c-Met Function Requires N-Linked Glycosylation Modification of Pro-Met

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ABSTRACT

c-Met, the receptor for hepatocyte growth factor (HGF), is cell surface tyrosine kinase that controls cancer cell growth, survival, invasion, and metastasis. Post-translational modification, such as glycosylation, plays an essential role in regulating the function of cell surface molecules. Whether glycosylation modification regulates the enzymatic properties of c-Met is unknown. In this study, we investigated the effect of glycosylation on the function of c-Met. We found that c-Met is an N-linked glycosylated protein. Both pro-Met and p145Met (the β subunit of mature c-Met) have N-linked glycosylation. Glycosylation inhibitor studies revealed that the *N*-glycosylation modification of p145Met is from pro-Met, but not due to the further modification of pro-Met. Importantly, blocking the *N*-glycosylation targets pro-Met to cytoplasm and initiates its phosphorylation independent of HGF engagement. Nonglycosylated pro-Met activates c-Met downstream pathways to a certain extent to compensate for the degradation of p145Met induced by glycosylation blocking-mediated endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress. J. Cell. Biochem. 114: 816–822, 2013. © 2012 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

KEY WORDS: c-Met; GLYCOSYLATION; PHOSPHORYLATION; pro-Met

H epatocyte growth factor (HGF) receptor, c-Met, is a transmembrane tyrosine kinase. Phosphorylation on Tyr-1234/ 1235 residues are crucial for c-Met activation, whereas phosphorylation on Tyr-1349/1356 residues are essential for c-Met to form the docking site and activate its downstream signaling pathways [Ferracini et al., 1991; Dai et al., 2012]. Upon HGF binding, Tyr-1234/1235 residues in the catalytic domain of c-Met are phosphorylated and the receptor is activated. Once activated, c-Met activates multiple downstream signaling pathways, including the PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK pathways [Boccaccio and Comoglio, 2006; You et al., 2011; Dai et al., 2012]. Through these intermediary pathways, HGF/c-Met governs a diversity of important cellular responses, including proliferation, differentiation, and migration [Gay et al., 1999; Boccaccio and Comoglio, 2006; Forte et al., 2006].

Deregulation of HGF/c-Met signaling is implicated in the development and metastasis of many types of human tumor [Ueki et al., 1997; Wang et al., 2001; Boccaccio and Comoglio, 2006; Benvenuti and Comoglio, 2007; Bellon et al., 2008; You et al., 2011].

Both transcriptional and post-translational mechanisms control the expression of c-Met and its roles in extracellular signaling transduction. It has been reported that aberrant activation of c-Met is strongly associated with overexpression of the receptor without HGF engagement [Desiderio, 2007; You et al., 2011]. c-Met undergoes post-translational modification, including glycosylation, disulfide bonds formation and endoproteolytic cleavage. c-Met is initially synthesized as a partially glycosylated single-chain precursor (pro-Met) in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Pro-Met undergoes disulfide bonds formation, posttranslational glycosyla-

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Manuscript Received: 25 July 2012; Manuscript Accepted: 1 October 2012

Accepted manuscript online in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com): 11 October 2012

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Grant sponsor: National Natural Science Foundation of China; Grant numbers: 81000886, 81170377; Grant sponsor: New Century Excellent Talents in University; Grant number: NCET-11-1058.

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DOI 10.1002/jcb.24420 • © 2012 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

tion, and endoproteolytic cleavage to produce the mature heterodimeric form of c-Met (p190Met^{$\alpha\beta$}) [Giordano et al., 1989]. p190Met^{$\alpha\beta$} consists of a 50-kDa α subunit (p50Met) and a 145-kDa β subunit (p145Met) which are joined by disulfide bonds. The α subunit is entirely extracellular, while the β subunit spans the membrane and contains the tyrosine kinase catalytic domain [Giordano et al., 1989].

