

FIGURE 7: MS spectra of neurotirim glycopeptides. (A1) MS/MS spectra of glycopeptide LTFNFN<sup>252</sup>VSE; elution position, 20; precursor ion,  $[M + 3H]^{3+}$  ( $m/z$  1011.7). (A2) Integrated mass spectrum obtained from position 20. (B1) MS/MS and MS/MS/MS spectra of glycopeptide YGN<sup>260</sup>YTCVASNK; elution position, 5; precursor ion,  $[M + 3H]^{3+}$  ( $m/z$  1081.6). (B2) Integrated mass spectrum at position 5. (C1) MS/MS and MS/MS/MS spectra of glycopeptide LGHTN<sup>273</sup>ASIMLFGPGAVSE; elution position, 23; precursor ion,  $[M + 3H]^{3+}$  ( $m/z$  1102.5). (C2) Integrated mass spectrum at position 23. (D) MS/MS spectrum of GPI-linked VNN<sup>289</sup>; elution position, 26; precursor ion,  $[M + 2H]^{2+}$  ( $m/z$  842.8). Symbols are as in Figure 9.

(ii) *Asn260*. Panel B1 of Figure 7 shows the representative product ion spectra of the glycopeptide eluted at position 5, the peptide portion of which was identified as YGN<sup>260</sup>YTCVASNK on the basis of the  $Y_{1\alpha/1\beta}$  ion in the MS/MS/MS spectrum. The monosaccharide composition (dHex<sub>2</sub>Hex<sub>4</sub>HexNAc<sub>5</sub>), the Le<sup>ax</sup>-related ions in the MS/MS spectrum, and the presence of  $Y_{1\beta/3\alpha/3\beta}^{2+}$  and  $Y_{1a}$  in the MS/MS/MS spectrum revealed the linkage of a Le<sup>ax</sup>-modified fucosylated and bisected complex-type oligosaccharide to this peptide (inset of panel B1 of Figure 7). The molecular ions in the integrated mass spectrum (peaks 1-1-4 in panel B2 of Figure 7) together with the MS/MS spectra of glycosylated HDYGN<sup>260</sup>YTCVASNK (position 8) suggested that Asn260 was predominantly glycosylated with the Le<sup>ax</sup> or Le<sup>bx</sup>-modified bisected complex- and hybrid-type oligosaccharides and BA-2 (Table 1L).

(iii) *Asn273*. On the basis of the  $Y_1$  ion and the monoisotopic mass, the glycopeptide eluted at position 23 was assigned to LGHTN<sup>273</sup>ASIMLFGPGAVSE glycosylated with Hex<sub>3</sub>HexNAc<sub>5</sub> (panel C1 of Figure 7). Its glycan moiety was characterized as a bisected agalacto-complex-type oligosaccharide based on  $Y_{3\alpha/3\beta}^{2+}$ . Other glycans at Asn273 were assigned to bisected complex- and hybrid-type oligosaccharides (peaks m-1-4 in panel C2 of Figure 7 and Table 1M).

(iv) *Asn289*. Figure 7D shows one of the MS/MS spectra of GPI-linked VNN<sup>289</sup>, which was picked out from position 26 on the basis of the peptide-related ion (peptide-NH-Et<sup>+</sup>,  $m/z$  371.3). Three different MS/MS spectra of GPI-linked VNN<sup>289</sup> were picked out from position 26 (Figure 4B). From the molecular ions [peaks N1 ( $m/z$  1004), N2 ( $m/z$  924), and N3 ( $m/z$  842)] and their fragments, it was suggested that they contain Hex-Man1 and HexNAc-(Hex)-(NH<sub>2</sub>Et-PO<sub>4</sub>-)Man3,

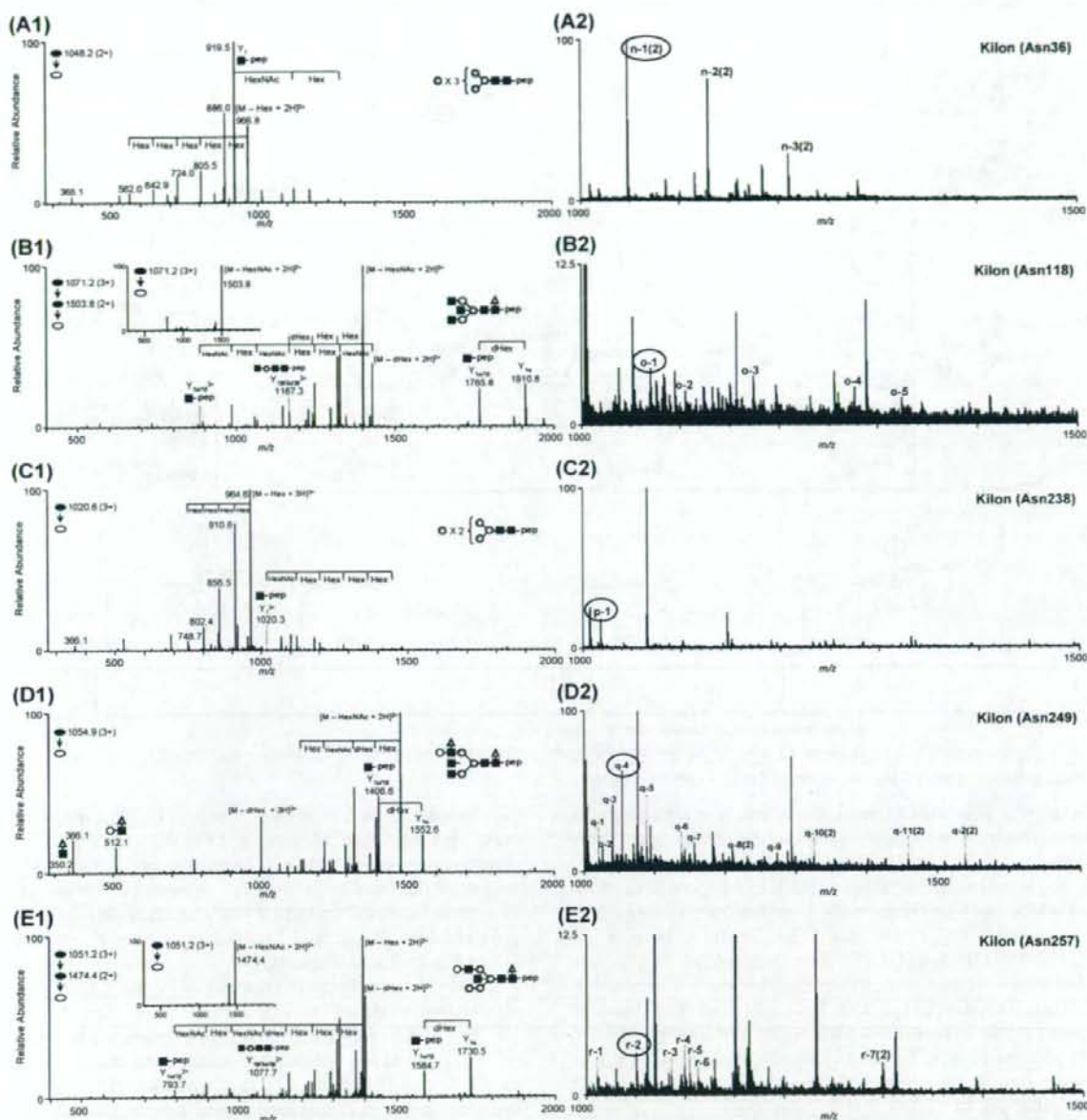


FIGURE 8: MS spectra of Kilon glycopeptides. (A1) MS/MS spectra of glycopeptide GAWLN<sup>36</sup>R; elution position, 3; precursor ion,  $[M + 2H]^{2+}$  ( $m/z$  1048.2). (A2) Integrated mass spectrum obtained from position 3. (B1) MS/MS and MS/MS/MS spectra of glycopeptide GTN<sup>118</sup>VLTCLATGKPE; elution position, 16; precursor ion,  $[M + 3H]^{3+}$  ( $m/z$  1071.2). (B2) Integrated mass spectrum at position 16. (C1) MS/MS spectrum of glycopeptide LFNGQQGIIIQN<sup>238</sup>FSTR; elution position, 22; precursor ion,  $[M + 3H]^{3+}$  ( $m/z$  1020.6). (C2) Integrated mass spectrum at position 22. (D1) MS/MS spectrum of glycopeptide SILTVTN<sup>249</sup>VTQE; elution position, 17; precursor ion,  $[M + 3H]^{3+}$  ( $m/z$  1054.9). (D2) Integrated mass spectrum at position 17. (E1) MS/MS and MS/MS/MS spectra of glycopeptide HFGN<sup>257</sup>YTCVAANK; elution position, 10; precursor ion,  $[M + 3H]^{3+}$  ( $m/z$  1051.2). (E2) Integrated mass spectrum at position 10. Symbols are as in Figure 9.

HexNAc-(Hex-)(NH<sub>2</sub>Et-PO<sub>4</sub>)-Man<sub>3</sub>, and HexNAc-(NH<sub>2</sub>Et-PO<sub>4</sub>)-Man<sub>3</sub>, respectively. The existence of two isomers was suggested in peak N2 by the presence of two different MS/MS spectra at different elution times (Table 2).

**Glycosylation Analysis of Kilon.** Kilon has six potential N-glycosylation sites at Asn36, -118, -238, -249, -257, and -270. The predicted linkage site of GPI is Gly287. The typical MS/MS spectra and the integrated mass spectra of the glycopeptides containing Asn36, -118, -238, -249, and -257

are shown in panels A1–E1 and A2–E2 of Figure 8, respectively. The MS/MS spectra of the glycopeptide containing both Asn270 and Gly287 could not be picked out from the MS data.

