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Expression of Metastasis Suppressor BRMS1 in Breast Cancer Cells Results in a Marked Delay in Cellular Adhesion to Matrix

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Abstract

Metastatic dissemination is a multi-step process that depends on cancer cells' ability to respond to microenvironmental cues by adapting adhesion abilities and undergoing cytoskeletal rearrangement. Breast Cancer Metastasis Suppressor 1 (BRMS1) affects several steps of the metastatic cascade: it decreases survival in circulation, increases susceptibility to anoikis, and reduces capacity to colonize secondary organs. In this report, BRMS1 expression is shown to not significantly alter expression levels of integrin monomers, while time-lapse and confocal microscopy revealed that BRMS1-expressing cells exhibited reduced activation of both $\beta 1$ integrin and focal adhesion kinase, and decreased localization of these molecules to sites of focal adhesions. Short-term plating of BRMS1-expressing cells onto collagen or fibronectin markedly decreased cytoskeletal reorganization and formation of cellular adhesion projections. Under 3D culture conditions, BRMS1-expressing cells remained rounded and failed to reorganize their cytoskeleton and form invasive colonies. Taken together, BRMS1-expressing breast cancer cells are greatly attenuated in their ability to respond to microenvironment changes.

Keywords

BRMS1; metastasis; adhesion; integrins; CTC

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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INTRODUCTION

The metastatic cascade is a multi-step and highly inefficient process [1-4]. As cancer cells gain the ability to metastasize, they must complete a series of sequential events: dissociate from primary tumor, intravasate into lymphatic or systemic circulation, survive shear stress while in circulation, extravasate into and proliferate at a secondary site [4-9]. Consequently, interfering with any of these steps would preclude development of overt metastases [10-12].

A cancer cell's behavior can be affected at individual steps of the metastatic cascade by the microenvironment in which the tumor finds itself. This cell/microenvironment interaction and the cell's ability to relay signals from the surroundings affect its ability to proliferate, migrate, adhere and overcome cellular senescence [7,13-17]. Cancer cell/extracellular matrix (ECM) interactions can be studied using relatively simple in vitro models [18] or complex in vivo evaluations [19-23]. Nonetheless, the majority of studies have focused on tumor cells while they are still associated with the primary tumor mass or after they have extravasated [24-27]. However, with advances in ability to detect circulating tumor cells and their strong association with poorer patient prognosis [28-30], it is becoming necessary to pay more attention to understanding what is taking place "in-between", that is, adhesion and survival while tumor cells are still in the circulation, both to find novel therapeutic targets and to establish possible biomarkers and prognostic markers.

Adhesion and consequent anoikis protection are regulated, by and large, through the interaction of integrins and their appropriate extracellular substrates. Integrins are cell surface heterodimers that exist in two conformations: "inactive" bent conformation, and "active" upright conformation [31,32]. The shift in conformations is initiated upon formation of a focal adhesion complex, followed by phosphorylation of focal adhesion kinase (FAK), activation of integrin linked kinase (ILK) and downstream actin and microtubular cytoskeleton remodeling. Actin cytoskeleton remodeling (reviewed in [33,34]) initiates further morphologic and transcriptional changes: globular actin levels decrease during actin filament polymerization, stimulating translocation of myocardin-related transcription factor (MRTF, also called MAL) into the nucleus, where it binds to serum response factor (SRF) and together, they initiate transcription of many actin cytoskeleton genes and genes regulating focal adhesion assembly, such as $\alpha 5$ integrin, Tenascin C, Talin-1, Profilin 1, and Actinin [35].

Intravital microscopy had shown that a metastatic cancer cell spends in the range of few seconds to few minutes in circulation [36-38]. At the time of intravasation, tumor cells undergo a morphologic change, from initially rounded and detached to loosely, and eventually, more strongly, adherent [39]. During circulation, the cell must adhere to an appropriate matrix or endothelial cells in order to avoid anoikis (Figure 1A) [40,41]. Furthermore, cancer cells frequently masquerade as normal cells, including their ability to act similar to leukocytes homing towards sights of inflammation [42]. Expanding on this idea, we hypothesized that disseminating cancer cells may, similar to leukocytes, utilize the process of rolling adhesion to slow down and initiate extravasation. Leukocytes slow down first by tethering to and rolling on endothelial cells via clustering of cell surface selectins

and integrins to form “docking structures” [43-45]. Upon loose adhesion, leukocytes then initiate strong contact with ECM and endothelial cells, followed by rapid cytoskeletal rearrangement, which allows diapedesis into appropriate tissues [46-50]. Therefore, one of the objectives of the current study was to address the hypothesis of leukocyte-like breast cancer cell behavior by utilizing an in vitro adhesion model representative of adhesion in vivo. For these purposes, we chose to use a well-described model of pairs of highly metastatic and metastases suppressed MDA-MB-231 (MDA-231) and MDA-MB-435 (MDA-435) breast cancer cells with (metastasis suppressed) or without (metastatic) ectopic expression of breast cancer metastasis suppressor 1 (BRMS1). While the origin of MDA-435 cell line is somewhat controversial, several recent reports shed more light onto its genesis and convincingly show that these cells are capable of tumor formation and metastases from the mammary fat pad of immunocompromised mice, express epithelial cell markers, and make milk proteins and lipids [51,52].

