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Mestre em Biologia-Saude

# Studies of the role of sialyl Lewis $X$ antigen and $E$ selectin ligands in colorectal cancer 

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## Resumo

As alterações da glicosilação desregulam múltiplos processos biológicos e são características do cancro, relacionadas com a tumorigénese e progressão tumoral. Este estudo foca-se na glicosilação alterada em cancro colorretal (CRC), o terceiro cancro mais comum no mundo. Um aumento da sialilação e fucosilação foram reportados em CRC e associados com características de tumores malignos. Estas alterações resultaram num incremento da expressão do antigénio sialofucosilado sialil Lewis $X$ (sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ ), um ligando da E-selectina endotelial, tendo potencial na formação de metástases. Assim, a sobreexpressão do antigénio sLe ${ }^{X}$ pode afectar a expressão dos ligandos da E-selectina e a capacidade de invasão de linhas celulares de CRC. Além disso, o efeito da expressão aumentada do antigénio sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ em estratégias imunossupressoras de células tumorais não foram claramente discutidas até à data.

Para responder a estas hipóteses, primeiro caracterizámos o impacto na biologia e no perfil de glicanos da sobreexpressão de sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ em células de CRC. Os resultados mostraram melhoria na migração celular e na reatividade com a E-selectina quando a expressão de sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ foi aumentada. Em seguida, identificámos as glicoproteínas imunoprecipitadas com E-selectina por espectrometria de massa, e os nossos resultados revelaram a molécula de adesão das células neurais L1 (L1CAM). Para além disso, mostrámos que a sobreexpressão do antigénio sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ nas células de CRC reduz o perfil de maturação das células dendríticas (DCs), conforme indicado pela diminuição na expressão da molécula de apresentação de antigénios, MHC-II, e a molécula co-estimuladora, CD86.

Esta tese é a primeira a relatar a capacidade de interação da L1CAM com a E-selectina. Como é conhecido que a L1CAM possui uma elevada expressão em cancro e que está associada com metástases e progressão tumoral, estes resultados devem contribuir para melhor compreender o seu mecanismo de ação. Também a redução na maturação das DCs induzida por células de CRC que expressam sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ pode diminuir a capacidade de iniciar adequadamente a resposta imunológica contra células tumorais. Em geral, estes resultados contribuem para elucidar o papel do antigénio sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ e dos ligandos de E-selectina na progressão do CRC, na formação de metástases e na estratégia tumoral de evasão do sistema imunológico, propondo novos potenciais alvos para tratamentos terapêuticos para o CRC.

Palavras-chave: Cancro colorretal, E-selectina, sialil Lewis X, metástase, imunomodulação.


#### Abstract

Glycosylation alterations dysregulate multiple biological processes and are a hallmark of cancer, linked to tumorigenesis and tumour progression. The present study focuses on altered glycosylation in colorectal cancer (CRC), the third most common cancer worldwide. Increased sialylation and fucosylation are reported in CRC and associated with malignant tumour features. This increase is translated by upregulation of the sialofucosylated sialyl Lewis $\mathrm{X}\left(\mathrm{sLe}^{\mathrm{x}}\right.$ ) antigen, a ligand of the endothelial E-selectin, having a potential role in metastasis. Thus, overexpressing sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen may affect the expression of E-selectin ligands and the invasion capacity of CRC cell lines. Moreover, the effect of increased sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expression on tumour cells immunosuppressive strategies has not been clearly examined so far.

To address these hypotheses, we first characterised the impact on the biology and the glycan profile of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ overexpression in CRC cells. The results showed improvement of cell migration and reactivity with E-selectin, upon increased sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ expression. Then, we identified the glycoproteins immunoprecipitated with E-selectin by mass spectrometry, and our results revealed neural cell adhesion molecule L1 (L1CAM). Furthermore, we showed that the sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen overexpression by CRC cells reduces the maturation profile of dendritic cells (DCs), as inferred by a decreased expression of the antigen presenting molecule, MHC-II, and the co-stimulatory molecule, CD86.

This thesis is the first to report the L1CAM ability to interact with E-selectin. Since L1CAM is known to be elevated in cancer and associated with metastasis and progression, this should contribute to better understand its action mechanism. Also, the reduced DCs maturation induced by sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ expressing CRC cells, may diminished the capacity to appropriately engage immune response against tumour cells. Overall, these findings contribute to elucidate the role of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands on CRC progression, metastasis and in the tumour immune system escape strategy, proposing potential novel targets for therapeutic treatments of CRC.


