Glycosylation Modulates Melanoma Cell $\alpha_2\beta_1$ and $\alpha_3\beta_1$ Integrin Interactions with Type IV Collagen*

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Background: The influence of collagen glycosylation on integrin binding has not been studied previously.

Results: Glycosylation affected $\alpha_3\beta_1$ integrin binding more strongly than $\alpha_2\beta_1$ integrin binding.

Conclusion: Glycosylation modulated integrin/collagen interactions.

Significance: If changes in collagen glycosylation occur in malignancy, then metastasis may be altered by these changes.

Although type IV collagen is heavily glycosylated, the influence of this post-translational modification on integrin binding has not been investigated. In the present study, galactosylated and nongalactosylated triple-helical peptides have been constructed containing the $\alpha_1$(IV)382–393 and $\alpha_1$(IV)531–543 sequences, which are binding sites for the $\alpha_2\beta_1$ and $\alpha_3\beta_1$ integrins, respectively. All peptides had triple-helical stabilities of 37 °C or greater. The galactosylation of Hyl393 in $\alpha_1$(IV)382–393 and Hyl530 and Hyl543 in $\alpha_1$(IV)531–543 had a dose-dependent influence on melanoma cell adhesion that was much more pronounced in the case of $\alpha_3\beta_1$ integrin binding. Molecular modeling indicated that galactosylation occurred on the periphery of melanoma cell adhesion that was much more pronounced in the case of $\alpha_3\beta_1$ integrin binding. Thus, glycosylation of collagen can modulate integrin binding, and levels of glycosylation could be altered by reduction in expression of glycosylation enzymes but most likely not by extracellular glycosylation activity.

Despite the continuous advances made, patients suffering from advanced stage melanoma still face a rather bleak prognosis. Melanoma remains unpredictable in its biological behavior, with a high risk of recurrence and a 50% chance to develop metastases in lymph nodes after recurrence (1). To support advances in treatment and detection, attention has turned to metastases in lymph nodes after recurrence (1). To support advances in treatment and detection, attention has turned to metastases in lymph nodes after recurrence (1). To support advances in treatment and detection, attention has turned to metastases in lymph nodes after recurrence (1). To support advances in treatment and detection, attention has turned to metastases in lymph nodes after recurrence (1).

Metastasis requires a subtype of tumor cells capable of enduring release from the primary tumor site and traveling through the lymphatic or vasculatory system while evading killer cells and/or platelet aggregation. This process requires an altered phenotype, which allows cells to quickly adhere to and release from the BM to promote a faster migration. These phenotypic changes are most easily defined by changed expression profiles of transmembrane receptors, such as integrins, responsible for the rolling motion cells display during migration (4). Integrins are the foremost contributors in mediating cell-cell and cell-BM adhesions. Interactions between integrins and ECM proteins, such as collagen, are crucial for adherence, migration, and invasion of tumor cells (5).

Integrins are heterodimers of noncovalently associated $\alpha$ and $\beta$ subunits. In vertebrates, there are 18 $\alpha$ and 8 $\beta$ subunits that can assemble into 24 different receptors with unique binding properties and tissue distributions (6, 7). Based on the structural characteristics of their $\alpha$ and $\beta$ subunits, integrins are classified as either an I-domain or a non-I-domain, which signals a fundamentally different association mechanism between the two groups of receptor types and their respective ligands (6, 8–12). I-domain-containing integrins preferentially bind to ligands via their I-domain, which is located on the $\alpha$ subunit, providing a more approachable binding site and a more relaxed spatial arrangement, whereas non-I-domain integrins carry out binding partly by another portion of the $\alpha$ subunit and partly by the $\beta$ subunit, which sterically places the ligand in a more confined space and makes the binding site less approachable and possibly less favorable (10, 12). The I-domain contains a conserved MIDAS that binds divalent metal cations. Ligand binding alters the coordination of the metal ion and shifts the...
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I-domain from a closed, resting state to an open, active conformation, which results in increased ligand affinity and promotes subsequent integrin activation (13). Four I-domain α subunits (α1, α2, α10, and α11) associate with β1 and form a distinct collagen-binding subfamily. The structural basis of the interaction of these integrins with their ligand is a Glu residue within a collagenous Gly-Phe-Hyp-Gly-Glu-Arg motif, providing the cation coordination (9).

The β subunit plays an important role in ligand binding when α subunits lack the I-domain. Integrin β subunits contain an ion binding site homologous to MIDAS with a sequence motif of Asp-Xaa-Ser-Xaa-Ser. Mutation of any of these ion-coordinating residues within the β1, β2, β3, or β5 subunits ablated ligand binding to the respective integrins (14–16). In αβ integrin heterodimers, ligands bind to a crevice in the head domain between the αβ subunit interface. In many cases the ligand interacts with the metal ion-occupied MIDAS located within the β subunit and the propeller domain of the α subunit (17).

The α3β1 integrin is a non-I-domain integrin that binds collagen and laminin (18–20). More specifically, the α3β1 integrin binds type IV collagen (21) and contributes to melanoma cell migration on this ligand (22, 23). Thus, collagen receptors bind to melanoma cells (33). The α3β1 integrin was identified as the receptor that binds to type IV collagen (21) and contributes to melanoma cell spreading of melanoma and other cell types (34). The α3β1 integrin is located within the collagenous domain.

