Selective inhibition of matrix metalloproteinase 10 (MMP10) with a single-domain antibody

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Since their discovery, the matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) family proteases have been considered as therapeutic targets in numerous diseases and disorders. Unfortunately, clinical trials with MMP inhibitors have failed to yield any clinical benefits of these inhibitors. These failures were largely due to a lack of MMP-selective agents; accordingly, it has become important to identify a platform with which high selectivity can be achieved. To this end, we propose using MMP-targeting antibodies that can achieve high specificity in interactions with their targets. Using a scaffold of single-domain antibodies, here we raised a panel of MMP10-selective antibodies through immunization of llamas, a member of the camelid family, whose members generate conventional heavy/light-chain antibodies and also smaller antibodies lacking light-chain and CH1 domains. We report the generation of a highly selective and tightly binding MMP10 inhibitor ($K_i < 2 \text{ nM}$). Using bio-layer interferometry–based binding assays, we found that this antibody interacts with the MMP10 active site. Activity assays demonstrated that the antibody selectively inhibits MMP10 over its closest relative, MMP3. The ability of a single-domain antibody to discriminate between the most conserved MMP pair via an active site–directed mechanism of inhibition reported here supports the potential of this antibody as a broadly applicable scaffold for the development of selective, tightly binding MMP inhibitors.

Early in MMP research, the general consensus within the MMP community was that the few known MMPs were all driving disease, a dogma that led to the development of broad-spectrum MMP inhibitors within the pipelines of most major pharmaceutical companies (1–5). Despite promising preclinical data supporting broad-spectrum MMP inhibition in oncology, results of over 50 clinical trials were consistently negative (6). MMP inhibition failed to reach its clinical end point in every clinical trial, with increased disease burden and musculoskeletal side effects observed in some treatment groups (7). Broad-spectrum MMP inhibition was unsuccessful (8).

As more MMPs were discovered, researchers were uncovering the complexity of MMP activity in normal physiology (9, 10). Some MMPs were being observed to have a protective effect in certain pathological situations while other MMPs were driving pathology (8, 11). Accordingly, the consensus in the field concerning the MMPs as therapeutic targets shifted from broad-spectrum inhibition to selective inhibition: inhibit the “bad” MMPs while sparing the catalytic activity of the “good” MMPs (8).

The design of selective MMP inhibitors continues to be hindered by the pronounced structural homology shared within the active site of all the MMPs (12). Small molecules can penetrate the substrate-binding clefts of the MMPs to achieve active site–directed (orthosteric) inhibition. However, their small size also limits the extent of their target interactions, oftentimes preventing sufficient contacts with regions of an MMP that differentiate it from other family members. Conversely, protein-based inhibitors, such as antibodies, possess the structural bulk that enables them to bind to their targets with multiple different contacts, conferred by multiple complementarity-determining regions (CDRs). However, conventional antibodies generally prefer planar epitopes, and as such, they typically target exosites, or regions of a protease outside of the active site (13). Whereas success has been achieved with exosite-targeting antibodies, the most successful protease inhibitors target the active site, and as such, conventional antibodies offer a limited platform for selective protease inhibition (14–16). Other classes of protein-based inhibitors, including engineered tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases (TIMPs), have also been explored as selective MMP inhibitors with varying success; however, high selectivity using these scaffolds is yet to be achieved (17–19).

Single-domain antibodies, a more recently discovered class of antibodies devoid of a light chain and CH1 region, are gaining momentum as potent inhibitors of enzymes (20–22). To compensate for the lack of a light chain, single-domain antibodies have evolved a substantially larger antigen recognition region, particularly in their CDR3 (23). These longer CDR regions are thought to form convex antigen-binding surfaces, ideal for inserting into the active-site clefts of enzymes and toward orthosteric inhibition (24). Furthermore, single-domain antibodies still possess three complementarity-determining regions that are capable of making multiple contacts with their antigens. With single-domain antibodies capable of achieving...
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orthosteric targeting and possessing multicontact antigen recognition, we sought to determine their applicability toward selective, active site–directed, MMP inhibition. Considering the 86% sequence identity in their catalytic domains and nearly identical active sites, MMP10 and MMP3 represent the most homologous pair of MMPs (25).

