, and tumor progression of various cancer types, including non-small cell lung  
70 cancer (NSCLC)[1, 2]. Overexpression or somatic mutation of EGFR causes the aberrant  
71 activation of its tyrosine kinase and the dysregulation of its downstream signals that  
72 contribute to the tumor growth and progression and the poor prognosis of NSCLC  
73 patients[3]. EGFR is therefore a rational and feasible therapeutic target for this disease.

74 Small molecule tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) targeting the ATP-binding pocket of  
75 the EGFR kinase domain were developed and approved for NSCLCs[4]. Gefitinib (ZD1839,

76 Iressa) and erlotinib (OSI-774, Tarceva) are two approved first-generation EGFR TKIs for  
77 NSCLC. However, these drugs fail to achieve maximum therapeutic efficacy, with response  
78 rates of typically 10%–20% across a variety of malignancies[4]. Gefitinib and erlotinib  
79 particularly benefit Asian NSCLC patients who are female, never-smokers, and have an  
80 adenocarcinoma histology. Importantly, the high prevalence of activating EGFR mutations,  
81 including the exon 19 (L746-A750) deletion and L858R point mutation, were found in  
82 these patients[5]. These activating mutations alter the protein structure of EGFR at its  
83 ATP-binding site and increase the binding affinity and vulnerability to TKIs[6]. However, a  
84 frequent substitution of threonine residue to methionine at codon 790 (T790M) of EGFR  
85 exon 20 has been found to reduce the binding affinity with gefitinib or erlotinib, and  
86 thereby contributes to the development of acquired resistance[1]. The second-generation  
87 irreversible TKI, afatinib (BIBW2992, Gilotrif), was developed to target the activating  
88 EGFR mutant with less likelihood of the EGFR T790M point mutation[7]. The  
89 third-generation TKI, osimertinib (AZD9291, Tagrisso), was further designed to target the  
90 EGFR T790M mutation[8, 9]. The secondary EGFR mutations[10] and activations of  
91 alternative RTKs creating a bypass track[11, 12] have been proposed as reasons for the  
92 failed responses to EGFR TKIs, yet fail to fully account for the development of acquired  
93 resistance to these drugs in NSCLC patients.

94         Several studies have shown that, in addition to delivering the classic proliferation and  
95 survival signals, activated EGFR also facilitates glucose utility and metabolic pathways  
96 through the stabilization of glucose transporters and dysregulation of glycolytic enzymes  
97 hexokinases and pyruvate kinase M2 (PKM2) that promote tumor growth,  
98 epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), cancer stemness, and even immune  
99 evasion[13-17]. Recently, tyrosine kinase activation of EGFR was shown to enhance the  
100 activity of 6-phosphofructo-2-kinase/fructose-2,6-bisphosphatase-3 (PFKFB3), an essential



glycolytic activator for the synthesis and degradation of fructose-2,6-bisphosphate (F26BP) that contributes to the survival of NSCLC cells[18]. EGFR signaling also links glycolysis with serine synthesis to support for nucleotide biosynthesis and redox homeostasis[19]. Mounting evidence has proved that EGFR impacts on the rewiring of the glucose metabolic network to promote tumor progression in NSCLC[20].

Clinically, the decrease in glucose metabolism measured by the uptake of 2-[<sup>18</sup>F]-fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose ([<sup>18</sup>F]-FDG), the radiolabeled glucose analog, with positron emission tomography (PET) analysis appears within days of initiating EGFR TKI therapy in NSCLC patients[21]. [<sup>18</sup>F]-FDG uptake is significantly decreased by erlotinib treatment in sensitive, not insensitive, human NSCLC-xenograft mouse tumors[22, 23]. Changes in tumor glucose metabolism precede decreases in tumor size in response to EGFR TKIs[22, 24]. These findings suggest that reduction of EGFR-mediated glycolysis may be involved in the anti-tumor activity of EGFR TKIs, and thus monitoring [<sup>18</sup>F]-FDG-PET uptake has been used to predict therapeutic responses to EGFR TKIs in lung cancer patients[25-27]. Moreover, suppression of facilitative glucose transporter Glut was found to mediate the anti-cancer activity of TKIs in NSCLC cell lines bearing wild-type (wt) or mutant EGFR[28]. These studies suggested that the suppression of glucose uptake and metabolism may be essential to achieve the therapeutic response of EGFR TKIs in NSCLC patients. However, elevated lactate secretion and glycolysis were found in long-term TKI treatment of NSCLC cells and in prostate cancer cells[29-31], raising the possibility that glucose metabolic re-wiring may contribute to the development of acquired resistance of NSCLC to EGFR TKIs.

In this study, our data showed that NSCLC cells with acquired EGFR TKI resistance are more tolerant to low glucose-induced autophagy following a metabolic shift to higher glucose uptake and glycolysis activity due to upregulation of active glucose transporter

SGLT1 by Thr678-phosphorylated EGFR, in a PKC $\delta$ -dependent manner. Higher SGLT1 expression correlated with poorer clinical outcomes of EGFR TKI-treated NSCLC patients, while targeting SGLT1 with pharmacological inhibitors suppressed enhancements in glucose metabolism and lowered acquisition of EGFR TKI resistance in NSCLC xenograft-bearing mice. Our results not only elucidate the metabolic mechanism underlying the development of acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs, but also indicate that targeting PKC $\delta$ /SGLT1 in combination with EGFR TKIs may benefit NSCLC patients.

## Results

### *TKI-resistant cells are tolerant to autophagic cell death induced by glucose deprivation*

To determine whether alternation of glucose metabolism plays a role in the development of acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs, we first established erlotinib-resistant (ER) clones from wt EGFR-expressing NSCLC lines NCI-H322 (H322) and NCI-H292 (H292) and from an activating EGFR mutant-expressing HCC827 lung adenocarcinoma cell line by culturing the cells in increasing concentrations of erlotinib (by 2.5  $\mu$ M every 2–3 weeks, up to a maintenance concentration of 10  $\mu$ M for 3 months). Their resistance to erlotinib was validated in WST-1 assays (Supplementary Figs S1a-S1c). Interestingly, the viability of the parental cell lines, but not their corresponding ER clones, was dramatically and dose-dependently decreased by reducing glucose concentrations from 4.5 to 0.1 g/L in the culture medium in WST1 (Fig 1a and Supplementary Fig S1d) and cell counting assays (Fig 1b). Similarly, ER clones of H322 and HCC827 cells were also more tolerant to glucose deprivation in clonogenic formation assays (Fig 1c). Flow cytometric analysis further showed that glucose deprivation increased the sub-G1 population of parental H322 and HCC827 cells, but not their corresponding ER clones (Fig 1d).

Nutrition and energy deprivation trigger autophagy in a variety of cells[32], but the roles of autophagy in determining the sensitivity to EGFR TKIs in NSCLC remain controversial[11, 33-36]. Pretreatment of H322 and HCC827 cells with 3-methyladenine (3-MA) and chloroquine (CQ), which suppress autophagic flux by targeting PtdIns3Ks[37] and autophagosome-lysosome fusion[38] respectively, prevented the suppression of viability induced by glucose starvation (Supplementary Fig S1e), suggesting that autophagy contributes to glucose deprivation-induced cell death of these cell lines. In support of this finding, the reduction of glucose concentration induced the expression of autophagic marker (LC3 $\beta$ ) and apoptotic markers (PARP or caspase 3 cleavage) in H322 (Fig 1e) and HCC827 (Fig 1f) cells, but not their corresponding ER clones. Consistently, the results from Cyto-ID<sup>®</sup> Autophagy dye staining showed that glucose deprivation enhanced the numbers (Fig 1g) and levels (Fig 1h) of autophagosome-positive cells in the parental H322 cells, but not their ER clones. All of these findings indicated that erlotinib-resistant NSCLC cells are more tolerant to glucose deprivation-induced autophagic cell death.

#### ***Erlotinib-resistant lung cancer cells exhibit higher glucose uptake through SGLT1 upregulation***

Although TKI-resistant cells were more tolerant to glucose deprivation-induced cell death, inhibition of glycolysis with hexokinase inhibitor 2-deoxy-D-glucose (2-DG) still suppressed the colony formation of the corresponding ER clones of H322 and HCC827 cells (Supplementary Fig S2), suggesting that glucose remains the critical energy source to generate ATP and cell building blocks through glycolysis for cell proliferation in these clones. The elevation in the extracellular acidification rate (ECAR), an indicator of glycolysis, in the corresponding ER clones was higher than that in the parental H322 (Fig 2a) and HCC827 (Supplementary Fig S3a) cells. By monitoring the engulfment of the fluorescent-labeled

deoxyglucose analog 2-NBDG, the glucose uptake ability of these cells was examined. The 2-NBDG uptake was suppressed by erlotinib in H322 (Fig 2b) and HCC827 (Supplementary Figs S3b) cells, but was higher in H322/ER and HCC827/ER clones in the presence of TKI. Interestingly, the ER#2 clone, but not its parental HCC827 cells, elicited higher ECAR under the low (0.1g/L) glucose condition (Supplementary Fig S3c). Increases in 2-NBDG uptake in the corresponding ER clones of H322 cells were more obvious under low glucose culture conditions than under normal glucose conditions (Fig 2c). Active glucose transporters SGLTs are associated with 2-NBDG uptake in SGLT1-overexpressing HEK-293T cells (Supplementary Fig S3d) consistent with previous studies[39, 40], but compared with glucose, show a much lower binding affinity with 2-DG derivatives [41]. These findings imply the involvement of SGLTs in the higher glucose uptake in these TKI-resistant clones. Indeed, the ability to increase the uptake of  $\alpha$ -methyl-D-glucopyranoside ( $\alpha$ -MDG), a specific substrate for SGLTs, was apparent with H322/ER (Fig 2d) and HCC827/ER (Supplementary Fig S3e) cells compared with their parental cells. These findings support the contention that erlotinib-resistant cells express active glucose transporters that have greater ability for glucose uptake.

Among cancer-related glucose transporters[42, 43], only the expression of SGLT1, not Glut1, Glut3, or SGLT2, was significantly increased in different ER clones of H322 (Fig 2e) and HCC827 (Supplementary Fig S3f) cells. In support of this finding, higher expression of SGLT1 in H292/ER clones than in parental cells (Supplementary Fig S3g) was also detected by the validated anti-SGLT1 antibody (Supplementary Fig S3h) in the xenograft tumor tissues. These data suggest that increased levels of SGLT1 may enhance glucose uptake in erlotinib-resistant cells. Indeed, treatments with SGLT inhibitors phlorizin and LX4211 (sotagliflozin, approved in the European Union for type 1 diabetes mellitus) reduced the 2-NBDG uptake in H322/ER and HCC827/ER clones under low glucose culture conditions

(Fig 2f and Supplementary Fig S3i) without affecting GLUT3 activity (Supplementary Fig S3j). Similar suppressive effects of SGLT1 shRNA on  $\alpha$ -MDG uptake were also found in different H322/ER (Fig 2g) and HCC827/ER (Supplementary Fig S3k) clones. SGLT1 shRNA also reduced the glucose consumption of H322/ER#1 cells (Supplementary Fig S3l). These results suggest that upregulation of SGLT1 mediates glucose uptake and thereby supports the viability of acquired EGFR TKI-resistant cells.

### ***Targeting SGLT1 reduced EGFR TKI resistance in vitro and in vivo***

We next examined the role of SGLT1 in conferring drug resistance to EGFR TKIs through increasing glucose uptake. Treatments with phlorizin or LX4211 decreased the proliferation rate of ER clones of H322 (Fig 3a) and HCC827 (Supplementary Fig S4a) cells and their viability under low glucose culture conditions (Fig 3b and Supplementary Fig S4b). Consistently, shRNA-mediated depletion of SGLT1 limited the cell growth of different H322/ER (Fig 3c) and HCC827/ER clones (Supplementary Fig S4c), and re-sensitized these ER clones to cell death induced by glucose deprivation (Fig 3d and Supplementary Fig S4d). Treatments with SGLT1 inhibitors phlorizin or LX4211 (Fig 3e, Supplementary Fig S4e) or shRNA (Fig 3f and Supplementary Fig S4f) also enhanced the glucose deprivation-induced caspase 3 or PARP cleavage and LC3 $\beta$  in H322/ER#2 and HCC827/ER#2 cells, but not in the parental H322 cells (Supplementary Fig S4g). Conversely, overexpression of SGLT1 was not only associated with higher  $\alpha$ -MDG uptake (Supplementary Fig S4h) and lower levels of apoptotic markers (Supplementary Fig S4i) and cell death (Supplementary Fig S4j) in response to glucose deprivation in H322 cells, but SGLT1 overexpression also attenuated erlotinib-induced PARP and caspase 3 cleavages in parental H322 cells (Fig 3g) and HCC827 cells (Supplementary Fig S4k) and consequently restored the TKI-suppressed viability (Fig 3h and Supplementary Fig S4l). These results support the contention that increased SGLT1

expression enhances glucose uptake and thereby reduces the sensitivity of NSCLC cells to EGFR TKIs.

Next, we addressed whether SGLT1 inhibitors can enhance the therapeutic efficacy of EGFR TKIs in tumor xenograft mouse models. First, SCID mice bearing H292 subcutaneous xenografts were treated with erlotinib (50 mg/kg), phlorizin (20 mg/kg), LX4211 (60 mg/kg) alone, or the combination of erlotinib with either phlorizin or LX4211. Treatments with erlotinib, phlorizin, or LX4211 alone did not significantly reduce tumor growth, but the combination of erlotinib with either phlorizin (Fig 4a) or LX4211 (Supplementary Fig S5a) significantly suppressed the tumor growth. After treatment with erlotinib for 29 days, levels of EGFR and SGLT1 expression were elevated in the xenograft tumor tissues in IHC staining analysis. The combination treatments also enhanced the reduction of the proliferation marker Ki67 and the induction of apoptosis marker PARP cleavage and ATG7, which is induced to mediate autophagy under glucose deprivation [44], in the xenograft tumor tissues (Fig 4b and Supplementary Fig S5b). To examine whether SGLT1 also plays a role in conferring intrinsic resistance to EGFR TKIs, the experimental metastatic NSCLC xenograft model was established by tail vein injection of SGLT1-positive and TKI-insensitive A549 cells transfected with the luciferase gene. Co-treatment with erlotinib and phlorizin reduced the tumor size (Fig 4c) and the number of tumor nodules (Fig 4d). Remarkable reductions in Ki67 expression, as well as increases in ATG7 expression and PARP cleavage, were also found in the lung tumor tissues after co-treatment with erlotinib and phlorizin (Fig 4e). Together, these findings support the therapeutic potential of SGLT1 inhibitors for reducing the development of acquired EGFR TKI resistance in NSCLC patients.

***SGLT1 is upregulated in recurrent tumor tissues after the failure of EGFR TKI treatment and is associated with poor prognosis of NSCLC***

In the Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of records from the public transcriptomic database[45], higher SGLT1 mRNA expression correlated with an increasingly worse overall survival rate in lung adenocarcinoma patients (Supplementary Fig S6a), which was reflected in both smoker and non-smoker populations (Supplementary Figs S6b and S6c). We next analyzed the clinical correlation of SGLT1 expression with prognosis in 72 NSCLC patients who carried either wt or mutant EGFR and received erlotinib or gefitinib treatments. SGLT1 expression was associated with gender and age, but not smoking behavior, *EGFR* mutation status, tumor size, lymph node metastasis, pathological stage, or immediate response to EGFR TKIs, with higher SGLT1 expression detected in NSCLC tumors of males aged over 55 years (Supplementary Table S1 and Supplementary Figs S6d and S6e). EGFR TKI-treated NSCLC patients with the higher SGLT1-expressing tumors showed a lower overall survival rate with statistical significance (Fig 5a) and a more unfavorable progression-free survival rate with marginal significance (Fig 5b). The negative correlations of SGLT1 expression with overall and progression-free survival rates were also observed in both NSCLC subpopulations; in patients with wt EGFR tumors (Figs 5c and 5d) and those with EGFR mutations (Figs 5e and 5f), respectively.

We then examined the change in SGLT1 expression in human NSCLC tumor tissues after the development of acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs. Treatment-naïve primary tumor tissues paired with the acquired EGFR TKI-resistant tumor tissues were collected from 9 NSCLC patients and were subjected to IHC staining with an anti-SGLT1 antibody. In response to acquired EGFR TKI resistance, recurrent tumor tissues from 6 of 9 patients demonstrated upregulated SGLT1 expression (Fig 5g). Interestingly, SGLT1 expression was increased in all 5 male patients but was decreased in 3 of the 4 female patients (Fig 5h). These results suggest that SGLT1 upregulation may contribute to the acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs in NSCLC patients, especially in males. It is not yet clear whether hormone

receptors are involved in the regulation of SGLT1 expression in lung cancer tissues and would be worthy of further investigation.

***Elevated EGFR expression stabilizes SGLT1 expression to support the survival of TKI-resistant cells***

EGFR reportedly stabilizes SGLT1 expression, independent of its tyrosine kinase activity[46]. We observed elevations in EGFR expression after treatment with erlotinib (Fig 4b and Supplementary Fig S5b). Thus, we sought to determine whether the upregulation of SGLT1 in TKI-resistant cells depends upon EGFR. We observed increases in both SGLT1 expression and EGFR protein levels, but also a decrease in EGFR Y1068 phosphorylation, a marker for EGFR tyrosine kinase activity, in the TKI-resistant H322 clones in the presence of erlotinib (Fig 6a). Similarly, EGFR upregulation was also observed in the H292/ER xenograft tumor tissues compared to that of their parental cells in SCID mice (Supplementary Fig S7a). Silencing EGFR expression with specific siRNAs reduced the uptake of  $\alpha$ -MDG (Fig 6b and 6c) and 2-NBDG (Supplementary Fig S7b) in erlotinib-resistant clones. Similarly, downregulation of EGFR by treatment with cetuximab, the EGFR monoclonal antibody, suppressed  $\alpha$ -MDG (Fig 6d) and 2-NBDG (Supplementary Fig S7c) uptake in ER clones. Treatments with EGFR siRNAs (Fig 6e and Supplementary Fig S7d) or cetuximab (Fig 6f and Supplementary Fig S7e) also reduced the cell growth of H322/ER and HCC827/ER clones in colony formation assays. Moreover, downregulation of EGFR by siRNA administration (Fig 6g and Supplementary Fig S7f) or cetuximab (Fig 6h and Supplementary Fig S7g) reduced both EGFR and SGLT1 protein levels, and also increased PARP and caspase 3 cleavages in H322/ER and HCC827/ER clones. In contrast, overexpression of SGLT1 attenuated cetuximab-induced cell death (Fig 6i and Supplementary Fig S7h), PARP and caspase 3 cleavage, and AMPK activation (Fig 6j) in parental NSCLC cells. These results



support the notion that EGFR, in the presence of TKIs, upregulates SGLT1 expression to support cell growth and survival in cells with acquired EGFR TKI resistance.

***Phosphorylation of EGFR T678 by PKC $\delta$  mediates SGLT1 protein stabilization by enhancing the interaction between EGFR and SGLT1***

We next investigated how EGFR stabilizes SGLT1 in TKI-resistant cells independent of its tyrosine kinase activity. Despite tyrosine autophosphorylation, serine or threonine phosphorylation in members of the ErbB family has been found to regulate their kinase activity, protein stability, or endocytosis[47, 48]. Interestingly, we observed that EGFR phosphorylations at T678 and Ser1046/1047, but not T669, all of which are mediated by different Ser/Thr kinases[49-52], were increased in H322/ER clones while Y1068 phosphorylation was suppressed by erlotinib (Fig 7a and Supplementary Fig S8a). The upregulation of EGFR T678 phosphorylation was also observed in the xenograft tumor tissue of parental H292 cells after 1 month of erlotinib treatment (Fig 7b), in the xenograft tissues of H292/ER clones (Supplementary Fig S8b) and in human NSCLC tumors with acquired TKI resistance (Fig 7c), compared with their parental counterparts. Mutation of T678, but not S1046/1047, to Ala abolished EGFR-enhanced SGLT1 expression, and this effect was reversed by treatment with proteasome inhibitor MG132 in HEK-293T cells (Fig 7d). Mutation of T678A also reduced the interaction between EGFR and SGLT1 (Fig 7e). These results suggest that increased T678 phosphorylation of EGFR mediates SGLT1 protein stabilization through a protein-protein interaction.

PKC has been reported to phosphorylate EGFR at T678 to protect EGFR from degradation[49, 50]. Protein kinase C $\delta$  has been found to contribute to the acquired resistance of NSCLCs to EGFR TKIs[12], but the underlying mechanisms remain unclear. Therefore, we next asked whether PKC $\delta$  is involved in SGLT1-mediated TKI resistance through EGFR

325 T678 phosphorylation. The viabilities of H322/ER#2 (Fig 7f) and HCC827/ER#2  
326 (Supplementary Fig S8c) cells were decreased by treatment with the pan-PKC inhibitors  
327 GO6983, staurosporine, and sotrasturin, in a dose-dependent manner. GO6983 also  
328 suppressed basal and glucose-induced ECAR (Supplementary Figs. S8d and S8e) and glucose  
329 uptake (Fig 7g and Supplementary Fig S8f) in H322/ER#2 and HCC827/ER#2 cells. These  
330 PKC inhibitors also suppressed EGFR T678 phosphorylation and EGFR and SGLT1 protein  
331 levels (Fig 7h and Supplementary Fig S8g). Overexpression of PKC $\delta$  induced increases in  
332 EGFR levels, EGFR T678 phosphorylation and SGLT1 protein levels in H322 cells  
333 (Supplementary Fig S8h), and further enhanced EGFR-mediated SGLT1 upregulation, which  
334 was abolished by the mutation of *EGFR* T678A (Fig 7i). These findings indicate that PKC $\delta$ ,  
335 in addition to its nuclear functions[12], confers EGFR TKI resistance by regulating formation  
336 of the EGFR/SGLT1 complex in the cytoplasm.

