1
2 **Title: Merkel Cell Polyomavirus Small Tumor Antigen Activates Matrix**
3   **Metallopeptidase-9 Gene Expression for Cell Migration and Invasion**
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ABSTRACT

Merkel cell polyomavirus (MCV) small T antigen (sT) is the main oncoprotein for the development of Merkel cell carcinoma (MCC). MCC is a rare, clinically aggressive neuroendocrine tumor of the skin with a high propensity for local, regional, and distant spread. The expression of matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-9 has been implicated as playing an important role in cell invasion and metastasis in many human cancers. Previously, MCV sT has been shown to increase the cell migration and invasiveness of MCC cells through the transcriptional activation of the sheddase molecule, ADAM 10 (A disintergrin and metalloprotease domain-containing protein 10). In this study, we show that MCV sT protein stimulates epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT) gene expression, including MMP-9. This effect is dependent on the presence of the large stabilization domain (LSD), which is known to be responsible for cell transformation through targeting of promiscuous E3 ligases, including FBW7, a known MMP-9 regulator. Chemical treatments of MMP-9 markedly inhibited sT-induced cell migration and invasion. These results suggest that sT contributes to the activation of MMP-9 as a result of FBW7 targeting, and increases the invasive potential of cells, which can be used for a targeted therapeutic intervention.

IMPORTANCE

Merkel cell carcinoma (MCC) is the most aggressive cutaneous tumor without clearly defined treatment. Although MCC has high propensity for metastasis, little is known about the underlying mechanisms that drive MCC invasion and metastatic progression. MMP-9 has shown to play a detrimental role in many metastatic human cancers, including

69   melanoma and other non-melanoma skin cancers. Our study discovers that MCV sT-

70   mediated MMP-9 activation is driven through the LSD, a known E3 ligase targeting

71   domain, in MCC. MMP-9 may serve as the biochemical culprit to target and develop a

72   novel approach for the treatment of metastatic MCC.

INTRODUCTION

Merkel cell carcinoma (MCC) is a rare skin cancer of neuroendocrine origin with a high propensity to metastasize (1). Although the incidence rate of MCC is lower than melanoma, it is highly aggressive with an estimated mortality rate of 33%-46%, hence it is significantly more lethal than malignant melanoma (2). In 90% of cases, it appears in sun-exposed areas of the head, neck and other extremities. This infers that sunlight; specifically, ultraviolet light, plays an important role in MCC development (3, 4). Current epidemiological data highlights the predominance of MCC in elderly patients, inferring that a compromised immune system is an important risk factor in MCC development (5). This is supported by the significantly high incident rates in patient on long-term iatrogenic immunosuppression drugs including organ transplant and HIV/AIDS patients (4). 45% of MCCs reoccur locally, 70% present with early involvement of local lymph nodes, and half result in distant metastases (6). The mortality rate for patients with distant metastases is 80%. This high mortality rate for MCC is due to the highly metastatic nature of the tumor (7).

Merkel cell polyomavirus (MCV) is the etiological agent of MCC. The majority of MCC cases, ~80%, are associated with MCV as observed by monoclonal integration of the MCV genome in the tumor DNA (8). MCV is a common skin commensal, present in ~60% of adults (9). A classic polyomavirus, the genomic organization of MCV is similar to other known human polyomaviruses. MCV expresses small and large tumor antigens (sT and LT), which are essential for viral replication and pathogenesis. MCC derived MCV LT sequences integrated into MCC genomes contain mutations prematurely

truncating the helicase domain. These mutations have been shown to render the virus

replication-defective and incapable of virus transmission, whilst retaining potentially

oncogenic sT and LT coding sequences (10). The LXCXE Retinoblastoma (Rb) protein

binding motif in tumor LT remains unaffected in every case, allowing for alteration of cell

cycle progression contributing to increased cell proliferation (10).

MCV sT and truncated LT are essential for MCC cell proliferation and survival. The

importance of T antigens have been demonstrated in MCV positive MCC cell lines

where small interfering RNA (siRNA)-mediated knockdown of these T antigens induce

cell cycle arrest and apoptosis (11). Unlike simian vacuolating virus 40 (SV40), the

archetype for polyomavirus studies, both full-length and truncated tumor MCV LT

cannot initiate cellular transformation. However, MCV sT is sufficient to induce loss of

contact inhibition, anchorage independent, rodent fibroblast transformation and serum

independent cell growth (12). As these are hallmarks of an oncogenic viral protein, it

can be deduced that MCV sT plays a major role in MCC tumorigenesis.

MCV sT has been shown to mediate multiple mechanisms which contribute to MCC

development. MCV sT induces centrosome overduplication, aneuploidy and micronuclei

formation by targeting cellular E3 ligases (13). sT also inhibits SCF^{Fwb7}-mediated

degradation of MCV LT and several cellular oncoproteins (14, 15). This is due to the LT

stabilizing domain (LSD), a unique domain of sT, binding to SCF E3 ligases (13, 14).

