

TGF- β LAP Degradation Products, a Novel Biomarker and Promising Therapeutic Target for Liver Fibrogenesis

Mitsuko Hara, Tomokazu Matsuura, and Soichi Kojima

Abstract While there are many blood and/or tissue biomarkers as well as algorithms clinically used to assess hepatic fibrosis, a good biomarker and therapeutic target of hepatic fibrogenesis, which reflects prefibrotic changes, has not been established. The most fibrogenic cytokine, transforming growth factor (TGF)- β , is produced as a latent complex, in which TGF- β is trapped by its propeptide. On the surface of activated hepatic stellate cells, plasma kallikrein activates TGF- β by cleaving latency-associated protein (LAP) between the R⁵⁸ and L⁵⁹ residues, releasing active TGF- β from the complex. We made specific antibodies that recognize neo-C-terminal (R⁵⁸) and N-terminal (L⁵⁹) ends of LAP degradation products (LAP-DPs) and found that LAP-DPs may serve as a novel surrogate marker of TGF- β activation—namely, generation of active TGF- β —and is thus a therapeutic marker for TGF- β -mediated liver fibrogenesis in patients and can also be used to monitor effects of anti-fibrogenic factors or compounds for discovery of a novel anti-fibrosis drug.

Keywords Biomarkers • Hepatic fibrogenesis • TGF- β • LAP • Latent TGF- β activation • Hepatic stellate cells • Plasma kallikrein • LAP-DP • Drug discovery • Anti-fibrosis drug

Abbreviations

ECM	Extracellular matrix
HSCs	Hepatic stellate cells
α SMA	α smooth muscle actin
TGF- β 1	Transforming growth factor- β 1

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LAP	Latency associated protein
SLC	Small latent complex
LTBP	Latent TGF- β binding protein
LLC	Large latent complex
PLN	Plasmin
PLK	Plasma kallikrein
LAP-DP	LAP degradation products
LAP β 1	TGF- β 1 LAP
BDL	Bile duct ligation
HBV	Hepatitis B virus
HCV	Hepatitis C virus
NASH	Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis

Introduction of Liver Fibrogenesis

Hepatic fibrosis is the excessive accumulation of extracellular matrices (ECM; mainly collagen) in the perisinusoidal space (or space of Disse) in the liver, and an important pathological step developing from chronic hepatitis to liver cirrhosis irrespective of etiologies [1], whereas hepatic fibrogenesis means fibrosis progression or an ongoing reaction producing excessive ECM, sometimes nonsymptomatic, in the liver [2]. While there are many blood and/or tissue biomarkers as well as algorithms clinically used to assess hepatic fibrosis [3–7], the gold standard is still scoring of stained collagen fibers in the biopsy sample [3]. However, biopsy is invasive and risky. Imaging techniques including ultrasound elastography have been developed [3]. In contrast, a good biomarker and therapeutic target of hepatic fibrogenesis, which reflects prefibrotic changes, has not been established [2,3]. Therefore, development of a noninvasive biomarker for hepatic fibrogenesis, which will lead not only to establishment of a novel diagnosis useful to prevent liver fibrosis/cirrhosis, but also to acceleration of drug discovery and development against liver fibrosis, is in high demand [3].

Activation of Hepatic Stellate Cells

Hepatic stellate cells (HSCs) play a central role in the pathogenesis of hepatic fibrosis by virtue of their ability to undergo a process termed “activation” [1,2]. During this process, HSCs transform into myofibroblast-like cells accompanying several key phenotypic changes, which collectively increase extracellular matrix accumulation [1–3]. These include (1) cellular proliferation caused by upregulation of mitogenic cytokines and their receptors; (2) morphologic changes with loss of stored

vitamin A droplets; (3) contractility caused by increased α smooth muscle actin (α SMA), which may constrict sinusoidal blood flow; and (4) fibrogenesis mainly caused by increased synthesis and release of collagen.

