Subcellular Distribution of ras in Human and Murine Fibroblasts

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Ras proteins play a significant role in signal transduction in response to growth factors and in cell transformation. To be active, ras has to be translocated to the cell membrane. Since subcellular distribution has been mainly studied in vector-transformed cells which highly express ras proteins, and it has been difficult to detect ras in cells expressing the protein at physiological levels, we studied subcellular distribution in human and murine fibroblasts. Here we show for the first time that a significant amount of ras is associated with the membrane skeleton and the cytoskeleton. © 1996 Academic Press, Inc.

The three cellular ras genes (H-, N-, and K-ras) encode related 21-kDa guanine nucleotidebinding proteins (1). Ras normally functions to relay mitogenic and developmental signals initiated by cell-surface receptors into the cytoplasm and nucleus (2). Beside this physiological function of normal ras which is still not fully understood, ras, in combination with an additional oncogene, can malignantly transform cells, and activating mutations of ras are found in nearly one-third of all human cancers (3). To exert its function, ras has to be located to the inner surface of the plasma membrane (4) which requires a complex series of posttranslational modifications. The ras protein is synthesized in the cytosol as an inactive precursor (pro-ras) and converted into an intermediate form (c-ras) by removal of the three C-terminal amino acids and subsequent carboxy-methylation resulting in increased hydrophobicity. In a next step, which includes farnesylation at Cys186 and palmitoylation (Cys180, 181, or 184), c-ras is converted into the mature, membrane-bound form of m-ras (5,6,7). Farnesylation and membrane-association has been studied extensively by using cell systems which express high levels of ras proteins either by an inducible promoter (5,6) or by transient expression in COS-1 cells (7). In non-ras transfected cells, detection of ras proteins has remained difficult (8). We therefore studied subcellular distribution of ras in normal and transformed human and murine lung fibroblasts. We here show for the first time, that ras is not only bound to the plasma membrane, but is associated in proliferating cells with the membrane- and cytoskeleton in significant amounts.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Cell culture. FH109 human embryonal lung fibroblasts (9), C3H10T1/2 cells, SV40-transformed WI38 cells (WI38SV40), and methyl-cholanthrene transformed C3H10T1/2 cells (C3H10T1/2 trans., (10)) were cultured for three days in 6-well plates in DMEM (PAA) supplemented with 10 % FCS (Gibco).

Triton X-114 separation (three phase system). Cell proteins were fractionated according to (11). Briefly, cells were trypsinized, pelleted, and washed with phosphate-buffered saline. The sample was diluted in 200 μ l of ice-cold Hepesbuffer (10 mM Hepes/NaOH pH 7.4, protease inhibitors as mentioned) and Triton X-114 was added to a final concentration of 2 %. Immediately, the sample was vortexed and placed on ice for 5 min after which the sample was centrifuged at 8,800 g for 10 min at 4°C. The detergent insoluble protein pellet (DIP) was solubilized in 200 μ l of SDS-sample buffer (12) and the supernatant was layered on top of 300 μ l of a sucrose cushion (10 mM Tris /HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 6 % (w/v) sucrose, 0.06 % (v/v) Triton X-114). After incubation for 3 min at 30°C, followed

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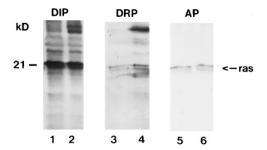


FIG. 1. Western blot analysis of *ras* after differential extraction and temperature-induced three phase separation. WI38SV40 (lanes 1,3, and 5) and C3H10T1/2 $_{trans.}$ (lanes 2,4, and 6) cells were solubilized with Triton X-114 and the fractions separated into a detergent-insoluble phase (DIP), a detergent-rich phase (DRP), and an aqueous phase (AP). The lanes were loaded with 5 μ g of protein. The position of the molecular size marker in kilodaltons is shown on the left.

by centrifugation at 3,000 g for 3 min, the upper aqueous phase was transferred to a clean cap and Triton X-114 was added to a final concentration of 0.5 %. After mixing and incubation on ice for 5 min, this phase was overlayed on the same sucrose cushion, incubated for 3 min at 30°C and then centrifuged at 3,000 g for 3 min. The resulting upper aqueous phase was again transferred to a clean cap and fresh Triton X-114 was added to a final concentration of 2 %. After incubation on ice for 5 min and at 30°C for 3 min, the sample was centrifuged at 3,000 g for 3 min. Proteins of this aqueous phase (AP) were precipitated according to (13) and solubilized in SDS-sample buffer. The sucrose cushion was then aspirated from the remaining detergent-rich phase (DRP) and proteins were precipitated and solubilized as described. Protein determination of each fraction was performed according to (14).

Subcellular fractionation. Cells were lysed at 4°C for 15 min in 1,000 μ l of 2 % Triton X-100 in TBS-buffer (100 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, 0.3 μ M aprotinin, 0.1 μ M soybean trypsin inhibitor, 60 μ M phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 0.4 mM iodoacetamid, 5 μ M pepstatin, 4 μ M leupeptin) and harvested with a rubber policeman. The cytoskeletal fraction was separated by centrifugation at 10,000 g for 15 min at 4°C and solubilized in 200 μ l of SDS-sample buffer (12). The supernatant was centrifuged at 100,000 g for 2 h at 4°C and the pelleted membranes solubilized in 100 μ l of SDS-sample buffer. Proteins of the supernatant were precipitated (13) and solubilized in SDS-sample buffer.

