Growth Factor-Binding Sequence in Human α_2 -Macroglobulin Targets the Receptor-Binding Site in Transforming Growth Factor- β^{\dagger}

Sanja Arandjelovic,‡ Tiffany A. Freed,§ and Steven L. Gonias*,‡,§

Departments of Pathology and Biochemistry and Molecular Genetics, Box 800214, Charlottesville, Virginia 22908

Received February 7, 2003

ABSTRACT: α_2 -Macroglobulin ($\alpha_2 M$) binds transforming growth factor- $\beta 1$ (TGF- $\beta 1$) and TGF- $\beta 2$, forcing these growth factors into a state of latency. The mechanism by which this occurs remains unclear. In this paper, we demonstrate that peptides, derived from the structure of human $\alpha_2 M$ (amino acids 714–729), bind directly to TGF- $\beta 1$ and block the binding of TGF- $\beta 1$ to the type I and II TGF- β receptors. The $\alpha_2 M$ -derived peptides are notable for hydrophobic tripeptide sequences (WIW or VVV) and acidic residues (Glu⁷¹⁴ and Asp⁷¹⁹ in the mature $\alpha_2 M$ subunit), which may function analogously to the structural elements that mediate TGF- β -binding in the type II receptor. Mutating Glu⁷¹⁴ and Asp⁷¹⁹ in the $\alpha_2 M$ -peptide-GST fusion protein, FP3, which contains the putative growth factor-binding site, significantly decreased the binding affinity of FP3 for TGF- $\beta 1$. The $\alpha_2 M$ -derived peptides, which bind TGF- $\beta 1$, inhibited the interaction of TGF- $\beta 1$ with its receptors in fetal bovine heart endothelial cells. The same peptides also inhibited the activity of TGF- $\beta 1$ in endothelial cell proliferation assays. These results demonstrate that $\alpha_2 M$ -derived peptides target the receptor-binding sequence in TGF- β .

 α_2 -Macroglobulin $(\alpha_2 M)^1$ is a 718 kDa homotetrameric glycoprotein, originally described as a broad-spectrum proteinase inhibitor (1-3). Proteinases react with $\alpha_2 M$ by cleaving one of a number of target peptide bonds located near the center of $\alpha_2 M$ subunit, in the bait region (1). Cleavage of the bait region induces a major conformational change in $\alpha_2 M$, trapping the proteinase in a nondissociable complex (1, 4, 5). Each $\alpha_2 M$ subunit has a thiol ester bond that becomes exposed during a conformational change and reacts with nucleophiles, including the side chains of Lys residues in the attacking proteinase (6, 7). This reaction is responsible for covalent bond formation between α₂M and the proteinase. α₂M thiol esters also react directly with small primary amines, causing a conformational change in $\alpha_2 M$, which is equivalent to that induced by proteinases (8, 9). Conformationally modified $\alpha_2 M$ is referred to as activated because it is recognized by the α₂M receptor/low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein (LRP-1) (10, 11).

The transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) family of growth factors regulates diverse cellular processes, including proliferation, differentiation, and apoptosis (12). Biologically active molecules are homodimers, in which the monomers are linked by hydrophobic interactions and usually by interchain disulfide bonds (13). TGF- β activities are mediated by receptors with Ser/Thr kinase activity (14, 15). These receptors are grouped into at least two subfamilies, referred to as Type I (T β RI) and Type II (T β RII) receptors, with molecular masses of 50 and 70–85 kDa, respectively (16–20). Additional cell surface proteins involved in TGF- β -binding include the type V receptor, the type III TGF- β receptor or betaglycan (250–350 kDa), and endoglin (190 kDa) (21–25).

TGF- β activity is controlled at multiple levels. Cells secrete TGF- β as a latent complex, which is activated by complicated reactions that may involve proteinases, thrombospondin, the integrin $\alpha_{\nu}\beta_{6}$, reactive oxygen species, or shifts in pH (26). Once activated, TGF- β binds to α_2 M, forming complexes that are again latent (27). Because TGF- β -binding to $\alpha_2 M$ is reversible, native $\alpha_2 M$ may provide a reservoir of active TGF- β ; however, when TGF- β binds to activated $\alpha_2 M$, the entire complex binds to LRP-1 and undergoes clearance and catabolism (28, 29). Native and activated $\alpha_2 M$ bind TGF- $\beta 2$ with equal affinity whereas activated $\alpha_2 M$ binds TGF- $\beta 1$ with higher affinity than native α_2 M (30, 31). This difference appears to be conformational because when $\alpha_2 M$ is denatured, the affinities of native and activated $\alpha_2 M$ for TGF- $\beta 1$ are the same (32). In cell culture, α₂M regulates cell phenotype by binding endogenously produced TGF- β and disrupting TGF- β autocrine signaling pathways (33–35). Furthermore, the $\alpha_2 M$ gene knock-out mouse demonstrates abnormal responses to various forms

 $^{^{\}dagger}\,\text{This}$ work was supported by NIH Grant CA-53462 and by the American Health Assistance Foundation.

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: (434) 924-9192. Fax: (434) 982-0283. E-mail: slg2t@virginia.edu.

[‡] Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Genetics.

[§] Department of Pathology.

¹ Abbreviations: $\alpha_2 M$, α_2 -macroglobulin; $\alpha_2 M$ -MA, $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine; TGF- β , transforming growth factor- β ; T β R, TGF- β receptor; PDGF-BB, platelet-derived growth factor-BB; LRP-1, low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein-1; GST, glutathione-S-transferase; FBHE cell, fetal bovine heart endothelial cell; DTT, dithiothreitol; IAM, iodoacetamide; IPTG, isopropylthio- β -D-galactoside; BSA, bovine serum albumin; DSS, disuccinimidyl suberate; PVDF, polyvinylidene fluride; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; aFGF, acidic fibroblast growth factor; bFGF, basic fibroblast growth factor; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; PBS-T, phosphate-buffered saline, 0.1% Tween 20; EBSS, Earle's Balanced Salt Solution; EHB, Earle's Balanced Salt Solution containing 2 mg/mL BSA.

of exogenous challenge that may be explained by aberrant TGF- β regulation (36–38). Thus, there is considerable evidence to support the hypothesis that regulation of TGF- β activity is a major function of α_2M in vivo.