Our efforts were focused on MMP10 due to its tumorigenic potential (26–28). MMP10 is up-regulated at the RNA level in multiple different types of cancers, and knockout and knockdown strategies have highlighted its potential as a therapeutic target in cancer. However, a lack of selective inhibitors has prevented researchers from understanding whether the benefit seen with genetic modulation of MMP10 can be recapitulated with pharmacological intervention. Accordingly, we sought to generate a robust and highly selective inhibitor of MMP10, based on a single-domain antibody raised in llamas. A major goal was to obtain an inhibitor that selectively inhibits MMP10 over its closest homologue, MMP3.

Results

Generation of active MMP10

Zymogen MMP10 harbors a propeptide in the active site, rendering the active site unavailable to substrates. Upon activation, the propeptide is removed, leading to a 9-kDa decrease in the molecular mass of MMP10 (29). We therefore hypothesized that to direct the immunization toward the active site, our best chance was to use active MMP10 as our immunogen. To do so, full-length human MMP10 was cloned into a modified pCEP vector as a llama Fc fusion protein, making pCEP-hMMP10-LFc. The llama IgG Fc fragment both increases circulation time in the host llama due to Fc/FcRn interactions and provides an efficient purification tag when via protein A–Sepharose (30, 31). pCEP-hMMP10-LFc was subsequently transfected and expressed in mammalian cells and purified via protein A chromatography, yielding MMP10-Fc (Fig. 1A). Activation of MMP10-Fc was achieved by treatment with a small molecule activator of MMPs, aminophenylmercuric acetate (APMA), showing both a dose-dependent increase in MMP10 activity and a corresponding decrease in molecular weight (Fig. 1B).

Immunization

Members of the camelid family, including camels, llamas, and alpacas, generate conventional heavy/light chain antibodies. They also generate smaller antibodies lacking light chain and CH1 domains (Fig. 2A) (32). Three llamas were immunized with MMP10-Fc and monitored for responses against MMP10 over time. All three immunized llamas responded to MMP10, and the Vh repertoires of each of the llamas were cloned into a yeast display platform to allow for enrichment of monoclonal antibodies targeting MMP10.

Antibody library construction

cDNA to build the yeast libraries was generated as explained under “Experimental procedures” (33). The PCR output using this method generates two bands, one corresponding to heavy chains from conventional antibodies and a smaller band corresponding to heavy chains from heavy chain–only antibodies (Fig. 3B). The smaller DNA band was used as the template for the generation of a yeast library. Once separate yeast display libraries were built for each llama, the libraries were enriched using a combination of magnetic bead separation and fluorescence-activated cell sorting. In total, 23 unique mAb sequences were isolated. All 23 monoclonal sequences were subcloned and transfected into a mammalian expression system and expressed as bivalent hIgG1 Fc fusion proteins. 20 antibodies expressed at appreciable levels (>100 µg/ml) and were further evaluated in an MMP10 binding and inhibition assay.

Binding and inhibition of MMP10

All 20 antibodies were subject to a binding assay using bio-layer interferometry (BLI) to check for specific binding to MMP10-Fc. 14 of the 20 expressed antibodies showed specific binding to MMP10-Fc with no association detected against an irrelevant coated antigen. The MMP10-reactive antibodies displayed a range of affinities from subnanomolar to nearly 50 nM (Fig. 3A).

To measure MMP10 inhibition, each of the 14 binding antibodies were titrated onto a constant concentration of active MMP10-Fc and subjected to an activity assay. Inhibitors were characterized as antibodies that decreased the activity of MMP10. In a parallel screen, the antibodies were titrated onto a constant concentration of active MMP3-Fc, also generated in-house, to determine selectivity. Of the 14 binders, four inhibited MMP10-Fc, with two monoclonal antibodies, E5 and H3, inhibiting MMP10-Fc more strongly than the others. Of the two strong inhibitors, H3 displayed an inhibition profile similar to TIMP2, an endogenous inhibitor of MMPs, while showing two strong inhibitors, H3 displayed an inhibition profile similar to TIMP2, an endogenous inhibitor of MMPs, while showing only slight reactivity toward MMP3-Fc (Fig. 3B). On the basis of this screen, we considered H3 as our lead inhibitory antibody of MMP10.