(i) *Asn36.* Panel A1 of Figure 8 shows one of the MS/MS spectra acquired at position 3. This glycopeptide was identified as GAWLN<sup>36</sup>R with Man-6 based on Y<sub>1</sub> ion and the monosaccharide composition. Other glycans at Asn36 were estimated as Man-5, -7, and -8 from the existence of

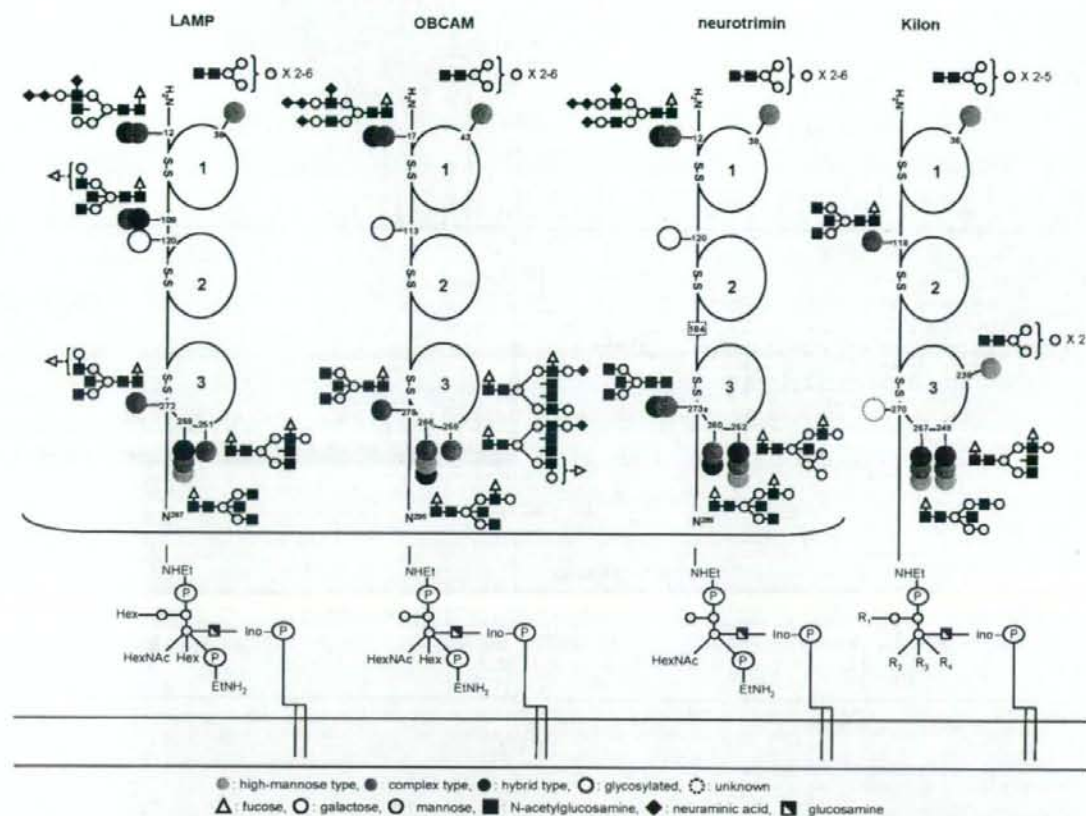


FIGURE 9: Summary of glycosylation of IgLON family proteins.

molecular ions with 81  $m/z$  units intervals in the integrated mass spectrum (peaks n-1–3 in panel A2 of Figure 8) (Table 1N).

(ii) *Asn118*. As shown in panel B1 of Figure 8, the MS/MS spectrum acquired at position 16 contained  $Y_{1\alpha}/\beta$ , which suggested that the peptide portion is  $GTN^{118}VTLTCLATGKPE$ . The linkage of BA-2 was deduced from the monosaccharide composition ( $dHex_1Hex_3HexNAc_3$ ), and  $Y_{1\beta/3\alpha/3\beta}^{2+}$  and  $Y_{1\alpha}$  (inset of panel B1 of Figure 8). Additionally, the linkage of  $Le^{ax}$  or antigen H-modified and/or bisected complex type was suggested by the integrated mass spectrum (peaks o-1–5 in panel B2 of Figure 8 and Table 1O).

(iii) *Asn238*. The MS/MS spectra of glycopeptides that contain Asn238 were picked out from positions 22 [LFNGQQGIIIQN<sup>238</sup>FSTR (panel C1 of Figure 8)], 21 [RLFNGQQGIIIQN<sup>238</sup>FSTR], and 19 [KRLFNGQQGIIIQN<sup>238</sup>FSTR]. These MS/MS spectra and molecular ions appearing in the integrated mass spectrum revealed that the only carbohydrate structure at Asn238 was Man-5 (peak p-1 in panel C2 of Figure 8 and Table 1P). Together with the results of the database search analysis, in which nonglycosylated peptide LFNGQQGIIIQN<sup>238</sup>FSTR was identified, it was suggested that Man-5 was partly attached to Asn238 (Table 1P).

(iv) *Asn249*. Panel D1 of Figure 8 shows the representative MS/MS spectrum of glycopeptide SILTVTN<sup>249</sup>VTQE at position 17. The carbohydrate structure was characterized as a  $Le^{ax}$ -modified and core-fucosylated complex type by

the existence of the  $Le^{ax}$ -related ions and  $Y_{1\alpha}$ . The integrated mass spectrum and alternative LC-MS<sup>n</sup> with the C30 column (scan ranges of  $m/z$  700–2000 and 1000–2000) suggested that Asn249 is glycosylated with  $Le^{ax}$  or antigen H-modified core-fucosylated hybrid- and complex-type oligosaccharides, BA-2, and Man-5 (peaks q-1–11 in panel D2 of Figure 8 and Table 1Q).

(v) *Asn257*. As shown in panel E1 of Figure 8, one of the glycopeptides eluted at position 10 was identified as HFGN<sup>257</sup>YTCVAANK linked by  $dHex_1Hex_5HexNAc_4$  based on  $Y_{1\alpha/1\beta}$  ion in the MS/MS/MS spectra and monoisotopic mass. The carbohydrate structure was characterized as a bisected- and core-fucosylated hybrid-type oligosaccharide based on the presence of  $Y_{1\beta/3\alpha/3\beta}^{2+}$  and  $Y_{1\alpha}$  (inset of panel E2 of Figure 8). Other major glycans were estimated as Man-5,  $Le^{ax}$ -modified complex- and hybrid-type oligosaccharides, and BA-2 (peaks r-1–7 in panel E2 of Figure 8 and Table 1R).

## DISCUSSION

The cell adhesion molecules in the central nervous system play an essential role in the differentiation of neuronal cells and formation of neural circuits. Although glycosylation on the cell adhesion molecules is known to regulate cell–cell interactions (2–4), their carbohydrate structures remain unknown due to the difficulty with respect to their isolation and the limited sample amounts. The glycans in the IgLON family proteins are considered to be implicated in the

formation of neural circuits, including migration of neuronal cells, axonal guidance, and fasciculation. However, the high degree of homology of their amino acid sequences makes it difficult to isolate them from each other and to analyze their carbohydrate structures in detail.

In this study, we performed a site-specific glycosylation analysis of LAMP, OBCAM, neurotrimin, and Kilon simultaneously using SDS-PAGE and LC-MS<sup>n</sup>. Enriched GPI-linked proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE, and four target proteins were extracted from a gel piece together with other contaminating proteins. The protein mixture was digested and analyzed by the C30 and C18-LC-MS<sup>n</sup> runs via MS, data-dependent MS in SIM by the FT ICR-MS, and data-dependent MS/MS and MS/MS/MS. A set of MS data consisting of the mass spectrum, the mass spectrum acquired by the FT ICR-MS in SIM mode, the data-dependently acquired MS/MS, and the MS/MS/MS spectra of a glycopeptide was selected from all MS data on the basis of the existence of the oligosaccharide characteristic oxonium ions in the MS/MS spectrum. The carbohydrate structure and peptide sequence were deduced from the carbohydrate-related ions and peptide-related ions in the product ion spectra. The structural assignment of the glycopeptide was confirmed by the accurate mass acquired on the FT ICR-MS. The b- and y-ions arising from the peptide backbone in the MS/MS/MS spectra were also used for the peptide assignment. The carbohydrate heterogeneity at each glycosylation site was characterized by integrating the mass spectra of the glycopeptides which yielded identical peptide-related ions. We successfully determined the site-specific glycosylation in LAMP, OBCAM, neurotrimin, and Kilon with the exception of Asn120 in LAMP, Asn113 in OBCAM, Asn120 in neurotrimin, and Asn270 in Kilon. We also demonstrated the structure of the GPI moiety using LC-MS<sup>n</sup> equipped with a GCC. A set of data was picked out from all MS data by using GPI-characteristic ions, and the structure of GPI and the linkage site were deduced from the product ions in the MS/MS spectra. Three different structures are commonly found in LAMP, OBCAM, and neurotrimin.

Figure 9 illustrates the site-specific glycosylation in the four proteins. N-Glycosylation sites near the N-terminus in LAMP, OBCAM, and neurotrimin were commonly occupied with biantennary complex-type and hybrid-type oligosaccharides containing disialic acids. Oligosialic acids and disialic acids, which are found in several glycoproteins, including NCAM, are considered to regulate the cell-cell interaction by changing their degree of polymerization (6). Disialic acids at the near N-terminus in LAMP, OBCAM, and neurotrimin might regulate the cell-cell interaction in a manner similar to that of other glycosylated adhesion molecules.

The first domains in IgLON family proteins are commonly glycosylated with Man-5, -6, -7, -8, and -9. The linkage of high-mannose-type oligosaccharides is found in several Ig superfamily proteins, including L1, MAG, and P0 (3). Since Horstkorte et al. have reported that L1 binds to NCAM through oligomannosidic carbohydrates in L1 (34), the high-mannose-type oligosaccharide in IgLON family proteins could interact with certain biological molecules.