BRMS1 is a metastasis suppressor that, by definition, suppresses metastasis without significantly affecting the growth of a primary tumor [4,53]. Mechanistically, BRMS1-expressing cells exhibit decreased survival in circulation [54] and are less capable of seeding secondary sites, which is partially attributed to BRMS1-enhanced anoikis [55]. However, precise mechanisms regulating anoikis in BRMS1-expressing cells are unclear. Further, BRMS1-expressing cells that seed secondary sites remain there as single cells or in small colonies, but are unable to form overt metastases [55]. Interestingly, initial steps of the metastatic cascade, such as local invasion and intravasation, appear to be unaffected by BRMS1 expression [56,57]. We therefore hypothesized that BRMS1 expression alters cancer cells’ ability to properly interpret and respond to extracellular signals after cells dissociated from the primary tumor, both during transport by systemic circulation and upon reaching secondary sites.

In this study, we utilized time-lapse and confocal microscopy to evaluate changes in adhesion complex assembly and organization and cell spreading brought about by BRMS1 expression, especially in response to extracellular composition. Short-term cell/ECM interactions bring about morphologic changes, as well as the associated signaling transduction changes, which correspond to BRMS1 expression. Consequently, MDA-231 and MDA-435 cells expressing BRMS1 are less capable of interacting with and invading into the surrounding matrix. Taken together, these results suggest that BRMS1 expression assessed in circulating or disseminated tumor cells, that is, more than in primary tumor cells, may be useful for predicting the possibility of metastatic relapse.

RESULTS

BRMS1 Delays Adhesion of MDA-231 and MDA-435 Breast Cancer Cells

BRMS1 expression in breast cancer cells exhibits no effect on cell proliferation in vitro (Supplementary Figure 1). At the same time, earlier studies characterizing BRMS1 effect on cell adhesion showed that BRMS1 marginally affected cell adhesion to matrix [57]. BRMS1 expression did, however, significantly promote anoikis of breast cancer cells [55], which we also confirmed in the present study (Figure 1B). To examine if earlier steps of adhesion, such as cell attachment to matrix and cell spreading, might attribute for BRMS1-associated

anoikis, we gently detached vector or BRMS1-expressing MDA-231 and MDA-435 cells with EDTA as to not cleave any membrane receptors. Cells were then plated onto optical plates precoated with FBS representing matrix milieu and imaged by time-lapse microscopy for 1 h or fixed and stained with crystal violet at times indicated. As shown in Figure 1C and quantified in Figure 1D and E, in both cell lines BRMS1 expression delayed morphologic progression from round to spread (10, 15, and 30 min postplating). However, by 1 h postplating, vector control and BRMS1-expressing cells were similar in appearance and behavior, both morphologically and based on total number adherent cells (Figure 1D and Supplementary Movies 1–4).

BRMS1 Expression Has Little Effect on Integrin Expression, but Reduces Activated β 1 Integrin Localization to Adhesion-Associated Cellular Protrusions

Since many adhesion events are mediated through modulation of expression and activity of integrins, we then asked whether BRMS1-associated adhesion changes were due to downregulation of integrin expression. We first confirmed BRMS1 expression in MDA-231 and MDA-435 cells we previously established and characterized (Figure 2A and Supplementary Figure 1B), and then assayed their whole cell lysates for expression of several integrin monomers and observed only a slight reduction in α 5 integrin levels (Figure 2B). We then performed confocal microscopy 15 and 30 min after plating cells onto FBS-coated slides to examine whether there were changes in activation status and cellular localization of β 1 integrin, a binding partner for many α subunits and a known player in metastases (Figure 2C; Supplementary Figure 2). At both times, cells transfected with empty vector exhibited thicker actin cytoskeleton rings (red fluorescence signal) and appeared more spread, whereas BRMS1-expressing cells remained rounded and exhibited highly condensed cytoplasm. Moreover, activated β 1 integrin (green fluorescence signal) localized to the outer membrane edge of cells where focal adhesions are found, also co-localizing with the actin rings. These data suggest that BRMS1 may impede appropriate localization of activated integrins to the focal adhesion complexes, thereby altering adhesion and cell spreading. Alternatively, BRMS1 may delay clustering of integrin heterodimers already present at the plasma membrane, which would lead to a delay in adhesion. Lastly, BRMS1 may directly affect endoplasmic spreading, which was recently shown to be regulated through cooperation of cellular adhesions and intermediate filaments [58].