H3 selectivity

To further probe the selectivity of H3, its inhibitory activity was tested against a panel of MMPs generated for this study: MMP1, MMP2, MMP3, MMP9, and MMP13. In this experiment, TIMP1, an endogenous inhibitor of most MMPs, served as a positive control. Whereas TIMP1 inhibited all of the MMPs tested, H3 treatment had no effect on MMP1, MMP2, MMP9, and MMP13 activity; minimal effect on MMP3; and complete inhibition of MMP10 (Fig. 4).
In-depth profiling of H3-mediated inhibition of MMP10

In an attempt to attain precise kinetic information, H3 was assayed for its ability to inhibit the minimum concentration of MMP10 capable of eliciting reliable activity in the system used. TIMP1 was titrated as a positive control, as was the negative control antibody C10, which is a binder, noninhibitor, of MMP10 also acquired from llama immunization (Fig. 3A). H3 inhibited MMP10 with an IC50 of 657 pM, whereas TIMP1 inhibited MMP10 with an IC50 of 296 pM (Fig. 5). The inhibition kinetics imply that the interaction is extremely tight and mechanistically cannot be distinguished from an irreversible mechanism of inhibition. Accordingly, we conclude that H3 is an extremely tight and selective inhibitor of MMP10.

H3 inhibition of MMP10-mediated cleavage of α1-antitrypsin

H3 potently inhibited MMP10-mediated cleavage of a peptide substrate, but we also wanted to determine whether it would inhibit cleavage of a protein substrate. The serpin α1-antitrypsin (AAT) has been reported as a substrate for numerous MMPs (34, 35). To determine whether AAT was also an MMP10 substrate, active MMP10-Fc was titrated and incubated with a constant concentration of AAT overnight at 37 °C, with cleavage observed by SDS-PAGE. Having demonstrated that AAT is a substrate for MMP10, we aimed to determine whether H3 inhibited this activity. H3 was titrated in the presence of a constant concentration of active MMP10-Fc. Following a short incubation, AAT was added, and mixtures were incubated overnight. Cleavage of AAT was analyzed by SDS-PAGE, which demonstrated that H3 prevented MMP10-Fc from cleaving AAT (Fig. 6A). Cleavage of AAT by MMPs abrogates the ability of this serpin to inhibit its target enzyme, neutrophil elastase (NE) (34, 35). Samples from Fig. 6A were incubated with NE to determine whether H3 was able recover AAT activity in regard to NE inhibition. Incubation of MMP10 with
H3 prevented MMP10’s ability to inactivate AAT, as indicated by a decrease in NE activity with increasing levels of H3 (Fig. 6B). Both of these experiments demonstrate that H3 is able to inhibit the proteolytic activity of MMP10. Moreover, they indicate AAT may be a physiologic substrate of MMP10, much as it is for MMP9 (34).

**Mechanism of H3 inhibition**

H3’s strong interaction with MMP10 coupled to a lack of highly concentrated quenched fluorescent substrates of MMP10 made determining the mechanism of binding, orthosteric (active site-directed) versus allosteric (exosite-directed), impossible to determine using traditional competitive enzyme kinetics. Furthermore, an attempt to co-crystallize MMP10 with H3 failed to produce crystals. Therefore, a series of competition assays were performed to validate the mechanism of H3 inhibition of MMP10. These assays involved observing the binding of MMP10 derivatives to H3 by biolayer interferometry (Fig. 7). H3 bound to active MMP10 but was unable to bind to proMMP10 or MMP10 inhibited by a small molecule (marimastat). Moreover, MMP10 in complex with H3 did not bind by either TIMP1 or TIMP2. Consequently, H3 did not tolerate the presence of a propeptide, small molecule, or protein-based inhibitor within the MMP10 active site. These characteristics support a model where H3 binds to MMP10’s active site as its mode of inhibition.

**Discussion**

Whereas broad-spectrum MMP inhibitors failed in the clinic, selectively targeting the MMPs is still considered to be of clinical value (36). Some MMPs show an mRNA expression bias toward cancer, and there exists a large body of evidence implicating MMP activity in various diseases (8). Accordingly, it has become important to generate a panel of selective MMP inhibitors to validate individual MMPs as therapeutic targets.

The primary question addressed in this study was whether single-domain antibodies, in addition to achieving robust MMP inhibition, could offer an adequate level of selectivity. This question was addressed by focusing our efforts toward the inhibition of MMP10 over MMP3, the two most closely related MMPs, sharing 86% identity within their catalytic domains and nearly identical active sites. Whereas low-level inhibition of MMP3 was observed with H3, the window of inhibition between MMP3 and MMP10 was vast, with full inhibition of MMP3 not observed even with high concentrations of H3. The ability of a single-domain antibody to differentiate between the most identical MMPs provides a rationale for single-domain antibodies as a broadly applicable scaffold for selective MMP inhibition.