337 Interestingly, PKC $\delta$  S643/676 phosphorylation, which is mediated by mTORC2, but not  
338 T505 phosphorylation, was observed in the H322/ER and HCC827/ER clones (Fig 7j and  
339 Supplementary Fig S8i) and in the xenograft tumor tissues of parental H292 cells after 1  
340 month of erlotinib treatment (Fig 7k). Since mTORC2 is inactivated by S6K in response to  
341 signaling of EGFR/mTORC1 axis[53], the mTORC2/PKC $\delta$  axis may be activated and  
342 mediate EGFR T678 phosphorylation for SGLT1 protein stabilization, when EGFR tyrosine  
343 kinase activity was suppressed by TKIs. In support of this notion, the mTORC1/2 inhibitor  
344 everolimus suppressed not only PKC $\delta$  S643/676 phosphorylation, but also EGFR T678  
345 phosphorylation and SGLT1 levels (Supplementary Fig S8j).

346 In conclusion, TKIs suppressed EGFR and its downstream Akt and ERK signaling  
347 pathways, as well as the membrane levels of GLUT and glucose uptake in the sensitive cells.  
348 Reduced glucose uptake led to a subsequent reduction in ATP production, an increase in the  
349 intracellular AMP/ATP ratio, and activation of AMPK for the suppression of mTORC1 and

tumor growth (Fig 8, left). However, while EGFR tyrosine kinase activity was suppressed by long-term TKI treatment, mTORC2 was activated from the EGFR/mTORC1/S6K axis to phosphorylate PKC $\delta$  for subsequent EGFR T678 phosphorylation and SGLT1 protein stabilization. Even in an environment of low glucose, higher SGLT1 expression engulfs more glucose to maintain intracellular glucose levels, leading to acquired EGFR TKI resistance and maintenance of ATP production for cell viability (Fig 8, right). Thus, co-treatment with SGLT1 inhibitors may avoid the development of acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs.

## Discussion

In addition to the inhibition of EGFR downstream PI3K/Akt and MAPK survival pathways, reductions in glucose uptake and glycolysis have been detected in gefitinib-treated lung cancer cells that precede cell cycle suppression and apoptosis induction[22], suggesting that glucose metabolic activity closely reflects the intrinsic response to EGFR TKI-based therapy. However, it remains unclear as to whether the development of acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs involves the reprogramming of glucose metabolism in NSCLC cells. In this study, our results showed that protein stability of the active glucose transporter SGLT1 was dramatically enhanced by EGFR relying on PKC $\delta$ -mediated phosphorylation to support glucose uptake and viability of erlotinib-resistant lung cancer cells.

Cancer cells support their growth by expressing glucose transporters that increase glucose uptake from the extracellular environment. Treatment with TKIs decreases glucose consumption and lactate production by inhibiting the translocation of the Glut3 transporter from the cytosol to the plasma membrane in lung adenocarcinoma[24]. The downregulation of Glut1 and Glut3 protein levels also accounts for the anticancer activity of EGFR TKIs in NSCLC cell lines and xenograft tumor tissues[24, 25]. EGFR expression and downstream signaling pathways have shown positive correlations with Glut1 expression and membrane

localization in lung cancer[54], pancreatic cancer tissue[55, 56] and triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC)[57], suggesting that TKI-sensitive cancer cells employ passive glucose transporters to engulf glucose and that downregulation of these transporters may account for the anticancer activity of TKIs. Under adaptation to long-term TKI treatment, however, SGLT1 upregulation compensated for glucose uptake in TKI-resistant cells in our study.

SGLT1 is generally expressed in the normal epithelial cells of the small intestine to transport glucose and galactose across the luminal side of enterocytes, but its overexpression in prostate cancer[58] and colorectal cancer[59] is associated with poor prognosis. Although SGLT2, typically expressed in the renal proximal tubule, has also been reported to play a critical role in the development of pancreatic or breast cancer[60, 61], our data showed that SGLT1, but not SGLT2, is upregulated in response to EGFR TKI treatment, which supports glucose uptake and cellular viability in NSCLC cells with acquired TKI resistance. Although the EGF-activated PI3K/Akt/CREB signaling axis upregulates SGLT1 expression and enhances glucose uptake in intestine epithelial cells[62], the tyrosine kinase activity of EGFR or IGF1R and Akt signals are not needed for SGLT1 upregulation in cancer cells[46, 63]. In this study, our data showed that enhanced SGLT1 protein expression and glucose uptake in TKI-resistant cells were mediated by kinase-inactive EGFR (Fig 6). Downregulation of EGFR expression involves the direct targeting of its 3'UTR activity by microRNA-7[64-67]. Interestingly, the kinase-dependent functioning of EGFR has been reported to induce miR-7 transcription[68], suggesting that miR-7 acts as a negative feedback regulator of EGFR expression. Indeed, EGFR expression without tyrosine kinase activity is increased in response to tyrosine kinase inhibitor treatment, which downregulates microRNA-7 and promotes the migration and invasion of TNBC cells[64, 69]. This negative-feedback regulation of EGFR may also contribute to the protein stabilization of SGLT1 in NSCLC cells with acquired EGFR TKI resistance.

Besides the elevation of EGFR protein levels, our data revealed that PKC $\delta$ -mediated EGFR T678 phosphorylation also enhanced the protein-protein interaction of EGFR with SGLT1 to stabilize SGLT1 protein levels in TKI-resistant cells (Fig 7). This conserved phosphorylation by PKC reduces endocytic trafficking of EGFR and ErbB3[70, 71], and the retention of these receptors on the plasma membrane may account for the higher interaction between EGFR and SGLT1 in TKI-resistant cells. Moreover, our data found that mTORC2-mediated PKC $\delta$  phosphorylation (Ser643 and Ser676) was notably increased in the cells with acquired resistance to erlotinib, and that mTORC1/2 inhibition suppressed PKC $\delta$  activation and EGFR/SGLT1 protein expression. PKC $\delta$ -mediated EGFR/SGLT1 stabilization may be involved in the mTORC2-mediated metabolic reprogramming in EGFR TKI-resistant NSCLC cells[72]. These findings also support targeting of mTORC2, which is activated due to the inhibition of EGFR/mTORC1/S6K signaling [53], as another therapeutic strategy to overcome EGFR TKI resistance in NSCLC cells [72].

Since SGLTs are functionally active in various cancer types, including pancreatic, prostate, and brain cancers[60], the use of new antidiabetic SGLT inhibitors for cancer therapy has also emerged as a possibility[73]. Four SGLT2 inhibitors, empagliflozin (Jardiance), dapagliflozin (Forxiga), canagliflozin (Invokana) and ertugliflozin (Stelagro) have recently been approved for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus by the US Food and Drug Administration, and are associated with beneficial effects in the cardiovascular system and the kidney[74]. Randomized clinical trial data have not revealed any associations between treatment with these SGLT2 inhibitors and increased incidence rates of malignancies[75]. Our data show that co-targeting SGLT1 with LX4211 (sotagliflozin) enhanced the anticancer activity of EGFR TKIs in mouse model. LX4211 is an orally-delivered dual SGLT1/2 inhibitor approved for T1DM and exhibits a 20-fold higher potency for SGLT2 over SGLT1[76]; the involvement of SGLT2 inhibition in this synergism

cannot be ruled out. Moreover, this dual inhibitor improves severe glycemic and non-glycemic outcomes without severe gastrointestinal side effects[77], although its associated increased risk of diabetic ketoacidosis in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus is of concern[78]. The possibility of this event should be evaluated during clinical testing of the synergistic effects of LX4211 on the anticancer activity of EGFR TKIs.

In conclusion, our results elucidate the role of PKC $\delta$ /EGFR-dependent SGLT1 expression in the rewiring of glucose uptake and metabolism that supports the expansion of cells with acquired TKI resistance (Fig 8). These findings indicate that SGLT1 is a potential target for avoiding acquired resistance to EGFR TKI therapy in NSCLC.

## **Availability of materials and methods**

The materials and methods used in this study are available in the Supporting Information.

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450

## 451 **Author Contributions**

452 C.-H. C. provided human tumor samples, performed the experiments and analyzed data.  
453 B.-W. W. and Y.-C. H. conceived the study, designed and performed the experiments,  
454 analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. B.-W. W., C.-Y. W., F.-J. C., Y. W., Z.W., R.-H. C.,  
455 C.-H. T., and Y.-L. W. performed the experiments, T.-C. H. and C.-Y. C. provided human  
456 tumor samples and performed the experiments. C.-Y. T. provided human tumor samples,  
457 performed the experiments and provided clinical information. W.-C. H. supervised the entire  
458 project and wrote the manuscript. M.-C. H. provided scientific input and wrote the  
459 manuscript.

460

## 461 **Conflict of Interests**

462 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

463

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## Fig Legends

**Fig 1. The acquired erlotinib-resistant NSCLC cells were more tolerant to glucose deprivation.** H322, HCC827 and their erlotinib-resistant (ER) cells were cultured in different concentrations of glucose. **a–c**, The cell viability was measured in WST-1 (a), cell counting (b), and clonogenic (c) assays. **d**, The changes in sub-G1 population of the indicated cells in response to different concentrations of glucose were measured with PI staining in FACS

analysis. **e** and **f**, The levels of LC3 $\beta$  and caspase 3 cleavage in H322, HCC827 cells and their ER clones in response to glucose deprivation were analyzed by WB. **g**, The low glucose concentration-induced autophagosome accumulation was detected by staining with Cyto-ID<sup>®</sup> Green autophagy dye in fluorescence analysis was shown in upper panel, and the number of autophagosome-positive cells was quantitated in lower panel. **h**, The effects of glucose deprivation on autophagosome formation in H322 and their ER cells were determined by FACS analysis (upper panel) and quantitated (lower panel). Data in (a-b), (d), and (g-h) represent mean  $\pm$  s.d. from three independent experiments. \* $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  vs. control group, Student's t-test. Data in (c), (e), and (f) are representative of three experiments.

**Fig 2. The upregulated SGLT1 mediated the glucose uptake of the acquired erlotinib-resistant cells.** **a**, The changes in ECAR of H322 cells and their ER clones were measured by using the XF-24 Seahorse extracellular flux analyzer. **b**, 2-NBDG uptake ability of H322 cells and their ER clone was detected following EGFR-TKI-treatment. **c** and **d**, 2-NBDG (c) and  $\alpha$ -MDG (d) uptake ability of H322 cells and their ER clones were detected by FACS and Beckman LS6000 Scintillation Counter, respectively. **e**, The protein levels of various glucose transporters in H322 cells and their ER clones were detected in WB with the indicated antibodies. **f**, The effects of 100  $\mu$ M phlorizin or 1  $\mu$ M LX4211 on glucose uptake in the H322/ER#2 clone were measured under a low glucose concentration condition in 2-NBDG assay. **g**, The effects of SGLT1 shRNA on  $\alpha$ -MDG uptake in the H322/ER#2 clone were measured under low glucose conditions by using the Beckman LS6000 Scintillation Counter. Data in (b), (c), (d), (f), and (g) represent mean  $\pm$  s.d. from three independent experiments. \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$  vs. control, Student's t-test. Data in (a) and (e) are representative of three experiments.



**Fig 3. The upregulated SGLT1 supported the cell viability of the acquired TKI-resistant**

**cells.** **a**, The cell proliferation of H322/ER clones in response to erlotinib, phlorizin, or LX4211 was determined in WST-1 analysis. **b**, The effects of phlorizin or LX4211 on cell viability of H322/ER clones under low glucose concentration were measured in WST-1 analysis. **c** and **d**, The effects of SGLT1 shRNA on cell proliferation (c) and viability (d) of H322/ER clones under low glucose concentration were determined by cell counting and WST-1 analyses, respectively. **e** and **f**, The effects of SGLT1 inhibitors (e) and shRNA (f) on caspase 3 or PARP cleavages or LC3 $\beta$  in H322/ER clones were analyzed by WB. **g** and **h**, The effects of SGLT1 overexpression on the erlotinib-induced PARP and caspase 3 cleavages (g) and cell death (h) in H322 cells were examined in WB and WST-1 analyses, respectively. Data in (a–d), and (h) represent mean and s.d. from three independent experiments.  $*p < 0.05$ ;  $**p < 0.01$ ;  $***p < 0.001$  vs. control, Student's t-test. Data in (e–g) are representative of three experiments.

**Fig 4. Targeting SGLT1 reduced the development of acquired resistance to EGFR TKI**

**in vivo.** **a**, The growth rate of xenograft tumors of H292 cells in response to treatments with erlotinib, phlorizin, or the combination was determined by measuring tumor size. **b**, The representative IHC staining of tumor sections from (a) were shown (left) and the results from five independent sections for all groups were quantitated with H-score (Right). Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m. **c–e**, SCID mice injected with A549-Luc cells were treated with erlotinib, phlorizin, or the combination. The tumor volumes were measured by detecting luminescent signals in the Lumina LT *In Vivo* Imaging System (upper in c) and the luciferase activity was quantitated (lower in c). After treatment for 3 weeks, the lungs of A549 cell-xenograft SCID mice were harvested and the numbers of lung tumor nodules were quantitated. (e) The representative IHC staining of tumor sections from (d) were shown (left) and the results from five

independent sections for all groups were quantitated with H-score (Right). Scale bar, 50 $\mu$ m.

Data represent mean  $\pm$  s.d. \* $p$  < 0.05 and \*\* $p$  < 0.01 vs. control, Student's t-test.

**Fig 5. SGLT1 expression negatively correlates with the clinical benefits of EGFR TKI in NSCLC patients.** **a** and **b**, Tumor tissues from total NSCLC patients ever treated with EGFR TKIs were subjected to IHC staining with anti-SGLT1 antibody (**a**, upper). Scale bar, 50 $\mu$ m. The clinical correlation of SGLT1 expression with overall survival (**a**) and progression-free survival (PFS) (**b**) rates were analyzed in Kaplan-Meier analysis. **c-f**, The EGFR TKI-treated NSCLC patients in (**a** and **b**) were further classified into wt EGFR (**c** and **d**) and mutant EGFR (**e** and **f**) groups for Kaplan-Meier overall survival and progression-free survival analysis. **g** and **h**, SGLT1 protein levels in the paired tissues from treatment-naïve tumors and acquired TKI-resistant tumors of 9 lung cancer patients were examined by IHC staining (upper in **g**) and quantitated (lower in **g**). The results from (**g**) were further divided into two groups according to the genders of patients (**h**). Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m.

**Fig 6. The increased EGFR mediated glucose uptake and viability of the acquired erlotinib-resistant cells through SGLT1 upregulation.** **a**, The protein expressions of ErbB family and SGLT1 in H322 cells and their ER clones were analyzed in WB analysis. **b-h**, The effects of EGFR siRNA or monoclonal antibody cetuximab on  $\alpha$ -MDG uptake (**b-d**), colony formation (**e** and **f**), and caspase and PARP cleavages (**g** and **h**) of H322/ER#2 and HCC827/ER#2 cells were examined, respectively. **i** and **j**, The effects of SGLT1 overexpression on the cetuximab-induced viability inhibition (**i**) or PARP and caspase 3 cleavages (**j**) of H322 cells were examined in WST-1 analysis and WB, respectively. Data in (**c-d**) and (**i**) represent as mean  $\pm$  s.d. from three independent experiments. \* $p$  < 0.05; \*\*\* $p$  <

0.001 vs. control, Student's t-test. Data in (a), (e-h) and (j) are representative of three experiments.

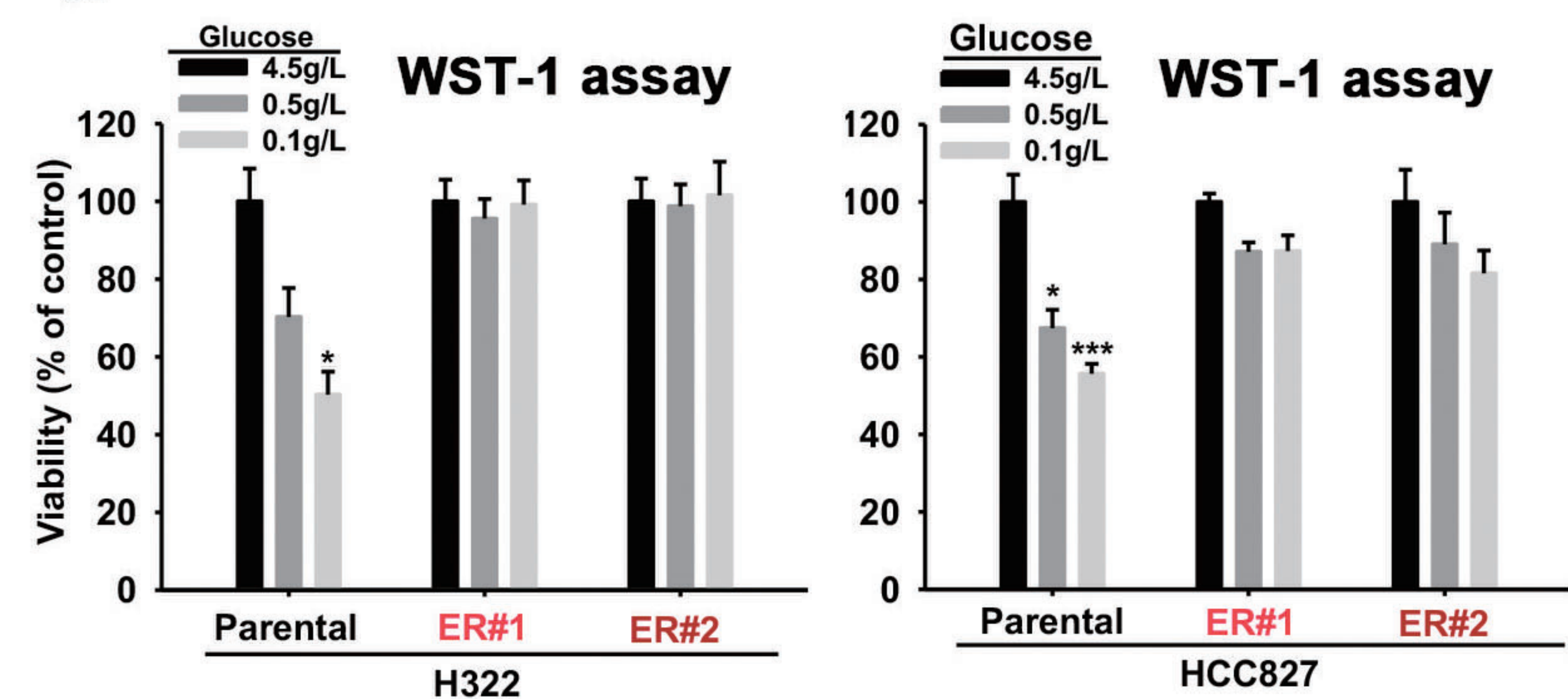
**Fig 7. EGFR Thr678 phosphorylation by PKC delta mediated the SGLT1/EGFR interaction for SGLT1 protein stabilization.** **a**, EGFR phosphorylations in H322 cells and their ER clones were examined in WB with the indicated antibodies. **b**, EGFR pT678 phosphorylation in expression of IHC pictures in lung sections (left) and the H-score of protein expression was shown (right). Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m. **c**, EGFR T678 phosphorylation and EGFR protein level in the paired treatment-naïve and acquired TKI-resistant tumor tissues of lung cancer patients was determined by IHC staining. Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m. **d** and **e**, The indicated protein expression in HEK-293T cells co-transfected with EGFR mutants and SGLT1 in the presence or absence of MG-132 was analyzed by WB (d) and IP/WB (e). **f**, The effects of GO6983, staurosporine, or sotrasturin on cell viability were determined in WST-1 assay. **g**, Glucose uptake in H322/ER cells in response to GO6983 treatment was analyzed with the 2-NBDG uptake assay. Scale bar, 330 $\mu$ m. **h-j**, The total lysates from H322/ER#2 cells treated with various PKC inhibitors (h), HEK-293T cells co-transfected with EGFR mutants and PKC $\delta$  (i), and H322 cells and ER clones (h) were subjected to WB with the indicated antibodies. **k**, PKC $\delta$  pS643/676 and PKC $\delta$  expression in the H292 cells-xenograft tumor tissues in response to erlotinib treatment were examined in IHC analysis (left panel), and the H-score of protein expression were shown (right). Scale bar, 50 $\mu$ m. Data shown in (a) and (d-j) represent mean and s.d. from three experiments. Data in (b) and (k) are representative of five experiments and shown as mean  $\pm$  s.d. \* $p$  < 0.05; \*\* $p$  < 0.01; \*\*\* $p$  < 0.001 vs. control group, Student's t-test.

**Fig 8. A proposed model illustrating the involvement of SGLT1-mediated metabolic reprogramming in the development of acquired resistance to EGFR TKIs.** In sensitive NSCLC cells, EGFR TKIs suppressed EGFR and its downstream Akt and ERK signaling pathways as well as the membrane level of GLUT and glucose uptake. Reduced glucose uptake leads to lower ATP production, an increase in the intracellular AMP/ATP ratio, and activation of AMPK for the suppression of mTORC1 and tumor growth. In the presence of TKIs, however, PKC $\delta$  is activated by mTORC2 to phosphorylate EGFR at T678 to stabilize SGLT1 protein in an EGFR tyrosine kinase-independent manner while EGFR/mTORC1/S6K axis was inhibited. Even under low glucose environment, the elevated SGLT1 engulfs more glucose to maintain intracellular glucose level and subsequently ATP production for cell survival, leading to the acquired EGFR TKI resistance. Co-treatment with SGLT1 inhibitors may avoid the development of acquired EGFR TKI resistance.