Although the exact mechanism by which sT targets E3 ligases is yet to be elucidated, it

is clear that the MCV sT LSD plays a major role in the distinctive transforming activities

induced by sT (14). MCV sT oncogenic functions induce microtubule destabilization (16)

and actin rearrangement (17), which in turn, stimulates cell motility. MCV sT has also

been shown to stimulate cell motility by upregulating a disintegrin and metalloproteinase

domain-containing protein 10 (ADAM 10) (18).

FBW7 is an evolutionarily conserved substrate receptor of SCF (complex of SKP1,

CUL1 and F-box protein)-type ubiquitin ligases and mediates various proteins that play

vital roles in cell division, cell growth and differentiation (19). Upregulation FBXW7

provides critical tumor suppressor activity in human cancers and its expression has

been linked to inhibition of metastasis and EMT. In various cancers including renal

cancer (20), gastric cancer (21) and hepatocellular carcinoma (22), FBW7 inhibition

promotes metastasis and EMT by upregulating matrix metalloproteinase expression,

specifically MMP-2, MMP-9, and MMP-13.

Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) are a zinc-dependent family of proteolytic enzymes

(23). As endo-metalloproteinases, MMPs cleave non-terminal or internal peptide bonds

within a protein. MMPs are classified based on the substrate specificity and categorized

as collagenases, gelatinases, stromelysins and membrane-type MMPs (MT-MMPs)

(24). Interestingly, MMP-2, -9 and -13 are categorized as collagenases, which play a

major role in the degradation of the extracellular matrix (ECM) that is essential for

maintaining epithelial structural integrity (20). The ECM is comprised of glycoproteins

and proteoglycans, such as Type IV collagen and Laminin and provides a barrier from

invasion by tumor cells. Degradation of the ECM by MMPs has been identified as an

essential mechanism for the metastasis of malignant cells (25). Specifically MMP-9,

functions as a collagenase and a gelatinase, and has been associated to multiple

hallmarks of cancer, including but not limited to metastasis, invasion, immunological

surveillance and angiogenesis (26).

MMPs also play various roles in multiple virus-induced tumors, by promoting

angiogenesis, matrix degradation and tumor invasion. For instance, human papilloma

virus (HPV) E7 induces expression of matrix transmembrane metalloproteinase 1 (MT1-

MMP), which is crucial for the degradation of the ECM and activation of additional MMP-

2 and MMP-9 (27). Hepatitis B and C oncoproteins, HBX and NS5A, both stimulate

MMP upregulation which in turn mediates neovascularization as a result of basement

membrane degradation (28).

Tissue invasion is a key component in the process of metastasis and in order to

facilitate invasion, the ECM is degraded by MMPs (29). Although there are a variety of

MMPs which are essential for tissue development and homeostasis, dysregulation of

these proteases has been observed in multiple pathologies, especially in cancers where

overexpression of MMPs contribute to tumor progression and tumorigenesis by

impinging on multiple mechanisms including but not limited to angiogenesis, cell growth

and modulation of migration (24, 30). In the context of virus-induced pathologies, MMPs

regulate the final stages of cancer progression in cancer models. Specifically, in a

MMTV-polyomavirus middle T-antigen (mice transgenic for the polyomavirus middle T

antigen under the control of the mouse mammary tumor virus promoter/enhancer),

knockout of MMP-9 resulted in an 80% decrease in lung metastatic burden, signifying

the essential role of MMP-9 in angiogenesis and metastasis in this model (31).

Correlations exist between expression of MMP-9 and various factors associated with

tumor progression, implying that MMP-9 is essential for cancer development and the

dissemination of metastatic tumor cells (32). Interestingly, when predicting patient

outcome, high baseline MMP-9 is associated with poor overall survival (33). As such,

there is a current resurgence in research focused on the use of MMP inhibitors. With

improved strategies for targeting MMPs, recent studies have shown favorable anti-

tumorigenic phenotypes in *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies, which have progressed to clinical

trials (34, 35).

Interrogation of previously published quantitative proteomic datasets of MCV sT-

expressing cells demonstrate that MCV sT activates expression of MMP-9 and Snail,

known drivers of an epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) and cell migration, whilst

sT-downregulated genes relate to cell adhesion molecules. We confirmed both

transcriptional and translational regulation of MCV sT activated pleiotropic oncogenic

molecules, resulting in induced cell migration in mouse fibroblast cells and human

cancer cell lines, including MCV negative MCC in an LSD dependent manner. This

indicates that MCV sT targeting of cellular E3 ligases may play a role in sT-induced cell

migration and invasion in MCC. Notably, chemical treatment with MMP-9 inhibitors

resulted in a dose-dependent reduction in cell migration and invasion. Our results

highlight the essential role of MCV-sT LSD in MMP-9 mediated enhanced cell migration

and invasion. This suggests that targeting MMP-9 may provide novel therapeutic

interventions for disseminated MCC.

RESULTS

MCV sT expression induces differential expression of proteins associated with

EMT.

