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Regulation of fibulin-2 gene expression by integrin α 3 β 1 contributes to the invasive phenotype of transformed keratinocytes

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Abstract

The laminin-binding integrin $\alpha 3\beta 1$ is highly expressed in epidermal keratinocytes where it regulates both cell-autonomous and paracrine functions that promote wound healing and skin tumorigenesis. However, roles for $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in regulating gene expression programs that control the behaviors of immortalized or transformed keratinocytes remain underexplored. In the current study, we used a microarray approach to identify genes that are regulated by $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in immortalized keratinocytes. $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-responsive genes included several that are involved in extracellular matrix proteolysis or remodeling, including fibulin-2 and SPARC. However, $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent induction of specific target genes was influenced by the genetic lesion that triggered immortalization, as $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent fibulin-2 expression occurred in cells immortalized by either SV40 large T antigen or p53-null mutation, while $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent SPARC expression occurred only in the former cells. Interestingly, qPCR arrays did not reveal strong patterns of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent gene expression in freshly isolated primary keratinocytes, suggesting that this regulation is acquired during immortalization. p53-null keratinocytes transformed with oncogenic RasV12 retained α3β1-dependent fibulin-2 expression, and RNAi-mediated knockdown of fibulin-2 in these cells reduced invasion, although not their tumorigenic potential. These findings demonstrate a prominent role for $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in immortalized/transformed keratinocytes in regulating fibulin-2 and other genes that promote matrix remodeling and invasion.

Keywords

 $\alpha 3\beta 1$ integrin; keratinocyte; immortalization; epidermis; fibulin-2

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INTRODUCTION

Integrins are the major cell surface receptors for adhesion to extracellular matrix (ECM), and they activate intracellular signaling pathways that control a wide variety of cell functions, including cell polarity, proliferation, survival, and motility (Hynes, 2002). Numerous studies have demonstrated roles for keratinocyte integrins in mediating epidermal function during both normal and pathological skin remodeling processes, including wound healing, tumorigenesis, tumor invasion and various skin diseases (Grose et al., 2002; Margadant et al., 2010; Missan and DiPersio, 2012; Watt, 2002). However, roles for integrins in regulating genes that control these processes remain unclear. Integrin a3β1 is highly expressed in the epidermis where it mediates keratinocyte adhesion to laminin-332 (LN-332) in the basement membrane (Carter et al., 1991; Delwel et al., 1994; Kreidberg, 2000). a3b1 is also expressed highly in wound epidermis (Margadant et al., 2010), and in squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) where it contributes to tumor growth, invasion and metastasis (Janes and Watt, 2006; Sachs et al., 2012). Indeed, numerous studies using primary or immortalized keratinocytes have identified roles for $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in a range of cell functions important for wound healing and tumor progression, including cell polarization and migration, ECM organization, invasion, survival, and paracrine stimulation of endothelial cells (Choma et al., 2007; Choma et al., 2004; deHart et al., 2003; Iyer et al., 2005; Kreidberg, 2000; Lamar et al., 2008a; Margadant et al., 2009; Mitchell et al., 2009). Furthermore, in vivo studies using global or epidermis-specific α 3 knockout mice have identified roles for $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in basement membrane organization and epidermal-dermal adhesion (DiPersio et al., 1997; Longmate et al., 2014), hair follicle morphogenesis (Conti et al., 2003), wound reepithelialization (Margadant et al., 2009), induction of wound angiogenesis (Mitchell et al., 2009), and tumor growth (Abramoff et al., 2013; Lamar et al., 2008b).

Many $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-mediated keratinocyte functions can be attributed to its roles in mediating cell spreading, migration, and cytoskeletal reorganization (Kreidberg, 2000). However, $\alpha 3\beta 1$ also regulates expression of secreted proteases or growth factors in immortalized keratinocytes that can alter ECM or stimulate other cellular compartments, thereby allowing epidermal cells to modify the wound or tumor microenvironment (Iver et al., 2005; Mitchell et al., 2009). In the current study, we sought to identify $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent changes in global gene expression that may contribute to ECM remodeling or invasive properties of immortalized keratinocytes. Microarray analysis and quantitative PCR (qPCR) validation revealed substantial changes in gene expression in immortalized mouse keratinocytes (MK cells) that lack $\alpha 3\beta 1$ due to null mutation of the *Itga3* gene, which encodes the $\alpha 3$ subunit. Many of these a3\beta1-responsive genes are involved in normal or pathological skin remodeling, including wound healing and epidermal carcinogenesis, and several encode proteins with known roles in modulating the skin microenvironment through changes in ECM organization, ECM proteolysis, or paracrine stimulation of other cells. One such protein, fibulin-2, is a secreted matricellular protein that can bind several ECM proteins including perlecan, fibrillin-1, aggrecan, fibronectin, and y2 chain-containing laminins (Timpl et al., 2003; Pan et al., 1993). Another example is SPARC (secreted protein acidic and rich in cysteine), an ECM-associated protein with roles in tumor angiogenesis, invasion

and metastasis (Arnold and Brekken, 2009). Interestingly, custom qPCR arrays did not reveal statistically significant differences in most genes upon deletion of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ from nonimmortalized, primary keratinocytes, suggesting that $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent gene regulation was acquired by immortalized keratinocytes, as we described previously for MMP-9 (DiPersio *et al.*, 2000; Lamar *et al.*, 2008b). However, while $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent regulation of fibulin-2 was observed in cells immortalized by either SV40 large T antigen or p53-null mutation, $\alpha 3\beta 1$ dependence of SPARC and other genes was influenced by the immortalizing genetic lesion.