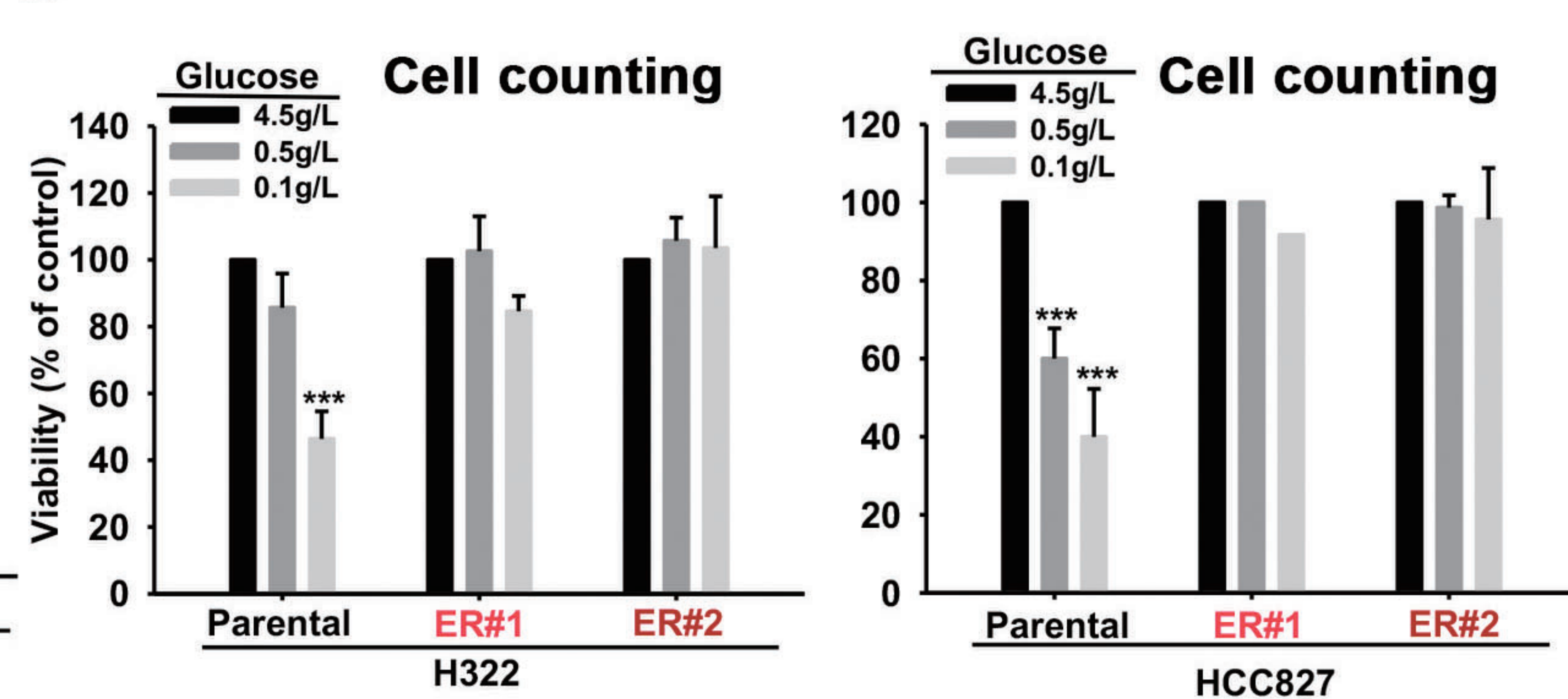


**Figure 1**

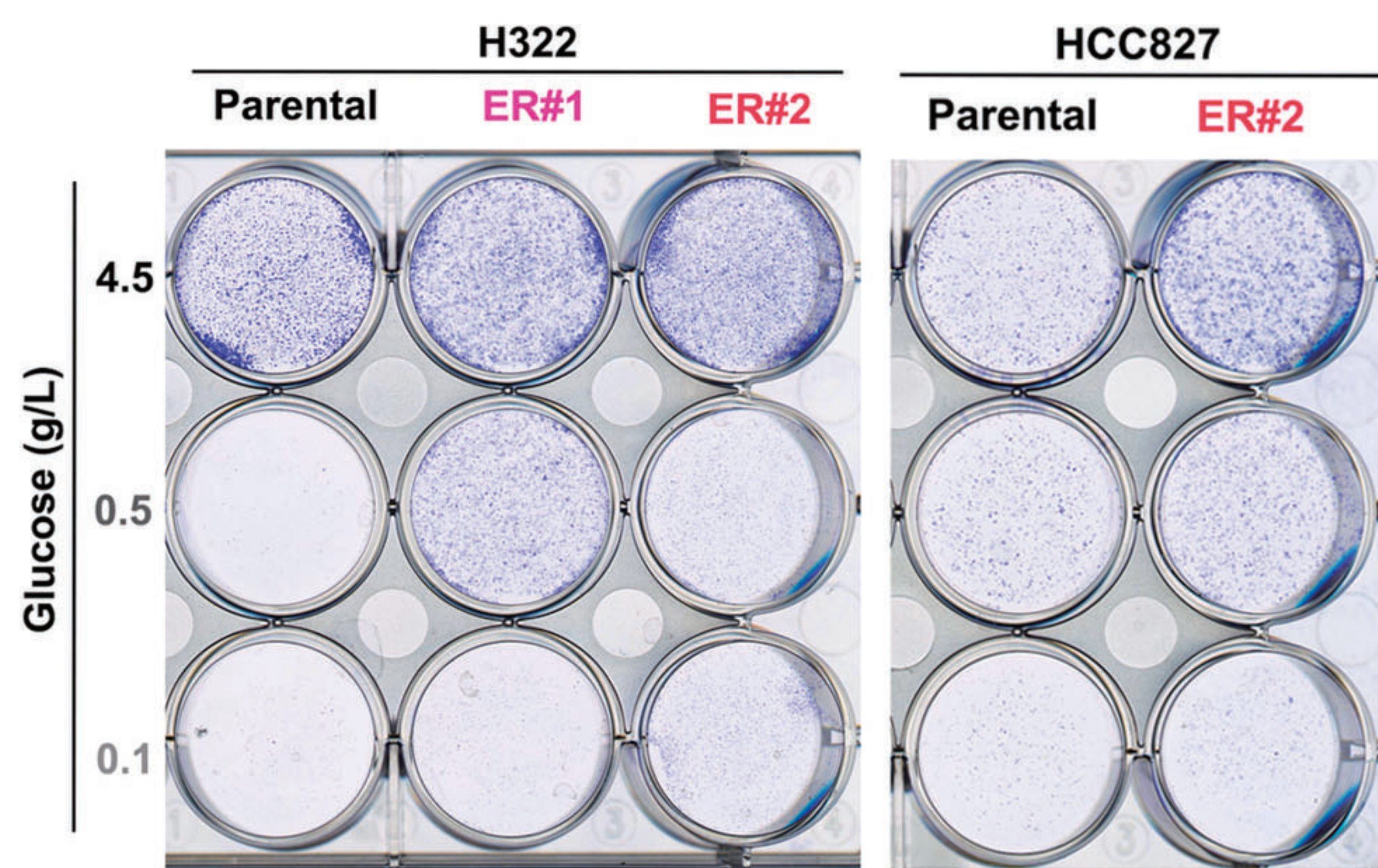
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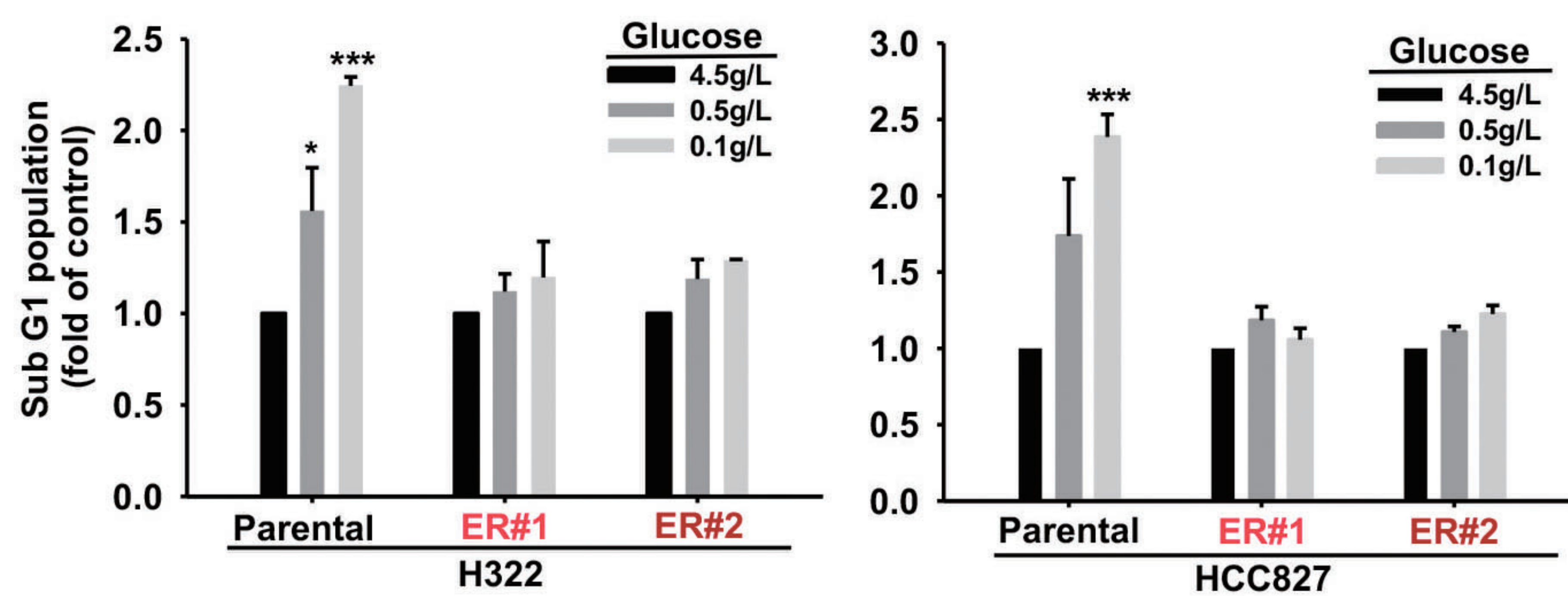
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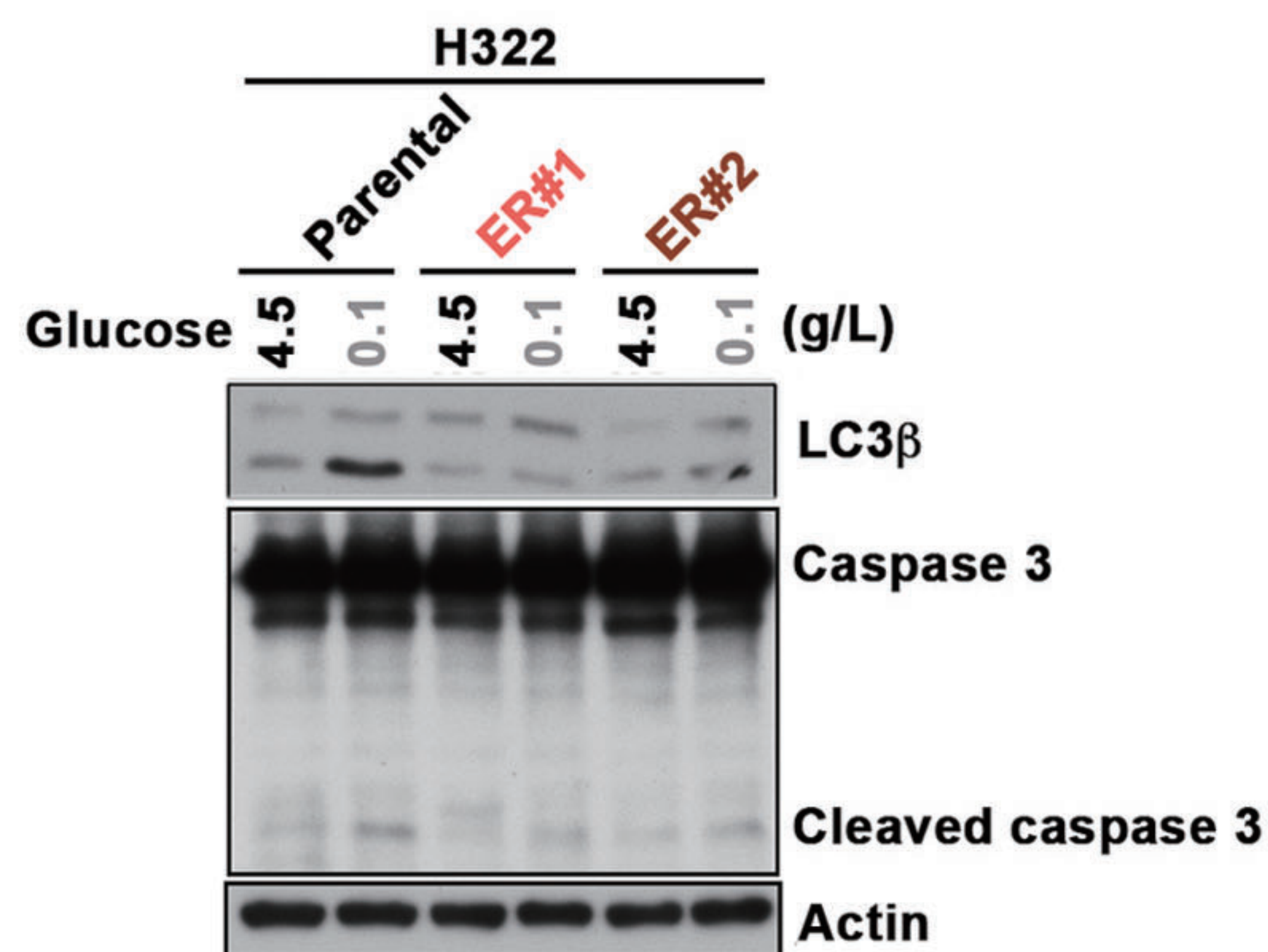
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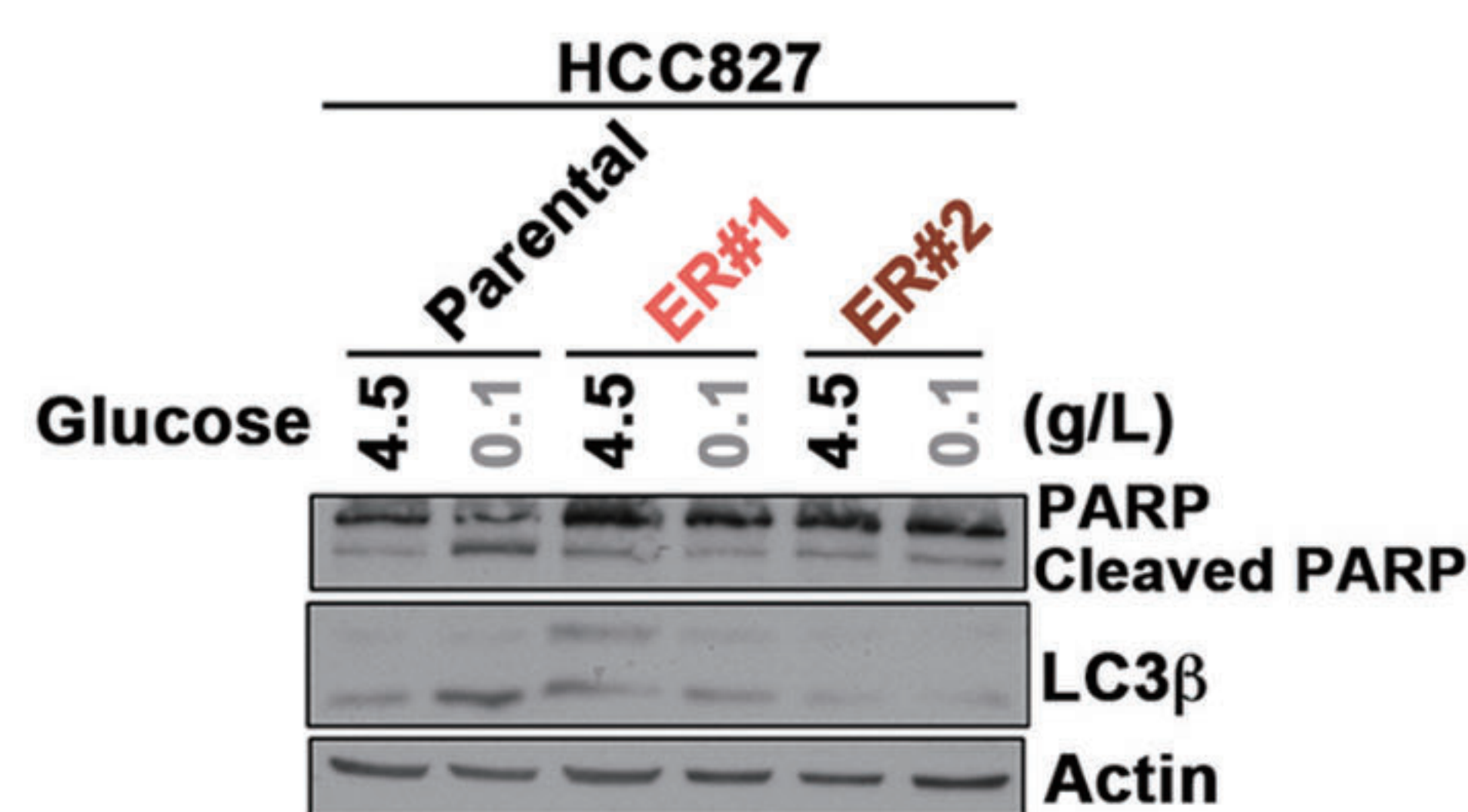
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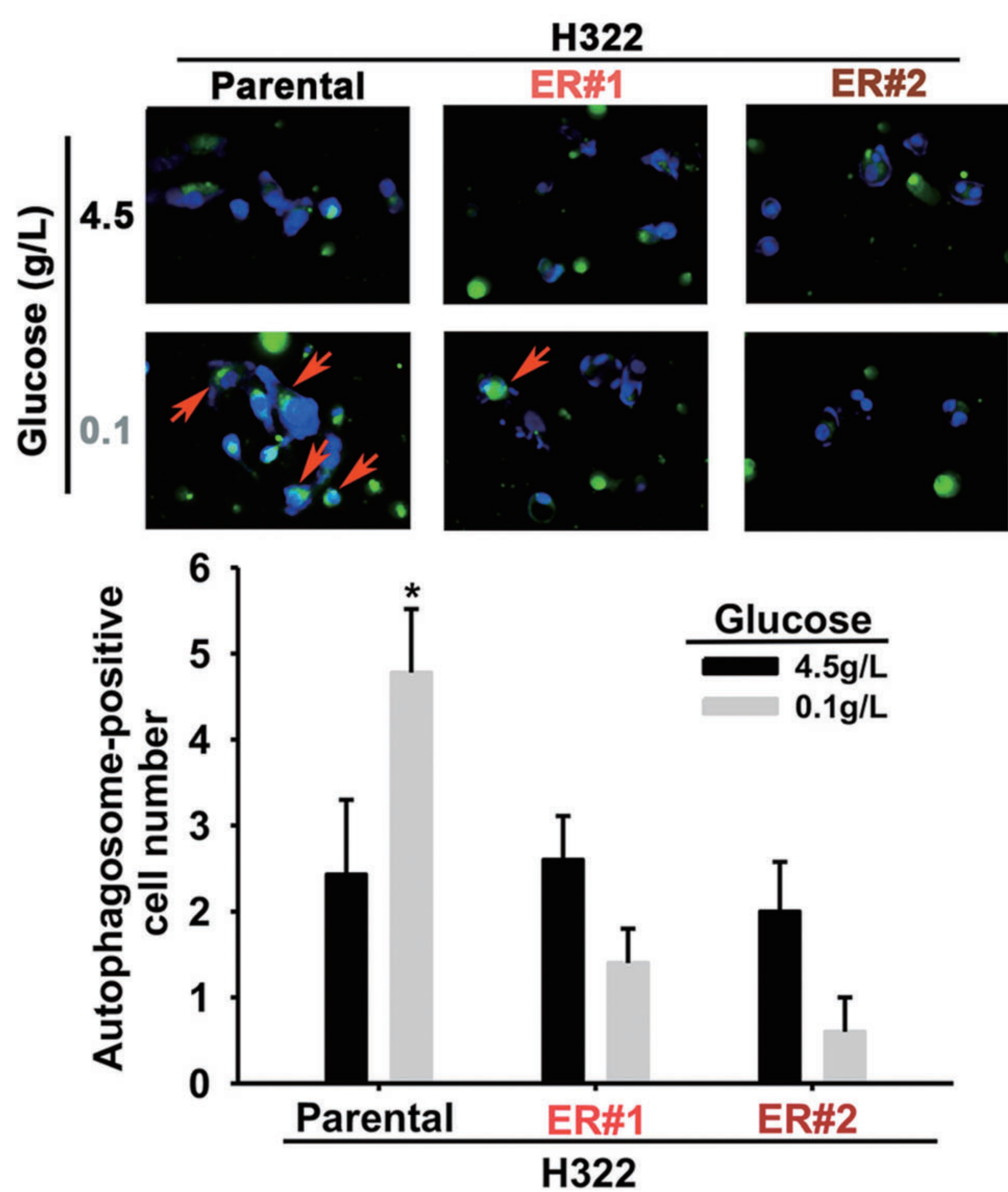
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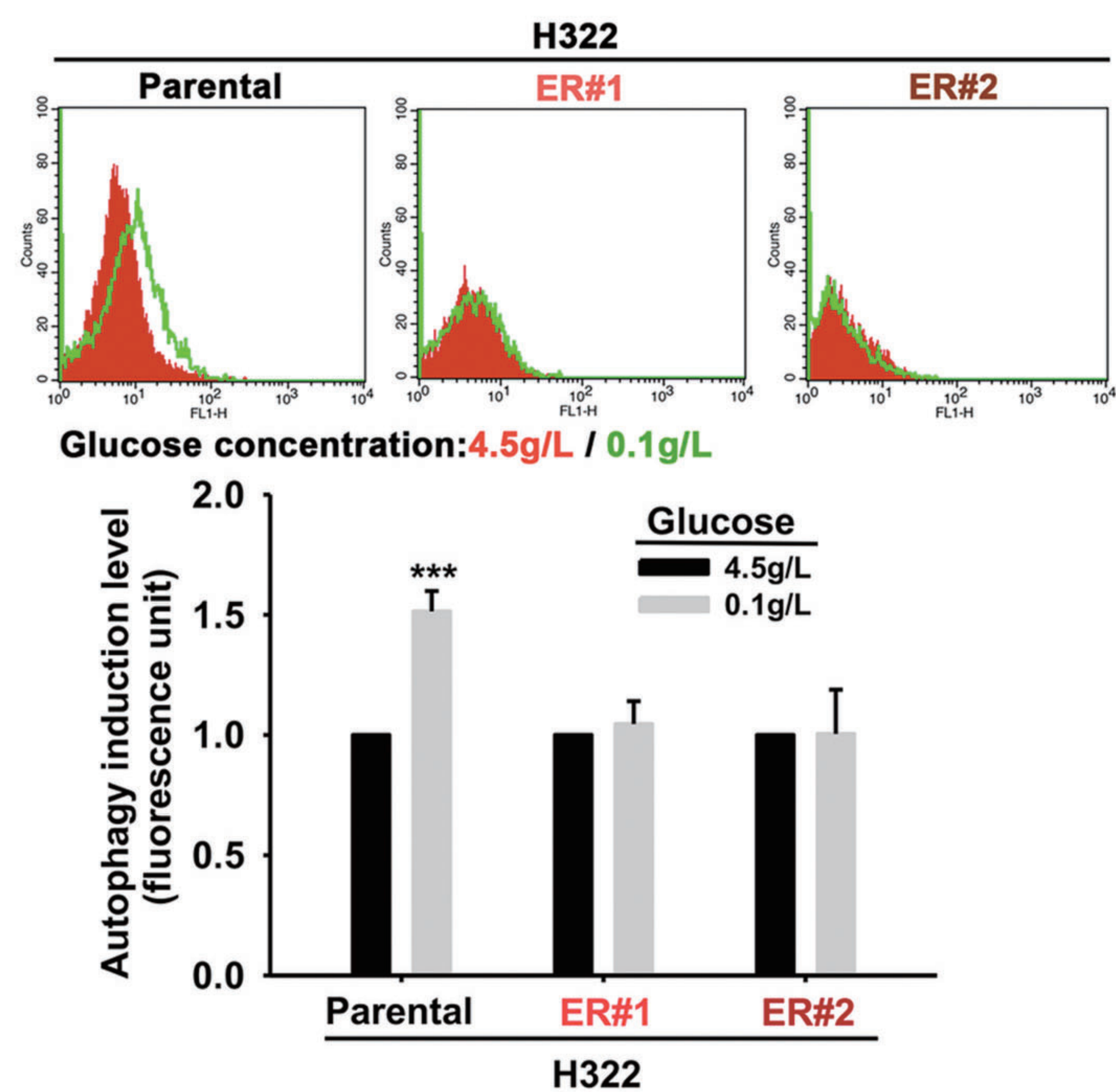
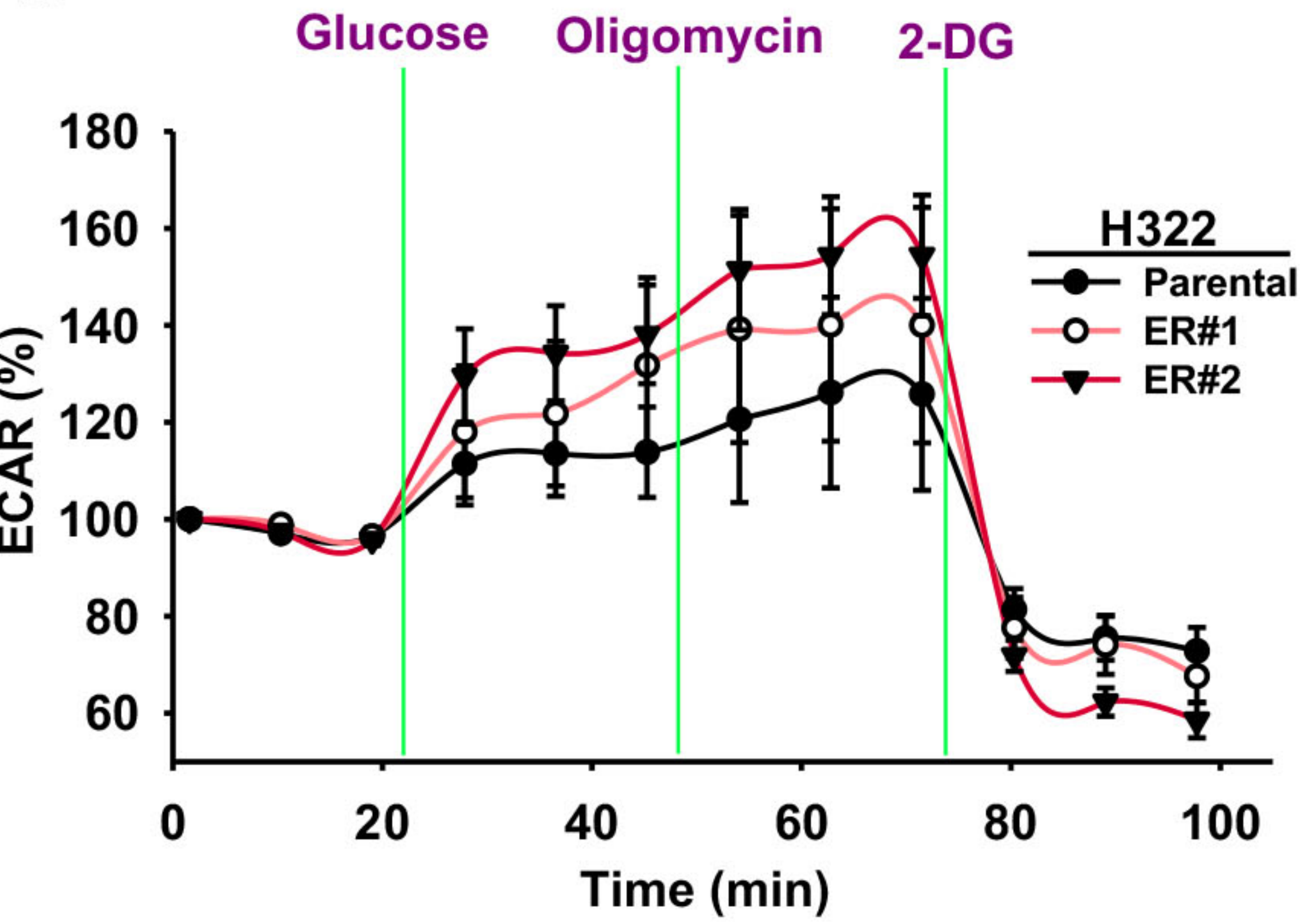