Keywords: Colorectal cancer, E-selectin, sialyl Lewis X, metastasis, immunomodulation.

## Table of Contents

Acknowledgements ..... V
Resumo ..... vii
Abstract ..... ix
Table of Contents ..... xi
Illustrations index ..... xiii
List of Tables ..... xvi
List of Abbreviations ..... xviii
Chapter 1 - Introduction ..... 1
1.1. Colorectal Cancer ..... 3
1.1.1. Risk factors ..... 3
1.1.2. Screening ..... 3
1.1.3. Diagnosis ..... 4
1.1.4. Staging and prognosis ..... 4
1.1.5. Treatments ..... 5
1.2. N - and mucin type O -glycosylation ..... 7
1.2.1. N -glycosylation ..... 7
1.2.1.1. Structure ..... 7
1.2.1.2. Biosynthesis of N -glycans ..... 8
1.2.1.2.1. Glycan precursor synthesis (ER) ..... 8
1.2.1.2.2. ER maturation and conformation ..... 10
1.2.1.2.3. Golgi maturation ..... 10
1.2.1.2.3.1. Branching ..... 11
1.2.1.2.3.2. Peripheral sugars ..... 11
1.2.2. Mucin type O-glycosylation ..... 12
1.2.2.1. Structure ..... 12
1.2.2.2. Biosynthesis of mucin type O-glycans ..... 13
1.2.2.2.1. Attach point synthesis ..... 13
1.2.2.2.2. Cores synthesis ..... 14
1.2.2.2.3. Branching ..... 14
1.2.2.2.4. Peripheral sugars ..... 15
1.3. Protein glycosylation alteration in colorectal cancer ..... 15
1.3.1. N -glycans ..... 15
1.3.2. Mucin type O-glycans ..... 18
1.3.3. Sialylation ..... 20
1.3.4. Fucosylation ..... 22
1.3.5. Lewis antigens ..... 22
1.4. Role of Lewis antigens in colorectal cancer ..... 25
1.4.1. Metastasis ..... 25
1.4.2. Immunomodulation ..... 29
1.4.2.1. Scavenger Receptors ..... 29
1.4.2.2. DC-SIGN ..... 30
1.4.2.3. Siglecs ..... 31
1.4.2.3.1. Siglec-1 ..... 31
1.4.2.3.2. Siglec-3 ..... 31
1.4.2.3.3. Siglec-7 and -9 ..... 31
1.4.2.3.4. Siglec-10 ..... 32
1.4.2.4. Mannose Receptor ..... 32
Chapter 2 - Rationale and aims of the thesis ..... 34
Chapter 3 - Materials and Methods ..... 38
3.1. Reagents ..... 40
3.2. Cell culture ..... 40
3.3. Monocytes isolation and differentiation to immature monocyte derived dendritic cells ..... 40
3.4. SW620:moDCs co-culture conditions ..... 41
3.5. Flow cytometry ..... 41
3.6. Membrane protein extraction ..... 43
3.7. Immunoprecipitation ..... 43
3.8. Mass spectrometry ..... 43
3.8.1. E-selectin ligands identification ..... 43
3.8.1.1. Mass Spectrometry ..... 43
3.8.1.2. Data analysis ..... 44
3.8.2. Glycoanalysis ..... 44
3.8.2.1. N -glycan release ..... 44
3.8.2.2. Glycans labelling ..... 45
3.8.2.3. N -glycan clean-up ..... 45
3.8.2.4. HILIC-UHPLC analysis on a Dionex Ultimate 3000 with inline MS ..... 45
3.9. RT-qPCR ..... 46
3.10. SDS-PAGE and Western-Blot ..... 46
3.11. Wound healing assay ..... 47
3.12. Statistical analysis ..... 47
Chapter 4 - Results ..... 49
4.1. Characterisation of sialyl Lewis $X$ expressing cell lines ..... 51
4.1.1. Characterisation of colon cancer cell lines overexpressing FUT6 ..... 51
4.1.2. N-glycan profiles of Mock vs. FUT6 transfected SW620 cells ..... 55
4.1.3. FUT6 overexpression increases migration ability in SW620 cells ..... 57
4.2. E-selectin ligands ..... 58
4.2.1. SW620FUT6 cell line presents high expression of E-selectin ligands ..... 58
4.2.2. E-selectin ligands from SW620FUT6 identification ..... 58
4.2.3 L1CAM, integrin $\alpha-6$ and integrin $\beta-1$ are expressed on SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells surface ..... 60
4.2.4. L1CAM is an E-selectin ligand in SW620FUT6 cells ..... 61
4.2.5. L1CAM N-glycan analysis ..... 63
4.3. Immunomodulation ..... 64
4.3.1. MoDCs adherence to SW620 cells and maturation profile are affected by FUT6 overexpression ..... 64
4.3.2. No effect of FUT6 expression in SW620 cells to moDCs cytokines gene expression ..... 65
4.3.3. MoDCs maturation profile is affected by FUT6 overexpression after stimulation ..... 67
4.4. Supplementary Data ..... 69
Chapter 5 - Discussion ..... 91
5.1. Characterisation of sialyl Lewis $X$ expressing cell lines ..... 93
5.1.1. Characterisation of colon cancer cell lines overexpressing FUT6 ..... 93
5.1.2. N-glycan profiles of Mock vs. FUT6 transfected SW620 cells ..... 95
5.1.3. FUT6 overexpression increases migration ability in SW620 cells ..... 97
5.2. Selectin ligands ..... 98
5.3. Immunomodulation ..... 100
5.4. Conclusions ..... 102
References ..... 103