In this study, we investigated the roles of glycosylation in c-Met function. We found that c-Met undergoes N-linked but not O-linked glycosylation. Interestingly, N-linked glycosylation (*N*-glycosylation) blocking targets pro-Met to cytoplasm and initiates its phosphorylation. Moreover, cytoplasm located pro-Met cannot activate c-Met downstream pathways as effectively as mature c-Met. These data indicate that *N*-glycosylation modification is required for the effective function of c-Met.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

MATERIALS

Tunicamycin (Tun, inhibitor of *N*-glycosylation), *N*-glycanase, *O*-glycanase, MG132 (proteasome inhibitor), and cycloheximide (CHX, protein synthesis inhibitor) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company. The c-Met inhibitor PF-2341066 was purchased from Selleck Chemicals. Antibodies against c-Met, GRP78, and β -actin were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. Antibodies against phospho-Akt (Ser-473), phospho-ERK (Thr-202/Tyr204), phospho-Met (Tyr-1234/1235/1349), Akt, ERK, and were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology.

CELL CULTURE AND TREATMENTS

Human HCC cell line MHCC-97H and human cholangiocarcinoma cell line RBE were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin/ streptomycin in a humidified incubator containing 5% CO_2 and 95% ambient air at 37°C.

WESTERN BLOT

Cells were lysed in Triton lysis buffer (20 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 137 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF, 10 mM NaF, 5 mg/ml aprotinin, 20 mM leupeptin, and 1 mM sodium orthovanadate) and centrifuged at 12,000*g* for 15 min. Protein concentrations were measured using the BCA assay. Protein samples were denatured with $4 \times$ SDS-loading buffer (200 mM Tris, pH 6.8, 8% SDS, 400 mM DTT, 0.4% bromophenol blue, 40% glycerol) at 100°C for 5 min and subjected to standard SDS–PAGE and Western blot analysis as previously described [Dai et al., 2009].

DEGLYCOSYLATION

Deglycosylation was performed according to the manufacturer's manual. A denaturation process was required for the deglycosylation of glucose oxidase. For treatment with *N*-glycanase/ *O*-glycanase, 20 μ l of G7 buffer, 20 μ l of 10% Nonidet P-40, and 5 μ l of *N*-glycanase/*O*-glycanase were added, and the mixture was incubated at 37°C for 3 h. The deglycosylated protein samples were subjected to standard SDS–PAGE and Western blot analysis.

IMMUNOFLUORESCENCE STAINING AND CONFOCAL MICROSCOPY ANALYSIS

Cells were re-plated on chamber slides. When cultured to 60% confluence, cells that were incubated with anti-phospho-Met and anti-Met antibodies conjugated to CY3 (Invitrogen) for immuno-fluorescence and confocal microscopy assay.

HUMAN HGF ENZYME-LINKED IMMUNOSORBENT ASSAY (ELISA)

A total of 5×10^6 cells were cultured in 2 ml of RPMI-1640 medium in 60-mm culture dishes for 24 h and medium was collected. The HGF concentration was measured using human HGF ELISA kit (R&D systems) according to manufacturer's protocol.

MUTATION ANALYSIS

Total RNA was isolated with TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's protocol. Complementary single strand DNA was



synthesized using an omniscript RT kit (Qiagen). The primers used in this study were as follows: sense primer, 5'-CTTTGTGAGCA-GATGCGGAG-3' and anti-sense primer, 5'-CAGGTATAGGCAGT-GACAAG-3'. PCR product was purified using a QIAquick Gel Extraction kit (Qiagen) and sequenced at Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI). Sequencing results were compared to human c-Met gene sequence using blast alignment analysis.

RESULTS

c-Met EXPRESSION AND ITS DOWNSTREAM PATHWAYS

First, we examined the expression of phosphorylated and nonphosphorylated c-Met in MHCC-97H and RBE cells. As shown in Figure 1A, MHCC-97H and RBE cells showed strong expression and constitutive phosphorylation of c-Met. As PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK are two typical downstream pathways of c-Met [Boccaccio and Comoglio, 2006; You et al., 2011; Dai et al., 2012], we tested whether the phosphorylation of Akt and ERK are c-Met-dependent in MHCC-97H and RBE cells. The results showed that c-Met inhibitor PF-2341066 obviously decreased the basal activation of Akt and ERK (Fig. 1B), indicating that PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK are downstream pathways of c-Met in MHCC-97H and RBE cells.