 $\alpha_2 M$ binds a number of growth factors and cytokines that share little or no sequence identity with TGF- β . These interactions vary considerably in affinity, and it is reasonable to assume that the highest-affinity interactions are most likely to be physiologically significant in vivo (30, 31). By analyzing a library of human $\alpha_2 M$ -peptide-glutathione-S-transferase (GST) fusion proteins and a battery of synthetic peptides, we identified a 16 amino acid peptide (P3), corresponding to a sequence just C-terminal to the $\alpha_2 M$ bait region, which binds TGF- β 1, TGF- β 2, and platelet-derived growth factor-BB (32, 39). It is not known whether the P3 sequence functions in growth factor-binding in intact $\alpha_2 M$ or whether P3 interacts with the TGF- β active site and thus may inhibit receptor-binding.

The crystal structure of the human T β RII ectodomain—TGF- β 3 complex was recently reported (40). The binding site includes a hydrophobic interface flanked by Arg²⁵ and Arg⁹⁴ in TGF- β 3, which form hydrogen-bonded ion pairs with Glu¹¹⁹ and Asp³² of T β RII. The structural features of the TGF- β -binding site in T β RII are interesting because P3 also includes a high density of hydrophobic amino acids flanked by negatively charged residues (39). Liu et al. (41) prepared synthetic peptides corresponding to the structure of TGF- β 1 and identified peptides that inhibit TGF- β 1-binding to α_2 M (41). In the most active peptides, a tryptophan residue (Trp⁵²) played an essential role.

The major goal of the present investigation was to determine whether α_2M -derived peptides, which inhibit the binding of TGF- β to α_2M , also inhibit TGF- β -binding to its receptors. If so, this result would provide evidence that the peptides target the receptor recognition sequence in TGF- β . Another goal was to determine the structural characteristics of α_2M -derived peptides that are important for TGF- β -binding. Our results demonstrate that α_2M -derived peptides may be used to target and inhibit TGF- β receptor-binding and activity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents and Proteins. TGF-β1, TGF-β2, acidic fibroblast growth factor (aFGF), and basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) were from R&D Systems (Minneapolis, MN). Methylamine HCl, dithiothreitol (DTT), iodoacetamide (IAM), isopropylthio- β -D-galactoside (IPTG), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), and bovine serum albumin (BSA) were from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Disuccinimidyl suberate (DSS) was from Pierce (Rockford, IL). Na¹²⁵I was from Amersham Pharmacia Biotech (Piscataway, NJ). Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes were from Millipore Corporation (Bedford, MA). The QuikChange System for site-directed mutagenesis was from Stratagene (La Jolla, CA). Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM), trypsin-EDTA, and Earle's balanced salts solution (EBSS) were from Life Technologies, Inc. (Rockville, MD). TGF- β 1 was radioiodinated with chloramine T to a specific activity of 100-200 μ Ci/ μ g, as previously described (42).

Preparation of α_2M and α_2M -MA. Native α_2M was purified from human plasma according to the method of

Imber and Pizzo (43). The concentration of $\alpha_2 M$ was determined by the absorbance at 280 nm using an $A_{1\%,1.0cm}$ of 8.93 (3). $\alpha_2 M$ -MA, a form of activated $\alpha_2 M$, was prepared by dialyzing native $\alpha_2 M$ against 200 mM methylamine hydrochloride in 50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 8.2 for 16 h at 22 °C, followed by extensive dialysis against 20 mM sodium phosphate, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4 (PBS) at 4 °C (9). Reaction of native $\alpha_2 M$ with methylamine was confirmed by nondenaturing PAGE. In this system, $\alpha_2 M$ -MA and other forms of activated $\alpha_2 M$ demonstrate a characteristic increase in electrophoretic mobility (4, 44).

GST Fusion Proteins and Synthetic Peptides. GST-fusion proteins that include partial α_2M sequences have been previously described (32, 45). The construct that encodes amino acids 591–774 in pGEX-2T (FP3) was subjected to site-directed mutagenesis using the QuikChange System. Asp⁷¹⁴ and Glu⁷¹⁹ were converted into Arg, to generate FP3-RR (the numbering system is based on the sequence of intact α_2M after signal peptide processing). BL21 cells harboring GST fusion protein expression constructs were induced for protein expression with 0.1 mM IPTG for 3 h at 37 °C. Fusion proteins were purified to homogeneity as previously described (32).

Multiple peptides that span the putative growth factor-binding site of human $\alpha_2 M$ were synthesized by the University of Virginia Biomolecular Research Core Laboratory. N-termini were acetylated, and C-termini were amidated. Peptides were purified by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography using a Phenomenex Jupiter C_{18} column. Accuracy and homogeneity of the peptides were confirmed by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry. Synthetic peptides were dissolved in DMSO and were free of particulates by visual inspection. However, to more accurately assess the degree of solubilization, peptide preparations also were examined by phase-contrast microscopy at $400\times$. Specific preparations were subjected to centrifugation at 8000g for 1 min and then to amino acid analysis.

