

# **Genotype-phenotype relations in patient-derived point mutations in collagen II**

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## Abstract

Collagen II is the major collagen present in the extracellular matrix of cartilage, in addition it is found in the vitreous of the eye and it is also detected during early embryogenesis. Due to the complexity of the biosynthesis, assembly and secretion, collagen II is highly susceptible to mutations leading to disease states which are broadly classified as chondrodysplasias. Most of these mutations are substitutions of glycine in the Gly-X-Y repeats in the triple helical domain resulting in destabilization of the helix. Point mutations leading to arginine to cysteine substitution are interesting since they occur at either X or Y position and cause two different diseases termed Stickler syndrome and congenital spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia (SEDC) in association with osteoarthritis.

The present study aimed at determining the consequences of arginine to cysteine substitutions in either X or the Y position in the Gly-X-Y repeats and at either the N- or the C- terminus of the triple helix. The impact of these mutations on protein trafficking, secretion and cell survival was also analyzed.

Biochemical studies revealed great similarities between R75C, R134C and R704C collagens and the wild type molecules with the exception that electron micrographs of R75C collagen displayed kinks in the structure. R740C and R789C collagens accumulated in the cells and the R789C protein migrated faster on SDS gels. The R740C and R789C proteins were also susceptible to protease digestion and circular dichroism spectra were altered and showed lower  $T_m$  values than other collagen II variants. Due to the altered structure, R789C protein was more susceptible to MMP cleavage in the vicinity of the mutation causing the truncation of the protein. Additionally, electron micrographs revealed only scarce and thin filamentous structures in preparations of R740C and R789C protein. The biochemical results indicate that the R740C and R789C proteins have unstable triple helices and that this affects the overall protein structure.

Protein trafficking was monitored in HT1080 cells expressing the collagen II variants. Intracellular retention in the ER due to misfolding of the R740C and R789C proteins triggered an ER stress response including splicing of XBP-1 and induction and binding of BiP. Continuous accumulation of misfolded proteins in the ER caused apoptosis of the R740C and R789C expressing cells.

Substitution of arginine to cysteine in the X or Y position towards the C-terminus of the triple helix caused pronounced instability of the triple helix with a deleterious effect on the cells, while R704C and more N-terminal mutations did not cause any significant changes irrespective of being in the X or the Y position.

The different severities of patient phenotypes are due to a combination of structural factors, which may be synergistically augmented by genetic modifiers, additional unknown mutations and environmental factors.

## Zusammenfassung

Collagen II ist der Hauptbestandteil der extrazellulären Matrix des Knorpels. Außerdem wird Collagen II im Glaskörper des Auges exprimiert und konnte während der frühen embryonalen Entwicklung nachgewiesen werden. Collagen II ist durch seine komplexe Biosynthese, Assemblierung und Sekretion besonders anfällig für Mutationen, die im Menschen zu Krankheiten führen, die allgemein unter dem Begriff Chondrodysplasien zusammengefasst werden. Bei den meisten dieser Mutationen handelt es sich um den Austausch eines Glycins in den Gly-X-Y Triplets der tripelhelikalen Domäne, die zu einer Destabilisierung dieser Helix führen. Punktmutationen, die zu einem Austausch von Arginin zu Cystein führen, kommen sowohl in der X- als auch Y-Position vor und führen interessanterweise zu zwei unterschiedlichen Krankheitsbildern, dem Stickler Syndrom bzw. der congenitalen Spondyloepiphyseären Dysplasie verbunden mit Osteoarthritis.

In der vorliegenden Arbeit wurden Auswirkungen von Substitutionen eines Arginins zu einem Cystein sowohl in der X- als auch in der Y-Position bzw. im N- oder C-terminalen Bereich der Tripelhelix untersucht. Außerdem wurden Effekte dieser Mutationen auf den intrazellulären Proteintransport, die Sekretion und die Zellvitalität analysiert.

Biochemische Untersuchungen ergaben keinerlei wesentliche Unterschiede zwischen den Mutanten R75C, R134C und R704C im Vergleich mit dem Wildtyp Protein mit Ausnahme der elektronenmikroskopischen Aufnahmen, in denen die Mutation R75C zu charakteristischen Knicken in der Struktur des Collagens führte. Die Proteine R740C und R789C akkumulierten intrazellulär, und das Collagen R789C zeigte veränderte Laufeigenschaften im SDS Gel. Die Proteine R740C und R789C waren außerdem empfindlicher gegenüber Proteasen, und die Analyse mittels CD Spektroskopie ergab untypische Spektren und erniedrigte Schmelztemperaturen. Die durch die veränderte Struktur erhöhte Empfindlichkeit des Proteins R789C gegenüber dem Abbau durch MMPs in unmittelbarer Nähe der Mutation führte zu einer Verkürzung des Proteins durch Proteolyse.

In elektronenmikroskopischen Untersuchungen der Proteine R740C und R789C konnten nur kurze filamentöse Strukturen nachgewiesen werden. Diese Ergebnisse führen zu dem Schluss, dass die Proteine R740C und R789C lediglich instabile Tripelhelices ausbilden und die Mutationen so die Gesamtstruktur des Proteins beeinflussen.

Der intrazelluläre Transport der mutierten Proteine wurde in transfizierten HT1080 Zellen untersucht. Die fehlgefalteten Proteine R740C und R789C wurden im endoplasmatischen Retikulum (ER) zurückgehalten und lösten eine ER Stressantwort aus, die mit einem Splicing von XBP-1 und einer erhöhten Induktion und Bindung des Chaperons BiP einhergeht. Die andauernde Akkumulation dieser fehlgefalteten Proteine im ER führte schließlich zur Auslösung der Apoptose.

Der Austausch von Arginin zu Cystein im C-terminalen Bereich der Tripelhelix führte sowohl in der X- als auch der Y-Position zur Instabilität der Tripelhelix mit schädlichen Auswirkungen auf die exprimierenden Zellen. Im Gegensatz hierzu resultierten bereits die Mutation R704C und weiter N-terminal gelegene Mutationen in keinerlei signifikanten Veränderungen, unabhängig davon, ob sie in der X- bzw. Y-Position vorlagen.

Die in Patienten beschriebenen, sehr unterschiedlich ausgeprägten Krankheitsbilder sind wahrscheinlich durch eine Kombination sich synergistisch verstärkender struktureller und genetischer Faktoren sowie unbekannter Mutationen und Umwelteinflüsse zu erklären.

## Abbreviations

AA	Acrylamide
AP	Alkaline phosphatase
APS	Ammonium persulphate
BCA	Bicinchoninic acid
BiP	Immunoglobulin heavy chain binding protein
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
BM-40	Basement membrane protein, molecular weight 40 kD
CD	Circular Dichroism
COMP	Cartilage oligomeric matrix protein
DEPC	Diethylpyrocarbonate
DMEM	Dulbecco's minimum essential medium
DMSO	Dimethylsulfoxide
dNTP	Deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate
DTT	1,4-dithiothreitol
EBNA	Ebstein barr virus nuclear antigen
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
EK	Enterokinase
ER	Endoplasmic reticulum
FBS	Fetal bovine serum
FITC	Fluorescein-5-isothiocyanate
GFP	Green fluorescence protein
His	Histidine
HRP	Horse radish peroxidase
IgG	Immunoglobulin G
kb	Kilobase pairs
kD	Kilodalton
MALDI-TOF-MS	Matrix assisted laser desorption time of flight
MED	Multiple epiphyseal dysplasia
MMP	Matrix metalloproteinase
MOI	Moieties of infection
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid
NEM	N-Ethylmaleimide

NP-40	Nonylphenylpolyethyleneglycol
NTA	Nitriloacetic acid
OD	Optical density
OMIM	Online mendelian inheritance in man
PDI	Protein disulfide isomerase
PMSF	Phenylmethanesulphonyl fluoride
PAGE	Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
SC	Pepsin extracted collagen from bovine nasal cartilage (Sigma)
SCGE	Single cell gel electrophoresis
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulphate
SEDC	Spondyloepiphyseal dysplasi congenita
TAE	Tris acetate EDTA
XBP	X-box DNA binding protein

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Collagen

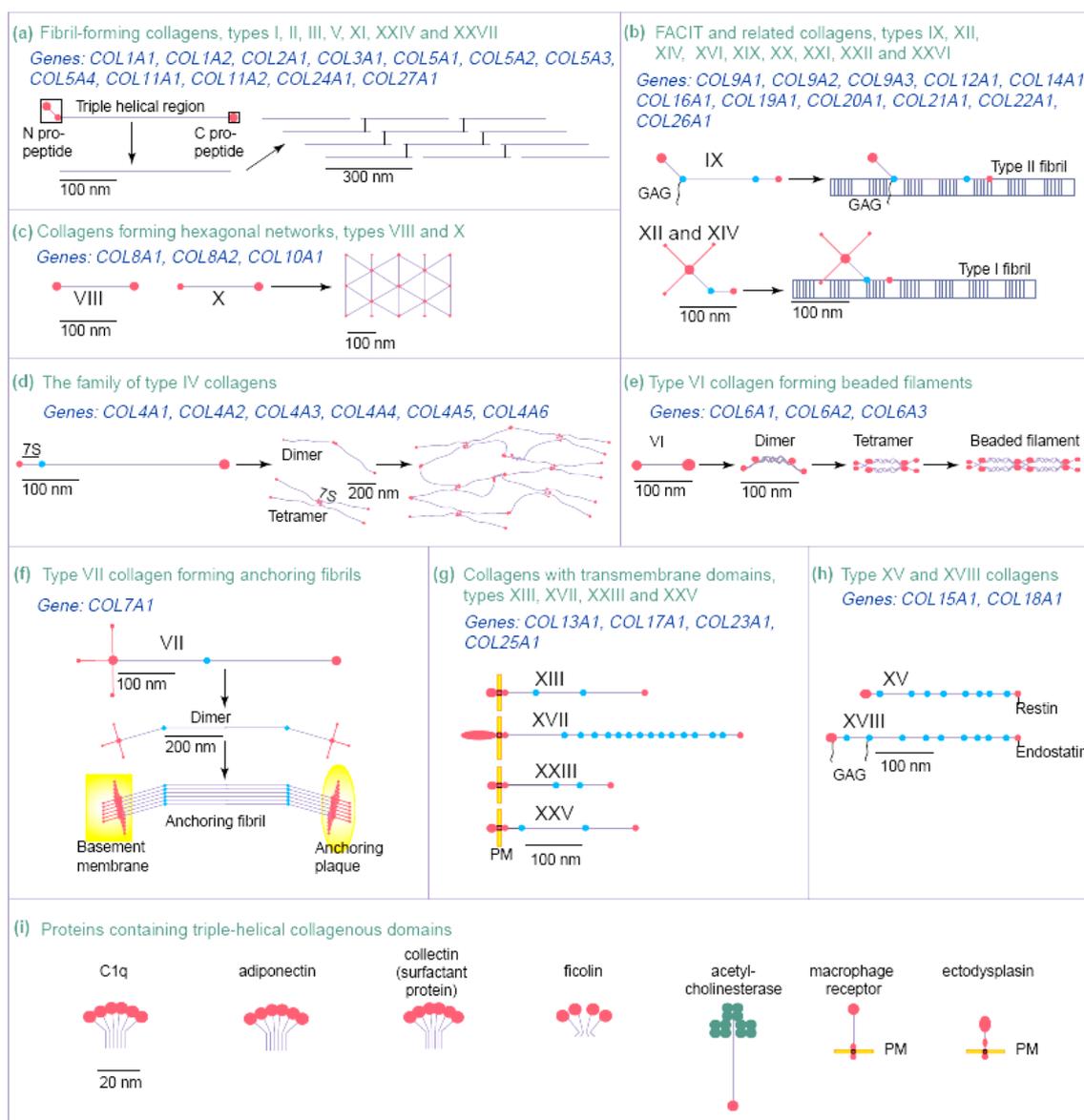
Collagens form a family of proteins that constitute the major structural components of the ECM, representing approximately one third of the body protein in man. The general definition of a collagen is “a protein consisting of three identical or related polypeptide chains, which are folded into at least one triple-helical domain and assemble into supramolecular aggregates mostly in the extracellular space”. They are found in almost all tissues of the body, and are particularly abundant in bone, skin, tendon, ligaments, cartilage and vessel walls (Myllyharju & Kivirikko 2004).

## 1.2 Classification of collagens

Collagens are characterized by the presence of triple-helical domains, which are either composed of three identical polypeptide chains (homotrimers) or two to three genetically distinct chains (heterotrimers). The collagen types are designated with Roman numerals in the order of their discovery, and the chains found in each collagen type are identified with Arabic numerals (Kivirikko 1993, Pihlajaniemi & Rehn 1995, Prockop & Kivirikko 1995, Myllyharju & Kivirikko 2004). Collagens are broadly classified into two groups on the basis of their primary structure, physicochemical properties and macromolecular assembly:

1. Fibrillar collagens (over 70% of total collagens; e.g. type I, II, III, V, XI), possessing a large, uninterrupted triple-helical domain capable of fibril formation. Their fibrils create the structural frameworks for many tissues.
2. The non-fibril-forming collagens, made up by basement membrane collagens (type IV and VII), transmembrane collagens (type XIII and XVII), fibril-associated collagens with interrupted triple helices (FACIT; type IX, XII, XIV, XVI and XIX), multiplexin collagens (type XV and XVIII), short-chain collagens (type VI, VIII and X) form a more heterogeneous group. A distinct feature of non-fibril-forming collagens is the presence of one or more non collagenous interruptions within the collagenous sequence. Members of this group form filaments, sheet-like structures, network-like elements and anchoring fibrils and can associate with collagen fibrils and membranes in a highly tissue-specific manner in variety of organs.

Fig 1.1 summarizes the classification within the collagen superfamily, the known collagen supramolecular assemblies and molecular and functional properties.



**Fig 1.1 Members of the collagen superfamily and their known supramolecular assemblies.** The collagen superfamily can be divided into nine families on the basis of the supramolecular assemblies and other features of its members: (a) fibril-forming collagens; (b) fibril-associated collagens with interrupted triple helices (FACITs), located at the surface of fibrils, and structurally related collagens; (c) collagens forming hexagonal networks; (d) the family of type IV collagens located in basement membranes; (e) type VI collagen, which forms beaded filaments; (f) type VII collagen, which forms anchoring fibrils at basement membranes; (g) collagens with transmembrane domains; and (h) the family of type XV and XVIII collagens. The supramolecular assemblies of families (g) and (h) are unknown and are therefore not shown (Myllyharju & Kivirikko 2004).

### 1.3 Genes and nomenclature

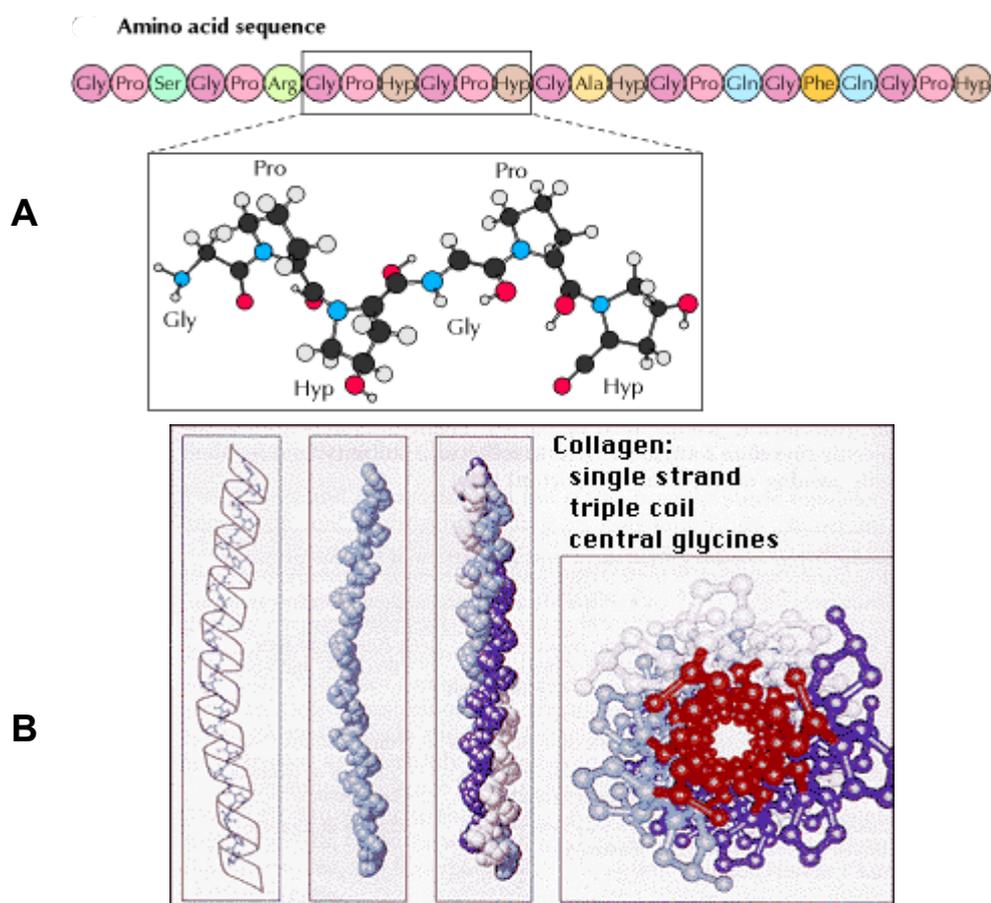
The genes encoding the fibril-forming collagens I-III show structural similarity but vary in size from 18 to 44 kb (Prockop & Kivirikko 1995, Yamada et al. 1980). They consist of 51-54 exons with the major triple-helical domain being encoded by 44 exons. The similarity in gene structure is also extended to propeptides. The N-propeptide is in each case encoded by six exons, whereas

the C-propeptides are encoded by four exons. The gene loci for the members of the collagen family have been given names beginning with COL in a human context and col in animals, followed by an Arabic numeral denoting the collagen. For example, COL1A1 is the gene locus for the human pro $\alpha$ 1(I) chain, and COL1A2 for the pro $\alpha$ 2(I) chain.

All the exons encoding the triple-helical domain are of sizes that are multiples of 9 bp (e.g. 45, 54, 99, 108 and 162 bp, coding for 5, 6, 11, 12 and 18 Gly-X-Y triplets, respectively), the most common size being 54 bp. It has been suggested that the ancestral gene for the fibril-forming collagens must have evolved by amplification of a 54 bp unit embedded into intron sequences (Yamada et al. 1980). All these exons start with a codon for glycine and end with a complete codon for an amino acid in the Y position.

#### **1.4 Structure and stability of the collagen triple helix**

In collagens three  $\alpha$  chains are wound around each other into a right-handed triple helix. In some collagens all three chains in the molecule are identical and form homotrimers, while other types contain two or even three different chains leading to heterotrimeric molecules (Engel & Prockop 1991, Hulmes 1992). At the amino acid level the collagenous or triple helical domains contain of repeats consisting of three amino acids (Fig 1.2A). The presence of glycine as every third amino acid in the repeating Gly-X-Y sequence is essential because a larger amino acid would not fit in the center of the triple helix where the three chains come together (Fig 1.2B). Proline is frequently in the X position of the Gly-X-Y sequence and 4-hydroxyproline is frequently in the Y position. These two amino acids limit the rotation of the polypeptide chains. The triple helix is further stabilized by hydrogen bonds and water bridges, many of which require the presence of 4-hydroxyproline. Stabilization of the triple helix by glycines has been studied using collagen-like peptides (Bella et al. 1994, 1995). In addition, many glycine substitutions in the collagen triple helix have been identified in various heritable connective tissue disorders (Kivirikko 1993, Dalgleish 1997, 1998). These glycine substitutions result in a small local untwisting of the triple helix and reduce its thermal stability (Bella et al. 1994), suggesting that similar conformational changes may occur in the case of glycine substitutions at other positions. It is also thought that glycine substitutions may reduce the rate of folding of the triple helix, as a Gly to Cys substitution within the collagen domain of type I collagen prolongs the time needed to reach the triple-helical state (Raghu-nath et al. 1994).



**Fig 1.2 Arrangement of amino acids in the Gly-X-Y repeat in the triple helical part of a fibrillar collagen.** (A) Characteristic Gly-X-Y repeat with the orientation of glycine. (B) The central fit of glycine in the structure of triple helix with all other amino acid being more peripheral (Cooper & Hausman 2004, Nelson & Cox 2005).

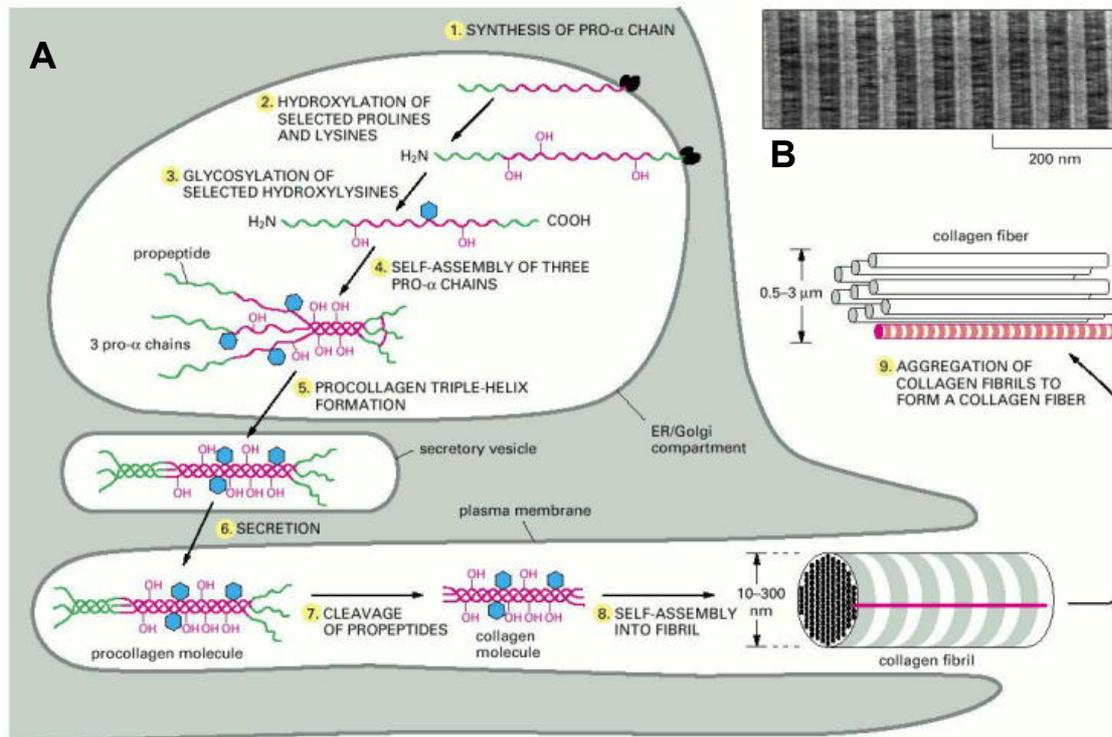
## 1.5 Biosynthesis of collagen

Collagen biosynthesis and assembly follows the normal pathway of a secretory protein. Fig 1.3 represents a schematic illustration of the intracellular and extracellular events during collagen biosynthesis, which are briefly described below.

**1. Synthesis:** Collagen chains are synthesized as longer precursors called procollagens. The growing polypeptide chains are co-translationally transported into the lumen of the rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER). In the ER, the procollagen chain undergoes a series of post-translational modifications, in particular hydroxylation and glycosylation.

**2. Hydroxylation:** Specific proline and lysine residues in the propeptide are hydroxylated by membrane-bound hydroxylases. These hydroxyproline residues are essential for the stability of triple helical molecules since underhydroxylated procollagens are not stable at normal body

temperature. Lysyl hydroxylase and proline hydroxylase catalyses the hydroxylation of lysine and proline residues in the procollagen chains. The hydroxylysine residues serve as attachment sites for carbohydrate units and are also needed for the formation of intermolecular cross-links during the collagen fibril formation. Ascorbate is a cofactor required for hydroxylase activity and a deficiency may lead to triple helix instability.



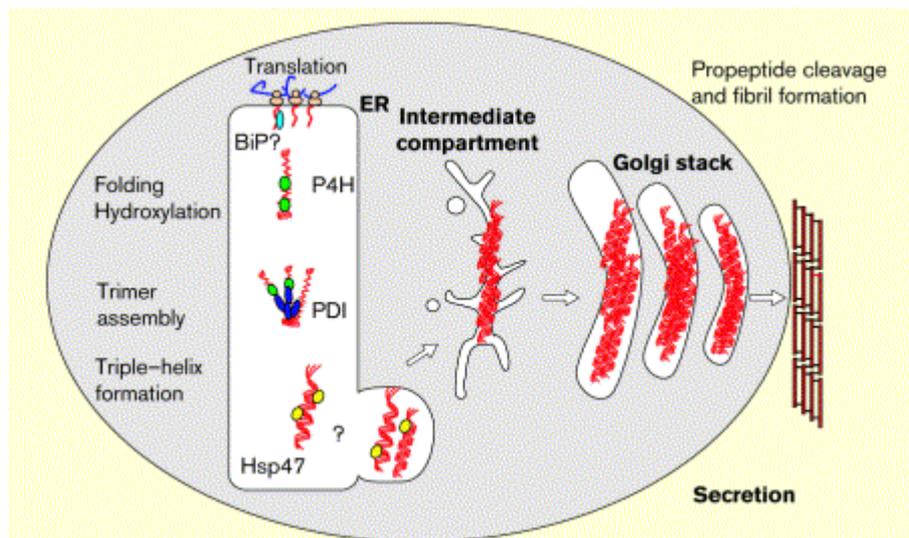
**Fig 1.3 Intracellular and extracellular events during collagen biosynthesis and fibrillogenesis.** (A) Procollagen synthesis, posttranslational modification, secretion and fibril assembly. (B) Electron micrograph of a negatively stained collagen fibril reveals its typical striated appearance (Alberts et al. 1994).

**3. Glycosylation:** Procollagens are further glycosylated in the ER and in the Golgi complex. Galactose and glucose residues are added to hydroxylysine residues and longer oligosaccharides are transferred to certain asparagine residues in the C-terminal propeptide.

**4. Procollagen assembly:** N- and C-propeptides first fold and intrachain disulphide bonds are formed within them (Bächinger et al. 1981, Doege & Fessler 1986). Three pro  $\alpha$  chains then associate through non-covalent interactions between the folded C-propeptides followed by formation of interchain disulphide bonds catalyzed by protein disulphide isomerase (PDI) (Olsen et al. 1976, Forster & Freedman 1984, Noiva & Lennarz 1992). The formation of a triple-helical procollagen molecule begins by association of the C-propeptides of the three pro  $\alpha$  chains

(Bächinger et al. 1981, Bulleid et al. 1996) and the triple helix is formed in a zipper-like manner proceeding from the C-terminal region towards the N-terminus (Engel & Prockop 1991).

**5. Quality control:** During the entire process molecular chaperones play an important role in regulating the correct folding and assembly of proteins (Fig 1.4). Chaperones bind to hydrophobic regions of unfolded proteins and prevent aggregation while the polypeptides are synthesized (Gething & Sambrook 1992, Becker & Craig 1994, Hartl et al. 1994). They also serve as folding quality controllers, preventing the secretion of misfolded proteins and promoting their degradation. BiP is a 78 kD protein located within the lumen of the ER and plays a general role in protein folding and oligomeric assembly (Haas & Wabl 1983). In certain osteogenesis imperfecta patients, mutant type I collagen remains bound to BiP (Chessler & Byers 1992). PDI also acts as a molecular chaperone during the assembly of procollagen chains (Wilson et al. 1998). PDI interacts specifically with the propeptides of monomeric type I procollagen chains and prevents their premature assembly or aggregation (Wilson et al. 1998).



**Fig 1.4 Interactions of ER chaperones during procollagen assembly and secretion.** Procollagen interacts with a variety of ER resident proteins during folding and assembly within the ER. The carboxy-terminal propeptide may interact transiently with BiP (light blue) before it folds correctly and assembles covalently with two other pro- $\alpha$ -chains to form a trimer. Protein disulfide isomerase (PDI; blue) catalyzes this latter event. Proline hydroxylases (P4H; green) modifies selected proline and lysine residues in the triple helix-forming domains. These hydroxylated residues form hydrogen bonds that stabilize the helix once it forms. This triple helical form of procollagen is the preferred substrate of Hsp47 (yellow) (Hendershot & Bulleid 2000).

Hsp47 is an endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-resident molecular chaperone that is specific for collagen and plays a role in collagen maturation (Nagata & Hosokawa 1996, Nagata 2003). After binding to procollagen in the ER, Hsp47 is co-transported with procollagen from the ER to the

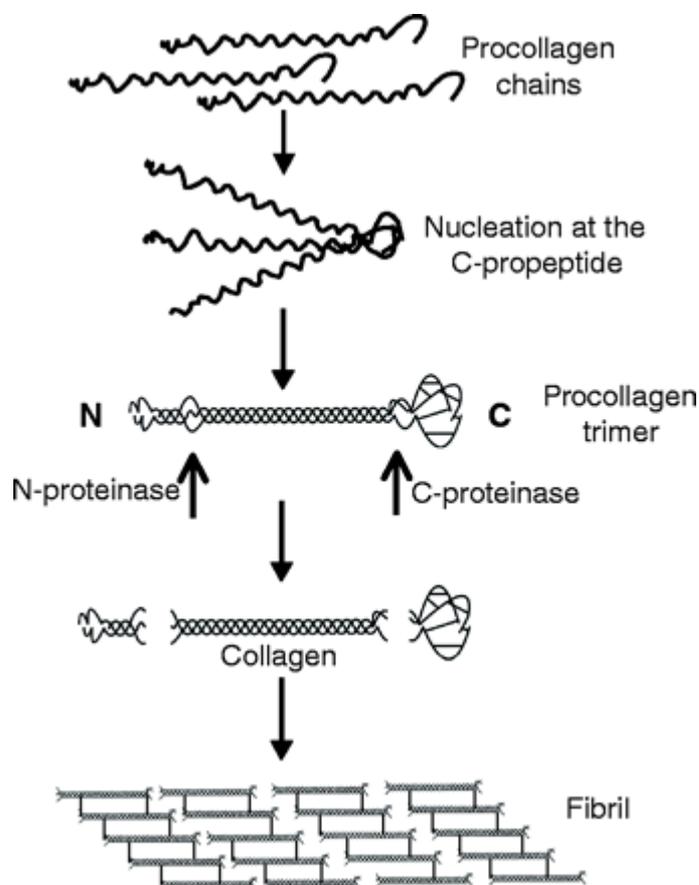
cis-Golgi or ER-Golgi intermediate compartment, where it dissociates from procollagen in a pH-dependent manner (Saga et al. 1987, Satoh et al. 1996).