Since HGF is the natural ligand for c-Met activation, we investigated whether the basal activation of c-Met was due to



autocrine secretion of HGF. The enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) analysis failed to demonstrate any HGF secreted by MHCC-97H and RBE cells (data not shown). As the mutations in c-Met gene correlate with the auto-activation of this receptor in multiple different cancers [Jeffers et al., 1997, 1998; Schmidt et al., 1999], we investigated whether the activation of c-Met in MHCC-97H and RBE cells was due to a mutation. Sequencing of the c-Met gene demonstrated none of the reported mutations was found in MHCC-97H and RBE cells (data not shown). Taken together, these results suggest that sustained high basal activation of c-Met in MHCC-97H and RBE cells independent of HGF production and gene mutation.



Fig. 3. N-linked glycosylation of Pro-Met responsible for the glycosylation modification of c-Met. A: Tunicamycin inhibits pro-Met glycosylation. After treated with tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 µg/ml) for indicated time periods, MHCC-97H and RBE cells were subjected to Western blot analysis. B: Glucose deprivation inhibits pro-Met glycosylation. After incubated in glucose-deficient culture media for indicated time periods, MHCC-97H and RBE cells were subjected to Western blot analysis. C: Cycloheximide inhibits the expression of nonglycosylated pro-Met upon tunicamycin treatment. After treated with tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 µg/ml) for indicated time periods with or without cycloheximide (CHX, 10 µM) pre-incubation for 1 h, MHCC-97H and RBE cells were subjected to Western blot analysis. D: MG132 inhibits tunicamycin-induced p145Met degradation. After treated with tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 µg/ml) for 24 h with or without MG132 (MG, 20 µM) pre-incubation for 1 h, MHCC-97H and RBE cells were subjected to Western blot analysis.

c-Met IS AN N-LINKED GLYCOSYLATED PROTEIN

To investigate the effect of glycosylation on the function of c-Met, we analyzed the *N*-glycosylation and *O*-glycosylation modification of c-Met in MHCC-97H and RBE cells. NetNGlyc, a glycosylation analysis program (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetNGlyc/), predicts that c-Met has multiple N-linked but not O-linked glycosylation sites. Consistent with this prediction, we observed a discrepancy in the molecular mass of pro-Met and p145Met and their mobility on SDS gels upon *N*-glycanase treatment (Fig. 2). However, *O*-glycanase treatment had no effect on this molecular mass shift of pro-Met and p145Met (Fig. 2), indicating that c-Met is an N-linked but not O-linked glycosylated protein.

PRO-MET RESPONSIBLE FOR N-LINKED GLYCOSYLATION OF c-Met

Since both pro-Met and p145Met are glycosylated, it is interest to analyze the more detailed mechanism of c-Met glycosylation. To investigate whether pro-Met undergoes further glycosylation to yield p145Met, tunicamycin, an inhibitor of N-linked glycosylation, was used in our study. The results showed that tunicamycin treatment caused a progressive shift in pro-Met molecular mass over a period of 3–48 h (Fig. 3A), confirming that pro-Met is an *N*glycosylated protein. It is notable that tunicamycin did not cause a shift in p145Met molecular mass (Fig. 3A), indicating that pro-Met does not undergo further *N*-glycosylation after its translation. The results that glycosylated pro-Met responsible for N-linked glycosylation modification of c-Met was confirmed by our data which showed that glucose deprivation resulted in a progressive shift in the molecular mass of pro-Met, but not in p145Met (Fig. 3B). Furthermore, protein synthesis inhibitor CHX pre-treatment blocked tunicamycin-mediated nonglycosylated pro-Met induction (Fig. 3C), confirming that pro-Met synthesis responsible for the post-translational *N*-glycosylation of c-met.

In addition to inhibiting pro-Met glycosylation, tunicamycin treatment also led to a marked reduction in protein level of p145Met in a time-dependent manner (Fig. 3A,B). Incubation of MHCC-97H and RBE cells with tunicamycin induced the induction of ER stress biomarker glucose-regulated protein 78 (GRP78; Fig. 3A,C), indicating the activation of ER stress response. As tunicamycin induces ER stress through inhibiting N-linked glycosylation, it is reasonable that tunicamycin promotes p145Met degradation through ER stress associated degradation. This notion is supported by the data that proteasome inhibitor MG132 inhibited tunicamycin-induced p145Met degradation (Fig. 3D). Furthermore, MG132 inhibited tunicamycin-induced p145Met degradation without