Recent studies have highlighted the involvement of MCV sT in the highly migratory and

cell dissociation phenotypes of MCC, elucidating its highly multifunctional roles in MCC

(16-18). Previously described SILAC (stable isotope labelling by amino acids in cell

culture)-based quantitative proteomics data (REF), was further interrogated to assess

the alterations in the host cell proteome upon expression of MCV sT in a HEK293

derived cell line (i293-sT) **(Fig. 1A)** (16). These results highlighted an alteration in

proteins associated with enhancement of cell migration (microtubule associated

cytoskeletal organization) and cell adhesion as previously reported and interestingly the

basement membrane, a specialized form of the ECM. Specifically, the quantitative

proteomic analysis, showed an almost two-fold decrease in Collagen alpha-2(IV) chain

(COL42A) and Laminin subunit gamma-1(LAMC1), two key components of the

basement membrane. The basement membrane is essential for epithelial structural

integrity. It is comprised of a network of glycoproteins and proteoglycans, such as Type

IV collagen and Laminin and provides a barrier from invasion by tumor cells. Therefore,

these results suggest that for MCV sT-related oncogenic functions in MCC, the

basement membrane must be degraded in order for invasion of tumor cells into the

circulatory system for metastasis to occur (37). Aligned with these observations,

transcriptome analysis has suggested that certain markers associated with EMT are

increased upon MCV-sT expression (38).

Validation of potential EMT-related markers was performed by qRT-PCR as changes in

RNA levels regulate EMT progression due to differential splicing and regulation of EMT

markers by microRNAs (39). Classic EMT markers were assessed in MCC13

transfected cells and upon MCV-sT expression, a significant downregulation in epithelial

markers E-cadherin, ZO-1 and Occludins were observed **(Fig. 1B)**. Conversely,

mesenchymal markers ZEB1, ZEB2, Snail, Slug, MMP-3 and MMP-9 were upregulated

upon MCV-sT expression. These results infer the possibility of MCV sT inducing an

EMT which contributes to the metastatic potential of MCV-associated MCC.

MCV sT inhibition of FBW7 contributes to migratory phenotype.

Given the current interest in the role of MCV sT in mediating MCC tumorigenesis,

quantifying the migratory capacity of MCC cells, and understanding how the migratory

and metastatic capacity may be altered by MCV sT targeting FBW7 was of particular

interest. To determine whether sT targeting of FBW7 contributed to sT induced

migratory phenotype, a scratch assay was performed comparing vector control, MCV

sT_{WT}, and MCV sT_{LSDm} (mutation of the LSD by alanine substitution to inhibit FBW7

binding) (36) in transfected U2OS cells. Cellular growth back was recorded and after 24

h post scratch, in contrast to vector cells, MCV sT enhanced the motility and migration

of cells, consistent with previous studies **(Fig. 2A)**. (16-18, 40, 41). Interestingly, sT

mutant, sT_{LSDm}, showed a decrease in sT-induced cell migration. A similar trend was

also observed in NIH3T3 mouse fibroblast **(Fig. 2B)** and MCC13 (MCV negative MCC

cell line) **(Fig. S1)** expressing vector control, sT_{WT}, and sT_{LSDm}. Enhancement cell

migration was readily detected in sT_{WT} but not in sT_{LSDm}, suggesting that inhibiting sT

binding of FBW7 was sufficient to repress the MCV sT-induced cell migratory

phenotype. H-RasV12 served as a positive control for NIH3T3 transwell assay **(Fig.**

2B).

MCV sT inhibition of FBW7 prevents turnover of MMP-9.

FBW7 is directly involved in MMP-2, -9 and -13 mediated migration and invasion as a

result of regulating expression of these metalloproteases (42). To determine if MMP-9

expression contributed to sT induced cell migration, initial assessments to validate

whether MCV sT induces MMP-9 expression was performed. A variety of cell lines, 293,

COS-9, MCC13 and U2OS cells were transfected with a vector control and MCV sT.

MMP-9 gene expression is primarily regulated transcriptionally thereby resulting in low

basal levels of these proteases in normal physiology (43). RT-qPCR results showed that

MCV sT expression, significantly increased MMP-9 expression in all cell lines tested

(**Fig 3A**).

Previous studies have showed that mutation of the LSD supports turnover of FBW7

substrates including LT, Cyclin E and c-Myc (14). It was essential therefore to determine

if MCV-sT enhances the migratory potential of MCC by LSD targeting of FBW7 which

prevents MMP-9 turnover. Transcriptional and protein levels of MMP-9 were assessed

in the presence of the MCV sT_{WT} or MCV sT_{LSDm}. MCV sT-induced upregulation of

MMP-9 transcripts was not observed upon mutation of the LSD (**Fig 3B**). Therefore, cell

lysates of vector control, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ transfected U2OS and MCC13

cells were analyzed to detect MMP-9 by immunoblotting. Our results demonstrated a

significant increase in MMP-9 mature protein levels upon MCV sT expression. However,

mutation of the LSD prevented MCV sT-mediated upregulation of MMP-9 as expression

levels remained comparable with the control, suggesting that MCV sT-mediated

upregulation of MMP-9 is LSD dependent (**Fig 3C and 2D**). Studies have shown MMP-

9 exists in several forms; a monomeric pro form (~92 kDa), a disulfide-bonded

homodimeric (~220 kDa) form and multiple active forms (~67 and 82 kDa) (44, 45). The

active and dimeric forms of MMP-9 play a role in the invasive and migratory phenotypes

of cancer cells (42, 44, 46). MCV sT$_{WT}$ expression induced upregulation of dimer, pro

and active forms of MMP-9, while MMP-9 protein levels upon MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ expression

were comparable to vector control confirming that MCV sT upregulation of MMP-9 is

LSD dependent.