An essential characteristic of native type IV collagen is the glycosylation of a 20-atom PEG spacer (instead of a 17-atom PEG spacer) at the carbohydrate attachment site. The glycosylation impacts integrin recognition of collagen. To specifically examine the possible modulation of integrin function by glycosylation, THPs with Lys substituted by glycosylated Hyl for Lys and Lys from the human α1(IV)382–393 gene sequence (α2β1 integrin-specific) were synthesized. These ligands were utilized to compare the promotion of melanoma cell adhesion, to observe the effects of ligand glycosylation. Cellular integrin concentrations were quantified utilizing immunocytochemistry. Alternative receptors were examined for recognition of glycosylated collagen. We also tested the possibility of melanoma cell modulation of collagen glycosylation by examining extracellular β1-galactosidase-like activity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All chemicals were molecular biology or peptide synthesis grade and purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific (Waltham, MA) or Sigma-Aldrich.

Synthesis of Fmoc-D,L-Hyl[(5-O-β-Gal(Ac4))(N*-Cbz)]-Opfp Building Block

The synthesis of Fmoc-D,L-Hyl[(5-O-β-Gal(Ac4))(N*-Cbz)]-Opfp was performed in six steps, starting from the racemate of D,L-5-Hyl (Sigma-Aldrich). The synthetic approach has been described previously (39), and analytical data (1H NMR, 13C NMR, and mass spectra) of all intermediates and the desired product were in accordance with published ones (40). For example, MALDI-TOF MS of Fmoc-D,L-Hyl[(5-O-β-Gal(Ac4))(N*-Cbz)]=Opfp yielded m/z = 1037.7535 (calculated for C_{45}H_{47}F_{5}N_{2}NaO_{16}^+, m/z = 1037.2738). RP-HPLC retention time was 19.74 min using a Vydac C18 column (5 μm, 300 Å, 150 × 4.6 mm), analytical gradient of 2–98% B in 20 min (where A was 0.1% TFA in H_{2}O and B was 0.1% TFA in acetonitrile), with a flow rate of 1 ml/min and detection at λ = 220 and 280 nm.

Synthesis of (Glyco)peptides

The (glyco)peptide sequences were based on type IV collagen motifs possessing integrin recognition sites (see Table 1). (Glyco)peptides were synthesized by Fmoc solid phase chemistry using TentaGel S Ram resin (Advanced ChemTech, Louisville, KY) with a substitution level of 0.26 mmol/g. Peptide synthesis was carried out on the Liberty (CEM, Matthews, NC) automated microwave-assisted peptide synthesizer equipped with a Discover microwave module. Fmoc amino acids were coupled using 5 eq of each amino acid, 4.9 eq O-(H-6-chlorobenzotriazole-1-yl)-1,1,3,3-tetramethyluronium hexafluorophosphate, and 8 eq N-methylmorpholine (microwave power of 25 W at 50 °C, 300 s). Fmoc-D,L-Hyl[(5-O-β-Gal(Ac4))(N*-Cbz)]=Opfp was incorporated manually using 3 eq of amino acid and 6 eq N,N-diisopropylethylamine with a reaction time of 17 h. The N termini of the peptides and glycopeptides were modified by coupling with n-dodecanic acid.

In the case of the glycopeptide α1(IV)382–393(Gal), part of the peptidyl-resin was N-terminally modified with biotin containing a 20-atom PEG spacer (instead of n-dodecanic acid). N-Biotinyl-NH-(PEG)_{2}-COOH (EMD Millipore, San Diego, CA) was coupled manually using 3 eq molar excess along with 3 eq of O-(H-6-chlorobenzotriazole-1-yl)-1,1,3,3-tetramethyluronium hexafluorophosphate and 6 eq of N-methylmorpholine in DMF for 90 min. Biotinylated α1(IV)382–393(Gal) THP was synthesized.

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used for β-galactosidase studies because of its favorable RP-HPLC elution profile.

Removal of side chain protecting groups and peptide-resin cleavage were carried out as reported previously (41) for 3 h in an atmosphere of ambient gas (Ar) using 7 ml of cleavage mixture (5% H2O, 5% thiaoisole, 2.5% phenol, and 2.5% 1,2-ethanediol in TFA). Cleaved (glyco)peptides were precipitated in cold methyl tert-butyl ether, centrifuged, and lyophilized. Crude glycopeptides were subjected to Ac protecting group removal from sugar moieties using 0.1M NaOH solution for 15 min. After this time the glycopeptide solution was neutralized with HCl and lyophilized.

Crude (glyco)peptides were purified using RP-HPLC on an Agilent 1260 Infinity series preparative HPLC equipped with a Vydac C18 column (15–20 µm, 300 Å, 250 × 22 mm). The elution gradient was 5–50% B in 60 min (where A was 0.1% TFA in H2O, and B was 0.1% TFA in acetonitrile), with a flow rate of 10 ml/min and detection at λ = 220 and 280 nm. The HPLC fractions were combined, frozen, and lyophilized.

A portion of the biotinylated glycopeptide α1(IV)382–393(Gal) (2.5 mg) was subjected to selective N-acetylation of the Hyl residue. Briefly, the glycopeptide was dissolved in 1 ml of 50 mM ammonium carbonate solution, and 100 µl of acetic anhydride was added. The reaction progress was monitored by HPLC and MALDI-TOF MS, and upon completion the reaction mixture was frozen and lyophilized.

(Glyco)peptide purity was evaluated on an Agilent 1260 Infinity analytical HPLC using a Vydac C18 column (5 µm, 300 Å, 150 × 4.6 mm), analytical gradient 2–98% B in 20 min, with a flow rate of 1 ml/min and detection at λ = 220 and 280 nm. MALDI-TOF MS analysis was performed using an Applied Biosystems Voyager DE-PRO Biospectrometry workstation (Carlsbad, CA) with a α-cyano-4-hydroxy-cinnamic acid/2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid matrix.