TGF-β and Its Activation Reaction

Among many cytokines and growth factors related to fibrogenesis, the most potent—and therefore the most “fibrogenic”—cytokine is the 25 kD homodimeric cytokine, transforming growth factor (TGF)-β [8]. The TGF-β family is composed of three subtypes (TGF-β1, TGF-β2, and TGF-β3), with biological properties that are nearly identical [8]. TGF-β is produced as an inactive latent complex, in which active TGF-β is trapped by its propeptide, latency-associated protein (LAP), and to exert its biological activities, it must be released from the complex [9]. This reaction is called activation of TGF-β (Fig. 1). TGF-β1 is produced as a 390-amino-acid

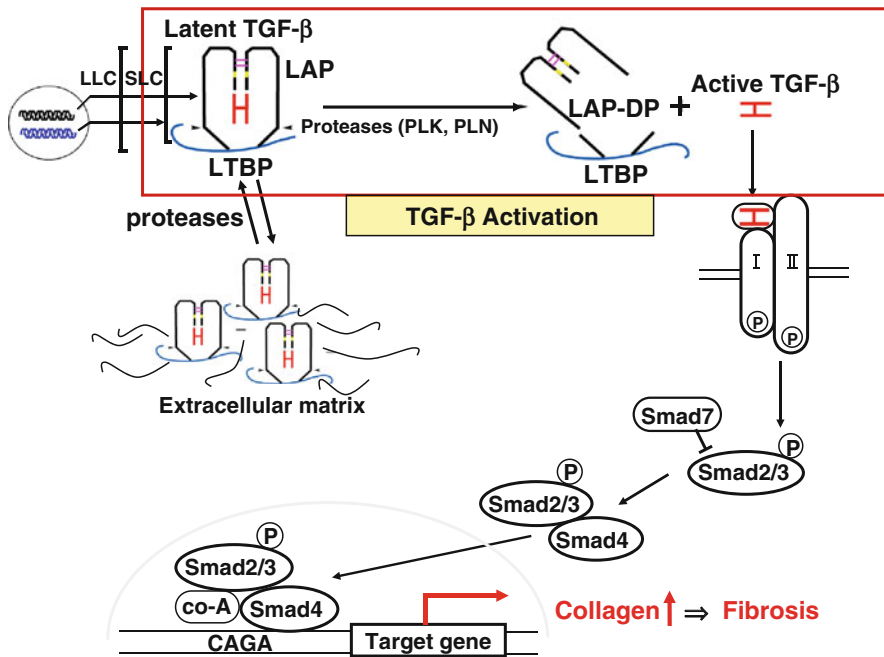


Fig. 1 TGF-β activation and signaling pathway. TGF-β is produced as a latent complex (LLC) composed of active TGF-β trapped by its propeptide LAP (SLC) and a matrix protein LTBP. Upon cleavage of LAP by proteases such as PLK, active TGF-β is released from the complex (this reaction is called TGF-β activation) and exerts fibrogenic activity (stimulation of collagen synthesis) via binding to its receptors and Smad signaling

precursor protein consisting of a signal peptide of 29 amino acids, an N-terminal LAP, and a C-terminal region that becomes the active TGF- β 1 molecule, and each region is dimerized through S-S bonds. After processing by cleavage at R²⁷⁸-A²⁷⁹ by a furin-like protease, the LAP still non-covalently captures the active TGF- β 1, forming small latent complex (SLC) and preventing active TGF- β 1 from binding its cognate receptors [9]. The active TGF- β 1 and the LAP homodimers are 25 kD and 75 kD, respectively. SLC is S-S bonded to another gene product, the latent TGF- β binding protein (LTBP), via C³³ residues, forming the large latent complex (LLC). This complex can be sequestered in the ECM (Fig. 1) [10] because LTBP is a member of an ECM protein family, fibrillin [11].