MMP-9 inhibition impedes MCV sT-induced cell migration.

Increased cell migration is associated in various pathological conditions including but

not limited to inflammation, rheumatoid arthritis, focal brain ischemia and cancer.

Interestingly, increased expression of MMP-9 has been linked to these diseases (47).

Consequently, we next assessed if MMP-9 inhibition has an impact in MCV sT induced

motile and migratory potentials. The migratory phenotype of U2OS cells transfected with

either vector control, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ were assessed using a scratch assay,

in the absence or presence of non-cytotoxic concentrations of the MMP9-I and MMP9-II

inhibitors (**Fig. S2A**). Incubation of the both inhibitors showed a slight decrease in the

motility of vector control cells, implying that any changes observed in migratory rates of

MCV sT expression cells is not due to changes in cell viability or cytotoxicity. In

contrast, MMP-9 inhibition resulted in a significant decrease in the distance travelled of

MCV sT expressing cells (**Fig. 4A and 4B**). Notably, mutation of the LSD impedes sT-

induced migration which was further inhibited by MMP-9 inhibition to a degree

reminiscent to control cells.

MMP-9 is essential for cell motility and migration in MCC.

To demonstrate that MMP-9 is essential for cell motility and migration of MCV-positive

MCC cell lines, a transwell migration assay was performed. This assay examines the

migration of cells towards a chemoattractant across a permeable chamber. MCV-

positive MCC cell lines, MS-1 and MKL-1 were incubated in the absence or presence of

the MMP9-I and MMP9-II inhibitors at non-toxic concentrations (**Fig. S2B, C**). After

treatment, cells were allowed to migrate for 48 h, cell migration was assessed by cell

counting using a cell counting Kit-8 assay. Results showed that migration of MCV-

positive MCC cell lines were significantly reduced compared to control, upon treatment

with MMP-9 inhibitors suggesting that MMP-9 expression contributes to MCV-Positive

MCC cell line migration (**Fig. 4C**). Together, these results suggest that MMP-9 is

required for MCV-sT mediated cell migration enhancement in MCC.

MCV sT invasive phenotype is LSD dependent.

The invasiveness of epithelial cancers is a multi-step process and a key hallmark

involves the degradation of the basement membrane. Type IV collagen is a major

component in most basement membranes. Multiple studies have correlated

overexpression of MMPs with not only an enhancement of cell migration and

metastasis, but also the invasiveness of cancer cells (26, 30, 48). In particular, MMP-9

is a key protease associated with the degradation of ECM components including type IV

collagen and Laminin which in turn, facilitates invasion of tumors into the circulatory

system and promote metastasis. To test if enzymatic activation of MMP-9 is regulated

by LSD, we evaluated the MMP-9 substrate, Collagen IV, by immunofluorescence

staining. Our results demonstrate that Collagen IV expression in MCV sT$_{WT}$ expressing

cells is significantly reduced in comparison to vector control cells. In contrast, MCV-

sT$_{LSDm}$ expressing cells did not show a decrease in collagen IV expression (**Fig. 5A**).

Moreover, regression analysis revealed that Collagen IV expression levels highly

correlated with MCV sT$_{WT}$ or sT$_{LSDm}$ expression levels (**Fig. 5B**).

To validate the role of the LSD in the invasive phenotype previously observed upon

MCV sT expression (16), a collagen invasion assay was performed using collagen

precoated inserts in U2OS and MCC13 cells transfected with vector control, MCV sT$_{WT}$

and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$. Upon mutation of the LSD, MCV sT invasive phenotype was

significantly reduced to levels similar to the vector control (**Fig. 5C**), inferring that MCV

sT-induced MCC invasion is LSD dependent. Positive expression MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV

sT$_{LSDm}$ was validated by immunoblotting.

MCV sT LSD mediates expression of EMT regulator Snail.

A positive regulatory loop has been identified between MMP-9 and Snail. siRNA

mediated inhibition of MMP-9 significantly reduces expression of Snail, and conversely,

knockdown of Snail, a transcription factor of MMP-9 also suppressed expression of

MMP-9 (49). Moreover, emerging evidence has shown that cellular E3 ligases play a

crucial role in the regulation of Snail-mediated EMT (50). In human non-small cell lung

cancer, FBW7 inhibited cell migration and invasion due to ubiquitination and proteolytic

degradation of Snail while FBW7 silencing induced Snail-mediated EMT in vivo (51).