siRNA-mediated suppression of fibulin-2 reduced invasion of p53-null MK cells, consistent with pro-invasive/pro-metastatic roles for fibulin-2 in some cancers (Baird *et al.*, 2013; Senapati *et al.*, 2012). However, stable knockdown of fibulin-2 in RasV12-transformed keratinocytes did not inhibit α 3 β 1-dependent tumor growth in a subcutaneous allograft model. Taken together, these findings support a role for integrin α 3 β 1 in the regulation of fibulin-2 and other genes that contribute to the invasive properties of transformed keratinocytes.

RESULTS

Microarrays of immortalized keratinocytes reveal $a3\beta1$ -dependent changes in genes that modulate the tumor microenvironment

We used Affymetrix whole genome arrays (Mouse Exon ST 1.0) to compare global gene expression between MK cells that were derived from either wild-type mice (MK+/+ cells) or mice that lack α 3 β 1 (MK-/- cells), and were immortalized with SV40 Large T antigen (LTAg) (DiPersio et al., 2000). MK cells were cultured in low calcium (0.05 mM CaCl₂) on collagen-coated plates, since under these conditions they deposit abundant LN-332 regardless of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ expression (DiPersio *et al.*, 2000). Initially, we identified 739 genes that increased or decreased by at least 1.5-fold in MK-/- cells compared to MK+/+ cells. However, some differences could be due to clonal variations that arose during expansion of these cell lines (DiPersio et al., 2000). Therefore, we narrowed our list of candidate genes to those that changed in MK-/- cells but were rescued to original expression levels after restoring $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in this line (i.e., MK-/-:h $\alpha 3$ cells) by stable transfection with human $\alpha 3$ (Iver *et al.*, 2005). This analysis identified a subset of 252 genes that were rescued by $\alpha 3\beta 1$, most of which were restored to within 1.5-fold of their expression in MK+/+ cells. Select genes that fulfilled these initial criteria are shown in Figure S1. From genes that fit this pattern, 86 were validated as α 3 β 1-dependent using customized qPCR arrays to compare expression in MK+/+ cells versus either MK-/- cells or MK-/-:h α 3 cells. A selection of validated genes that fulfilled these final criteria are shown in Figures 1a and 1b, and listed in Figure 1c.

Among validated $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent genes were many that contribute to ECM remodeling in tumors or wounds (Fig. 1), including ECM-associated proteins (e.g., fibulin-2, SPARC, thrombospondin-2) and ECM proteases/sulfatases or their inhibitors (e.g., sulf-2, serpine2, serpinB2/PAI-2, Pi15). $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent regulation of fibulin-2 is particularly intriguing since this protein can bind the γ 2 chain of laminin-332, the major ECM ligand of $\alpha 3\beta$ 1 (Utani *et al.*, 1997), and we recently implicated fibulin-2 in $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent epidermal functions during development and wound healing (Longmate *et al.*, 2014). Although

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SPARC is overexpressed in esophageal SCC (Che *et al.*, 2006; Porte *et al.*, 1998), the literature regarding SPARC function in cancer is controversial, and both pro-tumorigenic and tumor suppressor functions have been described (Arnold and Brekken, 2009; Briggs *et al.*, 2002; Gerson *et al.*, 2012; Koblinski *et al.*, 2005; Ledda *et al.*, 1997). Expression of the protease inhibitor Pi15 decreased most substantially in α 3 β 1-deficient cells on both gene microarrays and qPCR arrays. While the functional impact of this change is not known, it is noteworthy that altered Pi15 expression has been associated with wound healing (Roupe *et al.*, 2010). α 3 β 1 deletion also altered expression of transcriptional regulators, such as mecom and cited2. Of note, cited2 is a transcriptional coactivator that induces MMP-9 gene expression in response to TGF- β (Chou *et al.*, 2006), which could conceivably contribute to cooperative induction of MMP-9 mRNA by α 3 β 1 and TGF β that we previously described in MK cells (Lamar *et al.*, 2008a).

 $\alpha 3\beta 1$ also regulated genes that encode factors for paracrine stimulation of other cell types (e.g., kitl, Prl2c2/Prl2c3). Indeed, members of the mitogen-regulated protein (MRP)/ proliferin family were among the $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent genes detected by microarray (Fig. S1) and validated by qPCR (Fig. 1). This finding validates our approach to identify $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent genes, as it is consistent with our previous report that $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent MRP-3/ Prl2c3 gene expression promotes MK cell crosstalk to endothelial cells (Mitchell *et al.*, 2009). Nevertheless, not all $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent genes were revealed by the initial microarray, since $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent MMP-9 expression described previously (Iyer *et al.*, 2005) was confirmed by qPCR (Fig. 1) but not detected by gene microarray.