**CD Spectroscopy**

Peptides were dissolved in 0.5% acetic acid and equilibrated at 4 °C (>24 h) to facilitate triple-helix formation. Peptide concentrations were determined using a Thermo Scientific NanoDrop 1000 (Waltham, MA) via absorbance at λ = 280 nm, ε280 = 1490 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹. Triple-helical structure was evaluated by near UV CD spectroscopy using a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter (Easton, MD) with a path length of 1 mm. Thermal transition curves were obtained by recording the molar ellipticity ([θ]) at λ = 225 nm with an increase in temperature of 20 °C/h in a range of 5–80 °C. Temperature was controlled by a JASCO PTC-348W1 temperature control unit. The THP melting temperature (Tm) was defined as the inflection point in the transition region (first derivative). The spectra were normalized by designating the highest [θ]225 nm as 100% folded and the lowest [θ]225 nm as 0% folded.

**Cell Culture**

The M14#5 human metastatic melanoma cell line was generously provided by Dr. Barbara Mueller (Torrey Pines Institute for Molecular Studies, La Jolla, CA). The WM-115 (primary melanoma), WM-266-4 (metastatic melanoma), and SK-MEL-2 (metastatic melanoma) cell lines were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA). For cell adhesion assays, cells were grown in EMEM with l-Gln (American Type Culture Collection) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine sera (HyClone), 50 units/ml penicillin, and 0.05 mg/ml streptomycin using 175-cm² flasks. At ~80% confluence cells were subcultured (1:3 ratio for SK-MEL-2, 1:6 for the other cell lines). For cell detachment 0.25% trypsin-EDTA solution was used (Invitrogen). Flasks were kept in a humidified incubator containing 5% CO2, and cells were passaged only eight times to avoid genetic drifts and other variations.

**Immunocytochemistry**

Biotinylated mouse anti-human integrin α3 subunit (CD49c, clone IA3, catalog number BAM1345) and biotinylated mouse anti-human integrin α2 subunit (CD49b, clone HAS3, catalog number BAM1233) mAbs were purchased from R&D Systems (Minneapolis, MN). Biotin-SP-conjugated ChromPure mouse IgG, whole molecule (product code 015-060-003), and mouse serum and the Cy3-conjugated (indocarbocyanine) streptavidin (product code 016-160-084) were purchased from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc. (West Grove, PA). Immunocytochemistry experiments were carried out according to the direct detection method employing working concentrations based on the manufacturer’s recommendation. The specificities of the integrin antibodies were previously established (42, 43). Briefly, cells were plated in a 96-well Costar plate (Corning No. 3632; Fisher Scientific) at 20,000–40,000 cells/100 µl growth medium and allowed to become 70–80% confluent overnight. Growth medium was removed, and cells were rinsed with 1× PBS. Cells were fixed by incubation with 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS for 20 min at room temperature. The plate was blocked against nonspecific binding with 1% mouse serum, 1% BSA/PBS for 1 h at room temperature. Biotinylated anti-integrin α3 or α2 mAbs were diluted in 1% mouse serum, 1% BSA/PBS to 25 µg/ml, added to the cells, and incubated for 1 h at room temperature. As a negative control, biotin-SP-conjugated mouse IgG was utilized, diluted to 25 µg/ml in 1% mouse serum, 1% BSA/PBS. Following incubation with the antibodies and/or mouse IgG, cells were rinsed three times with 1× PBS and subsequently incubated for 1 h at room temperature in the dark with Cy3-conjugated streptavidin diluted to 2 µg/ml in 1% mouse serum, 1% BSA/PBS. Background fluorescence was established by incubating the cells with the Cy3-streptavidin solution for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. The plate was washed with 1× PBS, and bound Cy3 was detected using the red filter on an Olympus IX70 inverted fluorescence microscope camera. Semi-quantitative image analyses were carried out using the Quantity One® v.4.2.2 software (Bio-Rad) on quadruplets of 16 cell/image areas. Cells were counted in selected areas using photos taken at bright light at a visible range wavelength, and then, after switching on the red filter, the selected areas were photographed to determine fluorescence. Exposure times were 250, 400, or 666 ms. Because of either cellular accumulation or entrapped dye, some areas indicated artificially high levels of fluorescence. Those “bright spots” were not utilized for quantification purposes.
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**Adhesion Assays**

The melanoma cell adhesion assay was performed as described previously (44). Peptide ligands (see Table 1) were dissolved in 40% ethanol in PBS and further diluted to desired concentrations in PBS. Pro-Bind™ 96-well plates (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) were coated with 100 μl of desired peptide and incubated at 4 °C overnight. Nonspecific binding sites were blocked with 2 mg/ml BSA in PBS for 2 h at 37 °C (200 μl/well). Cells were split 1–2 days before the experiment and were washed with PBS (without Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) and then released with Accutase (Invitrogen). Cells were then washed and resuspended to 75,000 cells/well in adhesion medium (20 mM HEPES, 2 mg/ml albumin in RPMI 1640 medium). Cell suspension was added to the plate (100 μl/well), and plates were incubated for 60 min at 37 °C. All nonattached cells were removed by washing three times with warm adhesion medium. Adherent cells were counted using CellTiter-Glo luminescent cell viability assay (Promega, Madison, WI) and quantified with a Synergy H4 Hybrid multimode microplate reader (BioTek, Winoski, VT).