BRMS1 Decreases Focal Adhesion Complex Assembly

To determine whether other components of the focal adhesion complex were affected by BRMS1 expression, we first performed short-term (15 min postplating) adhesion assay followed by confocal microscopy. We used distribution of FAK phosphorylated on tyrosine 397 as a marker of focal adhesion complex. As shown in Figure 3A, and consistent with the findings described above, BRMS1-expressing cells did not spread as well as the vector control cells, defined by actin cytoskeleton reorganization. Further, fewer BRMS1-expressing cells exhibited pFAK localized to the outer-most cell surface in regions where focal adhesions would be found, further indicating alterations in adhesion. Interestingly, BRMS1-expressing cells exhibited a strong cytoplasmic and perinuclear pFAK (Figure 3A) and activated β 1 integrin (Figure 2C) localization, suggesting that BRMS1 may accelerate recycling of cytoplasmic receptors, such as integrins and other member of the focal adhesion

complex, or prevent their outward trafficking towards plasma membrane, thereby reducing their membranous localization.

To confirm the microscopy data, adhesion was measured over time concomitant with analysis of adhesion protein quantification using immunoblot. Consistent with previously published data that BRMS1 did not affect adhesion to ECM at 1 h postplating [57], there was little difference in expression of focal adhesion markers at 1-hour postplating (Figure 3B and C). However, at 15 min (Figure 3B and C), there was a simultaneous reduction in expression of all focal adhesion-associated markers, such as Talin, pFAK, and ILK, suggesting that expression of BRMS1 affected the earliest events involved in cell adhesion.

Confocal microscopy revealed a delay in proper reorganization of actin cytoskeleton in response to matrix stimulation conferred by BRMS1. Therefore, we examined expression levels of two markers of actin cytoskeleton remodeling, MRTF and SRF. Levels of MRTF and SRF were significantly reduced 15 min postplating of cells (Figure 3C), but they leveled out by 30 min postplating, again suggesting that BRMS1 affects kinetics of cellular adhesion.

To address whether adhesion changes were dependent upon variations amongst ECM components by species [59], experiments were done utilizing matrix components of human origin. We also elected to look at extracellular matrices that were relevant to in vivo progression of breast cancer: collagen IV, a major constituent of tumor basement membrane and lung microenvironment; collagen I, a main extracellular component of bone microenvironment; and soluble fibronectin, a key protein component of human plasma. In general, all cancer cells tested took longer to adhere to collagens and fibronectin in the absence of serum (data not shown). Therefore, we only evaluated adhesion-related signaling events at 30 and 60 min postplating. As shown in Figure 4, there was a substantial decrease in expression of all focal adhesion and actin cytoskeleton remodeling-associated proteins at 30 min postplating. Regardless of substrate, BRMS1-expressing cells exhibited reduced cell spreading, formation of focal adhesion complexes, reduced membrane localization of pFAK and activated $\beta 1$ integrin (Supplementary Figures 3 and 4). Together, these findings indicate that BRMS1 delayed adhesion independent of the substrate. Consequently, these findings may explain reduced survival of BRMS1-expressing cells in circulation, which would contribute to their inability to form overt metastases.

BRMS1 Expression Impairs Cell Invasion in 3D Cultures

As evidenced by Supplementary Movies 5–8, within several hours postplating onto collagen I as a 3D culture, vector control cells began to “probe” their surrounding matrix by extending long, dynamic cellular protrusions. Conversely, BRMS1-expressing cells formed few visible protrusions and stayed comparatively stationary. Interestingly, formation of these cellular protrusions in vector cells occurred in the presence or absence of serum, while even in the presence of serum BRMS1-expressing cells were unable to invade into the matrix (Figure 5A). These data suggest that even upon cellular stress, such as low nutrient conditions, BRMS1-expressing cells were unable to override their inability to interact with the surrounding matrix. If allowed to grow under 3D culture conditions, vector control cells formed large invasive colonies by 7–10 d. However, BRMS1-expressing cells formed

smaller and low invasive colonies, albeit the overall number of colonies formed by vector and BRMS1-expressing cell lines was similar (Figure 5B)—MDA-231-vector: 192.5 ± 40.3 vs. MDA-231-BRMS1: 185.5 ± 17.7 ; MDA-435-vector: 159.5 ± 6.4 vs. MDA-435-BRMS1: 191.5 ± 10.6 (not statistically significant). Mechanistically, continuous culture of BRMS1-expressing cells in 3D collagen I led to a profound inhibition of Talin-1, pFAK, ILK, and MRTF, as compared to vector control cells (Figure 5C). At the same time, continuous culture of cells under 2D culture conditions on plastic did not yield same results (Figure 5C). Interestingly, there were no appreciative differences in activation of any growth-associated signaling cascades, that is, AKT, ERK, Jun, or apoptosis-related signaling cascade between vector and BRMS1-expressing cells (data not shown).