α3β1-dependent gene regulation is associated with keratinocyte immortalization

Our earlier work showed that $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent MMP-9 gene expression is acquired during keratinocyte immortalization (DiPersio et al., 2000; Lamar et al., 2008b). To determine whether $\alpha \beta$ 1-dependent regulation of other genes is similarly acquired by immortalized cells, we utilized our custom qPCR array to compare gene expression in freshly isolated primary keratinocytes from neonatal mice that either express $\alpha 3\beta 1$ (control mice) or lack $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in epidermis ($\alpha 3eKO$ mice) due to deletion of a floxed *Itga3* allele by Cre recombinase under control of the keratin-14 promoter (Mitchell et al., 2009). a3 protein was readily detected by immunoblot of primary cultures from control mice (albeit at variable levels) but was uniformly undetectable in cultures from a3eKO mice (Fig. S2a). Interestingly, microarrays of cells isolated from three individual mice of each genotype revealed no statistically significant differences between control and a3eKO cells for genes that had been identified as a3β1-responsive in immortalized MK cells (Fig. S2b). Notably, we observed a trend towards decreased expression of fibulin-2 and thrombospondin-2 in α 3eKO primary cells, although the magnitude was variable and did not reach statistical significance. These findings indicate that $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent regulation of most genes was acquired by immortalized keratinocytes.

$\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent gene regulation is influenced by the genetic lesion that drives keratinocyte immortalization

To determine how $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -mediated gene regulation observed in LTAg-immortalized MK cells is influenced by other genetic lesions that drive immortalization/transformation, we

utilized an independently derived set of mouse keratinocyte lines (Fig. 2a). IMK cells are immortalized by p53 knockout and either express $\alpha 3\beta 1$ (IMK $\alpha 3+/+$) or lack $\alpha 3\beta 1$ (IMKa3-/-), as described (Lamar et al., 2008b). TMK cells are transformed, tumorigenic derivatives of IMK cells that were stably transduced with oncogenic H-RasV12 (Lamar et al., 2008b). Since p53 loss and oncogenic activation of H-Ras are common genetic lesions in cutaneous SCC (Azzoli et al., 1998; Yuspa, 1998), these IMK and TMK lines provide a useful model for assessing integrin-dependent gene expression in SCC progression. qPCR showed dramatically reduced fibulin-2 mRNA in IMK α 3–/- cells compared with IMK α 3+/+ cells (Fig. 2b), indicating similar α 3 β 1-dependent regulation to that in LTAgimmortalized MK cells (Fig. 1). Other genes that were a3\beta1-dependent in both p53-null and LTAg-immortalized keratinocytes included MMP-9, Serpine2, Sulf2, and Mt4 (data not shown) (DiPersio et al., 2000; Lamar et al., 2008b). In contrast, SPARC and certain other genes that were $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent in LTAg-immortalized cells were not $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent in p53-null IMK cells (Fig. 2c, and data not shown), indicating an influence of the genetic lesion that initiates immortalization. RasV12-transformed TMK cells retained expression patterns for fibulin-2 and SPARC that were observed in the parental IMK cells (Fig. 2d, e).

Suppression of fibulin-2 reduces invasion of RasV12-transformed keratinocytes

Fibulin-2 can be expressed as a monomer or a disulfide-linked homodimer. The monomer can range in size from 160 kDa to 195 kDa due to variations in mRNA splicing, post-translational modification, or proteolysis (Pan *et al.*, 1993; Sasaki *et al.*, 1997; Yi *et al.*, 2007; Sicot *et al.*, 2008). Immunoblots of non-reduced lysates from LTAg-immortalized MK cells with anti-fibulin-2 revealed a ~160 kDa band corresponding to the monomeric form, as well as a high molecular weight band corresponding to the ~375 kDa dimeric form (Fig. 3a, non-reducing). As expected, only the monomeric form was detected on a reducing blot (Fig. 3a, reducing). Consistent with our qPCR results, absence of α 3 β 1 was associated with reduced expression of total fibulin-2 protein, defined as the sum of dimeric and monomeric forms (Fig. 3a, b). Similarly, total fibulin-2 protein was reduced in both p53-null immortalized IMK cells and RasV12-transformed TMK cells that lack α 3 β 1 (Fig. 3c). Notably, IMK cells and TMK cells each showed considerable variation in the relative abundance of monomeric fibulin-2 over several experiments. While the reason for this variation is unclear, it could be due to sensitivity of disulfide-linkage to subtle differences in culture conditions.