Nondenaturing PAGE Analysis of TGF- β -Binding to $\alpha_2 M$ and $\alpha_2 M$ -MA. 125 I-TGF- β 1 (3 nM) was incubated with native $\alpha_2 M$ (0.2 μ M) and increasing concentrations of synthetic peptides (4–20 μ M) or with $\alpha_2 M$ -MA (0.05 μ M) and increasing concentrations of GST-fusion proteins (0.02–0.5 μ M) in PBS with 15 μ M BSA for 60 min at 37 °C. The samples were then subjected to nondenaturing PAGE on 5% slabs (44). The gels were dried, and binding of 125 I-TGF- β 1 to $\alpha_2 M$ was assessed by PhosphorImager analysis (Molecular Dynamics). Assuming that intact $\alpha_2 M$ directly competes with the fusion proteins or synthetic peptides for a common binding site in the structure of TGF- β 1, then the concentration of each peptide or fusion protein, which inhibits 125 I-TGF- β 1-binding to $\alpha_2 M$ by 50% (the IC₅₀), is related to the apparent K_I is as follows:

$$K_{\rm I} = {\rm IC}_{50}/(1 + [\alpha_2 {\rm M}]/K_{\rm D})$$

In this expression, the K_D is the equilibrium dissociation constant for the binding of TGF- β 1 to native $\alpha_2 M$ (K_D of 0.33 μ M) or $\alpha_2 M$ -MA (K_D of 0.08 μ M) (30). In control experiments, we demonstrated that free ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 and ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1, which were preincubated with each synthetic peptide or fusion protein, do not comigrate with $\alpha_2 M$ in the nondenaturing PAGE system.

and quantitated in a γ -counter.

Α

В

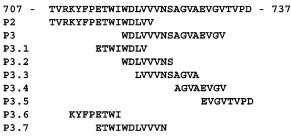
¹²⁵I-TGF- β Binding to Immobilized $\alpha_2 M$. Native $\alpha_2 M$ $(1 \mu g \text{ in } 100 \mu L)$ was incubated in 96-well microtiter plates for 4 h at 22 °C, as previously described (46). This procedure 707 P2 TVRKYFPETWIWDLVV results in the immobilization of approximately 90 fmol of Р3 α₂M/well. The wells were washed three times with PBS P3.1 ETWIWDLV containing 0.1% Tween 20 (PBS-T) and blocked with PBS-T P3.2 WDLVVVNS for 16 h at 4 °C. ¹²⁵I-TGF-β1 (0.1 nM) was incubated with P3.3 the immobilized $\alpha_2 M$ in the presence of 15 μM BSA and P3.4 increasing concentrations of synthetic peptides (P3, P3.5, or P3.5 P3.7) for 1 h at 22 °C. The wells were then washed three P3.6 KYFPETWI P3.7 ETWIWDLVVVN times with PBS-T. 125 I-TGF- β 1 that was associated with the immobilized phase was recovered in 0.1 M NaOH, 2% SDS

Ligand Blot Analysis. Ligand blotting was performed as previously described (32). Purified GST-fusion proteins were dialyzed against 2 mM DTT for 12 h at 22 °C and then treated with 10 mM IAM for 2 h at 22 °C. Equivalent amounts of each fusion protein (2 μ g) were subjected to SDS-PAGE on 10% slabs and electrotransferred to PVDF membranes. The membranes were blocked with 5% milk in PBS-T, probed with 125 I-TGF- β 1 (10 pM) for 2 h at 22 °C, washed with PBS-T, and subjected to PhosphorImager analysis.

Affinity-Labeling of TGF-β Receptors. FBHE cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA) and maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 20 ng/mL aFGF, and 80 ng/mL bFGF. Cells were harvested at subconfluence with trypsin-EDTA (0.05% trypsin, 0.5 mM EDTA) and passaged. In affinity-labeling experiments, the cells were plated at 2×10^5 /well in 35 mm wells and cultured for 24 h. The cells then were washed three times with EBSS, 25 mM Hepes, pH 7.4, containing 2 mg/ mL BSA (EHB) and incubated for 1 h with 0.1 nM ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 at 4 °C, in the presence or absence of synthetic peptides (8 μ M), native α_2 M (0.5 μ M), or unlabeled TGF- β 1 (10 nM). After three washes with EHB, the cross-linking reagent, DSS, was added at a final concentration of 0.17 mM for 20 min. The cells were washed once for 5 min with 50 mM glycine, 100 mM NaCl, pH 5, and once with EHB. Cell lysates were denatured in the presence of DTT and subjected to SDS-PAGE on 8% slabs. ¹²⁵I-TGF-β1 was detected by PhosphorImager analysis.

Inhibition of Endothelial Cell Growth. FBHE cell proliferation assays were performed in dilute FBS (0.2%). The cells were plated in 24-well cell culture plates (2×10^4 cells per well) and incubated in DMEM with 10% FBS for 15 h. After washing, the cells were pulse-exposed to TGF- β 1 (50) pM) in fresh DMEM containing 0.2% FBS for 1 h. The TGF- $\beta 1$ was preincubated with synthetic peptides (15 μ M) or vehicle for 15 min and then added to the cultures. After the pulse-exposure period, the cells were washed three times with serum-free DMEM and cultured for an additional 30 h in DMEM with 0.2% FBS. [3H]Thymidine was added for 18 h. The cells then were washed with EBSS, 25 mM Hepes, pH 7.4, and fixed in 10% trichloroacetic acid. Cell-associated radioactivity was recovered in 1 M NaOH. HCl was used to neutralize the pH, and the extracts were combined with Ready-Safe scintillation fluid for counting in a Beckman scintillation counter.