## Illustrations index

Figure 1.1 N -glycan structures ..... 8
Figure 1.2 N-glycan precursor synthesis and transfer ..... 9
Figure 1.3 $\mathrm{Man}_{8} \mathrm{GlcNAc}_{2}$ isomer B ..... 10
Figure 1.4 GlcNAcTs for N-glycans branching ..... 11
Figure 1.5 A, B and H and Lewis blood group antigens. ..... 12
Figure 1.6 Mucin type O-glycan cores and antennae. ..... 13
Figure 1.7 Mucin type O-glycans biosynthesis ..... 14
Figure 1.8 Major N-glycans alterations in colorectal cancer ..... 18
Figure 1.9 The Metastasis Cascade. ..... 26
Figure 1.10 Schematic leukocyte migration ..... 27
Figure 1.11 Possible interaction between CTC and selectins. ..... 27
Figure $4.1 \alpha 1,3 / 4$ fucosyltransferases (FUTs) gene expression in SW620 and HT29 cell lines by RT-qPCR.52
Figure 4.2 Expression levels of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens in Mock and FUT6 transfected SW620 and HT29 cell lines ..... 53
Figure 4.3 Comparison of sialyl Lewis X/A and E-selectin ligand expression on Mock and FUT6 transfected cell line. ..... 54
Figure 4.4 N-glycans identified by HILIC-UHPLC-MS from membrane proteins of SW620Mock and FUT6 cells ..... 56
Figure 4.5 FUT6 overexpression in SW620 cells lead to increased cell migration faculty ..... 57
Figure 4.6 SW620FUT6 cells expresses E-selectin ligands ..... 58
Figure 4.7 PTRJ is not present in SW620 cell surface ..... 60
Figure 4.8 E-selectin ligands expression in SW620 cell lines ..... 61
Figure 4.9 Identification of L1CAM as an E-selectin ligand in SW620FUT6 cells ..... 62
Figure 4.10 HPLC profile of N-glycans released from IP L1CAM ..... 63
Figure 4.11 MoDCs adhere more to FUT6 transfected SW620 than Mock cells ..... 64
Figure 4.12 MoDCs are less mature when co-cultured with SW620FUT6 cells compared to Mock. ..... 65
Figure 4.13 Co-cultures with SW620FUT6 cell line do not affect cytokines gene expression ..... 66
Figure 4.14 MoDCs adherence in co-cultures challenged with LPS. ..... 67
Figure 4.15 Increased resistance to maturation of moDCs when incubated with FUT6 transfected cancer cell line ..... 68
Figure S4.1 CD86 expression by moDCs increases with the supplementation of LPS in a dose-dependent manner ..... 89

Figure S4.2 MHC-II expression by moDCs increases with the supplementation of LPS in a dose-dependent manner..................................................................................................................... 90