To confirm lack of invasion by BRMS1-expressing cells under 3D conditions, we also performed a 3D culture assay utilizing Matrigel, which combines several types of ECM and growth factors. As shown in Figure 6A, BRMS1-expressing cells formed poorly invasive colonies when compared to vector-only cells. When we quantified invasive colonies, vector-only cells were significantly more invasive, as compared to BRMS1-expressing cells (Figure 6B). As with Collagen I 3D cultures, the overall number of colonies formed by both cell types was similar (Figure 6B), as was their size (Figure 6C), suggesting that BRMS1-expressing breast cancer cells can proliferate, but not invade, when cultured under 3D conditions. Lastly, using shRNA, we partially knocked down BRMS1 expression in MDA-231 cells expressing exogenous BRMS1 (Figure 6D). Even this partial (30% and 50%) knockdown reversed BRMS1-mediated inhibition of invasion in 3D culture (Figure 6E) and adhesion to FBS-coated plates under 2D conditions (Figure 6F).

Data presented in this manuscript show that BRMS1 somehow affects adhesion, and consequently, invasion of breast cancer cells. However, the question remains: how could a protein whose only known functions described thus far are restricted to the nucleus, be responsible for cytoskeletal modulation? We hypothesize that BRMS1 may, in fact, possess a yet-undefined cytoplasmic function. It had been shown previously that BRMS1 could be localized to the cytoplasm of breast cancer patients' tumors (Figure 7A and Ref. [60]). Upon examination of BRMS1-expressing cells used in this study, we also observed cytoplasmic localization of BRMS1 by both confocal analysis (Figure 7B) and Western blotting (Figure 7C). Taking into account previous reports of BRMS1 association with well-defined cytoplasmic proteins known to regulate cytoskeletal rearrangement, such as HDAC6 [61] and smoothelin [62], it is possible that the events described in this manuscript occur through a direct interaction between BRMS1 and the cytoskeleton. This hypothesis is further confirmed by our recent observation of a direct interaction between BRMS1 and Filamin B, an actin cytoskeleton cross-linking protein (Khotskaya and Hung, unpublished data). Our future studies will aim at further dissecting BRMS1 functions, including those it may play in the cytoplasm.

DISCUSSION

Adhesion of cells to matrix is a major step that determines the success or failure of the metastatic cascade at every step. By carefully examining morphology and adhesion over a range of times, parameters that impact metastatic efficiency could be measured. Data

confirm that the process of adhesion in vivo is dynamic, necessitating careful attention to adhesion kinetics. Specifically, one must ask: are cells that have adhered fully within 3–4 h after plating to static two-dimensional matrices representative of those extracted from a cancer patient, where cells must survive under shear, low oxygen and in the presence of immune cells? We suggest not. The current body of knowledge predicts that differences in adhesion (i.e., degree and pattern of spreading, as well as strength of adhesion) contribute to a cell's metastatic ability. As such, it is essential to use assays that address the “how” of adhesion: is the cell strongly attached (i.e., fully spread)? Is a cell rounded or weakly adherent? In this report, we utilized a combination of assays in order to determine “why” BRMS1-expressing cells do not survive as efficiently in circulation. Concurrently, the assays began to address how BRMS1 expression affects cell/matrix interactions.

Although it is firmly established that BRMS1 strongly suppresses metastases and that the biological effects are presumably through its effects on chromatin structure [63], the precise interconnection between these independent observations have not yet been determined. It has been described that BRMS1 expression significantly reduces survival of breast cancer cells in systemic circulation of immunocompromised mice [54,55]. Moreover, BRMS1 upregulates expression of pro-apoptotic genes associated with cells' inability to adhere, therefore inducing anoikis [55]. Consistent with data from Heyder et al. [64], time-lapse microscopy showed that vector control cells attach to matrix rapidly and almost immediately begin to spread in both 2D and 3D culture assays. In contrast, BRMS1-expressing cells remain rounded and weakly attached. Similarly, Krishnan et al., using a 3D bioreactor containing bone cells and breast carcinoma cells ($\pm$ BRMS1 expression), showed that metastatic cells organized into invasive chords. In contrast, BRMS1-expressing cells were only loosely adherent [65]. If one couples those observations, they highlight that static measurement of adhesion events could miss critical parameters that contribute to invasion and metastasis. One must fully consider spatial and temporal regulation of adhesive molecules and the signaling through them. Since pFAK and activated β 1 integrin have been shown to initiate adhesion by assembling focal adhesions and their deregulation leads to changes in anchorage-independent growth, our data provide a possible explanation for BRMS1-associated increase in anoikis previously observed both in in vivo and in vitro studies.