**6. Secretion:** The mechanism responsible for transporting assembled procollagen molecules from the ER to the Golgi complex is poorly understood. Various studies have shown that triple-helical procollagen molecules form large electron-dense aggregates in a cis-Golgi compartment of fibroblasts and that these aggregates then move across the Golgi stacks without leaving the lumen of the Golgi cisternae (Bonfanti et al. 1998). Progressive maturation of the Golgi cisternae appears to be responsible for the transport through the Golgi complex (Mironov et al. 1997). If triple helix formation is prevented and random coil polypeptide chains accumulate within the cisternae of the rough endoplasmic reticulum, they are degraded in part or secreted at a delayed rate (Kivirikko et al. 1992). Detailed investigations using video-electron microscopy, serial-section 3D reconstruction and electron tomography have shown that procollagens are transported in saccular structures formed directly from protruding portions of the ER membrane (Mironov et al. 2003).

**7. Procollagen processing:** In the extracellular space the N- and C-propeptides of procollagens are cleaved by specific proteinases before the molecules start to self-assemble into fibrils (Prockop & Hulmes 1994, Canty & Kadler 2005) (Fig 1.5). These procollagen proteinases are endopeptidases and require a divalent cation such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  for maximal activity (Hojima et al. 1989, Prockop et al. 1998). Propeptides are cleaved by two enzymes, procollagen N proteinase and procollagen C proteinase, which cleave N- and C-propeptides respectively (Prockop et al. 1998, Kivirikko 1995) Procollagen C proteinase activity (Hojima et al. 1985) is exerted by members of the tolloid family of zinc metalloproteinases [bone morphogenetic protein 1 (BMP-1), mammalian tolloid (mTLD) and tolloid like 1 (TLL-1); (Hartigan et al. 2003, Kessler et al. 1996, Li et al. 1996, Scott et al. 1999)] and N-proteinase activity is provided by members of the ADAMTS (metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs) family: ADAMTS-2, ADAMTS-3 and ADAMTS-14 (Colige et al. 1997, 2002, Fernandes et al. 2001).

**8. Fibril assembly:** Fibril formation starts after removal of the globular N and C propeptides from procollagen by the procollagen N- and C-proteinases (Leung et al. 1979) (Fig 1.5). Cleavage of the C-propeptides reduces the solubility of the protein and the collagen molecules self-assemble into fibrils (Kadler et al. 1987, Prockop & Hulmes 1994, Canty & Kadler 2005). After assembly of the collagen molecules into fibrils, covalent cross-links are formed and these provide the fibrils with their tensile strength and mechanical stability. The crosslinks are formed

from lysine and hydroxylysine derived aldehydes that are synthesized in a reaction catalyzed by lysyl oxidase (Prockop & Kivirikko 1995), which causes the oxidative deamination of the  $\epsilon$ -amino group in certain lysine and hydroxylysine residues (Kagan & Trackman 1991). The crosslinks formed from a hydroxylysine derived aldehyde are more stable than those formed from a lysine derived aldehyde (Prockop & Kivirikko 1995). A characteristic feature of the fibril forming collagens is that they form highly ordered, quarter-staggered, 67 nm banded fibrils, i.e. adjacent molecules overlap by a distance of 67 nm or a multiple of this, with a 40 nm gap between the ends of the continuous non-overlapping molecules (Prockop & Kivirikko 1995, Bella et al. 1994). Collagen fibril diameters range from 20 to 500 nm, depending on the tissue and age.



**Fig 1.5 Overview of the steps involved in the production of collagen fibrils by fibroblasts.** Procollagen chains are synthesized in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), are brought together by interactions between the C-propeptides and fold to form a rod-like triple-helical domain flanked by globular N- and C-propeptides. Removal of the N- and C-propeptides from fully folded procollagen only occurs after transport of procollagen across the Golgi stacks and results in collagen molecules that are then able to assemble into fibrils. Covalent crosslinks occur within and between triple-helical collagen molecules in fibrils (Canty & Kadler 2005).

## 1.6 Collagen II

Collagen II is the major cartilage collagen, but is also expressed in the vitreous of the eye and is detected during early embryogenesis in the cranial mesenchyme and sclerotome of the somites. Collagen II transcripts are further present in the axial and appendicular skeleton, in nonchondrogenic tissues such as notochord, neural retina, cornea and conjunctival epithelia and in the sclera of the developing eye (Brewton & Mayne 1992). Unexpectedly, localisation of type II collagen mRNA was also reported in the proliferative ventricular cells of the forebrain and midbrain of embryos and in the cervical spinal cord (Cheah et al. 1991). The gene that codes for the polypeptide chains of homotrimeric collagen II consists of 54 exons and is about 31 kb in size (Ala-Kokko & Prockop 1990, Ala-Kokko et al. 1995). Its chromosomal location is 12q13.11-q13.12 (Takahashi et al. 1990). The sequence coding for the N-terminal propeptide contains an alternatively spliced exon that codes for a 69-amino acid cysteine-rich domain (Ryan & Sandell 1990). Collagen II molecules including (IIA) or excluding this domain (IIB) have distinct distributions in various stages of chondrogenesis, type IIA predominating in the prechondrogenic mesenchyme and differentiating chondrocytes, and type IIB in differentiated chondrocytes (Nah & Upholt 1991, Sandell et al. 1991). The collagen II molecules in the fibril overlap with each other by a distance of about a quarter of their length, thus forming a banded fibril. The molecules are covalently crosslinked between the triple helical domain and the N- or C-terminal telopeptides of adjacent collagen II molecules. Collagen II has a high capacity to withstand forces exerted. Indeed, it has a tensile strength comparable to steel and thereby strongly influences the biomechanical properties of cartilage (Vikkula et al. 1994). Due to the complexity of the folding and assembly, collagen II structure is susceptible to mutations leading to disease states that are collectively termed chondrodysplasias and possess a wide range of well-characterised clinical phenotypes (Vikkula et al. 1994, Mundlos & Olsen 1997, Myllyharju & Kivirikko 2001).

## 1.7 Chondrodysplasias

Most chondrodysplasias are due to point mutations in the collagen II gene. Most of these result in the substitution of glycine in the Gly-X-Y repeats and thereby the stability of the triple helix is decreased. Mutations in the X or Y position in the peptide chain are less frequent. In addition, nonsense mutations occur which lead to premature termination of the chain. Deletions have also been reported, leading to severe pathological conditions (Vikkula et al. 1994, Mundlos & Olsen

1997, Myllyharju & Kivirikko 2001). Table 1.1 summarizes the known mutations and the resulting phenotype. A brief description of each phenotype is given below.

**Table 1.1 Types of chondrodysplasia caused by point mutations and the resulting amino acid exchanges in collagen II.** Numbers indicate the position in the triple helical domain.

Achondrogenesis II	Hypochondrogenesis	SEDC	Stickler syndrome
Gly253Asp	Gly313Ser	<b>Arg 75 Cys</b>	Arg9Term
Gly310Asp	Gly517Val	<b>Arg789Cys</b>	Gly 67Asp
Gly313Ser	Gly571Ala	Gly973Arg	Arg365Cys
Gly517Val	Gly604Ala	Gly997Ser	Leu467Phe
Gly571Ala	Gly691Arg		Gly506Term
Gly571Asp	Gly805Ser		Arg519Cys
Gly580Arg	Gly853Glu		Arg585Term
Gly595Arg	Gly913Cys		<b>Arg704Cys</b>
Gly694Glu	Gly988Arg		Arg732Term
Gly748Asp	Thr1190Asn		
Gly769Ser			
Gly781Ser			
Gly817Val			

SEDC, Spondylo Epiphyseal Dysplasia Congenita; Term, Termination  
Mutations in bold are used in the present study

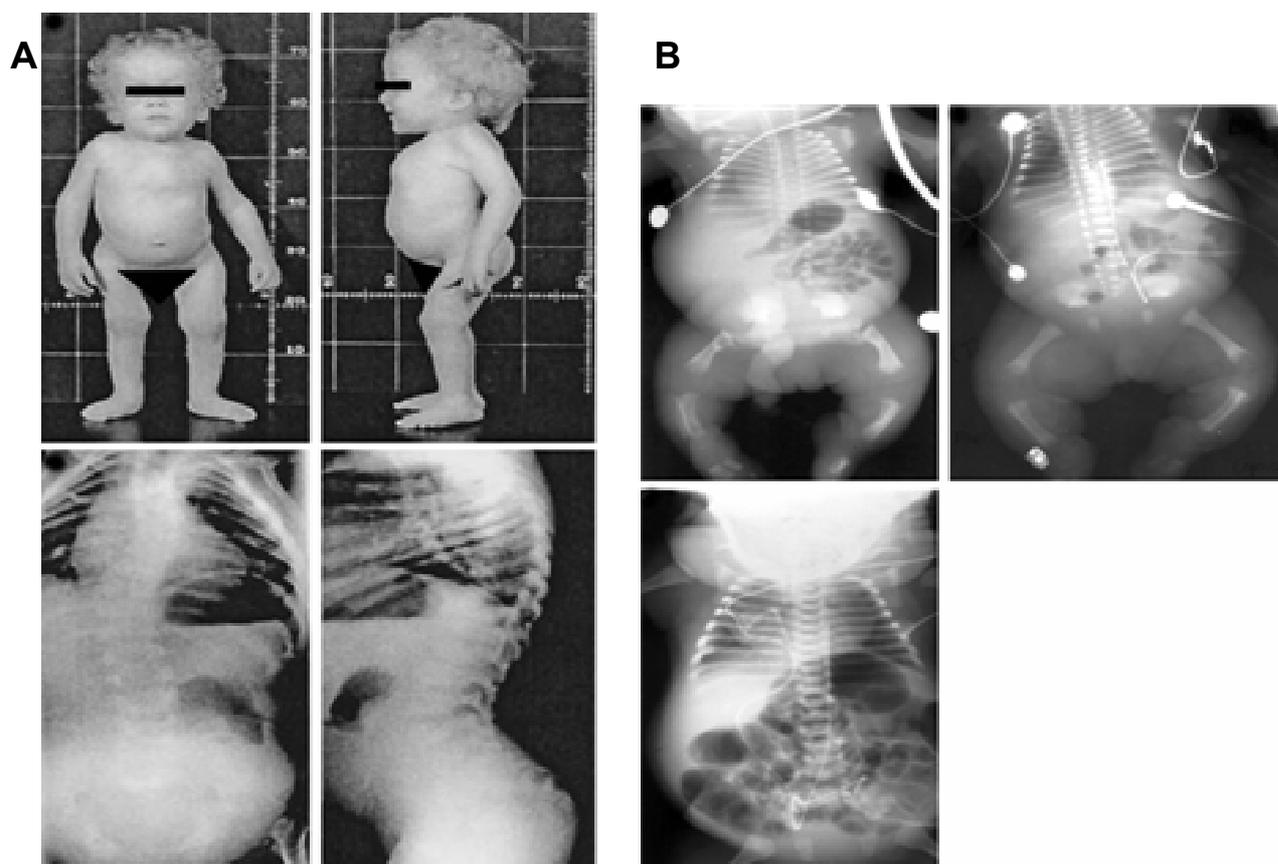
## 1.8 Achondrogenesis type II and hypochondrogenesis (OMIM 200610)

Achondrogenesis type II and hypochondrogenesis were considered two separate disorders (Langer et al. 1969, Saldino 1971, Maroteaux et al. 1983). After individuals with an intermediate phenotype have been characterized they are defined as different degrees of severity of the same disorder (Borochowitz et al. 1986). Infants die perinatally or within the first weeks of life. The disorder is characterized by a short, barrel-shaped trunk, very short extremities, large head, soft cranium, flat face and hydropic appearance. Radiographically, the affected infants show varying degrees of underossification of the axial skeleton. Histological and electron microscopic examinations reveal hypercellular epiphyseal cartilage with poorly organized or absent growth plate and diminished extracellular matrix that contains thick, irregular collagen fibrils together with large chondrocytes with a dilated rough endoplasmic reticulum. Biochemical studies of

hyaline cartilage from these infants have indicated abnormal and diminished collagen II (Eyre et al. 1986, Godfrey et al. 1988, Godfrey & Hollister 1988, Spranger et al. 1994.). The genetic defect leading to this pathology was found in the COL2A1 gene (Vissing et al. 1989). Table 1.1 lists various mutations leading to achondrogenesis II. All of them involve the replacement of glycine by a bulkier amino acid in the triple helical region of the 1(II) chain.

### 1.9 Spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia and congenital spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia (SEDC, OMIM 183900)

Spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia is characterized by short trunk, short extremities, barrel-shaped chest, kyphosis, severe myopia, retinal detachments, cleft palate and clubfoot (Fig 1.6A). Radiographs (Fig 1.6B) show defects in ossification of the spine and primarily proximal extremities (Mortier et al. 2000).



**Fig 1.6 Phenotype of SEDC patients.** (A) Disproportionate short stature with short trunk, enlarged joints, high forehead, frontal bossing, pectus carinatum deformity and radiological findings of anteroposterior and lateral spine radiographs shows: thoracic scoliosis, accentuated lumbar lordosis, flattened and dysplastic vertebral bodies (Sobetzko et al 2000). (B) Anteroposterior radiographs of patients representing a severe phenotype characterised by short tubular bones with metaphyseal irregularities, minimal ossification of vertebral bodies in the thoracic spine, hypoplastic iliac wings with flat acetabular roofs, short ribs along with shortened tubular bones, flattened but normally ossified vertebral bodies, normal acetabular roofs, and a less narrow chest (Mortier et al 2000).

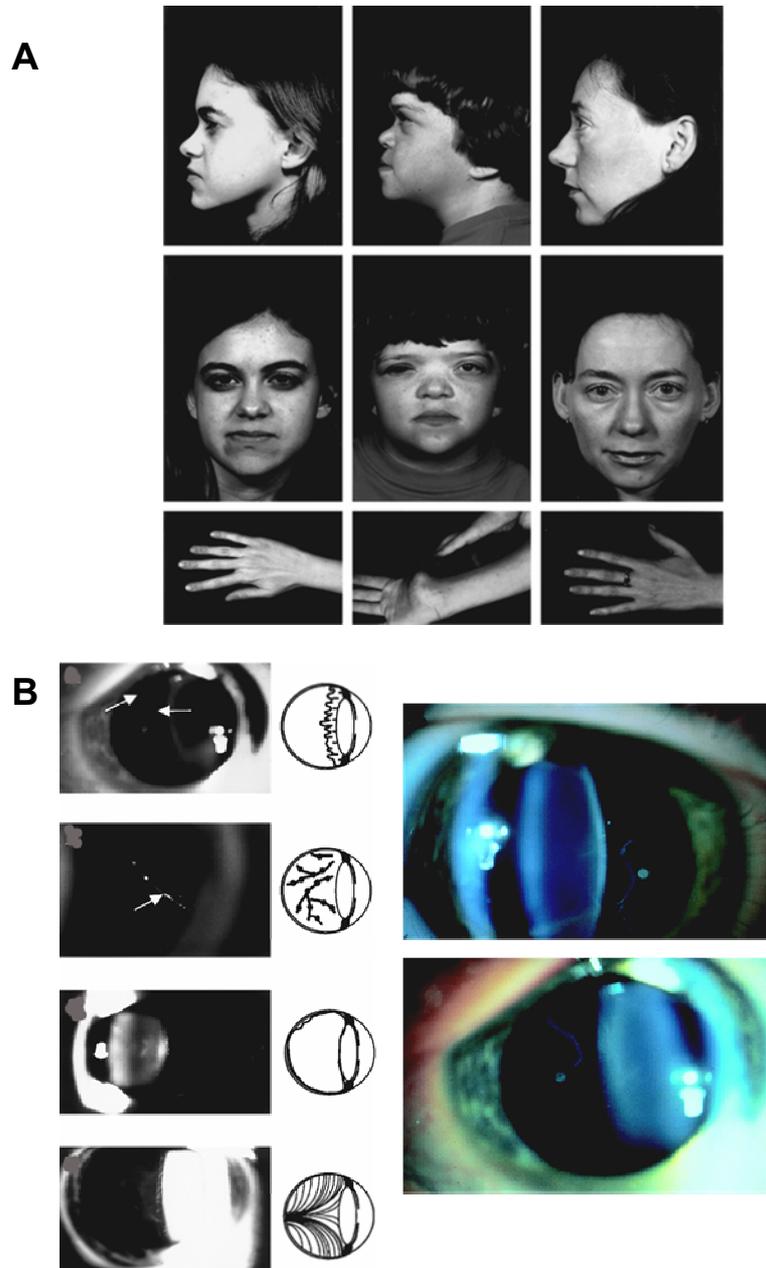
Histological studies show defects resembling those in achondrogenesis type II-hypochondrogenesis and biochemical examination indicates abnormalities in collagen II (Murray et al. 1989). SED refers to a heterogeneous group of disorders that affect the spine and epiphyses, and as the symptoms resemble those of achondrogenesis type II-hypochondrogenesis, SED can be considered to represent the mild end of the spectrum comprising achondrogenesis type II-hypochondrogenesis and SED phenotypes (Spranger et al. 1994). Most cases of SED show autosomal dominant inheritance, but an autosomal recessive form of inheritance has also been suggested in some cases (Harrod et al. 1984). Lee et al. (1989) identified a deletion of an entire exon in the COL2A1 gene, leading to a lack of 36 amino acids in the triple helical region of the chain, and subsequently numerous mutations, including insertions, mutations causing aberrant RNA splicing, glycine mutations and a cysteine for arginine substitution, have been characterized (Vikkula et al. 1994, Kuivaniemi et al. 1997). However, some investigations have excluded the COL2A1 gene as a locus for SED in certain families, indicating that there must also be some other locus or loci for the disorder (Wordsworth et al. 1988, Anderson et al. 1990).

SEDC is of autosomal dominant inheritance and affects the vertebrae, juxtatruncal epiphyses and leads to a lack of ossification of pubis, distal femoral and proximal tibial epiphyses, talus and calcaneus, flattening of vertebral bodies, short limbs, cleft palate, mental retardation, myopia etc. (Gunthard et al. 1995). Previous studies indicate that the processing and assembly of collagen is disrupted but the exact mechanism of pathogenesis is yet to be unraveled.

### **1.10 Stickler syndrome (OMIM 108300)**

Stickler syndrome, originally called hereditary progressive arthroophthalmopathy, is an autosomal dominantly inherited disorder and is caused by mutations in collagen II or collagen XI. The  $\alpha 3$  (XI) chain is the IIB splicing variant product of the COL2A1 gene (Wu & Eyre, 1995). Phenotypically, it is characterised by progressive myopia and vitreoretinal degeneration resulting in retinal detachment and blindness. Midfacial hypoplasia and micrognathia are often accompanied by cleft palate or a lesser degree of clefting, and a sensorineural hearing defect is common (Fig 1.7). The skeletal manifestations include juvenile progressive arthropathy, irregularity of the vertebral bodies and hypermobile joints. Skeletal growth is usually normal. Mild epiphyseal dysplasia and overtubulation of long bones are seen in radiological examination (Temple 1989, Snead & Yates 1999). Linkage studies have shown that the COL2A1 gene is a locus for Stickler syndrome (Francomano et al. 1987, Knowlton et al. 1989). Altogether nine mutations have been reported to date, all of them leading to premature termination of translation

(Ahmad et al. 1991, Brown et al. 1992, Ahmad et al. 1993, Ritvaniemi et al. 1993, Brown et al. 1995a, Ahmad et al. 1995, Williams et al. 1996). The COL2A1 gene has also been excluded in several families with Stickler syndrome (Knowlton et al. 1989, Vintiner et al. 1991, Bonaventure et al. 1992).



**Fig 1.7 Clinical phenotypes of patients with Stickler syndrome.** (A) Probands with mild nasal root hypoplasia, midfacial hypoplasia and slender digits. (B) Vitreous phenotypes displaying membranous congenital vitreous anomaly, beaded appearance of vitreous and a fibrillar vitreous anomaly in comparison with normal vitreous (Richards et al. 2000, 2002a, 2002b).

Stickler families with congenital vitreous anomaly (Stickler syndrome type 1) have linkage to the COL2A1 gene, while in those with congenitally defective vitreous gel architecture but no congenital vitreous anomaly (Stickler syndrome type 2) linkage is excluded (Snead et al. 1994). Subsequently, Richards et al. (1996) demonstrated linkage to the COL11A1 gene in a family with Stickler syndrome type 2, and traced it to a missense mutation converting glycine to valine in the N-terminal part of the triple helix of the  $\alpha 1(XI)$  chain. In addition, Wilkin et al. (1998) have suggested still another locus for Stickler syndrome apart from the genes coding for collagens II and XI. It has also been reported that mutations in collagen II in the X position cause haploinsufficiency and that leads to reduced amount of collagen, resulting in characteristic membranous congenital anomaly in the vitreous (Snead et al. 1994, Snead and Yates 1999, Richards et al. 2000).

### **1.11 Osteoarthritis (OMIM 165720)**

Osteoarthritis (OA) is the most common articular disorder, characterized by joint pain and tenderness, stiffness, crepitus and limitation of motion. Radiographs of patients indicate joint-space narrowing, osteophytes, subchondral bone sclerosis and subchondral cyst formation. In severe cases, deformity of the bone ends is also seen. OA is classified into primary (idiopathic) or secondary subsets, in primary cases there is no known predisposing factor, while in secondary cases factors such as trauma, infection, some other joint disorder or a metabolic disease is indicated. Further classification divides OA into localized, in which only certain joints are affected, and generalized subsets. Even though OA is often considered an consequence of ageing, female sex, obesity, occupational load and heavy sports exertion are risk factors (Altman 1995, Creamer & Hochberg 1997). The suggestion of genetic factors underlying OA in certain families was made several decades ago (Stecher et al. 1953, Kellgren et al. 1963). Palotie et al (1989) demonstrated a linkage to the COL2A1 gene in a family with primary OA. Knowlton et al. (1990) made a similar finding in a family with precocious OA and associated mild chondrodysplasia and Ala-Kokko et al. (1990) subsequently demonstrated a mutation in this family. The mutation converted arginine to cysteine, an amino acid not normally found in the triple helical domains of collagens, in the middle of the triple helix of the collagen II molecule. Altogether five families with this same mutation have been reported to date, and three of them have been shown to have a common ancestor (Bleasel et al. 1995, Kuivaniemi et al. 1997, Bleasel et al. 1998). In addition, a mutation converting arginine to cysteine at position 75, near the N-terminus of the triple helix, has been reported in three families with OA associated with mild SED (Bleasel et al. 1995, Bleasel et al. 1996). Osteoarthritis is also associated with

mutations in other non collagenous proteins; e.g. a missense mutation in the epidermal growth factor-like domain in matrilin-3 leading to OA in several families. (Stefansson et al. 2003). Kizawa et al. (2005) identified polymorphism in asporin that suppressed TGF- $\beta$ -mediated expression of the genes coding for aggrecan (AGC1) and type II collagen (COL2A1) accompanied with reduced proteoglycan accumulation leading to osteoarthritis. Similar forms of osteoarthritis were reported to be due to functional variants within the secreted frizzled-related protein 3 gene (Loughlin et al. 2004).

### **1.12 Animal models for chondrodysplasias due to collagen II mutations**

Transgenic mice carrying a partially deleted human COL2A1 gene developed the phenotype of a chondrodysplasia with dwarfism, short and thick limbs, short snout, cranial bulge, cleft palate, and delayed mineralization of bone (Vandenberg et al. 1991). In cultured chondrocytes from transgenic mice, the minigene was expressed as shortened pro- $\alpha$ -1(II) chains that were disulfide-linked to normal mouse type II collagen chains. Therefore, the phenotype was probably explained by depletion of endogenous mouse type II procollagen through the phenomenon of procollagen suicide. Transgenic mice harboring a glycine-to-cysteine mutation at residue 85 of the triple helical domain of mouse type II collagen displayed severe chondrodysplasia with short limbs and trunk, craniofacial deformities, and cleft palate (Garofalo et al. 1991). Electron microscopic analysis showed a pronounced decrease in the number of typical thin cartilage collagen fibrils, distention of the rough endoplasmic reticulum of chondrocytes, and the presence of abnormally large banded collagen fibril bundles. Garofalo et al. (1991) postulated that the abnormally thick collagen bundles were related to a defect in crosslinking.

A transgenic mouse model of SEDC carrying collagen II transgene with an R789C mutation, in combination with a murine Col2a1 promoter directing the gene expression to cartilage, displayed overall short stature, had shorter limbs with disorganized growth plates, a short nose, cleft palate, and died at birth (Gaiser et al. 2002). The cellular organization of the cartilage architecture was profoundly disturbed in the transgenic growth plate, although the overall polarity was maintained. There were fewer stacks of flattened chondrocytes in the proliferative zone of the transgenic mouse growth plates. In addition to the abnormal cartilaginous tissue, the perichondrium was thicker and electron microscopy revealed a marked reduction of collagen fibrils in cartilage matrix from transgenic compared with that of wild-type mice. Increased distension of rough endoplasmic reticulum was observed in these chondrocytes. Using cell culture experiments and molecular modeling, Gaiser et al. (2002) suggested that this Y-position

mutation acts in a dominant-negative manner, resulting in destabilization of collagen molecules during assembly and reduction in the number of fibrils formed.

### **1.13 Arginine to cysteine mutations**

The majority of chondrodysplasia-causing missense mutations in COL2A1 are substitutions of obligatory glycine residues in the triple helical domain. Only a few non-glycine missense mutations have been reported and among these, the arginine to cysteine substitutions predominate. In addition to the above R75C and R789C substitution (Table 1.1), recently two additional mutations (R365C and R1076C) were found in unrelated probands (Hoornaert et al. 2005).

Most of these chondrodysplasias are due to point mutations in the collagen II gene, altering the amino acid sequence in a way which destabilizes the triple helix. In addition, nonsense mutations have been detected which lead to premature termination of the chain. Deletions have also been reported leading to severe pathological conditions.

Point mutations leading to a change from arginine to cysteine are interesting since different mutations of this kind cause two well characterized clinical phenotypes, i.e Stickler syndrome and congenital spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia (SEDC) and osteoarthritis-associated SED. It is being speculated that Stickler syndrome can be caused by amino acid substitutions in the X position of Gly-X-Y repeats (Richards et al 2000) and substitutions in the Y position rather lead to SEDC. One of the notions derived from previous studies on mutations in collagen I is that the mutant molecules are intracellularly degraded leading to a reduction in the pool of extracellular collagen molecules available for the formation of correct collagen fibrils. Another hypothesis is that some of the mutant collagens are incorporated into collagen fibrils, thereby affecting their biomechanical characteristics (Royce & Steinmann 2002).

### **1.14 Aims of the thesis**

The mechanisms by which point mutation in collagen II cause damage to the structure of connective tissues are not fully understood, and some of the proposed pathways leading from a mutant genotype to a phenotype are controversial.

The aims of this thesis were therefore:

1. To investigate the effects of arginine to cysteine mutations in collagen II and to determine how these may lead to different clinical phenotypes.
2. To analyze the biochemical consequences of arginine to cysteine substitutions found in patients with Stickler syndrome and SEDC.
3. To determine the importance of the position of point mutations within the triple helical domain (towards the N- or C-terminal of the triple helix) with respect to triple helical integrity and overall collagen structure.
4. To elucidate the effects of these point mutations on protein trafficking, secretion and cell survival.

## **2 Materials and methods**

### **2.1 Materials**

Standard chemicals and enzymes were if not otherwise mentioned purchased from Merck (Darmstadt), Sigma (Taufkirchen), Invitrogen (Karlsruhe), Biozym (Oldendorf), Roche (Mannheim) or New England Biolabs (Schwalbach).

