

# Metastatic melanoma and matrix metalloproteinases

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### Abstract

Metastatic melanoma is a rapidly progressive, incurable malignancy for which novel therapies are needed. Analysis of the biology of melanoma cells reveals a dependency upon several critical pathways, with matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) essential for tumor spread and dissemination. We describe a growing number of protein therapeutics which target melanoma cells by requiring activation by MMPs. These agents should have distinct side effects and may be useful in combinations with standard cytotoxic chemotherapy or immunotherapies.

### Introduction

Over 55,000 people will develop malignant melanoma and close to 8,000 people will die in the U.S. in 2003 (1).

Once malignant melanomas invade subcutaneous tissues and spread to other organs, cure is extremely rare. Cytotoxic chemotherapy has modest palliative benefit (2). Five year survival is less than 10% and median survival is 6-8 months. A minority of patients (approximately 5%) respond to interferon- $\alpha$  or interleukin-2 (3). Patients with metastases to skin, subcutaneous tissue or nodes do slightly better than patients with lung metastases who, in turn, do better than patients with metastases to other visceral organs (4).

### Melanocyte transformation

Melanocytes are normally present in the basal layer of the epidermis. They have dendritic processes that contact keratinocytes and they contain melanosomes. Melanocytic transformation is observed histopathologically in distinct stage-nevi without dysplastic changes, dysplastic nevi, radial-growth phase melanoma, vertical growth phase melanoma and metastatic melanoma. The genetic changes associated with each of these stages are only partially understood. Information from cases of familial melanoma and mouse models implicate changes in at least 3 signaling pathways (5,6). The *RB pathway* includes the INK4a or p16 protein which inhibits CDK4/6-cyclin D1 phosphorylation of RB. Once RB is phosphorylated, it dissociates from E2F protein. The free E2F transcription factor activates genes necessary for progression into S phase. RB can be separately inactivated by the Myc protein. Thus, melanomas in human or mice have been associated with loss of INK4a, inhibition of INK4a binding to CDK4 by a mutation in CDK4 or inactivation of RB by Myc overexpression. The *p53 pathway* includes p14/p19 ARF protein which inhibits MDM2 protein which,

in turn, mediates ubiquitination and degradation of p53. p53 triggers apoptosis of abnormally proliferating cells. Melanomas in human are associated with mutation or loss of ARF. Melanomas in mice have been generated with p53 mutations. The *MAPK pathway* integrates signals from receptor tyrosine kinases and G-protein-coupled receptors. Downstream effectors include Ras protein, Raf proteins, MEKs, ERKs and specific nuclear substrates involved in regulating cell differentiation, proliferation and survival. Constitutive activation mutations of N-Ras, H-Ras and B-Raf occur in human and murine melanomas. Seventy percent of patients have evidence for MAPK pathway activation – most commonly B-Raf V599E (7,8).

The mutagenesis which leads to these pathway changes in melanocytes occurs more commonly in people with UV exposure and the RHC “red hair color” phenotype. This phenotype is controlled by the *MC1R pathway*. Components of this pathway include  $\alpha$ -melanocyte-stimulating hormone, the melanocortin-1 receptor (a G-protein-coupled receptor),  $G_s$  proteins, adenylyl cyclase, cyclic AMP, protein kinase A, the CREB (cAMP-responsive-element binding protein) family, MITF basic helix-loop-helix transcription factor containing a CRE sequence in its promoter and proteins with E box promoters including tyrosinase and dopachrome tautomerase. Particular MC1R variants yield more pheomelanin than eumelanin and increase UV-induced mutagenesis and melanoma incidence (9).

#### *Melanoma progression and spread*

Metastatic melanoma involves the escape of melanoma cells from the epidermis, growth and development of a blood supply, dissemination of melanoma cells to other organs, and their growth at these locations. These steps require additional genetic and phenotypic changes by the transformed melanocytes. A number of genetic and epigenetic changes have been linked to the development of melanoma metastases including overexpression of the c-MET tyrosine-kinase receptor and HGF/SF hepatocyte growth factor (10, 11). The *HGF/SF-Met signaling pathway* stimulates proliferation, angiogenesis and motility, and disrupts adhesions between melanocytes and keratinocytes. Downstream effector molecules recruited to its multidocking sites include Grb2 and Gab1 and, secondarily, Src, PI3K, Ras and MAPK members. Cdc42 and Rac are activated and actin cytoskeleton reorganized; integrins are clustered; and matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) are expressed and activated. E-cadherin- $\beta$ -catenin adhesion junctions are disassembled. Met activation yields the vasculogenic mimicry phenotype in melanoma cells (M. Hendrix, personal communication). Other aspects of the highly invasive vasculogenic mimicry phenotype include release of laminin 5 $\gamma$ 2 and MMP-2, MMP-9 and MMP-14 (12-16). Cleaved fragments of laminin are generated-laminin  $\gamma$ 2' and laminin  $\gamma$ 2x. These fragments associate with melanoma cell surface integrin