However, focal adhesion assembly is only the beginning of the adhesion step-wise progression, as it leads to downstream rearrangement in microtubules and actin cytoskeleton. Hence, it is not surprising that expression of BRMS1 also deregulates cytoskeletal remodeling associated with cell/matrix interaction. Upon contact with the ECM, in BRMS1-expressing cells there is an adhesion-associated decrease in levels of MRTF and SRF, both of which are tightly coupled to dynamic switching of globular (destabilized) to fibrillar (stabilized) actin filaments [66,67]. In addition to BRMS1-associated actin cytoskeleton changes, we observed a similar pattern in localization and morphologic appearance of tubulin, a major component of microtubular cytoskeleton. In response to transition from round to spread cell morphology, vector control cells in an adhesion-dependent manner exhibit highly aligned microtubules that extend radial from the nucleus to the outer-most cell membrane, while BRMS1-expressing cells exhibit polarized tubulin without radial organization (Khotskaya and Welch, unpublished data). This observation

holds potential importance in relation to BRMS1 and clinical progression of breast cancer. As recent publications show, tubulin can be deacetylated and thus destabilized in the cytoplasm through actions of a major cytoplasmic histone deacetylase, HDAC6 [68,69] and these post-translational modifications define its cytoskeletal activity [3]. BRMS1, known to localize and presumably function predominantly in the nucleus, associates with a number of HDAC complexes [61,62,70], including HDAC6. Surprisingly, several investigators had recently shown that BRMS1 is abundantly present in the cytosol of human cancer patient cells [60,71], yet its cytosolic function(s), if any, are unknown. Based on our observations, it is possible that BRMS1 may have some yet unknown functions in the cytoplasm, such as a direct effect on microtubules and actin filaments that results in cytoskeletal destabilization. Moreover, BRMS1 also directly associates with smoothelin, a cytoplasmic troponin-like cytoskeletal protein [62]. While smoothelin is found exclusively in contractile smooth muscle cells [72], it shares a high degree of homology with other, more ubiquitous, cytoskeletal proteins such as dystrophin and alpha-actinin [72] and its domain responsible for interacting with BRMS1 is yet unknown. Hence, it may be possible that BRMS1 plays a direct role in regulating cytoskeletal organization, either by post-translationally modifying microtubular cytoskeleton or by interacting with other cytoskeleton-associated proteins. Follow-up studies aimed to elucidate BRMS1 function(s) in the cytoplasm are underway. Moreover, by combining data shown here with previous findings of direct interaction between BRMS1 and HDAC6, we suggest that BRMS1 expression may be used as a biomarker for selecting breast cancer patients for HDAC6 inhibitor clinical trials.

In addition to its role as a potential biomarker used for selecting patients for clinical trials, BRMS1 expression may serve as a clinical prognostic marker, capable of predicting the likelihood of disease relapse or response to targeted therapy. Specifically, recent evidence suggests that interfering with cells' ability to attach to matrix sensitizes them to cell death through TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) pathway [73], indicating that BRMS1+ breast cancer patients may benefit from TRAIL-targeted therapy. However, one must carefully consider how to assay BRMS1 expression in the clinical setting. To date, clinical correlative data have been somewhat inconsistent, depending upon whether BRMS1 mRNA or protein were measured [74-76], its subcellular localization patterns [60], antibodies used [60,75], whether tissue samples were contaminated by stromal cells and which cells were examined [34]. The findings presented here highlight the importance of appropriate cell type selection. Data predict that assessment of BRMS1 expression in lymph node-infiltrating carcinoma cells (less than 0.2 mm or 200 cells), but not in overt metastasis, may serve as a new prognostic biomarker (Edge and American Joint Committee on Cancer, 2010). Therefore, BRMS1 may serve as a potential prognostic marker for patient relapse if expression is assayed in circulating (CTC) or disseminated tumor cells (DTC) [77,78] or in cells present in sentinel lymph nodes, that is, those cells that have already initiated the metastatic process or, as importantly, completed steps of metastasis for which BRMS1 has already been demonstrated to play lesser roles. Lombardi and colleagues recently found that breast carcinoma cells in lymph nodes expressed less BRMS1 than tumor cells from matching primary tumors, as is expected for a metastasis suppressor [74]. While their findings measured expression in overt lymph node metastases, they made no prediction for patient prognosis based on BRMS1 expression on carcinoma cells in the lymph nodes. Yet,

we predict that breast cancer patients who exhibit BRMS1 expression on CTC or DTC would have a better prognosis than those without BRMS1, identifying a class of patients at a greater risk for relapse.

In summary, taking previously published data and combining it with the observations presented here, BRMS1 appears to impair cellular responses to microenvironment. Results indicate that adhesion is a dynamic process, and studying it would benefit from careful kinetics analysis. In regards to BRMS1, our data signify that BRMS1-expressing cells can adhere to multiple matrices, but not firmly. Therefore, there may be a clinical opportunity to interfere with their dissemination through anti-metastatic insults. Furthermore, expression of BRMS1 on lymph node-infiltrating carcinoma cells, CTC and DTC might serve as a biomarker, able to distinguish patients at a greater risk of relapse.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Cell Lines and Culture