#### **2.1.1 Enzymes for molecular biology**

Calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase (NEB)

M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega)

Restriction endonucleases (NEB)

Ribonuclease A (Sigma)

T4 DNA ligase (NEB)

Taq DNA polymerase (Roche)

#### **2.1.2 Materials for cell culture**

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM-F12), Invitrogen

Non-essential Amino Acids (NEA), Invitrogen

L-Glutamine (200 mM), Invitrogen

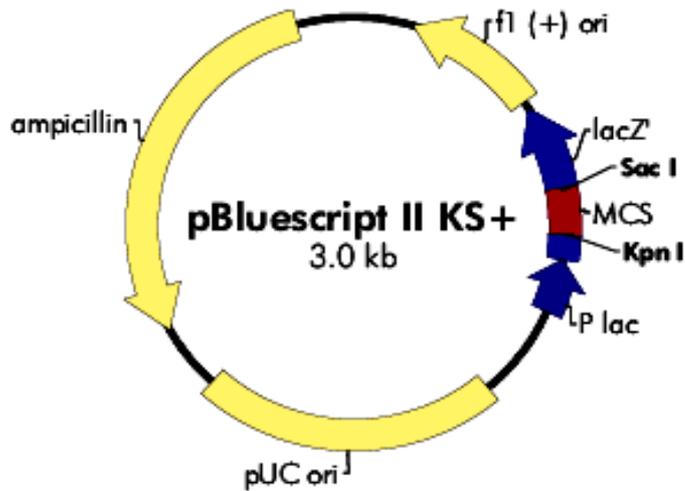
Penicillin/Steptomycin, Invitrogen

Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS), Biochrom KG, Berlin

#### **2.1.3 Plasmid and adenoviral vectors**

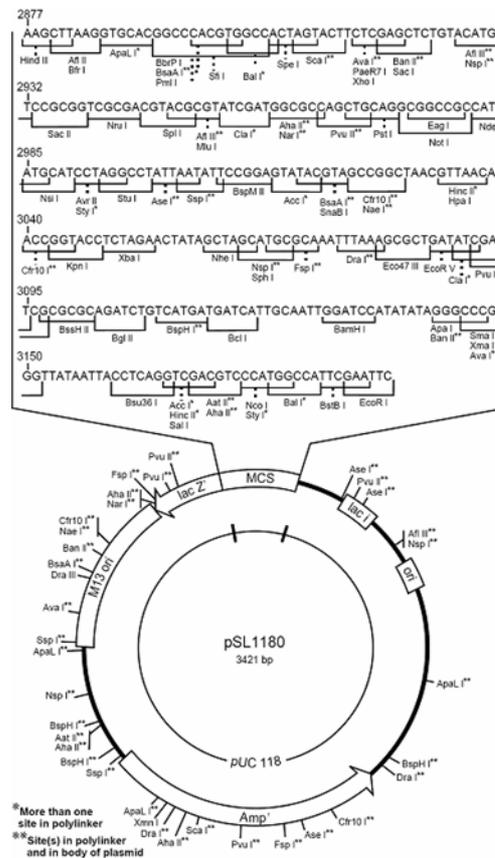
##### **2.1.3.1. pBluescript KS+ (pBS KS+) phagemid**

The phagemid vector pBluescript KS+ (pBS KS+) was used for subcloning and was the basic vector used for site directed mutagenesis. Fig. 2.1 shows the map of pBS KS+ vector. The complete manual and sequence information for this vector are available from Stratagene at <http://www.stratagene.com/manuals/212205.pdf>.



**Fig. 2.1** Map of the cloning vector pBS KS+. It consists of an f1 and PUC origin of replication (pUC ori), an ampicillin resistance ORF and a multiple cloning site (MCS) flanked by restriction sites for Kpn I and Sac I.

### 2.1.3.2. pSL1180 superlinker phagemid

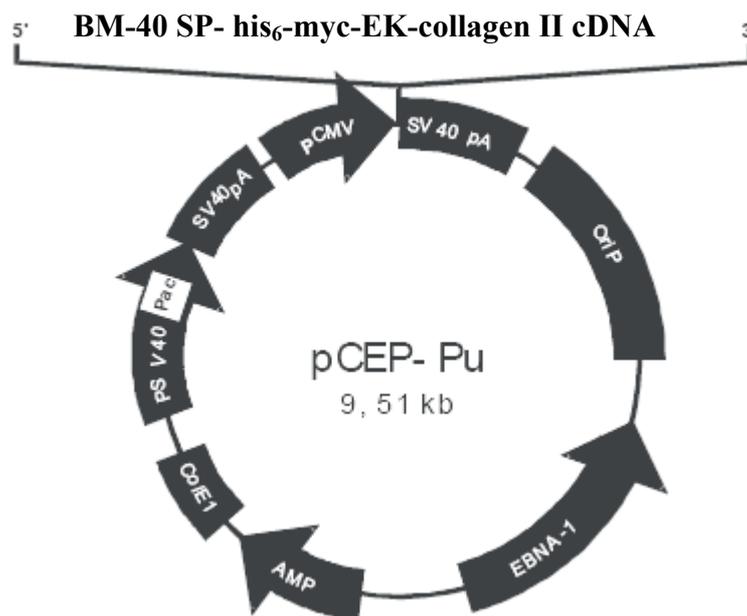


**Fig.2.2** Map of the superlinker phagemid pSL1180. It consists of an ampicillin resistance ( $Amp^r$ ) ORF, an M13 origin of replication and a multiple cloning site. The multiple cloning site and restriction sites are shown in detail.

The phagemid vector pSL1180 was used for subcloning of collagen II cDNA after site directed mutagenesis and to remove the endogenous signal peptide. Fig. 2.2 shows the map of pSL1180 vector with details of multiple cloning sites. A complete description and sequence informations from Amersham Biosciences can be found at <http://www4.amershambiosciences.com/apatrix/upp01077.nsf/Content/Products?OpenDocument&parentid=41175&moduleid=41179>.

### 2.1.3.3 Eukaryotic expression vector pCEP-Pu

The mammalian expression vector pCEP-Pu is a derivative of the pCEP-3 vector (Invitrogen) now containing a BM-40 signal peptide and a puromycin resistance (Kohfeldt et al 1997). In addition an enterokinase cleavage site was introduced between the sequence coding for the his<sub>6</sub>-myc tag and the multiple cloning site (Wuttke et al 2001). This vector was used for expression of all collagen II variants.

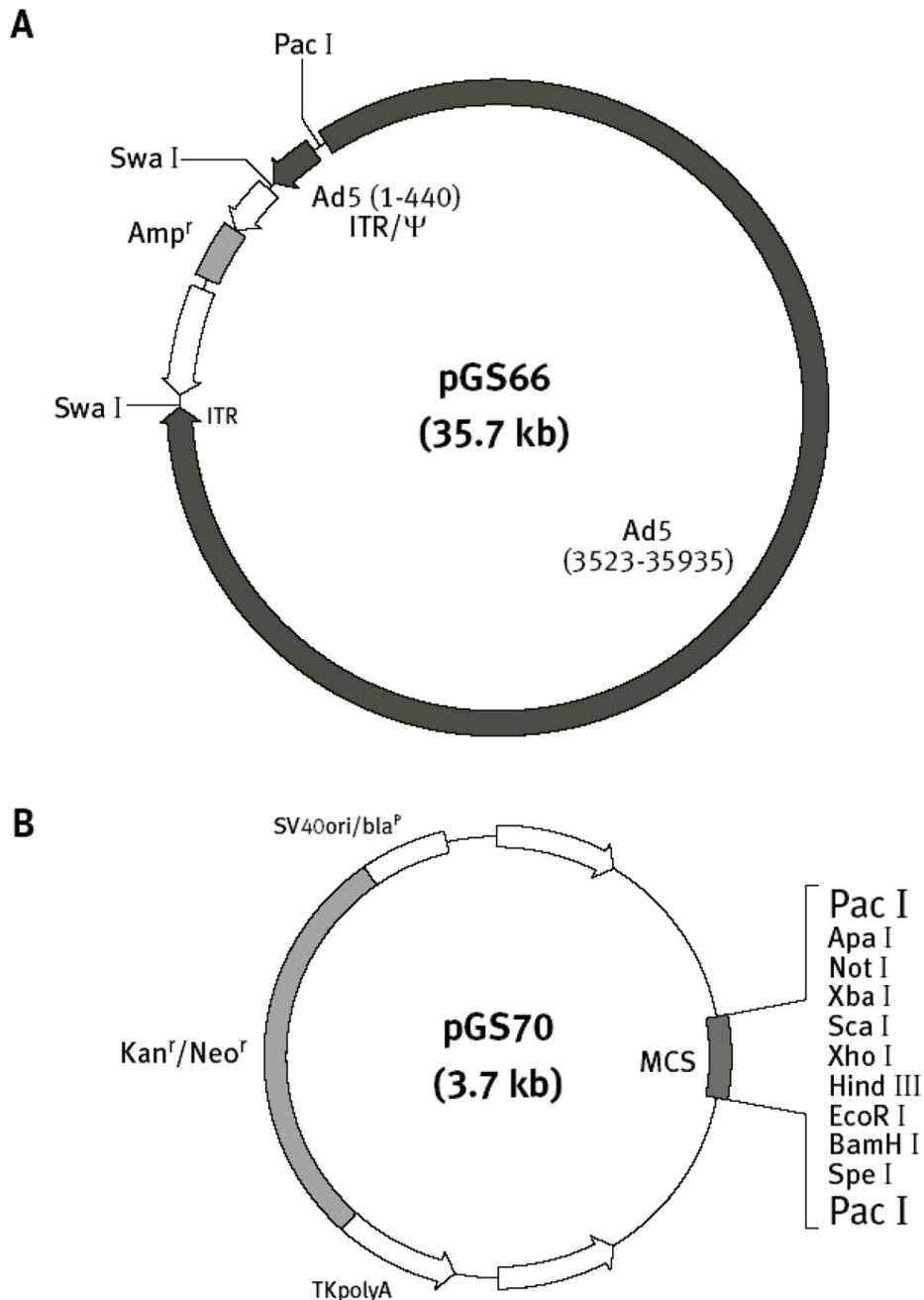


**Fig.2.3: Map of the eukaryotic expression vector pCEP-Pu (Wuttke et al 2001).** This vector contains the signal peptide from BM-40 (BM-40 SP), a his<sub>6</sub>-myc-tag, the site for protease digestion by enterokinase (EK) and multiple cloning site between the CMV promoter and the SV 40 polyadenylation signal (pA).

### 2.1.3.4. Adenoviral vector pGS66 and shuttle vector pGS70

The adenoviral vector pGS66 and the shuttle vector pGS70 were kindly provided by G. Schiedner and S. Kochanek from the Center for Molecular Medicine, University of Cologne, Germany (Schiedner et al. 2000). The adenoviral vectors were used for transfection of primary chondrocytes.

Collagen II cDNA from pCEP-Pu and pGS70 vector was digested with Hind III and Bam HI. After separation by electrophoresis the collagen II cDNA was purified using a gel purification kit. The linearised vector pGS70 was dephosphorylated and purified. Equimolar amounts of vector and insert were used for ligation.



**Fig.2.4: Map of adenoviral vectors used for cloning collagen II cDNA.** (A) Map of the first generation adenoviral vector pGS66 with an ampicillin resistance ( $amp^r$ ) ORF, an adenoviral internal terminal repeats and a Pac I site for cloning the insert. (B) Map of pGS70 vector with a multiple cloning site for use with different enzymes, a SV40 origin of replication and antibiotic resistance markers for kanamycin ( $Kan^r$ ) and neomycin ( $Neo^r$ ).

Collagen II cDNA was released from the vector pGS70 by digesting with the restriction enzyme Pac I. The vector pGS66 was also digested with Pac I and dephosphorylated to avoid self

ligation. Equimolar amounts of vector and insert were used for ligation. 10 µl ligation mixture was used for transformation and colonies obtained were screened for the insert by restriction digestion of the plasmid.

## 2.2 Molecular biology methods

### 2.2.1 Plasmid DNA isolation from *E. coli*

Plasmid DNA was prepared from small scale bacterial cultures. Bacteria were lysed by treatment with a solution containing 1% SDS and 0.5 M NaOH. SDS denatures bacterial proteins and NaOH denatures chromosomal and plasmid DNA. The mixture was neutralized with potassium acetate, causing the plasmid DNA to reanneal rapidly. Most of the chromosomal DNA and bacterial proteins remain in the precipitate, as does SDS forming a complex with the potassium, and are removed by centrifugation. The reannealed plasmid DNA from the supernatant was concentrated by ethanol precipitation.

### 2.2.2 Pure MIDI plasmid DNA isolation

Highly pure plasmid preparations were purified on either a small or a large scale using kits from Macherey-Nagel (Nucleobond AX kit for small scale plasmid preparations) or Qiagen (Qiagen Midi and Maxi Prep kit for large scale plasmid preparations). Briefly, overnight cultures of bacteria, grown in the presence of an antibiotic marker for the plasmid DNA, were pelleted and the cells were lysed by alkali. The supernatant containing plasmid DNA was passed over silica columns whereby the DNA was bound to the matrix and the impurities and digested RNA were washed off. The plasmid DNA was eluted and concentrated by ethanol precipitation. Highly pure plasmid DNA obtained was washed with 70% ethanol to remove salts and further reconstituted in TE buffer. This plasmid DNA was used for site directed mutagenesis, PCR, sequencing and transfection of eukaryotic cells. The protocols were as described by the manufacturer.

### 2.2.3 DNA agarose gel electrophoresis

<b>10X DNA loading buffer</b>	<b>50X Tris acetate buffer (1000 ml)</b>
40% w/v sucrose	242.2 g Tris
0.5% w/v SDS	57.5 ml acetic acid
0.25% w/v bromophenol blue	100 ml of 0.5 M EDTA
in TE buffer pH 7.4	pH 8.0, adjusted with NaOH

**TE Buffer**

10 mM Tris-HCl

1 mM EDTA

pH 7.4

Agarose gel electrophoresis to resolve and purify DNA fragments was performed according to the method described by Sambrook et al. (1989). Electrophoresis was typically performed with 1 % (w/v) agarose gels submerged in a horizontal electrophoresis tank containing 1x TAE buffer at 1-5 V/cm. For resolving fragments less than 1,000 bp, 2.5 % (w/v) agarose gels in 1x TAE buffer were used. DNA size marker (Life Technologies) was always loaded along with the DNA samples in order to estimate the size of the resolved DNA fragments. The gel was run until the bromophenol blue dye present in the DNA loading buffer had migrated the appropriate distance. The gel was examined under UV light at 302 nm and was photographed using a gel documentation system.

**2.2.4 Elution of DNA fragments from agarose gels**

Elution of DNA fragments from agarose gels was performed using UltraClean<sup>TM</sup>15 (MO BIO LABS Inc) DNA purification kit. DNA bands of interest were cut out of the gel along with a minimal amount of agarose and then solubilised in binding buffer at 50 °C. This solution containing DNA was incubated with a silica matrix suspension to bind the DNA which was subsequently centrifuged and washed to remove unbound material. Pure DNA was isolated by incubating the silica matrix DNA pellet with low salt alkaline elution buffer.

**2.2.5 Measurement of DNA and RNA concentrations**

Concentrations of DNA and RNA were estimated by determining the absorbance at 260 nm and 280 nm. A ratio of 1.8 indicates negligible protein contaminations.

**2.2.6 Restriction digestion of DNA**

Digestions were performed using restriction enzymes with the desired buffer and temperature as suggested by the manufacturers. Routinely 1-2 µg of plasmid DNA was digested for 1-2 h.

**2.2.7 Dephosphorylation of 5' ends of linearized vectors**

To avoid self-ligation of the vector having blunt ends or having been digested with a single restriction enzyme, the 5' ends of the linearised plasmids were dephosphorylated by calf

intestinal alkaline phosphatase (CIP). Briefly, 1 µg DNA was suspended in the supplied NEB buffer before 1.0 U CIP was added and incubated for 60 min at 37 °C. DNA was purified by agarose gel electrophoresis.

### 2.2.8 Ligation reaction

The desired DNA fragment and the appropriate linearised plasmid were mixed in approximately equimolar amounts. T4 DNA ligase and ligation buffer containing ATP were added as indicated below and the ligation reaction left overnight at 10-12 °C.

#### Ligation reaction

Linearised vector

DNA fragment

2 µl 10X ligation buffer

1.5 U T4 ligase

add H<sub>2</sub>O to make 20 µl

### 2.2.9 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

PCR can be used for in vitro amplification of DNA fragments (Saiki et al., 1985). A double stranded DNA (dsDNA) serving as a template, two oligonucleotides (primers) complementary to the template DNA, deoxyribonucleotides and heat resistant Taq polymerase are required for this reaction. Primers are designed as required (Table 2.1). The first step in PCR reactions involves the denaturing of dsDNA at 95 °C. Second, the reaction mix is incubated at different annealing temperatures, depending on the G/C content of the primers. The third step is the elongation step with a temperature of 68-72 °C that allows the elongation of the new strand of DNA by the Taq polymerase. A PCR machine (thermocycler) can be programmed to regulate these different cycles automatically. A “standard program” is presented in the table 2.2.

**Table 2.1 Primers and primer sequences used in the present study**

primer name	sequence
XBP-1F	5'-GGAGTTAAGACAGCGCTTGG-3'
XBP-2R	5'-ACTGGGTCCAAGTTGTCCAG-3'

**Table 2.2 Standard PCR programme used in the present study**

step	cycles	temperature	time
Initial denaturation	1	95 °C	1 min
Denaturation	25-35	95 °C	50 s
Annealing	25-35	55-68 °C	50 s
Elongation	25-35	68 °C	1-15 min
Final elongation	1	68 °C	7 min
Cooling	1	4 °C	

### 2.2.10 Collagen II cDNA and patient derived mutations

Human collagen II cDNA of 4.5 kb including the poly adenylation signal was kindly provided by Fibrogen Europe. In the present work, the shorter isoform of collagen II was used (Nah & Upholt 1991, Sandell et al. 1991). Table 2.3 summarizes the patient based and artificial mutations which were selected for this study, all mutations selected lie in the triple helical domain of the protein.

**Table 2.3 Selected mutations used for the present study.** The number represents the amino acid position from the start of triple helical region.

position in Gly-X-Y	X		Y	
	position	amino acid exchange	position	amino acid exchange
	134*	Arg → Cys	75 <sup>a</sup>	Arg → Cys
	704 <sup>b</sup>	Arg → Cys	789 <sup>c</sup>	Arg → Cys
	740*	Arg → Cys		

\* artificial mutation, <sup>a</sup> Williams et al 1993, <sup>b</sup> Ballo et al 1998, <sup>c</sup> Chan et al 1993

### 2.2.11 Subcloning of collagen II cDNA

Due to the size of the full length cDNA, collagen II cDNA was subcloned into smaller fragments which were ligated into pBluescript KS+ vector and used for site directed mutagenesis. After confirmation of the positive clones by restriction analysis and sequencing, the insert was removed and ligated back into the original vector to obtain the complete collagen II cDNA backbone with the desired mutation. The subcloning strategy is illustrated in figure 3.1.

## 2.2.12 Site directed mutagenesis

Site directed mutagenesis was carried out using the XL Quick Change mutagenesis kit from Stratagene following the manufacturers protocol. Fig 2.5 illustrates the procedure. In brief, mutagenesis was carried out by designing specific primers carrying single or double nucleotide changes in the middle of the primers leading to the mutation of interest. After sequencing of the wild type collagen II cDNA an unwanted mutation at codon 52 with a histidine in place of proline was identified. Since this mutation lies in the N-propeptide region, there was a need to correct it by site directed mutagenesis. Primers were designed (His Pro) possessing the desired change along with a silent mutation leading to a new restriction site Xma I, which facilitate identification of positive clones by restriction digestion. The primers used for respective site directed mutagenesis are listed in the table 2.4.

**Table 2.4 Primer pairs used for site directed mutagenesis**

primer name	sequence
75F	5'-GGTCCTCAGGGT <b>GCTTGTGGTTT</b> CCCAGG-3'
75R	3'-CCTGGGAAACCACAAGCACCC <b>CTGAGGACC</b> -5'
134F	5'-CTGGTGAAAGAGGATGCACTGGCCCTGCTG-3'
134R	3'-CCAGCAGGGCCAGTGCATCCTCTTTCACC-5'
704F	5'-GGAGCTGCTGGGTGCGTTGGACCCCC-3'
704R	3'-GGGGGTCCAACGCACCCAGCAGCTCC-5'
740F	5'-CCCCCTGGCTGCGCTGGTGAACCCGG-3'
740R	3'-GGGTTACCCAGCGCAGCCAGGGGGG-5'
789F	5'-GGTCTGCCTGGGCAATGTGGTGAGAGAGGATTCC-3'
789R	3'-GGAATCCTCTCTCACCCACATTGCCCAGGCAGACC-5'
His ProF	5'-GACCCAAAGGACCTCCCGGGCCTCAGGG-3'
His ProR	3'-CCCTGAGGCCCGGGAGGTCCTTTGGGTC-5'

Numbers 75, 134, 704, 740 and 789 stand for the amino acid residue numbered from the start of the triple helix where the mutation of interest is located. His Pro stands for the primers used to correct the unwanted mutation histidine to proline (see details in the text). Nucleotides marked in bold indicate the nucleotide change to introduce the mutation of interest.

The tubes were gently mixed and a standard PCR was run as shown in Table 2.1 with 18 cycles using an annealing temperature of 60 °C for 50 s and an elongation step of 15 min at 68 °C in each cycle. A final elongation step at 68 °C for 7 min was followed. After the PCR reaction, the

enzyme Dpn I was added to each tube to digest the parental DNA and samples were incubated for 2 h at 37 °C.

**Table 2.5 Standard reaction mixture for site directed mutagenesis.**

compound	amount
10X reaction buffer	5.0 µl
cDNA template	2.0 µl (40 ng)
primer F	1.25 µl (125 ng)
primer R	1.25 µl (125 ng)
dNTP mix (10 mM)	1.0 µl
Quick solution	3.0 µl
dd H <sub>2</sub> O	36.5 µl
Pfu Turbo DNA polymerase	1.0 µl

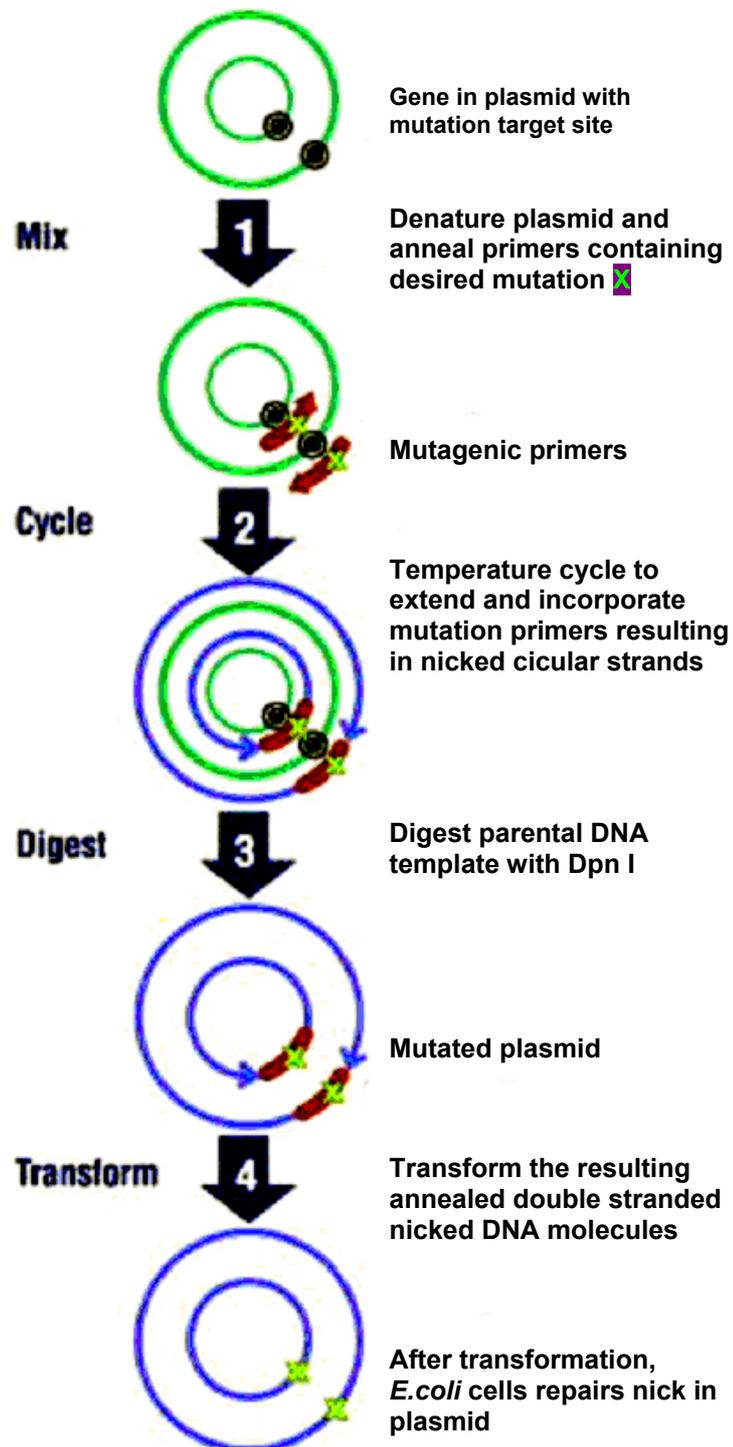
10 µl of each sample was run on a 1% agarose gel. Another 10 µl was used for transformation of XL10 – Gold ultracompetent cells (Stratagene) and SURE cells. In brief, the ultra competent cells were thawed on ice. 2 µl of β-mercaptoethanol was added to 25 µl of each cell suspension, swirled gently and incubated on ice for 10 min with occasional swirling. 10 µl of Dpn I digested DNA was added to the cells, swirled gently to mix and incubated for 30 min on ice, heat pulsed for 30 s at 42 °C and incubated again for 2 min on ice. Finally 0.5 ml of LB or SOC medium was added and incubated at 37 °C for 1h at 250 rpm shaking. 200 µl of the transformation mixture was plated on a LB-ampicillin agar plate and incubated at 37 °C for at least 16 h.

#### **SOC medium**

20 g Bacto-tryptone  
 5 g Bacto-yeast extract  
 0.5 g NaCl  
 2.5 ml 1 M KCl  
 add H<sub>2</sub>O to make 1000 ml  
 pH to 7.0 with 10 N NaOH  
 add 20 ml of sterile 1 M glucose before  
 use after autoclaving

#### **Luria-Bertani (LB) Medium**

10 g Bacto-tryptone  
 5 g Bacto-yeast extract  
 10 g NaCl  
 add H<sub>2</sub>O to make 1000 ml  
 Autoclave



**Fig. 2.5: Schematic representation of XL10 quick change site directed mutagenesis.** A detailed description of the figure is explained in the text.

### 2.2.13 Removal of the collagen II signal peptide

Before cloning into the mammalian expression vector pCEP-Pu, the signal peptide of collagen II cDNA had to be removed since pCEP-Pu bears a BM-40 signal peptide. Primers (Table 2.6) were designed to have the Nhe I overhangs at the 5' end of the forward primer and start of collagen II cDNA without the signal peptide. The reverse primer was 1.4 kb downstream. The PCR product was cloned into pBS KS+ vector after digesting both the PCR product and the vector with Nhe I and Sac II. This insert after sequencing was excised from the vector and cloned into collagen II cDNA which was excised from pBS KS+ vector by Spe I and EcoR V and cloned into pSL 1180 vector.

**Table 2.6. Primers used for deletion of the signal peptide sequence from the collagen II cDNA**

primer name	sequence
Nhe I SP-F	5'-GCCGCTAGCCCAGGATGTCCGGC-3'
Sac II-R	3'-GGAAACCGCGGTTGCCGGGAGC-5'

### 2.2.14 Screening for recombinants and sequencing

Colonies obtained were individually picked and inoculated into sterile LB media containing 200 µg/µl of ampicillin and were allowed to grow for 12 h. Plasmid DNA was isolated by a slightly modified method based on a commercially available Qiagen kit as per the manufacturer's instructions. 2 µl was used to check for size and purity on a 1% agarose gel and further confirmation obtained by restriction digestion. 1 µl of the plasmid preparation was mixed with 1 µl of primer (125 ng) and sequenced at the service facility of the Centre for Molecular Medicine, University of Cologne by modified dideoxy nucleotide termination method using a 'Perkin Elmer ABI prism 377' DNA sequencer.

### 2.2.15 Eukaryotic expression vector

pCEP-Pu with an N-terminal his<sub>6</sub>-myc tag was used as the basic mammalian expression system (Wuttke et al. 2001). Wild type and mutated collagen II cDNA was excised from pSL1180 using Nhe I and Bam HI and then ligated into the pCEP-Pu expression vector which was digested with the same enzyme and dephosphorylated. 10 µl ligation mixture was transformed into SURE cells and plated these on LB agar plates containing ampicillin and grown overnight. Colonies were picked and the plasmid isolated from 2 ml cultures. These clones were screened by restriction digestion and positive clones sequenced.

### **2.2.16 RNA isolation from cultured HT1080 cells**

Total RNA was isolated from transfected HT1080 cells grown in 6 well plates using the TRIZOL reagent (Invitrogen) as per the manufacturer's instruction. Briefly,  $3 \times 10^5$  cells which were transfected in six well plates were rinsed with PBS and 1 ml of TRIZOL reagent was added to lyse the cells. This homogenate was transferred to an RNase free microfuge tube and incubated for 5 min at room temperature to permit the complete dissociation of nucleoprotein complexes. 0.2 ml of chloroform per 1 ml of TRIZOL reagent was added, mixed well by vortexing for 15 s and incubated for 2 to 3 min. Samples were centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 2 °C. During centrifugation the mixture separated into a lower red phenol-chloroform phase, an interphase, and a colorless upper aqueous phase. RNA remained exclusively in the aqueous phase which was carefully transferred to a fresh tube without transferring any of the interphase material. RNA was precipitated from the aqueous phase by mixing with 0.5 ml isopropyl alcohol and incubating the samples at room temperature for 10 min followed by centrifugation at 12,000 g for 10 min at 2 °C. The RNA precipitate obtained was washed with 70% ethanol to remove all traces of isopropanol and centrifuged again. The RNA pellet was reconstituted in 20 µl of DEPC water.

### **2.2.17 Reverse transcription**

Isolated RNA was converted into cDNA using reverse transcriptase (Superscript II, Invitrogen) and an Oligo-dT-Primer. 2 µl of total RNA was mixed with 25 µM Oligo-dT-Primer and the volume adjusted to 12 µl with DEPC water. Secondary structures in the RNA were removed by incubating for 10 min at 70 °C and then cooling on ice. The reaction mixture containing 0.5 µl reverse transcriptase (200 U/µl), 4 µl enzyme buffer, 0.5 µl RNase-inhibitor (40 U/µl, Roche), 1 µl dNTP mix (10 mM mix of dATP, dGTP, dCTP, dTTP) und 2 µl 0.1 % DTT was added and incubated for 50 min at 42 °C. The reaction was stopped by denaturing the enzyme by heating to 72 °C. cDNA obtained was frozen at -20 °C and 1 µl of this cDNA was used for polymerase chain reaction.