$\alpha$ 3 $\beta$ 1 and signal expression of VE-cadherin (CD144), EphA2 epithelial cell kinase and further production of laminin 5 $\gamma$ 2. MMP degradation of collagen IV to expose the HUIV26 cryptic epitope enhances tumor cell interaction with  $\alpha$ V $\beta$ 3 integrin and cell motility (17). Additional changes may further enhance metastatic potential including overexpression of osteopontin and chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan and decreased expression of PITSLRE protein kinase and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases (TIMP) 2 (6). The role of MMPs is central to the metastatic process. They modify the extracellular matrix to remove physical barriers, release growth factors, and expose cryptic protein sequences for integrin binding.

#### **Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs)**

The MMPs are a family that includes 23 zinc-dependent endopeptidases (18). MMPs can be grouped into 4 main subcategories (Fig. 1). All members of the MMP family are regulated by a prodomain that maintains the proteinase in a latent zymogen state through a cysteine switch mechanism. The free cysteine in the prodomain ligates the catalytic zinc to render the proteinases inactive. Activation occurs when the prodomain is removed by either furin, other MMPs or plasmin. The first subgroup which includes MMP-7 and MMP-26 consists solely of the catalytic domain. The catalytic module which is common to all MMPs has a HEXGHXXGXXHS sequence within the active site. The 3 histidine residues coordinate the catalytic zinc. The second subgroup of which MMP-1 and MMP-3 are prototypic members, also have a hemopexin domain that is important for protein-protein interactions. The domain consists of 4 parts arranged symmetrically around a central axis and forming a 4-bladed, propeller-like structure. The third subgroup, the gelatinases represented solely by MMP-2 and MMP-9, have an additional 3 fibronectin type II repeats within the amino terminus of the catalytic domain that facilitates gelatin binding. MMP-9 also has a collagen V-like insert in the hinge region. The fourth subgroup, the membrane type MMPs, have a carboxyl-terminal transmembrane domain and cytoplasmic domain. Additionally, there are also MMPs that are membrane tethered by either a GPI anchor or an N-terminal signal anchor (19).

MMP activity is regulated by transcriptional control, zymogen activation and extracellular inhibitors. Expression of MMP mRNAs is increased by a variety of stimuli or growth factors including basic fibroblast growth factor signaling (20), osteopontin-NF $\kappa$ B signaling (21), AP-1 (22,23) and MAPK signaling (24-26) and inhibited by tenascin-X (27). Proteolysis by furin, MMPs or plasmin is needed to remove the prodomain to activate the MMP zymogen. Extracellular inhibitors include TIMPs, the membrane-anchored molecule, reversion-inducing cysteine-rich protein with Kazal motifs (RECK) and  $\alpha$ 2-macroglobulin. The cytoplasmic domains of the membrane-type MMPs (MMP-14, MMP-15, MMP-16) may route the protease to particular cell surface or

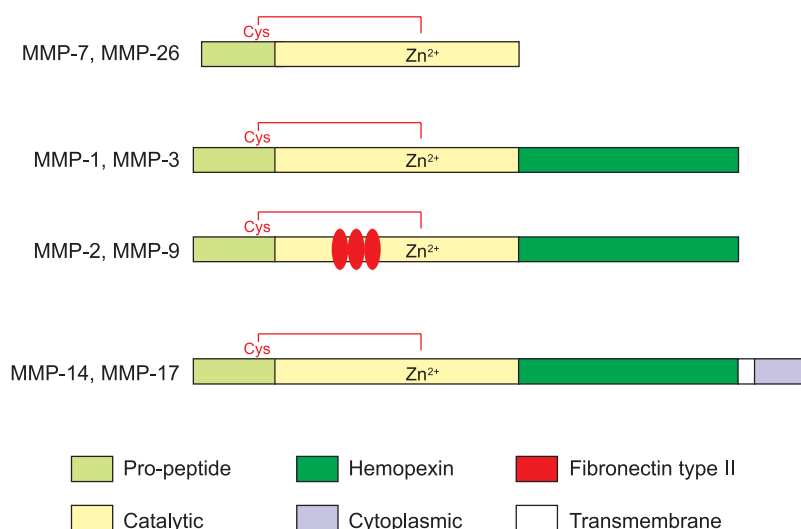


Fig. 1. Diagram of MMP structure. Dark green shows the propeptide domain; yellow shows the catalytic domain; light green shows the hemopexin domain; gray shows the cytoplasmic domain; red shows the fibronectin type II sequences; white shows the transmembrane domain. The blocking cysteine is shown in red (53).

intracellular compartments. Cell surface receptors such as thrombospondin-2 and integrins may bind and regulate the distribution of other MMPs such as MMP-2 and MMP-13.