## List of Tables

Table 1.1 TNM system and staging classification. ..... 5
Table 4.1 Cell lines information. ..... 51
Table 4.2 List of identified E-selectin ligands in SW620FUT6 cells by mass spectrometry† ..... 60
Table S4.1 Membrane proteins N -glycans composition of SW620Mock cells identified by MS ${ }^{\text {n }}$ fragmentation analysis with identified Y - and B -ion fragments. ..... 69
Table S4.2 Membrane proteins N-glycans composition of SW620FUT6 cells identified by MSn fragmentation analysis with identified Y - and B -ion fragments ..... 74
Table S4.3 57 immunoprecipitated glycoproteins with E-selectin chimera in SW620 cell lines identified by mass spectrometry $\dagger$ ..... 80
Table S4.4 $\mathbf{N}$-glycans composition of L1CAM monoclonal antibody identified by MS ${ }^{\boldsymbol{n}}$ fragmentation analysis with identified Y - and B -ion fragments ..... 84
Table S4.5 N-glycans composition of immunoprecipitated L1CAM from SW620 membrane proteins identified by MS ${ }^{\mathrm{n}}$ fragmentation analysis with identified Y - and B -ion fragments. ..... 86

## List of Abbreviations

| $l$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Number <br> 5-ASA <br> 5-FU | Mesalamine <br> 5-Fluorouracile |


| A |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Ab | Antibody |
| AJCC | American joint committee on cancer |
| APC | Allophycocyanin |
| Asn | Asparagine |


| B |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| BCA | Bicinchoninic acid assay |
| bFGF | Basic fibroblast growth factor |
| BSA | Bovine serum albumin |


| C | Core $1 \beta 1,3$ galactosyltransferase |
| :--- | :--- |
| C1GaIT | Core $2 \beta 1,6 \mathrm{~N}$-acetylglucosaminyltransferase |
| C2GnT | Core $3 \beta 1,3 \mathrm{~N}$-acetylglucosaminyltransferase |
| C3GnT | Carbohydrate Antigen 19.9 |
| CA-19.9 | Chimeric antigen receptor-T cell |
| CAR-T cell | Cluster of Differentiation |
| CD | Congenital Disorder of Glycosylation |
| CDG | Carcinoembryonic antigen |
| CEA | CEA-related cell adhesion molecule |
| CEACAM | Consortium for Functional Glycomics |
| CFG | Chinese hamster ovary |
| CHO | CpG island methylator phenotype |
| CIMP | Cutaneous lymphocyte antigen |
| CLA | Compound |
| Cmpd | Consensus molecular subtypes |
| CMS | Core 1 beta-3-galactosyltransferase-specific molecular chaperone |
| Cosmc | Colorectal cancer |
| CRC | Colorectal cancer stem cells and cancer initiating cells |
| CR-CSCs/CICs | Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats-dead CRISPR- |
| CRISPR-dCas9-VPR | associated protein 9-VP64-p65-Rta |
| Ct | Cycle threshold |
| CTCs | Circulating Tumour cells |
| CTLs | Cytotoxic T Lymphocytes |


| D |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| DAMPS | Damage-associated molecular patterns |
| DC | Dendritic cell |
| DC-SIGN | Dendritic cell-specific intercellular adhesion molecule-3-grabbing non-integrin |
| DMEM | Dulbecco modified Eagle's medium |
| DNA | Deoxyribonucleic acid |
| DR5 | Death Receptor-5 |


| E |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| EDTA | Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid |
| EGF | Epithelial growth factor |
| EGFR | Epithelial growth factor receptor |
| E-Ig | Recombinant Human E-Selectin/CD62E Fc Chimera Protein |
| EMT | Epithelial-mesenchymal transition |
| EpCAM | Epithelial cell adhesion molecule |
| ER | Endoplasmic Reticulum |
| ERAD | Endoplasmic Reticulum Associated Degradation |
| Exp. | Experiment |
|  |  |
| F |  |
| FA | Formic acid |
| FAP | Familial adenomatous polyposis |
| FBS | Foetal bovine serum |
| FDR | False Discovery Rate |
| FITC | Fluorescein isothiocyanate |
| FOBT | Faecal occult blood testing |
| Fuc | Fucose |
| FucT | Fucosyltransferase (enzyme) |
| FUT | Fucosyltransferase (gene) |