Conventional antibodies targeting proteases generally target regions outside of the active site. Indeed, the several reported conventional antibodies targeting the catalytic activity of proteases have invariably failed to target the active site, with inhibition achieved through allosteric targeting (14). Conversely, heavy chain–only antibodies produced by camelid family members are hypothesized to prefer concave epitopes, such as the active site clefts of enzymes (23). To determine whether H3 orthosterically targets MMP10 via traditional kinetics, it would be necessary to utilize better substrates than commercially available. Therefore, to define the mechanism of inhibition, we developed a series of competition assays focusing on the interaction of H3 with various forms of MMP10. In this series of experiments, H3 did not tolerate the presence of a propeptide, marimastat, or TIMPs within the active site of MMP10, indicating its preference to target a free active site. Whereas further validation of the mechanism of inhibition of H3 would require a crystal structure, the data presented in this study strongly support H3’s status as an orthosteric inhibitor.

In addition to probing the ability of single-domain antibodies to selectively inhibit MMP10 over its closest homologue,
MMP3, we also sought to target MMP10 because it represents a potential cancer target. Based on mRNA expression data from the GENT website, MMP10 shows a strong cancer bias with virtually undetectable mRNA levels in healthy tissue (37). Furthermore, a large body of research suggesting MMP10's role as a cancer driver, both in vitro and in vivo, has been published (26, 28, 29, 38). Combined, these data provide a strong rationale for the potential of MMP10 as a therapeutic target. Developing a selective inhibitor of MMP10 may be challenging with classical MMP inhibitor scaffolds; however, we demonstrate that single-domain antibodies are up to this task. As such, this antibody could be evaluated further as a therapeutic candidate.

**Experimental procedures**

**MMP10 expression**

The nucleotide sequence encoding the ORF of human MMP10, corresponding to Uniprot limits 1–476, was cloned into a modified pCEP vector in frame with a C-terminal llama IgG Fc, encoding proMMP10-Fc. 293 freestyle cells were transfected with the MMP10-Fc construct using polyethyleneimine. Following a 7-day incubation in cell culture conditions, supernatants were harvested, and proMMP10-Fc was purified with Thermo Scientific Gentle Ag/Ab Elution Buffer (product no. 467320). Commercial MMP10 was used due to the presence of a LFc on our immunogen, and an anti-llama IgG antibody was used for detection in the ELISA. Llama serum from test bleeds was diluted 1:100 in Dulbecco's PBS and titrated 1:5 onto coated MMP10. Plates were then incubated with horseradish peroxidase–conjugated anti-llama IgG H+L (Bethyl, catalog no. A160-100P) at the manufacturer’s recommended concentration and detected using the horseradish peroxidase substrate TMB (Seracare KPL SureBlue TMB Microwell Peroxidase Substrate, catalog no. 5120-0077). Plates were read for absorbance at 650 nm using a Molecular Devices Emax plate reader. Llama immunizations were performed under their institutional animal care and use committee–approved protocols and United States Department of Agriculture guidelines via USDA 93-R-0574.

**Library construction**

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells enriched from three llamas were acquired by layering 400 ml of fresh blood onto a Ficoll gradient. Total RNA was isolated using a Qiagen RNeasy Maxi Kit, which was used as a template to generate cDNA with an Invitrogen SuperScript IV First-Strand Synthesis System with random hexamer and oligo(dT) as primers. Primers corresponding to llama Vh germ line genes were used in a first-round PCR to incorporate NheI/EcoNI restriction sites amenable for cloning into a proprietary yeast display
plasmid, pAR5, placing the Vhhs N-terminal to the AGA2 protein classically utilized in yeast display (39). 1.5 μg of Vhh insert was ligated into 5 μg of pAR5 plasmid and transformed into a lithium acetate–treated proprietary yeast strain designed for use in yeast surface display. Libraries were grown in SD–CAA medium, and transformation efficiency was measured via serial dilution onto SD–CAA plates. Yeast surface display was induced using SG–CAA medium and incubated overnight at room temperature with shaking. Three separate libraries were generated, representing each immunized llama.