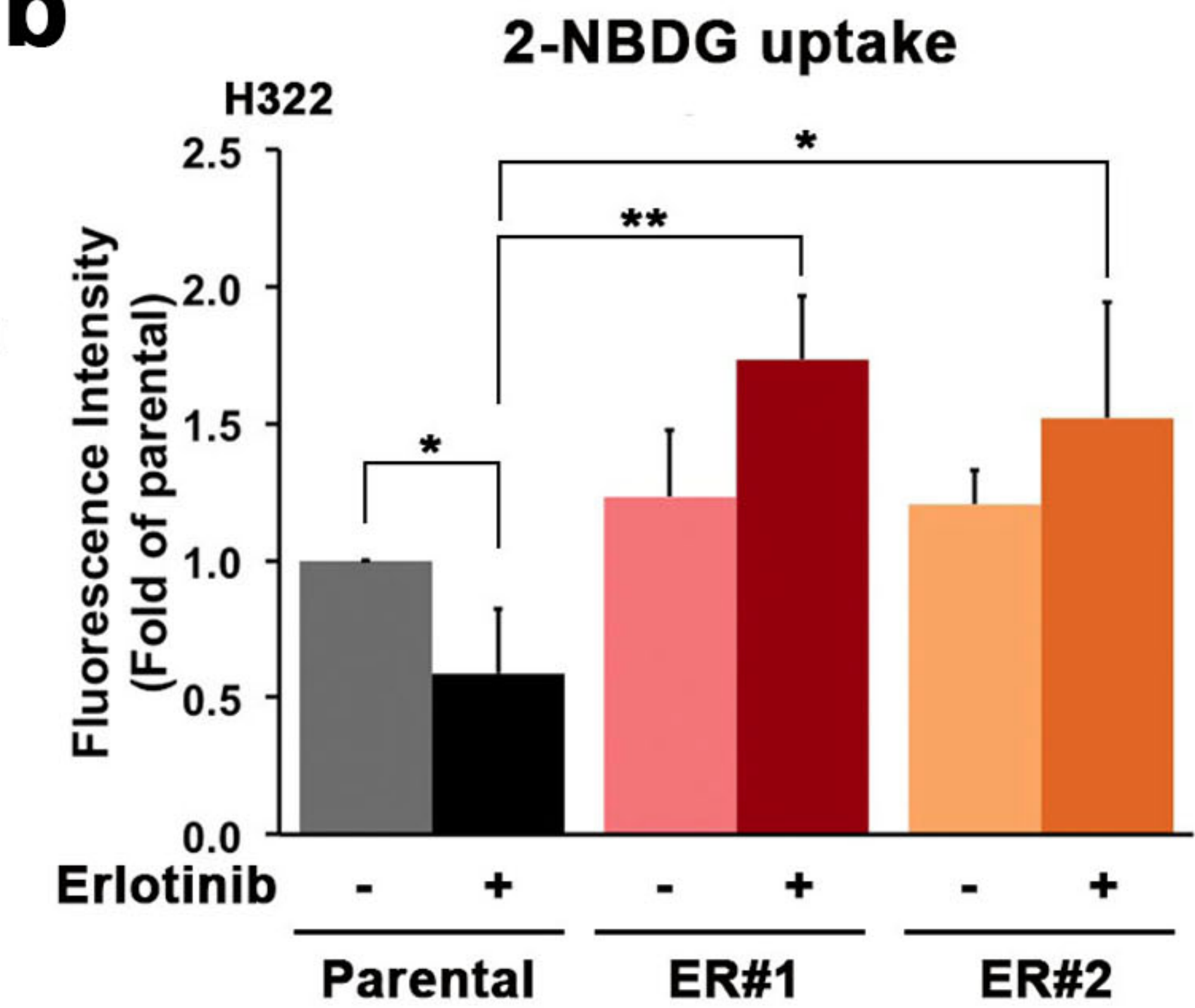


Figure 2

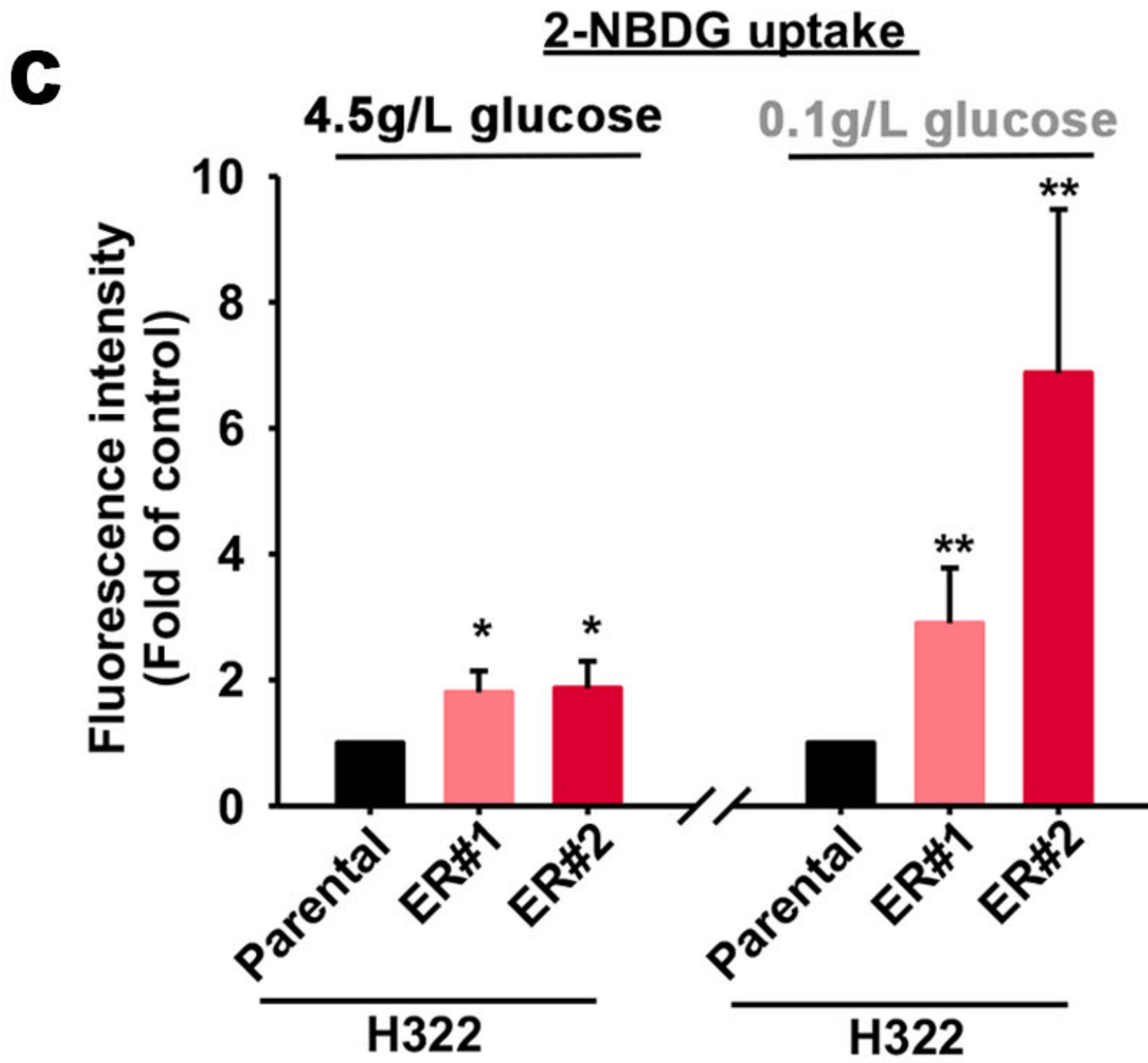
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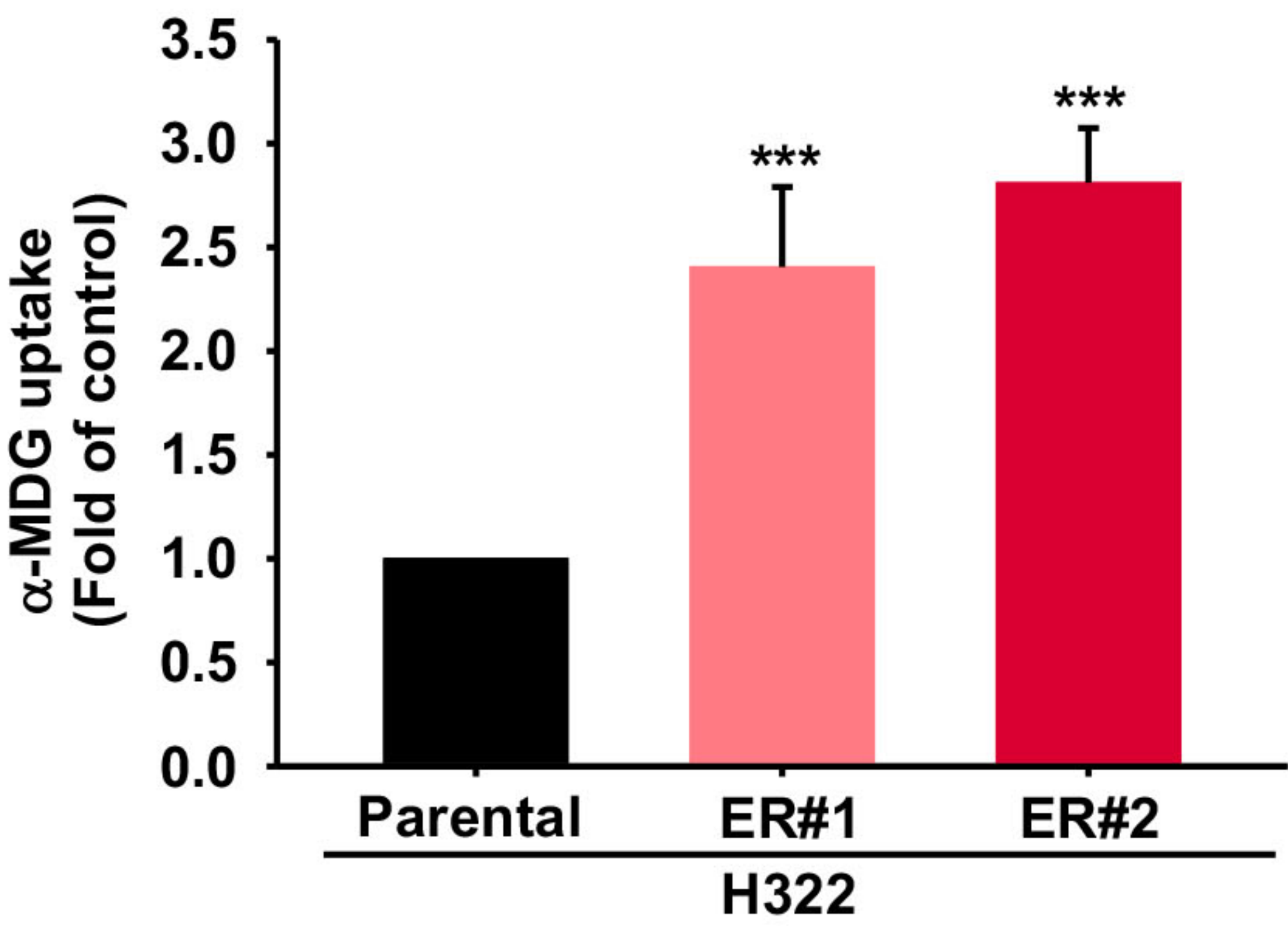
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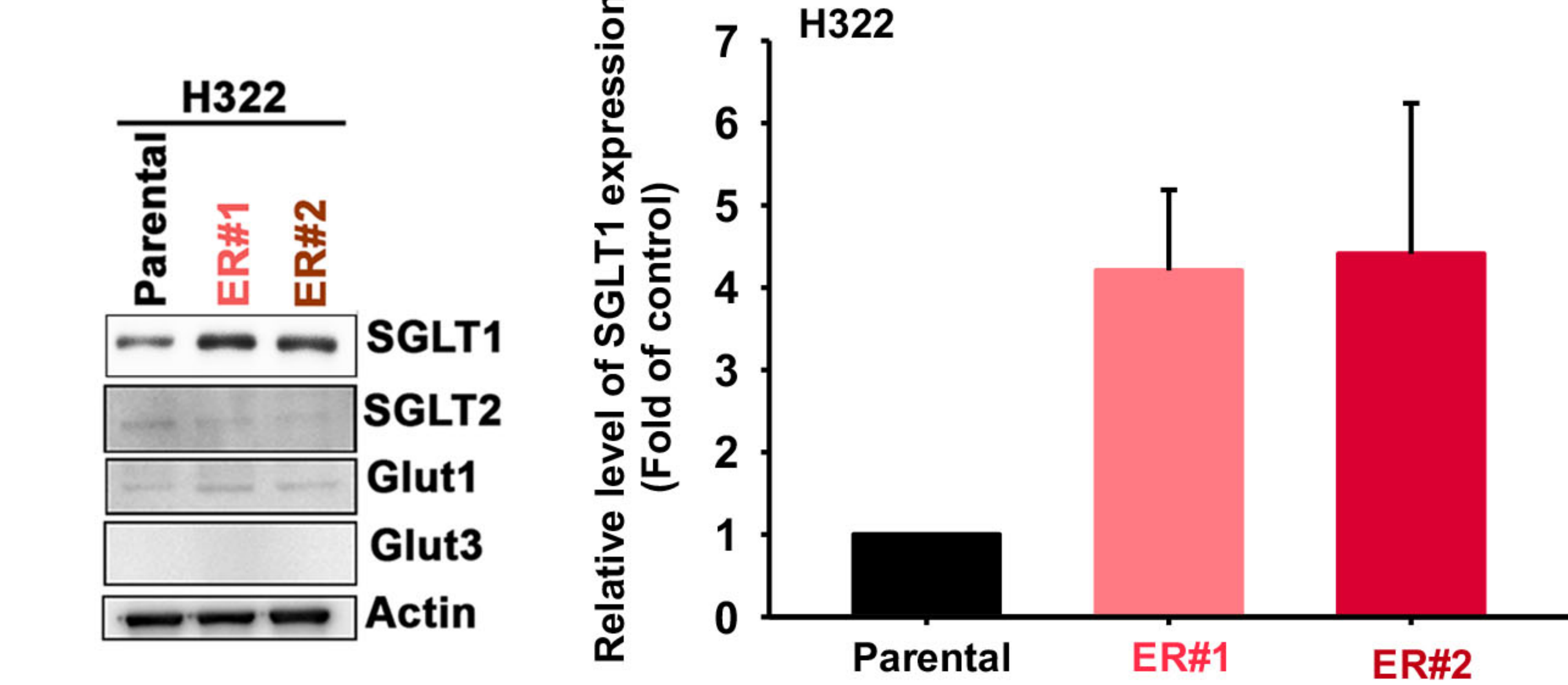
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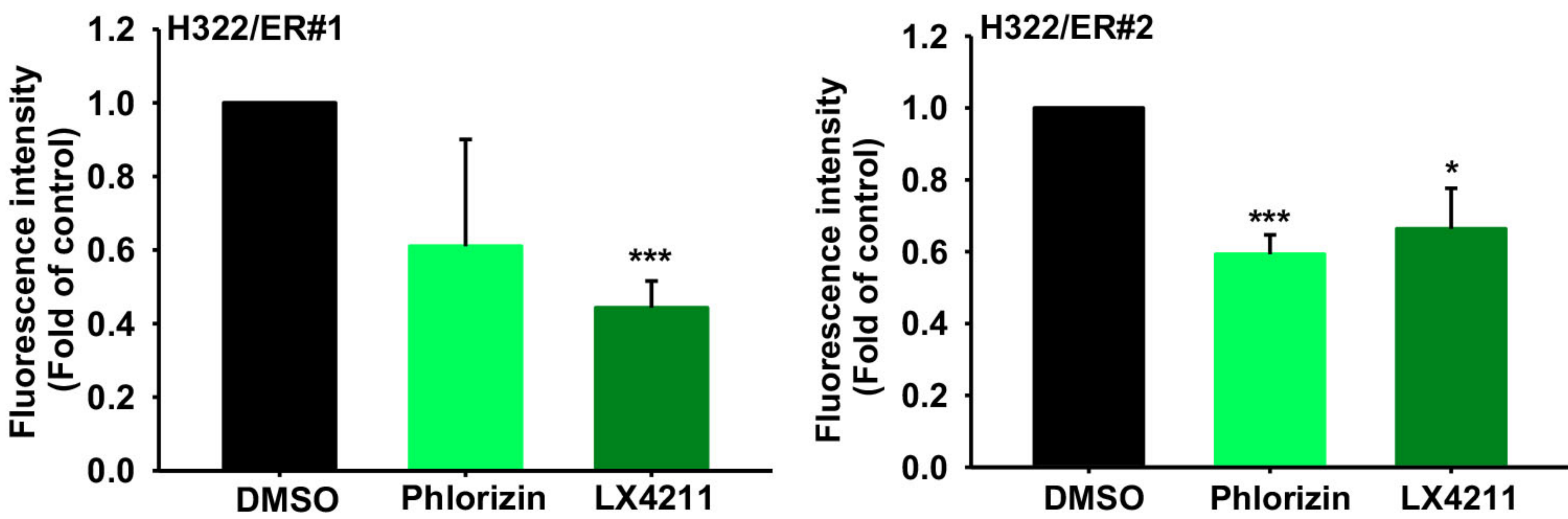
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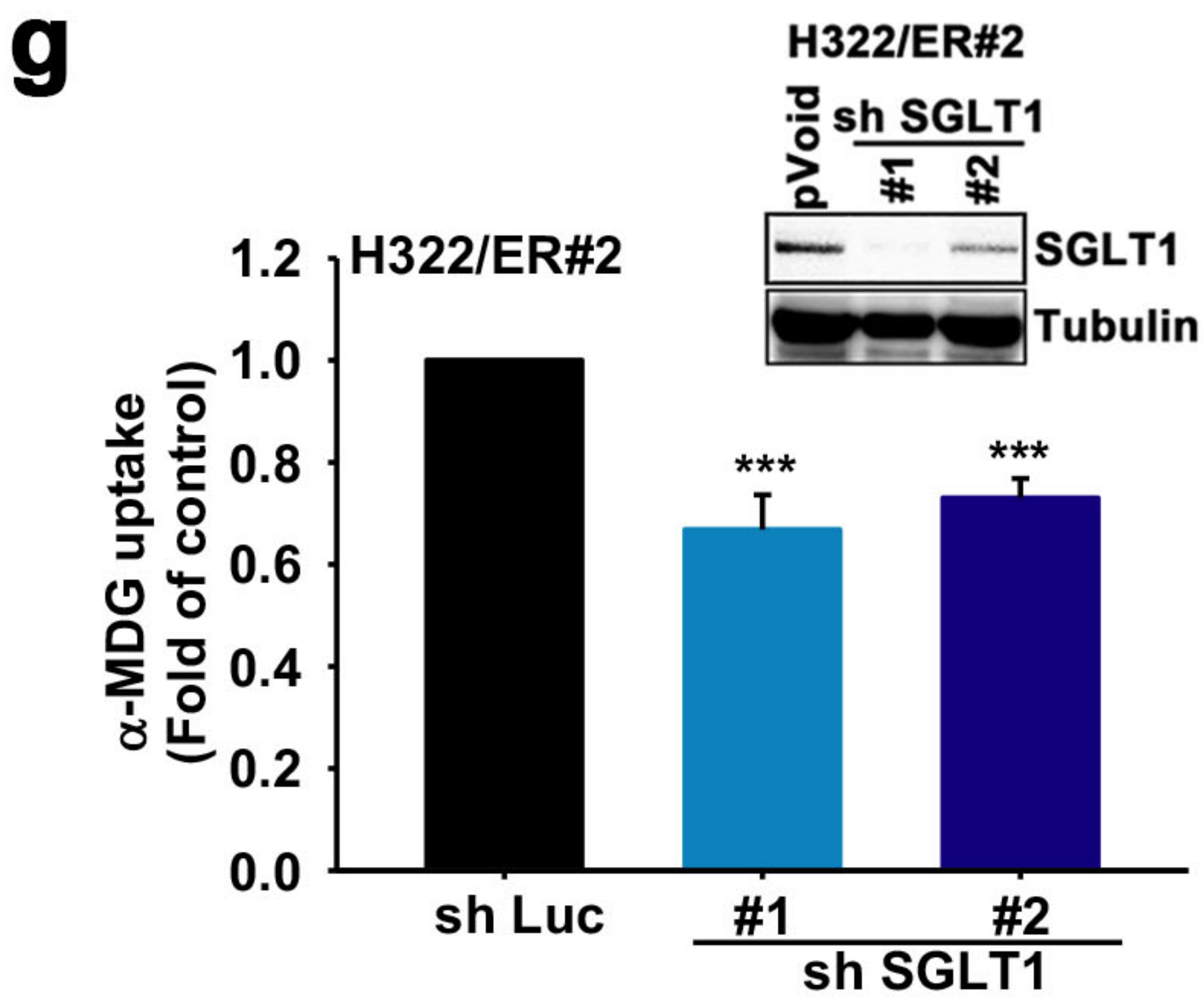