| G |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Gal Ga | Galactose |
| Galt G | Galactosyltransferase |
| GalNAc N | N -acetylgalactosamine |
| GalNAct N | N -acetylgalactosaminyltransferase |
| GAPDH Gly | Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase |
| GDP G | Guanosine diphosphate |
| Glc Glaci | Glucose |
| GlcNAc N- | N -acetylglucosamine |
| GIcNAct N | N -acetylglucosaminyltransferase |
| GM-CSF G | Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor |
| GSLs Gl | Glycosphingolipids |
| GU Gl | Glucose unit |
| H |  |
| hCG | human chorionic gonadotropin |
| HCELL | hematopoietic cell E/L-selectin |
| Hex | Hexose |
| HexNAc | N -acetylhexosamine |
| HILIC-UHPLC | C Hydrophilic interaction ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography |
| HNPCC | Hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer |
| HPLC | High-performance liquid chromatography |
| HRP | Horseradish peroxidase |


| I | Inflammatory bowel disease |
| :---: | :---: |
| IBD |  |
| ICAM-2 | Intercellular adhesion molecule 2 |
| IFN | Interferon |
| I |  |
| IL | Interleukin |
| IP | Immunoprecipitated |
| ITGA6 | Integrin $\alpha 6$ |
| ITGB1 | Integrin $\beta 1$ |



| L |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| L-15 | L |
| L1CAM | LacdiNAc |
| LacNAc | L |
| LAG3 | L |
| LAMP | L |
| LC-ESI-MS/MS | L |
| Le |  |
| Le |  |
| Le | L |
| Le |  |
| LGALS3BP | L |
| LncRNA | L |
| LOH | L |
| LPS | L |
| LSECs |  |

Leibovitz medium
Neural cell adhesion molecule L1
N,N-diacetyllactosamine
N -acetyllactosamine
Lymphocyte activation gene 3 protein
Lysosome-associated membrane glycoproteins
Liquid chromatography electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry
Lewis A
Lewis B
Lewis X
Lewis $Y$
Lectin galactoside-binding soluble 3 binding protein
Long non-coding RNA
Loss of heterozygosity
Lipopolysaccharide
Liver sinusoidal endothelial cells

| M |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| mAb | Monoclonal antibody |
| Mac-2BP | Mac-2-binding protein |
| Man | Mannose |
| MAN1B1 | Endoplasmic reticulum a1,2-mannosidase |
| MAP | MutY homolog-associated polyposis |
| MBP | Mannan-binding protein |
| MFI | Median Fluorescent Intensity |
| MGL | Macrophage galactose lectin |
| MHC-II | Major histocompatibility complex class II |
| miRNA/miR | microRNA |
| MLH1 | MutL homolog 1 |
| MMPs | Matrix-metalloproteinases |
| MMR | Mismatch repair |
| MoDC | Monocyte derived from DCs |
| MR | Mannose receptor |
| MS | Mass spectrometry |


| MSI | Microsatellite instability |
| :--- | :--- |
| MUC | Mucin |
| MW | Molecular Weight |
| $m / z$ | Mass-to-charge ratio |


| $\mathbf{N}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| N.D. | Not detectable |
| Neu5Ac |  |
| NGF | Nerve Growth Factor |
| NK | Natural Killer |
| N.S. | Not significant |


| $\mathbf{P}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| PAMPs |  |
| PE |  |
| PCLP |  |
| PBMCs |  |
| PD-1 |  |
| PHA-E |  |
| PIK3CA | PMNs |
| PMGaINAcT |  |
| Pro |  |
| PRRs |  |
| PTPRJ |  |
| PVDF |  |

Pathogen-associated molecular patterns
Phycoerythrin
Podocalyxin-like protein
Peripheral blood mononuclear cells
Programmed cell death 1
Phaseolus vulgaris erythroagglutinin
Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-biphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha
Polymorphonuclear leukocytes
polypeptide- N -acetylgalactosaminyltransferase
Proline
Pattern recognition receptors
Receptor-type tyrosine-protein phosphatase eta
Polyvinylidene difluoride

| $\mathbf{R}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| RNA |  |
| ROI | Ribonucleic acid |
| ROS | Reactive oxygen intermediate |
| RPMI | Rosctive oxygen species |
| rProtein | Recombinant Memorial Institute |
| RT-qPCR | Reverse Transcription quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction |


| S |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| SCNA | Somatic copy number alteration |
| SD | Standard deviation |
| SEM | Standard Error of Mean |
| SDS-PAGE | Sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis |
| Ser | Serine |
| sLe | Sialyl Lewis A |
| sLe | Sialyl Lewis X |
| Sia | Sialic Acid |
| SiaT | Sialyltransferase |
| Siglecs | Sialic acid-binding immunoglobulin-like lectins |
| SIGN-R1 | Specific Intercellular adhesion molecule-3-Grabbing Non-Integrin-Related 1 |
| SR | Scavenger receptor |
| SRCL | Scavenger receptor with C-type lectin |