Mutations in p53 and Ras are associated with increased invasion (Campbell *et al.*, 1993; Papathoma *et al.*, 2001), and both IMK α 3–/– cells and TMK α 3–/– cells showed reduced invasion through Matrigel compared with their α 3-expressing counterparts (Fig. S3) (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b). Since fibulin-2 may promote invasion in some cancers (Baird *et al.*, 2013; Senapati *et al.*, 2012), we reasoned that α 3 β 1-mediated invasion might require fibulin-2. We showed that treatment of α 3 β 1-expressing IMK cells or TMK cells with either of two siRNAs to knockdown fibulin-2 (Fig. 4a, b) significantly reduced invasion compared to treatment with control siRNA (Fig. 4c, d). Thus, α 3 β 1-dependent fibulin-2 expression enhances invasion of keratinocytes that harbor a loss-of-function p53 mutation and oncogenic RasV12.

Stable knockdown of fibulin-2 in tumorigenic TMK $_{\alpha}$ 3+/+ cells does not inhibit in vivo tumor growth

We previously showed that TMK α 3–/– cells display reduced subcutaneous tumor growth compared to TMK α 3+/+ cells (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b), consistent with a recently described pro-tumorigenic role for α 3 β 1 in SCC development (Sachs *et al.*, 2012). To determine whether fibulin-2 facilitates α 3 β 1-dependent tumor growth, we stably transduced TMK α 3+/+ cells with lentiviral vectors expressing two independent fibulin-2 shRNAs, each of which efficiently suppressed fibulin-2 as determined by qPCR (data not shown) and immunoblot (Fig. 5a). Following subcutaneous injection into nude mice, TMK α 3+/+ cells transduced with control shRNA showed significantly faster tumor growth than did TMK α 3–/– cells transduced with the same shRNA (Fig. 5b), confirming α 3 β 1-dependent tumor growth in this allograft model (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b). However, stable transduction of TMK α 3+/+ cells with either fibulin-2-targeting shRNA did not reduce tumor growth compared with control shRNA (Fig. 5b), indicating that suppression of fibulin-2 does not inhibit α 3 β 1-mediated tumor growth of TMK cells. Although we observed that TMK α 3+/+ cells transduced with one fibulin-2-targeting shRNA formed larger tumors than control TMK α 3+/+ cells, we did not observe this effect with the other fibulin-2-targeting shRNA.

Since we previously showed that $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent MMP-9 expression is important for TMK α 3+/+ cell invasion (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b), and some fibulins (including fibulin-2) have been associated with MMP expression (Creighton and Hanash, 2003; Obaya *et al.*, 2012), we performed gelatin zymography to assess MMP-9 secretion in the TMK variants. TMK α 3-/- cells secreted substantially less MMP-9 compared with TMK α 3+/+ cells (Fig. 5c) (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b). However, MMP-9 secretion was not altered by shRNA-mediated suppression of fibulin-2 (Fig. 5c), suggesting that MMP-9 and fibulin-2 each have necessary but independent roles in α 3 β 1-mediated TMK cell invasion.

DISCUSSION

It is well established that integrins can regulate the ability of tumor cells to modulate the ECM of the tumor microenvironment through regulation of proteases or expression of ECM proteins (Missan and DiPersio, 2012; Yue *et al.*, 2012). In particular, integrin $\alpha\beta\beta1$ has long been known to regulate expression or activities of extracellular proteases involved in tumor progression or wound healing, including MMPs and the urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA) system (Ghosh *et al.*, 2006; Iyer *et al.*, 2005; Lamar *et al.*, 2008b; Morini *et al.*, 2000; Sugiura and Berditchevski, 1999). Here, we have identified a role for $\alpha\beta\beta1$ in regulating keratinocyte genes that encode ECM proteins, extracellular proteases or their inhibitors, growth factors, or transcriptional regulators, many of which are known to contribute directly or indirectly to microenvironmental modifications of cutaneous tumors or wounds. Interestingly, some genes (e.g., fibulin-2 and MMP-9) showed similar $\alpha\beta\beta1$ -dependent expression in cells immortalized by either LTAg expression or p53 knockout, while other genes (e.g., SPARC) show dissimilar regulation in these two cases. Taken together, our findings suggest that $\alpha\beta\beta1$ -mediated regulation of some target genes is influenced by the genetic lesion that triggers immortalization.

Interestingly, most genes that showed $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent regulation in immortalized keratinocytes were not altered in primary, non-immortalized keratinocytes by deletion of $\alpha 3\beta 1$, suggesting that this regulation was acquired as part of the immortalized phenotype. The acquisition of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent regulation of fibulin-2 and other genes in immortalized MK cells resembles that which we reported previously for the MMP-9 gene (DiPersio *et al.*, 2000), which we subsequently linked to invasive potential of oncogenically transformed MK cells (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b). Our current findings suggest an important role for $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in mediating adaptive changes in gene expression that facilitate carcinogenesis, where the exact profile of acquired gene changes may depend on the oncogenic or tumor suppressor mutations involved.

