

Protein Kinase C Regulates $\alpha v \beta 5$ -dependent Cytoskeletal Associations and Focal Adhesion Kinase Phosphorylation

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Abstract. Integrins $\alpha v \beta 3$ and $\alpha v \beta 5$ both mediate cell adhesion to vitronectin yet trigger different postligand binding events. Integrin $\alpha v \beta 3$ is able to induce cell spreading, migration, angiogenesis, and tumor metastasis without additional stimulators, whereas $\alpha v \beta 5$ requires exogenous activation of protein kinase C (PKC) to mediate these processes. To investigate this difference, the ability of $\beta 3$ or $\beta 5$ to induce colocalization of intracellular proteins was assessed by immunofluorescence in hamster CS-1 melanoma cells. We found that $\alpha v \beta 5$ induced colocalization of talin, α -actinin, tensin, and actin very weakly relative to $\alpha v \beta 3$. $\alpha v \beta 5$ was able to efficiently induce colocalization of focal adhesion kinase (FAK); however, it was unable to increase phosphorylation of FAK on tyrosine. Activation of PKC by

adding phorbol ester to $\alpha v \beta 5$ -expressing cells induced spreading, increased colocalization of α -actinin, tensin, vinculin, p130^{cas} and actin, and triggered tyrosine phosphorylation of FAK. Unexpectedly, talin colocalization remained low even after activation of PKC. Treatment of cells with the PKC inhibitor calphostin C inhibited spreading and the colocalization of talin, α -actinin, tensin, and actin for both $\alpha v \beta 3$ and $\alpha v \beta 5$. We conclude that PKC regulates localization of cytoskeletal proteins and phosphorylation of FAK induced by $\alpha v \beta 5$. Our results also show that FAK can be localized independent of its phosphorylation and that cells can spread and induce localization of other focal adhesion proteins in the absence of detectable talin.

INTEGRINS mediate adhesion of cells to extracellular matrix proteins and to other cells. During adhesion, they also form linkages to the cytoskeleton and regulate intracellular signaling pathways, thereby coordinating attachment to cell architecture and gene expression (Burridge et al., 1988; Hynes, 1992; Miyamoto et al., 1995; Schwartz et al., 1995). Despite significant progress towards understanding these phenomena, much remains to be learned about how integrin-dependent events control cell functions.

Integrins are heterodimers, and binding specificity is generated by varied combinations of the 14 α and 8 β subunits identified to date (Hynes, 1992). Binding specificities show a high degree of redundancy, however, such that both integrins and their ligands bind multiple partners. Evidence is emerging that individual receptors mediate distinct functions and trigger distinct signaling pathways (Hynes, 1992; Sastry and Horwitz, 1993; Schwartz et al., 1995).

After initial ligand binding, integrins recruit a number of signaling and cytoskeletal proteins to sites of adhesion (Burridge et al., 1988; Miyamoto et al., 1995). While the precise organization of these structures remains to be determined, α -actinin and talin have been shown to bind directly to sequences in the $\beta 1$ cytoplasmic domain (Horwitz

et al., 1986; Otey et al., 1990). Similar sequences are present in several other integrin β chains, suggesting that these interactions are conserved. Both α -actinin and talin have been reported to bind vinculin (Belkin and Koteliansky, 1987; Wachsstock et al., 1987), which can associate with both tensin and paxillin (Wilkins et al., 1986; Turner et al., 1990). Focal adhesion kinase (FAK)¹ has been reported to bind to peptides from the integrin $\beta 1$ cytoplasmic domain, to talin, to paxillin, and to p130^{cas} (Polte and Hanks, 1995; Bellis et al., 1995; Chen et al., 1995; Schaller and Parsons, 1995; Schaller et al., 1995). There is evidence that these linkages are subject to regulation, although the details are not well understood.

Integrin function is regulated by cytokines and other soluble factors in a variety of systems. In most cases, these factors modulate the avidity of integrins for their ligands, by altering either the conformation of the receptor or the lateral distribution in the plasma membrane (for review see Schwartz et al., 1995). Integrin $\alpha v \beta 5$ represents an interesting exception to this rule, since it binds very well to its ligand vitronectin (VN), but in the absence of exogenous soluble factors, it fails to promote cell spreading or migration (Wayner et al., 1991; Klemke et al., 1994)². By

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1. *Abbreviations used in this paper:* FAK, focal adhesion kinase; FN, fibronectin; PKC, protein kinase C; VN, vitronectin.

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contrast, the $\beta 3$ subunit, which is 56% homologous to $\beta 5$, also pairs with αv and binds VN but induces spreading and migration in the same cells in the absence of cytokines (Wayner et al., 1991; Filardo et al., 1995). However, upon stimulation with either phorbol ester or cytokines to activate protein kinase C (PKC), $\alpha v\beta 5$ acquires the ability to mediate cell spreading and migration in vitro (Klemke et al., 1994; Yebra et al., 1995). This PKC-dependent activation correlates with the ability of $\alpha v\beta 5$ to promote angiogenesis by endothelial cells and metastasis by tumor cells in vivo (Friedlander et al., 1995).²

The aim of this study was to investigate how PKC regulates the function of $\alpha v\beta 5$. While previous studies suggested that PKC may alter connections to the cytoskeleton,² the molecular mechanism explaining this observation remains unclear. We therefore assayed the ability of $\alpha v\beta 5$ to induce localization of a number of cytoskeletal and signaling proteins before and after activation of PKC. Our results show that PKC does regulate linkages to specific cytoskeletal proteins. We also find that FAK colocalized with $\alpha v\beta 5$ independent of PKC but that its phosphorylation is PKC dependent.

Materials and Methods

Cell Culture

CS-1 melanoma cells transfected with cDNAs encoding either the integrin $\beta 3$ subunit or the integrin $\beta 5$ subunit have been described previously (Filardo et al., 1995). Cells were maintained in RPMI media supplemented with 10% FBS (GIBCO BRL, Gaithersburg, MD).

Reagents

Human plasma VN was purified as previously described (Yatohgo et al., 1988). Fibronectin (FN) was prepared from human plasma by affinity chromatography on gelatin Sepharose (Miekkka et al., 1982). Rhodamine phalloidin was purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR). All other chemicals, unless otherwise noted, were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO).

Antibodies

The monoclonal antibodies LM609 ($\alpha v\beta 3$) and P1F6 ($\alpha v\beta 5$) have been described previously (Cheresh, 1987; Wayner et al., 1991). Monoclonal antibodies directed against vinculin and talin were purchased from Sigma Immunochemicals (St. Louis, MO), as was a rabbit polyclonal antibody directed against α -actinin. A rabbit polyclonal antibody directed against tensin was a generous gift of Dr. Lan-Bo Chen. Rabbit antibodies directed against p130^{cas} were a gift from Amy Bouton (University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA), and a polyclonal rabbit antiserum directed against talin was a gift from Keith Burrige (University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC). Two antibodies directed against FAK, the rabbit polyclonal antibody BC3 and the mouse monoclonal antibody 2A7, were generous gifts from Dr. J. Thomas Parsons. The mouse monoclonal antibody 4G10, directed against phosphotyrosine, was purchased from Upstate Biotechnology, Inc. (Lake Placid, NY). Fluorescein- or rhodamine-conjugated, affinity-purified secondary antibodies were purchased from Cappel Laboratories (Organon-Teknika, West Chester, PA).