Activation of latent TGF- β is performed through different mechanisms depending on the tissue and cell types and experimental conditions, and several molecules are known to activate TGF- β 1 in animal models [12–21]. These include integrins [12–15], thrombospondin [16], and proteases, such as matrix metalloproteinases and serine proteases [17–21]. The integrin α β 6 binds to and activates latent TGF- β and plays a role in regulating pulmonary inflammation and fibrosis as well as biliary fibrosis [12–15]. Thrombospondin 1 is another major activator of latent TGF- β , especially in the lung and pancreas, by binding to a defined site within LAP and inducing a conformational change in the latent complex [16]. In the normal liver, TGF- β is produced and secreted from sinusoidal endothelial cells and Kupffer cells (KCs, resident macrophages in the liver) at low levels. Elevated production of TGF- β was seen first in all cell types and then mainly in hepatocytes and HSCs after partial hepatectomy, whereas elevated production of TGF- β was seen solely in HSCs after inflammation and fibrosis [22]. TGF- β secreted from HPCs is entirely in the latent form, whereas TGF- β secreted from HSCs is 50–90 % in the active form [22]. Thus, HSCs are recognized as the major source of active TGF- β , namely the site of TGF- β activation, particularly in the damaged liver [22,23].

We have addressed a potential proteolytic mechanism for latent TGF- β activation in HSCs by surface plasmin (PLN) and plasma kallikrein (PLK) during the formation of hepatic fibrosis [20,21]. PLN releases latent TGF- β from the extracellular matrix and activates it by cleaving LAP from latent TGF- β molecules on the HSC surface [9,20]. Lyons et al. first reported that PLN digests LAP and activates TGF- β 1 in vitro [24]. Using a protease inhibitor, camostat mesilate, we demonstrated that PLN and PLK are involved in the TGF- β 1 activation associated with liver fibrosis and impaired liver regeneration in animal models [20,21]. However, it remained to be elucidated whether PLN- and/or PLK-dependent TGF- β 1 activation also occurs during the pathogenesis of liver fibrosis in patients, as there was no good biomarker reflecting protease-dependent TGF- β 1 activation reaction. To answer this question, we determined cleavage site within LAP and made specific antibodies that recognize LAP degradation products (LAP-DPs) bearing a neo-amino or carboxyl terminus [25].

TGF-β LAP-DP Serves as a Surrogate Marker for Its Activation Reaction

To identify the cleavage sites in LAP during latent TGF-β1 activation by PLN and PLK, recombinant human LAP β1 was digested with these proteases, the resultant fragments were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE), and the N-terminal sequence of each LAP-DP was determined using a pulsed liquid protein sequencer Precise 494cLC, which revealed that PLN and PLK primarily cleave LAP β1 between the K⁵⁶ and L⁵⁷ residues, and the R⁵⁸ and L⁵⁹ residues, respectively, during proteolytic activation of latent TGF-β1 (Fig. 2) [25].