Since Snail is a key initiator of EMT, it was essential to assess the transcriptional and

protein levels of Snail in the presence of the MCV sT$_{WT}$ or MCV sT$_{LSDm}$. RT-qPCR

results showed that MCV sT upregulated Snail mRNA levels that was not observed

upon mutation of the LSD in U2OS cells (**Fig. 6A**). Additionally, lysates of vector control,

MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ transfected U2OS cells were analyzed by immunoblotting

for Snail protein expression. Similar to RT-qPCR and SILAC data, our results

demonstrated a significant increase in Snail protein levels upon MCV-sT expression that

was not observed in MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ expressing cells (**Fig. 6B**). These data suggest that

the LSD possibly impedes FBW7 inhibition of EMT.

DISCUSSION

Metastasis is the end point of a series of biological processes by which a tumor cell

detaches from the primary tumor and disseminates to a distant site through the

circulatory system and establishes a secondary tumor (52). The invasion-metastasis

cascade is a multistep process and it has been hypothesized that EMT and

mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition (MET) drive the invasion-metastasis cascade

(53). Various studies have shown that that oncovirus-associated oncoproteins play a

role in metastasis and EMT-related mechanisms. Hepatitis B oncoprotein, HBx, induces

MMP-9 through ERK and PI-3K/AKT pathway activation (54). HPV16 E6 and E7

oncoproteins have been shown to repress expression of the E-cadherin protein in

cervical cancer cells, inducing FGF ligand stimulation resulting in increased

invasiveness (38). EBV oncoprotein, LMP1, induces cadherin switching (55) and

regulates transcription factors such as TWIST and Snail thereby increasing a migratory

phenotype in virus-induced human cancers (56, 57). These cellular targets regulating

cancer cell migration and invasion are commonly induced by viral oncoproteins that

could be exploited for therapeutic strategies in virus-induced metastatic cancers.

Cleavage of the ECM allows for creation of space within the extracellular matrix freeing

up the surrounding areas for cell migration (58). In this report, we show that MCV sT

LSD inhibition of FBW7 potentially promotes upregulation of MMP-9 and contributes to

MCV sT-mediated cell migration and invasion. The mechanism by which the LSD

inhibition of FBW7 regulates MMP-9 expression is currently unclear, although many

studies have shown MMP-9 expression is transcriptionally regulated (24). MMP-9 is

also a downstream target of Notch1. It has been demonstrated that loss of FBW7

induces Notch1 and Notch1 downstream molecules (MMP-2 and MMP-9) activation,

resulting in induced-cell migration and invasion in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) (22).

Similar trends have been observed in breast cancer where Notch1 signaling promotes

an invasive phenotype as a result of activation of NF-κB and its downstream target

genes including MMP-2, MMP-9 (59), while downregulation of Notch-1 decreases MMP-

9 transcription and function (60). Nonetheless, it is clear that MCV sT LSD plays a

critical role in regulating transcriptional and post-translational MMP-9 expression and

activity.

EMT progression is also associated with upregulation of MMPs and cytoskeletal

reorganization. Together, both mechanisms enable cell migration and invasion across

the basement membrane (61). Additionally, MMPs are also known to target

transmembrane proteins, like E-cadherin, contributing to the destabilization of adherens

junction. Furthermore, another pathway by which MMPs contribute to EMT is inducing

expression of RAC1B, a splice variant of RAC1, which results in upregulation of cellular

reactive oxygen species. This in turn induces an increase in Snail expression, which we

observed to be upregulated in an LSD dependent manner (**Fig. 6**).

FBW7 functions as tumor suppressor by negatively regulating oncoproteins in a variety

of human cancers and these oncoproteins are degraded by ubiquitination. Studies have

shown that FBW7 is a negative regulator of EMT (62, 63). β-TrCP, another key E3

ligase that MCV sT targets through the LSD, has been shown to interact with Snail. Two

phosphorylation motifs of glycogen synthase kinase-3β (GSK-3β) have been identified

in Snail and GSK-3β phosphorylation at motif 1 results in the association of Snail

interaction with β-TrCP which induces the ubiquitination and degradation of Snail (64).

Furthermore, in MDCK-Snail cells, siRNA depletion of Snail triggered a full reversal to

the epithelial phenotype denoted by re-expression key epithelial marker E-cadherin and

downregulation mesenchymal markers vimentin and fibronectin, resulting in loss of

invasiveness (65). Therefore, we infer that the dysregulation E3 ligases function by

MCV sT LSD promotes the metastatic phenotype observed in MCC and inhibition of the

LSD-FBW7 interaction could prove to be a novel therapeutic target to reverse the

metastatic phenotype observed in MCC.

The role of MMPs in cancer have been well established and for many years,

development of MMP-9 inhibitors focused targeting its active site. Although results from

early animal studies utilizing broad spectrum inhibitors were compelling, it was

determined that inhibiting such a broad scale inhibition of MMPs interfered with normal

tissue function, which could support disease progression (66, 67). Moreover, MMP-9

active site inhibitors were prone to off target binding which induced unexpected

malignancies including musculoskeletal toxicity (68).