## **2.3 Cell biology methods**

### **2.3.1 Cell culture and maintenance of 293 EBNA and HT1080 cells**

293 EBNA cells (Invitrogen) derived from human embryonic kidney and HT1080 (CCL-121 from ATTC) cells derived from human fibrosarcoma were cultured in DMEM-F12 containing 200 U/ml penicillin, 200 µg/ml streptomycin, 20 mM L-glutamine and 10 % FBS (Biochrom), from now on referred to as standard medium, at 37 °C in a humified incubator with a 5 % CO<sub>2</sub>

atmosphere. Media were supplemented with 100 µg/ml ascorbate during expression of recombinant collagens since ascorbate acts as a cofactor for proline hydroxylation during collagen biosynthesis.

### **2.3.2 Transfection 293 EBNA and HT1080 cells with FuGene6**

6 µl of FuGene6 (Roche) reagent was added to a microfuge tube containing 94 µl of serum free medium, after 5 min incubation this solution was added to another microfuge tube containing 1 µg of plasmid DNA. The reaction mixture was mixed well and incubated for 15 min at room temperature. The suspension was again mixed and added dropwise on to cells which were at 70 % confluency. After 24 h fresh medium was added, containing 1 µg/ml puromycin if the cells were to be selected.

### **2.3.3 Isolation and culture of bovine chondrocytes**

Bovine humeroscapular joints of 18–24 month old animals were obtained from the local slaughterhouse. Aseptically, cartilage tissue was exposed, scraped and collected. Chondrocytes were isolated by sequential digestion with pronase (0.4 % w/v; 1.5 h at 37°C) and collagenase P (0.025% w/v; overnight at 37 °C) in DMEM containing 5% v/v FBS and 50 µg/ml gentamicin. The isolated chondrocytes were plated at a density of  $3 \times 10^4$  cells/cm<sup>2</sup>. After reaching confluency cells were subcultured twice a week and grown in standard medium containing ascorbate.

### **2.3.4 Passaging of cell lines**

When the cells had grown to confluency cell culture media were aspirated and the cells washed once with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; 137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 4.3 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 1.4 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, pH 7.4) to remove all traces of serum that contains trypsin inhibitor. Cells were detached from the surface using a minimal volume of 0.05% trypsin and 0.02% EDTA in PBS, pH 7.4. Cells that were difficult to detach were placed at 37 °C to facilitate dispersal, fresh growth medium supplemented with serum added to neutralize the action of trypsin and cells aspirated by gentle pipetting. If required, cells were counted before aliquoting into new culture vessels or split 1:4 during routine cell culture. Cultures were incubated at 37 °C.

### **2.3.5 Freezing cells for storage**

Cells were trypsinised, resuspended in growth medium supplemented with 20% FBS and 10% DMSO (Sigma-Aldrich) which acts as cryoprotectant. Cells were transferred into cryotubes

which were slowly cooled down to -80 °C in a cryobox containing isopropanol. 24 hours later they were placed in liquid nitrogen for longer conservation.

### **2.3.6 Thawing of frozen cells**

Frozen cryotubes containing the cells were rapidly defrosted in a 37 °C water bath. The thawed cell suspension was diluted in standard medium and centrifuged at 1000 g for 5 mins to remove DMSO. The cells were then resuspended in fresh standard growth medium.

### **2.3.7 Cell counting**

Cells were trypsinised, collected by centrifugation (1000 g, 5 min) and resuspended in a small volume of medium. A 10 µl aliquot was introduced in a Neubauer's chamber with a pipette, cells counted and the cell number per ml calculated.

### **2.3.8 Immunofluorescence staining**

Sterile glass cover slips were washed with 1 N HCl, sterile water and 70% ethanol. After drying, they were placed in a 24 well culture plate and sterilized under UV light for 20 min. 25,000 cells were added into each well and grown overnight. Cells were transfected with Fugene6 as mentioned above and next day the media were replaced with fresh standard medium containing 100 µg/ml ascorbate. Depending on the experimental requirements, cells were fixed either two or three days after transfection at room temperature with a freshly prepared 4% paraformaldehyde solution in PBS for 15 min and subsequently permeabilised with 1% Triton-X100 in PBS for 4 min. Immediately, cells were washed three times with PBS followed by blocking with 1% normal goat serum (NGS) for 30 min to avoid unspecific binding of antibodies. Subsequently the fixed cells were incubated with the primary antibodies in PBS for 60 min and washed four times with PBS before applying the fluorochrome conjugated secondary antibodies in PBS for 60 min. Cells were washed three times with PBS to remove unbound secondary antibodies and incubated with bisbenzimidazole (Sigma, 0.1 µg/ml) for 5 min to stain the nuclei, followed by two additional washing steps to remove unbound bisbenzimidazole. Cover slips containing stained cells were carefully lifted from wells and mounted on histoslides with fluorescent mounting medium (DAKO). All the steps after adding secondary antibody were performed in dark. The list of primary and secondary antibodies used is shown in the table 2.7.

**Table 2.7 List of primary and secondary antibodies used in immunofluorescence**

<b>Antibody</b>	<b>Dilution</b>	<b>Company</b>
<b>Primary antibodies</b>		
Mouse monoclonal anti-c-myc	1:1000	Santa Cruz
Rabbit polyclonal anti-c-myc	1:1000	Santa Cruz
Mouse monoclonal anti-Golgi 58K protein	1:1000	Sigma
Mouse monoclonal anti-PDI (ER marker)	1:1000	Stress Gene
Rabbit polyclonal anti-Grp78 (BiP)	1:1000	Stress Gene
Mouse monoclonal FITC conjugated rabbit anti-active caspase-3	1:500	BD Biosciences
<b>Secondary antibodies</b>		
Alexa 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG	1:1000	Molecular Probes
Alexa 546 goat anti-rabbit IgG	1:1000	Molecular Probes

### 2.3.9 Image analysis

Immunofluorescence stainings were observed with an inverted fluorescence microscope. Digital images obtained were acquired with the Metamorph software and processed using Adobe Photoshop.

### 2.3.10 Comet assay or single cell gel electrophoresis (SCGE)

Fully frosted slides were precoated with 1 % solution of normal agarose in PBS and allowed to dry, this layer supports the attachment of the cell containing agarose layer. Single cell suspensions obtained by trypsinisation were counted, diluted to give approximately  $5 \times 10^4$  cells/ml and reduced to 100  $\mu$ l volume by centrifugation. 80  $\mu$ l of each final suspension was added to 400  $\mu$ l of 0.5% low melting agarose maintained at 37 °C and 90  $\mu$ l of this suspension was pipetted onto a precoated slide. An additional 1% low melting agarose layer without cells was added after solidification of the above layer. After solidification, the slides were placed in alkaline lysis solution (2.5 M NaCl, 100 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1% Triton X-100, 10% DMSO, pH to 10.0) and the cells were lysed in the dark at 4 °C for 1 h. Slides were then rinsed for 30 min in three changes of neutralizing solution (400 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5) to remove all detergents and salts. After rinsing, slides were placed side by side in a horizontal electrophoresis chamber containing freshly made electrophoresis buffer (300 mM NaOH, 1 mM EDTA, pH>13)

and incubated in the alkaline buffer for 20 to 60 min to allow unwinding of the DNA. The slides were subjected to electrophoresis at 0.6 V/cm for 30 min. Following electrophoresis, the slides were rinsed with neutralisation buffer twice, stained with 100  $\mu$ l ethidium bromide solution (10 mg/ml) and scored immediately or dried in cold 100 % ethanol before storage. Comets were visualized using an inverted fluorescence microscope and evaluated using TriTek CometScore™ software.

### 2.3.11 Nick labelling

Apoptosis was detected using the DeadEnd™ Fluorometric TUNEL System from Promega following a slightly modified manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, four days post transfection cells were fixed by immersion in 4% paraformaldehyde solution for 25 min, washed twice in PBS for 5 min and permeabilized by adding 0.2% Triton X-100 solution in PBS for 5 min. After washing in PBS cells were incubated in 100  $\mu$ l of equilibration buffer at room temperature for 5–10 min. Cells were incubated with 50  $\mu$ l of reaction buffer (rTdT incubation buffer) at 37 °C for 60 min inside a dark humidified chamber to allow for the tailing reaction, which was terminated by adding 2X SSC for 15 min. Cover slips were washed with PBS twice to remove unincorporated fluorescein-12-dUTP. Bisbenzimidazole (0.1  $\mu$ g/ml in PBS) was added for 5 min to stain the nuclei and cells were washed twice to remove unbound bisbenzimidazole. Cover slips were washed once with deionized water for 5 min at room temperature and excess water was drained and blotted with tissue paper. Cover slips were mounted on histoslides with DAKO mounting medium.

#### **Equilibration buffer**

200 mM potassium cacodylate (pH 6.6)

25 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.6)

0.2 mM DTT

0.25 mg/ml BSA

2.5 mM cobalt chloride

#### **rTdT incubation buffer**

Combine the following:

90  $\mu$ l equilibration buffer

10  $\mu$ l nucleotide mix

2  $\mu$ l rTdT enzyme

#### **Nucleotide mix**

50  $\mu$ M fluorescein-12-dUTP

100  $\mu$ M dATP

10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.6)

1 mM EDTA

#### **20X SSC**

87.7 g NaCl

44.1 g sodium citrate

pH 7.2

### **2.3.12 Transduction of chondrocytes and transgene expression**

First generation and high capacity gutless adenoviral particles were transduced by addition of 10 to 1000 moieties of infection (MOI). This was added with 0.75 ml of fresh culture medium to each well of a six-well plate containing  $3 \times 10^5$  adherent cells and incubated at 37 °C. Transgene expression in chondrocytes was monitored by the EGFP expression using fluorescence and phase contrast microscopy.

### **2.3.13 Cell toxicity**

Trypsinised cells were collected and washed with PBS. After adding equal amounts of trypan blue (0.5% w/v in 0.9% NaCl) to the cell suspensions, cells were immediately counted in a Neubauer's chamber and simultaneously compared with the number of live cells expressing eGFP using fluorescent microscopy.

## **2.4 Biochemical methods**

### **2.4.1 Harvesting of supernatants from 293 EBNA cells**

Transfected and selected 293 EBNA cells were expanded in standard growth medium supplemented with 50 µg/ml β-aminopropionitrile to avoid crosslinking of expressed collagens. On reaching confluency the FBS was reduced to 2%. Cell culture supernatants were harvested every day and fresh media supplemented with fresh ascorbate and β-aminopropionitrile were added.

### **2.4.2 Isolation and purification of collagens from the supernatants**

Immobilized-metal affinity chromatography (IMAC) was used for purification of recombinantly secreted collagens with N-terminal his-tags. Supernatants were thawed and the protease inhibitors PMSF (0.5 mM) and NEM (0.5 mM) added. Supernatants (pH adjusted to 8.0) were filtered through Whatman filter paper to remove suspended particles and the filtrate was loaded onto a column already packed with 2 ml Ni-NTA superflow matrix (Qiagen) at the rate of 1 ml/min at 4 °C. After complete loading of the supernatants the impurities and unspecifically bound proteins were washed off the column with 50 ml buffer A and the bound native proteins eluted with buffer B.

<b>Buffer A/Wash buffer</b>	<b>Buffer B/Elution buffer</b>
50 mM NaH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	50 mM NaH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>
300 mM NaCl	300 mM NaCl
20 mM imidazole	250 mM imidazole
0.05% Tween 20	Adjust pH to 8.0 using NaOH
Adjust pH to 8.0 using NaOH	

### 2.4.3 Estimation of protein concentration

The concentration of purified collagen II variants was determined by the bicinchoninic acid assay (BC assay protein quantitation kit, Uptima) as per the manufacturer's instructions. Pepsin extracted collagen from bovine nasal septum (Sigma) was used as an additional standard along with BSA.

### 2.4.4 SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS PAGE)

SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was performed using the buffer system of Laemmli (1970). Gels were prepared using glass plates of 10 cm x 7.5 cm and spacers of 0.5 cm thickness. A 15 well comb was generally used for formation of the wells in the stacking gel. The composition of 8% resolving and 4% stacking gels is given in Table 2.8.

Protein samples were mixed with an equal volume of 2X SDS sample buffer whereas cells were lysed and resuspended in 1X SDS sample buffer. Before loading, samples were reduced and denatured by adding 5% β-mercaptoethanol and heating at 95 °C for 5 min. A molecular weight marker (NEB), run simultaneously on the same gel in an adjacent lane, was used as a standard to establish the apparent molecular weights of proteins resolved on SDS polyacrylamide gels.

**Table 2.8. Composition of stacking and separating gels for SDS PAGE**

component	stacking gel 4%	separating gel 8%
AA/Bis (30 %/0.8 %)	4.1 ml	7.2 ml
1 M Tris pH 8.8	-	10.2 ml
1 M Tris pH 6.8	3.7 ml	-
H <sub>2</sub> O	22.3 ml	9.2 ml
10% SDS	300 μl	300 μl
10% APS	300 μl	95 μl
TEMED	41 μl	24 μl

The molecular weight markers were prepared according to the manufacturer's specifications. Pepsin extracted collagen II (Sigma) was used as an additional molecular standard marker. After loading the samples onto the gel, electrophoresis was performed in 1X running buffer at a constant voltage of 100-150 V until the bromophenol blue dye front had reached the bottom edge of the gel or had just run out of the gel. After electrophoresis, the resolved proteins in the gel were either stained with Coomassie blue, silver nitrate or transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane for western blotting.

**2X SDS sample buffer**

100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8

4 % v/v SDS

20 % v/v glycerine

0.2 % w/v bromophenol blue

**10X running buffer:**

1.9 M glycine

0.25 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.8

1% SDS

### 2.4.5 Coomassie blue staining of SDS-polyacrylamide gels

The resolved proteins were visualised by staining the gel with Coomassie blue staining solution at room temperature with gentle agitation for at least 60 min. Then, the staining solution was removed and destaining solution was added. The gel was destained at room temperature with gentle agitation with several changes of destaining solution until protein bands were clearly visible.

**Coomassie blue staining solution**

0.1% w/v Coomassie blue R250

50% v/v ethanol

10% v/v acetic acid

filter the solution before use

**Destaining solution**

7% v/v acetic acid

20% v/v ethanol

### 2.4.6 Silver staining of gels

Gels were carefully removed after separation of proteins and fixed by immersing in fixative solution for 15 min with two changes of fixative. To this 50 ml of sensitizer was added and incubated for 20 min. Gels were rinsed in demineralised water three times for 5 min each. 0.1 % silver nitrate solution was added and incubated for 15 min before the gel was quickly rinsed with demineralised water. 40 ml of developer was added and the reaction was stopped by adding the fixative solution as soon as bands appear.

**Fixative**

250 ml methanol  
25 ml acetic acid  
to 500 ml with water

**Sensitizer**

150 ml ethanol  
27.2 g sodium acetate  
1.5 ml acetic acid  
10 ml glutaraldehyde (25 %)  
0.5 g sodium thiosulfate pentahydrate  
to 500 ml with water

**Silver nitrate solution**

0.5 g silver nitrate  
to 500 ml with water  
80  $\mu$ l of formalin  
added freshly to every 50 ml solution

**Developer**

541  $\mu$ l formalin  
10 g sodium carbonate  
to 500 ml with water

### 2.4.7 Transfer of proteins to nitrocellulose membranes

Proteins resolved on the gel were transferred electrophoretically to a nitrocellulose membrane in transfer buffer at a constant current of 100 mA overnight at 4°C. After transfer the membrane was stained in 10-15 ml of Ponceau S (Serva) solution for 2-5 min at room temperature to check the transfer of proteins. After staining, the membrane was removed from the Ponceau S solution and rinsed with water to destain until protein bands were visible and the background was clear. The positions of the constituent proteins of the molecular weight marker were marked and the membrane washed with TBS to completely remove the stain.

### 2.4.8 Immunodetection of membrane bound proteins

Nitrocellulose membranes with bound proteins were blocked with 5% low fat milk powder in TBS for 1 h. The membrane was incubated 1 to 2 h at room temperature with primary antibody diluted appropriately in 5% low fat milk powder in TBS followed by three washes of 5 min each in TBST buffer. Appropriately diluted secondary antibody coupled with horseradish peroxidase was added to the membrane and incubated at room temperature for one hour. Finally the membrane was rinsed in TBST buffer three times for 5 min each to remove unbound antibody and the reaction was detected using an chemiluminescence detection system. The light signals were captured by exposure to X-ray film (RX-Super, Fujifilm).

**Table 2.9. List of primary and secondary antibodies used in Western blot**

<b>Antibody</b>	<b>Dilution</b>	<b>Company</b>
<b>Primary antibodies</b>		
Mouse monoclonal anti-c-myc	1:1000	Santa Cruz
Rabbit polyclonal anti-c-myc	1:1000	Santa Cruz
Goat polyclonal anti-collagen II	1:1000	Chemicon
<b>Secondary antibodies</b>		
Peroxidase conjugated anti-goat IgG	1:1000	Dako
Peroxidase conjugated anti-rabbit IgG	1:1000	Dako
Peroxidase conjugated anti-mouse IgG	1:1000	Dako

**Transfer buffer**

50 mM boric acid, pH 8.5  
10 % methanol

**ECL detection**

100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8,5  
1.25 mM luminol  
225 nM coumarin  
0.03 % hydrogen peroxide

**2.4.9 Trypsin digestion of purified collagen II proteins**

10 µl of trypsin solution (100 µg in 10 mM EDTA) was added to 50 µl of eluted protein (50 µg/ml of protein) at pH 8.0 and incubated at 25 °C for 2 min. The reaction was stopped by adding 5 µl of soyabean trypsin inhibitor and 50 µl 2X SDS PAGE sample. Samples were boiled at 95 °C for 10 min, resolved on 8% SDS PAGE gels and subsequently the proteins detected by silver staining.

**2.4.10 Measurement of circular dichroism spectra and melting curves**

Purified collagen II proteins were dialyzed in 100 mM acetic acid and the concentration was adjusted to 60 µg/ml. 200 µl of this solution was used to measure the spectrum between 190 nm and 280 nm using a Jasco J-715 Polarimeter at 4 °C. Melting curves were registered at 222 nm with in a temperature range of 10 °C to 55 °C at increments of 1 °C /min.

### **2.4.11 Negative staining of collagens for electron microscopy**

Purified recombinant collagen II proteins and its variants were adsorbed to 400 mesh carbon-coated copper grids, which had been rendered hydrophilic by glow-discharge at low pressure in air. The grids were immediately blotted, washed with two drops of water, and stained with 0.75 % uranyl formate for 15 s. Samples were observed in a Jeol 1200 EX transmission electron microscope operated at 60 kV accelerating voltage and 300000X magnification. These experiments were performed at the University of Lund in cooperation with Dr. M. Mörgelin.

### **2.4.12 Inhibition of proteolytic processing of collagen II using specific inhibitors**

Three days after transfection, HT1080 cells in six well plates were washed with medium and fresh medium, supplemented with 100 µg/ml of ascorbate and 50 µM proteasomal inhibitor MG132 (10 mM stock in DMSO) was added. Supernatants were collected 6 h, 12 h and 24 h respectively and resolved on an 8 % SDS-PAGE. Collagen II and fragments thereof were detected by western blot using an antibody directed against the myc epitope.

GM6001 is a universal inhibitor of the MMP pathway. Three days after transfection of HT1080 cells with collagen II constructs, supernatants were collected and the cells rinsed with fresh media. 25 µM GM6001 (1 mM stock in DMSO) was added to the growth medium supplemented with 100 µg/ml of ascorbate. Supernatants and cell lysates were harvested 48 h after addition of the inhibitor and resolved by SDS-PAGE on 8% gels. Collagen II and fragments thereof were detected by western blot using the anti-myc antibody.

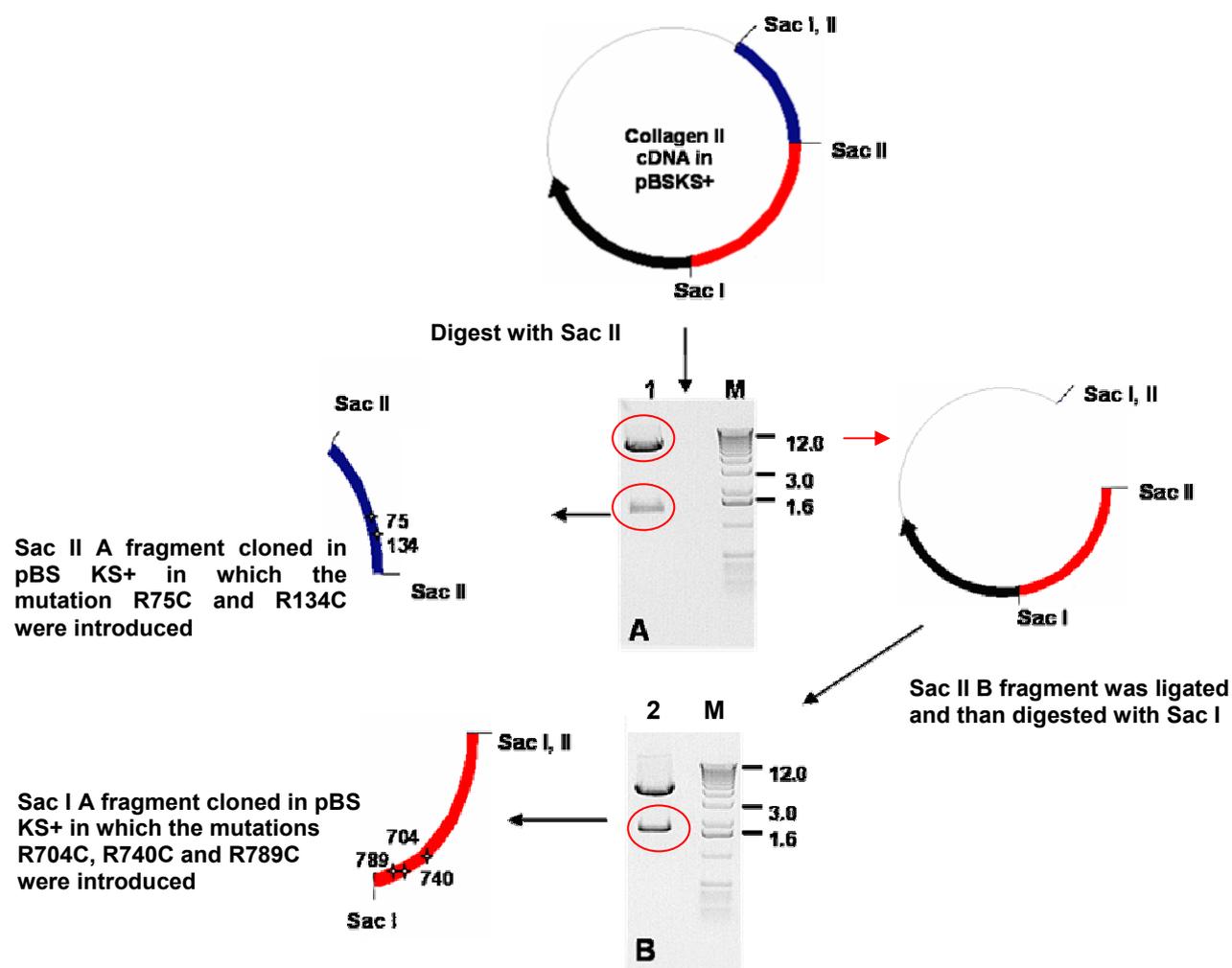
### **2.4.13 Mass spectrometry of purified collagen II variants**

Purified collagen II samples were reduced with 10 mM DTT at 37 °C for 2 h, alkylated with 20 mM iodoacetamide for 1 h at 37 °C and then reduced again. MALDI-TOF spectra were obtained at service facility of the Centre for Molecular Medicine, University of Cologne, using a Reflex IV Bruker Daltonics Mass spectrometer.

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Subcloning of collagen II cDNA

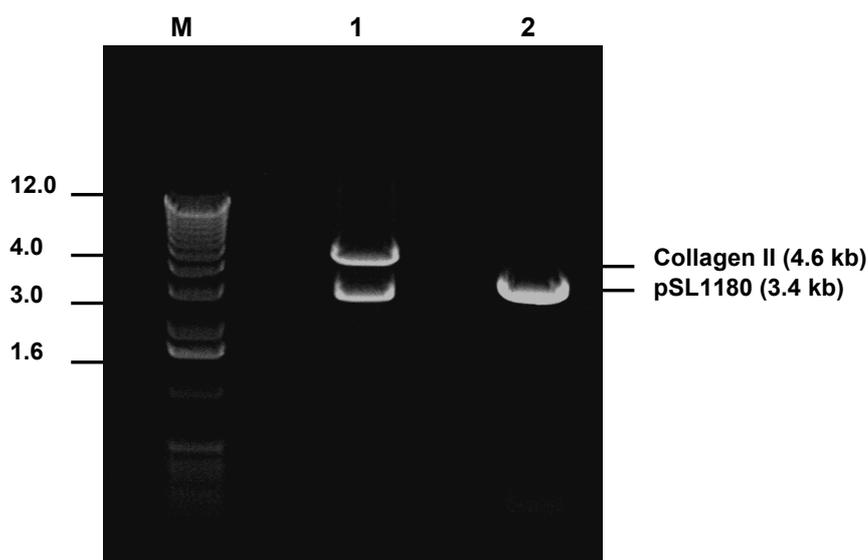
Collagen II cDNA in the pBS KS<sup>+</sup> vector was subcloned into smaller fragments and these fragments were used for site directed mutagenesis to introduce desired point mutations. Attempts to introduce specific point mutations in full length collagen II cDNA were futile due to the frequent introduction of unwanted mutations. Further the sequence analysis was cumbersome due to the high GC content. Fig 3.1 represents a schematic outline of the cloning strategy.



After subcloning of the smaller fragment, the point mutations R75C and R134C were introduced in the Sac II A fragment and the mutations R704C, R740C and R789C in the Sac I A fragment. After sequence analysis to confirm the mutation of interest the respective fragments were digested from their vectors and cloned back into the original backbone vector to give full length cDNA with the desired mutation. All the cDNAs were sequenced to rule out unwanted mutations.

### 3.2 Cloning of collagen II cDNA into pSL1180 vector

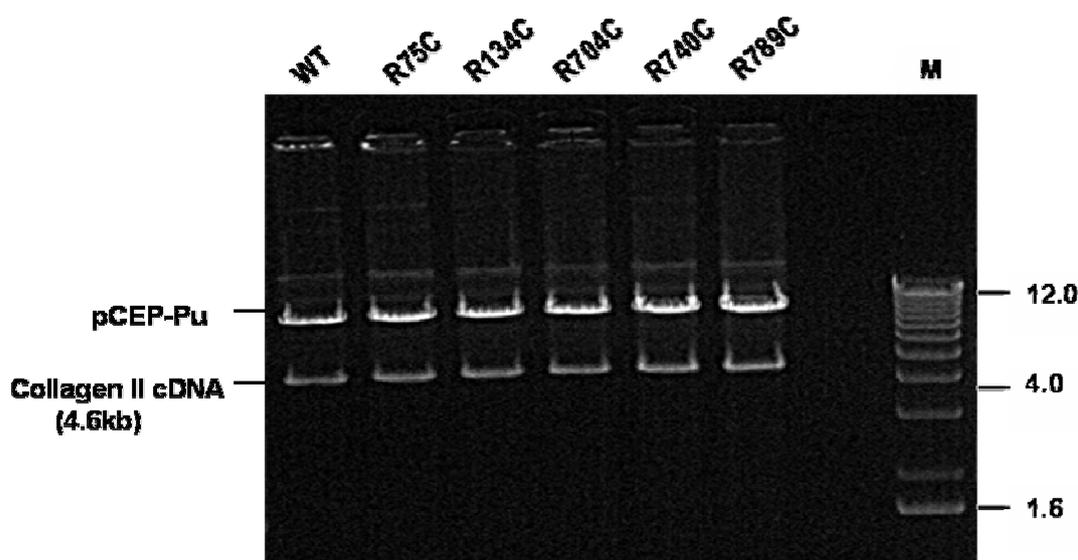
The endogenous signal peptide in the collagen II cDNA had to be removed since the mammalian expression vector pCEP-Pu already contains the BM 40 signal peptide. Hence it was necessary to clone the collagen II cDNA constructs from the pBS KS+ vector to the pSL1180 vector. After mutagenesis, the collagen II cDNA was excised from the pBS KS+ vector by digestion with Spe I and Eco RV and then ligated into pSL1180 which was digested with the same enzymes and dephosphorylated (Fig 3.2).



**Fig. 3.2 Cloning of collagen II cDNA from the pBS KS+ vector into the pSL1180 vector for deletion of the endogenous signal peptide.** A 1% agarose gel showing restriction digestion products after digestion with Spe I and Eco RV of collagen II cDNA in the pBS KS+ vector (lane 1) and the pSL1180 vector (lane 2). M represents the DNA standard marker.

### 3.3 Cloning of collagen II cDNA without signal peptide into the mammalian expression vector pCEP-Pu

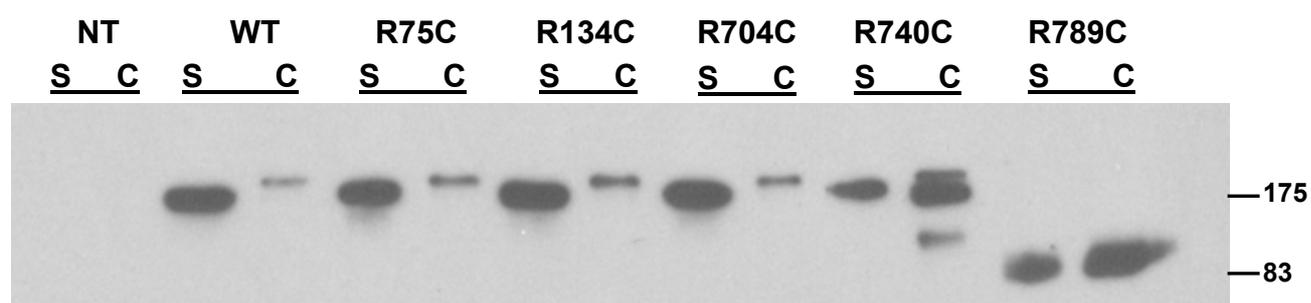
Collagen II cDNA without endogenous signal peptide was excised from the pSL1180 vector at the Nhe I and Bam HI positions and ligated into the pCEP-Pu vector which had been digested with Nhe I and Bam HI. Fig 3.3 shows all the collagen II variants after digestion of the pCEP-Pu vector.