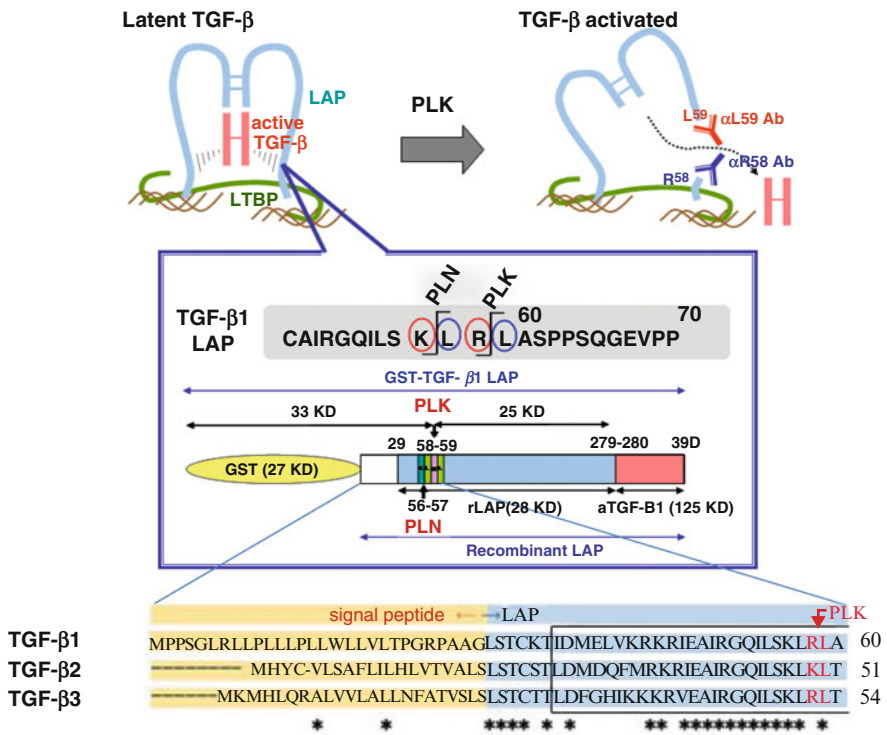


Fig. 2 Cleavage of K⁵⁶LRL⁵⁹ within LAP activates TGF-β. PLN and PLK cleave LAP between K⁵⁶-L⁵⁹ and R⁵⁸-L⁵⁹ residues, respectively, causing release of active TGF-β1 from the latent complex. The amino acid sequences around the PLN and PLK cleavage sites are illustrated. Antibodies that specifically recognize the cutting edges of LAP-DPs were produced. The dark blue “Y” labeled R58 represents antibodies recognizing the C-terminal or N-terminal side LAP-DPs, whereas the red “Y” labeled L59 represents antibodies recognizing the N-terminal or C-terminal side LAP-DPs. A comparison of amino acid sequences from the N-terminus until the PLK cleavage site among three isoforms of TGF-β is presented at the bottom

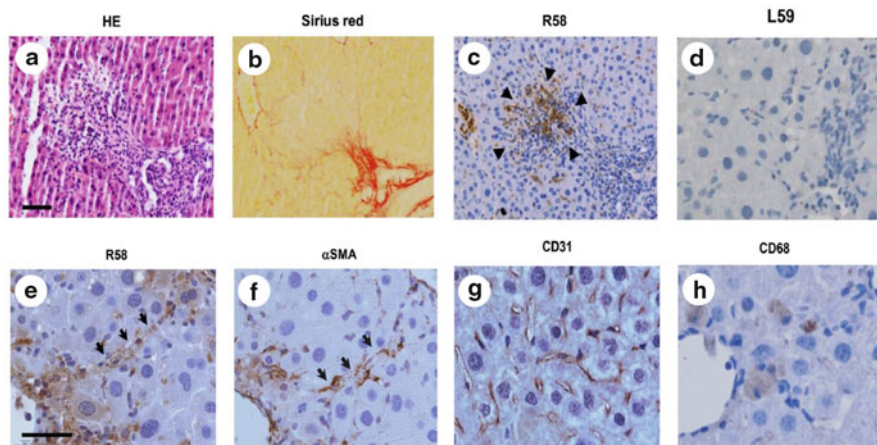


Fig. 3 Emergence of TGF- β LAP-DPs in activated HSCs within pre-fibrotic areas in BDL models. Liver sections from BDL-operated mice were stained by HE (a) and Sirius red (b), and immunostained with R58 (c) and L59 (d) antibodies (scale bar=50 μ m), and were immunostained with R58 (e), anti- α SMA (f), anti-CD31 (g), and anti-CD68 (h) antibodies (scale bar=25 μ m). More detailed results are provided elsewhere [25]