Figure 3

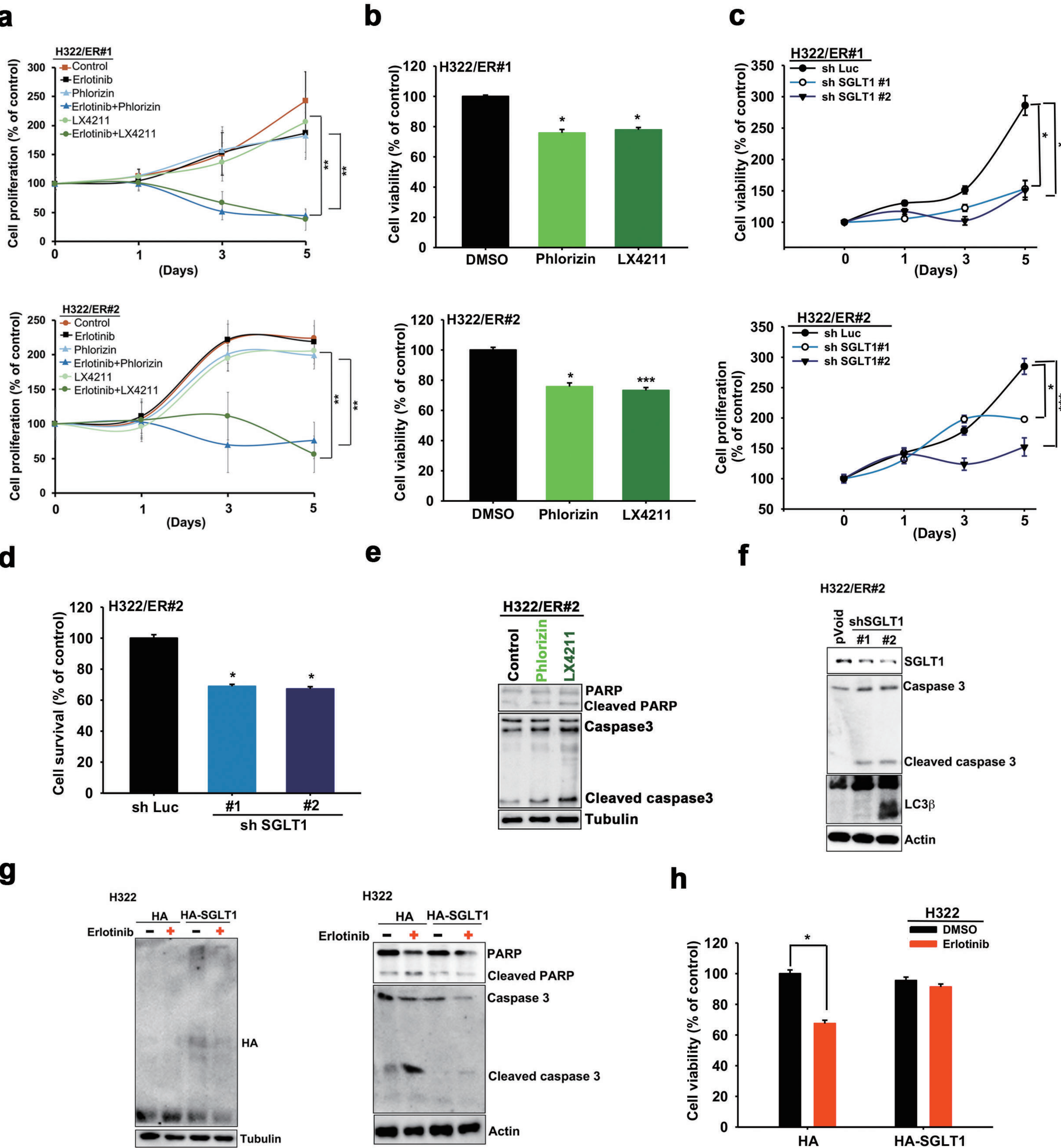
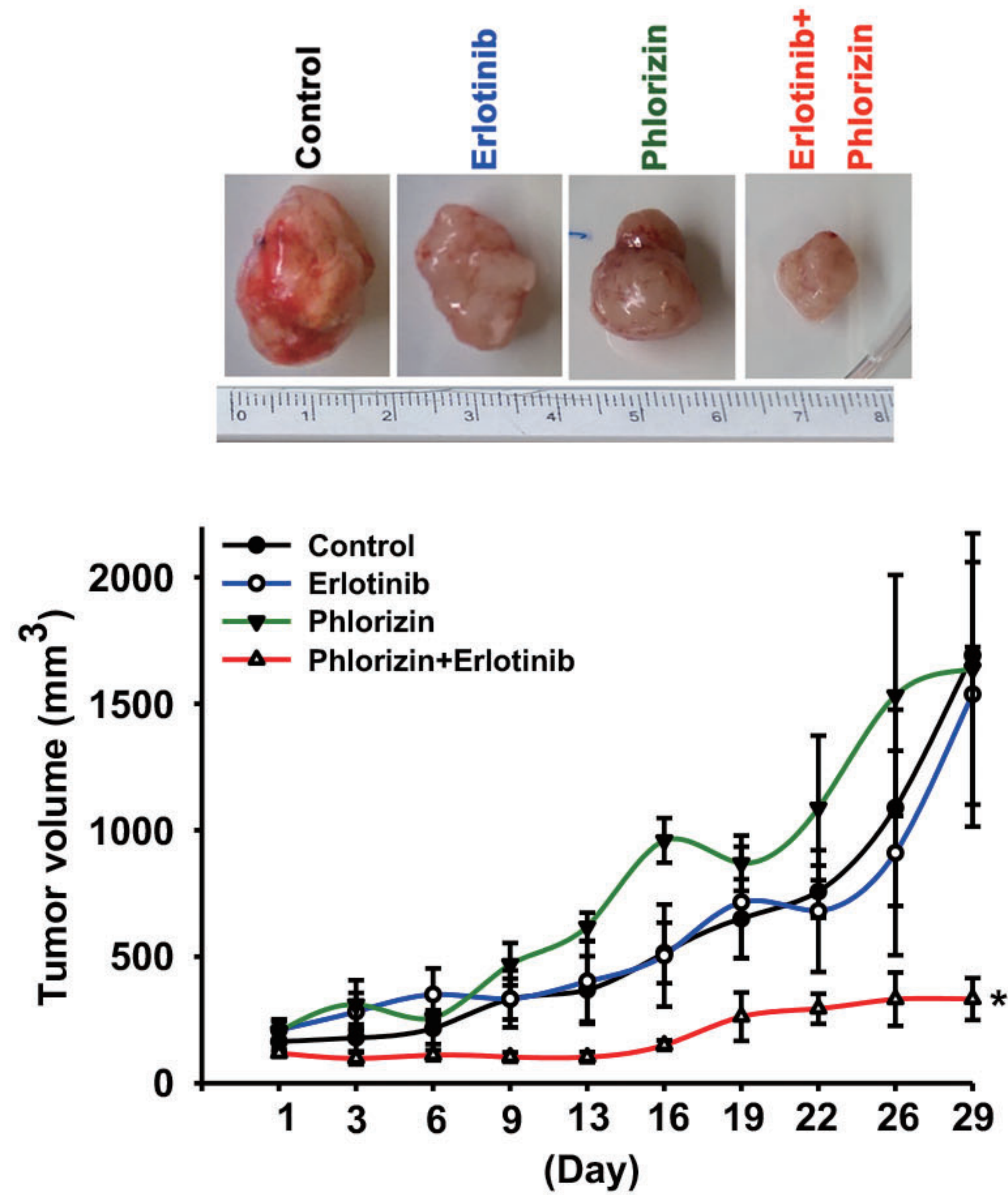