There is a wide range of potential mechanisms whereby integrins may regulate tumor cell behavior (Missan and DiPersio, 2012). Our results suggest that $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-mediated induction of fibulin-2 in transformed keratinocytes contributes to invasive behavior. Roles for fibulins in cancer are complex, and family members have been described to have either tumor suppressive or oncogenic roles, and in some cases both (Gallagher et al., 2005; Schiemann et al., 2002). For example, fibulin-1 has both tumor suppressive and tumor promoting functions, and fibulin-4 may be oncogenic (Gallagher et al., 2005; Schiemann et al., 2002). Fibulin-5 may also have cell type-specific effects on cell growth and angiogenesis (Albig and Schiemann, 2004; Schiemann et al., 2002). Although little is known about roles of fibulin-2 in cancer progression, it has been described both as a promoter of malignancy and a tumor suppressor (Obaya et al., 2012). Indeed, fibulin-2 has been associated with metastasis of adenocarcinoma (Ramaswamy et al., 2003) and malignant progression of lung adenocarcinoma (Baird et al., 2013). On the other hand, loss of fibulin-2 has been associated with breast cancer progression (Yi et al., 2007) and Kaposis sarcoma (Alcendor et al., 2011), and one study described anti-angiogenic and tumor suppressive roles for fibulin-2 in nasopharyngeal carcinoma (Law et al., 2012). Stromal cells also deposit fibulin-2 into the ECM, which may influence tumor progression. Importantly, our MK cell model allowed us to focus on the functional importance of fibulin-2 that is expressed by immortalized/ transformed keratinocytes. Interestingly, suppression of fibulin-2 in transformed keratinocytes reduced invasion, but not in vivo tumor growth, suggesting that keratinocytederived fibulin-2 is dispensable at early stages of tumorigenesis but may become important at later stages of invasion.

In summary, the ability of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ in immortalized/transformed keratinocytes to regulate expression of fibulin-2, as well as other genes associated with ECM remodeling, supports an important role for this integrin in SCC development and invasion. This regulation may be related to a role for $\alpha 3\beta 1$ that we recently described in epidermis, where its ability to regulate fibulin-2 appears important for proper skin development and wound healing (Longmate *et al.*, 2014). Given the similarities in tissue remodeling that occurs during skin carcinogenesis and wound healing (Arwert *et al.*, 2012; Dvorak, 1986; Schäfer and Werner, 2008), it will be interesting to determine whether other $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent genes in immortalized keratinocytes are similarly regulated in wound keratinocytes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture

LTAg-immortalized MK cell lines were derived from wild-type (MK+/+) or α 3-null (MK-/ -) neonatal mice harboring an SV40 large T antigen transgene, as described (DiPersio *et al.*, 2000). MK-/-:h α 3 cells were derived from MK-/- cells stably transfected with human α 3 (Iyer *et al.*, 2005). p53-deficient IMK α 3+/+ and IMK α 3-/- cells were similarly derived from wild-type or α 3-null neonatal mice, respectively, harboring a p53-null mutation (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b). To generate transformed TMK cells, IMK α 3+/+ or IMK α 3-/- cells were transduced with a retrovirus encoding oncogenic RasV12 (Lamar *et al.*, 2008b). Epidermis-specific α 3 knockout mice (α 3eKO mice) are homozygous for a floxed α 3 allele (α 3^{flx/flx}) and express a Cre recombinase transgene under control of the keratin 14 promoter (K14-Cre), as described (Mitchell *et al.*, 2009). Primary keratinocytes were isolated from α 3eKO mice (genotype K14-Cre: α 3^{flx/flx}) or control littermates lacking K14-Cre (genotype α 3^{flx/flx}) using established protocols (DiPersio *et al.*, 2000). Culture conditions for primary keratinocytes and MK cell lines were described elsewhere (DiPersio *et al.*, 2000; Lamar *et al.*, 2008b).

RNA isolation, gene microarrays and qPCR

Total RNA was isolated using RNeasy Plus isolation kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), and quality was confirmed on an Agilent Bioanalyzer. Affymetrix whole genome arrays (Mouse Exon ST 1.0) include probe coverage over the full length of mouse coding sequences. Each of the 28,853 genes is represented on the array by replicate (27 each) probes spanning each gene. Microarray data acquisition and processing was performed using Affymetrix Command Console Operating Software, and the quality of array data assessed using metrics derived with Affymetrix Expression Console (Intensity Distribution, Mean Signal, BAC Spike, polyA Spike, Pos Vs Neg AUC, Mad Residual Signal, RLE Mean, and Hierarchical Clustering of Samples). Data was imported into GeneSpring v11 for advanced analysis. First, raw data was quantile-normalized using the PLIER algorithm, subjected to a Principal component analysis to again remove outliers and filtered on expression values to exclude probe sets in the bottom 20th percentile of expression across all conditions. Normalized data were subjected to ANOVA (P<0.05) incorporating a multiple correction factor (Benjamini-Hochberg) to remove false positives. Lists were compiled for genes expressed differentially in pair-wise comparisons of MK variants or primary cultures of different genotype. The complete gene list was submitted to Gene Expression Omnibus (series GSE42041).