Fig. 4. Glycosylation blocking initiates the phosphorylation of pro-Met. A: Tunicamycin initiates pro-Met phosphorylation. After treated with tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 μ g/ml) for indicated time periods, MHCC-97H and RBE cells were subjected to Western blot analysis. B: PF-2341066 inhibits tunicamycin-induced pro-Met phosphorylation. After treated with tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 μ g/ml) for indicated time periods with or without PF-2341066 (PF, 100 nM) pre-incubation for 1 h, MHCC-97H and RBE cells were subjected to Western blot analysis. C: PF-2341066 blocks the activity of nonglycosylated pro-Met and inhibits PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK phosphorylation. After treated with tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 μ g/ml) for 24 h with or without PF-2341066 (PF, 100 nM) pre-incubation for 1 h, MHCC-97H and RBE cells were subjected to Western blot analysis.

nonglycosylated p145Met induction (Fig. 3D) confirmed the notion that pro-Met does not undergo further glycosylation to yield p145Met.

DEGLYCOSYLATION INITIATES THE PHOSPHORYLATION OF PRO-MET

As *N*-glycosylation plays an important role in the function of cell surface molecules, we addressed whether *N*-glycosylation regulates the phosphorylation of pro-Met. As shown in Figure 4A, pro-Met cannot be detected by antibodies against phosphorylated form of c-Met, indicating that pro-Met is not phosphorylated in MHCC-97H and RBE cells. Interestingly, tunicamycin-induced nonglycosylated pro-Met was detected by antibodies against phosphorylated form of c-Met, suggesting that the nonglycosylated pro-Met is phosphorylated form of c-Met, suggesting that the nonglycosylated pro-Met is phosphorylated (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, the phosphorylation of nonglycosylated pro-Met was blocked by c-Met inhibitor PF-2341066 (Fig. 4B).

To investigate the function of nonglycosylated pro-Met, we analyzed the effect of *N*-glycosylation blocking on c-Met downstream pathways. As shown in Fig. 4C, tunicamycin treatment decreased the phosphorylation levels of Akt and ERK in MHCC-97H and RBE cells. More importantly, c-Met inhibitor PF-2341066 not only blocked the phosphorylation of nonglycosylated pro-Met but also decreased the phosphorylated Akt and ERK in tunicamycin-treated MHCC-97H and RBE cells (Fig. 4C). Together, these data suggest that nonglycosylated pro-Met can activate, at least in part, c-Met downstream pathways.

GLYCOSYLATION IS REQUIRED FOR c-Met MEMBRANE TARGETING

To test the role of *N*-glycosylation in the cellular location of c-Met, we investigated the cellular localization of c-Met in tunicamycintreated MHCC-97H cells. First, we monitored the location of c-Met in MHCC-97H cells. As shown in Figure 5A,B, both phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated c-Met were membrane targeting in DMSOtreated MHCC-97H cells. After treated with tunicamycin for 24 h, both phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated pro-Met accumulated in the cytoplasm in MHCC-97H cells (Fig. 5A,B). Hence, *N*-glycosylation is required for c-Met membrane targeting.

DISCUSSION

Glycosylation is a critical step in the maturation of the majority of the proteins that traffic through the ER [Hebert and Molinari, 2007]. N-linked glycosylation is often essential for the folding, intracellular transport, secretion, and function of glycoproteins [Branza-Nichita et al., 2004; Ambasta et al., 2007]. In this study, we investigated the effect of glycosylation on c-Met function. Our data demonstrated that c-Met is an *N*-glycosylated protein, and *N*-glycosylation is an essential post-translational modification mechanism for the function of c-Met.