The third domains of all IgLON proteins were highly heterogeneous due to a linkage of diverse oligosaccharides, including BA-2, the Le<sup>w</sup> or Le<sup>b</sup> motif, and Man-5. BA-2,

a bisected agalacto-complex type, is known as a brain-specific glycan and is much more abundant in mammalian brains than in other tissues (35, 36). Recently, the Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase  $\beta$ 1 subunit was identified as a GlcNAc-binding protein in the mouse brain (37). The Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase  $\beta$ 1 subunit is a potassium-dependent lectin which binds to GlcNAc-terminating oligosaccharides and is involved in neural cell interactions in a trans-binding fashion. A 74 kDa protein was suggested to be the GlcNAc-terminating glycan carrier protein binding to the Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase  $\beta$ 1 subunit. The linkage of BA-2 to IgLON family proteins implies that these proteins might be the ligand proteins for the Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase  $\beta$ 1 subunit.

Glycosylation in a great number of membrane glycoproteins remains largely unknown. This is mainly because the limited amount of available sample and the low solubility of glycoproteins make their isolation quite difficult. Our strategy, which includes enrichment of the target glycoproteins, separation by SDS-PAGE, and LC-MS<sup>n</sup> of digests of a protein mixture, can be applied to the site-specific glycosylation analysis of various membrane glycoproteins.

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Note

## Glycosylation and ligand-binding activities of rat plasma fibronectin during liver regeneration after partial hepatectomy

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**Abstract**—Fibronectin (FN) is a multifunctional glycoprotein present in the extracellular matrix (ECM) and plasma. We previously reported that the glycosylation and ligand-binding of vitronectin (VN) change markedly after partial hepatectomy (PH). Here we show the changes of FN during liver regeneration. The yields of purified sham-operated (SH-) and PH-FN were higher than that of non-operated (NO)-FN, while binding activities of FNs to ECM ligands were changed only slightly by hepatectomy. The carbohydrate concentration of PH-FN decreased to 66% of that of NO- and SH-FN. By using LC/MS<sup>n</sup>, eight kinds of complex-type N-glycan structures were found to be present in all FNs, and bi- and trisialobiantennary glycans were the major structures. Fucosylation was markedly increased, while O-acetylation of sialic acid was found to be decreased in PH-FN. The alterations in glycosylation and biological activities of FN after PH are different from those of VN, suggesting that these glycoproteins play different biological functions in tissue remodeling.

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**Keywords:** Fibronectin; Glycosylation; Liver regeneration; Vitronectin; Partial hepatectomy

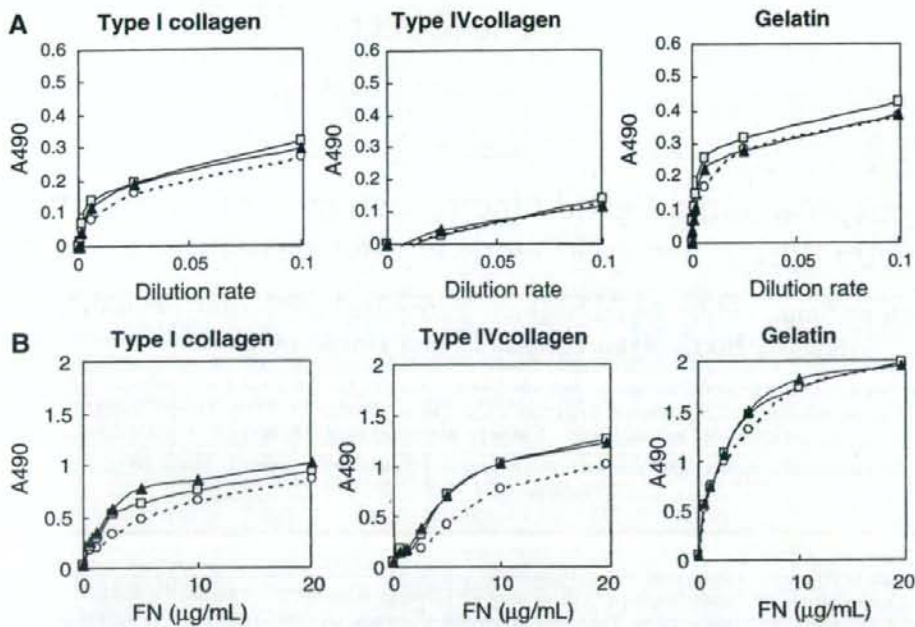
Numerous biological phenomena are mediated by the recognition of specific oligosaccharide signals. Among the functions of protein glycosylation are the stabilizing active conformations, protecting against proteolysis, and affording solubility to proteins.<sup>1</sup> Clarification of the molecular mechanisms by which glycosylation plays these roles would enable the use of glycosylation in molecular engineering for therapeutic purposes.

Partial (70%) hepatectomy is often used to study liver regeneration mechanisms. The remaining liver recovers its former weight within about two weeks in humans or 10 days in the rat.<sup>2</sup> Matrix degradation occurs in the early stage of this process, followed by biosynthesis of the matrix, cell proliferation, and cell differentiation.

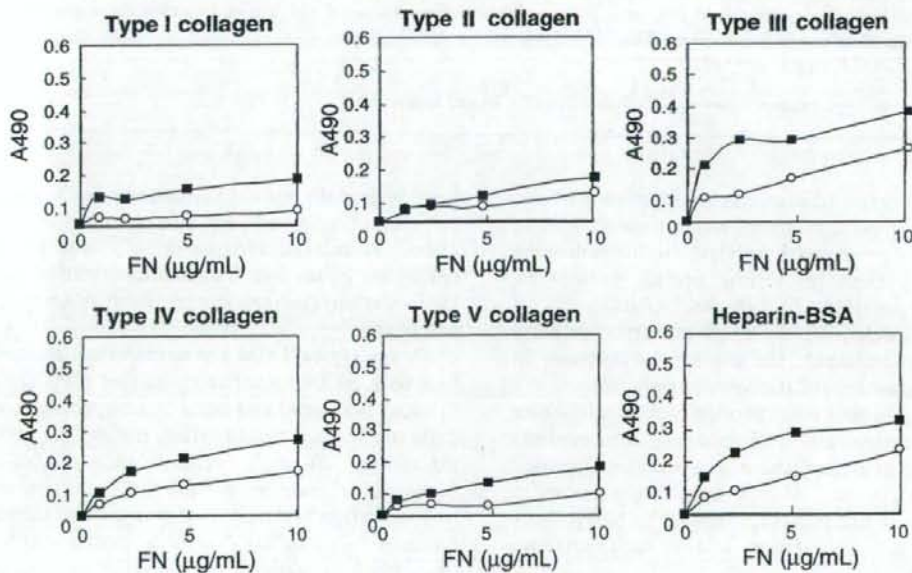
Previously, collagen-binding activities of VN were found to be significantly affected by alterations in N-glycosylation.<sup>3</sup> A marked increase in VN was found to be controlled by the increased multimerization induced by glycosylation changes during liver regeneration after PH of rats.<sup>4</sup>

FN is a typical ECM glycoprotein synthesized by various cells, including hepatocytes, that plays critical roles in many biological and pathological processes including embryogenesis, wound healing, metastasis, fibrosis, and thrombosis.<sup>5</sup> It exists primarily as a soluble dimer in body fluids such as plasma at high concentrations (0.3 mg/mL in humans)<sup>6</sup> that is assembled into insoluble fibrils with a fibrillar polymeric matrix during matrix assembly.<sup>7</sup> In addition to regulation of the biological activities of FN by alternative splicing of the III-type modules or V segment,<sup>8,9</sup> N- and O-glycosylation of human FN affects the interaction with biological ligands including cell receptors,<sup>10</sup> suggesting that glycosylation

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**Figure 2.** Binding activity of FNs in NO, SH, and PH plasma (A) and purified FNs (B) to collagen types I, and IV and gelatin by ELISA. (A) Binding of FNs in plasma. (B) Binding of purified FNs. Symbols used are circle, NO-FN; square, SH-FN; solid triangle, PH-FN.



**Figure 3.** Effect of de-N-glycosylation on the binding activity of FN to collagen types I–V and heparin-BSA by ELISA. Symbols used are circle, control human FN treated without PNGase F; solid square, de-N-glycosylated human FN by PNGase F treatment.

lectin (PNA) after mild acid desialylation of FNs clearly indicated the presence of O-type glycans. The reactivity to *Psathyrella velutina* lectin (PVL) was increased in PH-

FN but disappeared in all FNs after desialylation, indicating that sialylated glycans having more than trisialyl residues<sup>15</sup> increased after PH.

Table 1. Reactivity of various lectins with FNs

	NO-FN	SH-FN	PH-FN	Specificity
Con A	++	++	++	N-Linked biantennary or high Man-type
SNA	++	++	++	Sialyl $\alpha$ 2-6 Gal
MAM	+	+	++	Sialyl $\alpha$ 2-3 Gal
L-PHA	+++	+++	+++	N-Linked tri- or tetraantennary
E-PHA	++	++	+++	N-Linked bi- or triantennary
	(+++)	(++)	(+)	
AAL	++	+	+++	Core or outer fucosylated
LCA	++	++	++	N-Linked, core-fucosylated
PNA	-	-	-	O-Linked, unsialylated Gal $\beta$ 1-3GalNAc
	[++]	[+++]	[+++]	
PVL	++	++	+++	Non-reducing terminal GlcNAc or tri- or tetra sialyl
	[-]	[-]	[-]	
RCA	+++	+++	+++	Non-reducing terminal Gal $\beta$
WGA	++	++	++	GlcNAc

Reactivity of FNs with biotinyl lectins by dot blotting is expressed as staining intensity. +, indicates positive staining; -, negative staining; Reactivity after digestion with hexosaminidase is indicated in parentheses, and reactivity after mild acid desialylation is indicated in brackets. Abbreviations used are: Con A, Concanavalin A; SNA, *Sambucus nigra* agglutinin; MAM, *Maackia amurensis* mitogen; L-PHA, *Phaseolus vulgaris* leucoagglutinin; E-PHA, *Phaseolus vulgaris* erythroagglutinin; AAL, *Aleuria aurantia* lectin; LCA, *Lens culinaris* agglutinin; PNA, peanut agglutinin; PVL, *Psathyrella velutina* lectin; RCA, *Ricinus communis* agglutinin; WGA, wheat germ agglutinin.