Adhesion Assays

24-well tissue culture cluster plates (Costar Corp., Cambridge, MA) were coated overnight at 4°C with 10 μ g/ml VN in PBS, pH 7.4. Before use, wells were blocked with 10 mg/ml heat-denatured BSA. Cells were detached with trypsin and washed once in RPMI containing 1% nuclease- and protease-free BSA, 10 μ g/ml aprotinin and 10 μ g/ml leupeptin (RB), and 250 μ g/ml soybean trypsin inhibitor. Cells were resuspended in RB and plated at 10⁵ cells/well. At times indicated, adherent cells were washed once with medium and three times with PBS. Cells were incubated with

200 μ l of a solution containing 50 mM sodium acetate, pH 5.0, 0.4% Triton X-100, and 3 mg/ml nitrophenylphosphate (No. 104, Sigma Chemical Co.) for 1 h at room temperature. After the addition of 50 μ l 1M NaOH to each well, samples were transferred to 96-well plates and the OD at 405 nm was determined. Assays were performed in triplicate.

Bead Conjugation

VN at 1.5 mg/ml final concentration or FN at 0.5 mg/ml, in 50 mM borate, pH 9.5, with 10 μ g/ml aprotinin and 10 μ g/ml leupeptin, was conjugated to 2 \times 10⁸ tosyl-activated 4.5- μ m polystyrene beads/ml (DYNAL, Inc., Great Neck, NY). Samples were incubated for 24 h at room temperature with gentle rotation. Conjugated beads were washed four times with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 9.5. Free tosyl groups were blocked in the same buffer plus aprotinin and leupeptin by incubation for 16 h at 4°C with gentle rotation. Beads were washed twice and stored in sterile PBS containing 1% protease-free BSA.

Binding of Beads to Cells

Cells in suspension were incubated with VN- or FN-coated beads as previously described (Lewis and Schwartz, 1995), except that RPMI was used instead of DME, and 10 μ g/ml each aprotinin and leupeptin were included as protease inhibitors. Cells and beads were incubated for 1–2 h at 37°C.

For activation studies, cells and beads were incubated for 30 min at 37°C to initiate binding. After the addition of 10 nM PMA, samples were incubated for an additional 30 min. Calphostin C (200 nM) was incubated with suspended cells before the addition of beads, at 37°C for 30 min, under fluorescent room lighting to induce activation.

Cell Spreading on VN

Cells were detached with trypsin, washed in RB containing 250 μ g/ml soybean trypsin inhibitor, and allowed to attach in RB to VN-coated glass coverslips for 30 min at 37°C. PMA at 10 nM was added to some samples to induce spreading. After an additional 30 min at 37°C, all samples were fixed with 3.7% formaldehyde in 0.5 M Pipes buffer containing 1 mM MgCl₂ and 1 mM EGTA and either photographed or processed for immunofluorescence.

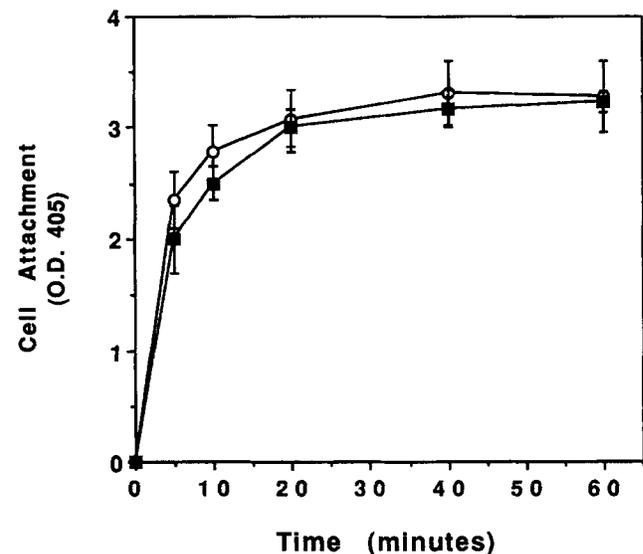


Figure 1. Attachment to VN is equivalent for $\alpha v\beta 3$ and $\alpha v\beta 5$. CS-1 cells expressing $\alpha v\beta 3$ or $\alpha v\beta 5$ were incubated for the times indicated in wells coated with 10 μ g/ml VN. After adhesion, unattached cells were removed by washing, and the attached cells assayed with the phosphatase substrate nitrophenylphosphate. The OD 405 nm is directly proportional to cell number. Each data point represents the mean \pm the standard deviation of triplicate samples.