Because of the rare and aggressive nature of metastatic MCC and the lack of standard

chemotherapy, there are no prospective studies of outcomes following treatment of

distant metastatic MCC. The underlying mechanism for the high propensity of MCC

tumors to metastasize is yet to be elucidated. MCV-sT has emerged as the main

transforming factor significant in both early and late stages of MCV-positive MCC

progression. We found that MCV sT specifically activates the EMT-related cellular

proteins including MMP-9 through the LSD and can be targeted by commercially available

inhibitors, which can be used as second-line treatment for distant metastatic MCC. Our

study is the first approach to investigate the therapeutic potential of matrix
metalloproteinases in MCC. Standard chemotherapy regimens for metastatic MCC
include carboplatin or cisplatin with etoposide and topotecan (69). Because recent FDA
approvals of Avelumab and Pembrolizumab represent the only approved treatment option
for metastatic MCC (70, 71), it is necessary to evaluate and develop the preclinical activity
of efficient and economical chemotherapeutics through retrospective analysis for both
MCV-negative and positive MCC patients. MCV-negative MCC tumors patients are more
likely to present with advanced disease than patients with virus-positive tumors (66.7%
vs. 48.3%) (72), signaling pathways implicated in regulating tumor invasion could be an
effective common target for both types of metastatic MCC treatment.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Cells. 293, U2OS and COS-7 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's
medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). MCC13, MS-1, MKL-1 and
MKL-2 cell lines were maintained in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS
(Seradigm). NIH3T3 cells were maintained in DMEM with 10% bovine calf serum
(Seradigm).

Plasmids and transfection. Plasmids for Vector control, codon-optimized cDNA
constructs for sT_{WT} and sT_{LSDm} have been previously described (36). For sT protein
expression, cells were transfected using Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen) according to the
manufacturer's protocol. For lentiviral transduction, codon-optimized cDNAs for MCV sT

and H-RasV12 was inserted into pLVX empty vector (36). Plasmids used for this study

were listed in **Table S1**.

Lentiviral infection. For lentivirus production, 293FT (Invitrogen) cells were used for

induction according to the manufacturer's instructions. NIH3T3 cells were transduced

with pLVX empty vector, wild-type or mutant small T antigens lentivirus. Cells were

selected with puromycin (3 µg/ml) after infection for one week.

Reverse transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR). RNA

was extracted using Monarch Total RNA miniprep kit (New England Biolabs), as per the

manufacturer's instruction. 250 ng of RNA was used as a template in iTaq Universal

One-Step RT-qPCR Kits (Bio-Rad) or Luna Universal One-Step RT-qPCR Kit (New

England Biolabs) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Primer sequences used are

described in **Table S2**. With GAPDH as internal control mRNA, quantitative analysis

was performed using the comparative ΔΔCt method.

Quantitative immunoblotting (IB) and antibodies. Cells were lysed in IP buffer (50

mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl, 1% TritonX-100, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mM

benzamidine) and sonicated whole cell lysates were used for direct immunoblotting.

Primary antibodies were incubated overnight at 4°C, followed by 1 h secondary antibody

incubation at RT. All signals were detected using quantitative Infrared (IR) secondary

antibodies (IRDye 800CW goat anti-mouse, 800CW goat anti-rabbit, 680LT goat anti-

rabbit IgG, 680LT goat anti-mouse IgG) (LI-COR). Signal intensities were analyzed

using a laser-scanning imaging system, Odyssey CLX (LI-COR). Antibodies used for

this study were listed in **Table S3**. Protein levels were quantitated and normalized by

control, α-tubulin, using an Odyssey LI-COR IR imaging system.

SILAC data analysis. The previously published SILAC-based quantitative proteomic

data set analyzing host cell proteome changes upon MCV sT expression (REF) was

further interrogated using the Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated

Discovery (DAVID) v6.7 (51). For quantitative analysis, a 2.0-fold cutoff was chosen as

a basis for investigating potential proteome changes (50).

Scratch wound-healing assay. Poly-L-Lysine-coated 6-well plates were seeded with

U2OS cells and transfected with either a vector control, MCV sT_{WT} and MCV sT_{LSDm}

plasmids. After 48 h, a scratch was created by scraping the monolayer using a p1000

pipette tip. Migration of cells toward the scratch was observed over a 24-h period, and

images were taken every 8 h under a REVOLVE4 fluorescent microscope (Echo

Laboratories). Inhibitor-based scratch assays were incubated for 24 h prior to transfection

with 0.1 and 1 µM of 9-I and 9-II inhibitors respectively.