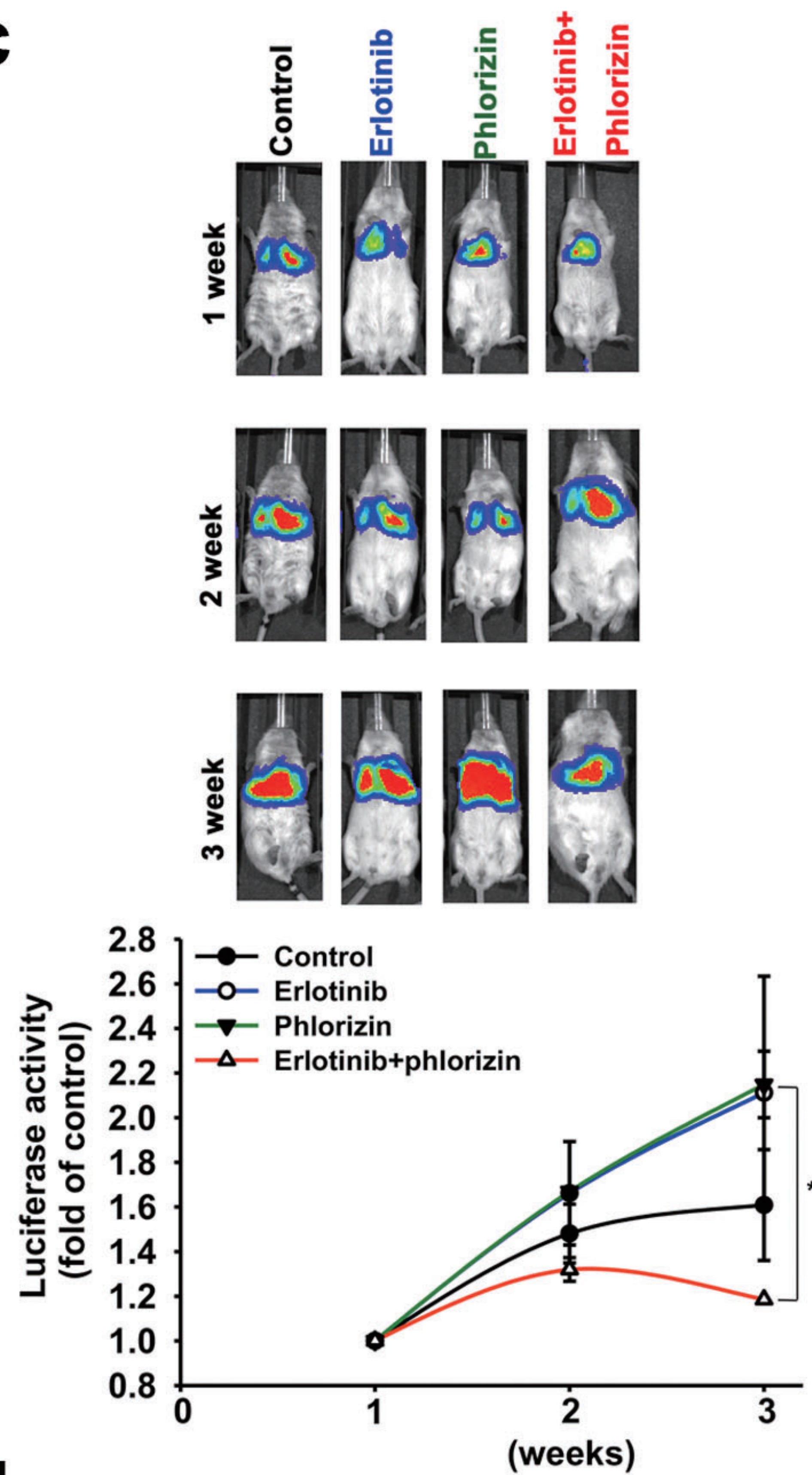


Figure 4

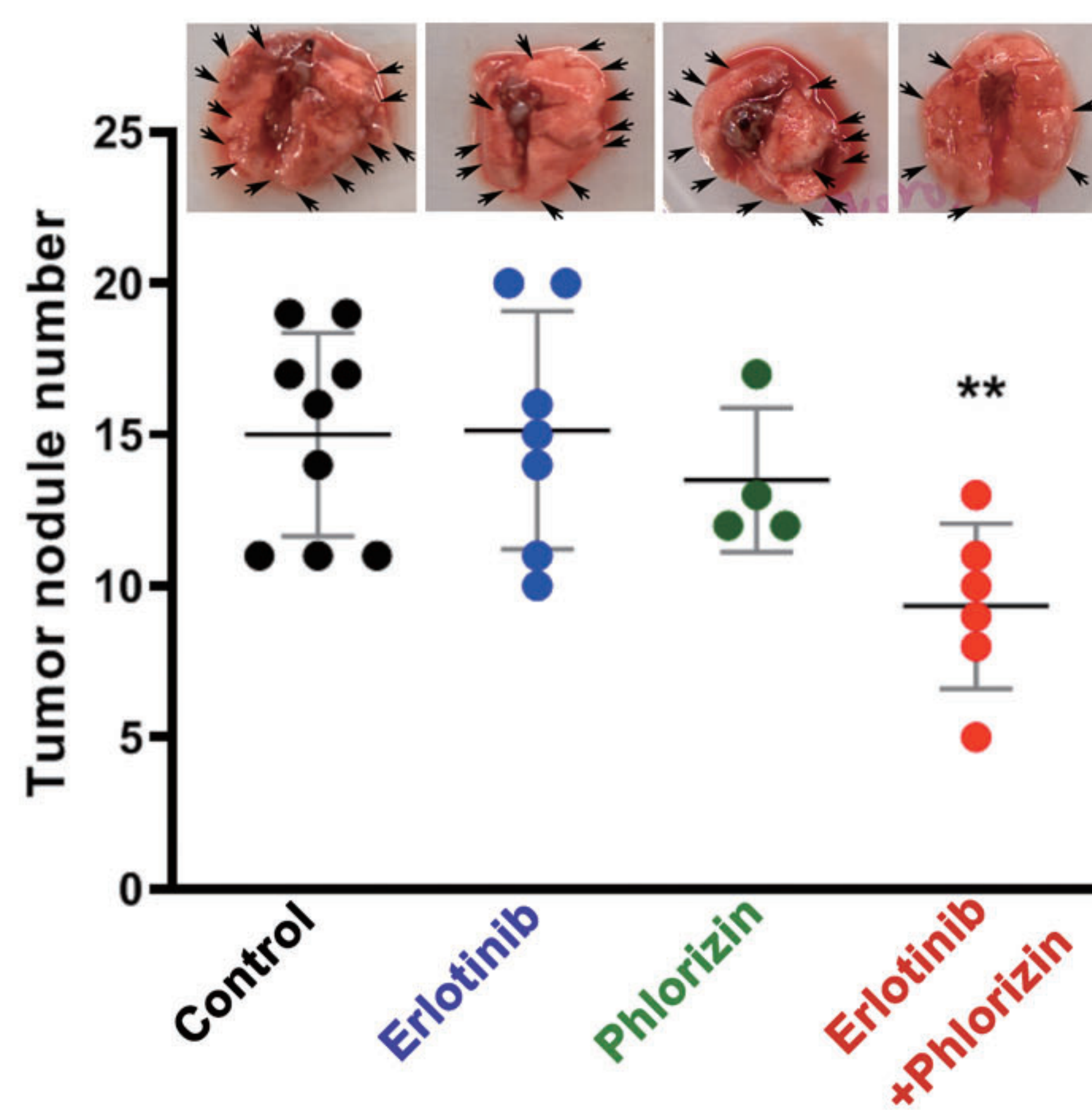
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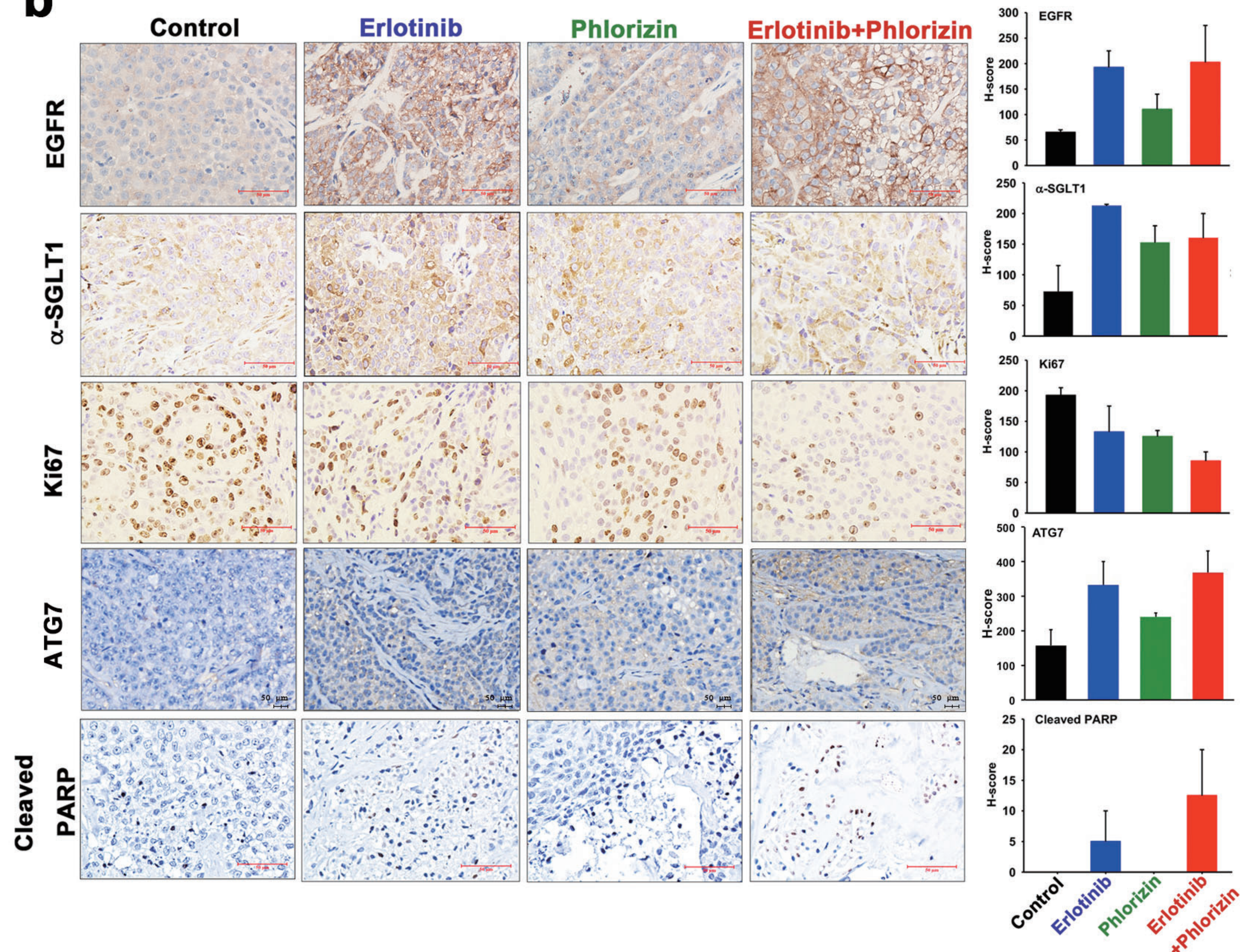
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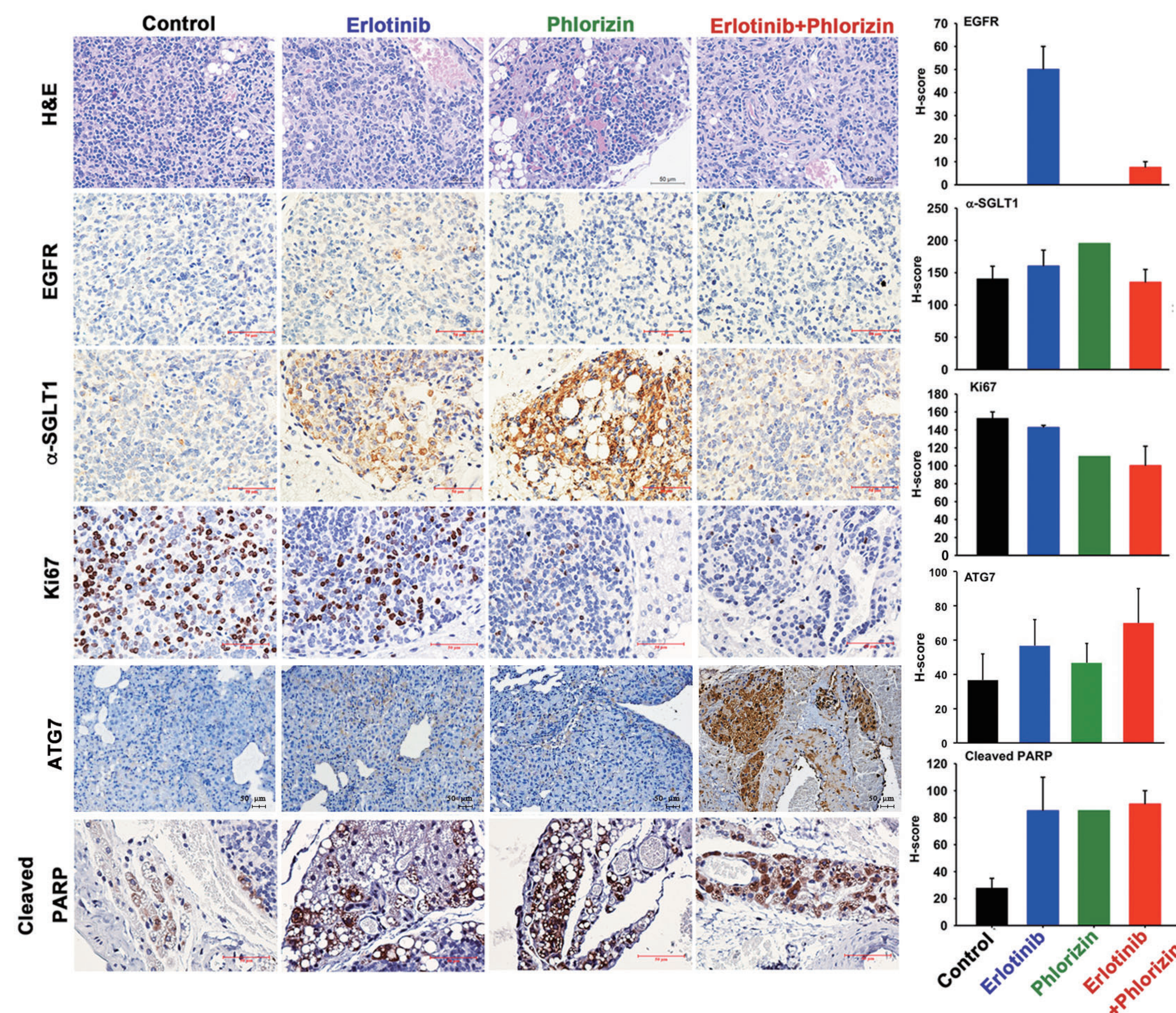




Figure 5

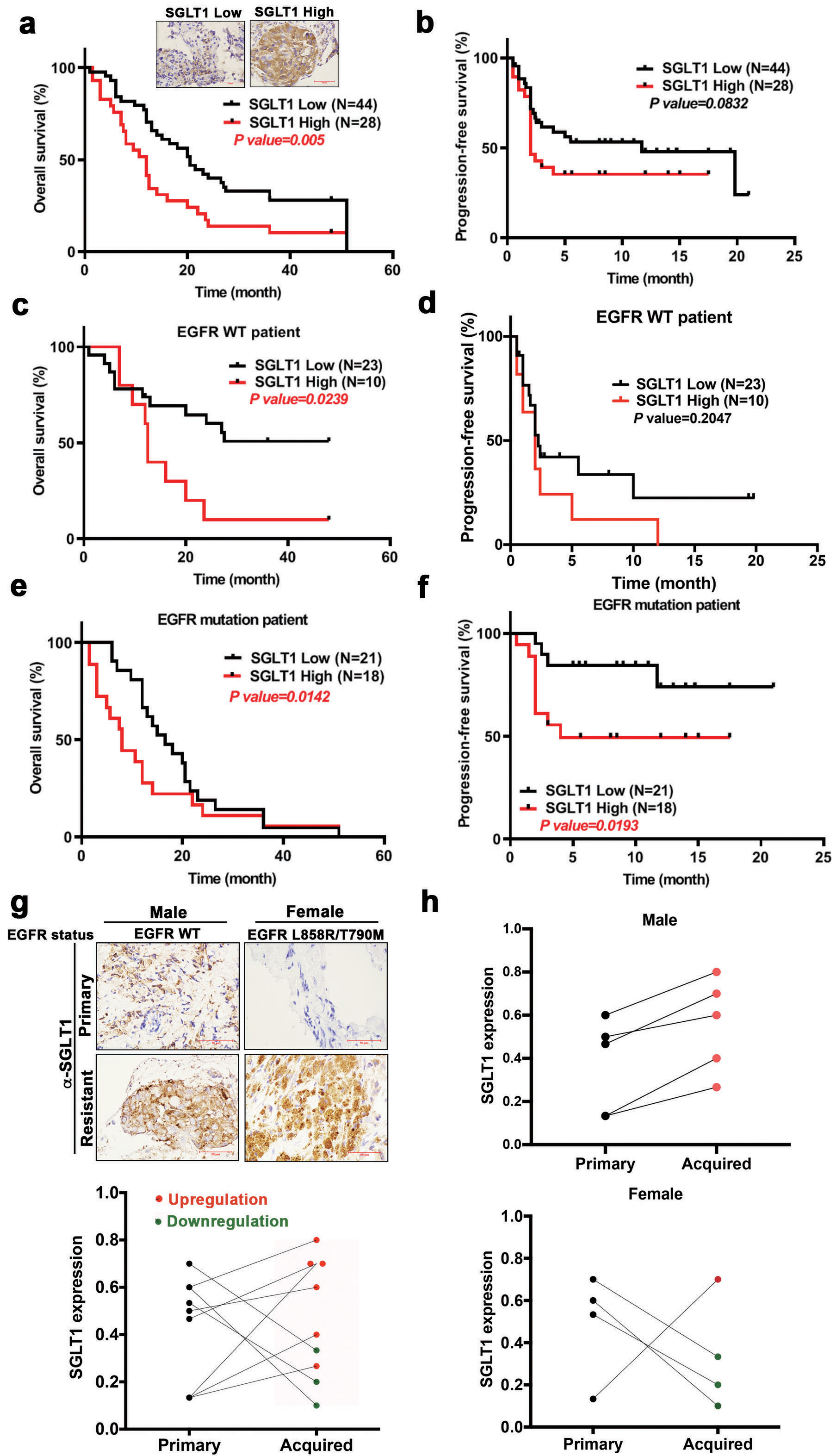
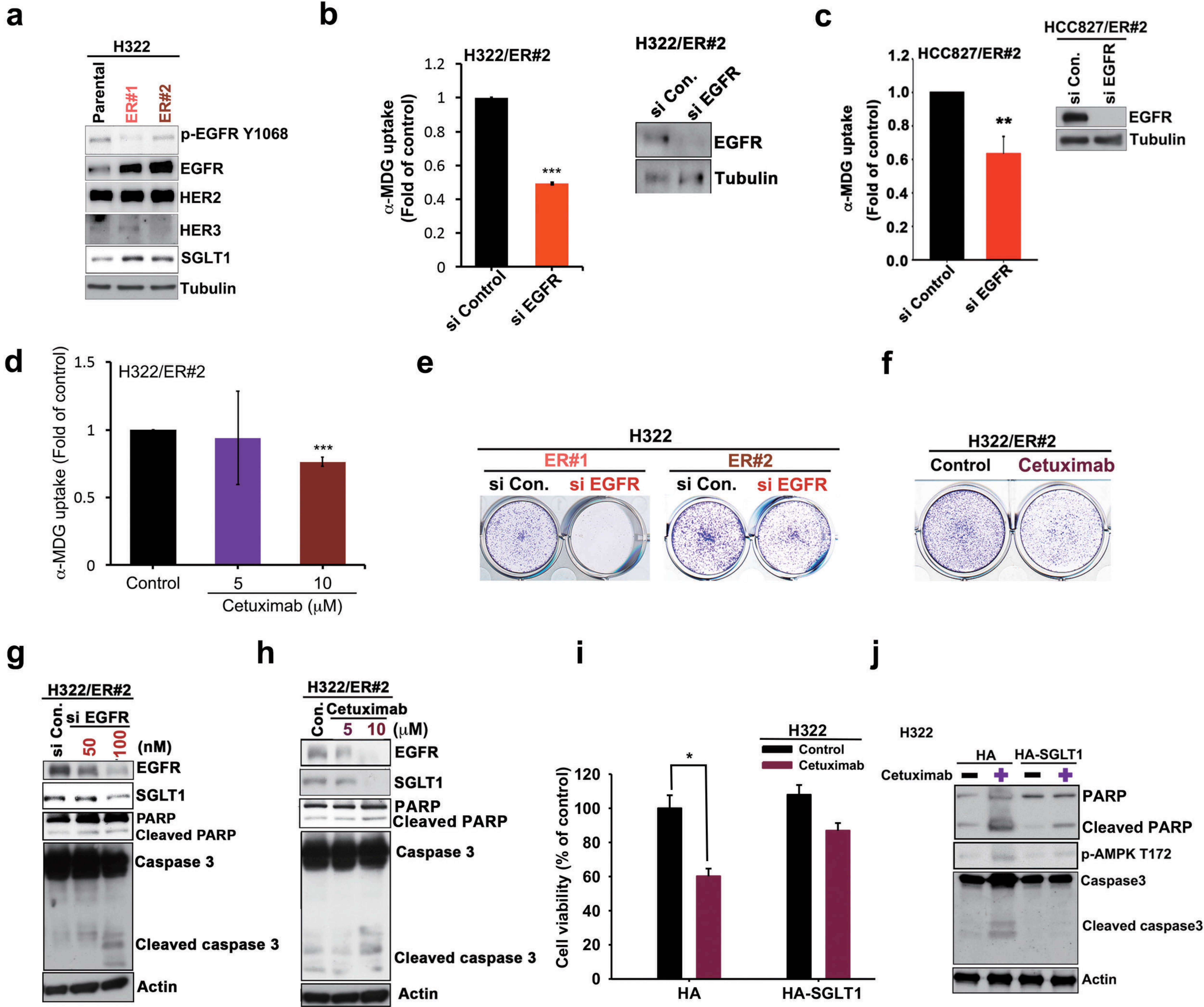




Figure 6





**Figure 7**

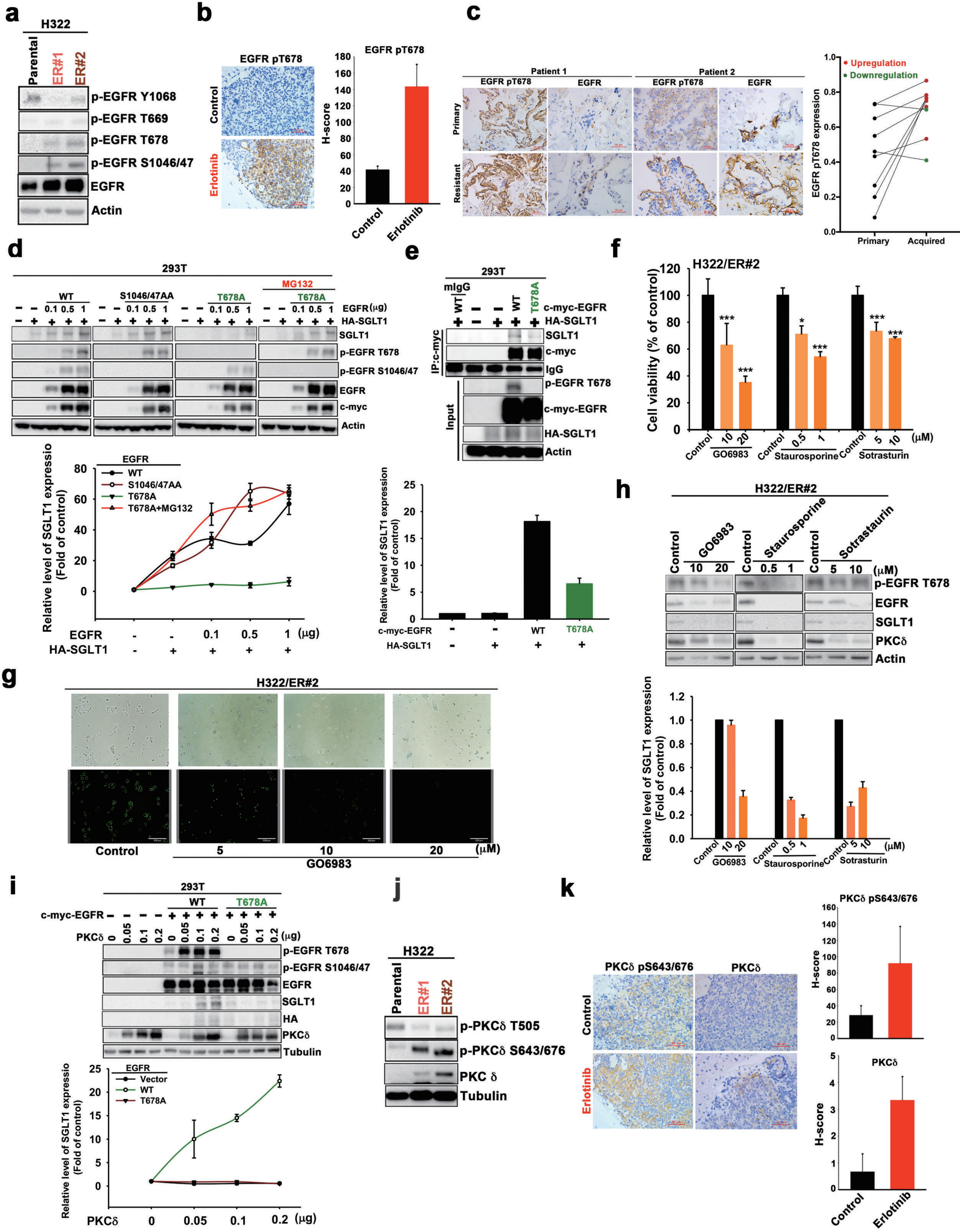
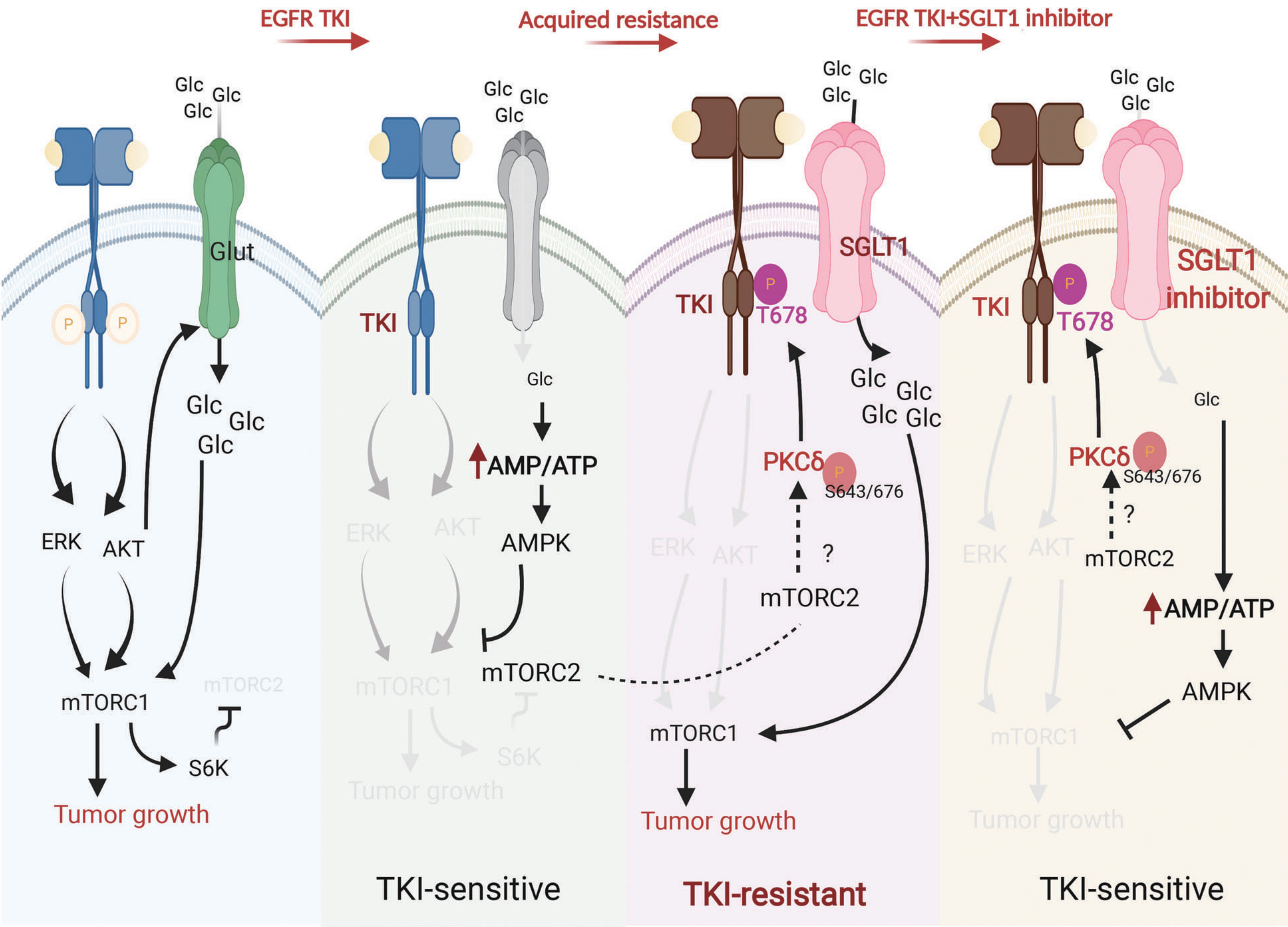




Figure 8





## Supporting Information

### **PKC $\delta$ -mediated SGLT1 upregulation confers the acquired resistance of NSCLC to EGFR TKIs**

Chia-Hung Chen, Bo-Wei Wang, Yu-Chun Hsiao, Chun-Yi Wu, Fang-Ju Cheng, Te-Chun Hsia, Chih-Yi Chen, Yihua Wang, Zhang Weihua, Ruey-Hwang Chou, Chih-Hsin Tang, Yun-Ju Chen, Ya-Ling Wei, Jennifer L. Hsu, Chih-Yen Tu, Mien-Chie Hung, Wei-Chien Huang

This file includes:

Materials and Methods

Supplementary Fig 1~8

Supplementary Table 1

## **Materials and Methods**

### ***Reagents and plasmids***

Erlotinib (#S1023) and gefitinib (#S5098) were obtained from Selleckchem (Houston, TX, USA). SGLT inhibitors phlorizin (# 60-81-1) and LX4211 (# HY-15516) were obtained from PubChem (Bethesda, MD, USA) and MedChem Express (Monmouth Junction, NJ, USA), respectively. D-glucose (#15023-021) was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA). 2-Deoxy-D-glucose (2-DG) (#MER-25972), 3-methyladenine (3-MA) (#SI-M9281), chloroquine (CQ) (#SI-C6628), propidium iodide (PI) (#P4170), and oligomycin (# 75351) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. MG-132 (# 10012628), GO6983 (# 13311), sotrastaurin (#16726), staurosporine (#81590), and everolimus (#11597) were purchased from Cayman Chemical (Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA). HBDDE (#sc-202174) was obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. pLKO-shSGLT1#1(TRCN0000043590), pLKO-shSGLT1#2 (TRCN0000043592), pCMV-ΔR8.91, and pMD.G were purchased from the National RNAi Core Facility of Academia Sinica (Taipei, Taiwan).