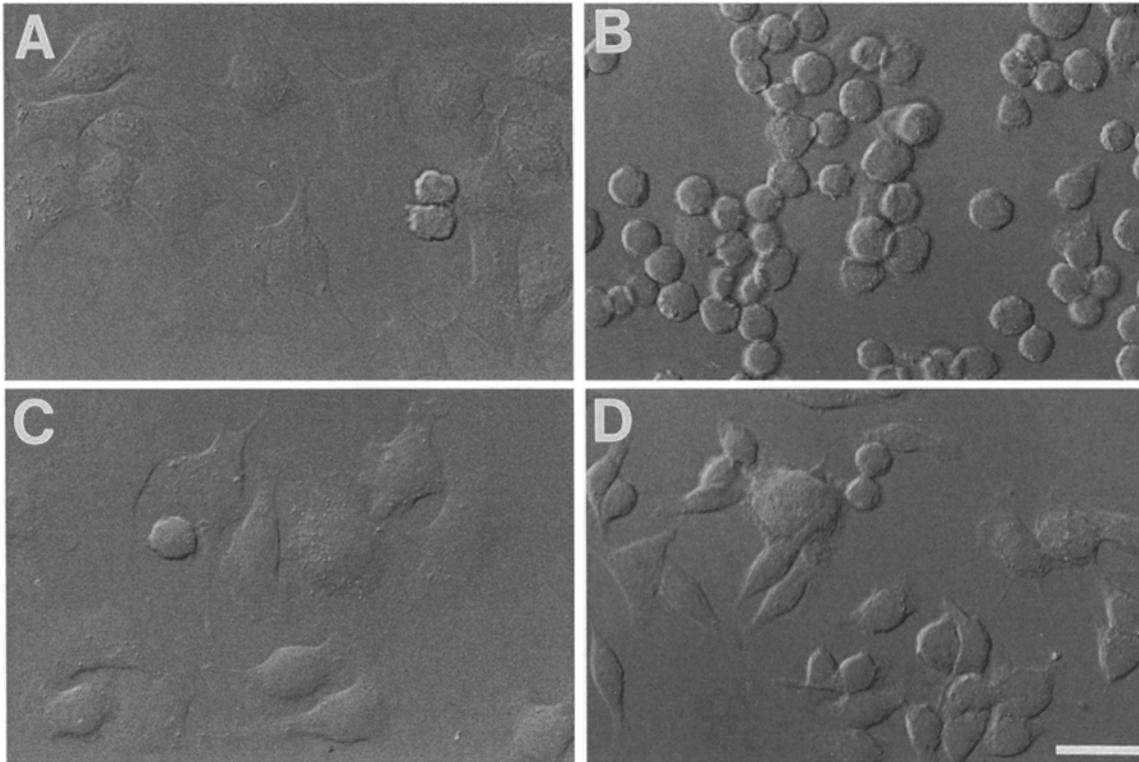


Figure 2. Spreading of $\alpha v \beta 5$ CS-1 cells on VN depends on PKC. $\beta 3$ -transfected cells (A and C) or $\beta 5$ -transfected cells (B and D) were allowed to attach to glass coverslips coated with 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ VN for 30 min at 37°C. PMA at 10 nM was added (C and D), and all samples were incubated for an additional 30 min. Cells were then fixed and Nomarski micrographs taken using Tmax 400 film. Bar, 20 μm .

Microscopy

Either suspended cells with attached beads or cells spread on VN were processed for immunofluorescence as previously described (Lewis and Schwartz, 1995). Samples were viewed on an inverted fluorescence microscope (Nikon Inc., Melville, NY) equipped with a 60 \times oil objective (Olympus Corp., Lake Success, NY). Quantitation was performed also as described previously (Lewis and Schwartz, 1995). Nomarski images of attached cells were obtained using a microscope equipped with a 40 \times objective (model BX60; Olympus Corp.). For confocal microscopy, immunofluorescent samples were scanned with a laser confocal microscope (model MRC 600; Bio-Rad Labs, Hercules, CA) equipped with a 63 \times objective (Carl Zeiss Inc., Thornwood, NY). Photographs were taken at the cell-substratum interface.

Cell Lysates

VN at 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ was coated onto tissue culture plates for 2–3 h at 37°C. Plates were washed twice with PBS, blocked with 10 mg/ml denatured BSA for 5 min, and washed again three times. Suspension culture plates were made by coating tissue culture plates with the denatured BSA. Cells were detached with trypsin, washed once with RB containing 250 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ soybean trypsin inhibitor, and plated in RB containing 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ each aprotinin and leupeptin. Cells were incubated at 37°C. At 30 min, 10 nM PMA was added to some samples with gentle swirling to mix. Cells were harvested at 60 min by first placing all dishes on ice and then washing each three times with ice cold PBS. Each 10-cm plate of cells was lysed with 0.5 ml RIPA buffer containing 2 mM sodium vanadate, 1 mM PMSF, and 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ each of aprotinin and leupeptin; RIPA buffer consisted of 10 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.4, with 158 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, 1% deoxycholate, and 0.1% SDS. Cell material was scraped off the plates and allowed to lyse for an additional 30 min on ice. Samples were centrifuged for 30 min at 14,000 g, at 4°C, and the supernatants were removed. Protein concentrations were determined using the Pierce BCA assay (Pierce, Rockford, IL).

Immunoprecipitations

For each gel lane, cell lysate containing 750 μg of protein was incubated with 5 μl BC3 antibody for 1 h on ice. After the addition of 20 μl protein G-Sepharose (Pierce), samples were rotated at 4°C for 4 h. Beads were collected by centrifugation for 1 min at 3,000 g and washed five times with RIPA buffer containing fresh protease inhibitors and vanadate. Immunoprecipitates were solubilized by dissolving in gel sample buffer and boiled for 5 min.

Immunoblots

Immunoprecipitates were run on a 6% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and electrophoretically transferred to nitrocellulose paper. Blots were blocked overnight at 4°C in 3% nuclease- and protease-free BSA in pH 7.0 Tris-buffered saline (TBS) for the 4G10 antibody and 5% milk in TBS for the 2A7 antibody. Primary antibody incubations were for 3 h at room temperature with 1:2,000 dilutions of the 4G10 and 1:750 dilutions of the 2A7 in 3% BSA or 3% milk, respectively. Blots were washed three times for 10 min in TBS containing 0.5% Tween 20 and incubated 2 h with a 1:3,000 dilution of horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (BioSource International, Camarillo, CA). Blots were again washed and visualized using chemiluminescence (ECL kit; Amersham Corp., Arlington Heights, IL) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Results

Attachment of Cells to Vitronectin

Parent CS-1 melanoma cells lack expression of both $\alpha v \beta 3$ and $\alpha v \beta 5$ and thus fail to bind vitronectin (Thomas et al., 1993). These cells, however, can attach to and spread on FN via integrin $\alpha 5 \beta 1$. When CS-1 cells are transfected with