Transwell cell migration assay. Cells grown in DMEM with 10% FBS were trypsinized

and resuspended in DMEM. 1×10^5 cells were gently added to the upper compartment

of transwell (8 µm, Greiner Bio-One). DMEM with 10% FBS were added to the lower

compartment of transwell. The cells were incubated in the culture incubator at 37 °C

plus 5% CO2 for indicated time. The remained cells on the upper side were gently

removed with cotton balls. The cells migrated from the upper side to the lower side

through the filter were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 10 min, then stained

with 1% Crystal Violet in 2% ethanol for 20 min for NIH3T3 cells or cells were counted

using a Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8) (Sigma-Aldrich). The stained cells on the lower side

were counted under microscope from 5 different randomly selected views. All conditions

were the same for assays performed in triplicate.

Immunofluorescence. U2OS cells grown on glass coverslips were transfected with

empty vector or sT wild type and LSD mutant expression constructs. After 48 h, cells

were then fixed and permeabilized in 1:1 methanol/acetone at -20°C, and blocked in

PBS-10% FBS for 1 h. Cells were labeled with the appropriate primary antibodies and

then incubated with the appropriate Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary antibody. Cells

were viewed under a REVOLVE4 fluorescent microscope (Echo Laboratories).

Collagen invasion assay. U2OS and MCC13 cells were transfected with sT and LSD

mutant expression constructs, allowed to recover for 48 h which was followed by an

overnight serum starvation. 1 x10^6 cells in each condition were grown in 24-well cell

invasion plate were plated in the top chamber with polymerized collagen-coated

membrane (24-well insert; pore size, 8 µm; Chemicon ECM551) in serum free.

Complete medium was used as a chemoattractant in the lower chamber. The cells were

left to incubate for 72 h, and unattached cells were removed cautiously by cotton swab.

Cells that had invaded the lower surface of the membrane were stained with the Cell

Stain Solution and counted accordingly. They were finally extracted and detected

quantitatively using a standard microplate reader (at 560 nm).

Chemical inhibitors. MMP-9 inhibitors-I and II (EMD Milipore) were used at 0.1 µM

and 1 µM, respectively, in U2OS cells lines. In MKL-1 cells, MMP-9 inhibitors-I and II

(EMD Milipore) were used at 0.2 µM and 2 µM and in MS-1 cell, 0.1 µM and 1 µM, Cell

toxicity was measured using a Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8) (Sigma-Aldrich) according to

the manufacturer's protocol.

Statistical analysis. Statistical significance between two groups was determined using

one- or two-tailed student's t-tests in either GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, Inc.,

La Jolla, CA, USA) or Excel. The difference was considered as significant when $p < 0.05$

for multiple testing (**Supplemental material**).

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FIGURE LEGENDS

FIGURE 1

MCV ST expression leads to differential expression of proteins associated with epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT). (A) Quantitative proteomics analysis illustrating fold difference of differential expression of EMT associated proteins upon MCV-sT expression. Proteins associated with cell adhesion and structural integrity of the of the extracellular matrix are downregulated upon MCV sT expression. An increase in expression of proteins which encourage cell migration by reorganization of the actin network and microtubule destabilization are upregulated. **(B)** MCC13 cells were transfected with control or MCV sT expression plasmids. Cellular RNA was extracted using a trizol reagent, reverse transcribed and qRT-PCR was performed. Transcript levels were analyzed using the comparative CT method (n = 3).

FIGURE 2

MCV sT induces cell motility in an LSD dependent manner. (A) Scratch assay. Poly-L-lysine-coated 6-well plates were seeded with U2OS cells and transfected with either a vector control, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ plasmids. After 48 h, a scratch was created by scraping the monolayer using a p1000 pipette tip. Migration of cells toward the scratch was observed over a 24 h period, and images were taken every 8 h under a REVOLVE4 fluorescent microscope (Echo Laboratories). The size of the wound was measured at 0 and 24 h. Scratch assays were performed in triplicate., n = 3 and differences between means (*p* value) were analyzed using a t-test with GraphPad Prism software. Protein expression levels of MCV sT wild type and mutant samples. Protein expression was detected by immunoblot analysis to validate successful transfection.

Quantitative Infrared fluorescence immunoblotting was performed using 2T2 antibody

for sT antigens and alpha-tubulin, respectively. Differences between means (p value)

were analyzed using a t-test with GraphPad Prism software. **(B)** Transwell migration

assay**.** NIH3T3 cells stably expressing an empty vector, H-RasV12, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and

MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ (Fbw7 binding mutant) were trypsinized and $2x10^5$ cells were seeded into

transwell inserts and incubated for 5 days. Images represent wells samples tested. The

experiments were performed two times and the results were reproducible. Graph

indicates the fold difference of migrated cells relative to the vector control sample.

Protein expression was determined by immunoblotting.