As shown in Table 2, the total carbohydrate concentration of PH-FN was markedly decreased compared with those of NO- and SH-FN. The decrease in the ratio of the concentrations of GalNAc to total carbohydrates was notable in PH-FN, indicating that FN is highly O-glycosylated, but that the ratio is lowered in PH-FN. The Fuc concentration increased to about twice that in NO- and SH-FN, in contrast to plasma VN, in which the relative molar ratio of fucose was not changed by PH, although both of these glycoproteins are synthesized in the liver. The isoelectric points of NO-, SH-, and PH-FN, as determined by 2D-PAGE, showed no difference ( $pI = 5.7$ ), suggesting that these FNs are sialylated to the same degree (data not shown).

The N-glycan structures of FN were determined by LC/MS to be the sugar alcohols. Rat plasma FN has seven potential N-glycosylation sites. As shown in Table 3 and Figure 4A, the most frequent N-glycan structures of rat plasma FN were biantennary complex type disialoglycans (BiNA(2)), which are very similar to human plasma FN,<sup>16</sup> and then biantennary trisialoglycans (BiNA(3)). As summarized in Table 3, eight kinds of N-glycan backbones were found. If variations of the

number of O-acetylations of sialic acid residues were included, the varieties of structures would total more than 15 (Fig. 4). The increased ratios of fucosylation in PH-FN were in accordance with the carbohydrate composition results and reactivity with AAL. Because fucosylated glycans are known to participate in embryonic growth, differentiation, cell recognition, cancer formation, and inflammation,<sup>17</sup> the glycans of FN synthesized during liver regeneration may regulate tissue remodeling by increasing fucosylation through a change in binding to other ligands.

The glycans contained various concentrations of O-acetylated Neu5NAc (Fig. 4B). The ratio of non-O-acetylated glycans in each backbone structure was higher in PH-FN than that in NO- and SH-FN. For example, Ac(0) in BiNA(2), a major glycan, was 70% in PH-FN, much higher than those of NO- (52%) and SH-FN (57%). This indicates that the O-acetylation of neuraminic acid is lowered after PH. Sialic acids from total membranes of rat liver have surprisingly high levels (approximately 20%) of O-acetylation at the 7- or 9-position.<sup>18</sup> These modifications modulate many biological interactions,<sup>19–21</sup> such as that the binding of Siglec-1 (sialoadhesin) and Siglec-2 (CD22) to glycoconjugates, which are hindered by 9-O-acetylation.<sup>22,23</sup> In the early stage of liver regeneration, the immune system may be regulated by the interaction of FN glycans with Siglecs via the change in O-acetylation.

These results indicate that the alterations in ligand-binding and glycosylation of FN and VN were significantly different in the early stage of liver regeneration and demonstrate that these glycoproteins play different biological roles in the promotion of tissue remodeling processes. This study provides insight into the regulation of individual ECM glycoproteins by glycosylation.

Table 2. Carbohydrate composition of rat FNs

Carbohydrate	NO-FN	SH-FN	PH-FN
GalNAc	92 (9.3)	61 (5.3)	33 (4.1)
GlcNAc	33 (3.4)	37 (3.2)	21 (2.6)
Man	30 (3.0)	35 (3.0)	24 (3.0)
Fuc	1.9 (0.2)	2.5 (0.2)	4.5 (0.6)
Gal	37 (3.7)	57 (5.0)	44 (5.5)
Total	194	193	127

Values are expressed as mol/mol FN. Relative molar ratios of each carbohydrate are expressed in parentheses by taking the value of Man as 3.0.



Table 3. Oligosaccharide structures of rat FN

Glycan structures	Abbreviation
	BiNA(1)
	BiNA(1)F
	BiNA(2)
	BiNA(2)F
	BiNA(3)
	BiNA(3)F
	TiNA(3)
	TriNA(3)F

Abbreviations used for glycan backbone structures are: BiNA(1), biantennary glycan with one *N*-acetylneuraminic acid; BiNA(1)F, biantennary glycan with one *N*-acetylneuraminic acid and a fucose linked to a penultimate GlcNAc; BiNA(2), biantennary glycan with two *N*-acetylneuraminic acids; BiNA(2)F, biantennary glycan with two *N*-acetylneuraminic acids and a fucose linked to a penultimate GlcNAc; BiNA(3), biantennary glycan with three *N*-acetylneuraminic acids; BiNA(3)F, biantennary glycan with three *N*-acetylneuraminic acids and a fucose linked to a penultimate GlcNAc; TiNA(3), triantennary glycan with three *N*-acetylneuraminic acids; and TriNA(3)F, triantennary glycan with three *N*-acetylneuraminic acids and a fucose linked to a penultimate GlcNAc.

## 1. Experimental

### 1.1. Animals and purification of rat FN from plasma

Male Wistar rats aged 5 weeks (weighing about 110 g; Nihon Clea, Tokyo, Japan) were subjected to two-thirds PH or SH as described previously.<sup>3,24</sup> Plasma was collected from NO rats, or 6, 24, 48, 120, and 168 h after SH and PH and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until use. FN was purified from PH-, SH-, or NO-plasma using gelatin-Sepharose as described previously.<sup>25</sup> The purity of FNs was checked by SDS-PAGE.<sup>10</sup>

### 1.2. Determination of FN concentration in plasma (sandwich ELISA)

Wells of microtiter plates (Immulon 1, Dynatech Laboratories Inc., Chantilly, VA) were coated with rabbit anti-human FN IgGs (50  $\mu\text{L}$  in 0.5% BSA/PBS) at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  overnight. The wells were washed with TBS, and various concentrations of rat plasma or purified FN (50  $\mu\text{L}$ ) were added and incubated for 2 h at room temperature. After washing, the wells were blocked with 0.5% BSA/PBS for 1 h, then bound FN was detected with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-anti-FN IgGs and visualized with *o*-phenylenediamine/0.007%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . After stopping the reaction with 4 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , absorbance was measured at 490 nm using a microplate reader.

### 1.3. Assays of FN binding to immobilized ligands (ELISA)

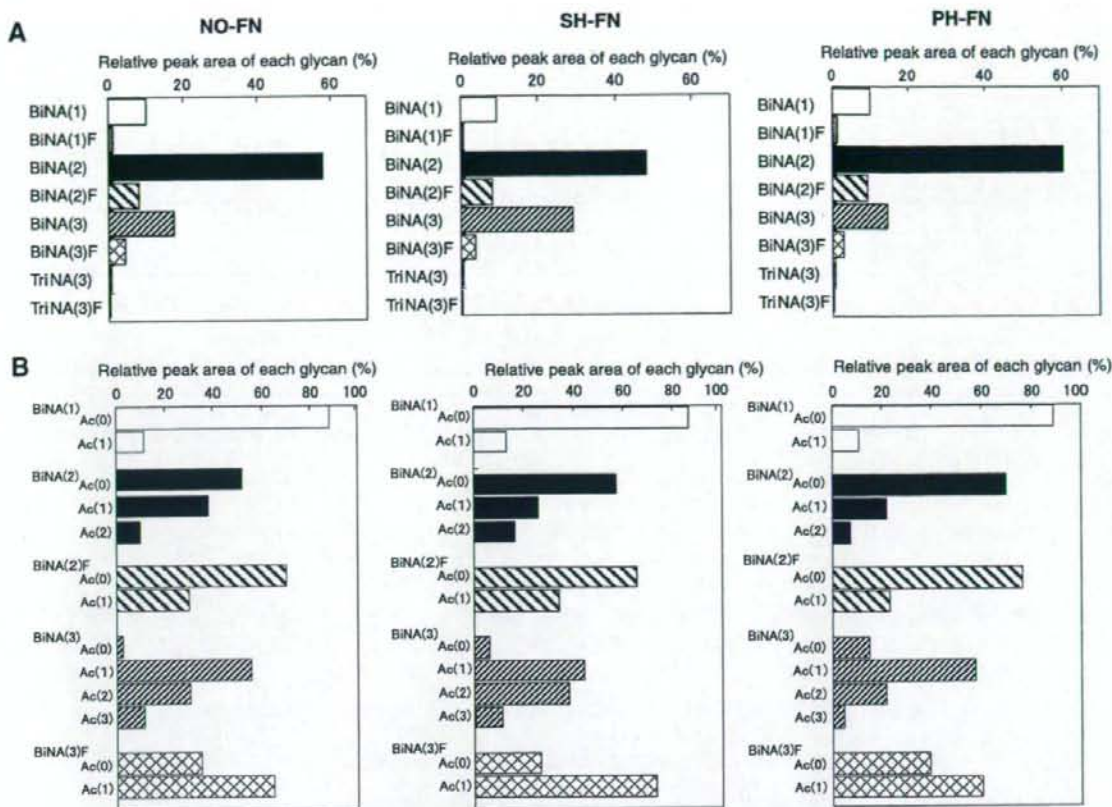
Wells of microtiter plates were coated with gelatin, heparin-BSA, or collagen types I–V (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ , 50  $\mu\text{L}$ ) in 0.1 M carbonate buffer (pH 9.0), and reacted with various concentrations of plasma or FN. The bound FN was detected by ELISA.<sup>26,27</sup>

### 1.4. Carbohydrate analyses of FNs

For lectin reactivity, FNs (0.5  $\mu\text{g}$ ) were dot-blotted onto a PVDF membrane and reacted with HRP-lectins as previously described.<sup>28</sup> The staining intensities were measured by the software program Scion Image. To determine carbohydrate composition, FNs (4.5  $\mu\text{g}$ ) were hydrolyzed, and the carbohydrates were analyzed according to the previously described method.<sup>3</sup>