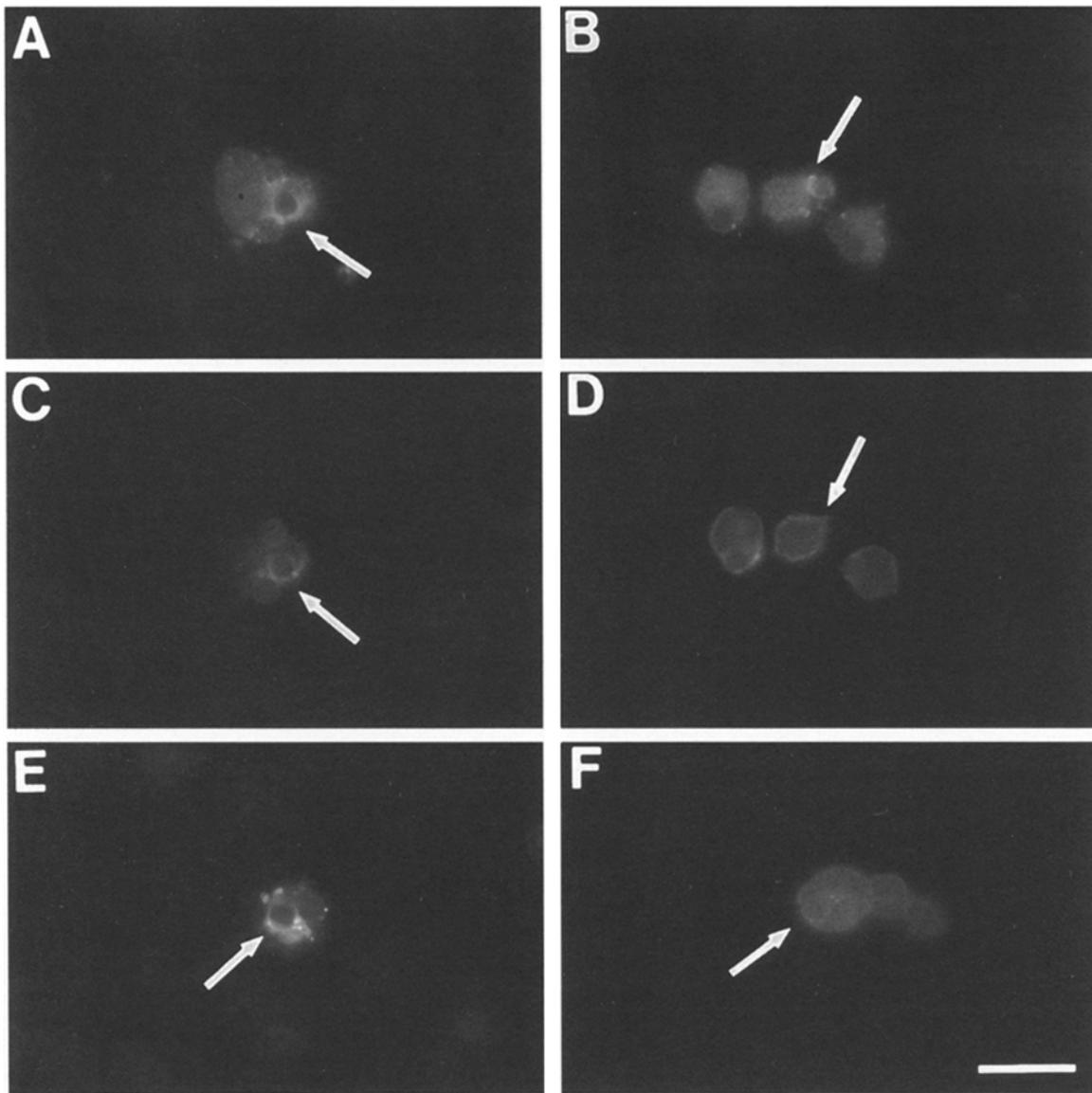


Figure 3. Cytoskeletal recruitment by integrin $\alpha\beta 3$ and $\alpha\beta 5$. VN-coated beads were incubated 60 min with CS-1 hamster melanoma cells expressing either $\alpha\beta 3$ (A, C, and E) or $\alpha\beta 5$ (B, D, and F) and then fixed. Cells in the top four panels were double-labeled with antibodies specific for the integrins (A and B) and with rhodamine phalloidin to stain f-actin (C and D). Cells in E and F were labeled with a single antibody specific for talin. Arrows indicate position of beads. Bar, 20 μm .

expression vectors coding for integrin $\beta 3$ or $\beta 5$, they express $\alpha\beta 3$ or $\alpha\beta 5$ on their surfaces and acquire the ability to attach to VN (Filardo et al., 1995). Transfected cell populations were sorted by FACS[®] to select for equivalent expression. Analysis of these cell lines by FACS[®] (Filardo and Cheresh, manuscript submitted for publication) has demonstrated that they do express equivalent levels. Therefore, differences observed between $\beta 3$ - or $\beta 5$ -transfected cells to mediate VN-stimulated reorganization of cytoskeletal proteins resulted from properties of $\alpha\beta 3$ or $\alpha\beta 5$ and were not due to differences in general levels of expression.

The ability of these cell lines expressing $\beta 3$ or $\beta 5$ to adhere to VN was also assessed. As shown in Fig. 1, both types of cell adhere well to VN with very similar kinetics

of binding. Additional experiments demonstrated that parent CS-1 cells showed no adhesion, and that adhesion of $\alpha\beta 3$ and $\alpha\beta 5$ lines were inhibited by blocking monoclonal antibodies to $\alpha\beta 3$ and $\alpha\beta 5$, respectively (Filardo, E.J., and D.A. Cheresh, manuscript submitted for publication). Thus, $\alpha\beta 3$ and $\alpha\beta 5$ are expressed at similar levels and mediate attachment to VN equally well.

Spreading of $\beta 3$ or $\beta 5$ Cells on VN

The ability of $\beta 3$ - and $\beta 5$ -transfected cells to mediate spreading on VN was assessed. When plated in culture medium containing serum or on purified VN (Fig. 2 A), only the $\beta 3$ -transfected cells spread; $\beta 5$ CS-1 cells remained adherent but entirely round (Fig. 2 B). By contrast, $\beta 3$ - and

$\beta 5$ -transfected cells spread equally well on FN via endogenous integrin $\alpha 5\beta 1$, demonstrating that the inability to spread was a property of the integrin and not the cell line.

Previous work has shown that migration, angiogenesis, and metastasis via integrin $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ can be induced when cells are stimulated to activate PKC (Klemke et al., 1994; Friedlander et al., 1995).² To determine whether $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ -containing CS-1 cells could spread on VN after PKC activation, phorbol ester was added to cells attached to VN, and the cells were incubated for an additional 30 min. After treatment, $\beta 3$ -transfected cells were unchanged since they spread in the absence of PMA (Fig. 2 C). However, after activation for 5–10 min, many of the $\beta 5$ -transfected cells were starting to spread on VN, and by 30 min, most of these cells showed some degree of spreading (Fig. 2 D). Additional experiments showed that the anti- $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ monoclonal antibody P1F6 blocked this spreading event (not shown). Additionally, calphostin C, a specific inhibitor of PKC, completely blocked the effects of PMA on spreading mediated by either $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ or $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ (not shown). Thus, $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ is capable of mediating cell spreading on VN, but unlike $\alpha \nu \beta 3$, this spreading seems to require an additional signal from PKC.

Interactions of $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ or $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ with Cytoskeletal Proteins

To determine why $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ fails to mediate cell spreading without exogenous activation of PKC, we investigated the ability of $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ clustered by VN-coated microbeads to induce colocalization of cytoskeletal proteins, as shown previously for $\beta 1$ and FN (Lewis and Schwartz, 1995; Miyamoto et al., 1995). VN-coated beads did not adhere to untransfected CS-1 cells (not shown) but bound efficiently to either $\beta 3$ - or $\beta 5$ -transfected cells. Binding of VN-coated beads to cells expressing $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ or $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ induced localization of both integrins to the interface with the beads equally well (Fig. 3). As expected, $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ clustered by VN-coated beads also induced colocalization of actin and talin. However, $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ did not induce detectable colocalization of either of these two proteins. Quantitation of results from these and additional experiments revealed that binding of $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ cells to VN beads induced high levels of colocalization of actin, α -actinin, talin, tensin, and FAK, which is consistent with its ability to promote formation of focal adhesions and cell spreading (Fig. 4). Clustering of $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ integrin, however, induced significantly weaker colocalization of actin, α -actinin, talin, or tensin ($P < 0.05$). Therefore, the inability of $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ to mediate spreading of cells on VN correlates with diminished reorganization of key cytoskeletal proteins after binding of VN beads.