The substrate preferences of MMPs have been partially identified based on the study of cleaved protein substrates and MMP activities on a series of synthetic peptide substrates. Because the structural features of the catalytic clefts of all MMPs are similar, the substrates show some similarities (Fig. 2). A deep  $S_1'$  pocket in MMPs provides a docking point for a large hydrophobic residue at the  $P_1'$  position. Similarly, the  $S_3$  pocket is well fitted by a proline at position  $P_3$ . The consensus peptide motif for MMP cleavage is  $PXXX_{Hy}$  (28-30). Further modifications can refine substrate specificity for particular MMPs: MMP-2 prefers a small residue at  $P_2$  such as A or S; MMP-9 prefers R at  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  and a S/T at  $P_2'$ ; and MMP-14 prefers R at  $P_4$  and L/I at  $P_1'$ .

Overexpression of MMPs in metastatic melanomas has been noted since 1980 (31). At that time, the metastatic potential of melanoma cells was correlated with enzymatic degradation of collagen. Various MMPs (MMP-1, MMP-2, MMP-3, MMP-8, MMP-9, MMP-13 and MMP-14) are overexpressed in both primary and metastatic melanoma cells (32-39). This is summarized in Table I. In most cases, a high level of MMP expression correlated with shorter disease-free survival. Furthermore, uveal melanoma metastases were associated with a decreased expression of TIMP3 (40).

### Recombinant toxins targeting melanoma cell MMPs

Three different hybrid proteins have been prepared that target toxins to MMP-expressing tumor cells (41-43).

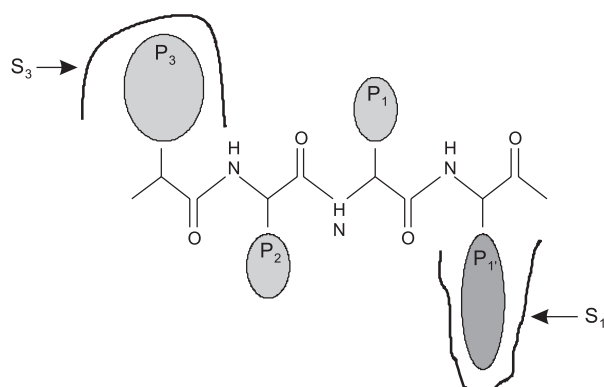


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of an MMP docked to substrate. Proteinase-substrate interactions are indicated according to Schechter and Berger nomenclature. The deep  $S_1'$  pocket accommodates binding of the  $P_1'$  substrate residue that is generally a large hydrophobic amino acid. Similarly, the  $S_3$  pocket in the substrate occupies a cavernous  $S_3$  pocket in the enzyme. Differences in preference between various MMPs and substrate are determined by the residues that define the cognate S pockets of the enzyme. Specificity of proteinase-substrate binding is further determined by backbone interactions between substrate and enzyme across the active site cleft of the MMP (28).

In each case, potent selective toxicity was observed. Mansour and coworkers reacted the maleimide triethylene glycol octapeptide derivative (Mal-GPLGIAGQ) with doxorubicin hydrochloride in dimethylformamide in the presence of 1-hydroxybenzotriazole hydrate, 4-methylmorpholine and *N,N'*-diisopropylcarbodiimide (41). The Mal-GPLGIAGQ-Doxo conjugate was mixed with human albumin and purified by size exclusion chromatography.

Table 1: MMP expression in high-grade human malignant melanomas.\*

MMP	Assay	Percent strongly positive (%)	Ref.
MMP-1	IH, IS	6, 67, 68	36, 78, 83
MMP-2	IH	25, 60, 66, 78	32, 34, 77, 79
MMP-3	IH	25, 38	36, 77
MMP-8	IH	100	82
MMP-9	IH	10, 20	34, 81
MMP-11	IH	0	80
MMP-13	IS	48, 44	36, 78
MMP-14	IH	90	79

\*IH, immunohistochemistry; IS, *in situ* cDNA hybridization. High grade includes Clark level IV or Breslow 2 mm or metastatic lesions.