The rabbit polyclonal antibodies specific for SGLT1 was generated from LTK BioLaboratories (Taoyuan, Taiwan). The rabbit polyclonal antibodies against EGFR (#sc-03; RRID:AB\_631420), HER2 (Neu) (#sc-393712; RRID:AB\_2810840), HER3 (#sc-7390; RRID:AB\_2262346), HER4 (#sc-283; RRID:AB\_2231308), Glut1 (#sc-7903; RRID:AB\_2190936) were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Dallas, Texas, USA). The rabbit polyclonal antibodies specific for PARP (#9542; RRID:AB\_2160739), cleaved PARP (#5625; RRID:AB\_10699459), phospho-EGFR S1046/47 (#2238; RRID:AB\_331129), phospho-EGFR T669 (#3056; RRID:AB\_1264152), phospho-EGFR T678 (#14343; RRID:AB\_2798457),

37 phospho-PKC  $\delta$  S643/676 (#9376; RRID:AB\_2168834), phospho-AMPK T172  
38 (#2531; RRID:AB\_330330), phospho-mTOR S2448 (#2971; RRID:AB\_330970),  
39 mTOR (#2983; RRID:AB\_2105622) and caspase 3 (#9662; RRID:AB\_331439) were  
40 from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA). LC3 (#NB100-2220SS;  
41 RRID:AB\_791015) antibody was acquired from Novus Biologicals (Centennial CO,  
42 USA). Rabbit polyclonal antibodies specific for PKC  $\delta$  (#ab182126) and  
43 phospho-PKC $\delta$  T505 (# ab60992; RRID:AB\_944848) were obtained from Abcam  
44 (Cambridge, United Kingdom, England). Mouse polyclonal antibody specific for  
45 phospho-EGFR Y1068 (#2236; RRID:AB\_331792) was purchased from Cell  
46 Signaling Technology. Mouse polyclonal antibody specific for Glut3 (sc-74497;  
47 RRID:AB\_1124974) was acquired from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. The specific  
48 rabbit polyclonal antibodies of IHC staining for SGLT1 (#ab14685;  
49 RRID:AB\_301410) and phospho-EGFR T678 (#ab194733) were purchased from  
50 Abcam. Goat polyclonal antibody specific of SGLT2 (#sc-47402; RRID:AB\_2189561)  
51 was obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. Actin (#A2228; RRID:AB\_476697)  
52 and Tubulin (#T5168; RRID:AB\_477579) were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich (St.  
53 Louis, Missouri, USA). HA (#11583816001; RRID:AB\_514505) and Ki67  
54 (#RM-9106; RRID:AB\_2341197) were purchased from Roche (Basel, Switzerland)  
55 and Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA), respectively.

56

### 57 ***Cell culture and establishment of erlotinib-resistant (ER) clones***

58 Human lung cancer H322 (CRL-5806; RRID:CVCL\_1556), H292 (CRL1848;  
59 RRID:CVCL\_0455), A549/Luc, and HCC827 (CRL-2868; RRID:CVCL\_2063) cell  
60 lines and their erlotinib-resistant (ER) derivatives were cultured in RPMI 1640  
61 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 100 U/mL penicillin, and 100 mg/mL

streptomycin, with 10 mM HEPES. All cancer cell lines were maintained in a humidified 5% CO<sub>2</sub> incubator at 37 °C. The ER clones of various lung cancer cell lines were established from the parental cells by chronic treatment with gradually increasing concentrations (up to 1μM) of erlotinib.

#### ***Cell counting and cell viability assays***

Cell viability was carried out in WST-1 colorimetric assays. Briefly, cells seeded in 96-well plates were pretreated with indicated inhibitors or infected with viral shRNA for 24 or 72 hrs followed by the incubation with 10μl/well of WST-1 (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) reagent to the cells already cultured in 100μl/ well (1:10 final dilution) for 1 hr. The relative number of cells was determined by measuring the absorbance at 450 nm.

#### ***Clonogenic formation assay***

Cells ( $1 \times 10^4$  cells/well) in 12-well plates were grown in the presence of different concentrations of glucose or the indicated inhibitors for 14 days. The colonies were fixed and stained with 30% ethanol containing 1% crystal violet for 30 mins, and then were washed with ddH<sub>2</sub>O.

#### ***Autophagosome formation assay***

Cells seeded in 6-well plates were cultured with different glucose concentrations for 24 hr and were then stained with Cyto-ID<sup>®</sup> autophagy green dye (Enzo Lifesciences, Farmingdale, NY, USA) at 37 °C for 1 hr. Cells were washed with PBS three times and then fixed with 4% formaldehyde at room temperature for 20 min. The signal of autophagosome was detected by ECHO Revolve (San Diego, CA, USA) or measured



87 in BD FACSCalibur.

88

89 ***Cell cycle analysis***

90 Cell seeded in 6-well plates were cultured with different glucose concentrations or  
91 treated with various inhibitors for 24 hr and fixed with ice-cold 70 % ethanol  
92 overnight at -20 °C. The cells were spun down and washed with PBS twice, then  
93 were stained with propidium iodide (PI) solution (1ml mix of 200 µg/ml RNase and  
94 50 µg/ml PI in PBS) at 37 °C for 30 min with the protection from light. The  
95 subpopulation of subG1 was measured in BD FACSCalibur (BD Biosciences, San  
96 Jose, CA, USA).

97

98 ***Immunoprecipitation (IP) and Western blot (WB) analysis***

99 Total lysates were prepared with lysis buffer (4 M NaCl, 1 M Tris, pH8.0), 10% SDS,  
100 Triton X-100, 10% sodium deoxycholate, 0.5 M EDTA), briefly sonicated, and then  
101 centrifugated at 15,000 rpm for 20 min at 4 °C followed by the collection of  
102 supernatants. For immunoprecipitation, one mg of total lysate incubated with primary  
103 antibody for overnight followed the incubation with protein A/G beads for 4 hours at  
104 4 °C. The immunoprecipitates were washed with IP buffer (1 M HEPES, 1 M KCl, 1  
105 M MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 M NaCl) and eluted with sample dye. Total lysate or immunoprecipitates  
106 were subjected to protein separation in 8% or 12% of SDS-PAGE followed by protein  
107 transfer to polyvinyl difluoride (PVDF) or nitrocellulose (NC) membranes. The  
108 membranes were blocked with 5% milk for 1 hr at room temperature and incubated  
109 with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight followed by the incubation with secondary  
110 antibodies in 5% milk for 1 hr at room temperature. The protein amount was  
111 developed with enhanced chemiluminescence (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA,

USA) reagent and detected in a chemiluminescence system.

#### ***Measurement of extracellular acidification rate (ECAR)***

The ECAR in lung cancer cells and their ER clones were assessed by using a Seahorse XF<sup>®</sup>24 Analyzer (Agilent Technologies Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA). Assays were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, cells ( $2.5 \times 10^4$  cells/well) in 24-well XF microplate (Seahorse Biosciences, VIC, Australia) were cultured in glucose-free seahorse XF assay medium. Specific inhibitors, different glucose concentrations, and uncouplers were prepared in XF assay media following the experiment's design for sequential addition at the appropriate final concentrations (10 mM glucose, 1 $\mu$ M oligomycin, and 50 mM 2-DG). The data were normalized with cell numbers.

#### ***2-[N-(7-Nitrobenz-2-oxa-1,3-diazol-4-yl) amino]-2-deoxy-D-glucose (2-NBDG) uptake assay***

Cells seeded in 6 well plates were pretreated with the indicated inhibitors for 3 days followed by the incubation with glucose-free media for 4 hr and 2-NBDG (100  $\mu$ M/mL; Cayman, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) in PBS for 20 min at 37 °C. The uptake of 2-NBDG was detected by ECHO Revolve or measured in BD FACSCalibur.

#### ***[14C]- $\alpha$ -methyl-D-glucopyranoside ( $\alpha$ MDG) uptake assay***

The active glucose uptake ability of cells was determined by measuring the uptake of  $\alpha$ -MDG (PerkinElmer, MA, USA), which is a specific substrate for SGLT. Cells seeded in a 12-well plate were cultured with different glucose concentrations or infected with SGLT1 shRNA. After washed with PBS once, the cells were incubated

with Krebs–Ringer–Henseleit (KRH; 120 mM NaCl, 4.7 mM KCl, 1.2 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2.2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, and 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 [with Tris]) solution containing [<sup>14</sup>C]-αMDG (0.1 μCi/ml) for 40 min. Following wash with PBS three times, cells were lysed by 1% Triton and added 2 ml scintillation solution. Then the uptake of [<sup>14</sup>C]-αMDG was counted and presented as counts per minute (CPM) value in Beckman LS6000 Scintillation Counter (GMI, Ramsey, MN, USA), and the data were normalized with the protein amounts.

#### ***Human NSCLC clinical specimens***

The acquisition of tumor specimens from NSCLC patients treated with EGFR TKIs were approved by the Ethics Review Board of China Medical University Hospital (DMR101-IRB1-120). Informed written consent was obtained from patients. The tissues were fixed in 10% formalin and embedded in paraffin, and 5μm tissue slides were prepared for IHC staining.

#### ***Immunohistochemistry Staining***

Five-micrometer thick paraffin wax mouse-tissue sections were dewaxing by xylene and rehydrated by different concentrations of ethanol. These mouse-tissue sections were incubated with the indicated antibodies overnight and then stained with polymer HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 30 min followed by reaction with diaminobenzidine (DAB; Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) for 30 sec or 1 min. These slides were counterstained with hematoxylin. According to the H-score system, the immune-intensity of tumor tissue was scored by calculating the percentage of positive cells at different staining intensity levels, and the final score is ranked from 0 to 300. The score of SGLT1 level over than 200 was defined as high expression.

162

163 ***Xenograft tumor growth assay***

164 Animal experiments were performed following a protocol approved by the  
165 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of China Medical University and  
166 Hospital (No. 102-40-N). H292 cells ( $1 \times 10^6$  cells/mouse) were subcutaneously  
167 injected into the female severe combined immunodeficient (SCID) mice at 4 weeks of  
168 age, and the tumor size was measured with calipers once per week. Once the tumor  
169 size reached 100~200 mm<sup>3</sup>, mice were treated orally with saline, erlotinib (50 mg/kg),  
170 phlorizin (20 mg/kg), LX4211 (60 mg/kg), or the indicated combination for 30 days.  
171 A549/Luc cells were intravenously injected into the SCID mice. Tumor volume, as  
172 indicated by luciferase intensity, was measured by the Lumina LT In Vivo Imaging  
173 System (IVIS; PerkinElmer Inc., Waltham, MA, USA).

174

175 ***Site-directed mutagenesis***

176 The human EGFR T678A, EGFR S1046/47AA mutants were generated by using the  
177 QuikChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Agilent Technologies Inc., Santa Clara,  
178 CA, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol. The primers were listed in the  
179 Supplementary information. Each mutation was verified by DNA sequencing.

180

181 ***Transient Transfection***

182 Cells with 80% of confluence were subjected to transfection by incubation with  
183 DNA/TransIT<sup>®</sup>-X-2 (Mirus Bio, Madison, WI, USA) complex (ratio of 1:1.2) in  
184 serum-free medium for 6 hours followed by the refreshment with complete medium.  
185 The cells were harvested and subjected to the experiments after 72 hours of  
186 transfection.

187

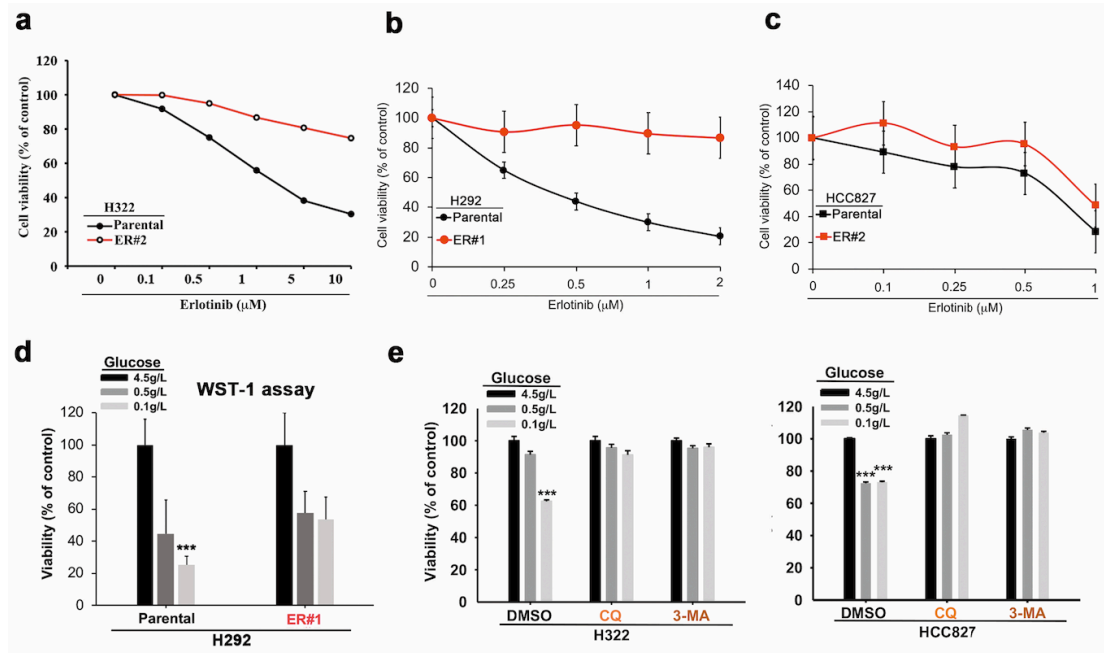
188 ***Gene silence with shRNA***

189 The shRNA clones against the indicated human genes were purchased from the  
190 National RNAi Core Facility at Academia Sinica (Taipei, Taiwan). Briefly, cells were  
191 infected with the indicated viral shRNA at the multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 125  
192 for 3 days. Cells were refreshed with complete medium and then further subjected to  
193 the indicated experiments.

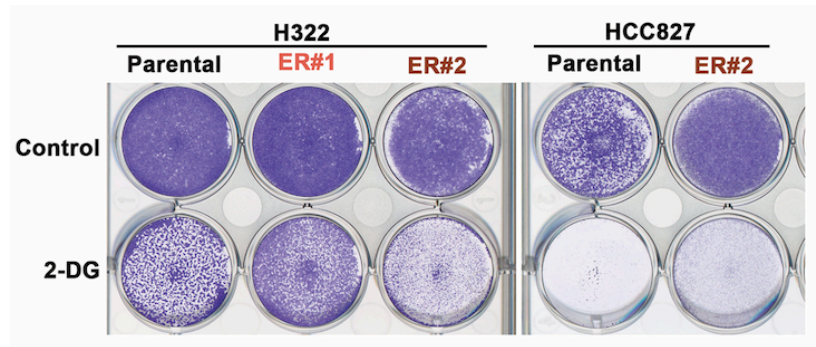
194

195 ***Statistical analysis***

196 Analyses of patient survival and progression-free rates were performed using  
197 GraphPad Prism 8. Other statistical analysis was performed by Sigma plot. Data are  
198 displayed as the means  $\pm$  SEM. The significance of the difference between the  
199 experimental and control groups was assessed by Student's *t*-test. The difference was  
200 considered to be significant if the *P*-value was  $< 0.05$ .



**Supplementary Fig S1. The acquired erlotinib-resistant NSCLC cells were more tolerant to glucose deprivation. a-c.** H322, H292, and HCC827 cells and their ER clones were treated with different concentrations of erlotinib. The viability was determined by MTT assay. **d.** H292 cells and their ER clone were cultured in different concentrations of glucose. The cell viability was measured in MTT. **e.** The effects of 3-MA or CQ on the glucose deprivation-induced cell death were examined in WST-1 analysis. Data in **(a-e)** represent as mean±s.d. from three independent experiments. \* $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  vs control group, Student's t test.

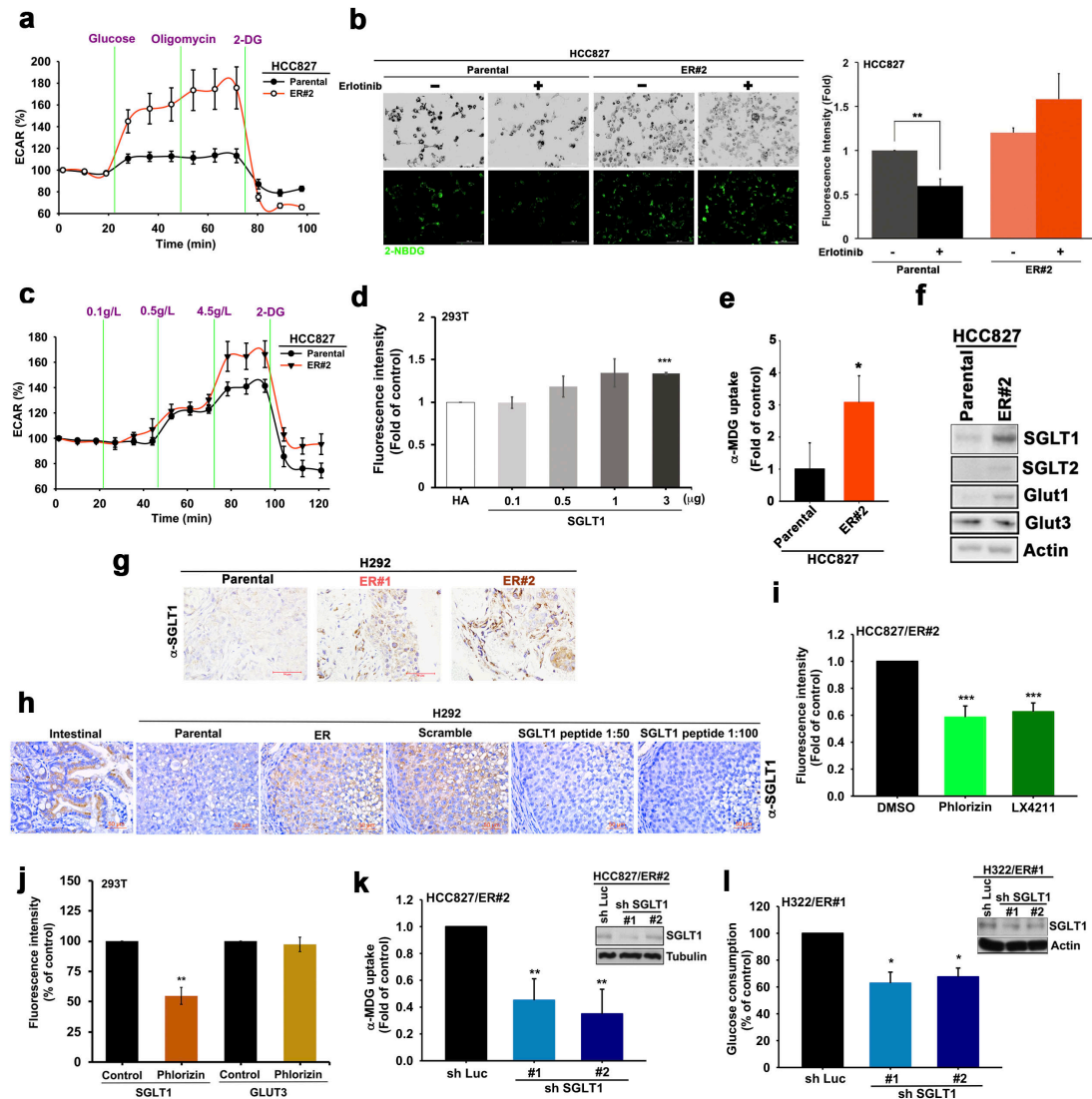


210

211 **Supplementary Fig S2. Block of glycolysis decreased cell growth.**

212 The inhibitory effects of 2-DG on the viability in H322 and HCC827 cells and their

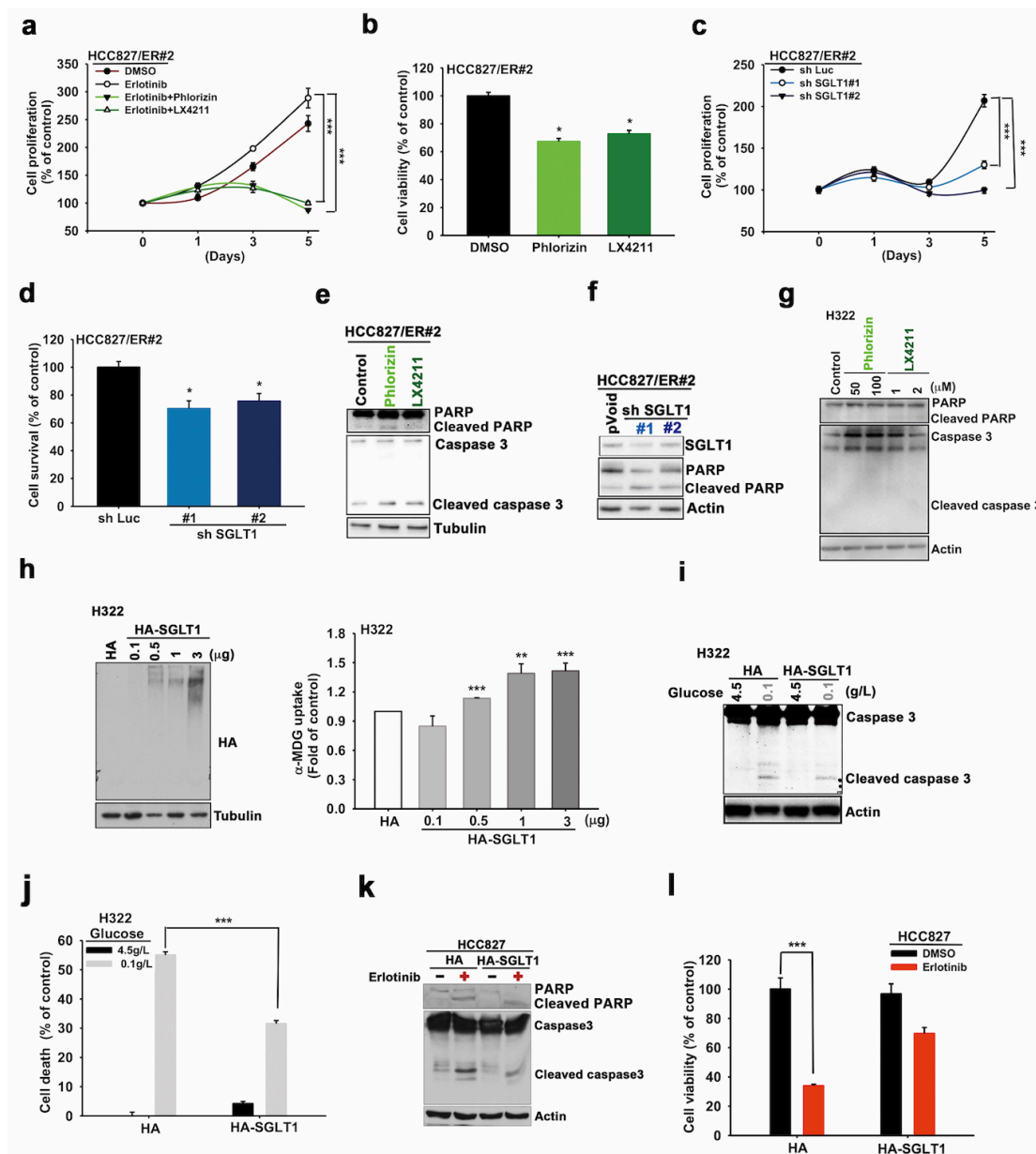
213 ER clones were measured by clonogenic assay.