Western blotting. Proteins were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (15%), transferred overnight to Immobilon membrane (Millipore) and blocked for 1 h with 5 % FCS in TBS (50 mM Tris / HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 0.05 % Tween 20). For immunodetection, membranes were incubated for 3 h with anti-ras antibodies (1:1000, Paesel & Lorey) in blocking buffer. After three short and three 5-min washing steps with TBS, the membranes were incubated for 1.5 h with biotin-streptavidin conjugated anti-sheep antibodies (1:1000, Dianova) in blocking buffer and again washed as described, followed by incubation with streptavidin-biotinylated horseradish peroxidase complex (1: 100, Amersham) for 20 min. The membranes were washed with three short and three 5-min washing steps and once with phosphate-buffered saline. The blots were developed using 4-chloro-1-naphthol (Sigma) and 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (Sigma).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Subcellular distribution of *ras* was examined by using two different fractionation methods with the non-ionic detergents Triton X-100 and Triton X-114 in non-transformed human and murine fibroblasts (FH109 and C3H10T1/2), in virally transformed human fibroblasts (WI38SV40), and in chemically transformed murine fibroblasts (C3H10T1/2 _{trans.}).

We first used differential solubilization and temperature-induced three-phase-separation with Triton X-114 according to Hooper and Bashir (11) in transformed fibroblasts: Hydrophilic proteins are found in the aqueous phase whereas transmembrane polypeptide anchored proteins are recovered in the detergent-rich phase; proteins tightly bound to cytoskeletal structures remain in the detergent-insoluble pellet.

The membrane-bound form of *ras*, i.e. the farnesylated and palmitoylated form, is detergent-sensitive and can be extracted by Triton X-100 and Triton X-114 (6,15). In accordance, we could partly solubilize *ras* with Triton X-114 (Fig.1, lanes 3 and 4). A small amount of *ras*

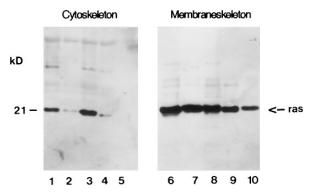


FIG. 2. Western blot analysis of *ras* after subcellular fractionation. C3H10T1/2 $_{trans.}$ (lanes 1, and 6), C3H10T1/2 (lanes 2, and 7), WI38SV40 cells (lanes 3, and 8), proliferating (lanes 4, and 9), and contact-inhibited (lanes 5, and 10) FH109 cells were solubilized with Triton X-100 and separated into a cytoskeletal (10 μ g protein / lane), a membraneskeletal (3 μ g protein / lane), and a detergent-soluble fraction (data not shown). The position of the molecular size marker in kilodaltons is shown on the left.

was found in the aqueous phase (lanes 5 and 6), which represents the cytosolic form of *ras*. Unexpectedly, a significant amount of *ras* was discovered in the detergent-insoluble pellet which gave a hint that *ras* might be associated with cytoskeletal structures. We therefore used next differential extraction with Triton X-100 as described in the method section in order to separate the cytoskeletal, the membrane-skeletal and the detergent-sensitive / cytosolic fractions.

Fig. 2 shows that a significant amount of *ras* in transformed (lanes 6 and 8) and non-transformed proliferating (lanes 7 and 9) and quiescent cells (lane 10) is Triton X-100-insensitive and is discovered in the membrane skeletal fraction. Only a small amount can be solubilized with Triton X-100 (data not shown). Interestingly, we found that, in transformed fibroblasts, a high amount is also bound to the cytoskeleton (Fig. 2, lanes 1 and 3). In proliferating, non-transformed fibroblasts (lanes 2 and 4), a small amount is bound to the cytoskeleton whereas in contact-inhibited, quiescent fibroblasts (lane 5), we failed to detect *ras* in the cytoskeletal fraction.

CONCLUSIONS

In our study, we revealed for the first time that a significant amount of *ras* is bound to cytoskeletal and membrane skeletal structures. Since we only detected cytoskeletal-associated *ras* in proliferating cells and not in contact-inhibited, quiescent cells, we suggest that the cytoskeletal fraction represents newly synthesized mature *ras* and that the cytoskeleton might be important for the translocation of *ras* from the endoplasmatic reticulum to the membrane hence serving as a transport system.

Although there is no doubt about the transforming properties of ras and its important role in cancer (3), the biological function of ras is still not fully understood. Ras proteins have been described to play an important role in the fast response of growth factor receptor activation, but the long term responses are still unclear (2). The fact that ras was predominantly detected in the detergent-resistant membrane skeletal fraction points out that association with additional subcellular structures might be important for ras activation and signal transduction. Possibly, efficient signal transduction requires concentration of ras and its effector proteins on specific locations. For instance, such a positive relationship between transformation capacity and cytoskeleton association has been demonstrated for $p60^{v-src}$ (16) and Bcr-Abl oncogene (17).

Accordingly, p60^{c-src} becomes activated and associated with the cytoskeleton in response to growth factor stimulation (18).

Vice versa, growth factors are known to induce drastic reorganisation in cytoskeletal architecture (19, 20). The *ras*-related protein *rho*, for instance, regulates the assembly of focal adhesions and actin stress fibers in response to growth factors such as platelet-derived growth factor (20), and the *ras*-related *rac* is important for growth-factor induced membrane ruffling (21). The results of our study demonstrating that a significant amount of *ras* is associated with the membrane skeleton, might give a hint that *ras* itself also plays a role in regulating cytoskeletal architecture.

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