To detect PLK-produced LAP-DPs, we made two monoclonal antibodies. One is the R58 antibody detecting N-terminal side LAP-DPs terminating on the R⁵⁸ residue (R⁵⁸ LAP-DPs), and another is the L59 antibody detecting C-terminal side LAP-DPs starting from the L⁵⁹ residue (L⁵⁹ LAP-DPs). We established techniques to detect each LAP-DP using these antibodies [25]. The R⁵⁸ LAP-DPs remaining in tissues or cell surfaces through S-S bonded LTBP can be detected mostly in α SMA-positive activated stellate cells in liver tissues from both fibrotic animals and patients by immunostaining with the R58 antibody, whereas the L⁵⁹ LAP-DPs were not detectable by immunostaining with the L59 antibody [25]. Figure 3 shows the results obtained from bile duct ligation (BDL) mice. These mice often exhibited granulomatous lesions (*panel a*), in which fibroblastic cells infiltrated and started ECM production (*panel b*). Importantly, the R⁵⁸ LAP-DPs were detected in granulomatous lesions prior to Sirius red positivity, namely before collagen accumulation (arrowheads in *panel c*). In contrast, L59 antibody failed to stain the L⁵⁹ LAP-DPs, although various antigen unmasking procedures were treated (*panel d*). We found that the L⁵⁹ LAP-DPs were released into the blood and could be measured by an ELISA using the L59 antibody (Hara et al., unpublished data). In panels *e-h*, non-parenchymal regions were recognized by antibody R58 (arrowheads in *panel e*), and mostly overlapped with α SMA-positive HSCs (arrowheads in *panel f*), but not with CD31-positive liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (*panel g*) nor with CD68-positive KCs (hepatic macrophages) (*panel h*). We further found that the R58 antibody detected TGF- β 1/3 LAP-DPs but not TGF- β 2 LAP-DPs because of the similarity and difference of the R58 side sequence, respectively (Fig. 2). Finally, we succeeded in detecting R⁵⁸ LAP-DPs in patients with chronic hepatitis B and C virus

(HBV and HCV, respectively) infection categorized as A1F2 and A2F2, as well as in patients with non-viral hepatitis, such as autoimmune hepatitis and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) [25]. A specific cell shape called a “crown-like structure” (CLS) has been referred to as a biomarker for NASH in both an animal model and patients [26]. Recently, we found that R⁵⁸ LAP-DPs positivity well matched the emergence of CLS [27].

These data suggest the occurrence of a PLK-dependent TGF- β activation reaction in patients and indicate that the LAP-DP may be useful as a surrogate marker reflecting PLK-dependent TGF- β 1/3 activation and subsequent fibrogenesis in the fibrotic liver both in animal models and in patients.

Conclusion and Future Subjects

The most fibrogenic cytokine, TGF- β , is produced as a latent complex, in which TGF- β is trapped by its propeptide, LAP. On the surface of activated HSCs, PLK activates TGF- β by cleaving LAP between the R⁵⁸ and L⁵⁹ residues, releasing active TGF- β from the complex. We made specific antibodies that recognize the neo-C-terminal (R⁵⁸) and N-terminal (L⁵⁹) ends of the LAP-DP, and found that the LAP-DP may serve as a novel surrogate marker of TGF- β activation—namely, generation of active TGF- β —and is thereby a therapeutic marker for TGF- β -mediated liver fibrogenesis in patients [25].

Utilizing LAP-DP antibodies, we are developing techniques to visualize the fibrogenic area by positron emission tomography (PET), planning to eliminate activated HSCs with pertussis toxin, and undertaking the challenge to solve the co-crystal structure of LAP and a LAP-DP targeting inhibitor, which binds to the LAP cleavage site, thereby inhibiting TGF- β activation and liver fibrosis in HBV-infected chimeric mice (Hara et al., unpublished data). The effectiveness of an inhibitor against the TGF- β activation reaction has been reported in the integrin-mediated activation of TGF- β [3, 15, 28]. LAP-DP is also used to monitor the effects of anti-fibrogenic factors or compounds for discovery of a novel anti-fibrosis drug. For example, we recently found that HCV NS3 protease mimics TGF- β 2 and enhances liver fibrosis via binding to and activation of the TGF- β type I receptor, and that an anti-NS3 antibody raised against the predicted binding sites attenuates liver fibrosis in HCV-infected chimeric mice [29]. In this study, R58 LAP-DP staining nicely showed the anti-fibrogenic potentials of the anti-NS3 antibody.

The technique developed accelerates drug discovery targeting TGF- β -dependent fibrogenesis in patients suffering from chronic hepatitis.

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