Direct Binding of TGF-β1 to Synthetic Peptides. P3, P3.5, and P3.7 were dissolved in DMSO and diluted to a final a



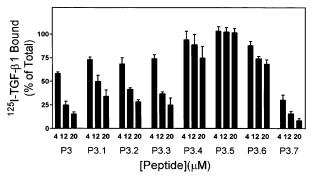


FIGURE 1: TGF- β 1 competition binding experiments with synthetic peptides and α₂M. (A) The amino acid sequences of P2, P3, and P3.1-P3.7, which collectively correspond to amino acids 707–737 of the human $\alpha_2 M$ subunit, are shown. (B) $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ was incubated with native $\alpha_2 M$ and the indicated concentrations of synthetic peptides in PBS with 15 μ M BSA for 60 min at 37 °C. The samples were then subjected to nondenaturing PAGE. 125I-TGF- β 1-binding to α_2 M was detected by PhosphorImager analysis and quantitated using ImageQuant software. Binding is expressed as a percentage of that observed in the absence of peptides.

concentration of 4 μ g/100 μ L in PBS. The peptides were then immobilized in 96-well microtiter plates by incubation at 22 °C for 4 h. The wells were washed and blocked as described for the experiments with immobilized $\alpha_2 M$. ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 (0.1 nM) was incubated with the immobilized peptides, in the presence or absence of the equivalent unlabeled peptide in solution, for 2 h at 37 °C. The wells were then washed. 125 I-TGF- β 1, which was associated with the immobilized phase, was recovered in 0.1 M NaOH, 2% SDS and quantitated in a γ -counter.

RESULTS

¹²⁵I- TGF-β1 Binding to Synthetic Peptides. We previously localized a growth factor-binding sequence to amino acids 718–733 of $\alpha_2 M$ (39). A 16 amino acid synthetic peptide (P3), corresponding to amino acids 718–733 (see Figure 1A), blocked the binding of both TGF- β 1 and PDGF-BB to intact α₂M. Other peptides from the same region, including the partially overlapping 16mer, P2, were inactive. To identify amino acids in P3 that may be critical for TGF- β -binding, we prepared a series of overlapping 8mers (P3.1-P3.5). As shown in Figure 1B, peptides that overlapped with the N-terminus of P3 (P3.1, P3.2, P3.3) competed with intact $\alpha_2 M$ for $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1\text{-binding}$. The approximate IC $_{50}$ values were less than 12 μ M and only slightly higher than the IC₅₀ determined with P3. By contrast, peptides that overlapped mainly with the C-terminus of P3 (P3.4 and P3.5) competed poorly with $\alpha_2 M$ for TGF- β 1-binding, suggesting that the

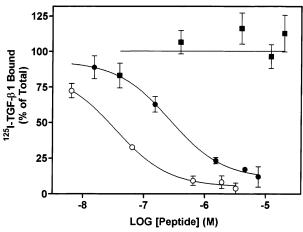


FIGURE 2: TGF- β 1-binding to immobilized $\alpha_2 M$. ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 (0.1 nM) was incubated in $\alpha_2 M$ -coated wells in the presence of increasing concentrations of P3 (closed circle), P3.7 (open circle), or P3.5 (closed square) for 1 h at 22 °C. The wells were then washed, and radioactivity that was associated with the immobilized phase was recovered in 0.1 M NaOH, 2% SDS. Recovered radioactivity was quantitated in a γ -counter and is expressed as a percentage of that observed in the absence of peptides.

N-terminus of P3 is principally responsible for this interaction.

All of the peptides that inhibited TGF- β 1-binding to α_2 M included one of two hydrophobic tripeptide-sequences (WIW or VVV), and most also had acidic amino acids. P3.1 not only overlapped with P3 but also was contained entirely within P2. This is intriguing because P2 demonstrated no activity in TGF- β -binding experiments (39). One explanation for this result is that the basic amino acids in P2 (Arg⁷⁰⁹ and Lys⁷¹⁰) interact internally with the acidic residues, neutralizing its TGF- β -binding activity. To test this hypothesis, we synthesized an 11 amino acid peptide (P3.7), which includes the two hydrophobic tripeptide sequences, two acidic residues, and no basic residues. P3.7 was more effective at inhibiting ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1-binding to α_2 M than any other peptide, including P3. By contrast, P3.6, which partially overlaps with P3.7 but lacks the hydrophobic sequences and includes Lys⁷¹⁰, demonstrated little or no activity.

Determination of K_d Values for the Binding of TGF- $\beta 1$ to P3 and P3.7. After dilution out of DMSO, some of the hydrophobic peptides, including P3 and P3.7, demonstrated slow self-association to form aggregates. This was not the case with the less hydrophobic peptides, such as P3.5. When peptide aggregates were cleared by centrifugation, immediately prior to performing experiments, the residual soluble component demonstrated slightly improved ability to compete for TGF- β -binding. This is evident in the studies shown in Figure 2.

In these experiments, we compared the ability of peptides in solution to bind $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ and thereby inhibit $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ -binding to immobilized native $\alpha_2 M$. Because the $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ concentration (0.1 nM) was significantly lower than the K_D for TGF- $\beta 1$ -binding to immobilized $\alpha_2 M$, TGF- $\beta 1$ -binding to immobilized $\alpha_2 M$ was a linear function of the free TGF- $\beta 1$ concentration, and the IC₅₀ was a direct estimate of the apparent K_I for peptide-binding to TGF- $\beta 1$ (32). P3.5 did not inhibit $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ -binding to immobilized $\alpha_2 M$, as was anticipated based on the results shown in Figure 1. By contrast, significant competition was observed with P3, and

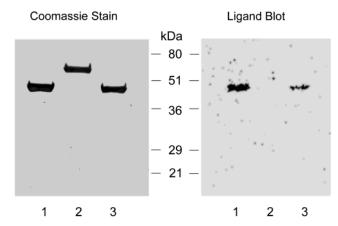
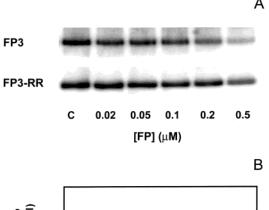


FIGURE 3: Ligand blot analysis of TGF- $\beta1$ binding to GST fusion proteins. The purified fusion proteins, FP3, FP3-RR, and FP4 (2 μ g), were subjected to SDS-PAGE and electrotransferred to PVDF membranes. The membranes were stained with Coomassie Blue or subjected to ligand blot analysis using 10 pM 125 I-TGF- $\beta1$. After incubation with the membranes for 2 h at 22 °C, 125 I-TGF- $\beta1$ -binding was detected by PhosphorImager analysis. Lanes 1–3 show FP3, FP4, and FP3-RR, respectively.

even greater competition was observed with P3.7. The IC₅₀ values were 260 and 34 nM for P3 and P3.7, respectively. The IC₅₀ determined with P3 is in good agreement with our previously reported value (39). The apparent K_1 values, which are based on the IC₅₀s, do not account for the fact that TGF- β is a homodimer and thus may require two mol/mol of bound peptide to completely block binding to immobilized α_2 M. Also, we cannot determine whether residual self-aggregation of P3 or P3.7 compromised the effectiveness of these peptides in TGF- β 1-binding, even after clearing the solutions by centrifugation.