**Fig 3.3 Restriction digestion of all collagen II constructs from pCEP-Pu.** DNA was separated on a 1% agarose gel after restriction digestion with Nhe I and Bam HI of the collagen II cDNA cloned in the mammalian expression vector pCEP-Pu. M, DNA standard marker.

### 3.4 Transient expression of collagen II proteins in 293 EBNA cells

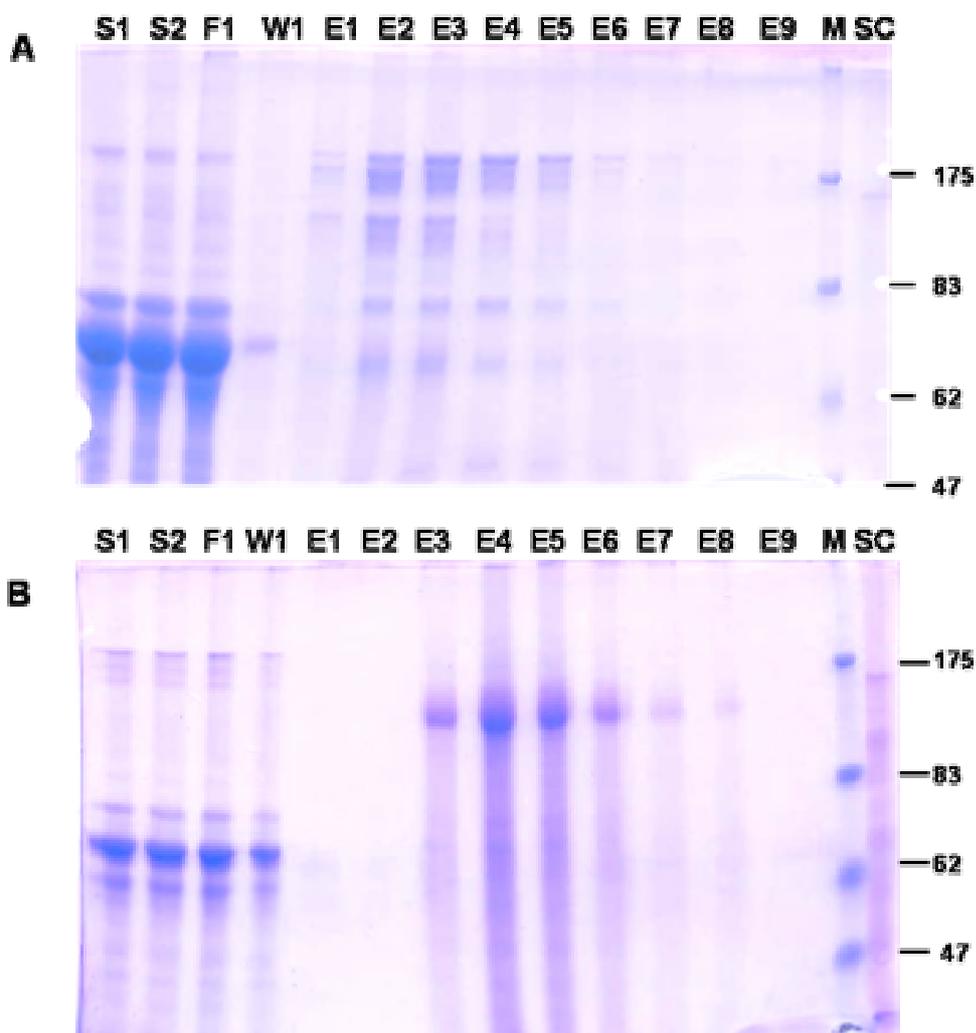
Supernatants and cell lysates from 293 EBNA cells transfected with collagen II constructs were reduced with mercaptoethanol and proteins separated on a 8% SDS PAGE gel (Fig 3.4). Recombinantly expressed collagen II was in all cases detected in the supernatants of transfected 293 EBNA cells. Significantly higher amounts of proteins were seen in the cell lysates of R740C and R789C transfected cells as compared with cells expressing other collagen II variants. In addition, the mobility of the R789C protein was altered as compared with other collagens. Collagens in the cell lysates migrate slightly higher than those in the supernatants.



**Fig 3.4 Western blot analysis of supernatants and cell extracts of transfected 293 EBNA cells.** 293 EBNA cells transiently transfected with different collagen II constructs were analysed by western blot for expression of collagen II proteins. Supernatants (S) and cell lysates (C) harvested three days post transfection were separated by SDS PAGE (8% gel) under reducing conditions and the blot was developed with an antibody directed against the myc epitope. NT, non transfected; WT, wild type; R75C, R134C, R134, R704C, R740C and R789C are cells transfected with the respective mutated collagen II variants.

### 3.5 Purification of recombinantly expressed collagen II

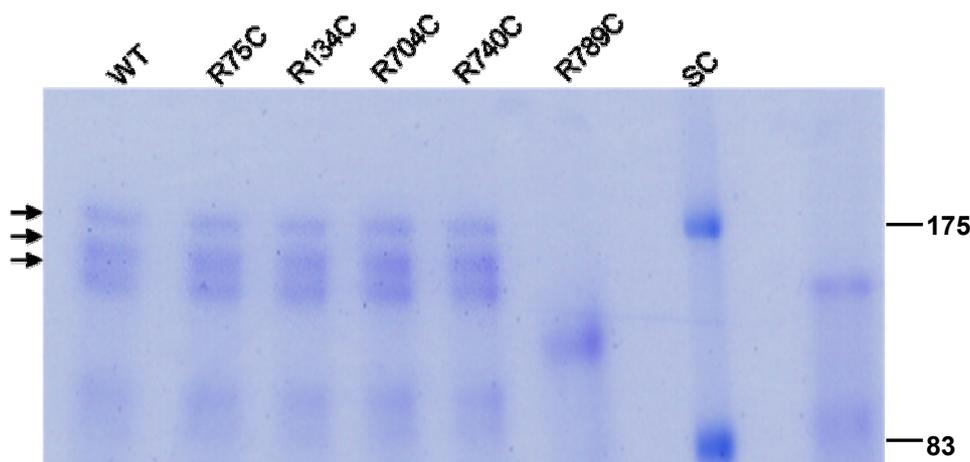
To analyze the effect of these mutations by physicochemical and structural methods, proteins were purified from the media of 293 EBNA cells. Supernatants were harvested from 293 EBNA cells expressing his<sub>6</sub>-myc-tagged recombinant collagen II constructs and these were subjected to affinity chromatography using a nickel-NTA column. The bound protein was eluted with increasing imidazole concentrations (up to 250 mM). Fractions containing collagen II variants were separated by SDS PAGE and the gels subjected to Coomassie blue staining. Fig 3.5 shows representative gels from the purification of the wildtype and R789C constructs.



**Fig 3.5 Protein fractions from various stages of collagen purification resolved on 8% SDS PAGE gels stained with Coomassie blue.** Panel A depicts a Coomassie stained gel of fractions from wild type collagen II and panel B shows the corresponding gel for R789C mutant collagen. S1, S2, cell culture supernatants; F1, flow through; W1, wash; E1 to E9, elution fractions 1 to 9; M, marker; SC, pepsin extracted collagen II (Sigma)

### 3.6 Coomassie staining of purified collagen II variants

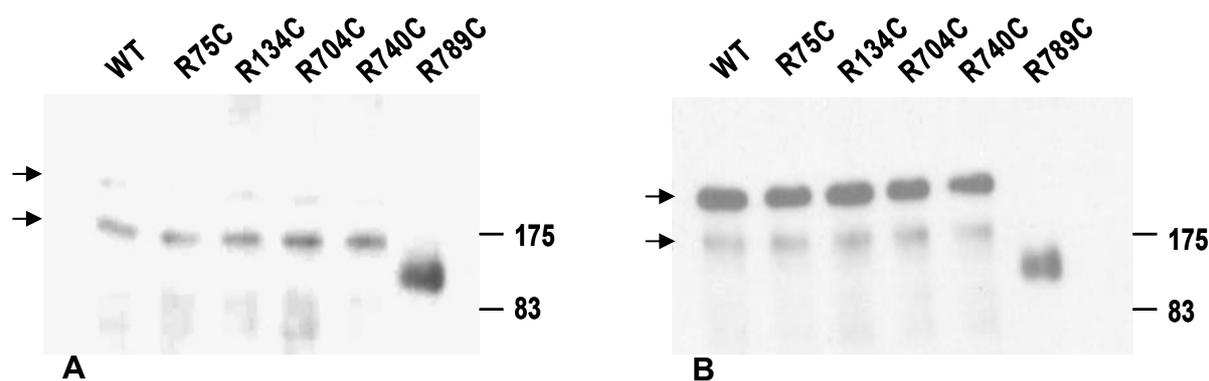
The concentrations of the purified collagen II proteins were measured and 1  $\mu$ g of each variant was resolved on an 8% SDS PAGE gel and stained with Coomassie blue as shown in the Fig 3.6. Trimeric bands representing collagen II (with both the propeptides, with one propeptide and fully processed) as indicated by arrow marks were visible in samples of WT, R75C, R134C, R704C and R740C collagens. In the R789C sample a distinct single band migrating lower than all other variants, including the pepsin extracted collagen, was observed.



**Fig 3.6 Coomassie blue stained SDS-PAGE gel of all the purified collagen II variants.** Triple bands as indicated by arrows represent the WT, R75C, R134C, R704C and R740C collagen in contrast to a single band migrating lower for R789C. M, protein standard; SC, pepsin extracted collagen II (Sigma).

### 3.7 Immunoblot of purified collagen II variants

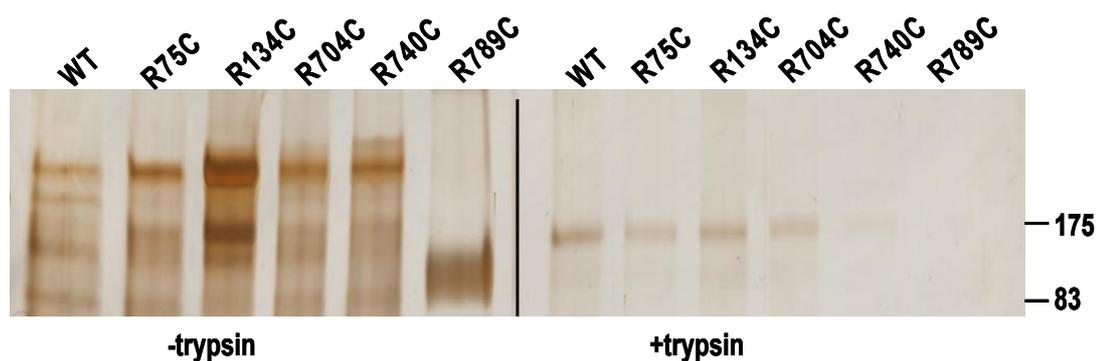
The purified collagen II proteins were analysed by western blot using antibodies specific for collagen II and the N-terminal tag, respectively. With both antibodies two bands were detected, with the upper one being more prominent when detected with antibody directed against the myc epitope (Fig 3.7 A) and the lower band more intense when detected with anti-collagen II (Fig 3.7 B). The anti-myc antibody detects the upper band which most probably corresponds to the full length procollagen II. Also the purified R789C migrated at a lower position than the other collagen II variants and the protein was intact at the N-terminal end as it could be detected with the anti-myc antibody.



**Fig 3.7 Western blot analysis of all the purified collagen II variants.** Purified recombinant proteins were resolved on 8% SDS PAGE gels and the blots developed using antibodies against collagen II (A) and the myc epitope (B), respectively.

### 3.8 Trypsin digestion of different collagen II variants

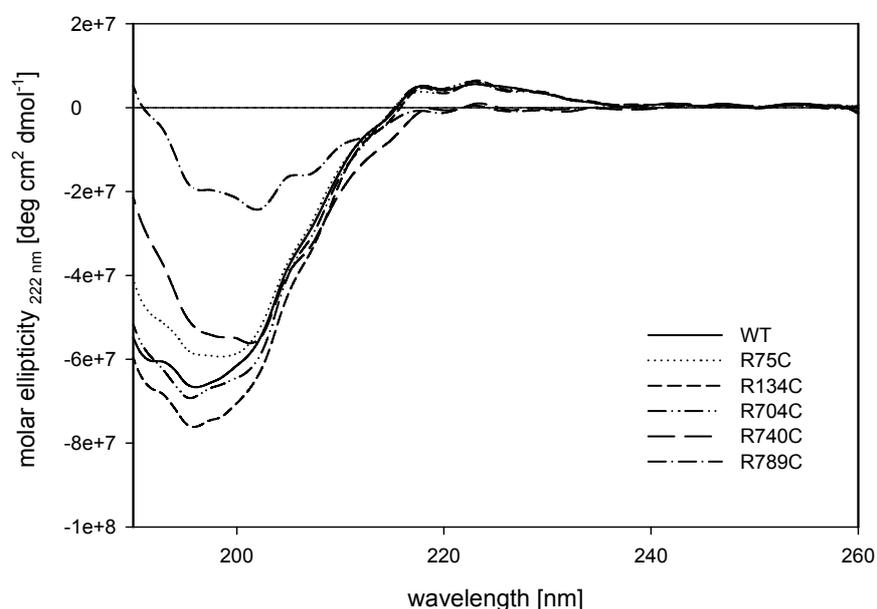
To determine the triple helical stability of different collagen II variants, these were subjected to trypsin digestion. A single collagen II polypeptide has 135 potential trypsin cleavage sites. In the case of collagen II forming stable triple helical trimers, these sites are not exposed and therefore not accessible to trypsin. Only the N- and C-propeptides are cleaved. Fig 3.8 shows silver stained gels of all collagen II variants before and after trypsin digestion. WT, R75C, R134C and R704C collagens were trypsin resistant, indicating that the secreted protein has formed a stable triple helix. R740C and R789C collagens were susceptible to trypsin digestion and completely degraded. This implies that the secreted R740C and R789C proteins are not forming stable triple helical structures.



**Fig 3.8 Silver stained SDS-PAGE gel after trypsin digestion of the purified collagen II variants to analyse their triple helical integrity.** Collagen II variants were tested by digestion with trypsin at 25 °C for 2 minutes followed by SDS-PAGE. The collagens were visualized by silver staining. Left panel; collagen variants incubated without trypsin, and right panel; with trypsin. R740C and R789C collagens were extensively degraded, whereas for all the other constructs a single band of the size of the triple helical domain remained.

### 3.9 Circular dichroism of purified collagen II proteins

The folding of triple helical collagens can be analysed by CD spectroscopy. At 222 nm a typical collagen spectrum shows a positive ellipticity indicating a triple helical structure. In case of an unstable structure, e.g. as a result of low hydroxylation, the ellipticity shifts below zero at 222 nm. The CD spectra of the purified collagen II variants are shown in Fig 3.9. WT, R75C, R134C, and R704C proteins displayed normal collagen II spectra indicating a high triple helical content and a stable overall structure. The structure of the collagen II mutants R740C and R789C was clearly affected when compared to wild type collagen and the spectra indicate a decreased triple helical content in these proteins.

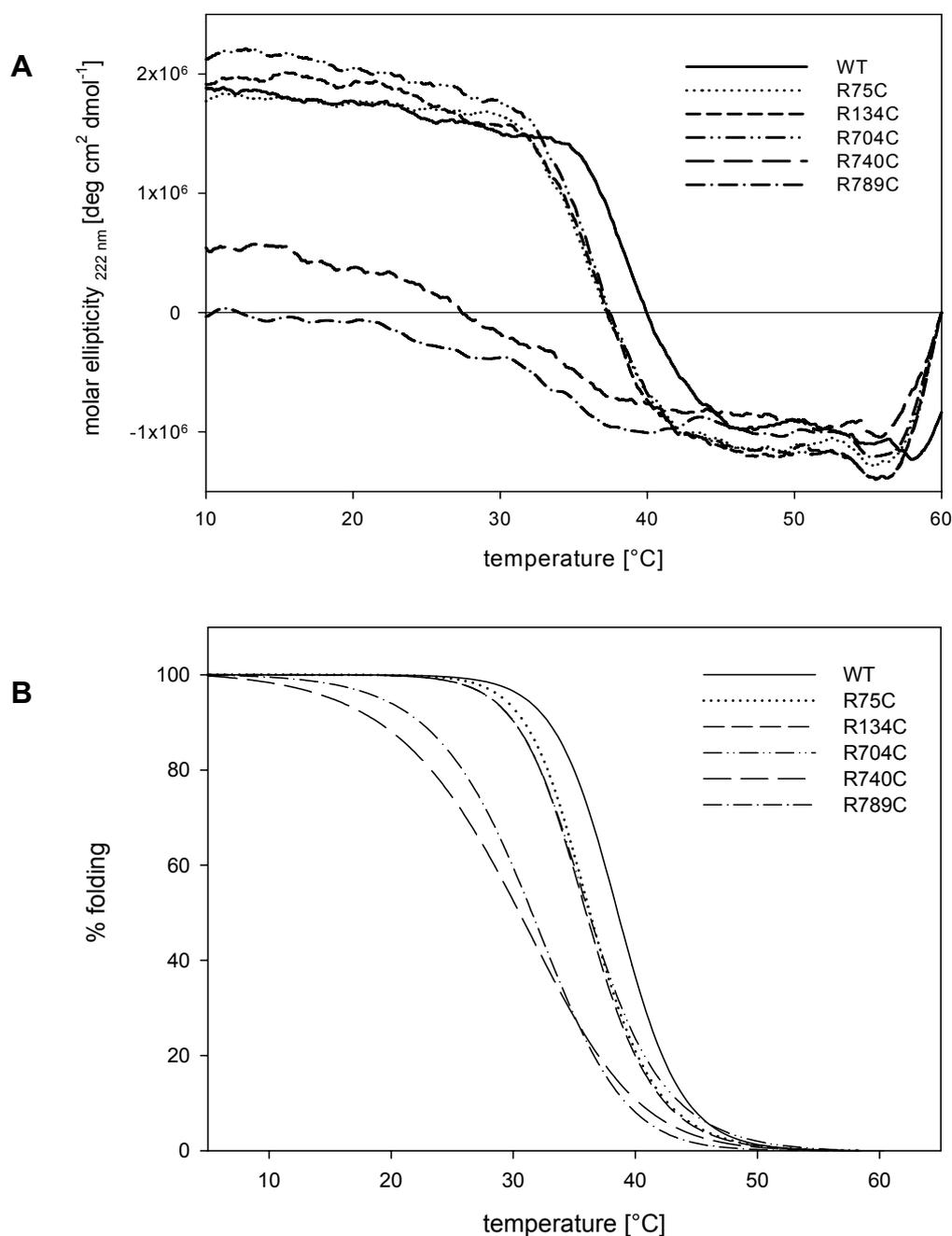


**Fig 3.9 CD spectra of purified collagen II variants.** Spectra were recorded using collagens at a concentration of 60  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  after dialysis against 100 mM acetic acid. The structure of the mutant collagen II proteins R740C and R789C were altered as compared with other collagen II variants and the shape of the spectra indicate a decrease in triple helical structure.

### 3.10 Melting curves of purified recombinant collagen II proteins

Purified collagens were subjected to incremental heating with simultaneous measurement of molar ellipticity at 222 nm. The temperature where 50% of the triple helical structure is lost is defined as the melting temperature ( $T_m$ ) of the respective collagen.  $T_m$  depends on the stability of collagen triple helix, the more stable the triple helix is the higher the  $T_m$ . The melting curves of all the purified collagen II proteins are shown in Fig 3.10A. The percentage of folded collagens as a function of temperature was determined by using a curve fit model assuming 100 % initially folded molecules (Fig 3.10B). The curves for WT, R75C, R134C and R704C

collagens show similar profiles while R740C and R789C proteins showed a thermal instability as compared to the other collagens. The  $T_m$  values are summarized in Table 3.1.



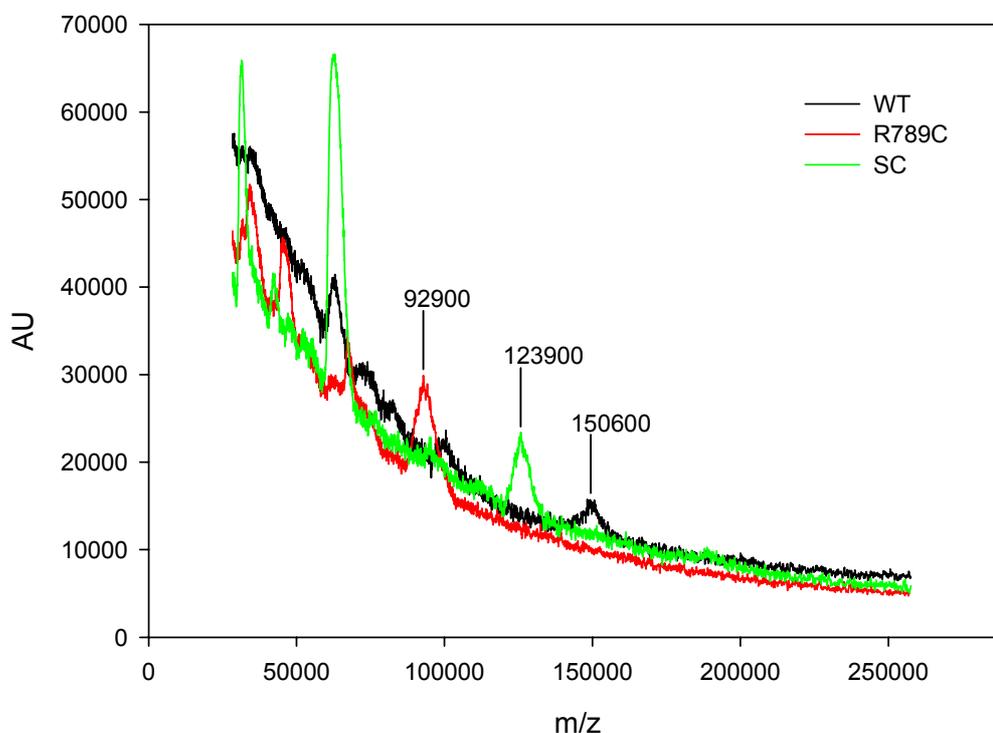
**Fig 3.10 Melting curves of purified collagen II variants.** (A) CD melting curves of collagen II proteins (60  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ ) recorded after dialysis into 100 mM acetic acid at 222 nm with a  $1^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$  temperature gradient from 10 to 55  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . (B) The percentage folding using a curve fit model assuming that initially 100 % of the collagen molecules were folded. The R740C and R789C proteins displayed a decreased thermal stability when compared to all other collagen II variants.

**Table 3.1 Melting points (T<sub>m</sub>) of the purified collagen II variants**

sample	melting point (T <sub>m</sub> )
WT	38.6 °C
R75C	36.2 °C
R134C	36.1 °C
R704C	36.1 °C
R740C	30.2 °C
R789C	31.5 °C

### 3.11 Mass spectrometric analysis of purified collagen II proteins

Purified collagen II proteins were analysed by mass spectrometry to determine the masses of the intact protein. Fig 3.11 shows the combined mass spectra for the wildtype, R789C and pepsin extracted collagens (SC). Wild type collagen showed a mass of approximately 150.6 kD. This value was also obtained for R75C, R134C, R704C and R740C proteins (data not shown). In case of R789C collagen the mass of the processed protein was around 92.9 kD (Fig 3.11), lower than the mass obtained for pepsin extracted collagen which lacks propeptides (123.9 kD). Table 3.2 compares the theoretical with the measured mass for all the collagen II variants.



**Fig 3.11 MALDI-TOF spectra of purified collagen II proteins.** Wild type collagen II protein (black) gave a measured mass of 150.6 kD which includes the mass of the his<sub>6</sub> myc tag. The mass of the R789C protein (red) was

approximately 92.9 kD. Pepsin extracted collagen from the bovine nasal cartilage, which lacks both propeptides, displayed a mass of 123.9 kD (green).

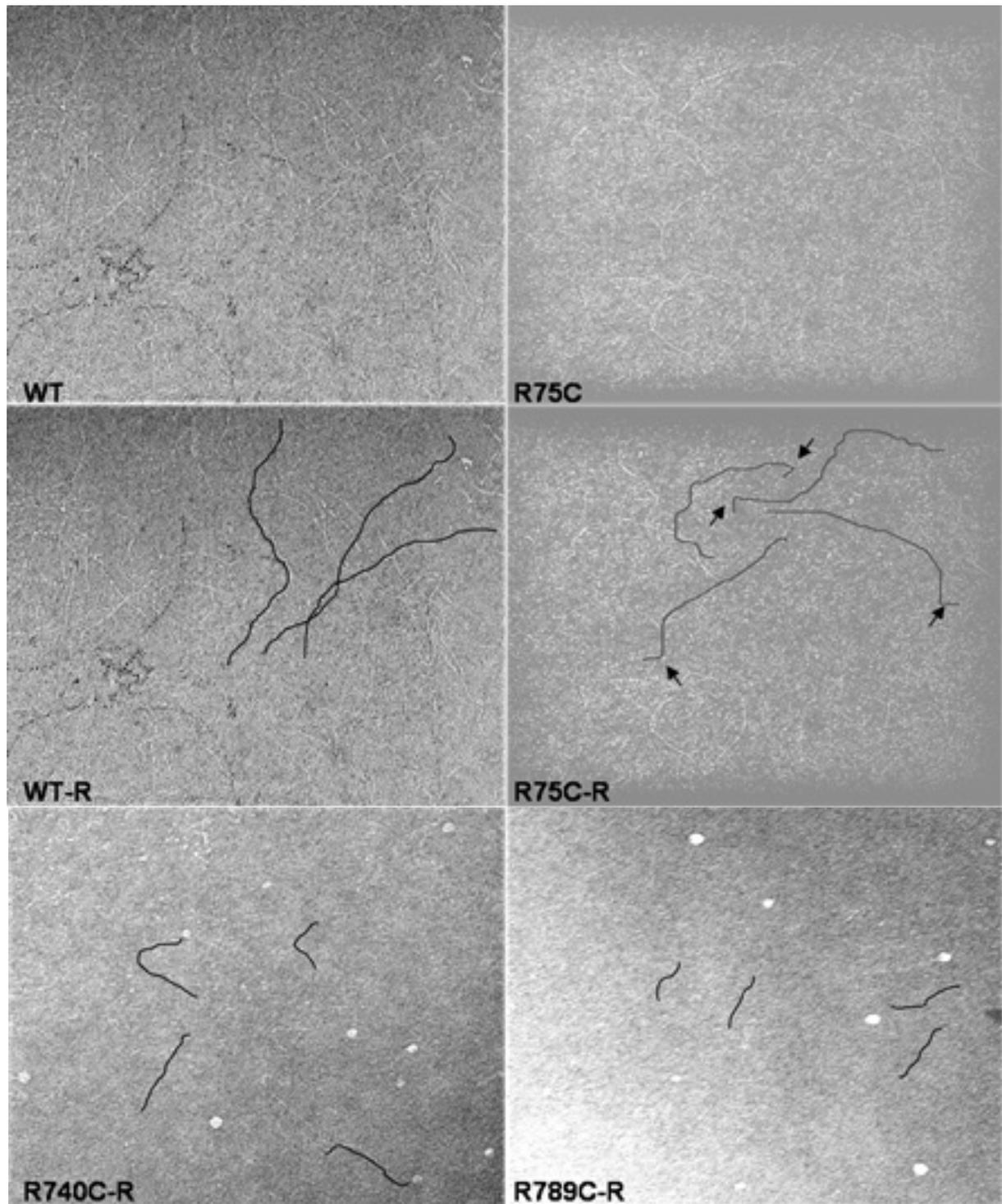
**Table 3.2 Comparison of theoretical and measured mass of collagen II variants**

sample	mass from MALDI-TOF	theoretical mass*
WT	150.6 kD	136.8 kD
R789C	92.9 kD	136.8 kD
SC <sup>a</sup>	123.9 kD	96 kD

\*Theoretical mass include the propeptides and tag; <sup>a</sup> pepsin extracted collagen (Sigma)

### 3.12 Negative electron microscopy of purified collagen II proteins

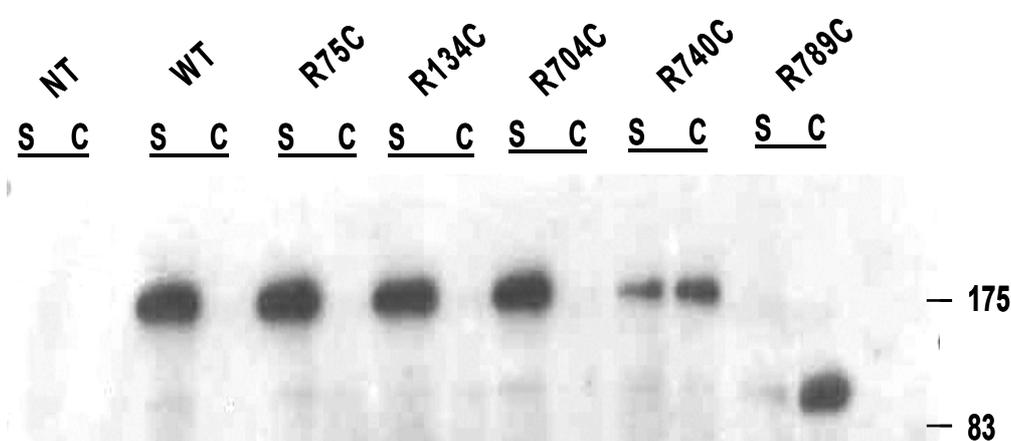
Purified collagen II proteins were analysed by electron microscopy after negative staining. Fig 3.12 shows representative electron micrographs of WT, R75C R740C and R789C collagens. Characteristic filaments were observed in the WT and R75C samples. R134C and R704C collagens displayed similar structures (data not shown). In the R740C and R789C samples the characteristic filaments were not seen and the short proteins detected were significantly thinner and more sparse. In addition, R75C collagen showed kinks (arrow mark) close to the end of the structure. Because of the low contrast in the electron micrographs, selected filaments were highlighted to illustrate representative structures.