**AlphaScreen Assay**

The AlphaScreen assay was performed accordingly to recently published methodology (45). His-tagged galectin-3 (1.25 μl) and biotin-ASF (1.25 μl) were added to wells containing varying concentrations of α1(IV)382–393 and α1(IV)382–393(Gal) THPs (2.5 μl, 0–1 mM final concentration) in optimized assay buffer (25 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween 20, pH 7.4). Because of the low solubility of the peptides at higher concentrations, final solutions contained 1% DMSO. The nonbiotinylated ASF was used as a control. The final concentration of His-tagged galectin-3 was 100 nM and biotin-ASF 5 nM. The reaction mixture was incubated for 1 h at room temperature, and then 5 μl of nickel-chelate Acceptor and 5 μl streptavidin-conjugate Donor beads were simultaneously added to a final concentration of 25 μg/ml. Incubation proceeded for 1 h in the dark at room temperature, and the assay plate was subsequently read at 22 °C in the AlphaScreen mode on a Synergy H4 Hybrid multimode microplate reader. AlphaScreen signal counts (cps) versus log [ligand] (M) were expressed as the mean of five replicate measurements. The IC₅₀ values were obtained by nonlinear regression analysis using the Graph Pad Prism 5.04 software.

**Molecular Modeling**

To generate a model of α1(IV)382–393(Gal) THP interacting with the α2β1 integrin, a homology modeling approach was utilized. Briefly, starting structure 1DZI was used as a template (9). Collagen-like peptide residues were mutated manually in PyMOL (46) and UCSF Chimera software (47). Residues were mutated using Dunbrack backbone-dependent rotamer library (48). Charges were added using AMBER ff12SB force field, and for unknown residues (Gal) were calculated using AM1-BCC model (49). Mutated residues were subjected to minimization using the antechamber program (50) included in Chimera. The α3β1 integrin model was built using the α5β1 integrin x-ray crystallographic structure (51). The α5 subunit was replaced with α3 by homology modeling using the Modeler program (52) and subsequent minimization steps of α3/β1 interface residues using the antechamber module of the Chimera package. Next, docking of α1(IV)531–543 single-stranded peptide was performed using Autodock Vina (53). Because the geometry of the α1(IV)531–543 peptide backbone is unknown, we have selected three different combinations of φ/ψ torsion angles within the polyproline type II family, namely φ/ψ of −60°/150°, −70°/160°, and −75°/175°. Three separate docking runs were performed and compared. In each docking the peptide backbone was kept rigid, and side chains contained rotatable bonds. The docking site was chosen arbitrarily and contained the top of the α3β1 interface along with the MIDAS site in the β1 subunit.

**β-Galactosidase Activity Assessment**

**Isolated β-Galactosidase with Synthetic Substrate—Escherichia coli β-galactosidase (EC 3.2.1.23, grade VIII) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Enzymatic assays were performed in 100 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.2, supplemented with 10 mM MgCl₂ and 5 mM 2-mercaptoethanol (added freshly before the assay). The enzyme activity was determined using the fluorogenic substrate MUG (Sigma-Aldrich) at λₑxcitation = 365 nm and λₑmission = 445 nm. β-Galactosidase activity was measured using the Synergy H4 Hybrid Multi-Mode Microplate Reader over a period of 1 h, with occasional shaking to assure even substrate distribution.**

**Isolated β-Galactosidase with Peptide Substrates—α1(IV)382–393(Gal) THP was selected as a model putative substrate. To determine the influence of the Hyl-e-NH₂ group on β-galactosidase activity, an acetylated version of α1(IV)382–393(Gal) THP, α1(IV)382–393(Gal)-Ac THP, was prepared (see earlier description).**

α1(IV)382–393(Gal) and α1(IV)382–393(Gal)-Ac THPs (46 μg each) were incubated at 37 °C with 100 U of β-galactosidase in 100 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.2, supplemented with 10 mM MgCl₂ and 5 mM 2-mercaptoethanol. After 24 h, aliquots were taken and analyzed using RP-HPLC/MALDI-TOF MS.

**Melanoma Cells with Synthetic Substrate—Extracellular β-galactosidase activity was assessed using a whole cell assay with primary and metastatic melanoma cells. The WM-115 and WM-266-4 cell lines were plated in 24-well plate format at 50,000 cells/well (Corning CellBIND, Corning) and cultured overnight (24 h) using four different media types: EMEM, EMEM supplemented with HI-FBS, OptiMEM, and OptiMEM with HI-FBS. The HI-FBS concentration was 5% (v/v), and the total volume of the media was 500 μl. After 24 or 48 h, MUG was added to a final concentration of 30 μM, and β-galactosidase activity was measured using the Synergy H4 Hybrid multimode microplate reader over a period of 1 h, with occasional shaking to assure even substrate distribution.**

**Melanoma Cells with Peptide Substrates—The WM-115 and WM-266-4 cell lines were plated in 24-well format at 50,000 cells/well and cultured overnight (24 h) using four different media types: EMEM, EMEM supplemented with HI-FBS, OptiMEM, and OptiMEM with HI-FBS. The HI-FBS concentration was 5% (v/v), and the total volume of the media was 500 μl. Cells were grown overnight, and THPs were added to a final
TABLE 1
Sequences, analytical data, and thermal stabilities of THPs used in this study