**Supplementary Fig S3. The upregulated SGLT1 mediated glucose uptake of the acquired erlotinib-resistant cells.** **a.** Changes in ECAR of HCC827 and their ER clones were measured by using the XF-24 Seahorse extracellular flux analyzer. **b.** 2-NBDG uptake ability of HCC827 and its ER clones under EGFR-TKI treatment were detected by immunofluorescent. Scale bar, 200  $\mu$ m. **c.** Changes in ECAR in HCC827 and its ER clones in response to different glucose concentrations treatment were analyzed in XF-24 Seahorse extracellular flux analyzer. **d.** HEK-293T cells transfected with increasing amounts of SGLT1 cDNA were subjected to 2-NBDG uptake analysis. **e.**  $\alpha$ -MDG uptake ability of HCC827 cells and their ER clones was detected by FACS and Beckman LS6000 Scintillation Counter. **f.** Protein levels of the



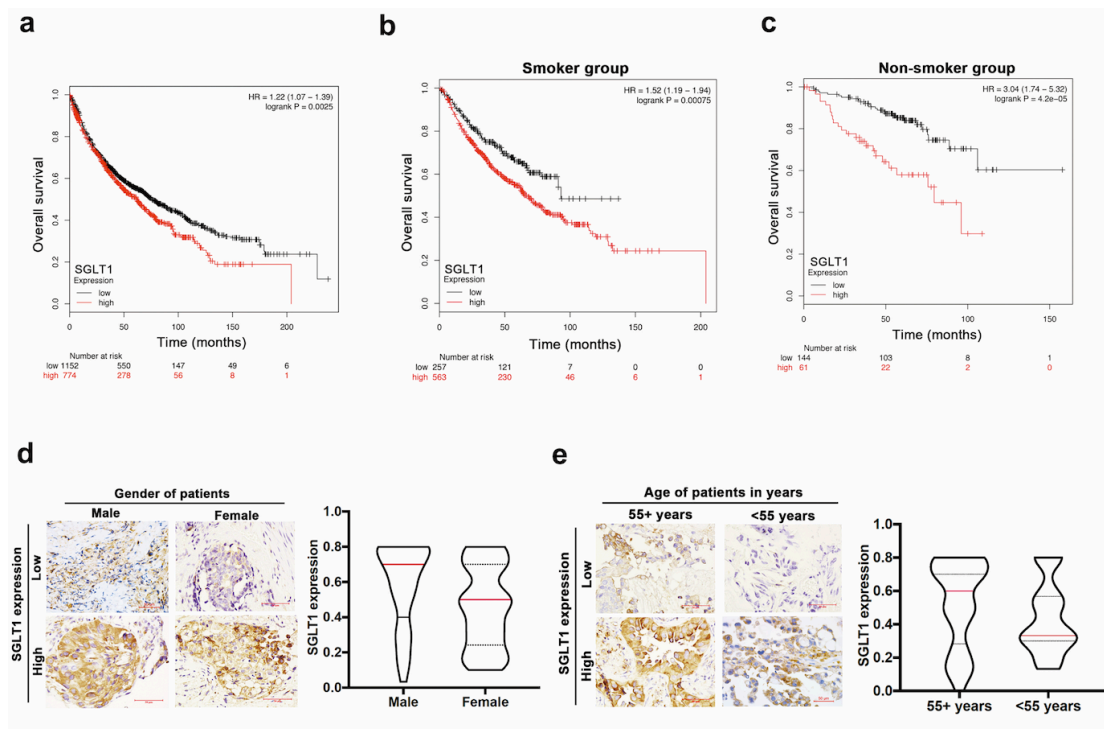
225 indicated glucose transporters in HCC827 and its ER clone cells were detected in WB  
226 with the indicted antibodies. **g and h.** Representative images of IHC staining of  
227 SGLT1 expression in the tumor sections from H292 and H292/ER cells (g) by using  
228 the specific anti-SGLT1 antibody which was validated with competitive peptide  
229 corresponding to the epitope sequence of SGLT1 (a.a.601-630) (h). Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m.  
230 **i.** The effects of 100 $\mu$ M phlorizin or 1 $\mu$ M LX4211 on 2-NBDG uptake ability in  
231 HCC827/ER#2 clones under a low glucose concentration condition were examined. **j.**  
232 The effects of phlorizin on 2-NBDG uptake ability of SGLT1- or Glut3-transfected  
233 HEK-293T cells under a low glucose concentration condition were examined. **k.** The  
234 effects of SGLT1 shRNA on the  $\alpha$ -MDG uptake ability of HCC827/ER#2 clone were  
235 measured under low glucose condition by using Beckman LS6000 Scintillation  
236 Counter. **l.** The effects of SGLT1 shRNA on glucose consumption level of  
237 H322/ER#1 clone were analyzed. Data shown in **(a)**, and **(c-e)**, and **(i-l)** represent as  
238 mean $\pm$ s.d. from three independent experiments. \* $P$  < 0.05; \*\*<0.01; \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001 vs  
239 control group, Student's t test. Data in **(b)**, **(g)** and **(h)** are representative of three  
240 experiments.



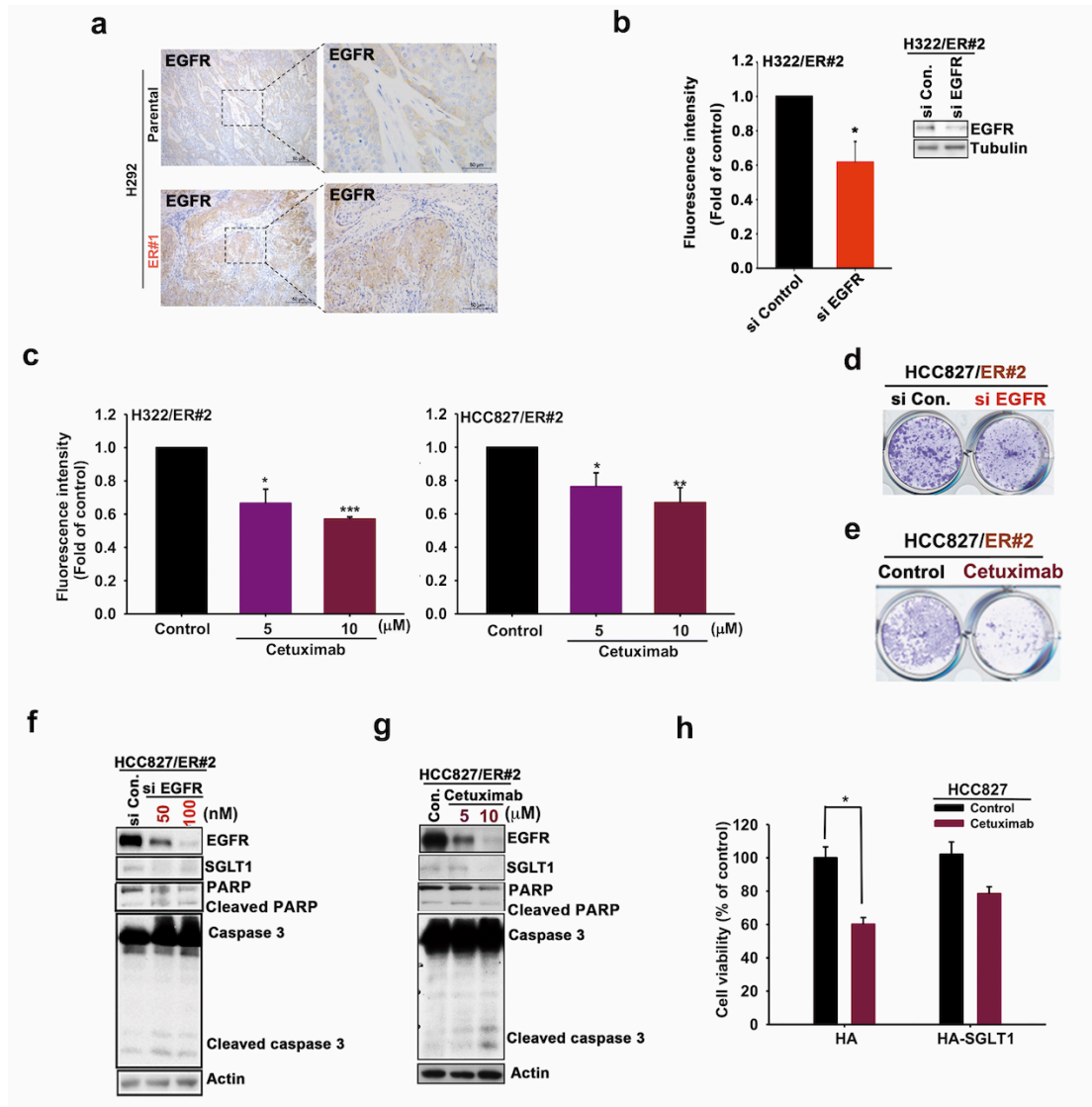
**Supplementary Fig S4. The upregulated SGLT1 supported the cell viability of the acquired TKI-resistant cells. a.** The cell proliferation of HCC827/ER clones in response to erlotinib, phlorizin, or LX4211 were determined in WST-1 analysis. **b.** The effects of phlorizin or LX4211 on cell viability of HCC827/ER#2 clones under low glucose concentration were measured in WST-1 analysis. **c and d.** The effects of SGLT1 shRNA on cell proliferation (c) and viability (d) of HCC827/ER#2 clones under low glucose concentration were determined in cell counting and WST-1 analyses, respectively. **e and f.** The effects of SGLT1 inhibitors (e) and shRNA (f) on

250 PARP cleavages, caspase 3 in HCC827/ER#2 clones were analyzed by WB. **g.** The  
251 effects of SGLT1 inhibitors on PARP cleavages, caspase 3 in H322 cells were  
252 analyzed by WB. **h.** H322 cells transfected with different amounts of SGLT1 cDNA  
253 were subjected to analyze the SGLT1 protein level in WB (left) and to measure  
254  $\alpha$ -MDG uptake (right). **i.** The effects of SGLT1 overexpression on caspase 3 cleavage  
255 induced by glucose deprivation in H322 cells were analyzed by WB. **j.** The relative  
256 cell death of SGLT1-expressing H322 cells in response to glucose deprivation was  
257 measured in WST-1 analysis. **k and l.** The effects of SGLT1 overexpression on the  
258 erlotinib-induced PARP and caspase 3 cleavages (**k**) and cell death (**l**) in HCC827  
259 cells were analyzed in WB and WST-1 analyses, respectively. Data in **(a-d), (h), and**  
260 **(j)** represent the mean and s.d. from three independent experiments. \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\* $p <$   
261 0.001 vs control group, Student's t test. Data in **(e-g), (i) and (k)** are representative of  
262 three experiments.



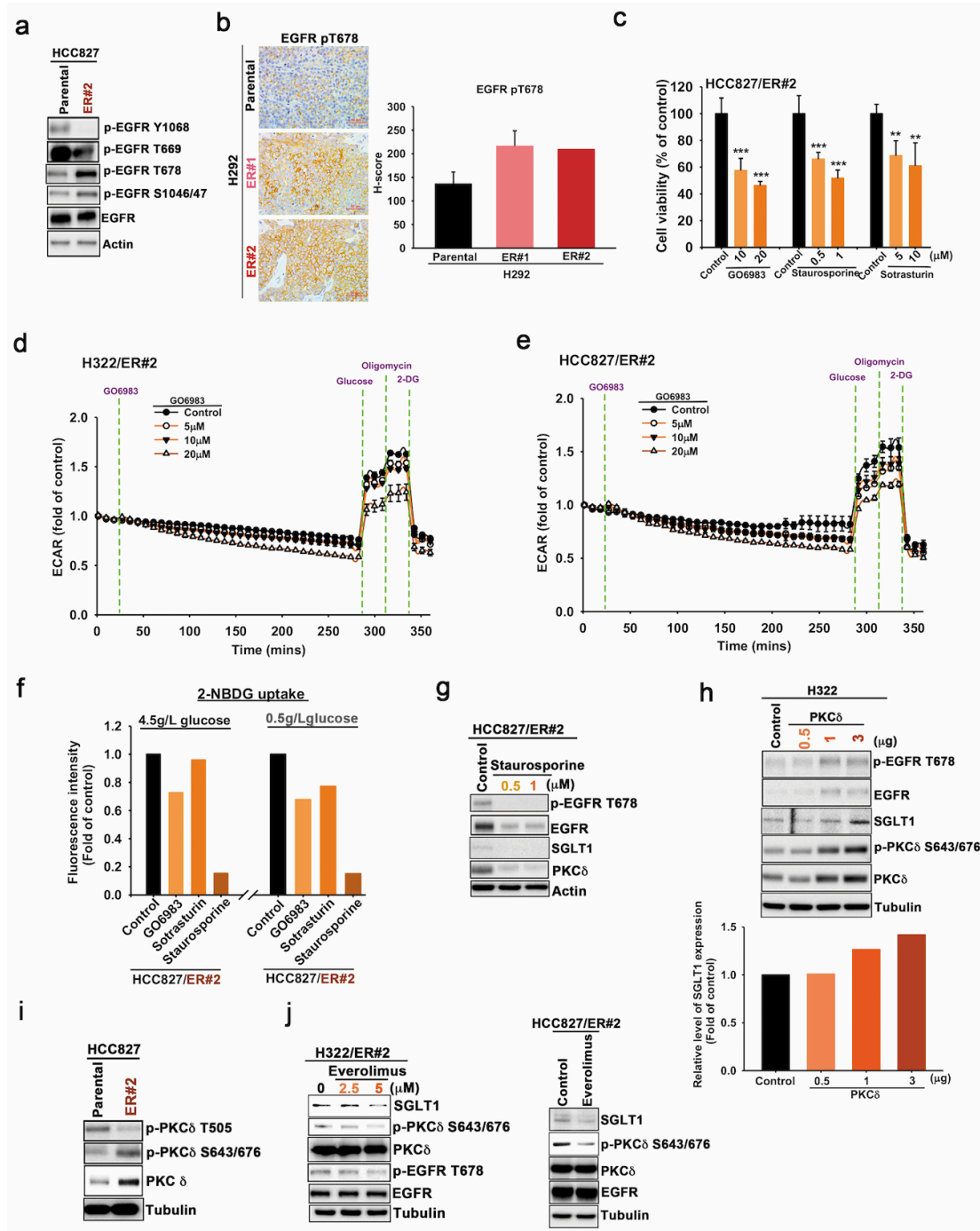


**Supplementary Fig S6. SGLT1 expression negatively correlates with the clinical benefits of EGFR TKI in NSCLC patients.** **a.** The clinical correlation of SGLT1 mRNA expression with overall survival rate was analyzed in the Kaplan Meier analysis. **b, c.** The SGLT1 mRNA expression was further classified into with (b) and without cigarette smoke (c) groups for Kaplan-Meier overall survival. **d, e.** The SGLT1 protein level in the paired tissues from treatment-naïve tumors and acquired TKI-resistant tumors of 9 lung cancer patients were examined by IHC staining and quantitated. The representative data was shown according to the gender (d) and age (e). Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m.



**Supplementary Fig S7. The increased EGFR mediated the glucose uptake and viability of the acquired erlotinib-resistant cells through SGLT1 upregulation. a.** The EGFR protein staining of H292 cells-xenograft tumor sections in response to erlotinib treatment was performed in IHC analysis. Scale bar, 50 μm. **b-g.** The effects of monoclonal antibody cetuximab or EGFR siRNA on 2-NBDG uptake (b and c), colony formation (d and e), and caspase and PARP cleavages (f and g) of HCC827/ER#2 cells were determined, respectively. **h.** The effects of SGLT1 overexpression on the cetuximab-induced viability inhibition of HCC827 cells were examined in WST-1 analysis. Data in (b and c), and (h) represent as mean±s.d. from three independent experiments. \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$  vs control group,

293 Student's t test. Data in **(a)** and **(d-g)** were representative of three experiments.



**Supplementary Fig S8. EGFR Thr678 phosphorylation by PKC delta mediated the SGLT1/EGFR interaction for SGLT1 protein stabilization.** **a.** The protein and phosphorylations of EGFR in HCC827 cells and their ER clones were analyzed in WB analysis. **b.** Representative IHC image and H-score of EGFR p-T678 expression in xenograft tumor sections of H292 cells and their ER clones were shown. Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m. **c.** The effects of GO6983, staurosporine, sotrasturin or HBDDE on cell



301 viability were determined in WST-1 assay. **d, e.** Changes in ECAR in H322/ER#2 (d)  
302 and HCC827/ER#2 (e) cells in response to GO6983 treatment for 4 hrs were analyzed  
303 in XF-24 Seahorse extracellular flux analyzer. **f.** The effects of various PKC  
304 inhibitors treatment on 2-NBDG uptake ability were analyzed by FACS analysis. **g-j.**  
305 The total lysates from staurosporine-treated HCC827/ER#2 cells (g),  
306 PKC $\delta$ -transfected H322 cells (h), HCC827 cells and their ER clones (i), and  
307 everolimus-treated H322/ER#2 cells (j) were subjected to WB analysis with the  
308 indicated antibodies. Data shown in **(c)**, **(d)**, and **(e-f)** represent as mean $\pm$ s.d. from  
309 three independent experiments. \*\*\* $p < 0.001$  as compared with control group using  
310 Student's t test. Data in **(a)**, **(b)**, and **(g-j)** were representative of three experiments.

311 Table 1. Association of SGLT1 with clinical characteristics

		Analysis patients' number	SGLT1		p value
		Total number (72)	High	Low	
Gender					
	Male	35	18 (51.4%)	17 (48.5)	0.018*
	Female	37	9 (24.3%)	28 (75.6)	
Age (years)					
	≥55	53	26 (49.0%)	27 (50.9%)	0.003**
	<55	19	2 (10.5%)	17 (89.4%)	
Smoke					
	Smoker	26	12 (46.1%)	14 (53.8%)	0.254
	Non-smoker	46	15 (32.6%)	31 (67.3%)	
EGFR status					
	WT	33	9 (27.2%)	24 (72.7%)	0.099
	Mutation	39	18 (46.1%)	21 (53.8%)	
	del.19	20	10 (50%)	10 (50%)	0.552
	L858R	16	7 (43.7%)	9 (56.2%)	
	del.19/T790M	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	
	L816Q	1	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	
	exon 20	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	
Clinical T-stage					
	Tx-T0	5	2 (40%)	3 (60%)	0.662
	T1-T2	14	7 (50%)	7 (50%)	
	T3-T4	44	16 (36.3%)	28 (63.6%)	
Clinical N-stage					
	x	4	2 (50%)	2 (50%)	0.37
	0	11	6 (54.5%)	5 (45.4%)	
	1	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)	
	2	20	9 (45%)	11 (55%)	
	3	26	8 (30.7%)	18 (69.2%)	
Pathological staging (AJCC)					
	Stage I	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.081
	Stage II	1	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	
	Stage III	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)	
	Stage IV	44	19 (43.1%)	25 (56.8%)	
TKI drug therapy					
	Gefitinib	36	16 (44.4%)	20 (55.5%)	
	Erlotinib	35	13 (37.1%)	22 (62.8%)	

	Afatinib	2	0 (0%)	2 (100%)	0.417
TKI response CT					
	PR	20	8 (40%)	12 (60%)	
	SD	9	3 (33.3%)	6 (66.6%)	
	PD	38	16 (42.1%)	22 (57.8%)	0.89

312      $*P < 0.05$  and  $*P < 0.01$