| sT | Sialyl Thomsen-Friedenreich |
| :--- | :--- |
| STAT3 | Signal transducer and activator of transcription protein 3 |
| ST3GalT | $\beta$-galactoside $\alpha 2,3$-sialyltransferase |
| ST6GaIT | $\beta$-galactoside $\alpha 2,6$-sialyltransferase |
| ST6GaINAcT | $\alpha-$-acetylgalactosaminide $\alpha 2,6$-sialyltransferase |
| sTn | Sialyl Thomsen-nouveau |


| $\mathbf{T}$ |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| T | Thomsen-Friedenreich |  |
| TGF- $\beta$ | Transforming growth factor $\beta$ |  |
| Thr | Threonine |  |
| TIGIT | T cell immunoreceptor with Ig and ITIM domains |  |
| TIM3 | T cell immunoglobulin mucin receptor 3 |  |
| TIMP-1 | Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases 1 |  |
| Tn | Thomsen-nouveau |  |
| TNF- $\alpha$ | Tumour necrosis factor $\alpha$ |  |
| TNM | Tumour, nodes, metastases |  |
| TP53 | Tumour protein 53 |  |
| Trp | Tryptophan |  |
| Tyr | Tyrosine |  |


| $\mathbf{U}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| UDP | Uridine diphosphate |
| UGGT | UDP-glucose glycoprotein glycosyl transferase |
| UMP | Uridine monophosphate |

$\frac{\mathbf{V}}{-6}$ Very late antigen 6
$\frac{\mathbf{W}}{\text { WB }}$ Western Blot

| $\mathbf{X}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Xyl | Xylose |

Chapter 1 - Introduction

### 1.1. Colorectal Cancer

Cancer is the second cause of mortality worldwide. Among the varies different types of cancer, colorectal cancer (CRC) is the deadliest one, behind lung cancer (World Health Organization 2018). In Portugal, CRC is the third and second in term of incidence and mortality, respectively (Globocan 2018). Characterisation of primary tumour or relapses and diagnosis of metastasis are key factors to reduce the incidence of CRC. Carbohydrate antigen 19.9 (CA-19.9) and carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA) are the only available serum biomarkers. However, serum CEA has low specificity since it can be found elevated in patients with other disease or cancer type. Therefore, serum CEA level is not used for diagnosis, but as prognosis factor in pre-operative condition and post-operative patient follow-up to detect persistent disease (F. Shen et al. 2019; Z. Sun et al. 2017; Thirunavukarasu et al. 2011). Serum CEA level is also used in patient undergoing chemotherapeutic treatment for metastasis (Yu et al. 2018; Duffy et al. 2014).

### 1.1.1. Risk factors

Age is the highest risk factor of CRC, after 50 years-old, the prevalence augments exponentially. Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD) such as Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis also increases the risk of developing CRC (Johnson et al. 2013). Family history with first degree relatives affected by CRC is a risk factor too (Schoen et al. 2015). Furthermore, some familial forms of CRC exist such as Lynch syndrome (Hereditary Non-Polyposis Colorectal Cancer; HNPCC) (Boland and Troncale 1984) and familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) (Petersen, Slack, and Nakamura 1991). More rare syndromes characterised by the development of noncancerous growths are also found associated with elevated risk of CRC, for examples Peutz-Jeghers syndrome (van Lier et al. 2010) or MutY homolog-associated polyposis (MAP) (Cleary et al. 2009). Additionally, type 2 diabetes has been identified as risk factor in CRC (Agache et al. 2018). Finally, higher incidence risk has been reported for some ethnic populations suggesting a genetic predisposition for CRC development (Lynch, Rubinstein, and Locker 2004; Alexander et al. 2007).

Lifestyle risk factors for CRC are overweight and obesity, physical inactivity (Johnson et al. 2013), diet rich in processed and red meat (Cross et al. 2007) and poor intake of fruits and vegetables consumption (van Duijnhoven et al. 2009). Moreover, smoking and regular heavy alcohol intake are linked to CRC occurrence (Cheng et al. 2015; McNabb et al. 2019).

### 1.1.2. Screening

Screening of CRC in regular population includes faecal occult blood testing (FOBT) addressed to over 50 years old persons, in case of negative results, the test is renewed 2 years later. Another test includes
the research of DNA markers in faeces. In case of positivity to FOBT, colonoscopy is done to search for polyps and malignant lesions. Flexible sigmoidoscopy is also a recommended screening method (Carroll, Seaman, and Halloran 2014).