Binding of TGF- β to GST Fusion Proteins. The presence of acidic amino acids in the context of hydrophobic residues, in both P3 and P3.7, raised the hypothesis that these peptides may mimic the TGF- β -binding sequence in T β RII (40). To test the role of the acidic residues, we mutated Glu714 and Asp⁷¹⁹ to Arg in FP3, the GST-fusion protein that contains the putative growth factor-binding sequence of $\alpha_2 M$ (32). In ligand-blotting experiments, the mutated form of FP3 (FP3-RR) still bound 125 I-TGF- β 1; however, binding was substantially decreased as compared with unaltered FP3 (Figure 3). As a negative control, we also studied FP4, which contains amino acids 775–1059 of the mature $\alpha_2 M$ subunit. FP4 failed to bind 125 I-TGF- β 1, confirming our previous results (32). Equivalent results were obtained when ligand blotting experiments were performed with ¹²⁵I-TGF-β2 instead of 125 I-TGF- β 1 (results not shown).

To more quantitatively assess the effects of charge reversal in FP3–RR, we compared the ability of purified FP3 and FP3–RR to compete with α_2 M-MA for binding to ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 in solution (Figure 4). Concentration-dependent inhibition of ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1-binding to α_2 M-MA was observed with both fusion proteins. The IC₅₀ for inhibition of TGF- β 1-binding to α_2 M-MA by FP3 was 125 nM, corresponding to an apparent K_1 of 80 nM, in good agreement with our previous determination (32). In the concentration range studied, FP3-RR failed to inhibit TGF- β 1-binding to α_2 M-MA by greater than 50%; however, by extrapolation, the IC₅₀ was approximately 650 nM, corresponding to an apparent K_1 of 0.4 μ M. From these results, we conclude that the acidic residues



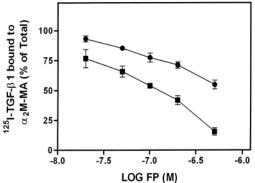
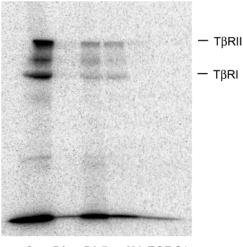


FIGURE 4: Binding of TGF- β 1 to FP3 and FP3-RR. (A) $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta$ 1 (3 nM) was incubated with 0.05 μ M α_2 M-MA and the indicated concentrations of FP3 or FP3-RR. The samples were then subjected to nondenaturing PAGE. TGF- β -binding to α_2 M-MA was detected by measuring the radioactivity comigrating with the α_2 M-MA band. The PhosphorImager analysis is shown. The lane labeled C indicates $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta$ 1-binding to α_2 M-MA in the absence of fusion proteins. Coomassie-stained gels demonstrated equivalent loading of α_2 M-MA in each lane (not shown). (B) The results of four separate experiments with FP3 (closed square) and FR3-RR (closed circle) were averaged to generate the results that are shown. Binding is expressed as a percentage of that observed in the absence of fusion proteins.

contribute to TGF- β 1-binding but are not absolutely necessary.

 α_2 *M-Derived Peptides Block the Binding of TGF-\beta to Its* Receptors in FBHE Cells. The biological activity of α_2 Mderived peptides, as antagonists of TGF- β activity, has not been previously tested. To determine whether the peptides block TGF- β -binding to its cell-surface receptors, we performed affinity-labeling experiments in FBHE cells. In the absence of competing agents, ¹²⁵I-TGF-β1 (0.1 nM) was cross-linked to two major receptors (Figure 5), which based on molecular mass were T β RI and T β RII (16–20). A similar affinity-labeling pattern was observed with $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta2$ (results not shown). Radioactivity that migrated near the dye front probably represented ¹²⁵I-TGF-β1 that bound to the FBHE cell surfaces but was not cross-linked by DSS. In the presence of a 100-fold molar excess of unlabeled TGF- β 1, receptor labeling by ¹²⁵I-TGF-β1 was entirely blocked, providing evidence that the interactions are saturable.

Native α_2M (0.5 μ M), P3 (8 μ M), and P3.7 (8 μ M) all substantially inhibited receptor affinity-labeling by ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 and also decreased the amount of radioactivity recovered near the dye front (Figure 5). P3.7 was less effective than P3, which was interesting because our data indicate that P3.7 binds to TGF- β 1 with higher affinity than P3. Because intact α_2 M may bind TGF- β within its central cavity, the mecha-



C P3 P3.7 α 2M TGF- β 1

FIGURE 5: Affinity-labeling of TGF- β receptors. Confluent monolayers of FBHE cells were affinity-labeled with 100 pM $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ for 1 h at 4 °C, in the presence or absence of synthetic peptides (8 μM), native $\alpha_2\text{M}$ (0.5 μM), or unlabeled TGF- $\beta 1$ (10 nM). Cell lysates were denatured in the presence of DTT and subjected to SDS-PAGE on 8% slabs. $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ was detected by Phosphor-Imager analysis. The lane labeled C indicates $^{125}\text{I-TGF-}\beta 1$ -labeling of the receptors in the absence of competing agents.