The Dox-QGAIGLPG-albumin conjugate was cytotoxic to A375 melanoma cells with an  $IC_{50}$  of 10  $\mu$ M. In nude mice, the Mal-GPLGIAGQ-Doxo molecule was used because it rapidly formed a stable bond to the free cysteine thiol of albumin. The prodrug had a maximal tolerated dose (MTD) that was 4-fold higher than doxorubicin alone. This permitted dose escalation *in vivo* with dramatic remissions of subcutaneous A375 melanomas lasting over 40 days. The conjugate releases doxorubicin adjacent to the tumor cells. Thus, the mechanism of cell intoxication should be similar to doxorubicin-inhibition of topoisomerase II. Multidrug resistant melanoma cells may

show resistance to this conjugate as well, although the higher dose achievable locally may improve the response rate. Holle and colleagues biotinylated a MMP-2 cleavage sequence-melittin peptide ( $NH_2$ -KQGAIGQPQRKRKI-WSILAPLGTT-LVKLVAGIG-COOH) (42). The melittin is a bee venom amphipathic peptide which forms pores in cell membranes leading to cell lysis. The conjugate was mixed with avidin and purified by exposure to streptavidin matrix. The MMP-2 cleavage activated peptide-melittin conjugate was incubated with cell lines and showed some cytotoxicity at MMP-2-secreting DU145 and -SK-OV-3 cells with 10% cell lysis at 1.5  $\mu$ g/ml. No cytotoxicity above control was seen with B16 melanoma cells which had low MMP-2 secretion. Intratumoral injections of the conjugate produced some tumor growth inhibition of B16 melanoma cells grown s.c. in C57Bl6 mice. There is insufficient evidence of activity of this agent in tissue culture or animal models for its further development for therapy of metastatic melanoma. Liu and colleagues genetically modified anthrax protective antigen (PrAg) to replace the furin cleavage sequence RKRR with a MMP-2 and MMP-9 cleavage sequence, GPLGMLSQ (43). The protein was expressed in *Bacillus anthracis* and purified by ammonium sulfate precipitation and anion exchange chromatography. The modified PrAg (PrAg-L1) was mixed with FP59 and the human melanoma A2058 cell line. FP59 is a recombinant fusion protein composed of the amino-terminal fragment of anthrax lethal factor (amino acids 1-254) fused to the ADP-ribosylation

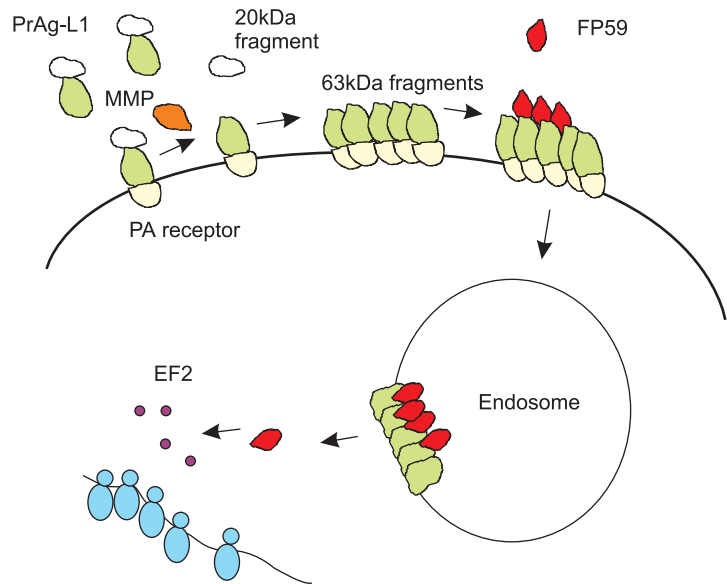


Fig. 3. Mechanism of action of anthrax PrAg-L1/FP59. (a) Binding of PrAg-L1 to the anthrax toxin receptor on the melanoma cell; (b) Proteolytic cleavage and release of PA<sub>20</sub> by the MMP; (c) Oligomerization of PA<sub>63</sub> to heptamers; (d) Binding of up to three FP59 molecules to the heptamer; (e) Receptor-mediated endocytosis; (f) Acidification in the endosome and membrane insertion of the PA<sub>63</sub> heptamer to form a 14-strand  $\beta$ -barrel pore; (g) Translocation of FP59 to the cytosol; (h) FP59 ADP-ribosylation of elongation factor 2 (EF2) leading to inactivation of cytosolic protein synthesis and cell death.