**Fig 3.12 Electron micrographs of purified and negatively stained collagen II variants.** In the wildtype and R75C samples characteristic collagen filaments are seen (redrawn for WT-R and R75C-R). In the R740C-R and R789C-R panels these filaments, if at all present, all are thinner and hardly detectable. In R75C collagen kinks were consistently seen (arrows).

### 3.13 HT 1080 cells transiently transfected with collagen II constructs

HT 1080 is a fibroblast derived cell line and was used to study the intracellular trafficking of wild type and mutant collagen II. Three days after transfection with collagen II constructs, supernatants and cell lysates were analysed. Fig 3.13 shows a western blot developed with antibodies directed against the myc epitope. Collagen II was detected exclusively in the supernatants of WT, R75C, R134C and R704C cultures. In the R740C culture, protein was found in cell lysate and in about equal amounts in the supernatant. In the case of the R789C mutation, the protein was almost exclusively detected in the cell lysate indicating significant intracellular retention. The R789C collagen mobility was shifted as compared to other collagen II proteins in a manner similar to that seen with protein from 293 EBNA cells.



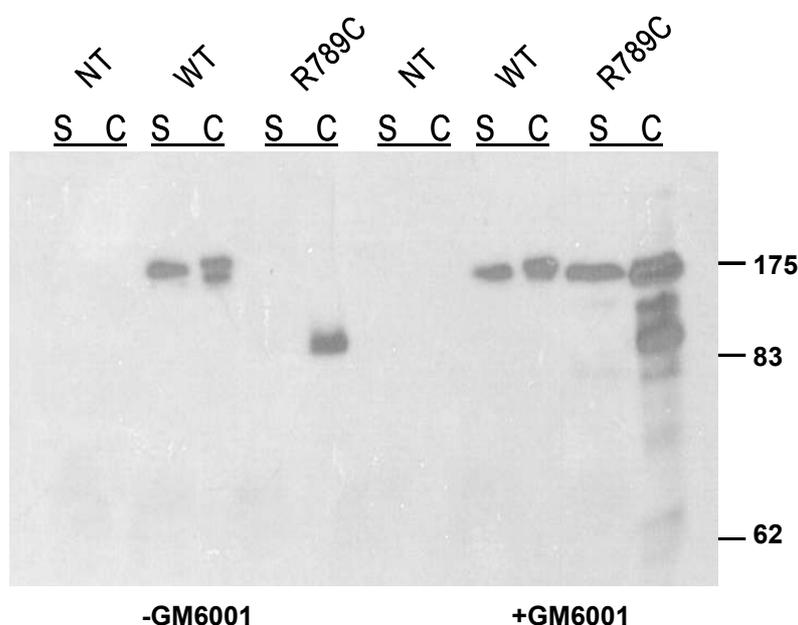
**Fig 3.13 Western blot analysis of collagen II variants expressed in HT1080 cells.** Supernatants (S) and cell lysates (C) from HT1080 cells were analysed three days post transfection with antibodies directed against the myc epitope. Significant amounts of R740C and R789C protein were detected in the cell lysates and only a minor portion was secreted into the supernatants.

### 3.14 Effect of the MMP inhibitor GM6001 on HT1080 cells expressing collagen II

The extracellular degradation of the fibrillar collagens type I, II, and III can occur both at nonhelical sites (Liu et al. 1995) and through a triple helix cleavage. This is achieved by collagenases, which belong to the family of zinc-dependent endopeptidases called matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs). Collagenase-1 or MMP-1 (interstitial collagenase), collagenase-2 or MMP-8 (neutrophil collagenase), and the more recently cloned and characterized collagenase-3 or MMP-13 (Freije et al. 1994 and Knauper et al. 1996) are the only mammalian enzymes known to be able to initiate the intrahelical cleavage of triple helical collagen at neutral pH. These three

collagenases have the ability to cleave the fibrillar collagens type I, II, and III at a single site (Gly 775–Leu/Ile 776) within each chain of the triple helical collagen molecule.

To investigate if the shift in R789C protein mobility is due to MMP cleavage, GM6001, an universal inhibitor for MMPs, was used. Cells expressing wildtype and R789C collagen were incubated for two days with the inhibitor. Supernatants and cell lysates from these cells were analysed by western blot and detected with an antibody directed against myc epitope (Fig 3.14). In the presence of GM6001 significant amounts of R789C proteins remained uncleaved, in contrast to what was seen in the absence of the inhibitor. This indicates that the mutation R789C is aiding MMPs to cleave collagen II and thereby causes the shift in the mobility when compared with wild type protein. In the presence of GM6001, R789C protein can also be detected in the supernatant showing that inhibition of cleavage results in increased secretion.

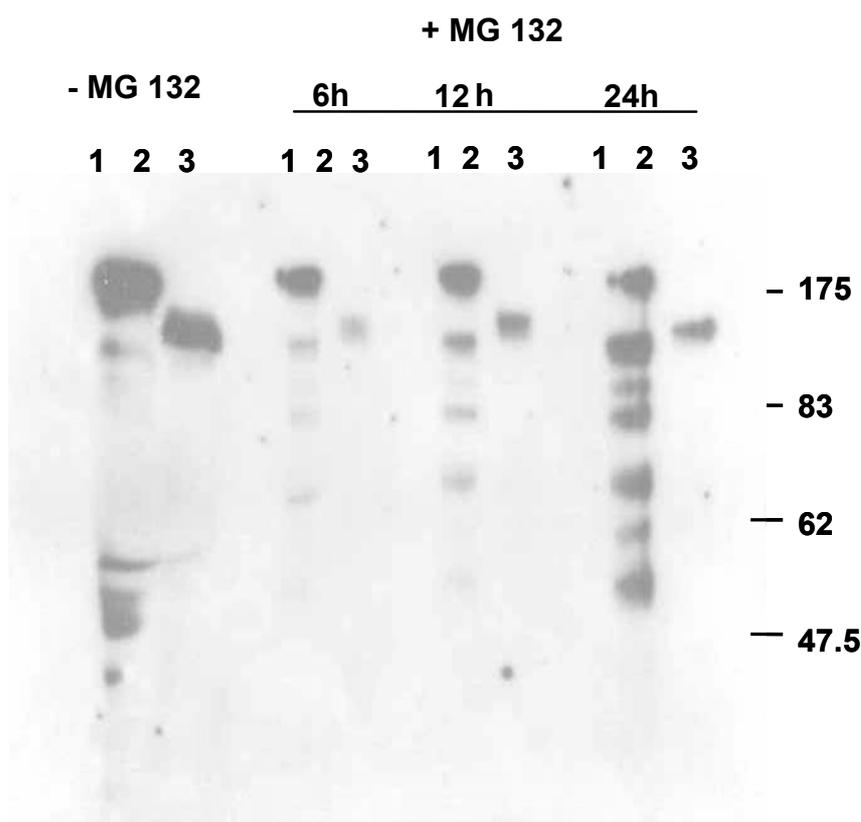


**Fig 3.14 Analysis of proteolytic processing in the absence (left) or presence (right) of the general MMP inhibitor GM6001 by western blot.** Non transfected cells (NT) and cells expressing wildtype (WT) and R789C collagens were treated for two days with GM6001 (25 $\mu$ M). Supernatants (s) and cell lysates (c) were harvested and analysed by western blot. After treatment with GM6001 the R789C collagen was partially protected from degradation, indicating that the reduced mass or shift in mobility is due to a proteolytic cleavage by MMPs.

### 3.15 Effect of proteasome inhibitor MG132 on processing of R789C

Endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-associated protein degradation (ERAD) eliminates misfolded or unassembled proteins from the ER. ERAD targets are selected by a quality control system within the ER lumen and are ultimately degraded by the cytoplasmic ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) (Meusser et al 2005).

MG132 is a universal inhibitor used to block the proteasomal degradation pathway. To determine if the cleavage collagen occurs at proteasomes. HT1080 cells expressing wildtype and R789C collagens were treated with MG132 for 6 h, 12 h and 24 h. Supernatants from these cells were analysed by western blotting and collagens were detected with an antibody directed against the myc epitope (Fig 3.15). Treatment with MG132 did not affect the mobility of R789C collagen when compared with non treated R789C samples. This indicates that the cleavage of the R789C mutant does not involve proteasomes.

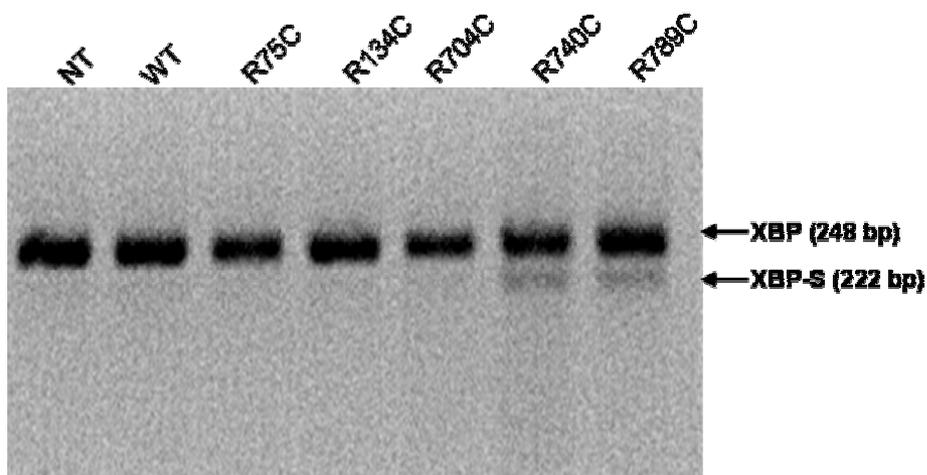


**Fig 3.15 Effect of the proteasomal inhibitor MG132 on R789C protein expression.** Supernatants from cells treated for 6 h, 12 h and 24 h with MG132 (50  $\mu$ M) were analysed with an anti-myc antibody. Lane 1, non transfected (NT); lane 2, wildtype collagen II (WT) and lane 3, mutant collagen R789C (R789C). MG132 did not show any affect on the collagen II processing in HT1080 cells when compared to untreated control cells (-MG132).

### 3.17 ER stress response in collagen expressing HT1080 cells

XBP-1 is a chaperone involved in the endoplasmic reticulum stress response occurring when misfolded proteins are retained in the ER and is used as a marker for this response. It has been shown previously that XBP-1 is specifically spliced as a consequence of ER stress. Therefore RNA of transfected HT1080 cells was isolated and XBP-1 splicing was investigated by RT-PCR using specific primers giving rise to a 248 bp band in the case of unspliced XBP-1 and to a 222 bp band where XBP-1 is spliced. Fig 3.17 shows the PCR products for XBP-1. In non-

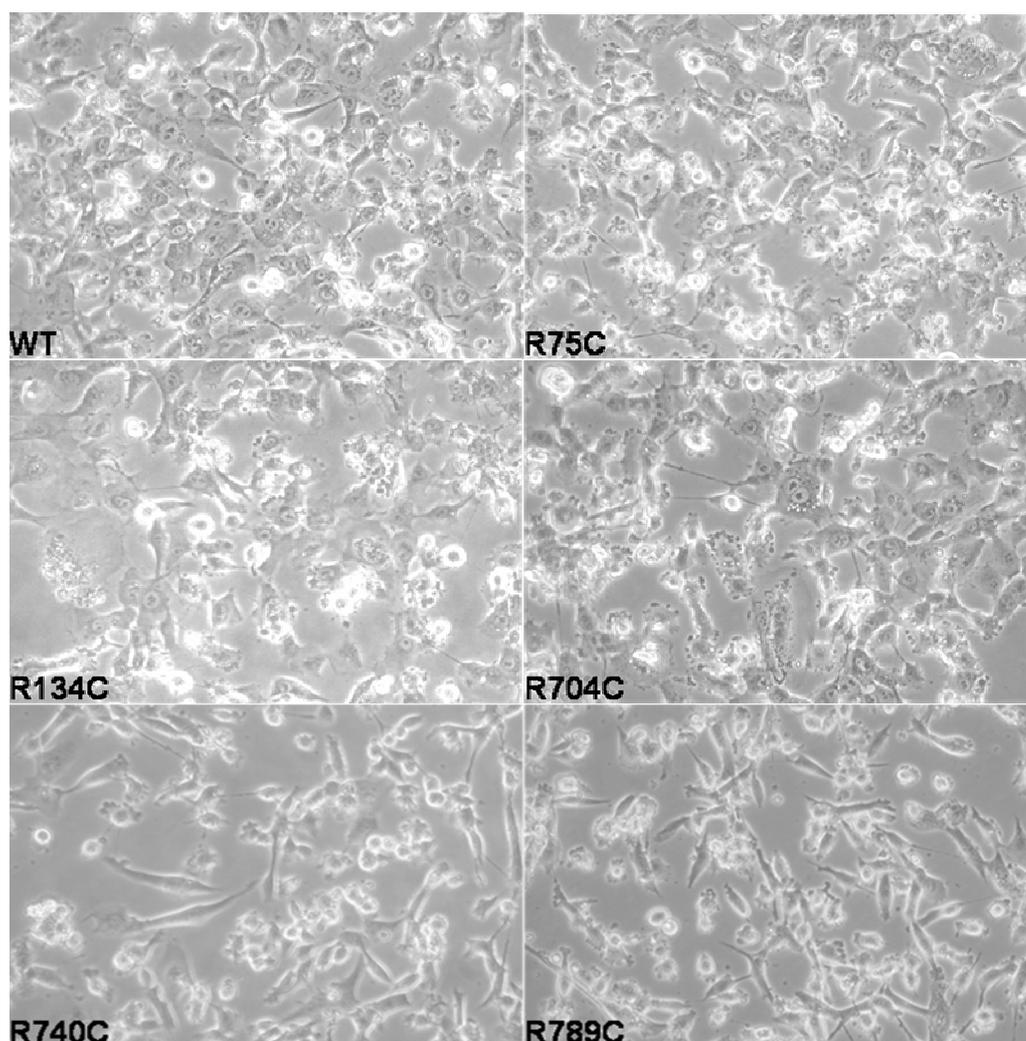
transfected cells as well as cells transfected with wildtype, R75C, R134C and R704C constructs only the unspliced form of XBP-1 was detected whereas in cells transfected with R740C and R789C the spliced variant (XBP-S) was also present. This indicates that ER stress response is activated in these cells due to the mutation.



**Fig 3.16 Analysis of stress induced XBP-1 splicing by RT-PCR.** mRNA isolated from HT1080 cells was used for RT-PCR with primers specific for XBP-1. The PCR product was analysed by agarose gel electrophoresis on 2.5 % gels. XBP-1 mRNA could be detected in all cells. Frame switch splicing of XBP-1 (XBP-S) due to ER stress was detected in cells transfected with R740C and R789C constructs.

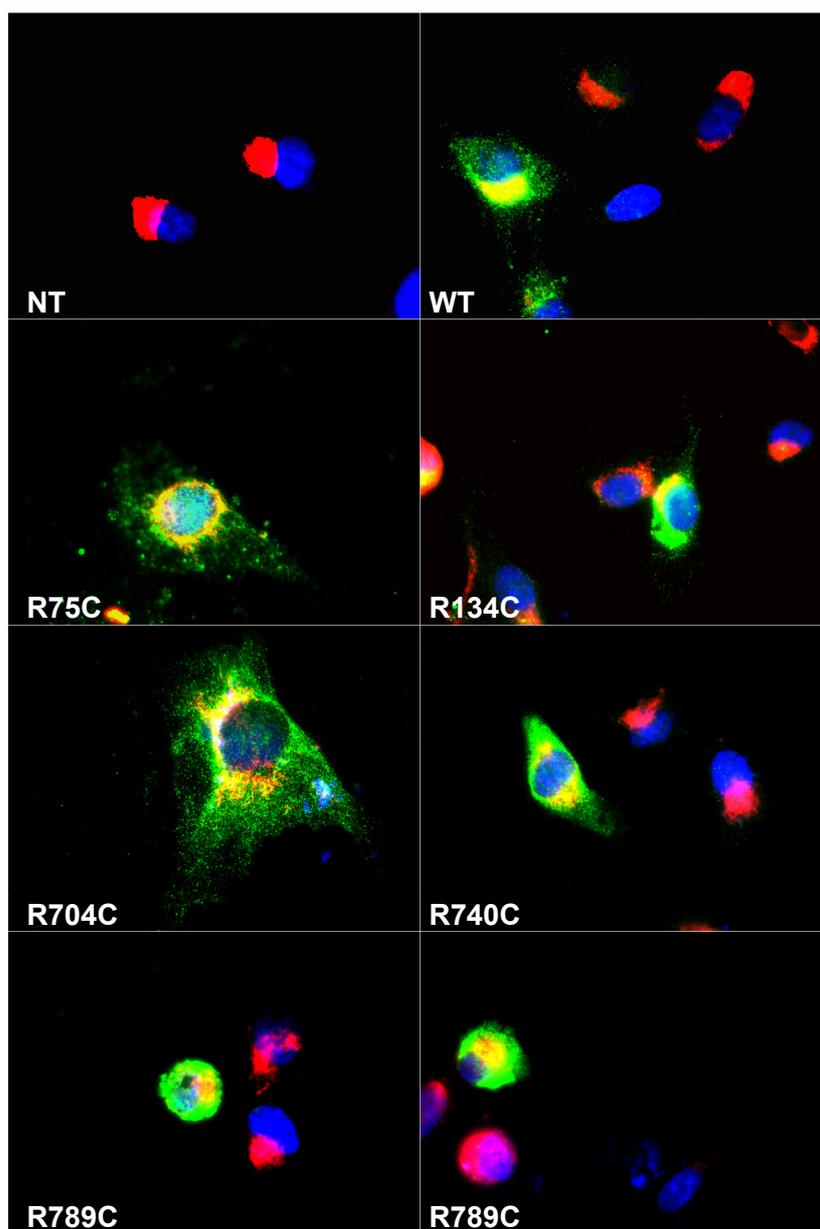
### 3.18 Immunofluorescence and light microscopy of HT1080 cells expressing collagen II variants

The morphology of transfected HT1080 cells was visualized by light microscopy (Fig 3.17). To analyze the intracellular localization of the transfected collagen II variants in HT1080 cells, immunofluorescence staining was performed. In addition to the staining for the myc tag, a costaining was performed using antibodies directed against compartment specific proteins, e.g 58K for the Golgi apparatus and PDI for the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Using these antibodies the trafficking of collagen from endoplasmic reticulum to the Golgi apparatus can be followed and a potential retention or secretion defect revealed.



**Fig 3.17 Phase contrast images of HT1080 cells after transfection with indicated collagen II constructs.** Cells transfected with R740C and R789C constructs were significantly more rounded and spindle shaped as compared with other cells.

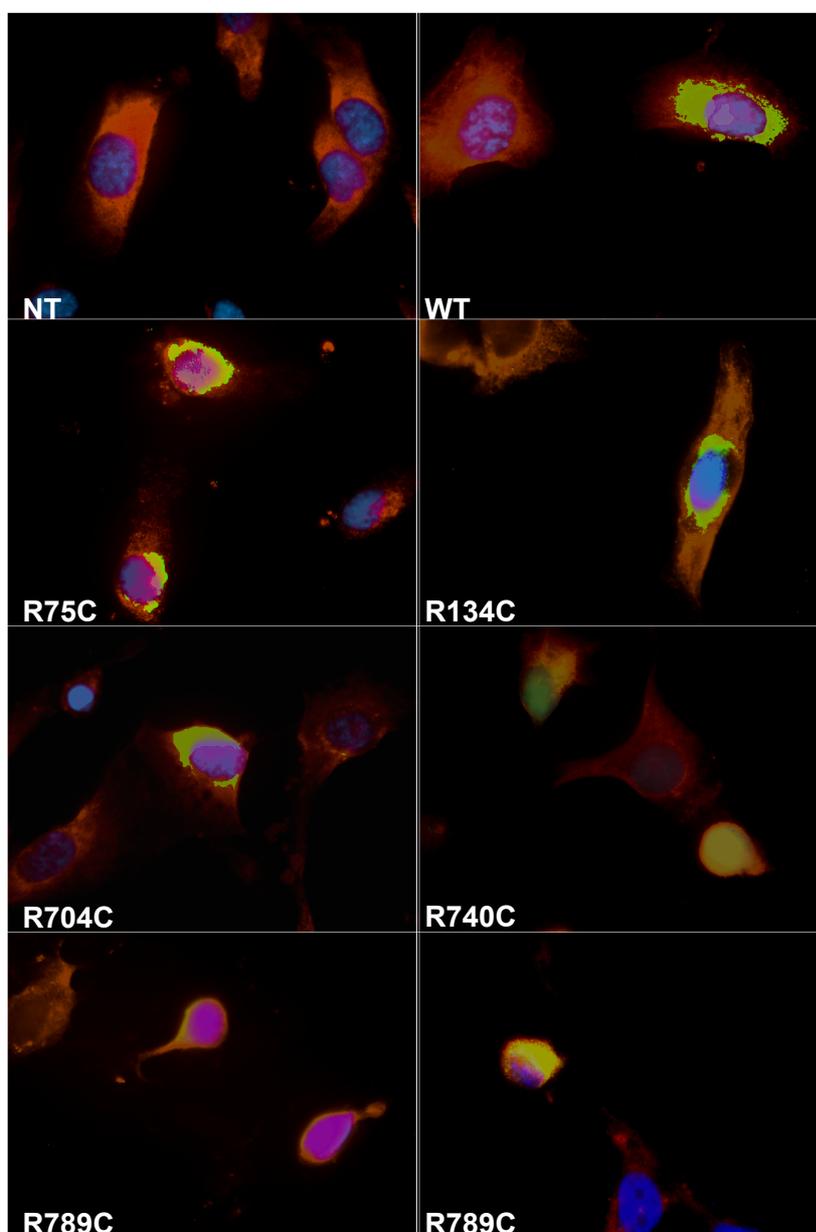
The non-transfected cells do not show any expression of collagen II, but show the characteristic halfmoon shaped perinuclear staining of the Golgi compartment. In cells transfected with wild type, R75C, R134C and R704C constructs, expression of collagen II (green) was observed and this was significantly colocalised with the signal for the Golgi apparatus, indicating that most of the protein has reached this compartment and is in transit for secretion. In cells transfected with the constructs R740C and R789C significant amounts of protein were detected in other intracellular compartments leading to a separate green and red signal (Fig 3.18). Less protein was seen colocalised with the Golgi marker, further the morphology of cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens was severely changed.



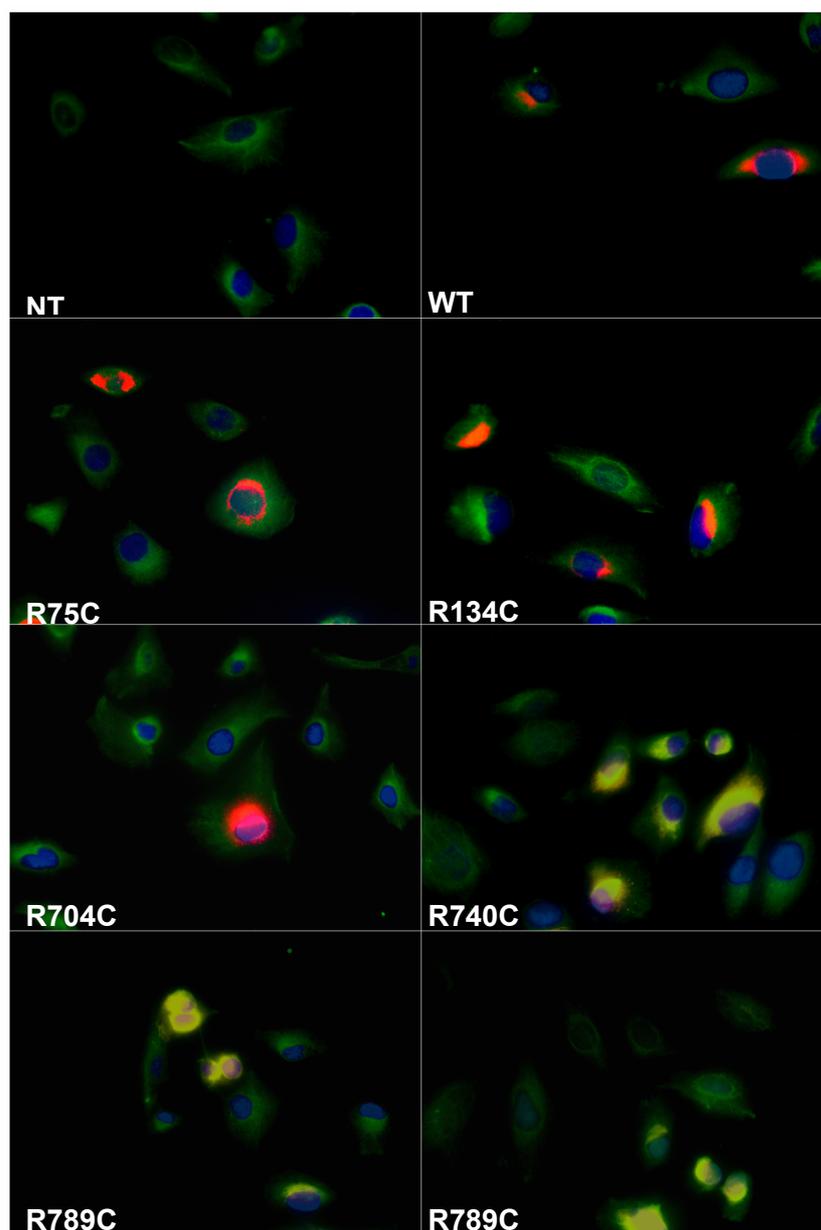
**Fig 3.18 Costaining of HT1080 cells with antibodies against collagen II and the 58K Golgi marker.** HT1080 cells transfected with collagen II constructs were analysed three days post transfection with antibodies directed against the Golgi apparatus (red) and collagen II (green). Nuclei (blue) were counterstained with bisbenzimidazole. Colocalisation of collagen with 58K in the Golgi compartment is seen in cells transfected with WT, R75C, R134C and R704C constructs. In cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens significant amounts of protein are detected outside the Golgi apparatus.

In addition, transfected HT1080 cells were analysed by immunofluorescence using an antibody directed against protein disulfide isomerase (PDI), an ER specific enzyme. In non-transfected HT1080 cells, the ER was distributed all over the cells. Fig 3.19 shows that WT, R75C, R134C, R704C collagen expressing cells display a clear difference between the two stainings and little colocalisation between the ER marker and collagen II proteins was seen. In contrast, in R740C

and R789C expressing cells a significant colocalisation of the ER marker and collagen II was observed, whereas a characteristic staining of the Golgi apparatus did not appear.



**Fig 3.19 Analysis of transfected HT1080 cells by costaining for PDI and collagen II.** Three days after transfection with collagen II variants, HT1080 cells were analysed by immunofluorescence staining using antibodies directed against collagen II (green) and PDI (red). Nuclei were counterstained with bisbenzimidazole (blue). Non-transfected cells show staining for PDI distributed across the cells. Cells transfected with WT, R75C, R134C, and R704C constructs displayed separate distinct staining for the ER and the expressed collagens with much less colocalisation. Significant colocalisation of PDI with collagen II staining was seen only in cells expressing R740C and R789C and these cells were also rounded in appearance.



**Fig 3.20 Analysis of BiP expression by immunofluorescence microscopy of transfected HT1080 cells.** HT1080 cells transfected with collagen II constructs were analysed three days post transfection by staining with antibodies directed against collagen (red) and BiP (green). Nuclei were counterstained with bisbenzimidide (blue). BiP expression was observed in all the cells. Collagen II (red) expression was detected in cells transfected with WT, R75C, R134C, and R704C constructs and there was no colocalisation with BiP. Colocalisation of BiP and collagen II was seen only in cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens and these cells were also rounded.