Surprisingly, $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ induced colocalization of FAK more effectively than did $\alpha \nu \beta 3$. The staining with the anti-FAK antibody was very bright, which appears to account for the fact that accumulation of FAK exceeded that of $\alpha \nu \beta 5$. As a control for these experiments, beads coated with FN were bound to cells, and localization of the cytoskeletal proteins was examined by immunofluorescence. FN beads induced similar colocalization of actin and talin, as well as FAK, in $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ and $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ cell lines (Fig. 5). Colocalization of α -actinin was somewhat lower in $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ cells. We do not fully understand this result, but it suggests that integrin

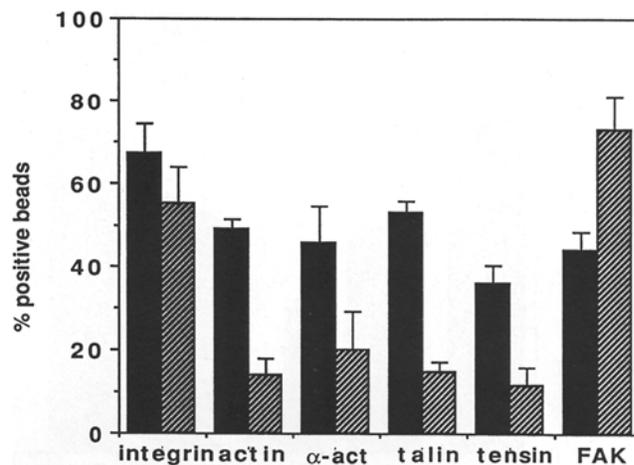


Figure 4. Quantitation of cytoskeletal recruitment. Suspended cells expressing either $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ or $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ were incubated with VN-coated polystyrene beads, processed for immunofluorescence, and scored for colocalization. The ordinate indicates the percentage of beads positive for immunofluorescence for each antigen. Data are expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation from three separate experiments. Solid bars, $\beta 3$ -transfected cells; hatched bars, $\beta 5$ -transfected cells.

$\alpha \nu \beta 5$ may exert some dominant negative effect on this protein. Nevertheless, these results show that the differences in localization of actin, talin, and FAK are due to the different integrins and not to properties of the cell lines.

Additional controls to test the specificity of integrin localization were performed. They showed that FN-coated beads failed to induce detectable accumulation of $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ or $\alpha \nu \beta 5$; conversely, VN-coated beads failed to induce accumulation of $\alpha 5\beta 1$ on either cell type. Finally, activation with PMA (see below) did not trigger any changes in the specificity of integrin localization (data not shown).

Interactions of $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ After Activation of PKC

We next investigated if the conditions that trigger spreading of the $\beta 5$ -transfected cells alter the ability of $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ to induce colocalization of cytoskeletal proteins. Cells in which $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ was clustered with VN-coated beads were stimulated by PMA, and samples were analyzed by immunofluorescence (Fig. 6). Stimulation of the cells with PMA resulted in large increases in the levels of actin, α -actinin, vinculin, tensin, and cas that colocalized with $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ at the bead–cell interface ($P < 0.0005$). Unexpectedly, colocalization of talin with $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ remained low even after stimulation ($P < 0.375$). In contrast, stimulation with PMA did not change the ability of $\alpha 5\beta 1$ clustered with FN-coated beads to recruit both α -actinin and talin (not shown).

Calphostin C inhibited the colocalization of α -actinin and talin with $\alpha \nu \beta 3$ and blocked the increases in colocalization of α -actinin and talin with $\alpha \nu \beta 5$ induced by PMA (Fig. 7). These results support the notion that the effects of PMA on the localization of these proteins are mediated by PKC and indicate that for $\alpha \nu \beta 3$, these cytoskeletal interactions are similarly regulated by PKC.

Analysis of Cells by Confocal Microscopy

Beads mimic the generation of focal adhesion sites and re-

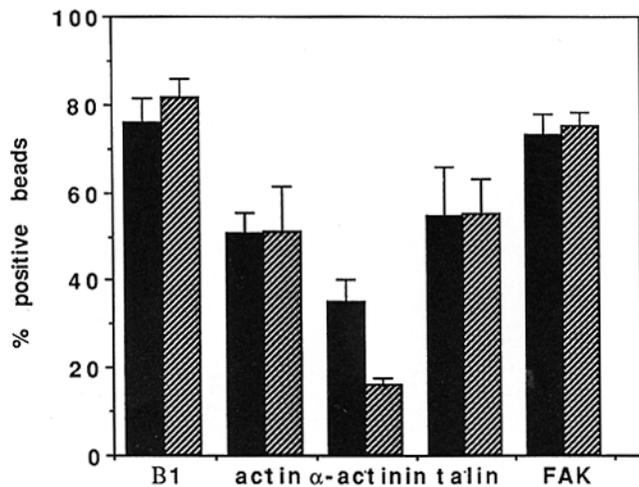


Figure 5. Recruitment of proteins with fibronectin-coated beads. Suspended cells expressing either α v β 3 or α v β 5 were incubated with FN-coated polystyrene beads, processed for immunofluorescence, and scored for colocalization. The ordinate indicates the percentage of beads positive for immunofluorescence for each antigen. Data are expressed as the mean and standard deviation. *Solid bars*, β 3-transfected cells; *hatched bars*, β 5-transfected cells.

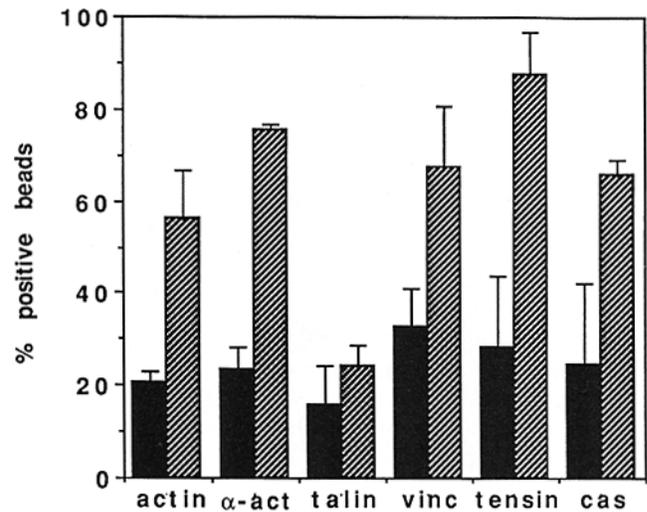


Figure 6. Stimulation of α v β 5 cells with PMA. Suspended cells expressing α v β 5 were incubated with VN-coated polystyrene beads. After attachment of beads to cells, 10 nM PMA was added to some samples. All samples were fixed after further incubation, processed for immunofluorescence, and scored for colocalization. The ordinate indicates the percentage of beads positive for immunofluorescence for each antigen. Data are expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation. *Solid bars*, without PMA; *hatched bars*, with PMA.