Enrichment of MMP10-binding Vhhs

For magnetic bead enrichments, activated hMMP10-LFc was biotinylated using Thermo Scientific EZ-Link™ NHS-Biotin. 200 nM biotinylated hMMP10-LFc was then incubated with the input library generated above and incubated on ice for 1 h. After washing with TCNB-B buffer (TCNB + 1.5% BSA), libraries were incubated with 200 μl of New England Biolabs streptavidin magnetic beads in 3 ml of TCNB-B for 15 min on ice. Yeast bound to MMP10 were then magnetically separated.
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Generation of recombinant antibodies

Unique sequences were subcloned into a modified pCEP vector, placing them in frame with a C-terminal hlgG1-Fc fragment. The antibody-Fc constructs were then transfected into 293 freestyle cells and grown at 37 °C for 3 days at 5% CO2.

Expression of TIMPs

Full-length TIMP1 and TIMP2 (corresponding to Uniprot limits 1–217 and 1–220, respectively) were cloned into a modified pCEP-mFc vector, placing them in frame and N-terminal to a mlgG2a Fc fragment. Ligation, transformation, plasmid prepping, HEK 293 freestyle transfections, and protein A purifications were the same as highlighted above for the recombinant antibody expressions. Once purified, proteins were quantitated by A280 and visualized by SDS-PAGE.

MMP10 inhibition screen

Each antibody was titrated 1:10 across four points starting at 100 μg/ml in the presence of 20 μg/ml MMP10-LFc or 20 μg/ml MMP3-LFc and incubated for 15 min at room temperature. MMP3-Fc was generated as with MMP10. In short, the entire sequence of MMP3 as dictated by Uniprot was cloned into a modified pCEP vector, placing it N-terminal to an IgG llama Fc fragment. Purification, activation, and validation of MMP3-Fc was performed as described previously for MMP10. Samples were then transferred into wells containing a 20 μM concentration of an MMP10 quenched fluorescent substrate at a 1:1 volumetric ratio. Plates were then mixed and read for fluorescence on a BMG Claristor at wavelengths of excitation 320 nm and emission 405 nm. Rates are calculated as the slope of fluorescence generation (y axis) over time (x axis). Curves were generated using GraphPad Prism 7 for Mac OS X.

Characterization of H3-mediated MMP10 inhibition

mAb H3, mAb C10, and TIMP1 were titrated 1:2 starting at 400 nM across 23 points in the presence of 2 nM human MMP10 (R&D Systems; see above) and left to complex for 15 min at room temperature. Titrations were then transferred to a quenched fluorescent substrate of MMP10 (R&D Systems, catalog no. ES-002) at a 1:1 volumetric ratio and read for fluorescence.
Inhibition of MMP10-mediated cleavage of AAT with H3

To test inhibition of MMP10-mediated cleavage of AAT (provided as a gift from Inhibrx), a serial dilution of H3 was placed onto 80 nM MMP10-Fc and complexed for 15 min at room temperature. The titrations were then transferred to wells containing 1.5 μM AAT and incubated at 37 °C for 16 h and analyzed by SDS-PAGE. Titrations were then diluted 1:100 and incubated with 20 nm neutrophil elastase (Athens Bio) for 15 min. H3/MMP10/AAT/NE complexes were then transferred to wells containing 100 μM AAPV-AMC (Enzo), and fluorescence (NE activity) was monitored on a BMG Clariostar microplate reader.

H3 binding active versus zymogen MMP10

To test the mechanism of inhibition, a series of binding and competition assays were performed to determine the binding region of H3. First, H3 was checked to determine binding against active and zymogen MMP10 using BLI. H3 was biotinylated using Thermo Scientific EZ-Link™ NHS-Biotin. H3 was then coated onto a streptavidin sensor and was introduced to 2.4 μg/ml of either APMA-treated or non-APMA-treated hMMP10-LFc with the entire assay being performed in TCNB buffer.

H3 binding marimastat inhibited MMP10

H3 was tested for its ability to bind small-molecule inhibited MMP10 using BLI. For this assay, 7 μg/ml hMMP10-LFc was treated with 10 μM marimastat (Sigma, catalog no. M2699-5MG) and incubated for 30 min. Biotinylated H3 (see above) was then coated onto a streptavidin sensor and introduced to noninhibited active hMMP10-LFc or inhibited hMMP10-LFc.

H3 competition with TIMPs for MMP10 binding

TIMP1 and TIMP2 were tested for their ability to bind an H3/MMP10 complex using BLI. First, biotinylated H3 was coated onto the surface of a streptavidin sensor and introduced to active hMMP10-LFc. The sensor was then transferred to a well containing either TIMP1 or TIMP2 and measured for binding.

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