Table II: Melanoma animal models.

Name	Transplantable cells	Metastases	Species	Ref.
B16-C57Bl/6J	Yes	Yes	Mouse	51
S91-DBA or C57Bl/6J	Yes	Yes	Mouse	54
Harding-Passey-C57Bl/6J or ICR	Yes	No	Mouse	55
Ma/Ab-Syrian golden hamster	Yes	Yes	Hamster	56
D12,R18,U25,A7-nude mice	Yes	Yes	Human/mouse	57
PSM- <i>Xiphophorus</i>	No	No	Fish	58
L2-weaning <i>Monodelphis</i>	Yes	Yes	Opossum	59
K1735-C3H	Yes	Yes	Mouse	60
JB/RH-C57Bl/6J	Yes	Yes	Mouse	61
Tyr-SV40E mice	No	Yes	Mouse	62
DMBA-AxC rats	No	Yes	Rat	63
M4Be,7GP,T1P26-newborn rats	Yes	Yes	Human/rat	64
GP1,GP5,GP6,GP8-guinea pigs	No	Yes	Guinea pig	65
UIO-SSCM433, UIO-SSCM438-newborn swine	No	No	Swine	66
IGR-37, IGR-39-nude mice	Yes	No	Human/mouse	67
RPMI1846-newborn hamster	Yes	No	Hamster	68
A2058-nude mice	Yes	No	Human/mouse	69
C32-nude mice	Yes	No	Human/mouse	70
A375-nude mice	Yes	No	Human/mouse	71
Hs695T, Hs294T-nude mice	Yes	No	Human/mouse	72
HT144,Malme-3M,MeWo,SK-MEL1-nude mice	Yes	No	Human/mouse	73
MT-HGF + perinatal UV transgenic mice	No	Yes	Mouse	46
Tyr-H-ras + Ink4a/Arf2/3 transgenic mice	No	No	Mouse	74
Transgene B transgenic mice	No	Yes	Mouse	75
CDK4R24C knockin mice	No	Yes	Mouse	76

domain of *Pseudomonas* exotoxin (44). A schema for the mechanism of cell intoxication by the PrAg-L1/FP59 proteins is shown in Figure 3. The PrAg-L1/FP59 proteins showed an  $IC_{50}$  of 4 ng/ml or 40 pM PrAg-L1 and 1,000 pM LF. Among the 3 conjugates, the modified anthrax toxins showed the greatest potency *in vitro*, and we await *in vivo* efficacy data. Exciting animal model data have been generated with a urokinase cleavage site modified protective antigen PrAg-U2/FP59 combination (45). We hope similar or better activity will be seen with the PrAg-L1/FP59 combination in melanoma models.

### Melanoma animal models

Numerous animal models have been developed for melanoma that can be used for testing of novel agents such as the MMP-targeted proteins (46-51). A partial list of the animal models include Sinclair swine, Camargue horses, Angora goats, *Xiphophorus* fish, the marsupial opossum, guinea pig strains, Syrian hamster strains, transgenic mice, human melanoma xenografts and the B16 murine melanoma-C57/Bl6 model. The B16 model has been the most extensively used for evaluation of melanoma metastases. A list of some of the melanoma animal models is shown in Table II with an emphasis on rapid, reproducible models with transplantable cells and metastases. These characteristics facilitate testing of therapeutic agents.

### Conclusions

The limited clinical efficacy of MMP inhibitors in melanoma and other MMP-expressing tumors may be attributable in part both to the cytostatic nature of the agents and the multiple protease pathways that may bypass the inhibitor (52). In contrast, catalytic toxins activated by MMP-expressing cells will likely be more potent agents. Further, the peptide sequence may be modified to improve specificity for particular MMPs. By combining melanoma specificity for MMPs with the intracellular signaling pathway target of MAPKK proteins, further improvements in the therapeutic index may be achieved. This may be accomplished by combining an MMP-activated moiety (such as the modified anthrax protective antigen) with an enzyme selective for melanoma cells (such as anthrax lethal factor) (50). Efficacy of MMP activation can be further enhanced by modification of the MMP cleavage sites within the targeted toxins, as has been demonstrated by various techniques, to minimize killing of nontumor cells and to increase MMP sensitivity and selectivity. Both tissue culture and animal model testing will be needed. Nevertheless, exciting targeted therapeutic proteins most likely will have an impact on the treatment of patients with this currently incurable disease.

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