 $\alpha 3\beta$ 1-dependent genes identified by microarray were validated using custom qPCR arrays (SABiosciences, Valencia, CA), designed to include 87 genes that were differentially expressed on the microarrays, 2 house keeping controls (ACTB and GAPDH), and controls for evaluating mouse genomic DNA contamination, reverse transcription, and a positive control for qPCR. Total RNA (2 µg each from three independent experiments) was reverse transcribed using reagents kits from SABiosciences, and resulting cDNAs (20 ng) were used for qPCR. 384-well plates were run on an ABI 7900HT instrument using standard protocol and data analyzed using templates provided by SABiosciences. Fold changes were determined using the 2^–(delta Ct) method.

Individual qPCR for fibulin-2 and SPARC was performed using iQ SYBR green Supermix (Bio-rad, Hercules, CA). cDNA was generated using iScript Reverse Transcription Supermix (Bio-Rad). Conditions for fibulin-2: forward primer, 5'-TGTTGTTGGGGACACAGCTA-3'; reverse primer, 5'-CGTCTGTGCATTCACCATCT-3'; 95°C, 10 min, 1 cycle; followed by 94°C, 30 sec; 53°C, 30 sec; 72°C, 30 sec; 40 cycles. Conditions for SPARC: forward primer, 5'-TTCGACTCTTCCTGCCACTT-3'; reverse primer, 5'CCAGTGGACAGGGAAGATGT-3'; 95°C, 10 min, 1 cycle; followed by 94°C, 1 min; 53°C, 1 min; 72°C, 1 min; 40 cycles. Conditions for β -actin: forward primer, 5'-AGGGAAATCGTGCGTGACAT-3'; reverse primer, 5'-CATCTGCTGGAAGGTGGACA-3'; 95°C, 10 min, 1 cycle; followed by 94°C, 1 min; 58°C, 90 sec; 72°C, 90 sec; 35 cycles. Relative mRNA levels were calculated using the formula [2^–(Ct target gene – Ct β -actin gene)] × 100.

Immunoblots

Cells were lysed in non-reducing lysis buffer (Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA) and protein concentrations determined by BCA Protein Assay (Pierce, Rockford, IL). Reducing lysis buffer contained 200 mM dithiothreitol (DTT). Equal protein was assayed by immunoblot with antibodies at the indicated dilutions: rabbit polyclonal anti-α3 integrin, 1:1000 (DiPersio *et al.*, 1995); rabbit polyclonal anti-fibulin-2, 1:1000 (gift from Dr. Mon-Li Chu, Thomas Jefferson University); rabbit polyclonal anti-ERK2, 1:1000 (Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, CA). Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody was goat antirabbit IgG (Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), 1:2000. Chemiluminescence was performed using SuperSignal chemiluminescent substrate (ThermoScientific, Rockford, IL). Blots were quantitated using Image J software (NIH) or Biorad Imagelab software.

siRNA transfection

Cells were plated in full MK medium on collagen-coated 6-well dishes 24 hours prior to transfection. GenMute siRNA transfection reagent for primary keratinocytes (SignaGen Laboratories, Rockville, MD) was used to transfect cells with 80nM siRNA (Dharmacon Inc, Lafayette, CO). Two days later, cells were lysed for immunoblot or seeded for invasion assays. Of four fibulin-2-targeting siRNAs, we chose two that showed efficient suppression (siRNA #1-GCGAAGGCUACCAGUACUA, siRNA #4-CCAAUAGCCUGCCGGGAGA). siRNA against luciferase was used as control.

Matrigel invasion assays

Cells (8×10^4) were seeded onto growth factor-reduced Matrigel invasion chambers $(8 \mu m pore; BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA)$ in MK medium without interferon- γ . Cells were allowed to invade for 16 h, then fixed in 3.7% formaldehyde. Cells that invaded through the filter were permeabilized in 0.05% triton X-100, stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; 1 µg/ml), and quantified manually by imaging four fields/well at 20X magnification on a Nikon eclipse TE2000-U inverted microscope. Data are from 4 experiments, each performed in duplicate.

Lentiviral transduction with shRNA

pGIPZ lentiviral vectors containing fibulin-2-specific shRNA sequences or non-targeting control shRNA were purchased from Thermo Scientific Open Biosystems (Lafayette, CO). 293FT packaging cells were co-transfected with packaging plasmids pCMV-dR8.2 and pCMV-VSV-G (Addgene plasmids 8455 and 8454). TMK cells were infected with viral particles plus antennapedia peptide (Anaspec, Fremont, CA), and stable transductants were selected in 10 µg/ml puromycin.

Gelatin zymography

Cells (4×10^5) were plated onto collagen coated 6-well dishes in full MK medium overnight, then washed and cultured in 2 ml serum-free medium without antibiotics for 24 hours. Culture medium was collected and incubated with gelatin-agarose beads (Sigma) overnight, then assessed by gelatin zymography, as described (DiPersio *et al.*, 2000).