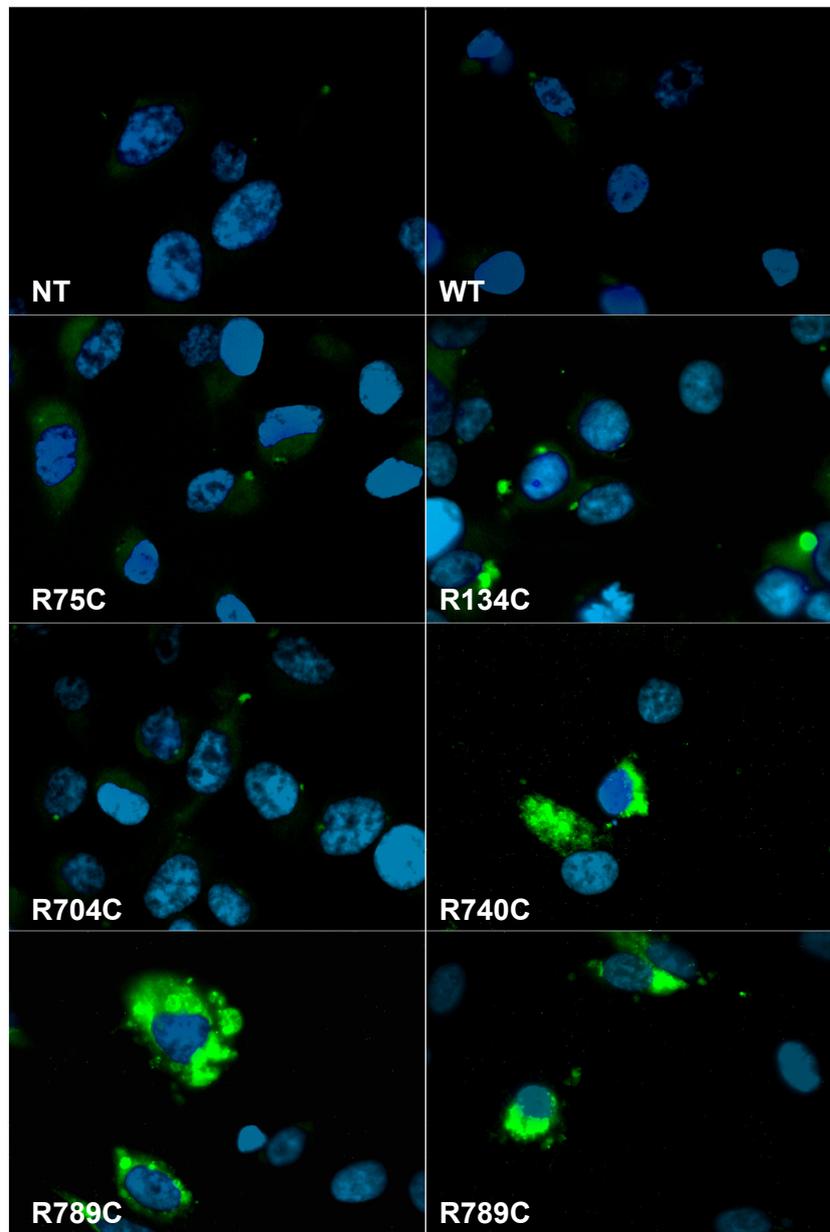
An accumulation of misfolded proteins in the ER leads to an induction of stress response related chaperones which attempt to refold the affected proteins. One example is BiP (Sitia and Braakman, 2003) which is an ER resident protein.

To determine if the intracellular protein accumulation is initiating an ER stress response in collagen II transfected HT1080 cells, these were analyzed by immunofluorescence microscopy with antibodies directed against BiP (Fig 3.20). BiP expression was observed in all the cells

(green fluorescence) and collagen II expression was seen around the Golgi compartment (red). In cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens colocalisation of BiP and collagen II proteins was significant and the intensity of BiP staining was also increased. Further, the cell morphology was rounded.

The rounding and detachment of the cells might be a sign of cell death. Accumulation of large amounts of misfolded proteins might interfere with cell viability. It was investigated if these transfected HT1080 cells were destined to apoptosis mediated by an ER stress response due intracellular retention of misfolded proteins. For this purpose an FITC conjugated antibody directed against active caspase-3 was used for staining of HT1080 cells. Caspase-3 belongs to the caspase family of cysteine proteases (Martin and Green, 1995), which exist as latent zymogens or procaspases. Apoptosis is a form of cell death that involves the concerted action of a number of intracellular signaling pathways including members of the caspase family. Oligomerization of procaspases is an important step leading to caspase activation, which in turn is amplified by the cleavage and activation of other downstream caspases (Earnshaw et al 1999 and Salvesen and Dixit, 1997). Activated caspase-8 and -9 activate executioner caspases, including caspase-3. Once active, executioner caspases cleave a number of cellular proteins, e.g. nuclear proteins, structural proteins, signaling molecules and cytoskeletal proteins (Stroh and Schulze 1998). Proteolysis of these proteins disrupts cellular homeostasis and terminates survival signals.

To analyse if R740C and R789C transfected HT1080 cells were positive for activated caspase-3, these along with cells expressing other collagen II variants and non transfected cells, were stained for active caspase-3 three days after transfection by using an FITC conjugated rabbit anti-active caspase-3 antibody (Fig 3.21). Active caspase-3 was not detected in non-transfected cells or the cells transfected with WT, R75C, R134C and R704C constructs, but significant expression was seen in R740C and R789C transfected cells. Since the active form of caspase-3 was present in cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens, these cells are undergoing apoptosis, presumably due to the irreversible accumulation of misfolded proteins in the ER which leads to the activation of the ER stress response and, finally, to cell death.

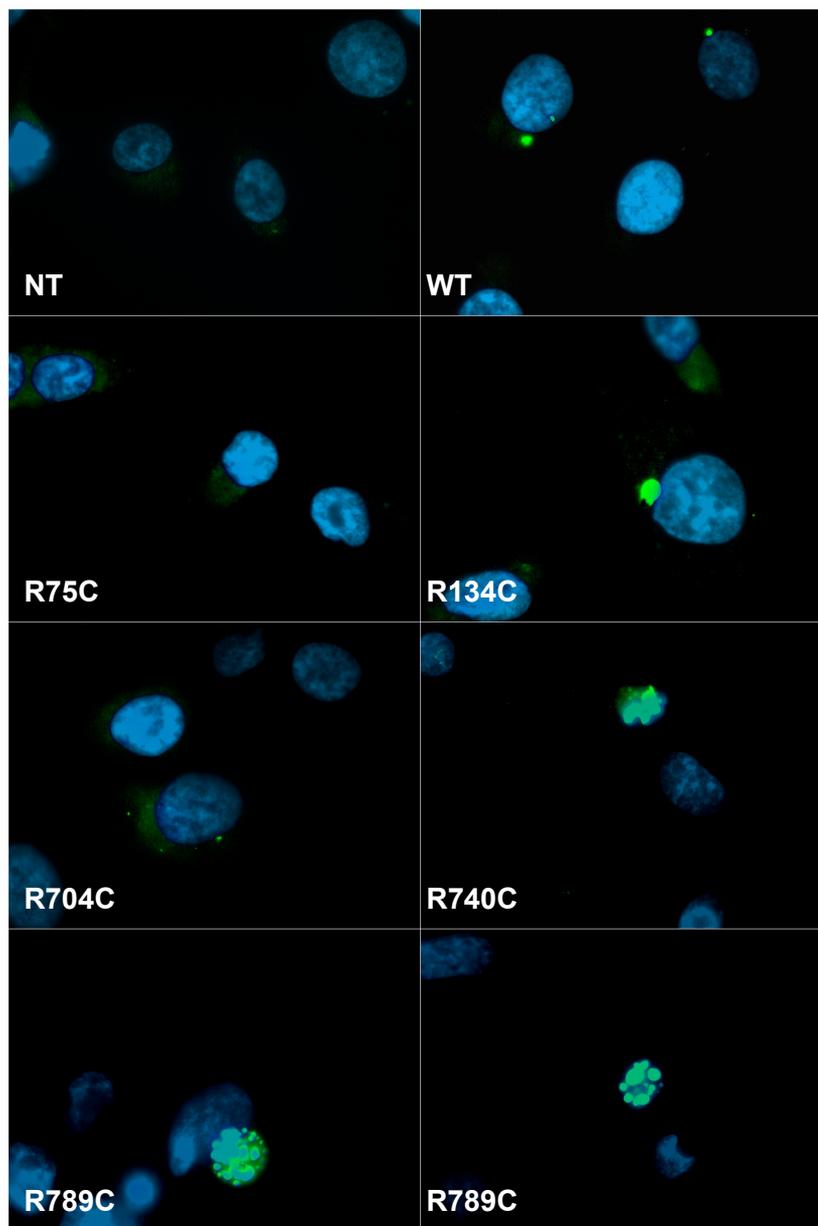


**Fig 3.21 Immunofluorescence staining of transfected HT1080 cells using antibodies directed against active caspase 3.** HT1080 cells transfected with collagen II constructs were analysed three days post transfection for the presence of active caspase-3 (green), a marker for apoptosis. No active caspase-3 was detected in non-transfected cells nor in cells transfected with WT, R75C, R134C, and R704C constructs, whereas active caspase-3 was present in cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens.

### 3.19 Detection of DNA cleaved due to apoptosis by nick labelling

Caspase activation is accompanied by nuclear fragmentation, another hallmark of apoptosis. Hence, it was necessary to analyze if DNA fragmentation occurs in the R740C and R789C collagen expressing HT1080 cells. Non transfected cells and cells transfected with collagen II

variants were labeled for nicked DNA four days after transfection (Fig 3.22). Nick labeled DNA was observed in cells expressing R740C and R789C.

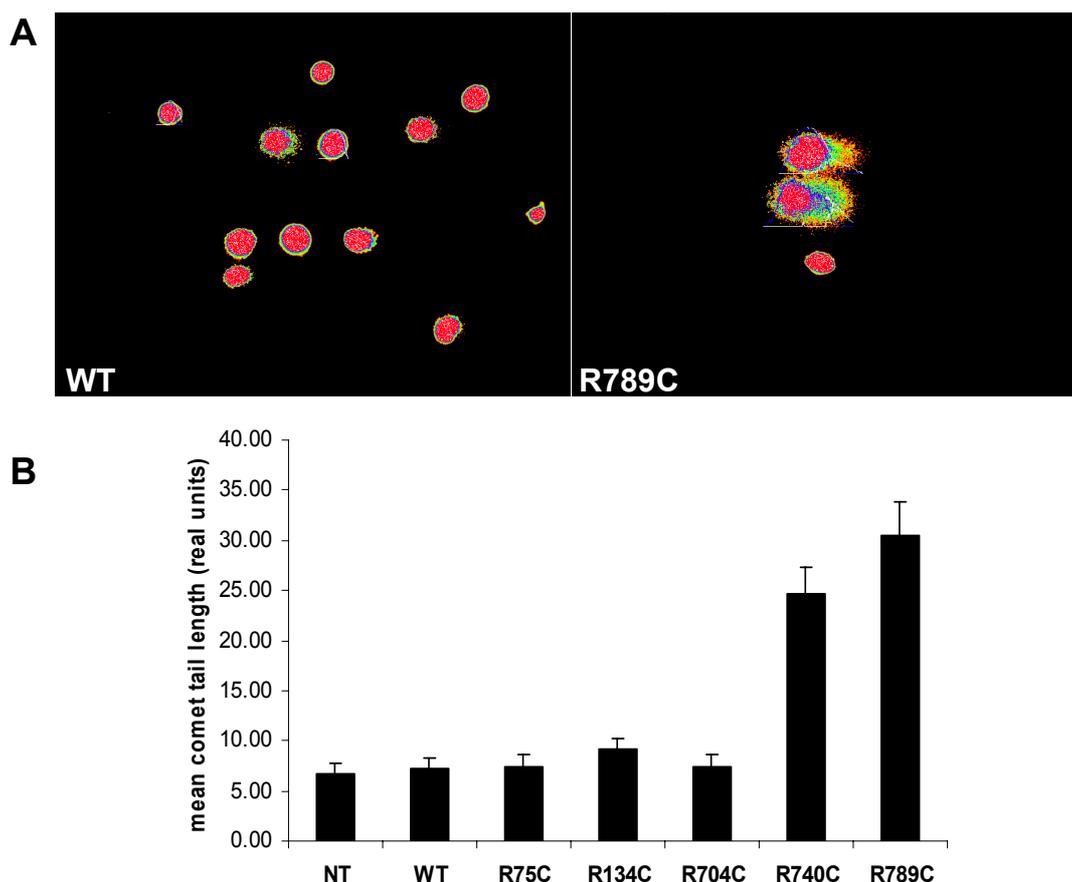


**Fig 3.22 Nick labeling of HT1080 cells transfected with collagen II constructs to detect cleaved DNA.** Four days after transfection with collagen II constructs, HT1080 cells transfected with R740C and R789C constructs showed distinct nick labeling (green). Nick labeling was not seen in non-transfected cells nor in cells transfected with constructs carrying other mutations.

### 3.20 Single cell gel electrophoresis (comet assay) of HT1080 cells transfected with collagen II variants

To ascertain whether activation of caspase-3 and nick labeling of DNA in cells transfected with R740C and R789C constructs leads to DNA fragmentation, HT1080 cells were analysed by

single cell gel electrophoresis four days post transfection. (Fig 3.23). DNA tailing leading to a comet shaped appearance was observed in cells transfected with R740C and R789C constructs (Fig 3.23A). Further, the mean tail length was evaluated for these comets (20 cells from each group) using the CometScore software (Fig 3.23B). Significant increase in tail length, corresponding to DNA fragmentation and apoptosis was observed in cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens.

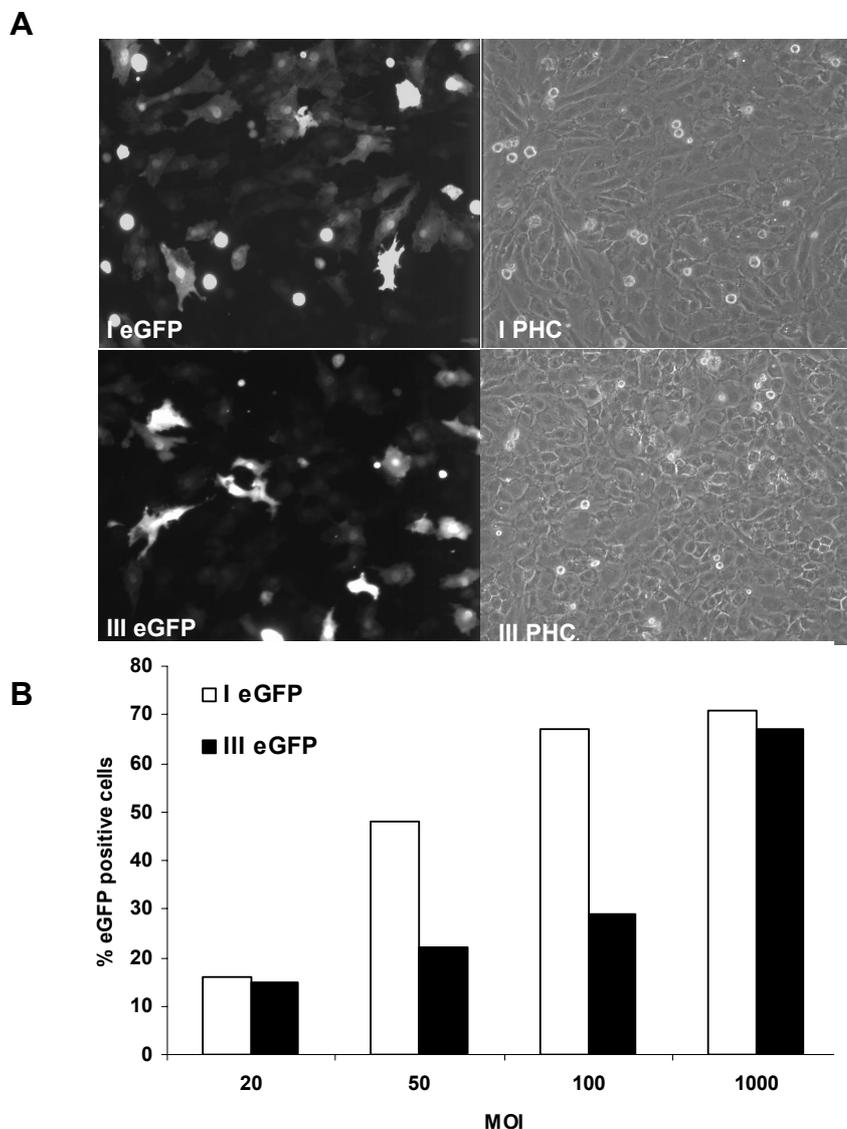


**Fig 3.23 Single cell gel electrophoresis of HT1080 cells transfected with collagen II variants.** Panel A shows representative pictures of wild type and R789C collagen transfected cells after comet assay. In panel B the mean tail lengths of the comets are shown. A significant increase in tail length was observed in cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens whereas cells transfected with WT, R75C, R134C, R704C constructs were similar to non-transfected controls.

### 3.21 Comparison of the efficiency and toxicity of first and third generation adenoviral vectors

Chondrocytes, the cells expressing collagen II in vivo, show a very low transfection efficiency when conventional methods are employed. Adenovirus based gene delivery yields a higher efficiency of gene transfer. Currently, two generations of adenoviral vectors are commonly used for transduction. First generation viruses are easier to produce and handle but only short DNAs

can be inserted. Further, those viruses show immunogenic potential and are toxic in animal models. Third generation viruses are cumbersome to produce and need a helper virus for packaging. However, this type of virus is non-immunogenic and less toxic in animal models and can accept 30-32kb foreign DNA as insert.



**Fig 3.24 Transduction of primary chondrocytes using first and third generation adenoviral vectors.** Chondrocytes were transduced with first (I) and third generation (III) adenoviral vectors expressing enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) to determine efficiency of transduction and toxicity. A, fluorescent and phase contrast (PHC) images of chondrocytes three days after transduction with 100 MOI. B, viable cells expressing eGFP after transduction with 20, 50, 100 and 1000 MOI (moieties of infection). At 1000 MOI only few cells are viable and these were positive for eGFP.

eGFP expressing first generation and third generation adenoviruses were used for transduction of chondrocytes. The proportion of cells positive for eGFP expression was higher after transduction with first generation vectors as compared with third generation vectors (Fig 3.24A). Similarly the percentage of viable cells expressing eGFP was higher in chondrocytes transduced with first generation adenoviruses as compared to third generation vectors (Fig 3.24B).

## 4 Discussion

Point mutations in fibrillar collagens cause a number of abnormalities in connective tissues that manifest, as for example, brittle bone disease, osteoarthritis and osteochondrodysplasias. Earlier studies on collagen I mutations have revealed that the effects of these are remarkably dependent on their positions within the triple helix and that mutations localized at the N-terminus of collagens are less destabilizing than those occurring at the C-terminus (Byers & Cole 2002). In the present study, collagen II mutations leading to substitution of arginine to cysteine with different patient phenotypes (R75C, R789C (spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia congenital), R704C (Stickler syndrome)), as well as artificial mutations (R134C and R740C) were selected to understand the impact of the amino acid position within the Gly-X-Y repeats and the location either at the N- or the C-terminus of the triple helix.

### 4.1 Effect of point mutations on protein expression and secretion

Wild type and mutant collagen II proteins were expressed by transfection of 293 EBNA cells. Secretion of collagen II proteins into the cell culture media was detected for wild type, R75C, R134C and R704C expressing cells. The R740C protein was detected in equal amounts in both the cell lysate and supernatant, whereas R789C protein was detected almost exclusively in the cell lysate (Fig 3.4). Additionally, the R789C protein migrated lower on SDS gels in comparison to other collagen II variants. All recombinant collagen II variants could be detected with antibodies directed against the myc epitope as well as with collagen II antibodies, demonstrating that the proteins have an intact N-terminus. A shift in the SDS PAGE migration of R789C protein was observed for the first time and is in contrast to earlier reports (Steplewski et al. 2004). In these studies identical mutations (R75C and R789C) were introduced into recombinantly engineered collagen II cDNA (Steplewski et al. 2004, Arnold et al. 1997, 1998, Majsterek et al. 2003), but no differences in the migration behaviour in comparison to the wild type collagen II were observed. In addition, the occurrence of high molecular mass aggregates, due to the presence of newly formed disulfide bridges were described. There is no unpaired cysteine present in the triple helical domain of the wild type protein and a cysteine substitution might therefore lead to abnormal intra- and intermolecular disulfide bridges. In the present study, some high molecular aggregates were detected in case of the R75C protein (data not shown) but not with the other collagen II variants. Altered secretion and moderate intracellular retention of R789C collagen was also reported for transfected HT1080 and SW-1353 cells (Steplewski et al.

2004, Ito et al. 2005), whereas significant intracellular retention and very low rate of secretion was observed for HT1080 cells expressing R789C protein.

Analysis of pepsin extracted R789C protein expressed in rat chondrosarcoma cells showed no shift in the migration pattern upon SDS PAGE and no disulfide linked oligomers were detected (Gaiser et al. 2002). The impression that R789C is not degraded might have been due to the extraction procedure used. Pepsin digestion probably degraded all the mutant chains yielding only trimeric collagen II formed from endogenous wild type collagen II that is pepsin resistant.

The faster migration of R789C might either be due to a difference in the protein structure and folding or to enhanced proteolytic processing of the protein caused by the mutation. Using MALDI TOF mass spectroscopy (Table 3.1), a mass of 92.9 kD was determined for the R789C protein, whereas wild type collagen II and all other variants had a mass of around 150.6 kD. This mass was significantly higher than the theoretical mass, calculated to be 136.8 kD. This higher mass is most probably due to posttranslational modification (glycosylation, hydroxylation) of collagen II during biosynthesis. The extent of collagen II modification could be estimated from the mass determination of pepsin extracted collagen from bovine nasal cartilage. Even in the absence of N- and C-propeptides, which also carry posttranslational modifications, the difference between measured and calculated mass was around 30 kD.

It has been reported that hydroxylation and glycosylation varies markedly between collagen types and even within the same collagen type between tissues and species. In a given tissue the posttranslational modification depends on physiological and pathological states (Kivirikko & Myllyla 1979, Kivirikko 1995). The extent of these modifications plays a major role in collagen fibril formation and stability (Notbohm et al. 1999, Bann & Bachinger 2000, Dominguez et al. 2005). The hydroxylation and glycosylation of recombinantly expressed collagens by various cell culture systems is reviewed by Bulleid et al. (2000). From the results presented here, it might be speculated that the reduced mass for the R789C is due to proteolytic processing of the protein that results in the observed shift in SDS PAGE migration.

In addition to 293 EBNA cells, collagens were expressed in HT1080 cells, a fibroblastic cell line commonly used to study collagen synthesis (Fertala et al. 1994, Steplewski et al. 2005). Again, when expression was analyzed by SDS PAGE, wild type, R75C, R134C and R704C proteins were mainly detected in the supernatants. As in 293 EBNA cells the R740C protein was found in about equal proportions in supernatants and cell lysates. The R789C protein was exclusively found in the cell lysate and again migrated faster on SDS PAGE (Fig 3.13). This demonstrates a processing of the R789C protein irrespective of the cell line used for expression.



helical domain of collagen II (Fig 4.1). The exact cleavage position in the R789C protein is yet to be identified, but could potentially be determined by N-terminal sequencing of the smaller C-terminal fragment. Another possibility was the use of a neoepitope antibody directed against the C-terminus of the so-called COL2-3/4C fragment (Fig 4.1). This antibody would specifically detect the fragment if it is cleaved at the position 775. Unfortunately, no specific signal was detected by immunoblotting using this antibody (data not shown). This might indicate that after initial cleavage by MMPs, the R789C protein has undergone further cleavage, leading to the loss of the recognition site. Another possible explanation is that the mutation in immediate vicinity of the cleavage and recognition site alters the three dimensional structure so that the antibody does not detect the neoepitope even if generated.

The fact that the truncated R789C protein was detected in the cell lysate demonstrates that the cleavage takes place already inside the cells. This implies that MMPs are active within the cellular compartments where the protein is retained. The fact the R789C protein is secreted when not cleaved is in good agreement with earlier studies (Majsterek et al. 2003, Steplewski et al. 2004) where mutation of the MMP cleavage site gave increased secretion of R789C collagen (Arnold et al. 1997, Majsterek et al. 2003, Steplewski et al. 2004).

Since the mutation R789C is in close vicinity of the MMPs cleavage sites it can be speculated that the mutations increases the accessibility to MMPs and thus may cause truncation of the R789C protein. Analysis of patients with some forms of osteoarthritis and as well as transgenic mice with osteoarthritis have indeed shown collagen II cleavage at this position by MMPs (Wu et al. 2002, Salminen et al. 2002, Tchétina et al. 2005, Xu et al. 2005).

Treatment of HT1080 cells expressing recombinant R789C with a universal proteasome inhibitor, MG132, did not affect the mobility of R789C (Fig 3.15), indicating that the mutant protein is not cleaved by endoplasmic reticulum associated protein degradation (ERAD) using the cytoplasmic ubiquitin-proteasome system (Meusser et al. 2005).

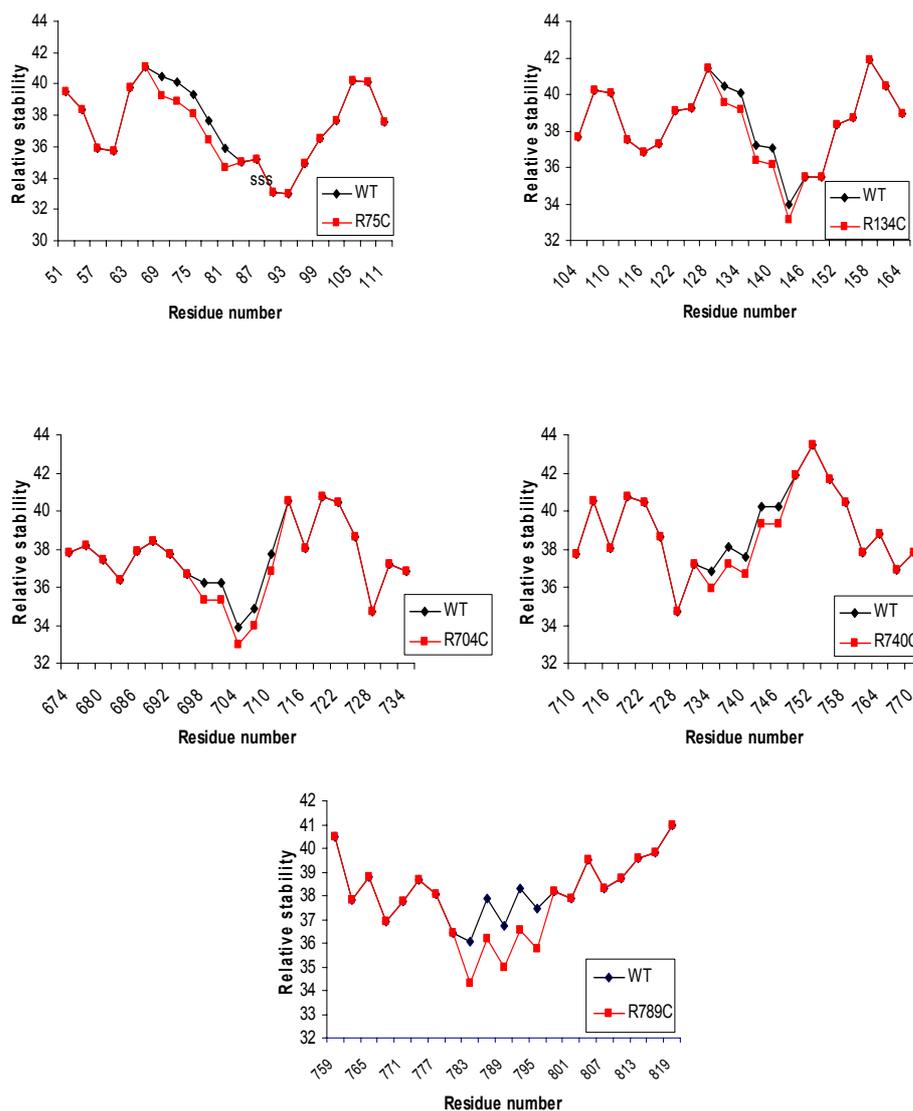
## **4.2 Impact of arginine to cysteine mutations on the structure and stability of collagen II**

To check the stability of recombinantly expressed collagen II and mutants containing arginine to cysteine mutations, proteins were analysed by protease digestion, CD spectroscopy and electron microscopy. Wild type, R75C, R134C and R704C proteins were protease resistant on treatment with trypsin at 25 °C as evidenced by a protease-resistant band corresponding to the collagenous domain (Fig 3.8). Similar treatment on R740C and R789C collagens lead to complete degradation indicating an unfolding of the triple helix. Such an instability was reported for

patient mutations in COL3A1 causing Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type IV (Narcisi et al. 1993), in COL1A2 mutations leading to type I osteogenesis imperfecta (Zhuang et al. 1993) and in collagens recombinantly expressed in vitro (Bruckner & Prockop 1981, Raghunath et al. 1994, Olague-Marchen et al. 2000, Galicka et al. 2003, Cabral et al. 2001). In contrast to the results presented here, other groups have shown that the R789C protein was resistant to digestion with trypsin and chymotrypsin (Steplewski et al. 2004). However, this trypsin resistance was observed only when the MMP cleavage site was mutated and intact full length R789C protein was secreted. As mentioned above, the presumed MMP processing reduces stability and increases the susceptibility for further degradation.

The impact of R740C and R789C on the stability and integrity of the triple helix was further confirmed by CD spectroscopy and by determination of melting temperatures ( $T_m$ ). Wild type, R75C, R134C and R704C proteins displayed typical collagen CD spectra (Fig 3.9). In contrast, a shift of the spectrum to below zero at 222 nm for R740C and R789C proteins indicates that there is a decrease in triple helical structures in these mutants. Similarly glycine substitutions lead to destabilization in collagen XVII (Tasanen et al. 2000). The melting temperature of wild type collagen II was 38.6 °C, 2.4 °C lower than for collagen extracted from bovine nasal cartilage (Liang & Chakrabarti 1981, Amudeswari et al. 1987, Arnold et al. 1998). This difference in absolute melting temperature might be caused by inefficient hydroxylation by 293 EBNA cells (Wagner et al. 2000; Mizuno et al. 2003). The R75C, R134C and R704C proteins had a 2.5 °C lower melting temperature than the wild type protein and the  $T_m$  values of the R789C and R740C proteins were further decreased to 31.5 °C and 30.2 °C, respectively. The decreased  $T_m$  of the R789C protein is in agreement with earlier studies (Steplewski et al. 2004), although in the present study the  $T_m$  of the truncated protein was determined whereas others have analyzed the full length form.

The thermal instability is caused by unstable triple helical structures. An increased monomer content and lowered trimer population has been shown to result in dramatic decrease in triple helix content, melting temperature and, in turn, stability when using collagen like model peptides with glycine to alanine exchanges (Bhate et al. 2002). When using an algorithm to predict the structure and stability of collagen triple helices from amino acid sequences (Persikov et al. 2005) the R789C protein depicted a significant difference in the stability around the amino acid sequence 783 to 795. The other mutants studied did not show such pronounced local destabilization (Fig 4.2).