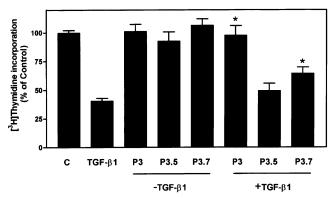


FIGURE 6: FBHE cell proliferation assays. FBHE cells were pulse-exposed to TGF- β 1 (50 pM), synthetic peptides (15 μ M), or synthetic peptides + TGF- β 1 for 1 h. Synthetic peptides were preincubated with TGF- β 1 for 15 min at 37 °C before addition to FBHE cultures. After 30 h, 1 μ Ci/mL [³H]thymidine was added for an additional 18 h. [³H]Thymidine incorporation was determined as a percentage of that observed in control cultures (C), which were not treated with TGF- β 1 or synthetic peptides. Statistical analysis was performed to compare the effects of synthetic peptides on the TGF- β response. Significant reversal of the TGF- β response (p < 0.05) is indicated by *.

nism by which α_2M inhibits TGF- β -binding to its receptors may involve steric constraints. A similar mechanism is less likely to be operational with the small peptides, P3 and P3.7. Instead, the ability of these peptides to inhibit affinity labeling of the TGF- β receptors suggests that P3 and P3.7 interact directly with the receptor-binding site in TGF- β or with an overlapping sequence.

 α_2 *M-Derived Peptides Counteract TGF-\beta Activity*. To test whether α_2 M-derived peptides antagonize the activity of TGF- β , we examined FBHE cell proliferation. When FBHE cells were pulse-exposed to TGF- β 1 (50 pM) for 1 h, proliferation was decreased by 61 \pm 8%, as determined by [3 H]thymidine incorporation (Figure 6). When P3 (15 μ M) was added together with TGF- β 1, during the pulse-exposure period, the activity of the TGF- β 1 was completely neutral-

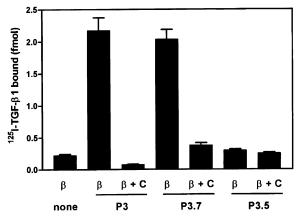


FIGURE 7: Direct binding of TGF- β 1 to synthetic peptides. P3, P3.5, and P3.7 (4 μ g/100 μ L) were immobilized in 96-well microtiter plates, which were then blocked with PBS-T. None indicates PBS-T-blocked wells without peptides. ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 (0.1 nM) was incubated with the immobilized peptides alone (β) or in the presence of the corresponding peptide (3.0 μ M) as the competitor in solution (β + C). Bound ¹²⁵I-TGF- β 1 was recovered in 0.1 M NaOH, 2% SDS, and quantitated in a γ -counter.

ized. P3.7 caused partial reversal of the TGF- β response (p < 0.05), whereas P3.5 had no significant effect. None of the three peptides affected FBHE proliferation in the absence of TGF- β 1. These activity assays are consistent with the receptor affinity-labeling results and show that P3 is an effective antagonist of TGF- β activity.

TGF-β Binds Directly to P3 and P3.7. Because P3 and P3.7 were derived from the sequence of $\alpha_2 M$, we hypothesized that these peptides bind directly to TGF- $\beta1$ and thereby inhibit the interaction of TGF- $\beta1$ with $\alpha_2 M$ and TGF- β receptors. It is also possible that the peptides inhibit the same interactions by binding to either $\alpha_2 M$ or the receptors. To test whether the peptides bind directly to TGF- β , P3 and P3.7 were immobilized in microtiter plates. ¹²⁵I-TGF- $\beta1$ bound to immobilized P3 and P3.7 but not to immobilized P3.5 or to control microtiter wells that were blocked with PBS-T (Figure 7). Binding of ¹²⁵I-TGF- $\beta1$ to immobilized P3 and to P3.7 was inhibited by including an excess of the equivalent peptide in solution, indicating that the interactions are specific.

DISCUSSION

The α₂M subunit includes well-defined regions that contribute to the overall function of the protein. The bait region (amino acids 666-706) and thiol ester bond (amino acids 949 and 952) function in proteinase-binding (47-49). A sequence, which is adjacent to the bait region (amino acids 718–733), may be responsible for growth factor-binding (32, 39, 45). The recognition sequence for LRP-1 is centered in an α helix that includes amino acids 1370–1374 (50–53). Finally, a distinct site, which mediates the binding of β -amyloid peptide, is located near the C-terminus but separate from the LRP-1-recognition sequence (54). Thus, the α₂M subunit may be viewed as a compartmentalized structure; however, much of the function of intact $\alpha_2 M$ is dependent on its unusual quaternary structure. For example, in the transformed conformation, two separate subunits of α₂M may engage separate molecules of LRP-1 (55). Furthermore, by trapping an attacking proteinase within its hollow core, intact tetrameric α₂M may form a nondissociable proteinase—inhibitor complex without a covalent linkage (1, 4, 5).

The first goal of the present investigation was to identify amino acids in the $\alpha_2 M$ growth factor-binding sequence that are important for TGF- β -binding (32, 39). The timeliness of the goal was heightened by the recent report of the crystal structure of the T β RII ectodomain—TGF- β 3 complex (40). The TGF- β 3-binding site in T β RII consists of a hydrophobic ridge and acidic residues that pair with Arg²⁵ and Arg⁹⁴ in TGF- β 3 (40). The amino acids at the receptor-binding interface are completely conserved in TGF- β 1 and TGF- β 3. We hypothesized that the same basic amino acids in TGF- β 1 may interact with Glu⁷¹⁴ and Asp⁷¹⁹ in the α_2 M-derived peptides and that a hydrophobic binding interface may also be involved.