| Peptide designation | Sequence | Integrin binding | [M+H]+ observed (calculated) | RP-HPLC RT* | Tm *
|---------------------|----------|------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|--------|
| α1(IV)382–393       | Cε2c Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 Gly-Ala-Hyp-Gly-Phe-Hyp-Gly-Glu-Arg-Gly-Glu-Lys-(Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 Tyr-NH₂ | α2β1 | 3687.4666 (3687.7796) | 13.31 | 43 |
| α1(IV)382–393(Gal)  | Cε2c Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 Gly-Ala-Hyp-Gly-Phe-Hyp-Gly-Glu-Arg-Gly-Glu-Hyl(Gal)-(Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 Tyr-NH₂ | α2β1 | 3865.1714 (3865.8273) | 11.32 | 37 |
| α1(IV)531–543       | Cε2c Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 Gly-Glu-Phe-Tyr-Phe-Asp-Leu-Arg-Leu-Lys-Gly-Asp-Lys-(Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 NH₂ | α3β1 | 4414.0239 (4414.1941) | 12.38 | 45 |
| α1(IV)531–543(Gal)(Gal) | Cε2c Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 Gly-Glu-Phe-Tyr-Phe-Asp-Leu-Arg-Leu-Hyl(Gal)(Gly-Ala-Hyp(Gal)-(Gly-Pro-Hyp)ε2 NH₂ | α3β1 | 4770.0703 (4770.2896) | 11.74 | 37 |

* Using a gradient of 2–70% B in 20 min under conditions given under “Materials and Methods.”

Concentration of 35 μM. The incubation was carried out for 24 and 48 h. Aliquots of media were taken, filtered through a 0.22-μm HPLC filter, and subjected to RP-HPLC analysis. All fractions were then collected and analyzed using MALDI-TOF MS.

Released Melanoma Cells with Synthetic and Peptide Substrates—CUG synthetic substrate (Invitrogen) was diluted to a 60 μM in 1 × PBS. To test cell suspensions, subconfluent cells were rinsed with 1 × PBS and released with 5 mM EDTA/PBS. Cells were washed and rediluted to 2 × 10^5 to 1 × 10^6 cells/ml in PBS containing 10 mM MgCl₂ and 5 mM 2-mercaptopetoanol. 100 μl of cells were combined with 50 μl of CUG, and enzymatic activity was measured for 30–90 min, with recurring agitation to maintain the cells in suspension, at λexcitation = 400 nm and λemission = 450 nm on a SpectraMax GeminiEM 96-well plate spectrfluorometer and quantified by the SoftMax Pro 4.3LS software. As a positive control, 50 μl of β-galactosidase and 50 μl of CUG were added to 100 μl of PBS containing the activators and tested simultaneously.

RESULTS

Synthesis of Galactosylated Hyl Building Block—To prepare a galactosylated Hyl building block, we utilized a synthetic approach developed by Kihlberg and co-workers (39), in which 9-BBN simultaneously protects the carboxyl and amino functionalities of amino acids (54). 9-BBN was used for regioselective protection of the α-amino and α-carboxyl groups of D,L-5-Hyl. The resulting 9-BBN complex was then employed in transformations such as ε-amino group protection and O-glycosylation. Further manipulations led to preparation of the Fmoc-D,L-Hyl[(5-O-β-Gal(Ac)₃)₃(Glic]-OPfp building block, suitable for direct use in peptide synthesis under standard Fmoc chemistry conditions. The Cbz group was chosen instead of tert-butylxycarbonyl for ε-amino group protection of Hyl because it is more acid stable during O-glycosylation conditions. Fmoc-D,L-Hyl[(5-O-β-Gal(Ac)₃)₃(Glic]-OPfp was obtained in six steps, with a yield comparable with previously published ones (39).

(Glyco)peptide Synthesis and Characterization—D,L-Hyl[(5-O-β-Gal(Ac)₃)₃(Glic]-OPfp was incorporated into THPs possessing sequences from the α1(IV) collagen chain recognized by α2β1 and α3β1 integrins. We prepared two sets of peptides containing either the Hyl(O-Gal) residue or its Lys counterpart (Table 1). The Hyl(O-Gal) residue was incorporated manually, whereas other amino acids were incorporated using an automated synthesizer under microwave conditions. The N termini of all (glyco)peptides were modified with n-dodecanoic acid to ensure triple-helical character of the (glyco)peptides and to facilitate their attachment to plastic surfaces during the adhesion assay (55, 56).

All peptides were characterized by RP-HPLC and MALDI-TOF MS (Table 1), with appropriate purity and mass values observed. The triple-helical character of the peptides was analyzed by CD spectroscopy, in the range of λ = 250–180 nm (Fig. 1). All peptides had characteristic triple-helical spectra, with a positive peak at λ = 222 nm and a negative peak at λ = 205 nm. Thermal transition curves were obtained by recording molar ellipticity ([θ]) at λ = 225 nm as a function of increasing temperature (Fig. 2). The melting point (Tm) was defined as the inflection point in the transition region (Table 1). All peptides exhibited good triple-helix stability, with Tm values ranging from 37 to 45 °C. Galactosylation of Hyl had a destabilizing effect on the triple-helix, because the glycopeptides had Tm values 6–8 °C lower than the corresponding nonglycosylated peptides. This could be caused by the presence of racemic D,L-5-Hyl used in the present study.

Immunochemistry—The cell surface concentrations of the α2 and α3 subunits of the α2β1 and α3β1 integrins were evaluated for all melanoma cell lines by immunocytochemistry. Image analysis for each cell line for both receptor subunits (Fig. 3A) provided semiquantitative numerical information on cell surface integrin concentrations. Numerical values reflected relative fluorescence intensities of the same cell number, normalized by area measured, and by subtraction of the autofluorescence of the cells (Fig. 3B). All four cell lines showed abundant levels of both integrin subunits, with somewhat higher levels for the α2 subunit compared with the α3 subunit (Fig. 3B). The primary cell line (WM-115) had lower levels of the α2 and α3 subunits compared with the metastatic cell lines. Overall, integrin levels were sufficient to investigate melanoma-ligand interactions.