organization of cytoskeleton necessary for cell spreading. To confirm that 4.5- μ m beads provide a suitable model for interactions with planar substrata, we examined the localization of cytoskeletal proteins using confocal microscopy to analyze cells plated on coverslips coated with VN (Fig. 8). Fluorescence in the 1.0- μ m section nearest the substratum was analyzed. As expected, the unstimulated, round α v β 5 cells exhibited primarily a diffuse staining pattern for α v β 5, with some concentration of fluorescence at the edges of the cells. Staining for α -actinin, talin, and tensin were also diffuse and showed only slight overlap with α v β 5. After activation of the cells by PMA, both α v β 5 and α -actinin became distinctly polarized and showed a high degree of colocalization. Tensin also colocalized strongly with α v β 5. Talin, however, failed to colocalize with β 5 and remained diffuse. These results therefore confirm those obtained using the bead assay.

Phosphorylation of FAK

We next asked if the colocalization of FAK with α v β 5 correlates with changes in FAK phosphorylation. We therefore compared the expression levels and phosphorylation state of FAK for the β 3- and β 5-transfected cells, with and without activation of PKC (Fig. 9). Both β 3- and β 5-transfected cells express equivalent amounts of FAK, which is unaffected by adhesion to VN or activation by PMA (Fig. 9 B). As expected, phosphorylation of FAK on tyrosine residues increased in α v β 3 cells upon adhesion to VN, and showed no further increase following treatment with PMA (Fig. 9 A). For α v β 5 cells, the phosphorylation of FAK remained low after attachment to VN, correlating with their failure to spread. After treatment with PMA to induce cell spreading, the phosphorylation of FAK increased several-fold and was now equivalent to phosphorylation in well-spread α v β 3 cells (Fig. 9 C). Therefore, ligand binding to

integrin α v β 5 triggers localization of FAK but not its phosphorylation. Only after exogenous activation of PKC does FAK become phosphorylated, in parallel with cell spreading.

Discussion

Integrins mediate cell adhesion events that are critical for tissue morphogenesis, wound repair, and cell motility. The biological activity of integrins involves binding to extracellular matrix proteins and consequent reorganization of the actin cytoskeleton and generation of intracellular signals (Burrige et al., 1988; Hynes, 1992; Schwartz et al., 1995). The integrins α v β 3 and α v β 5 both bind VN but have different requirements for mediating subsequent biological events. Induction of cell spreading, migration, angiogenesis, and tumor cell metastasis by α v β 5 in carcinoma and endothelial cells requires additional activation by cytokines, whereas α v β 3 can induce these events without additional activators (Klemke et al., 1994; Friedlander et al., 1995).² This observation is interesting in light of the fact that α v β 5 is very widely expressed in normal tissues (Felding-Habermann and Cheresch, 1993). In many of these tissues, unregulated cell spreading and motility would likely be deleterious. In comparison, expression of α v β 3 is highly regulated, appearing primarily on motile cell types in vivo, such as angiogenic endothelial cells, migrating smooth muscle cells, and invasive melanoma cells (Clyman et al., 1992; Brooks et al., 1994; Filardo et al., 1995). Thus, motility mediated by both α v β 3 and α v β 5 is regulated, but by distinct mechanisms.

The regulation of integrins by cytokines ("inside-out sig-

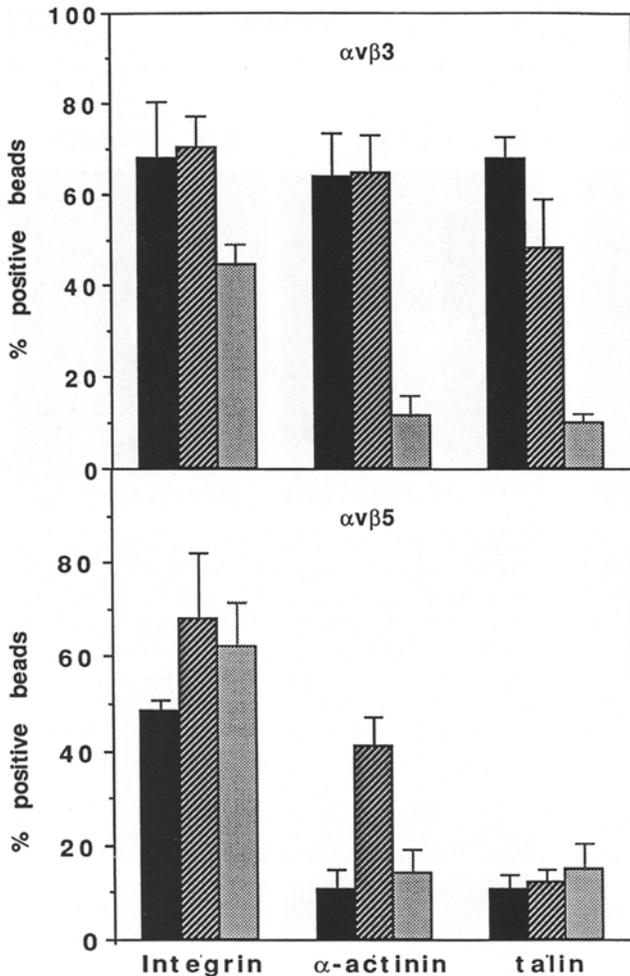


Figure 7. Inhibition of PKC with calphostin C. Suspended cells expressing $\alpha v \beta 3$ or $\alpha v \beta 5$ were incubated with 200 nM calphostin C for 30 min at 37°C before the addition of VN-coated beads (stippled bars). PMA at 10 nM was added 5 min before the addition of the beads (hatched and stippled bars); samples without any pretreatment are shown in solid bars. All samples were incubated with VN-coated beads, processed for immunofluorescence, and scored for colocalization. The ordinate indicates the percentage of beads positive for immunofluorescence for each antigen. Data are expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation.

naling”) has been well-studied. The platelet integrin $\alpha IIb \beta 3$ is activated by thrombin via PKC, and the leukocyte integrin $\beta 2$ also requires cell activation. In these cases, cytokine regulation involves modulation of the integrin affinity for its ligand. In other cases, adhesion of cells to immobilized ligand is regulated by changes in integrin clustering without changes in affinity (for review see Schwartz et al., 1995). The unusual feature of cytokine regulation of $\alpha v \beta 5$ function is that ligand binding is unchanged, but postligand binding events differ. We therefore designed experiments to investigate the molecular basis for cytokine regulation of $\alpha v \beta 5$ function.