### 1.5. Analysis of *N*-glycan structures by mass spectrometry (LC/MS<sup>n</sup>)

FN (30  $\mu\text{g}/\text{about}$  200  $\mu\text{L}$ ) was reduced by boiling with 2% of 2-mercaptoethanol for 1 min. *N*-Linked oligosaccharides were released from the FN with *N*-glycosidase F (4.8 U) and reduced with 0.25 M  $\text{NaBH}_4$ . The oligosaccharides were desalted with ENVI-Carb C (Supelco Co., Ltd, Bellefonte, PA, USA) and subjected to LC/MS<sup>n</sup>. The eluents were 2% acetonitrile/5 mM ammonium acetate (pH 9.6) (pump A), and 80% acetonitrile/5 mM ammonium acetate (pH 9.6) (pump B). The oligosaccharides were separated on a Hypercarb column (0.2  $\times$  150 mm, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) with a 5–30% linear gradient of the pump B eluent over 60 min at a flow rate of 2  $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ . The MS spectra were acquired by using an LTQ-FT system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a single mass scan ( $m/z$  7000–2000) on a Fourier transformation ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometer, and data-dependent



**Figure 4.** Ratios of each FN *N*-glycan. (A) The ratio of each glycan structure. (B) Ratios of glycans possessing various numbers of *O*-acetyl groups at the *N*-acetylneuraminic acid residues. The ratio of each glycan (the abbreviations are summarized in Table 3) was calculated from the relative peak area of mass chromatography signals in HPLC by taking the total peak area of each FN (A) or of each glycan (B) as 100%. Of the structures not expressed in (B), BiNA(1)F, TriNA(3), and TriNA(3)F, all without *O*-acetyl group (Ac(0)) were detected.

MS/MS and MS/MS/MS scans in both positive and negative ion modes.

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## Defining Developmental Potency and Cell Lineage Trajectories by Expression Profiling of Differentiating Mouse Embryonic Stem Cells

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### Abstract

Biologists rely on morphology, function and specific markers to define the differentiation status of cells. Transcript profiling has expanded the repertoire of these markers by providing the snapshot of cellular status that reflects the activity of all genes. However, such data have been used only to assess relative similarities and differences of these cells. Here we show that principal component analysis of global gene expression profiles map cells in multidimensional transcript profile space and the positions of differentiating cells progress in a stepwise manner along trajectories starting from undifferentiated embryonic stem (ES) cells located in the apex. We present three 'cell lineage trajectories', which represent the differentiation of ES cells into the first three lineages in mammalian development: primitive endoderm, trophoblast and primitive ectoderm/neural ectoderm. The positions of the cells along these trajectories seem to reflect the developmental potency of cells and can be used as a scale for the potential of cells. Indeed, we show that embryonic germ cells and induced pluripotent cells are mapped near the origin of the trajectories, whereas mouse embryo fibroblast and fibroblast cell lines are mapped near the far end of the trajectories. We suggest that this method can be used as the non-operational semi-quantitative definition of cell differentiation status and developmental potency. Furthermore, the global expression profiles of cell lineages provide a framework for the future study of *in vitro* and *in vivo* cell differentiation. **Keywords:** embryonic stem; embryonic germ; induced pluripotent stem; mouse embryo fibroblast; embryonal carcinoma; retinoic acids; neural stem/progenitor; trophoblast stem; principal component analysis; leukemia inhibitory factor; epigenetic landscape; Waddington; developmental potency; cell lineage trajectory; gene expression profiling; DNA microarray analysis

### 1. Introduction

Developmental biologists have long held a view that development naturally progresses from totipotent fertilized eggs with unlimited differentiation potential to terminally differentiated cells, like a ball rolling from high to low points on a slope as depicted in Waddington's epigenetic landscape.<sup>1</sup> The epigenetic landscape also points to another important aspect

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of development, which is the emergence of different cell lineages during the development; cells in specific developmental lineages are thought to take discrete paths ('chreodes') on the imaginary slope. Analogy of cell's developmental potency to the potential energy is thus widely accepted.<sup>2,3</sup> This analogy is also relevant to the fact that converting differentiated cells into pluripotent cells is difficult. In mammals, nuclear transplantation (cloning)<sup>4,5</sup> had been the only way to achieve such a 'up-hill battle' reprogramming, until the successful production of induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells by infecting MEFs with retroviruses carrying expression cassettes for four genes (*Myc*, *Pou5f1*, *Sox2* and *Klf4*).<sup>6</sup> Notwithstanding its importance, the potency has only been defined operationally by *in vitro* and *in vivo* cell differentiation assays as 'the total of all fates of a cell or tissue region which can be achieved by any environmental manipulation'.<sup>7</sup> Nuclear transplantation experiments, where the success rate gradually decreases according to developmental stages of donor cells, provide yet another operational definition of developmental potential.<sup>8-10</sup> We previously showed a possibility to derive a scale of developmental potency from the global gene expression (transcript) profile data, but the data could not be that quantitative because of the use of a limited number of expressed sequence tags (ESTs) for the analysis.<sup>11</sup> The work also did not address the issue of cell lineage separations.

Mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells<sup>12,13</sup> and embryonic germ (EG) cells<sup>14,15</sup> are prototypical stem cells. These cells can be maintained as undifferentiated state in culture (self-renewal) and have the capacity to differentiate into essentially all the cell types (pluripotency). Therefore, these pluripotent stem cells provide tractable systems to study the developmental potency and cell lineage separation. It has been shown that the manipulation of cell culture condition or a single-gene expression level can differentiate ES cells into relatively homogenous cell population that are similar to the first three lineages in mammalian development:<sup>16</sup> primitive ectoderm/neural ectoderm,<sup>17,18</sup> trophoblast<sup>19,20</sup> and primitive endoderm.<sup>21</sup> In the first system, ES cells are cultured in monolayer in N2B27 medium, which drives undifferentiated ES cells into neural lineages.<sup>17</sup> Previous DNA microarray analysis indicates that this *in vitro* ES cell differentiation process mimics *in vivo* cell differentiation to primitive ectoderm, neural ectoderm and subsequently neurons/glia cells.<sup>18</sup> In the second system, ES cells are engineered to downregulate *Pou5f1* (*Oct3/4*, *Oct4*) expression in a tetracycline-controllable manner (ZHBTc4 cell line<sup>19</sup>). It has been shown that repression of *Pou5f1* induces the differentiation of ES cells into trophoblast lineage.<sup>19,20</sup> In the third system, ES cells that are

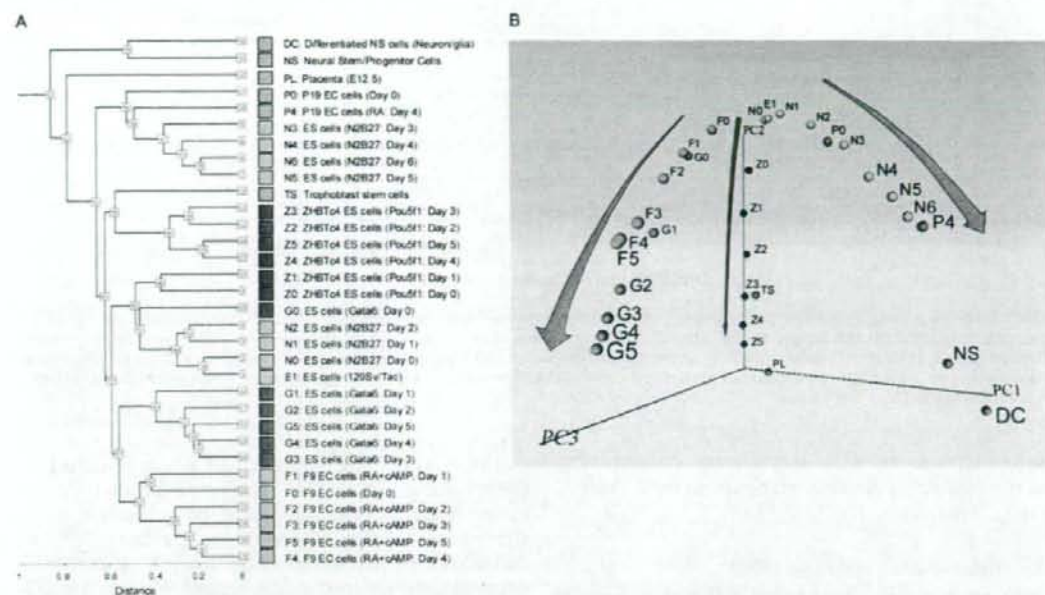
engineered to overexpress *Gata6* in a dexamethasone-inducible manner differentiate into primitive endoderm (extraembryonic endoderm).<sup>21</sup> Although the analyses of these ES cell differentiation systems have revealed the detailed changes of gene expression patterns, it remains to see whether the global comparison among these individual systems provide any further insights into developmental potency and cell lineage separation.