Melanoma Cell Adhesion—The influence of glycosylation on melanoma cell adhesion was examined over a THP concentration range of 0–50 μM (Fig. 4). All melanoma cell lines exhibited similar binding curves to each of the nonglycosylated peptides, α1(IV)382–393 THP and α1(IV)531–543 THP (Fig. 4, top left and bottom left). Adhesion to α1(IV)382–393 THP was observed at the lowest peptide concentration tested (0.1 μM), whereas adhesion to α1(IV)531–543 THP initiated at 1.0 μM and reached a maximum at 10 μM (Fig. 4, top left and bottom left). The α1(IV)531–543 THP dose dependence mirrors that reported previously (34). Although adhesion to α1(IV)382–393
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All cell lines were very sensitive toward the glycosylation of the α1(IV)531–543 sequence (Fig. 4, bottom right). Cells were adherent to α1(IV)531–543 THP in a range of 1–50 μM (Fig. 4, bottom left). The glycosylation of Hyl393 and Hyl543 dramatically decreased adhesion (Fig. 4, bottom right). Cells were adherent to α1(IV)531–543(Gal)(Gal) THP only at the highest concentration tested (50 μM).

Galectin-3 Interaction with THPs—Galectin-3 is known to mediate cell binding to galactosylated ligands (57). Thus, we examined the possibility that glycosylation may result in a switch of receptor binding, in that galectin-3 may mediate binding to glycosylated THPs. Binding was tested using a galectin-3 AlphaScreen assay (45) with α1(IV)382–393 and α1(IV)531–543 THPs along with ASF as a control (Fig. 5). Only nonspecific binding of the THPs with galectin-3 was observed (IC50 in the millimolar range) with no difference between glycosylated and nonglycosylated ligands. Thus, galectin-3 does not appear to be involved in binding to these ligands.

Molecular Modeling of Integrin-THP Complexes—To further investigate the influence of glycosylation of α1(IV)382–393 and α1(IV)531–543 THPs on binding to their respective integrins, molecular modeling was performed. Models for both integrin-THP complexes were prepared (Figs. 6 and 7). For the α2β1 integrin, a model was generated using the x-ray crystallographic structure of the α2 I-domain in complex with a THP (PDB: 1DZ1) (9). The Hyl393 glycosylation site is located four residues away from the Glu389 responsible for binding to the MIDAS of the I-domain. It appears that the Hyl393 site is at the outer interface of the integrin interaction site, and thus mono-glycosylation does not impact binding significantly (Fig. 6). When the disaccharide-containing residue (Glc-Gal)Hyl is considered, glycosylation of Hyl393 will interfere with binding to the α2 integrin because the binding site is masked by the sugar moiety (data not shown). Thus, the effect of glycosylation on α2β1 integrin binding to type IV collagen may very well depend on whether monosaccharide or disaccharide glycosylation has occurred.

The recognition site for the α3β1 integrin is much different from α2β1 because there is no homology between the peptide ligand sequences. Also, the α1(IV)531–543 sequence does not have the classic -Gly-Xaa-Yaa- repeat required for stabilization of the triple-helix, but rather has a noncollagen-like insertion/break region of n = 7 (58). The break region within α1(IV)531–543 is anticipated to have some strand separation, based on prior studies of break regions within THPs (59, 60). Conversely, the α1(IV)531–543 break region does not possess either Pro or Hyp and nor do the flanking regions, and thus the break is not anticipated to significantly affect the triple-helical structure of the remainder of the THP (61, 62). In addition, the presence of hydrophobic residues within the break region further aids in the stability of the THP (62).

For molecular modeling studies, it was assumed that the α1(IV)531–543 region possesses a polyproline type II-like structure (Fig. 7A). Single-stranded α1(IV)531–543 was used for molecular docking purposes. Three different sets of polyproline type II-like torsion angles, ϕ/ψ = −60°/150°, −70°/160°, and −75°/175°, were considered, and the peptide backbone was kept rigid upon docking (Fig. 7B). Previous studies revealed the
crucial role of both Asp residues of the α1(IV)531–543 sequence for binding to the α3β1 integrin (34). Taking this into account, another set of docking was performed where the Gly541 and/or Gly544 residues were allowed flexibility around the Cα atom. In each docking result the lowest energy ligands were obtained by having the Asp542 residue in close proximity of the MIDAS (Fig. 7C). The docking studies revealed that glycosylation of Hyl540 and Hyl543 occurred right in the middle of key electrostatic/metal binding interactions and thus would dramatically impact the binding of the α3β1 integrin to the α1(IV)531–543 THP.

β-Galactosidase Activity Evaluation—Knowing that glycosylation could negatively impact integrin binding to type IV collagen, we next examined whether melanoma cells could modulate O-glycosylation of the microenvironment. Initially, E. coli β-galactosidase was tested with the α1(IV)382–393(Gal) THP. Different enzyme concentrations (1–100 units) were compared using incubation at 37 °C for up to 72 h. At certain time points aliquots were taken and subjected to RP-HPLC/MALDI-TOF MS analysis. No hydrolysis of Gal by E. coli β-galactosidase was observed (data not shown). Activity of the β-galactosidase was confirmed with MUG fluorogenic substrate (data not shown).