These experiments lead to several novel observations. First, upon binding to immobilized VN, unactivated $\alpha v \beta 5$ induces the localized accumulation of actin, α -actinin, talin, tensin, p130^{cas}, and vinculin very poorly relative to

integrin $\alpha v \beta 3$. Upon activation of PKC, $\alpha v \beta 5$ acquires the ability to recruit actin, α -actinin, tensin, vinculin, and p130^{cas}, but not talin. This suggests that PKC activation may exert effects on the conformation or phosphorylation state of either the $\beta 5$ cytoplasmic tail, the cytoskeletal proteins, or both. The induced colocalization of these proteins likely accounts for, on the molecular level, the observation that unlike other integrins, $\alpha v \beta 5$ requires exogenous activation of PKC to mediate cell spreading and migration (Klemke et al., 1994).

It may be relevant that cell spreading and formation of focal adhesions via other integrins has been found to require PKC (Woods and Couchman, 1992; Vuori and Ruoslahti, 1993). Adhesion of HeLa cells to collagen triggers release of diacylglycerol and translocation of PKC to the membrane fraction, and adhesion of 3T3 cells to fibronectin also triggers translocation of PKC (Chun and Jacobson, 1992; Vuori and Ruoslahti, 1993; Auer and Jacobson, 1995). In both these systems, inhibition of PKC blocks cell spreading. While these events are due primarily to $\beta 1$ integrins, $\alpha v \beta 3$ is very likely to behave similarly. Taken together, these results suggest that integrins such as $\alpha v \beta 3$ or $\alpha 5 \beta 1$ trigger PKC themselves and so do not require additional factors. Integrin $\alpha v \beta 5$, however, may be unable to trigger activation of PKC and therefore requires exogenous activation. We are currently attempting to test this hypothesis.

The cytoplasmic domain of $\beta 5$ is structurally unique among the integrin β subunits $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$, $\beta 3$, $\beta 5$, $\beta 6$, and $\beta 7$ (Wayner et al., 1991; Sastry and Horwitz, 1993), which are otherwise quite similar. The cytoplasmic tails of other β subunits have been shown to interact directly with the cytoskeletal proteins talin and α -actinin (Tapley et al., 1989; Otey et al., 1990), and regions have been defined that are critical for these interactions to occur (Reszka et al., 1992; Lewis and Schwartz, 1995; Schaller et al., 1995). These regions include the two “NPXY” sequence motifs that are predicted to form one face of a helix in $\beta 1$ and other β subunits. These sequences are important for localization of $\beta 1$ to focal adhesions and for $\beta 3$ -mediated cell migration (Reszka et al., 1992; Filardo et al., 1995). Indeed, for $\beta 1$, two regions surrounding these motifs have been shown to mediate interactions either with α -actinin, or with talin, actin, and FAK (Tapley et al., 1989; Lewis and Schwartz, 1995; Schaller et al., 1995). It is therefore interesting that the spacing between the two NPXY motifs is conserved in other integrins, but that $\beta 5$ has an insertion that increases the spacing from 8 to 16 amino acid residues. The unique cytoplasmic tail of $\beta 5$, when expressed in CHO cells as a chimera with the extracellular and transmembrane domains of $\beta 1$, has been found to confer properties of $\beta 5$ and not $\beta 1$; these properties include increased cell migration and lack of localization to focal adhesions (Pasqualini and Hemler, 1994). It seems likely that this difference in primary structure also accounts for the reduced interaction of $\alpha v \beta 5$ with talin. Evidently, however, $\alpha v \beta 5$ can still interact with other cytoskeletal proteins to mediate cell spreading.

While it is known that integrins can bind directly to talin and to α -actinin (Horwitz et al., 1986; Otey et al., 1990), exactly how these interactions link integrin to the actin cytoskeleton is still unclear. Our data show that the interaction between $\alpha v \beta 5$ and α -actinin appears to be regulated