To test the role of hydrophobic residues in the TGF- β -P3 interaction, we screened a series of overlapping eight amino acid synthetic peptides. To study the role of acidic amino acids, we mutated the fusion protein, FP3, instead of synthesizing new peptides, because charge reversal in synthetic peptides may generate a structure that interacts with the opposite side of the same protein-binding interface. Our results suggest that a hydrophobic binding surface is probably involved because all of the peptides that bound TGF- β 1 included at least one of two hydrophobic tripeptide sequences (WIW or VVV). Although mutation of FP3 did not eliminate binding, the binding affinity for TGF- β was significantly reduced. Thus, our results support a model in which similar structural properties are important for the interaction of TGF- β with the α_2 M-derived peptides and T β RII.

On the basis of our biochemical data, we undertook studies to determine whether the α₂M-derived peptides target the TGF- β active site. TGF- β 1 bound directly to both immobilized P3 and P3.7, suggesting that the peptides have the potential to inhibit multiple TGF- β interactions. In affinity labeling experiments, P3 and P3.7 inhibited the interaction of TGF- β 1 with both major TGF- β receptors. The peptides also significantly decreased the amount of TGF- β that was noncovalently associated with the cell surface. Thus, the peptides antagonize interactions of TGF- β with its receptors and other possible cell-surface binding sites without demonstrable selectivity. These results suggest that the same site in TGF- β mediates all cell-surface interactions and that this site is blocked by P3 and other related α_2 M-derived peptides. The increased efficacy of P3 in the receptor affinity-labeling experiments, compared with P3.7, despite the fact that P3.7 binds to TGF- β with higher affinity, argues for a model in which the receptor-binding site and the α_2 M-peptide-binding site, in TGF- β , are overlapping but nonidentical. In this case, the slightly larger size of P3 may allow it to more effectively block the receptor-binding sequence in TGF- β .

Because the α_2 M-derived peptides inhibited the binding of TGF- β to its receptors, we anticipated that the peptides would also inhibit TGF- β activity, and this result was obtained. In FBHE cell proliferation assays, P3 was again more effective than P3.7, suggesting that inhibition of TGF- β activity is directly related to inhibition of receptor-binding. In the absence of exogenously added TGF- β , the peptides had no effect on endothelial cell growth. Although our unpublished studies suggest that P3 may interact with other growth factors, as we have reported for the parent protein α_2 M (30), the absence of an effect on endothelial cell growth

under our control conditions argues for some degree of specificity in the function of P3.

TGF- β is a pleiotropic growth factor (12). Thus, it is difficult to predict how neutralizing TGF- β may affect physiology in vivo. There may be specific conditions under which one activity of TGF- β predominates and neutralizing the activity of TGF- β may be advantageous. For example, in breast cancer, TGF- β has been identified as a major immunosuppressive agent released by the neoplastic cells (56, 57). Similarly, TGF- β may adversely affect the immune response to other cancers (58, 59). The peptides identified here represent new reagents to test the function of TGF- β in various forms of pathophysiology and determine the efficacy of neutralizing TGF- β in vivo.

REFERENCES

- 1. Barrett, A. J., and Starkey, P. M. (1973) *Biochem. J. 133*, 709–24.
- 2. Swenson, R. P., and Howard, J. B. (1979) *J. Biol. Chem.* 254, 4452–6.
- 3. Hall, P. K., and Roberts, R. C. (1978) Biochem. J. 173, 27-38.
- 4. Barrett, A. J., Brown, M. A., and Sayers, C. A. (1979) *Biochem. J. 181*, 401–18.
- 5. Gonias, S. L. (1992) Exp. Hematol. 20, 302-11.
- Feinman, R. D., Wang, D., Windwer, S. R., and Wu, K. (1983) *Ann. NY Acad. Sci.* 421, 178–87.
- Salvesen, G. S., Sayers, C. A., and Barrett, A. J. (1981) Biochem. J. 195, 453-61.
- 8. Bjork, I., and Fish, W. W. (1982) Biochem. J. 207, 347-56.
- Gonias, S. L., Reynolds, J. A., and Pizzo, S. V. (1982) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 705, 306–14.
- Moestrup, S. K., and Gliemann, J. (1989) J. Biol. Chem. 264, 15574-7.
- Strickland, D. K., Ashcom, J. D., Williams, S., Burgess, W. H., Migliorini, M., and Argraves, W. S. (1990) J. Biol. Chem. 265, 17401–4.
- 12. Massague, J. (1998) Annu. Rev. Biochem. 67, 753-91.
- Sun, P. D., and Davies, D. R. (1995) Annu. Rev. Biophys. Biomol. Struct. 24, 269–91.
- 14. Derynck, R. (1994) Trends Biochem. Sci. 19, 548-53.
- 15. Attisano, L., Wrana, J. L., Lopez-Casillas, F., and Massague, J. (1994) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1222*, 71–80.
- 16. Mathews, L. S., and Vale, W. W. (1991) Cell 65, 973-82.
- ten Dijke, P., Ichijo, H., Franzen, P., Schulz, P., Saras, J., Toyoshima, H., Heldin, C. H., and Miyazono, K. (1993) *Oncogene* 8, 2879–87.
- Lin, H. Y., Wang, X. F., Ng-Eaton, E., Weinberg, R. A., and Lodish, H. F. (1992) Cell 68, 775–85.
- Attisano, L., Wrana, J. L., Cheifetz, S., and Massague, J. (1992) Cell 68, 97–108.
- Ebner, R., Chen, R. H., Shum, L., Lawler, S., Zioncheck, T. F., Lee, A., Lopez, A. R., and Derynck, R. (1993) *Science 260*, 1344– 8
- 21. Lopez-Casillas, F., Cheifetz, S., Doody, J., Andres, J. L., Lane, W. S., and Massague, J. (1991) *Cell 67*, 785–95.
- Wang, X. F., Lin, H. Y., Ng-Eaton, E., Downward, J., Lodish, H. F., and Weinberg, R. A. (1991) *Cell* 67, 797–805.
- 23. Gougos, A., and Letarte, M. (1990) J. Biol. Chem. 265, 8361-4.
- Cheifetz, S., Bellon, T., Cales, C., Vera, S., Bernabeu, C., Massague, J., and Letarte, M. (1992) *J. Biol. Chem.* 267, 19027– 30
- Moren, A., Ichijo, H., and Miyazono, K. (1992) *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 189, 356–62.
- Annes, J. P., Munger, J. S., and Rifkin, D. B. (2003) J. Cell Sci. 116, 217–24.
- O'Connor-McCourt, M. D., and Wakefield, L. M. (1987) J. Biol. Chem. 262, 14090-9.