Glycosylation of c-Met was removed by *N*-glycanase but not by *O*-glycanase, indicating that c-Met is an *N*-glycosylated protein. Considering that both pro-Met and p145Met, which is processed



Fig. 5. Glycosylation is required for c-Met membrane targeting. A: Localization of c-Met in MHCC-97H cells. After treated with dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) or tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 μ g/ml) for 24 h, MHCC-97H cells were subjected to immunofluorescence staining and confocal microscopy analysis. B: Localization of phosphorylated c-Met in MHCC-97H cells. After treated with dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) or tunicamycin (Tun, 2.5 μ g/ml) for 24 h, MHCC-97H cells were subjected to immunofluorescence staining and confocal microscopy analysis.

from pro-Met, were *N*-glycosylated proteins, we asked whether pro-Met is further glycosylated to yield p145Met. Based on the data that *N*-glycosylation inhibitor tunicamycin inhibited *N*-glycosylation of pro-Met without p145Met *N*-glycosylation inhibition, we suggest that c-Met is initially synthesized as an *N*-glycosylated pro-Met, and pro-Met does not undergo further glycosylation to yield p145Met. Thus, the c-Met mRNA is translated into an *N*-glycosylated pro-Met in ER under physiological conditions, and the pro-Met folds into a structure stabilized by intra-chain disulfide bonds without further glycosylation. Then, the pro-Met is cleaved by a protease to originate mature c-Met.

MHCC-97H and RBE cells express high levels of phosphorylated c-Met without HGF autocrine and gene mutation. Interestingly, nonglycosylated pro-Met was detected by antibodies against phosphorylated form of c-Met in MHCC-97H and RBE cells. As pro-Met was not phosphorylated in MHCC-97H and RBE cells, it is reasonable to suggest that removal of *N*-glycosylation initiates the phosphorylated on Tyr-1234/1235/1349 independent of HGF engagement, it is interesting to investigate the function of nonglycosylated pro-Met. Since the activation of c-Met downstream pathways PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK were c-Met-dependent in MHCC-



Fig. 6. Schematic presentation of the effect of *N*-glycosylation blocking on c-Met function. Under physiological conditions, c-Met mRNA is translated into *N*-glycosylated pro-Met in ER. Within a few minutes, *N*-glycosylated pro-Met folds into a structure stabilized by intra-chain disulfide bonds. Then, the pro-Met is cleaved by a protease to originate membrane targeting c-Met. Once activated, membrane targeting c-Met activates its downstream pathways effectively. Blocking N-linked glycosylated pro-Met to activate c-Met downstream without further procession. Cytoplasm location initiates the phosphorylation of nonglycosylated pro-Met to activate c-Met downstream pathways to a certain extent, which compensating for the degradation of p145Met induced by glycosylation blocking-mediated ER stress.

97H and RBE cells, the function of nonglycosylated pro-Met can be analyzed through investigating the effect of nonglycosylated pro-Met on PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK activation. As blocking nonglycosylated pro-Met by c-Met inhibitor PF-2341066 inhibited the phosphorylation of PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK in tunicamycin-treated MHCC-97H and RBE cells, it is reasonable to suggest that nonglycosylated pro-Met sustains the activation of c-Met downstream pathways, such as PI3K/Akt and MEK/ERK, to a certain extent.

An important question now before us is why nonglycosylated pro-Met but not glycosylated pro-Met can be phosphorylated. Under physiological conditions, the c-Met mRNA is translated into Nglycosylated pro-Met in ER. Within a few minutes, N-glycosylated pro-Met folds into a structure stabilized by intra-chain disulfide bonds in ER. Then, the pro-Met is cleaved by a protease to originate membrane targeting c-Met. Thus, pro-Met is located in the ER in the process of c-Met maturation, and it is reasonable to suppose that pro-Met cannot be phosphorylated in the ER. However, removing the N-glycosylation of pro-Met inhibits its further procession and maturation. It has been accepted that unfolded protein will be exported to the cytosol and subsequently degradated by ubiquitin proteasome system [Eisele and Wolf, 2008]. As we demonstrated that nonglycosylated pro-Met is translocated to cytoplasm. Thus, it is reasonable to suggest that cytoplasm location results in the phosphorylation of nonglycosylated pro-Met. Considering that membrane targeting is critical for c-Met to activate its downstream pathways, we speculate that nonglycosylated pro-Met cannot effectively activate c-Met downstream pathways duo to its cytoplasm location.

In brief, the present work reveals that *N*-glycosylation is required for c-Met function. *N*-glycosylation blocking attenuates c-Met function, at least in part, through inhibiting its cell membrane targeting (Fig. 6). Future studies of the role of specific *N*glycosylation sites may provide further insights into the regulatory functions of glycosylation in c-Met trafficking and signaling functions.

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