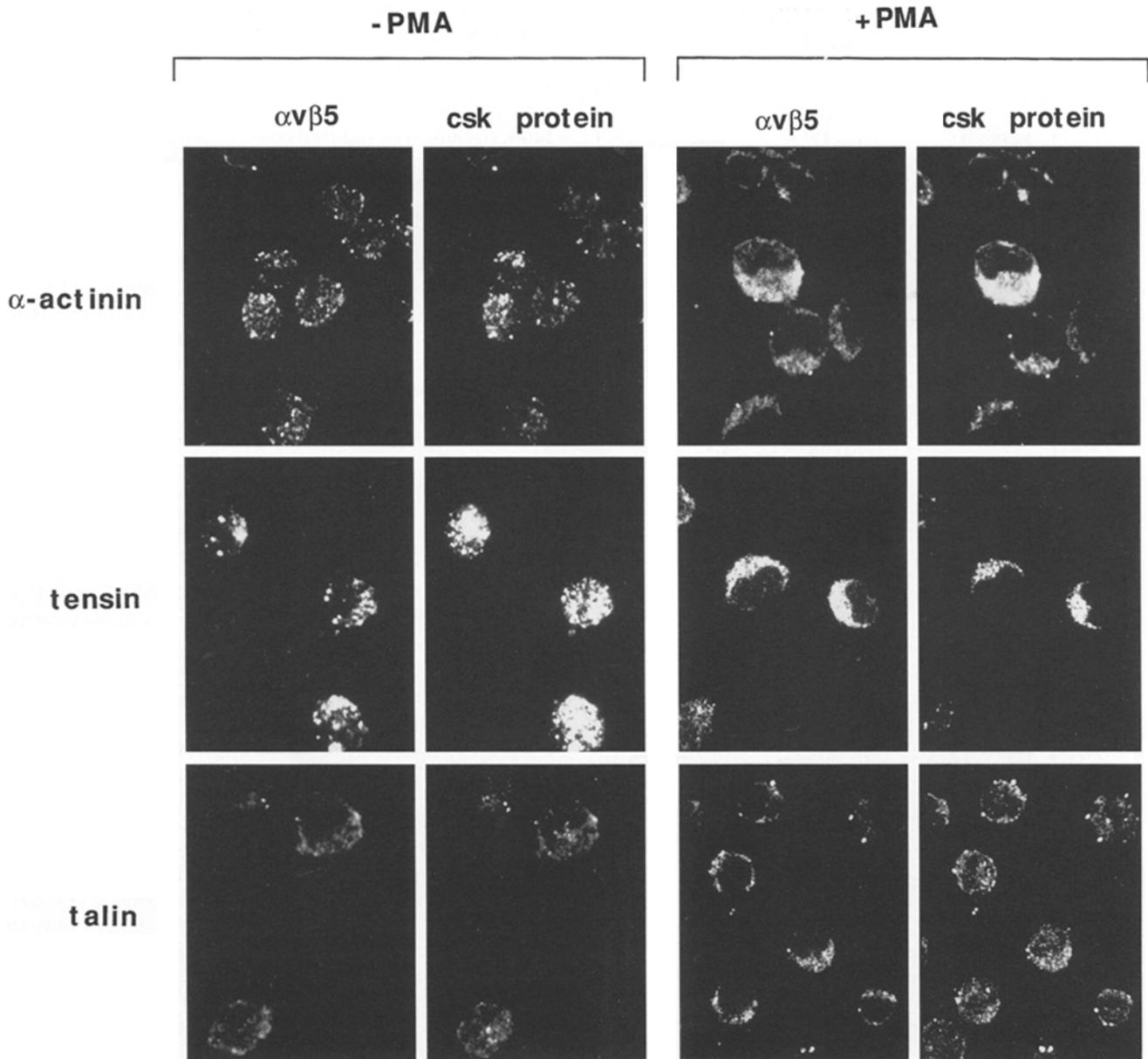


Figure 8. Confocal analysis of cells on coverslips. $\beta 5$ -transfected cells were plated onto glass coverslips coated with 10 mg/ml VN and allowed to attach for 30 min at 37°C. PMA at 10 nM was added to some samples (right half of figure), and all samples were incubated for an additional 30 min. Cells were fixed, processed for immunofluorescence, and double-labeled with antibodies directed against $\alpha v \beta 5$ (P1F6) and either α -actinin, tensin, or talin. Samples were scanned with a laser confocal microscope, and photographs were taken of images near the cell-substratum interface. *csk*, cytoskeletal protein (listed to left of each set of photographs).

and to require activation of PKC. This is consistent with studies involving neutrophils, where exogenous activation has been shown to regulate the interaction between α -actinin and $\beta 2$ (Pavalko and LaRoche, 1993). It is unknown how activation might regulate this binding at the molecular level or if the interaction is regulated for other β subunits. Our data also reveal that $\alpha v \beta 5$ is unable to efficiently recruit talin, with or without activation. While cells were able to spread without recruiting talin, our data do not exclude its importance in cell spreading or migration mediated by other integrins.

Our data bear upon a number of other issues related to

the organization of focal contacts. For example, FAK has been shown to bind peptides from the integrin β subunit cytoplasmic domain, talin, and p130^{cas} (Chen et al., 1995; Polte and Hanks, 1995; Schaller et al., 1995). It is possible that talin or other proteins are present at undetectably low levels before activation of PKC. It does, however, appear that FAK is present in the absence of detectable levels of talin or p130^{cas} and that upon activation, the level of p130^{cas} increases without any increase in FAK. Thus, within the limits of the assay, it is unlikely that FAK requires talin or cas for its localization. Furthermore, if FAK binds p130^{cas} in focal adhesions, that binding must be regu-

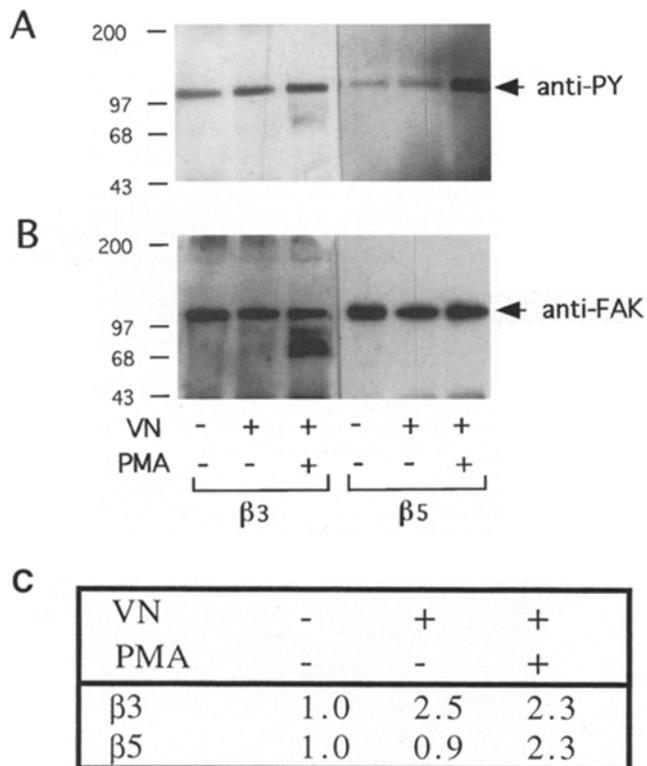


Figure 9. Phosphorylation of FAK requires stimulation by PMA. Cells expressing either $\alpha v\beta 3$ or $\alpha v\beta 5$ were either kept in suspension or plated onto VN for 30 min; 10 nM PMA was added to some samples, and all samples were incubated for an additional 30 min. Cells were lysed with RIPA buffer, and FAK was immunoprecipitated (A and B). Samples were resolved on 6% gels, transferred to nitrocellulose, and blots were labeled with antibodies against phosphotyrosine (mAb 4G10; A) or FAK (mAb 2A7; B). Blots were quantitated by densitometry, with the level of FAK phosphorylation corrected for the amount of FAK immunoprecipitated for each sample (C). Fold activation is relative to cells in suspension.

lated. Our results also suggest that the associations of vinculin, tensin, and cas with $\alpha v\beta 5$ do not depend on the presence of talin.

To our surprise, FAK was present at high levels in clusters of $\alpha v\beta 5$ before activation, but this FAK contained low levels of phosphotyrosine. After activation of PKC, FAK phosphorylation on tyrosine increased substantially, consistent with reports that PKC regulates both $\alpha IIB\beta 3$ - and $\alpha 5\beta 1$ -mediated FAK phosphorylation (Vuori and Ruoslahti, 1993; Haimovich et al., 1996). However, the colocalization of FAK did not increase further. These results lead to the important and novel conclusion that FAK can associate with a component of focal adhesions before and independent of its activation. This conclusion is consistent with a report that FAK can bind to the $\beta 1$ cytoplasmic region in vitro (Schaller et al., 1995) and with results showing that FAK is localized to clusters of $\alpha 5\beta 1$ in the presence of cytochalasin D or tyrosine kinase inhibitors.

The integrins $\alpha v\beta 3$ and $\alpha v\beta 5$ have previously been shown to perform different functions. In addition to their differential localization on the cell surface (Wayner et al., 1991), an antibody blocking $\beta 3$ has been shown to prevent

tumor-induced angiogenesis, whereas an antibody against $\beta 5$ had no effect (Brooks et al., 1994). These two integrins have also been shown to regulate two distinct pathways of angiogenesis (Friedlander et al., 1995). Furthermore, unlike $\alpha v\beta 3$, $\alpha v\beta 5$ can direct cell migration only after activation of PKC, which requires protein synthesis (Yebra et al., 1995). Taken together, these studies suggest that $\alpha v\beta 3$ and $\alpha v\beta 5$ integrins initiate distinct events following binding to the same ligand. Our data provide a molecular explanation for these phenomena.

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