Subcutaneous injections

TMK cells (5×10^{6}) were suspended in 200 µl complete MK medium and injected into right flanks of 10–12 female NCR nude mice per test group (Taconic, Hudson, NY). Tumor length (l) and width (w) were measured over 23 days using a Vernier caliper (Bel-Art Scienceware). Tumor volume was estimated using the formula (w² × l)/2. Statistical analysis was performed by first averaging tumor size from the last three time points for each TMK variant, then using one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test to compare each TMK α 3+/+ variant (i.e., transduced with control or fibulin-2-targeting shRNA) to the TMK α 3-/control. Animal studies were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Albany Medical College.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Abbreviations

ECM	extracellular matrix
Fbln-2	fibulin-2
MRP	mitogen-regulated protein
MMP	matrix metalloproteinase
LN-332	laminin-332

EMT	epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition
MK	mouse keratinocyte
SPARC	secreted protein acidic and rich in cysteine
SCC	squamous cell carcinoma
qPCR	quantitative real time polymerase chain reaction
LTAg	SV40 large T antigen
TGF-β	transforming growth factor β
DAPI	4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole
uPA	urokinase plasminogen activator

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P value

0.0012

0.00062

0.0957

0.0211

0.0239

0.0007

0.0472

0.0077

0.0072

0.1010

0.0817

0.0005

0.0282

0.0048

0.0199

0.0266

0.0022

0.0398

0.0291

Fold Change

3.83

20.12

10.10

3.72

2.07

10.98

2.33

5.69

9.78

3.98

7.12

21.34

2.50

39.94

6.95

377.2

1.29

1.17

1.17

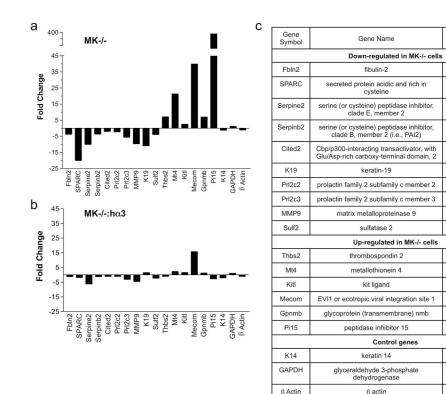


Figure 1.

qPCR validation of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent genes in immortalized MK cells. A subset of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -regulated genes identified by microarray analysis (Fig. S1) was analyzed by qPCR. Analysis was focused on a selection of genes confirmed as $\alpha 3\beta 1$ -dependent through restoration of original expression levels in MK-/- cells following stable expression of human $\alpha 3$. (a, b) Graphs depict gene expression changes as fold decrease (negative value) or increase (positive value) in (a) MK-/- cells or (b) MK-/-:h $\alpha 3$ cells, each relative to MK+/+ cells. (c) Summary of changes in genes that are down-regulated or up-regulated in MK-/- cells compared to MK+/+ cells. Data are mean of three experiments; P values calculated based on Student's t-test of replicate 2^(-Delta Ct) values for each gene in control group and treatment groups.

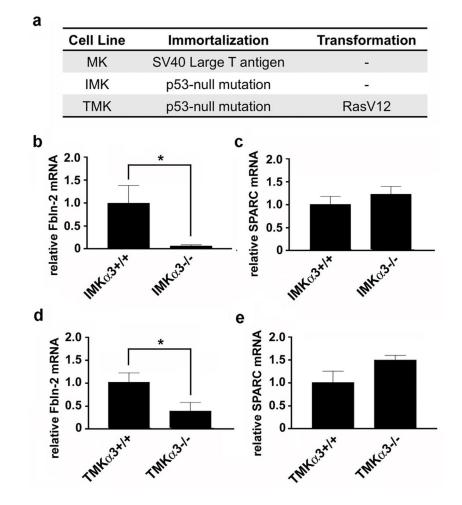


Figure 2.

 α 3β1 regulates gene expression of fibulin-2, but not SPARC, in p53-null immortalized IMK cells and RasV12-transformed TMK cells. (a) Chart indicates the genetic lesion(s) that were used to effect the immortalization or transformation of different mouse keratinocyte-derived cell lines (see text for details). (b–e) Graphs show qPCR analysis of (b, d) fibulin-2 (FbIn-2) or (c, e) SPARC gene expression in (b, c) IMK cells that either express α3β1 (IMKα3+/+) or lack α3β1 (IMKα3+/-), or (d, e) derivatives of the latter cells that are transformed with RasV12 (TMKα3+/+ and TMKα3-/-). Relative qPCR signals are shown after normalization to those for β-actin mRNA. Data are shown as mean ± s.e.m. for three separate experiments; *P<0.05, unpaired t-test.

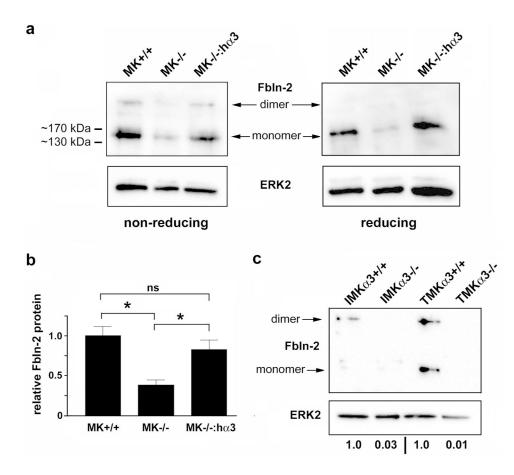


Figure 3.