### 1.1.3. Diagnosis

Diagnosis includes clinical exams in order to confirm CRC and to determine the location and type, and the spread of the cancer. Different types of endoscopy, proctoscopy, sigmoidoscopy, or colonoscopy, exist and allow to visualise the tumour and to collect biopsy for anatomopathological analysis. Different imagery methods can be applied to evaluate the tumour size and the presence and location of metastases. Blood analysis are done to evaluate the general health of the patient with serum CEA level dosage (Labianca et al. 2013).

### 1.1.4. Staging and prognosis

To establish prognosis and treatment strategies, staging of the tumour is essential. Staging is based on TNM (Tumour, Nodes, Metastases) system, which consists in T: size and invasion of local organs status of the primary tumour, $N$ : spread level to regional lymph nodes and $M$ : distant metastasis presence. Each category possesses sub-categories which are, for some of them, also divided in different levels, all detailed in Table 1.1. The tumour grade of differentiation is established from histological cancer tissue biopsy, and divided in well, moderately, poorly differentiated, and undifferentiated. Prognosis is established based on staging and grading; however, other factors are considered. For instance, the tumours can present different genetic alterations, which are chromosomal instability with loss of heterozygosity (LOH), CpG island methylator phenotype (CIMP) and microsatellites instability (MSI). LOH has the highest occurrence, can affect different gene such as TP53, PIKC3A, APC, KRAS, BRAF, etc., and be responsible of allelic loss of chromosome $18 q$ (Vacante et al. 2018; Fearon et al. 1990). The CIMP is a CRC subtype characterised by the hypermethylation of CpG island on the promotor of genes such as BRAF or the tumour suppressor gene MLH1 (Bae et al. 2017). MSI is characterised by genetic alteration of short tandem repeat sequences due to impair in DNA mismatch repair (MMR) system (De' Angelis et al. 2018). Besides these genetic biomarkers, CEA level is a prognosis factor used in pre-operative and follow-up for patients, high CEA level increases risk of overall mortality by approximatively 60\% (Thirunavukarasu et al. 2011).

Table 1.1 TNM system and staging classification. Adapted from AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, $7^{\text {th }}$ edition (American Joint Committee on Cancer 2010) including updates from $8^{\text {th }}$ edition (Shida et al. 2019)

| Primary Tumour (T) | Distant Metastasis (M) |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TX Primary tumour cannot be assessed | M0 No distant metastasis |  |  |  |
| TO No evidence of primary tumour | M1 Distant metastasis |  |  |  |
| Tis Carcinoma in situ: invasion of lamina propria | M1a Metastasis confined to one organ without peritoneal metastasis |  |  |  |
| T1 Tumour invades submucosa | M1b Metastases in more than one organ without peritoneal metastasis |  |  |  |
| T2 Tumour invades muscularis propria |  |  |  |  |
| T3 Tumour invades through the muscularis propria into peri-colorectal tissues | M1c Metastasis to the peritoneum with or without another organ involvement |  |  |  |
| T4a Tumour penetrates to the surface of the visceral peritoneum | ANATOMIC STAGE/PROGNOSTIC GROUPS |  |  |  |
| T4b Tumour directly invades or is adherent to other organs or structures | Stage | T | N | M |
|  | 0 | Tis | NO | M0 |
|  | I | T1 | NO | M0 |
| Regional Lymph Nodes ( N ) |  | T2 | NO | MO |
| NX Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed | IIA | T3 | NO | M0 |
| NO No regional lymph node metastasis | IIB | T4a | NO | M0 |
| N1 Metastasis in 1-3 regional lymph nodes | IIC | T4b | NO | M0 |
| N1a Metastasis in 1 regional lymph node | IIIA | T1-T2 | N1/N1c | M0 |
| N1b Metastasis in 2-3 regional lymph nodes |  | T1 | N2a | M0 |
| N1c Tumour deposit(s) in the subserosa, | IIIB | T3-T4a | N1/N1c | M0 |
| mesentery, or non-peritonealised pericolic or |  | T2-T3 | N2a | M0 |
| perirectal tissues without regional nodal |  | T1-T2 | N2b | M0 |
| metastasis | IIIC | T4a | N2a | M0 |
| N2 Metastasis in 4 or more regional lymph |  | T3-T4a | N2b | M0 |
| nodes |  | T4b | N1-N2 | M0 |
| N2a Metastasis in 4-6 regional lymph nodes | IVA | Any T | Any N | M1a |
| N2b Metastasis in 7 or more regional lymph | IVB | Any T | Any N | M1b |
| nodes | IVC | Any ${ }^{\text {T }}$ | Any N | M1c |