FIGURE 3. The cell surface concentrations of the α2 and α3 subunits of the α2β1 and α3β1 integrins evaluated for melanoma cell lines by immunocytochemistry. A, image analysis for each cell line for both receptor subunits and IgG background. Bars indicate 100 μm. B, semiquantitative numerical values for cellular integrin concentrations, obtained by relative fluorescence intensities of the same number of cells, normalized by area measured and by subtraction of the autofluorescence of the cells. Conditions are given under "Materials and Methods."
The influence of the ε-amino group of Hyl on β-galactosidase activity was then tested. Prior studies indicated that β-galactosidase was effective in cleaving the Gal moiety from (Gal)Hyl only if the ε-amino group was acetylated (63–65). No cleavage of the sugar moiety was observed when 1(IV)382–393(Gal)THP, in either nonacetylated or acetylated (1(IV)382–393(Gal)-Ac THP) form, was treated with β-galactosidase (data not shown). Although this result is in contrast to the results obtained by Spiro (63–65), the prior study tested the enzyme activity on isolated (Gal)Hyl moiety only.

Whole cell assays were next performed. Two cell lines were selected: primary (WM-115) and metastatic (WM-266–4) melanoma obtained from the same patient. Different cell culture media (EMEM and OptiMEM with or without HI-FBS) were also tested. In the first experiment, cells were grown for 24 or 48 h, and then MUG was added and activity monitored for 1 h (Fig. 8). There was no activity present in EMEM and OptiMEM media (Fig. 8, A and C). In contrast, media containing HI-FBS possessed some β-galactosidase activity (Fig. 8, B and D). In the case of OptiMEM + HI-FBS, the activity was associated with the presence of serum, because control (without cells) also exhibited this activity (Fig. 8D). However, both WM-115 and WM-266–4 exhibited some activity toward MUG.
above background in EMEM + HI-FBS (Fig. 8B). The results from 48 h were identical (data not shown).

Next, WM-115 and WM-266-4 were incubated with \( \alpha_1(IV)382–393 \) THP, \( \alpha_1(IV)382–393(Gal) \) THP, \( \alpha_1(IV)531–543 \) THP, and \( \alpha_1(IV)531–543(Gal,Gal) \) THP. After 24 or 48 h of incubation, an aliquot of culture media was taken and subjected to HPLC/MALDI-TOF MS analysis. The nonglycosylated peptides served as internal controls for determination of the hydrolysis pattern. The RP-HPLC profiles of peptides incubated with media served as a control. Interestingly, RP-HPLC analysis showed that all peptides were stable in media containing HI-FBS (data not shown).

All peptides were clearly identified during RP-HPLC/MALDI-TOF MS analysis of aliquots (Fig. 9). Under the employed conditions, neither of the glycosylated THPs was deglycosylated, as confirmed by MS analyses (data not shown). It was also possible to perform MALDI-TOF MS analyses of crude aliquots (without HPLC separation), and these results confirmed that glycopeptides were unmodified (Fig. 10). The results with cells in suspension were identical, in that (a) \( \beta \)-galactosidase activity could be observed with CUG and inhibited by phenylethyl \( \beta \)-d-thiogalactopyranoside (a selective \( \beta \)-galactosidase inhibitor) and (b) no degalactosylation of the THPs was found (data not shown).

**DISCUSSION**

Tumor cells interact with type IV collagen at the site of extravasation through distinct cellular receptors, including the \( \alpha_2\beta_1, \alpha_3\beta_1, \) and \( \alpha_3\beta_1 \) integrins. Integrins contribute to the ability of melanoma cells to migrate, invade, and metastasize to secondary sites (6, 66). Because they play a pivotal role in both inside-out and outside-in signaling (67), integrins affect most aspects of cell behavior, including shape, motility, differentiation, proliferation, and survival. Thus, it is not surprising that these receptors are also known to be differentially expressed in tumors relative to normal cells, depending on tumor type and stage of progression (4, 6, 66, 68, 69).

The types and concentration of cellular receptors has long been a focus for finding indicators of disease progression. Testing of 10 different human melanoma cell lines found that the \( \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \) and \( \beta_1 \) integrin subunits were expressed on all of them (70). It is interesting to note that the \( \alpha_3 \) subunit showed the highest expression profile, with subtle differences in regards to the invasive profile of a given cell line. The same variation was
observed for the α2 and β1 subunits, showing higher expression levels in more invasive tumor types, although the overall concentrations were somewhat lower than that of the α3 subunit. In light of these prior results, the role of the associative relationships between type IV collagen and α2β1 and α3β1 integrins with regards to melanoma progression was examined here.

Prior research conducted in our laboratory indicated an altered affinity of a cell surface proteoglycan, CD44, toward binding sites in type IV collagen based on glycosylation (38). This result led to us to consider whether hydroxylation/glycosylation of Lys residues modulates ligand binding by other receptors, such as integrins. Previous studies have not considered how Hyl glycosylation impacts on integrin recognition of collagen. To specifically examine the possible modulation of integrin function by glycosylation, THPs with Lys substituted by glycosylated Hyl for Lys393 from the human α1(IV)382–393 gene sequence (α2β1 integrin-specific), and Lys543 and Lys540 from the human α1(IV)531–543 gene sequence (α3β1 integrin-
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Specific) were synthesized. These ligands were utilized to compare the promotion of cell adhesion.

Collagen glycosylation was found to modulate integrin binding. The integrins were affected differently, with only modest inhibition of \( \alpha 2 \beta 1 \) binding (with the primary melanoma cell line being least affected) and significant inhibition for \( \alpha 3 \beta 1 \) interaction.