Here we show that principal component analysis (PCA), which can reduce the dimensionality of the gene expression profiles,<sup>22</sup> maps cells in a multidimensional transcript profile space where the positions of differentiating cells progress in a stepwise manner along trajectories starting from undifferentiated ES cells located in the apex to the first three lineages in mammalian development: primitive endoderm, trophoblast and primitive ectoderm/neural ectoderm. Furthermore, EG cells and iPS cells are mapped near the origin of the trajectories, whereas mouse embryo fibroblast (MEF) and fibroblast cell lines are mapped near the far end of the trajectories.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1 Cells and RNAs

For the majority of cells used in this study, we used a stock of Cy3-labeled cRNA samples that were used in our previous studies. The details of each cell types, their culture conditions, RNA extractions and Cy3-labeling can be found in the main text of this manuscript and in earlier publications.<sup>18,20,23-25</sup> Cells cultured for this study and the culture conditions are as follows. G0-G5 cells: Production and characterization of 5G6GR ES cell clones that are engineered to overexpress *Gata6* in a dexamethasone-inducible manner are described previously.<sup>21</sup> ES cells were harvested every 24 h (Day 0-5) during differentiation in the presence of 100 nM dexamethasone (Sigma). F0-F5 cells: Undifferentiated F9 EC cells (ATCC number: CRL-1720) were treated with 100 nM all-trans-retinoic acid (RA, Sigma) and 1 mM dibutyryl cAMP (dbcAMP, Sigma) on adherent condition as reported.<sup>26</sup> Photos of F9 EC cells during differentiation are available as Supplementary Fig. S1 of the published paper.<sup>27</sup> F9 cells were harvested every 24 h (Day 0-5) during the differentiation. Both iPS-Fbxo15<sup>6</sup> and iPS-Nanog<sup>28</sup> were cultured on the STO feeder cells as described previously. To remove the feeder cells, the iPS cells were passaged twice on the gelatin-coated culture dish and harvested for RNA extraction. NIH3T3, STO, MEF\_BL6 and MEF\_DR4 were cultured under the standard condition and harvested for RNA extraction. Total RNAs isolated for this



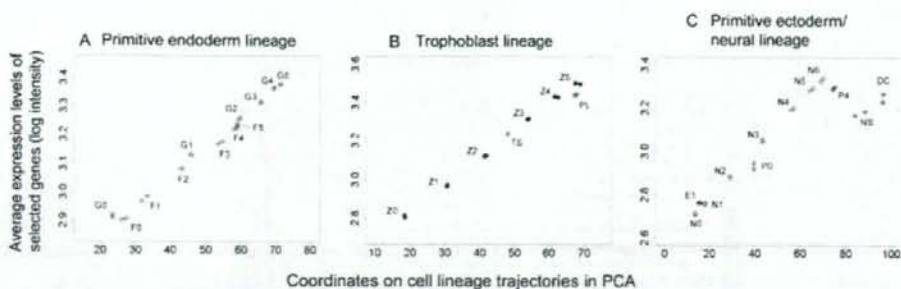
**Figure 1.** Global gene expression profiles of 32 different cell types. Names of the cells and their abbreviated forms are shown. Color coding corresponds with the colors in all other figures. DNA microarray analysis was carried out in duplicate: for each cell type, two independent cell cultures were prepared and used for separate DNA microarray analysis. Reproducibility between two microarray data for each cell type was very high as shown by the Pearson correlation coefficient (mean 0.9927; SD 0.0043; range 0.9788–0.9966). The average of two samples is shown here. **(A)** Hierarchical clustering analysis. **(B)** Principal component analysis (PCA). Individual cell types are mapped in the 3D space according to the first three principal components (PC1, PC2 and PC3). A movie file is available as Supplementary Video S1.

study were labeled with Cy3-dye and used for the DNA microarray hybridization.

## 2.2 Microarray data analysis

DNA microarray analysis was carried out as described previously,<sup>18</sup> except for the addition of ES cell total RNAs to the Universal Mouse Reference RNA (UMRR) and the use of a 4 × 44K microarray platform. In our previous DNA microarray studies,<sup>23</sup> we used the Universal Mouse Reference RNA (UMRR: Stratagene), which is a mixture of total RNAs from 11 different mouse cell lines. However, to increase the representation of genes expressed in ES cells for the current study, we mixed the UMRR with total RNAs from ES cells (MC1, derived from 129S6/SvEvTac strain) cultured in the undifferentiated condition with LIF at 2:1 ratio. These UMRR plus ES RNAs were labeled with Cy5-dye, mixed with Cy3-labeled samples and used for DNA microarray hybridization. To maximize the uniformity of the microarray data, all the samples, including the ones analyzed by DNA microarray previously, were hybridized to the same platform (the NIA Mouse 44K Microarray

v3.0<sup>23</sup> manufactured by Agilent Technologies #015 087). The intensity of each gene feature per array was extracted from scanned microarray images using Feature Extraction 9.5.1.1 software (Agilent Technologies) as described previously.<sup>23</sup> Hierarchical clustering analysis and PCA (see Section 2.3) were carried out using an application developed in-house to perform ANOVA and other analyses (NIA Array Analysis software; <http://lgsun.grc.nih.gov/ANOVA/>).<sup>22</sup> Three-dimensional PCA figures were generated using the virtual reality modeling language (VRML) function of the NIA Array Analysis software<sup>22</sup> and visualized by Cortona Vrml client (<http://www.parallelgraphics.com/products/cortona/>). To produce plots and lists of genes for Fig. 2, we used the R-statistical package<sup>29</sup> and only non-redundant set of oligonucleotide probes (a total of 25 164 probes/genes). Of these, 21 890 genes were significant in ANOVA with FDR < 0.05 and used for further analyses. Genes correlated to each cell lineage trajectory were identified based on the correlation of >0.90. All the DNA microarray data have been deposited in the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/>) and are accessible



**Figure 2.** Average expression levels of selected genes correlate well with the locations of each cell type in PCA coordinates. See Fig. 1A for the abbreviated names of the cells. Each point shows DNA microarray data for each sample; therefore, each cell type is represented by two points. (A) Primitive endoderm lineage, represented by the list of 1738 genes (Supplementary Table S1). (B) Trophoblast lineage, represented by the list of 2311 genes (Supplementary Table S2). (C) Primitive ectoderm/neural lineage, represented by the list of 2463 genes (Supplementary Table S3).

through GEO Series accession number (GSE11 523) and the NIA Array Analysis software website (<http://lgsun.grc.nia.nih.gov/ANOVA/>).<sup>22</sup>

### 2.3 Principal component analysis

Principal component analysis is a statistical method to find major patterns in data variation, which is increasingly used for the analysis of gene expression microarray data.<sup>22,30–32</sup> Each principal component (PC) is a linear combination of log-transformed expression values of all genes, and all components are orthogonal, i.e. mutually independent. The first few PCs, which explain most of the observed variance, are the most important; the remaining PCs often represent random fluctuations. Therefore, by plotting data against the first two or three PCs, one can reduce the dimensionality of the data without losing much of information. Contribution of genes to each PC (which may be positive or negative) is determined by singular value decomposition algorithm applied to the covariance matrix. Knowing these contributions, the entire gene expression profile of a given cell type can be represented by a single point in a two- or three-dimensional space. If two cell types are represented by closely located points in the PCA plot, global gene expression profiles of these cells are very similar. In contrast, if corresponding points in the PCA plot are far apart, their global expression profiles are very different. The detailed discussion of PCA plots and interpretation of DNA microarray data can be found in the previous publication.<sup>32</sup>

### 3. Results and discussion

To obtain accurate, comprehensive and comparable expression profiles, we carried out all the DNA microarray analyses within a few weeks using the same

platform containing essentially all genes encoded on the mouse genome.<sup>23</sup> Although two ES cell differentiation systems have been profiled previously using the earlier version of the array platform,<sup>18,20</sup> we carried out the DNA microarray analysis again for the data consistency. In the first system, ES cells are cultured in monolayer in N2B27 medium for 6 days, which drives undifferentiated ES cells into neural lineages.<sup>17</sup> RNAs were isolated and analyzed every day during the induction and RNAs (N0–N6; Fig. 1A). Previous DNA microarray analysis has been carried out using the array platform containing a limited number of genes, but indicates that this *in vitro* ES cell differentiation process mimics *in vivo* cell differentiation to primitive ectoderm, neural ectoderm and, subsequently, neurons/glia cells.<sup>18</sup> In the second system, ES cells that are engineered to downregulate *Pou5f1* (*Oct3/4*, *Oct4*) expression in a tetracycline-controllable manner (ZHBTc4 cell line) differentiate into trophoblast lineage for 5 days.<sup>19,20</sup> RNAs were isolated and analyzed every day during the induction (Z0–Z5 in Fig. 1A). To include the first three lineages of mammalian development,<sup>16</sup> we added a third system: ES cells that are engineered to overexpress *Gata6* in a dexamethasone-inducible manner differentiate into primitive endoderm (extra-embryonic endoderm) for 5 days<sup>21</sup> (G0–G5 in Fig. 1A). We also carried out microarray analysis of a fourth system: F9 embryonal carcinoma (EC) cells differentiate into parietal endoderm (EC) cells differentiate into parietal endoderm—one of the extra-embryonic endoderm lineages for 5 days<sup>26,27</sup> (F0–F5 in Fig. 1A). For comparison, we also analyzed P19 EC cells before (P0) and after 4 days of RA induction (P4); neural stem/progenitor (NS) cells derived from adult mouse brain and their differentiated cells<sup>21</sup> (DC); and trophoblast stem (TS) cells<sup>26</sup> and E12.5 placenta (PL).<sup>27</sup> Altogether we obtained the DNA microarray data of 32 different cell types in duplicate.

We first carried out the hierarchical clustering analysis of these microarray data. Although the hierarchical clustering analysis grouped cells mostly into each differentiation system (Fig. 1A), it showed only the degree of similarity between different cell types and did not provide any insights into the relationship between the different cell lineages. To further analyze the data, we employed PCA, which can reduce the dimensionality of the gene expression profiles and map individual cells in a multidimensional space according to their global gene expression patterns (see Section 2.3 for the explanation of PCA). We first mapped the cells in the 3D transcript profile space (PC1, PC2 and PC3) (Fig. 1B). PCA of all these microarray data uncovered three major paths of differentiation from undifferentiated ES cells in 3D transcript profile space (Fig. 1B; Supplementary Video S1). Each path showed progressive changes in global expression patterns toward specific cell lineages: trophoblast (Z0–Z5), extra-embryonic endoderm (G0–G5; F0–F5) and neural tissues (N0–N6). We call these paths 'cell lineage trajectories',<sup>32</sup> because the cell differentiation process can be visualized as a trajectory in the multidimensional transcript profile space.