**Fig 4.2** Calculated relative stability profiles in the immediate vicinity of arginine to cysteine mutations in the collagen II compared to the wild type protein. ([http://semimajor.net/collagen\\_calculator/](http://semimajor.net/collagen_calculator/)).

The structural instability of the R740C and R789C proteins was confirmed by negative staining electron microscopy (Fig 3.12). In contrast to the wild type collagen, which showed characteristic procollagen structures (Lightfoot et al. 1992), the R740C and R789C samples contain only short filaments. This again indicates that these molecules do not form stable triple helices and are therefore not visible by negative staining. Other mutant proteins, such as R75C, R134C and R704C, showed filamentous structures comparable with wild type. However, kinks were consistently seen in most of the R75C filaments. The kinks were at the end of the filaments which agrees with where the mutation is located. Similar kinked structures were previously reported for collagen I molecules harboring mutations leading to osteogenesis imperfecta (Vogel et al. 1988, Lightfoot et al. 1992).

All results from biochemical studies support the conclusion that the R740C and R789C proteins form unstable triple helices. In addition, the local instability around the R789C mutation leads to increased accessibility for MMP cleavage leading to a truncated protein which is then susceptible for digestion by less specific proteases.

### **4.3 Impact of collagen II mutations on protein trafficking**

The fibroblastic cell line HT1080 is commonly used to study the protein expression, trafficking and secretion of collagen II (Fertala et al. 1994, Steplewski et al. 2005). Immunoblotting revealed that a considerable amount of R740C and R789C protein was present in the cell lysate, suggesting intracellular retention.

By immunofluorescence costaining with compartment specific antibodies, the WT, R75C, R134C and R704C proteins were seen to be mainly present in the Golgi compartment (Fig 3.18). This indicates that most of these proteins are being transported to the extracellular space. In contrast, R740C and R789C proteins were detected in other cellular compartments, and showed only weak colocalisation with the 58k Golgi marker. Moreover, colocalisation of R740C and R789C procollagens with PDI, a marker for the endoplasmic reticulum, was observed in these cells (Fig 3.19). PDI is an ER resident chaperone and functions in retaining unassembled or misfolded proteins within the ER. It binds to unfolded collagens preventing aggregation (John et al. 1993, Kivirikko & Myllyharju 1998) and acts as an ER resident quality control. This might suggest that the mutant R740C and R789C proteins are recognized as misfolded by the PDI which may be bound to these proteins, leading to colocalisation. Misfolded proteins are retained by the ER quality control system and subjected to either degradation or refolding (Bottomley et al. 2001). The intracellular retention of the misfolded R740C and R789C collagens in the ER is in agreement with the intracellular retention, due to point mutations, of other cartilage proteins such as COMP and collagen IX in patients with inherited skeletal dysplasias (Hecht et al. 2004, Vranka et al. 2001). Intracellular retention was also observed in mice harboring mutations in the collagen II C-propeptide (Fernandes et al. 2003). Intracellular retention has also been shown to result from point mutations in the triple helical domain of collagen II (Tiller et al. 1995). Interestingly, most of the retained collagens have substitutions of glycine in the Gly-X-Y repeats in the triple helical domain (Tiller et al. 1995, Vissing et al. 1989). Intracellular retention was reported to be due to abnormal disulfide bridges after the introduction of cysteine in the triple helix. Cysteine induced abnormal disulfide bridges were reported for COL1A1 mutations in cells cultured from patient skin biopsies, which also showed a dilated endoplasmic reticulum (Nuytinck et al. 2000). Along the same lines glycine to cysteine substitution in collagen II caused

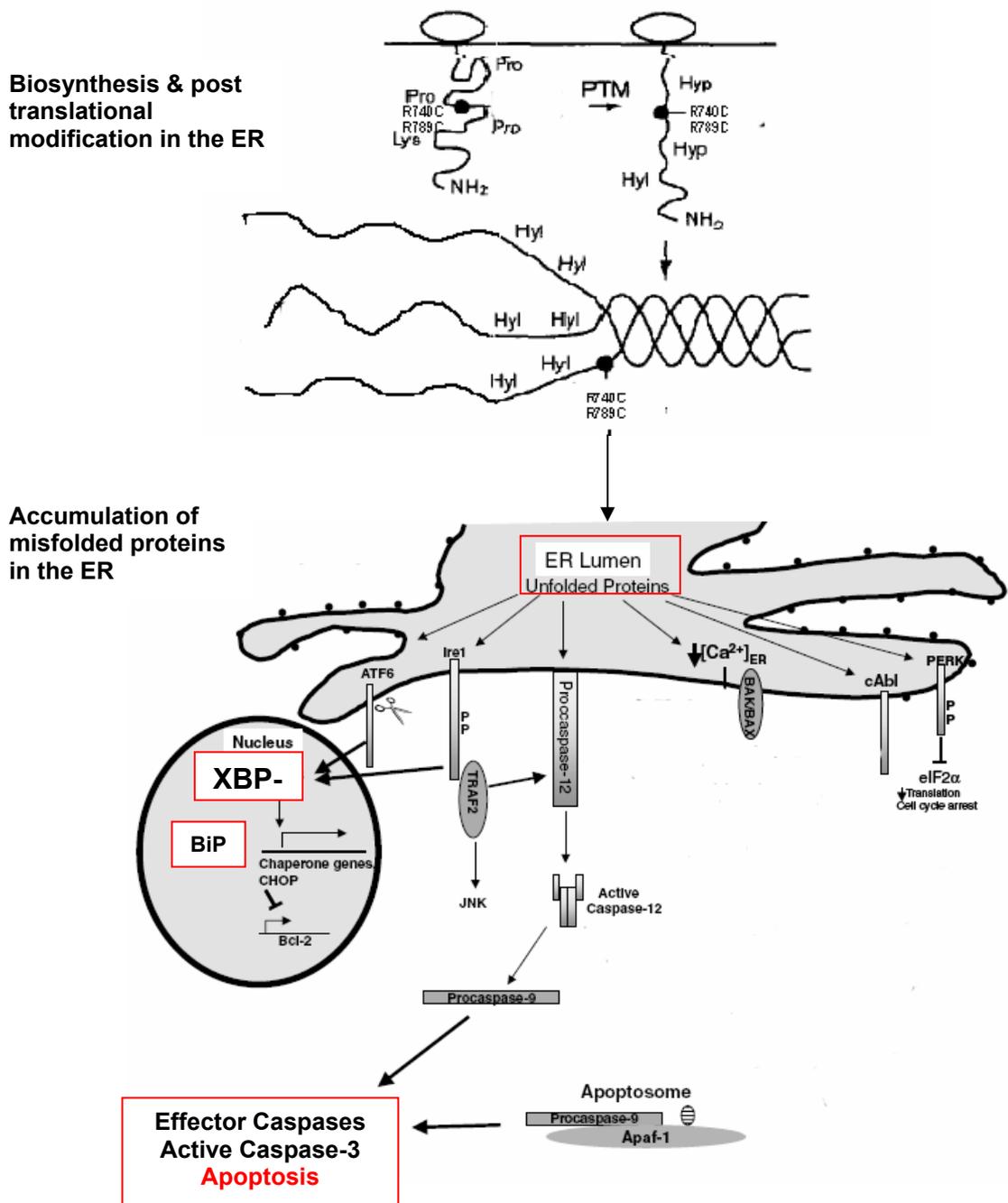
reduced secretion of the protein and protein dimers were formed (Mundlos et al. 1996). Similarly, truncated protein due to exon deletion in the  $\alpha 3$  chain of collagen IX caused intracellular retention in chondrocytes (Bonnemann et al. 2000). It appears that mutation-induced intracellular retention can be due to various factors, such as substitution by bulkier amino acid, presence of artificial disulfide bridges, misfolding as in R740C and truncation as in R789C.

The retention of misfolded protein in the ER leads to the activation of a complex signal transduction pathway called the misfolded or unfolded protein response (UPR) (Rutkowski & Kaufman 2004, Zhang & Kaufman 2004). The UPR has evolved to limit the potential impact of protein accumulation on cellular homeostasis and involves the activation of transcription factor-6 and XBP-1 (X-box DNA binding protein-1) (Lee et al. 2003, Yoshida et al. 2001). In cells undergoing ER stress, active XBP-1 is generated by excision of a 26 bp nucleotide sequence from the XBP-1 transcript by IRE1 endonuclease, one of three ER transmembrane “stress sensors” (Calton et al. 2002). RT-PCR results from transfected HT1080 cells show the presence of XBP-1 spliced variant in addition to the unspliced form in cells expressing R740C and R789C (Fig 3.16). This result is in agreement with the results from Wilson et al. (2005) where misfolded protein accumulation due to a mutation in the NC1 domain of collagen X lead to splicing of XBP-1. XBP-1 splicing leads to the active up-regulation of ER-resident molecular chaperones like BiP and other components of the ER-associated protein degradation machinery (Yoshida et al. 2003, Oyadomari & Mori 2004). Upregulation and colocalisation of BiP (ER resident molecular chaperone) with R740C and R789C procollagen chains was observed by immunofluorescence (Fig 3.20). Similar results were also reported for upregulation and binding of BiP to collagen chains harboring mutations in type I collagen from patients with osteogenesis imperfecta (Chessler & Byers 1993). Splicing of XBP-1 leads to upregulation of BiP in response to accumulation of misfolded collagen X (Wilson et al. 2005). In case of the R740C and R789C collagen II mutations it appears that misfolded and truncated protein, accumulate in the ER and this triggers an ER stress response leading to the activation of ERAD. ER stress response also can downregulate protein synthesis and lead to growth arrest, PERK an ER transmembrane protein which plays a role in inhibition of cell cycle and PERK associated phosphorylation of translation elongation factor 2 $\alpha$  (eIF2 $\alpha$ ) blocks translation (Brewer & Diehl 2000, Kaufman 1999, Sood et al. 2000). Inhibition of proteasomes using MG132 did not affect R789C collagen (Fig 3.14), which indicates that this collagen is not degraded by the ERAD machinery. This leads to accumulation of misfolded proteins in the ER of R740C and R789C expressing cells and this abnormal accumulation results in an altered cellular morphology (Fig 3.17) which correlates with cell death. Similar flattened chondrocytes as well as a reduced cell number was reported in mice

harboring R789C mutation. These chondrocytes also displayed a distended endoplasmic reticulum (Gaiser et al. 2002).

#### **4.4 Fate of cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens**

Accumulation of misfolded R740C and R789C procollagens in the ER does not result in degradation but continuous protein accumulation may cause programmed cell death (Breckenridge et al. 2003, Sitia & Braakman 2003, Rao et al. 2004). Indeed, the large amount of rounded and dead cells observed in cultures expressing R740C and R789C collagens (Fig 3.17) may indicate that the cells are undergoing apoptosis. This was confirmed by the detection of active caspase-3 in cells transfected with R740C and R789C constructs but not in cells transfected with other collagen II variants. Active caspase-3 is implicated in mutations leading to disruption of cellular homeostasis and apoptosis (Mulugeta et al. 2005). Presence of nicked DNA (Fig 3.22) and increased tail length of comets (Fig 3.23) (DNA fragmentation) in cells expressing R740C and R789C collagens confirms that these cells are undergoing apoptosis (Fig 4.3). This result agrees with other studies in which cell death was reported due to the intracellular accumulation of mutant COMP proteins (Hashimoto et al. 2003) and apoptosis in chondrocytes due to ER stress has been reported (Yang et al. 2005). Our results indicates that expression of R740C and R789C collagens leads to an ER storage disease, similar to that observed in pseudoachondroplasia (Dinser et al. 2002) and this may be the reason for the reduced number of chondrocytes observed in patients and in animal models (Hecht et al. 1998, 2005, Gaiser et al. 2002).



**Fig. 4.3** Schematic representation of intracellular events occurring in the bioynthesis of R740C and R789C collagens. R740C and R789C mutant proteins do not form proper triple helical molecules. This leads to impaired trafficking and thereby accumulation in the ER lumen which in turn triggers an ER stress response leading to splicing of XBP-1 by IRE1. Finally as the proteins are not degraded, accumulation triggers apoptosis as seen by the activation of effector caspases. (modified from Baum & Brodsky 1999, Breckenridge et al. 2003).

## 4.5 Consequences of intracellular retention of collagen II for the assembly of extracellular matrix

The cartilage extracellular matrix is composed of intricate networks, formed by interactions between a large number of proteins and proteoglycans. Collagen II is the major collagenous component in cartilage and forms fibrils together with other collagens such as collagen IX and XI (Reginato & Olsen 2002) that directly or indirectly interact with noncollagenous components, e.g. aggrecan, fibronectin, decorin, fibromodulin, lumican, matrilins and COMP (Poole 2001, Mann et al. 2004). Thereby mutations in collagen II may have profound effects on the overall structure of the extracellular matrix.

Intracellular retention with delayed secretion of R789C collagen leads to abnormal binding to fibronectin, thereby altering the intracellular and extracellular processes in which fibronectin takes part (Ito et al. 2005). In addition, altered interactions of R789C collagen II with collagen IX may lead to a change in the architecture of the ECM in the patients harboring these mutations (Ito et al. 2005, Steplewski et al. 2005). Also using computer modeling, R789C displayed a decrease in electrostatic potential around the vicinity of the mutation (Steplewski et al. 2005) and this was correlated to the altered interaction with collagen IX.

In some chondrodysplasias secretion of mutant COMP is markedly delayed, and collagen IX is partially coretained in the ER. However, collagen II secretion is not affected and collagen II can be detected in the matrix (Dinser et al. 2002, Hecht et al. 2005). This indicates that the secretory pathways for COMP and collagen II are different and that the secretion of collagen IX is more closely associated with that of COMP.

Complete retention of collagen II could cause its complete absence in the matrix. This would represent a knockout situation as in collagen II deficient mouse models. These show highly disorganized chondrocytes in a cartilage which completely lacks extracellular fibrils (Liu et al. 1995). Similar observations were also made in transgenic mice carrying a partially deleted human COL2A1 gene which developed a chondrodysplasia phenotype. The extracellular matrix in these mice contained fewer collagen fibrils and the individual fibrils were thinner (Vandenberg et al. 1991). Similarly, transgenic mice harboring glycine to cysteine and arginine to cysteine mutations in the triple helical domain developed chondrodysplasia. The chondrocytes displayed a distended and dilated endoplasmic reticulum and the matrix consisted of thin collagen fibrils (Garofalo et al. 1991, Gaiser et al. 2002). This agrees well with the results with R740C and R789C collagen expressed by HT1080 cells where the intracellular accumulation of mutant proteins leads to cell death and this may contribute to altered extracellular matrix.

In case of R704C collagen, the mutation might lead to haploinsufficiency of collagen fibrils in the matrix. Haploinsufficiency was indicated in mutations in collagen II leading to Stickler syndrome, where mutated mRNA was subjected to nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (Richards et al. 2000) and may be the molecular basis of Stickler syndrome (Freddi et al. 2000). Although the HT1080 cells are a frequently used model, attempts should be made to confirm the result with real chondrocytes, which are the natural producers of collagen II. However, repeated attempts to transfect chondrocytes with plasmid vectors encoding collagen II and its variants were unsuccessful. Hence, adenoviral vectors containing collagen II cDNA with the desired mutations were cloned. Adenovirus based vectors have been successfully used to study the effects of COMP mutations in chondrocytes (Dinser et al 2002). The efficiency and toxicity of first and third generation adenoviral vectors in transducing chondrocytes were evaluated by using eGFP expressing viruses. First generation vectors were highly efficient with decreased toxicity in comparison with third generation vectors when used to transduce cultured bovine chondrocytes (Fig 3.24). Further analysis of transduced chondrocytes will shed light on the intricate role of different mutations in the cartilage.

## 4.6 Conclusion

The results obtained with point mutations resulting in substitution of arginine to cysteine within the triple helical domain of collagen II carry the following implications:

The R75C (Y position) and R134C (X position) mutations did not cause any biochemical alterations except for the presence of kinks in R75C collagen. Similar results were obtained for the R704C (X position) mutation. In case of R740C (X position) and R789C (Y position) the mutations had deleterious effects on protein structure irrespective of being in the X or Y position.

Cells expressing the R75C, R134C and R704C mutations were phenotypically normal and the protein trafficking was not affected, whereas cell death was observed for R740C and R789C mutants, caused by the accumulation of misfolded proteins in the endoplasmic reticulum.

With regard to the location, mutations at the N-terminus of the triple helix had less severe effects than such towards the C-terminus. The R740C and R789C mutation located towards the C-terminus displayed a deleterious effect on the protein structure and caused apoptosis of the expressing cells irrespective of being in the X or Y position. This result is in agreement with the finding that glycine substitutions towards the C-terminus of the collagen I chains are clinically more severe than those towards the N-terminus (Bateman et al. 1992) and may be due to the fact that mutations at the C-terminus lead to a disruptive effect during helix initiation and

propagation (Bonadio & Byers 1985, Byers 1990, Kuivaniemi et al 1991, Bateman et al. 1984, 1986, 1992). However R704C, another mutation towards the C terminus, did not show any lethal effect. The phenotype in these patients may be due to haploinsufficiency in collagen II (Richards et al. 2000).

In patients with R75C and R704C, the mutations might contribute to disease together with other factors such as genetic modifiers or the presence of additional mutations in other gene loci yet to be identified. Similar observations have been made in patients with MED (Jakkula et al. 2005).

These results suggests that a single amino acid alteration in collagen II could lead to skeletal abnormalities through multiple secondary effects on the synthesis and assembly of ECM components. Chondrodysplasia is clearly caused not just by the formation of abnormal matrix molecules but also by the effect of these mutations on protein trafficking and apoptosis possibly augmented by environmental factors and genetic modifiers. The alteration of ECM components may lead to a cascade of disruption of other gene activities which collectively contribute to the pathological changes and thereby contribute to the phenotype in patients.

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## Erklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich die vorliegende Dissertation selbstständig und ohne unzulässige Hilfe angefertigt, die benutzten Quellen und Hilfsmittel vollständig angegeben und die Stellen der Arbeit, die anderen Werken in Wortlaut oder dem Sinn nach entnommen sind, in jedem Einzelfall als Entlehnung kenntlich gemacht habe; dass die Dissertation noch keiner anderen Fakultät oder Universität vorgelegt und noch nicht veröffentlicht worden ist sowie, dass ich eine solche Veröffentlichung vor Ablauf des Promotionsverfahrens nicht vornehmen werde. Die Bestimmungen der geltenden Promotionsordnung sind mir bekannt. Die von mir vorgelegte Dissertation ist von Herrn Prof. Dr. Mats Paulsson betreut worden.

Köln, 28. September 2005

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## Appendix

### a. Collagen II cDNA sequence used in the present study

The codons which are marked in red represent arginines that have been exchanged to cysteines in the present study.

ATGATTTCGCTCGGGGCTCCCCAGTCGCTGGTGCTGCTGACGCTGCTCGTCGCCGCTGTCCTTC  
 GGTGTCAGGGCCAGGATGTCCGGCAACCAGGACCAAAGGGACAGAAAGGAGAACCTGGAGACAT  
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 AGAGGGGATCGTGGTGACAAAGGTGAAAAAGGTGCCCTGGACCTCGTGGCAGAGATGGAGAAC  
 CTGGGACCCCTGGAAATCCTGGCCCCCCTGGTCCCTCCCGCCCCCTGGTCCCCCTGGTCTTGG  
 TGGAAACTTTGCTGCCCAGATGGCTGGAGGATTTGATGAAAAGGCTGGTGGCGCCCAGTTGGGA  
 GTAATGCAAGGACCAATGGGCCCCATGGGACCTCGAGGACCTCCAGGCCCTGCAGGTGCTCCTG  
 GGCTCAAGGATTTCAAGGCAATCCTGGTGAACCTGGTGAACCTGGTGTCTCTGGTCCCATGGG  
 TCCCCGTGGTCTCCTGGTCCCCCTGGAAAGCCTGGTGTATGATGGTGAAGCTGGAAAACCTGGA  
 AAAGCTGGTGAAGGGGTCCGCCTGGTCCCTCAGGGTGCT **CGT**GGTTTCCAGGAACCCAGGCC  
 TTCTGGTGTCAAAGGTACAGAGGTTATCCAGGCCTGGACGGTGCTAAGGGAGAGGCGGGTGC  
 TCCTGGTGTGAAGGTGAGAGTGGTTCCCCGGGTGAGAACGGATCTCCGGGCCCAATGGGTCTC  
 CGTGGCCTGCCTGGTGAAGAGGA **CGG**ACTGGCCCTGCTGGCGCTGCGGGTGCCCGAGGCAACG  
 ATGGTCAGCCAGGCCCCGCAGGTCTCCGGGTCTGTGGTCTGCTGGTGGTCTTGGCTTCCC  
 TGGTGTCTCTGGAGCCAAGGGTGAAGCCGGCCCCACTGGTGCCCGTGGTCTCTGAAGGTGCTCAA  
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 CAGACGGGTGAACCTGGTATTGCTGGCTTCAAAGGTGAACAAGGCCCAAGGGAGAACCTGGCC  
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 CTGGCCCCAAGGGAGCCAACGGTGACCCTGGCCGTCTCTGGAGAACCTGGCCTTCTGGAGCCCG  
 GGGTCTCACTGGCCGCCCTGGTGTATGCTGGTCTCAAGGCAAAGTTGGCCCTTCTGGAGCCCT  
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 AGCTGGAGCCCCTGGCCTCGTGGGTCCCAGGGGTGAACGAGGTTTCCAGGTGAACGTGGCTCT  
 CCCGGTGCCAGGGCCTCCAGGGTCCCCGTGGCCTCCCCGGCACTCCTGGCACTGATGGTCCCA  
 AAGGTGCATCTGGCCAGCAGGCCCCCTGGCGCACAGGGCCCTCCAGGTCTTCCAGGGAATGCC  
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 TGCTCGTGGCGCTCCGGGTGAACGTGGAGAGACTGGCCCCCCCCGGACCAGCGGGATTTGCTGGG

CCTCCTGGTGCTGATGGCCAGCCTGGGGCCAAGGGTGAGCAAGGAGAGGCCGGCCAGAAAGGCG  
ATGCTGGTGCCCCTGGTCCTCAGGGCCCCTCTGGAGCACCTGGGCCTCAGGGTCCTACTGGAGT  
GACTGGTCCTAAAGGAGCCCGAGGTGCCAAGGCCCCCGGGAGCCACTGGATTCCCTGGAGCT  
GCTGGC **CGC** GTTGACCCCCAGGCTCCAATGGCAACCCTGGACCCCCTGGTCCCCCTGGTCCTT  
CTGGAAAAGATGGTCCCAAAGGTGCTCGAGGAGACAGCGGCCCCCTGGC **CGA** GCTGGTGAACC  
CGGCCTCCAAGGTCCTGCTGGACCCCCTGGCGAGAAGGGAGAGCCTGGAGATGACGGTCCCTCT  
GGTGCCGAAGGTCCACCAGGTCCCCAGGGTCTGGCTGGTCAGAGAGGCATCGTCGGTCTGCCTG  
GGCAA **CGT** GGTGAGAGAGGATTCCCTGGCTTGCTGGCCCATCGGGTGAGCCCGCAAGCAGGG  
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CCTGCAGGTGAACCCGGACGAGAGGGAAAGCCCCGGTGCTGATGGCCCCCTGGCAGAGATGGCG  
CTGCTGGAGTCAAGGGTGATCGTGGTGAGACTGGTGCTGTGGGAGCTCCTGGAGCCCCTGGGCC  
CCCTGGCTCCCCTGGCCCCGCTGGTCCAACCTGGCAAGCAAGGAGACAGAGGAGAAGCTGGTGCA  
CAAGGCCCCATGGGACCCTCAGGACCAGCTGGAGCCCGGGGAATCCAGGGTCTCAAGGCCCA  
GAGGTGACAAAGGAGAGGCTGGAGAGCCTGGCGAGAGAGGCCTGAAGGGACACCGTGGCTTAC  
TGGTCTGCAGGGTCTGCCCGGCCCTCCTGGTCTTCTGGAGACCAAGGTGCTTCTGGTCTTGCT  
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AGGCAGCCGGTGGCCTGAGACAGCATGACGCCGAGGTGGATGCCACACTCAAGTCCCTCAACAA  
CCAGATTGAGAGCATCCGCAGCCCCGAGGGTCCCGCAAGAACCCTGCTCGCACCTGCAGAGAC  
CTGAAACTCTGCCACCCTGAGTGAAGAGTGGAGACTACTGGATTGACCCCAACCAAGGCTGCA  
CCTTGGACGCCATGAAGGTTTTCTGCAACATGGAGACTGGCGAGACTTGCCTTACCCCAATCC  
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CCAACGTCCAGATGACCTTCCCTACGCCTGCTGTCCACGGAAGGCTCCCAGAACATCACCTACCA  
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CAGGGCTCCAATGACGTGGAGATCCGGGCAGAGGGCAATAGCAGGTTACGTACACTGCCCTGA  
AGGATGGCTGCACGAAACATACCGGTAAGTGGGGCAAGACTGTTATCGAGTACCGGTACAGAA  
GACCTCACGCCTCCCCATCATTGACATTGCACCCATGGACATAGGAGGGCCCGAGCAGGAATTC  
GGTGTGGACATAGGGCCGGTCTGCTTCTTGTA AAAACCTGAACCCAGAAACAACAATCCGTT  
GCAAACCCAAAGGACCCAAGTACTTTCCAATCTCAGTCACTCTAGGACTCTGCACTGAATGGCT  
GACCTGACCTGATGTCCATTCATCCACCTCTCACAGTTTCGGACTTTTCTCCCCTCTCTTTCT  
AAGAGACCTGAACTGGGCAGACTGCAAAAATAAAATCTCGGTGTTCTATTTATTTATTTGTCTTCC  
TGTAAGACCTTCGGGTCAAGGCAGAGGCAGGAAACTAACTGGTGTGAGTCAAATGCCCCCTGAG  
TGACTGCCCCCAGCCAGGCCAGAAGACCTCCCTTCAGGTGCCGGGCGCAGGAACTGTGTGTGT  
CCTACACAATGGTGCTATTCTGTGTCAAACACCTCTGTATTTTTTAAA

## b. Collagen II protein sequence

The protein sequence of collagen II including, BM40 signal peptide, the hexahistidine motif (yellow) and the my epitope is shown. Arginines which are substituted to cysteines in the present study are marked in red. The triple helical domain is marked by the shaded area.

MRAWIFFLLCLAGRALAAPLVHHHHHGGPLVDVASNEQKLI SEEDLASMTGGQQMGRDIEGRGL  
AQDVRQPGPKGQKGE PGDIKDIVGPKGPPGPQGPAGEQGPGRGDRGDKGEKGAPGPRGRDGE PGT  
PGNPGPPGPPGPPGPPGLGGNF AAQMAGGFDEKAGGAQLGVMQGPMGPMGPRGPPGPAGAPGPQ  
GFQGNPGEPEGPGVSGPMGPRGPPGPPGKPGDDGEAGKPGKAGERGPPGPQGA RGFPGT PGLPG  
VKGHRGYPGLDGAKGEAGAPGVKGESGSPGENGSPGPMGPRGLPGERG RTGPGAAGARGNDGQ  
PGPAGPPGVPVGPAGGPGFPGAPGAKGEAGPTGARGPEGAQQPRGEPGTPGSPGPAGASGNP GTD  
GIPGAKGSAGAPGIAGAPGFFGPRGPPGPQGATGPLGPKGQTGEPGIAGFKGEQGPKEGEPG PAG  
PQGAPGPAGEEGKRGARGE PGGVGP IGP GERGAPGNRGFPQDGLAGPKGAPGERGPSGLAGP  
KGANGDPGRPGEPGLPGARGLTGRPGDAGPQKVGPSGAPGEDGRPGPPGPQGARQQPGVMGFP  
GPKGANGE PGKAGEKGLPGAPGLRGLPGKDGETGAAGPPGPAGPAGERGEQGAPGPSGFQGLPG  
PPGPPGEGGKPGDQGVPEAGAPGLVGP RGERGF PGERGSPGAQQLQGPRGLPGTPTGTDGPKGA  
SGPAGPPGAQQGPPGLQGM PGERGAAGIAGPKGDRGDVGEKGP EGAPGKDGGRLTGPIGPPGPA  
GANGEKGEVGP PG PAPSAGARGAPGERGETGPPGPAGFAGPPGADGQPGA KGEQGEAGQKGDAG  
APGPQGPSGAPGPQGPTGVTGPKGARGAQGPPGATGFPGAAG R VGPPGSNGNPGPPGPPGPSK  
DGPKGARGDSGPPGR AGE PGLQGPAGPPGEKGE PGDDGPSGAEGPPGPQGLAGQRGIVGLPGQR  
GERGFPLPGPSGEPGKQGAPGASGDRGPRGPPGPVGP PGLTG PAGEPGREGSPGADGPPGRDG  
AAGVKGDRGETGAVGAPGAPGPPGSPGPAGPTGKQGDRGEAGAQQPMGPPSGPAGARGIQGPQGP  
RGDKGEAGEPGERGLKGHRGFTGLQGLPGPPGPPSGDQGASGPAGPSGPRGPPGPVGPSPGKDGAN  
GIPGPIGPPGPRGRSGETGPAGPPGNPGPPGPPGPPGPGIDMSAFAGLGPREKGPDP LQYMRAD  
QAAGGLRQHDAEVDATLKSLNNQIESIRSP EGSRKNPARTCRDLKLCHPEWKSGDYWIDPNQGC  
TLDAMKVFCNMETGETCVYPNPANVPKKNWSSKSKKHIWFGETINGGFHFSYGDDNLAPNT  
ANVQMTFLRLLSTEGSQNITYHCKNSIAYLDEAAGNLKKALLIQGSNDVEIRAEGNSRFTYTAL  
KDGCTKHTGKWGKTVIEYRSQKTSRLPIIDIAPMDIGGPEQEFVVDIGPVCFL