FIGURE 3

Matrix metalloproteinases 9 (MMP-9) activation in MCV sT expressing cells is LSD

dependent. (A) Various cell lines (293, COS-7, MCC13 and U2OS) were transfected for

48 h with a vector control and MCV sT$_{WT}$ expressing plasmids. (B) U2OS and MCC13

cells transfected with empty vector control, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ expressing

plasmids. Cellular RNA was extracted and transcript levels were analyzed using the

comparative CT method (n = 3). Data analyzed using three replicates per experiment

and statistical analysis using a two-tailed t-test with unequal variance comparing MCV

sT$_{WT}$ and sT$_{LSDm}$ samples to control samples. Differences between means (p value)

were analyzed using a t-test with GraphPad Prism software. (C) U2OS cells (D) MCC13

Cells were transfected with vector control, and MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ expressing

plasmids expression plasmids for 48 h. (I) Immunoblot analysis was performed on the

cellular lysates and analyzed MMP-9 specific antibody, α-tubulin was used as a

measure of equal loading and the 2T2 hybridoma was used to confirm MCV-sT wild

type and mutant expression. (II) Densitometry quantification of immunoblots was carried

out using the Image studio software and is shown as a fold change relative to the

loading control, α-tubulin. Data analyzed using three biological replicates per

experiment (n = 3).

FIGURE 4

MMP-9 inhibition impedes MCV sT-induced cell migration. (A) Scratch assay. Poly-

L-lysine-coated 6-well plates were seeded with U2OS cells and incubated with specific

inhibitors at predetermined concentrations. Cells were transfected with either a vector

control, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ plasmids. After 48 h, a scratch was created and

migration of cells toward the scratch was observed over a 24 h period. The size of the

wound was measured at 0 and 24 h. Scratch assays were performed in triplicate. (B)

MCV positive MCC cell lines, MKL-1 and MS1, were incubated with DMSO or the MMP-

9 inhibitors 9-I (0.2 µM).and -II (2 µM); 9-I (0.1 µM).and -II (1 µM). Cells were then

transferred into migration wells and allowed to migrate from serum-free to 10% FBS

conditions for 48 h. Migratory cells were incubated CCK-8 solution and measured at 450

nm to quantify migration. Data analyzed using three biological replicates per

experiment, n = 3. Differences between means (*p* value) were analyzed using a t-test

with GraphPad Prism software.

FIGURE 5

MCV sT LSD induces collagen degradation. (A) U2OS cells were transfected with

empty vector control, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ plasmids. 48 h post transfection, cells

were fixed and endogenous Collagen IV levels were identified by indirect

immunofluorescence using a specific antibody. MCV sT expression was detected with

2T2 T antigen antibody. (B) Mean Florescence intensity of wildtype and mutant MCV sT

and Collagen IV expression was analyzed using Fiji Image J software. The calculated

values were plotted for regression analysis. (C) Collagen invasion assay. Precoated

collagen inserts were seeded with serum starved U2OS transfected cells and incubated

for 72 h, then labelled with a cell staining solution for 20 mins. Upon extraction of the

cell staining solution, absorbance at OD560 was measured. Data analyzed using three

replicates per experiment, the experiments were performed two times. The results were

reproducible and differences between means (p value) were analyzed using a t-test with

GraphPad Prism software. (C) Expression of oncoproteins. Protein expression levels of

wild type and mutant MCV sT. Protein expression was detected by immunoblot analysis

to validate successful transfection. Quantitative infrared fluorescence immunoblotting

was performed using 2T2 antibody for sT antigens and α-tubulin, respectively.

FIGURE 6

MCV sT LSD induces Snail expression. (A) U2OS cells were transfected with empty

vector control, MCV sT$_{WT}$ and MCV sT$_{LSDm}$ expressing plasmids. Cellular RNA was

extracted at 48 h post transfection and transcript levels were analyzed using the

comparative CT method (n = 3). (B) Snail expression is induced by sT. Immunoblot

analysis was performed on the cellular lysates and analyzed using Snail specific

antibody. α-tubulin was used as a measure of equal loading and the 2T2 antibody was

used to confirm MCV sT wild type and mutant expression.

FIG 1

A

B

FIG 2

A

B

FIG 3

FIG 4

A

B

C

FIG 5

A

	DAPI	MCV-sT	Col IV	Merge
Vector				
MCV sT$_{WT}$				
MCV sT$_{LSDm}$				

Bi

Y = Y = 0.9527X + 0.05670
r^2 = 0.9798

Type IV Collagen (y-axis, 0–8)
MCV-sT$_{WT}$ expression (x-axis, 0–8)

Bii

Y = 0.9837*X - 0.06421
r^2 = 0.9384

Type IV Collagen (y-axis, 0–8)
MCV-sT$_{LSD.m}$ expression (x-axis, 0–8)

Ci

Collagen invasion (Fold change) (y-axis, 0–6)

Legend: U2OS, MCC13

Vector, sT$_{WT}$, sT$_{LSDm}$, Vector, sT$_{WT}$, sT$_{LSDm}$

Cii

Vector, sT$_{WT}$, sT$_{LSDm}$, Vector, sT$_{WT}$, sT$_{LSDm}$

MCV-sT

α–Tubulin

U2OS   MCC13

FIG 6

A

mRNA fold difference normalized to GAPDH (SNAIL)

⊠ Vector
■ sT$_{WT}$
■ sT$_{LSDm}$

U2OS

B

Vector   sT$_{WT}$ sT$_{LSDm}$

Snail

MCV-sT

α–Tubulin