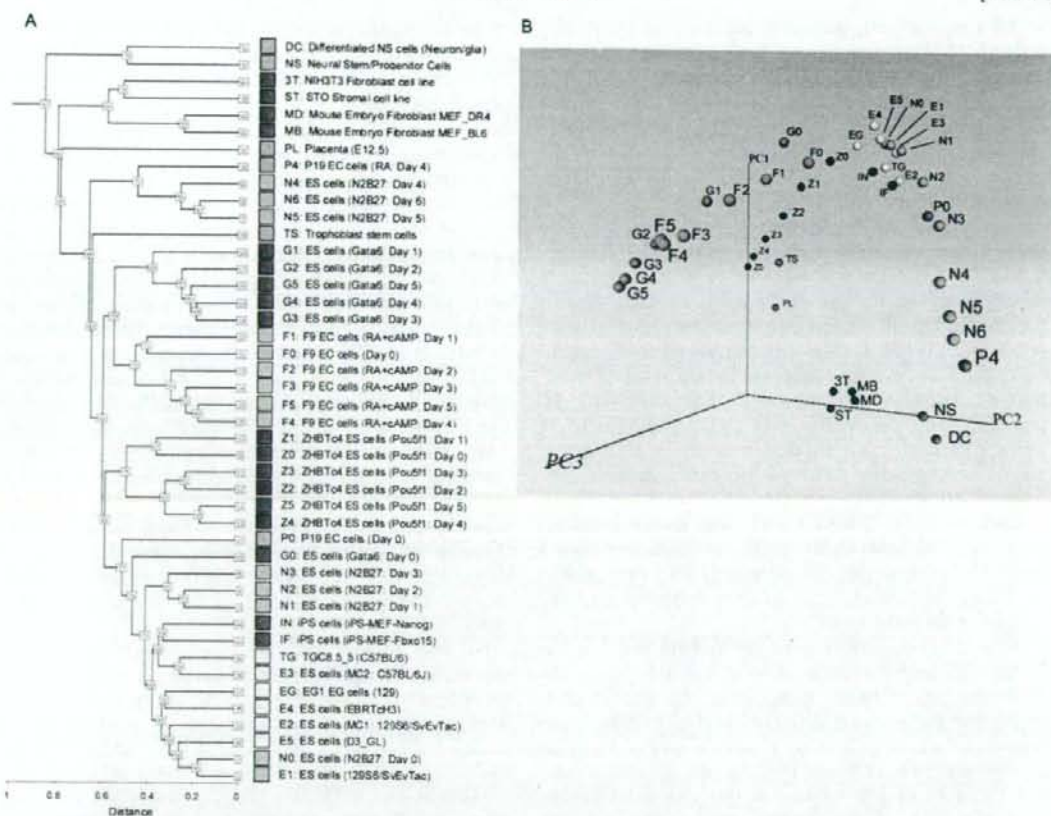
What do these trajectories represent? Because the transcript profile space is constructed from the expression patterns of genes, the changes in gene expression patterns are reflected in the changes in the position of a cell. To find gene expression changes that are correlated with these trajectories, we first drew a line for each cell lineage so that the squared distances from the cells of the lineage were minimized. The locations of other cell types, such as TS and NS, were projected onto the closest lineage trajectory (Fig. 1B). The x-axis of Fig. 2 shows the coordinates of these cell types on each trajectory (Fig. 2A–C). We then searched for sets of genes that were positively correlated with each trajectory line. We identified 1738 genes for the primitive endoderm lineage (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Table S1), 2311 genes for the trophoblast lineage (Fig. 2B; Supplementary Table S2) and 2463 genes for the primitive ectoderm/neural lineage (Fig. 2C; Supplementary Table S3) with a correlation of >0.90. The expression levels of these genes gradually increased as ES cells differentiated into each lineage (see Supplementary data for examples of gene expression changes). The average expression levels of these genes (y-axis in Fig. 2: cell lineage index<sup>32</sup>) can thus be used as surrogates for the coordinates of cell's positions on each trajectory (x-axis in Fig. 2). This lineage trajectory, therefore, not only defines a path to the fates of individual cell lineages, but also provides a scale for the extent of commitment/differentiation.

This notion was further supported by examining the locations of cells cultured and profiled independently

in the transcript profile space: P19 EC cells before (P0) and after 4 days of RA induction (P4); NS cells derived from adult mouse brain and their differentiated cells<sup>18</sup> (DC); and TS cells<sup>25,33</sup> and E12.5 PL.<sup>25</sup> These cells were mapped onto the transcript profile space based on their global gene expression profiles. As we expected, we found that P0, P4, NS and DC mapped near the primitive ectoderm/neural lineage trajectory (Figs 1B and 2C). Interestingly, the position of P0 was consistent with the notion that in contrast to ES cells, undifferentiated P19 EC cells are more committed and equivalent to primitive ectoderm cells.<sup>18</sup> The position of P4 was also consistent with the notion that P19 EC cells differentiate into neuron-like cells after the induction with RA.<sup>34</sup> Consistent with their known differentiation status, TS and PL mapped near the trophoblast lineage trajectory (Figs 1B and 2B). Two extra-embryonic endoderm lineages, which were represented by F9 EC cell differentiation<sup>26,35</sup> (F0–F5) and ES cells driven by Gata6<sup>21</sup> (G0–G5), also showed lineage trajectories close to each other (Figs 1B and 2A). Taken together, these data support the notion that cell differentiation can be visualized as cell lineage trajectories in 3D transcript profile space.

We also noticed that these cell lineage trajectories represent the gradual loss of developmental potency or potential of cells (Fig. 1B). To examine this point further, we carried out microarray analysis of 12 additional cell types, including three undifferentiated ES cell lines (MC1, derived from 129S6/SvEvTac; MC2, derived from C57BL/6J; D3\_GL; and EBRTcH3) and two undifferentiated EG cell lines [TGC8.5\_5, derived from the primordial germ cell (PGC) of E8.5 C57BL/6J embryo; and EG1, derived from the PGC of E9 129 embryo].<sup>24</sup> We also analyzed the expression profiles of MEF cells, stromal cells (STO) and a fibroblast cell line (NIH3T3). We then analyzed iPS cells, which have been established by infecting MEFs with retroviruses carrying expression cassettes for four genes (*Myc*, *Pou5f1*, *Sox2* and *Klf4*).<sup>6,28</sup> We used two different iPS lines: one was established by using Fbxo15 promoter-driven GFP as an indicator of pluripotency<sup>6</sup> and the other was established by using Nanog promoter-GFP as an indicator of pluripotency.<sup>28</sup>

Hierarchical clustering analysis of the microarray data of all 44 cell types (original 32 cell types and 12 additional cell types; see Supplementary data for detail) showed that undifferentiated ES and EG cells were clustered together with iPS cells, whereas NIH3T3 fibroblast cells, STO stromal cells and MEF cells were clustered together (Fig. 3A). However, it was difficult to assess the overall relationship among all the cell types analyzed here. We, therefore, analyzed the microarray data of all 44 cell types by PCA



**Figure 3.** Global gene expression profiles of 44 different cell types. In addition to 32 cell types in the Fig. 1, 12 cell types are added for the analysis. Names of the cells and their abbreviated forms are shown. Color coding of cells are consistent throughout the paper. Average of two samples is shown. **(A)** Hierarchical clustering analysis. **(B)** Principal component analysis (PCA). Individual cell types are mapped in the 3D space according to the first three principal components (PC1, PC2 and PC3). A movie file is available Supplementary Video S2.

(Fig. 3B; Supplementary Video S2). Interestingly, an overall structure of the transcript profile space remained essentially the same as that obtained by 32 cell types (Fig. 1B). The majority of the cells were aligned along the three major cell lineage trajectories, except for fibroblast and stromal cells (NIH3T3, STO and MEFs). The fact that these cells did not fall into any of the three cell lineage trajectories is consistent with their mesodermal origin. Their locations near the bottom of all three trajectory lines also support the general trend that these cell lineage trajectories represent the gradual loss of developmental potency of cells (Fig. 1B). Indeed, undifferentiated ES and EG cells mapped near the apex of the trajectory figures, as expected (Fig. 3B). Similarly, the iPS cells mapped near the apex of the trajectories. It has been demonstrated that these iPS cells have the complete phenotype of pluripotent cells, including germline

competency in the case of iPS-Nanog.<sup>28</sup> Considering that the iPS cells are derived from MEFs, changing the locations of cells from positions with low developmental potency (MEFs) to those with high developmental potency (iPSs) strongly supports our notion that PCA analysis can visualize and predict the developmental potency of cells.

The work presented here provides a concept and a method to visualize and quantitate the differentiation status and developmental potency of cells. The PCA figures (Figs 1B and 3B) show remarkable similarity to the conceptual picture of Waddington's epigenetic landscape, where cell lineage trajectories represent creodes.<sup>1</sup> Such a concept has been taken for granted by embryologists for over a century, but it now seems to be substantiated by the global gene expression patterns. The locations of cells in the multi-dimensional transcript profile space can be used to



identify cells of unknown origin, determine the differentiation status of cells and to assess the developmental potency of cells, possibly without going through experimental manipulation and testing of the cells. The present work also provides a framework for the future study of ES cell differentiation by visualizing the direction to which cells are going to differentiate.

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**Supplementary Data:** Supplementary data are available online at [www.dnaresearch.oxfordjournals.org](http://www.dnaresearch.oxfordjournals.org).