Human breast cancer cell lines MDA-MB-231 and MDA-MB-435 were obtained from Dr. Janet Price at the MD Anderson Cancer Center (described in Ref. [79,80]) and engineered to stably express BRMS1 (pooled cell population, Figure 2A) or empty expression vector as described previously [55,61]. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's-modified Eagle's medium mixed 1:1 (v:v) with Ham's F-12 medium (DMEM/F12, #11330, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Atlanta Biologicals, Lawrenceville, GA), 2 mmol/L of L-glutamine (Invitrogen), and 0.02 mmol/L of non-essential amino acids (Mediatech, Manassas, VA). Neither antibiotics nor anti-mycotics were used. All cell lines were tested and found to be negative of *Mycoplasma* spp. contamination, using a PCR-based kit (#302108; Aligent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). Cells were routinely passaged using 0.2 mmol/L EDTA in Ca²⁺-free, Mg²⁺-free, and NaHCO₃-free Hank's balanced salt solution (Invitrogen). Following breast cancer cell lines were obtained from ATCC and cultured as previously described: SKBR3, HBL100, Hs578, MDA-468, MDA-436, MDA-361, ZR75-1, 4T1, MCF10F, MCF10A. All cell lines were fingerprinted by the MDACC Institutional Core Facility, and their identity confirmed and identical to ATCC cell line profiles based on 13 identification criteria.

Antibodies

Active β 1 integrin (# MAB2079Z, Millipore, Billerica, MA), Tubulin (#2125, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA), Integrin Signaling Kit to test expression of α 4, α 5, α V, β 1, β 3, β 4, and β 5 integrins (#4749, Cell Signaling), pFAK Y397 (#44624G, Invitrogen), Talin1 (#05-1144, Millipore), Actin Cytoskeleton and Focal Adhesion Staining Kit for immunofluorescence of actin and Vinculin (#FAK100, Millipore), total FAK (#3285, Cell Signaling), ILK (#3862, Cell Signaling), MRTF (#A302-201A, Bethyl Labs, Montgomery, TX), SRF (#sc-335, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA), Small GTPase Kit to test expression of RhoA, RhoB, and RhoC (#9968, Cell Signaling), anti-mouse-FITC IgG (#F-2761, Molecular Probes of Invitrogen), anti-rabbit-FITC IgG (#F-2765, Molecular Probes of Invitrogen), anti-mouse IgG with peroxidase (#NXA931, Amersham, Piscataway, NJ), anti-rabbit IgG with peroxidase (#NA934, Amersham). Monoclonal BRMS1 antibody

1a5.7 was described previously [61]. BRMS1 antibody used for immunofluorescence was from Abcam (#ab134968, Abcam, Cambridge, MA).

Western Blot

Western blotting was performed as described previously [81]. Briefly, cells were lysed in RIPA buffer (25 mM Tris-HCL pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1% sodium deoxycholate, and 0.1% SDS, supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors), and protein concentrations approximated with BCA assay (Pierce, Rockford, IL). Cell lysates were resolved on precast 4–15% SDS-PAGE (BioRad, Hercules, CA) under constant voltage conditions. Gels were blotted onto PVDF membrane and blocked in 5% non-fat dry milk. Membranes were incubated in primary antibody overnight at 4°C. Following incubation with the secondary antibody, membranes were developed using chemiluminescent substrate kit (Pierce). Signal was detected by exposing membranes to X-ray film. Band intensity was analyzed by densitometry using NIH ImageJ software, and all experiments were done in triplicate.

Cell Proliferation

75 000 cells were plated per well of a 6-well plate in triplicate in DMEM/F-12 media supplemented with 5% FBS. At times indicated, cells were trypsinized and manually counted to assess proliferation rate.

Anoikis Assay

100 000 cells were plated per well of a 6-well ultra-low adhesion plate (Corning) in DMEM/F-12 media supplemented with 5% FBS, which maintained cells in a suspension culture. At times indicated, cell aliquots were taken and cells manually counted to assess anoikis rate based on trypan blue exclusion method.

BRMS1 Immunohistochemistry on Breast Cancer Patient Tissues

BRMS1 immunohistochemistry was performed as previously described [60] under Institutional Review Board-approved protocol.

3D Collagen I Culture

3D collagen I culture kit was purchased from Millipore (#ECM675, Millipore) and experiments performed as per kit's instructions. Briefly, for confocal experiments cells were suspended in collagen I to 50 000 cells/mL final concentration and 50 µL of cell suspension added per well of 8-well chamber slide (#177445, Nunc, Rochester, NY). At times indicated, cells were fixed within collagen gels and immunofluorescence staining performed as per kit instructions. For long-term culture, cells were diluted in collagen I to 100 000 cells/mL final concentration and 0.5 mL plated per well of 12-well plates. After gels solidified, regular growth media was added and replaced every 2 d. After 7–10 d of culture, five non-overlapping areas were examined, photographed using CarlZeiss inverted Stemi 2000-C microscope (Axiovision software package) and at least 150 colonies counted. Invasive colonies were defined as consisting of more than four cells migrating away from their structure of origin [82]. To collect cell lysates, collagen I gels were digested with

collagenase type I from *Clostridium histolyticum* (#SCR103, Millipore), cells pelleted by centrifugation, and lysed for Western blotting analysis following procedure previously described [81].