- LaMarre, J., Hayes, M. A., Wollenberg, G. K., Hussaini, I., Hall,
 S. W., and Gonias, S. L. (1991) J. Clin. Invest. 87, 39-44.
- 29. Philip, A., and O'Connor-McCourt, M. D. (1991) *J. Biol. Chem.* 266, 22290—6.
- 30. Crookston, K. P., Webb, D. J., Wolf, B. B., and Gonias, S. L. (1994) *J. Biol. Chem.* 269, 1533–40.
- Gonias, S. L., LaMarre, J., Crookston, K. P., Webb, D. J., Wolf, B. B., Lopes, M. B., Moses, H. L., and Hayes, M. A. (1994) *Ann. NY Acad. Sci.* 737, 273–90.
- 32. Webb, D. J., Wen, J., Karns, L. R., Kurilla, M. G., and Gonias, S. L. (1998) *J. Biol. Chem.* 273, 13339–46.
- Lysiak, J. J., Hussaini, I. M., Webb, D. J., Glass, W. F., II, Allietta, M., and Gonias, S. L. (1995) J. Biol. Chem. 270, 21919–27.
- 34. Weaver, A. M., Owens, G. K., and Gonias, S. L. (1995) *J. Biol. Chem.* 270, 30741–8.
- 35. Fabrizi, C., Businaro, R., Lauro, G. M., and Fumagalli, L. (2001) *J. Neurochem.* 78, 406–12.
- Umans, L., Serneels, L., Overbergh, L., Lorent, K., Van Leuven, F., and Van den Berghe, H. (1995) J. Biol. Chem. 270, 19778– 85.
- 37. Webb, D. J., Wen, J., Lysiak, J. J., Umans, L., Van Leuven, F., and Gonias, S. L. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* 271, 24982–8.
- Waghabi, M. C., Coutinho, C. M., Soeiro, M. N., Pereira, M. C., Feige, J. J., Keramidas, M., Cosson, A., Minoprio, P., Van Leuven, F., and Araujo-Jorge, T. C. (2002) *Infect. Immun.* 70, 5115–23.
- Webb, D. J., Roadcap, D. W., Dhakephalkar, A., and Gonias, S. L. (2000) *Protein Sci.* 9, 1986–92.
- 40. Hart, P. J., Deep, S., Taylor, A. B., Shu, Z., Hinck, C. S., and Hinck, A. P. (2002) *Nat. Struct. Biol.* 9, 203–8.
- 41. Liu, Q., Ling, T. Y., Shieh, H. S., Johnson, F. E., Huang, J. S., and Huang, S. S. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* 276, 46212-8.
- 42. Ruff, E., and Rizzino, A. (1986) *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 138, 714–9.
- 43. Imber, M. J., and Pizzo, S. V. (1981) *J. Biol. Chem.* 256, 8134–9
- Van Leuven, F., Cassiman, J.-J., and Van den Berghe, H. (1981)
 J. Biol. Chem. 256, 9016–9022.
- Gonias, S. L., Carmichael, A., Mettenburg, J. M., Roadcap, D. W., Irvin, W. P., and Webb, D. J. (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.* 275, 5826–31.
- Webb, D. J., Crookston, K. P., Hall, S. W., and Gonias, S. L. (1992) Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 292, 487–92.
- 47. Sottrup-Jensen, L., Sand, O., Kristensen, L., and Fey, G. H. (1989) J. Biol. Chem. 264, 15781–9.
- 48. Sottrup-Jensen, L., Petersen, T. E., and Magnusson, S. (1980) *FEBS Lett.* 121, 275–9.
- 49. Swensen, T., Osnes, M., and Serck-Hanssen, A. (1980) *Br. J. Radiol.* 53, 760–4.
- Nielsen, K. L., Holtet, T. L., Etzerodt, M., Moestrup, S. K., Gliemann, J., Sottrup-Jensen, L., and Thogersen, H. C. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* 271, 12909–12.
- Howard, G. C., Yamaguchi, Y., Misra, U. K., Gawdi, G., Nelsen, A., DeCamp, D. L., and Pizzo, S. V. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* 271, 14105–11.
- Jenner, L., Husted, L., Thirup, S., Sottrup-Jensen, L., and Nyborg, J. (1998) Structure 6, 595–604.
- Huang, W., Dolmer, K., Liao, X., and Gettins, P. G. (2000) J. Biol. Chem. 275, 1089

 –94.
- Hughes, S. R., Khorkova, O., Goyal, S., Knaeblein, J., Heroux, J., Riedel, N. G., and Sahasrabudhe, S. (1998) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 95, 3275–80.
- Moestrup, S. K., and Gliemann, J. (1991) J. Biol. Chem. 266, 14011-7.
- Koli, K. M., and Arteaga, C. L. (1996) J. Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia 1, 373–80.
- 57. McEarchern, J. A., Besselsen, D. G., and Akporiaye, E. T. (1999) Cancer Immunol. Immunother. 48, 63–70.
- 58. Wojtowicz-Praga, S. (1997) J. Immunother. 20, 165-77.
- de Visser, K. E., and Kast, W. M. (1999) *Leukemia 13*, 1188–99.
 BI0342158