Molecular modeling studies of the \( \alpha 2 \beta 1 \) integrin in complex with the glycosylated ligand \( \alpha 1(IV)382–393(Gal)(Gal) \) THP indicated that \( \text{Gal} \)Hyl393 was at the outer interface of the integrin interaction site, and thus galactosylation only slightly diminishes binding (Fig. 6). However, for the cell lines tested herein, the effects of ligand glycosylation on binding varied, with the smallest effect on the primary melanoma cell line (WM-115) and the largest effect on the highly metastatic M14#5 cell line (Fig. 4, top right). Because the relative amount of \( \alpha 2 \beta 1 \) integrin on each cell surface was similar (Fig. 3B), variations in activity could be due to interactions of the glycosylated ligand with different activation states of the \( \alpha 2 \beta 1 \) integrin or with different cell surface complexes that incorporate the \( \alpha 2 \beta 1 \) integrin.

The simulations of interactions of the \( \alpha 3 \beta 1 \) integrin with \( \alpha 1(IV)531–543 \) THP indicated that the relatively flexible 531–543 region is capable of binding across the \( \alpha 3 \beta 1 \) interface with Asp\(^{542} \) side chain is a primary driving force for binding the peptide to the receptor (Fig. 7C). This model is with agreement with previously published data identifying Asp\(^{542} \) as a critical residue for \( \alpha 3 \beta 1 \) integrin binding to \( \alpha 1(IV)531–543 \) (34) and consistent with several integrin x-ray crystallographic structures including eIIb\( \beta 3 \) (71), \( \alpha 5 \beta 1 \) (51), and \( \alpha \nu \beta 3 \) (17). Glycosylation within the \( \alpha 1(IV)531–543 \) sequence results in significant inhibition of integrin binding, mostly likely because of the proximity of the galactosylated residues (Hyl\(^{540} \) and Hyl\(^{543} \)) to the key electrostatic/metal binding interactions via Asp\(^{542} \). Although inhibition caused by glycosylation is an uncommon phenomenon, the presence of sialic acid on sialoglycoprotein P2B reduced the binding of tumor cells to type IV collagen (72, 73).

The reduced binding of integrins caused by ligand glycosylation presents a possible “cryptic sites” mechanism by which tumor cells may evade the BM (38). In the native, glycosylated state, regions within type IV collagen may have minimal interaction with receptors such as the \( \alpha 3 \beta 1 \) integrin and CD44. After tumor cells bind to type IV collagen (presumably via the \( \alpha 2 \beta 1 \) integrin), cell surface or secreted glycosidases could liberate the collagen-bound carbohydrates. This process would expose cryptic sites for interaction with the \( \alpha 3 \beta 1 \) integrin, CD44/CSPG, and/or other cell surface receptors.

Extracellular removal of carbohydrates could also occur under other circumstances. Numerous bacterial pathogens bind to collagen (74), with binding occurring at several sites within the triple helix (75). The collagen binding protein from Staphylococcus aureus has been identified as CNA, and its mode of binding has been determined (76). Upon binding to collagen, bacteria could secrete \( \beta \)-galactosidases that facilitate deglycosylation. Reduced glycosylation could impact integrin interactions, as well as other collagen-binding proteins. The endocytic collagen receptor urokinase plasminogen activator receptor-associated protein mediates glycosylated collagen turnover (77), DDR1 binds to type IV collagen (78), and this binding may be mediated by ligand glycosylation (79).

Ultimately, glycosylation could be modulated extracellularly in similar fashion to intracellular protein dynamic glycosylation/phosphorylation (80, 81). The post-translational modification of Hyl is catalyzed by two groups of collagen glycosyltransferases, Hyl galactosyltransferase (EC 2.4.1.50) and (Gal)Hyl glucosyltransferase (EC 2.4.1.66), resulting in the formation of (Gal)Hyl and (Glc-Gal)Hyl, respectively (82). The Hyl galactosyltransferase activity has been ascribed to the multifunctional enzyme LH3 (83, 84) and/or GLT25D1 and GLT25D2 (85). LH3 appears responsible for the (Gal)Hyl glucosyltransferase activity (84, 86–89). LH3 can function extracellularly, glycosylating native, triple-helical collagens (90, 91). In fact, extracellular glycosyltransferase activity of LH3 is vital for the cell growth and viability (92). A cell surface galactosyltransferase functions as a type IV collagen adhesion molecule and galactosylates type IV collagen (93). Platelets can supply sugar donor substrates for extracellular glycosylation (94). Collagen Hyl residues can also be phosphorylated (95), and phosphorylation of collagen can occur extracellularly (96).

For dynamic modification of collagen to occur, carbohydrates would need to be removed from type IV collagen extra-
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cellularly. An age-dependent increase in β-galactosidase activity (at pH 6) has been reported (97), and a cell surface inactive β-galactosidase functions as an elastin and laminin receptor (98). An α-glucosidase that removes glucose from (Glc-Gal)Hyl has been characterized (99). However, we found no evidence that deglycosylation could be performed extracellularly, because triple-helical glycopeptides were not substrates for purified β-galactosidase or melanoma cells. Thus, although a deglycosylation/cryptic site mechanism provides interesting speculation, it should also be noted that glycosylation is not 100% efficient; collagen O-glycosylation sites are found as mixtures of Lys, Hyl, (Gal)Hyl, and (Glc-Gal)Hyl (36, 89, 100, 101). Thus, receptor interaction may just occur with the subpopulation of type IV collagen that does not contain carbohydrate.

Alternatively, tumor cell binding may be mediated by differential glycosylation that is tissue-specific. For example, LH3 is decreased in cancer, in similar fashion to integrin activity. It is also possible that Hyl glycosylation enzymes are unknown. If the levels of glycosylation are indeed modulated, in vivo glycosylated collagen models. When one considers the BM microenvironment.

cell-BM interactions and the role of glycosylation within that (i.e. laminin). Future studies may consider the complexities of cell-BM interactions and the role of glycosylation within that microenvironment.

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