3D Matrigel Culture

Growth factor reduced Matrigel was purchased from BD Biosciences (#256231, BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). Cell culture plates were coated with 150 μ L Matrigel per well of 24-well plate and then placed at 37°C for 5 min. Cells were diluted to 1000 cells/mL in complete culture medium supplemented with 10% FBS and kept on ice. Immediately prior to plating, Matrigel was added to cell suspension to achieve 2% final Matrigel concentration. After plating, cultures were moved into an incubator and cultured for 14 d at 37°C. Media was changed every 3–4 d. After 12 d of culture, five non-overlapping areas were examined, photographed using CarlZeiss inverted Stemi 2000-C microscope (Axiovision software package) and colonies counted.

Adhesion Assay

6-well culture plates (Nunc Nalgene) were coated with 1 mL of whole undiluted FBS, collagen I from human lung (final concentration 50 μ g/mL, Sigma–Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), collagen IV from human placenta (final concentration 50 μ g/mL, Sigma–Aldrich), or fibronectin from human plasma (final concentration 50 μ g/mL, Sigma–Aldrich) overnight on a rocker at 4°C. The following day, matrix solution was aspirated, plates washed three times with ice-cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and allowed to air dry. Breast cancer cells were serum-starved for 24 h prior to onset of adhesion studies to exclude growth factor-mediated adhesion events. Cells were suspended in serum-free DMEM/F12 and suspension added to precoated plates for time intervals indicated. Non-adhered cells were washed off with two quick PBS washes with manual agitation. Adherent cells were lysed in RIPA buffer for Western blotting analysis following protocol described above or fixed for immunofluorescence staining. For crystal violet staining, adherent cells were fixed with 4% formaldehyde in PBS, stained with dye solution, followed by several washes with water. Crystal violet adhesion experiment was done in triplicate, at least five non-overlapping areas were examined per replicate, photographed using CarlZeiss inverted Stemi 2000-C microscope (Axiovision software package) and at least 120 adherent cells counted, except for MDA-435 and MDA-435-BRMS1 cells at 5 min, where only 50 cells were counted due to low adhesion rate. To measure cell length, all images were scaled and cell diameter measured using ImageJ ROI tool. At least 120 cells were measured.

Immunofluorescence and Confocal Microscopy

Cells were plated on FBS-coated 8-well chamber slides (Nunc) and allowed to adhere for times indicated. Non-adhered cells were washed off with PBS. Cells were fixed with 4% formaldehyde in PBS, permeabilized with 0.5% Triton-X100, blocked against non-specific antigens with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS, and incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody dilution. Following incubation with the fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibody, slides were mounted with DAPI-containing hard-set media (Vectashield, Vector Labs, Burlingame, CA). Cells were examined on CarlZeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope with ZEN 2009 software.

Time-Lapse Microscopy

For 2D imaging, cells were added to precoated plates under the microscope and imaging started immediately. Photographic images were taken every 15 s for 1 h total. For 3D culture imaging, gels were allowed to set in tissue culture incubator for 1 h, then serum-free or serum-containing media was added (as indicated) and at least five non-overlapping areas of the gel chosen for observation. Photographic images were taken every 15 min for 48 h total. All time-lapse microscopy was performed on CarlZeiss Cell Observer microscope running Axiovision software package and equipped with CO₂ chamber and 37°C warm plate.

BRMS1 Knockdown

Lentiviral vectors containing BRMS1-targeting shRNA sequences were purchased from MD Anderson ORF and shRNA core facility. Upon infection with lentivirus, stable cells were selected with puromycin. For an unknown reason, BRMS1 knockdown was very unstable in MDA-231-BRMS1-expressing cells and cells regained BRMS1 expression within 2 wk of culture. BRMS1 knockdown could not be achieved in MDA-435 cells.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using Student's *t*-test and *P* < 0.05 was deemed significant.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Abbreviations

ECM	extracellular matrix
FAK	focal adhesion kinase
ILK	integrin linked kinase
MRTF	myocardin-related transcription factor
SRF	serum response factor
BRMS1	breast cancer metastasis suppressor 1
CTC	circulating tumor cells
DTC	disseminated tumor cells

Figure 1.

BRMS1 delays adhesion of MDA-231 and MDA-435 breast cancer cells. (A) Model of adhesion cascade as examined in this manuscript. (B) Vector control and BRMS1-expressing cells were plated onto ultra-low adhesion plate in complete media and maintained in a suspension culture for 72 h. At times noted, anoikis was assessed by direct counts of live and dead cells utilizing trypan blue. (C) Vector control and BRMS1-expressing breast cancer cells were plated onto optical plates precoated with whole FBS and allowed to adhere for time indicated, at which point cells were fixed and stained with crystal violet. Representative images for times 5, 10, 15, 30, and 60 min are shown. Scale bar = 20 μ m. (D) Quantification of adherent cell numbers. Data are representative of triplicate experiments and are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM (* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.001). (E) Quantification of cell length at times indicated, as measure of cell spreading. Cell length was measured in pixels in ImageJ. Data are representative of triplicate experiments and are expressed as mean $\pm$ EM (* P < 0.00001).

Figure 2.