Absence of $\alpha 3\beta 1$ is associated with reduced fibulin-2 protein. (a) Total lysates from LTAgimmortalized MK+/+ cells, MK-/- cells, or MK-/-:h $\alpha 3$ cells were resolved on nonreducing or reducing gels and immunoblotted with anti-fibulin-2 (Fbln-2, top), or anti-ERK2 (bottom) as loading control. Arrows indicate positions of disulfide-linked homodimeric and monomeric fibulin-2. Molecular weight markers shown at left. (b) Graph shows quantification in MK cells of total fibulin-2 (dimeric plus monomeric), normalized to ERK-2. Data are mean \pm s.e.m.; n=4; one-way ANOVA, *P<0.05; Tukey's multiple comparison; ns, not significant. (c) Cell lysates (non-reduced) from p53-null immortalized MK cells (IMK α 3+/+ or IMK α 3-/-) or RasV12-transformed cells (TMK α 3+/+ or TMK α 3-/-) were immunoblotted as above; representative of three experiments. Relative signal intensity for total fibulin-2, normalized to ERK-2, is listed below lanes.

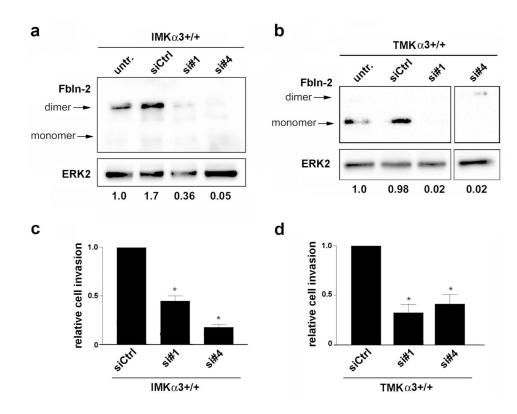


Figure 4.

Knockdown of fibulin-2 leads to reduced invasion of IMK α 3+/+ and TMK α 3+/+ cells. (a, b) Representative immunoblots show suppression of fibulin-2 (Fbln-2) protein in (a) IMK α 3+/+ cells or (b) TMK α 3+/+ cells using two distinct siRNAs that target fibulin-2 (si#1 and si#4), compared with control siRNA (siCtrl) or untreated cells (untr.); blot for ERK2 served as a loading control. Relative signal intensity for total fibulin-2 (dimeric plus monomeric), normalized to ERK-2, is listed under each lane. Fourth lane in panel (b) is from the same blot as first three lanes. (c, d) Graphs show relative invasion of (c) IMK α 3+/+ cells or (d) TMK α 3+/+ cells treated with fibulin-2-targeting siRNAs, normalized to cells treated with control siRNA; data are mean ± s.e.m; n=3; *P<0.05, two-way ANOVA.

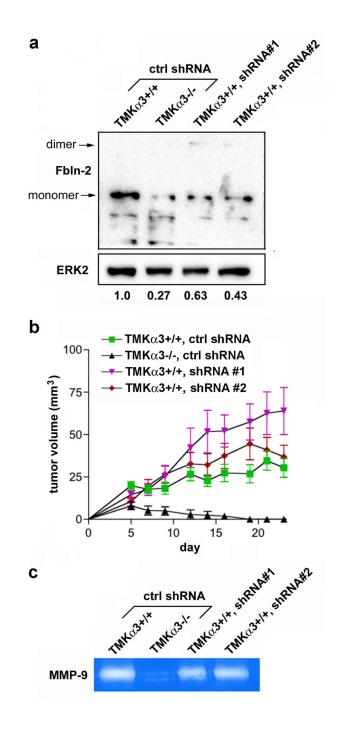


Figure 5.

Fibulin-2 suppression in RasV12-transformed TMK cells does not inhibit tumor growth. (a) Immunoblot shows fibulin-2 (Fbln-2) knockdown in TMK α 3+/+ cells transduced with two shRNAs, compared with control shRNA (ctrl). Relative signal intensity for total fibulin-2, normalized to ERK-2, is listed under each lane. (b) TMK α 3-/- or TMK α 3+/+ cells transduced with indicated shRNA were injected subcutaneously into nude mice. Graph shows average tumor volume ± s.e.m. over 23 days for each variant. TMK α 3+/+ with ctrl shRNA, n=12; others, n=10. Each TMK α 3+/+ variant showed a significant increase in

tumor size (averaged over last three time-points) compared with TMK α 3–/– cells; *P<0.05; one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's post-test. (c) Gelatin zymography of culture medium shows reduced MMP-9 secretion in TMK α 3–/– cells compared with TMK α 3+/+ cells, but no effect of fibulin-2-targeting shRNAs in the latter cells.