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## P2Y<sub>6</sub> receptor-G $\alpha_{12/13}$ signalling in cardiomyocytes triggers pressure overload-induced cardiac fibrosis

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Cardiac fibrosis, characterized by excessive deposition of extracellular matrix proteins, is one of the causes of heart failure, and it contributes to the impairment of cardiac function. Fibrosis of various tissues, including the heart, is believed to be regulated by the signalling pathway of angiotensin II (Ang II) and transforming growth factor (TGF)- $\beta$ . Transgenic expression of inhibitory polypeptides of the heterotrimeric G12 family G protein (G $\alpha_{12/13}$ ) in cardiomyocytes suppressed pressure overload-induced fibrosis without affecting hypertrophy. The expression of fibrogenic genes (TGF- $\beta$ , connective tissue growth factor, and periostin) and Ang-converting enzyme (ACE) was suppressed by the functional inhibition of G $\alpha_{12/13}$ . The expression of these fibrogenic genes through G $\alpha_{12/13}$  by mechanical stretch was initiated by ATP and UDP released from cardiac myocytes through pannexin hemichannels. Inhibition of G-protein-coupled P2Y<sub>6</sub> receptors suppressed the expression of ACE, fibrogenic genes, and cardiac fibrosis. These results indicate that activation of G $\alpha_{12/13}$  in cardiomyocytes by the extracellular nucleotides-stimulated P2Y<sub>6</sub> receptor triggers fibrosis in pressure overload-induced cardiac fibrosis, which works as an upstream mediator of the signalling pathway between Ang II and TGF- $\beta$ .

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### Introduction

Heart failure is the final cardiac stage that is observed in nearly all forms of cardiovascular diseases. Structural remodelling of the heart, including myocardial hypertrophy and

fibrosis, is a key determinant for the clinical outcome of heart failure (Cohn *et al.*, 2000; Berk *et al.*, 2007). A variety of evidence indicates that the initial phase in the development of myocardial hypertrophy involves neurohumoral factors, such as endothelin (ET)-1, angiotensin (Ang) II and norepinephrine, and their receptors being coupled to G proteins of the G $\alpha_q$ , G $\alpha_{12}$ , and G $\alpha_{13}$  families (Sadoshima and Izumo, 1997; Gohla *et al.*, 2000; Arai *et al.*, 2003). These agonists induce hypertrophic gene expression in cardiomyocytes through the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent pathway (Onohara *et al.*, 2006). Previous studies using transgenic or conditional knockout mice clearly revealed that the G $\alpha_q$  family protein predominantly regulates the pathogenesis of hypertrophy (Adams *et al.*, 1998; Wettschureck *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, it is well recognized that the G $\alpha_q$ -mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> signalling pathway has an important function in the development of cardiac hypertrophy.

Cardiac fibrosis is characterized by excessive deposition of extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins, such as collagen type I and type III (Brown *et al.*, 2005). A variety of growth factors, such as Ang II, ET-1, transforming growth factor (TGF)- $\beta$ , connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) and periostin, have been reported to promote fibrotic responses of the heart (Katsuragi *et al.*, 2004; Zhang *et al.*, 2006; Berk *et al.*, 2007). Although cardiac fibrosis is accompanied by maladaptive cardiac hypertrophy that eventually results in heart failure, the mechanism of the induction of cardiac fibrosis and its pathophysiological function have yet to be understood.

The relationship between Ang II and TGF- $\beta$  for induction of fibrosis is a well-established one (Rosenkranz, 2004; Berk *et al.*, 2007). In many types of cells, it has been reported that Ang II stimulation regulates TGF- $\beta$  expression and activation. TGF- $\beta$  mediates some Ang II-induced responses, and the blockade of Ang II-mediated signalling partially suppresses TGF- $\beta$ -induced fibrosis (Xu *et al.*, 2008). Other signalling molecules for mediating fibrosis are Rho and Rho-associated kinase (ROCK), which are known as downstream effectors of Ang II (Nishida *et al.*, 2005). It has been reported that targeted deletion of ROCK suppressed the development of cardiac fibrosis induced by pathological hypertension (Rikitake *et al.*, 2005; Zhang *et al.*, 2006). ROCK is a downstream mediator of Rho, a small GTP-binding protein (Amano *et al.*, 2000), and Rho is reported to exert an effect as one of the downstream mediators of G $\alpha_{12/13}$  (Kozasa *et al.*, 1998). We have reported previously that  $\alpha$  subunits of the G $\alpha_{12}$  family protein (G $\alpha_{12}$  and G $\alpha_{13}$ ; G $\alpha_{12/13}$ ) participate in Ang II-, ET-1-, and  $\alpha_1$ -adrenergic receptor agonist-induced cardiomyocyte hypertrophy (Maruyama *et al.*, 2002; Arai *et al.*, 2003; Nishida *et al.*, 2005). However, the pathophysiological function of G $\alpha_{12/13}$  in cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis *in vivo* is still unknown.

G $\alpha_{12}$  and G $\alpha_{13}$  appear to be expressed ubiquitously (Simon *et al.*, 1991), and a lack of G $\alpha_{13}$  in mice results in embryonic lethality because of the defective organization of the vascular system (Offermanns *et al.*, 1997). Therefore, we generated mice with a cardiomyocyte-specific overexpression of G $\alpha_{12/13}$ -specific inhibitory polypeptide, which mimics the tissue-

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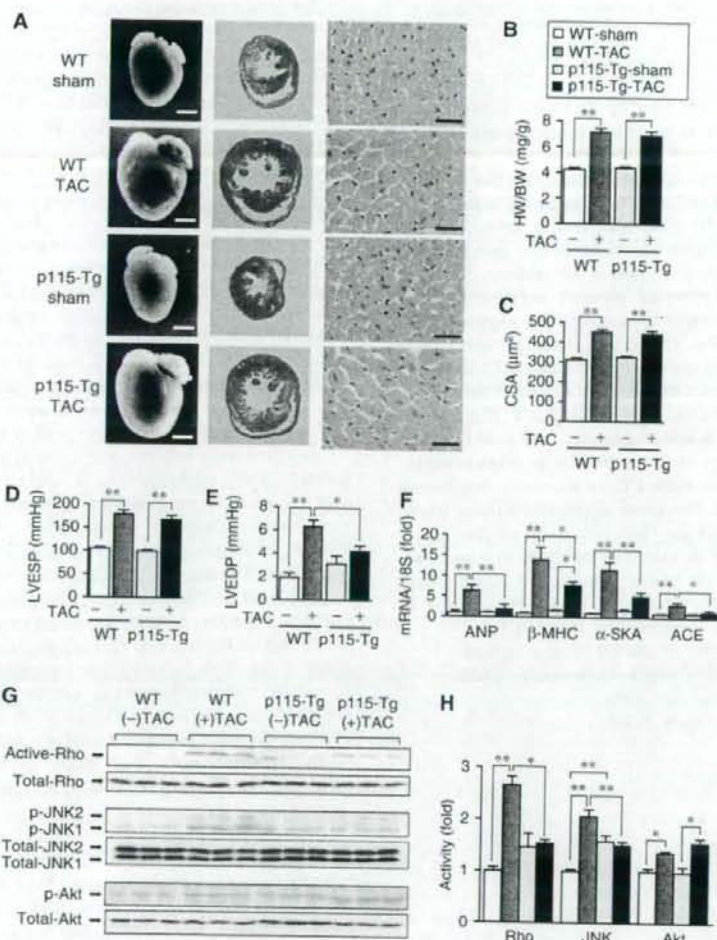
specific knockout of G $\alpha_{12/13}$ . Using these mice, we tested the hypothesis that G $\alpha_{12/13}$  signalling contributes to pressure overload-induced cardiac hypertrophy and associated events *in vivo*.

## Results

### Cardiac-specific expression of p115-RGS attenuates pressure overload-induced cardiac fibrosis

Previous studies using transgenic or conditional knockout mice clearly revealed that G $\alpha_q$  predominantly regulates the development of hypertrophy (Adams et al, 1998; Wettschurek et al, 2001). In addition, we reported previously that G $\alpha_{12/13}$  also have an important function in agonist-

induced hypertrophic responses of cardiomyocytes using a G $\alpha_{12/13}$ -specific inhibitor, a regulator of the G protein signalling domain of p115RhoGEF (p115-RGS) (Maruyama et al, 2002; Arai et al, 2003; Nishida et al, 2005). We generated mice with a cardiomyocyte-specific overexpression of p115-RGS protein to test the hypothesis that G $\alpha_{12/13}$  signalling contributes to pressure overload-induced cardiac hypertrophy *in vivo* (Supplementary Figure 1A–C). Ang II stimulation caused Rho activation in the hearts of wild-type (WT) mice, and the activation was completely suppressed in transgenic (p115-Tg) mice (Supplementary Figure 1D). This result confirmed that receptor-stimulated activation of G $\alpha_{12/13}$  signalling is inhibited in the p115-Tg heart. Pressure overload was induced by surgical transverse aortic constriction (TAC)



**Figure 1** p115-RGS suppresses pressure overload-induced cardiac dysfunction but not hypertrophy. (A–F) TAC-induced increase in the size of the heart and cardiomyocytes (A–C), left ventricular (LV) pressure (D, E), and the expression of hypertrophic genes (F) in WT and p115-Tg mice. (A) Gross appearance of the hearts and H&E-stained mid-transverse sections of hearts isolated from WT and p115-Tg mice 6 weeks after sham or TAC surgery. Left (white) scale bar, 2 mm; right (black) scale bar, 30  $\mu\text{m}$ . (B and C) Heart weight (HW) to body weight (BW) ratios (B) and cross-sectional areas (CSA) of cardiomyocytes (C). (D and E) LV pressure. LVESP, LV end-systolic pressure; LVEDP, LV end-diastolic pressure. (F) Expression of ANP,  $\beta$ -MHC,  $\alpha$ -SKA, and ACE mRNAs. (G, H) Activation of Rho, JNK, and Akt induced by 1 week of TAC in WT and p115-Tg hearts. Error bars indicate s.e.m.;  $n = 3$ –5 (C),  $n = 17$ –23 (B, D, E),  $n = 3$  (F, H). Representative result of hearts from sham ( $n = 3$ ) and TAC surgery ( $n = 5$ ) was shown (A). \* indicates  $P < 0.05$  and \*\* indicates  $P < 0.01$ .