BRMS1 does not significantly affect expression of integrin monomers, but reduces localization of activated $\beta 1$ integrin to adhesion-associated cellular protrusions. (A) Vector control and BRMS1-expressing breast cancer cells grown under normal culture conditions were examined by Western blotting for expression of BRMS1. (B) Vector control and BRMS1-expressing breast cancer cells grown under normal culture conditions were examined by Western blotting for expression of integrin monomers indicated. (C) Vector control and BRMS1-expressing cells were plated onto chamber slides precoated with FBS and allowed to adhere for 15 min. Fixed cells were stained for actin (red) and activated $\beta 1$ integrin (green). Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue) for reference. Arrows indicate active $\beta 1$ integrin foci localized to outer-most cell membrane. Scale bar = 20 μm .

Figure 3.

BRMS1 decreases focal adhesion complex assembly. (A) Vector control and BRMS1-expressing cells were plated onto chamber slides precoated with whole FBS and allowed to adhere for 30 min. Fixed cells were stained for actin (red) and pFAK (green) to indicate focal adhesions. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue) for reference. Arrows indicate pFAK foci, indicative of focal adhesions, localized to outer-most cell membrane. Scale bar = 20 μ m. (B) Vector and BRMS1-expressing cells were plated onto plates precoated with FBS and lysed at times indicated. Whole cell lysates were assayed by Western blotting for levels of markers of focal adhesions or those indicative of actin remodeling cytodynamics. (C) Bar graphs depict Western blot quantitations at various times. Data are representative of triplicate experiments and are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM. * $P < 0.05$.

Figure 4. BRMS1 reduces adhesion of breast cancer cells to collagen I, collagen IV, and fibronectin. Vector and BRMS1-expressing cells were plated onto plates precoated with collagen I, collagen IV, or fibronectin and lysed at times indicated. Cells lysates were assayed by Western blotting for levels of markers of focal adhesions or indicative of actin remodeling cytodynamics. Bar graphs depict Western blot quantitation of Talin and pFAK levels at various times. Data representative of triplicate experiments and are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM. * $P < 0.05$.

Figure 5.

Expression of BRMS1 results in formation of smaller, less invasive colonies compared to vector control cells when grown in 3D collagen I culture. (A) Vector and BRMS1-expressing cells were plated in 3D collagen I for 24 h in growth media with or without FBS. After 24 h, cells were fixed and stained within gels, so not to disrupt cellular morphology, using vinculin to indicate focal adhesions (green) and actin (red) to visualize cytoskeleton. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue) for reference. Arrows point to cellular projections invading into the gels. Images are representative of triplicate experiments. Scale bar = 20 μ m. (B) Cells plated in 3D collagen I were allowed to grow into colonies for 7–10 d in growth media supplemented with FBS, at which time gels were photographed and colonies counted. At least five different non-overlapping areas of the gel were examined at low magnification and at least 150 colonies counted per view area. Data shown are mean $\pm$ SEM. * P < 0.05. (C) Cells grown in 3D collagen I culture or on plastic culture plates under 2D conditions (without replating) were lysed and lysates assayed by Western blotting for expression of focal adhesion or cytoskeletal remodeling proteins.

Figure 6.

BRMS1 diminishes invasion of breast cancer cells in 3D matrigel cultures. (A) Cells plated in 3D Matrigel were allowed to grow into colonies for 12 d in growth media supplemented with FBS. Gels were photographed and colonies counted on day 12 to assess invasion. Images are representative of triplicate experiments. Scale bar = 200 μ m. (B) Total number of colonies, number of invasive and non-invasive colonies was counted. Data shown are mean $\pm$ SEM. * P < 0.05 (C) Colony size was measured in pixels using ImageJ. At least three fields per well of an experiment performed in triplicate were analyzed. Data shown are mean $\pm$ SEM. NS, no statistically significant difference. (D) BRMS1 expression was knocked down with two different shRNA clones. Cell lysates were collected and BRMS1 expression analyzed by Western blot. Fold change in BRMS1 expression was analyzed through ImageJ densitometry. (E) Ability of BRMS1-knockdown cells to invade into 3D matrigel was analyzed. Experiment was done at the same time as data shown in panel A, and vector control and BRMS1-expressing cells used for comparison. (F) Vector, BRMS1-expressing, and BRMS1-knockdown cells were plated onto FBS-coated plates and allowed to adhere for 30 min. Cells were fixed and stained with crystal violet for visualization.

Figure 7.

BRMS1 can be localized to the cytoplasm of MDA-231 and MDA-435 breast cancer cells. (A) BRMS1 expression was analyzed by immunohistochemistry (IHC) in 24 breast cancer patient samples, with several cases exhibiting strong cytoplasmic staining. (B) MDA-231 and MDA-435 vector and BRMS1-expressing cells were analyzed by confocal analysis for expression of BRMS1 (green). Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue) for reference. (C) Cells were subjected to nuclear and cytoplasmic fractionation. Cell lysates were analyzed for BRMS1 by Western blotting.