A new classification strategy has been proposed based on different markers of cancer onset and progression to establish different therapeutic strategies. This classification distinguishes four consensus molecular subtypes (CMS), defined by gene mutation and expression, proteomics, immune response and immune cell infiltration, chromosomal instability, among others (Guinney et al. 2015). The different CMS are:

- CMS 1 represents $14 \%$ of tumours, named "MSI Immune", it is defined by hypermutations, CIMP, MSI high, BRAF mutation, immune infiltration with an upregulation of immune evasion pathways.
- CMS 2 represents $37 \%$ of tumours, named "Canonical", it is characterized by an elevated somatic copy number alteration (SCNA) and strong signalling activation of WNT and Myc pathways.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

- CMS 3 represents 13\% of tumours, named "Metabolic", it shows high metabolic dysregulation and KRAS mutations.
- CMS 4 represents 23\% of tumours, named "Mesenchymal", it presents upregulation of genes involved in epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) with the activation of transforming growth factor- $\beta$ (TGF- $\beta$ ) signalling and angiogenesis.

The CMS classification defined the remaining $13 \%$ of CRC tumours as "mixed" which shows a limit to this classification system and requires further studies, for instance by including other markers.

### 1.1.5. Treatments

All risk factors and characterisation of the tumour (i.e., stage, grade, biomarkers, CEA level) are taken into consideration to establish the treatment strategy. Surgically removal of the tumour is the main treatment. However, surgery may require adjuvant treatment, especially for patients with advanced CRC. Chemotherapy and/or radiotherapy are used to reduce the tumour size prior surgery (neoadjuvant treatment) or in post-surgery adjuvant treatment strategies. The common chemotherapeutic drugs are 5 -fluorouracile (5-FU), leucovorin, oxaliplatin and capecitabine. Combination of chemotherapeutics is often used such as FOLFOX (leucovorin, 5-FU and oxaliplatin), FOLFIRI (leucovorin, 5-FU and irinotecan), CAPEOX or CAPOX (capecitabine and oxaliplatin) or FOLFOXIRI (leucovorin, 5-FU, oxaliplatin and irinotecan). Targeted therapeutic treatments are also use alone or in combination with chemotherapy. For instance, two targeted antibodies exist: Bevacizumab (Avastin) which targets vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and Cetuximab (Erbitux) which targets epithelial growth factor receptor (EGFR) (Basile et al. 2017; Labianca et al. 2013).

Promising immunotherapeutic treatments are developed and are promising especially for patient with tumour resistant to chemotherapy. For instance, monoclonal antibodies have been developed against PD-1: Pembrolizumab and nivolumab are promising in patient with MMR-deficient and MSI-high metastatic CRC (André et al. 2020; Le et al. 2020; Smith and Desai 2018; Overman et al. 2017). Other T cell checkpoint molecules can be targeted, for example lymphocyte activation gene 3 protein (LAG3), T cell immunoglobulin mucin receptor 3 (TIM3) and T cell immunoreceptor with Ig and ITIM domains (TIGIT) (Anderson, Joller, and Kuchroo 2016).

### 1.2. N - and mucin type O-glycosylation

Protein glycosylation alteration has been shown to be a hallmark of cancer since decades. This part presents the process of protein glycosylation in humans. Section 1.3 describes the glycosylation alterations in CRC and section 1.4 discusses the involvement of Lewis antigen in CRC.

Glycosylation is a post-translational modification which concern about $70 \%$ of proteins. Its roles are multiples including protein solubility, cell interactions, protein half-lives, metabolic regulation, protein folding, etc. Minimum requirements for glycosylation are the presence of the enzyme (glycosyltransferase), a sugar-donor (nucleotide-sugar) and an acceptor (protein, lipid, glycan). Glycosylation is the association of a protein or lipid to a glycan. For glycoprotein, a chemical classification based on the nature of the atom between the glycan and the protein has been established giving three categories, O-glycosylation for oxygen, N -glycosylation for nitrogen and C-glycosylation for carbon. These three types of glycosylation can be found on the same protein. Thus, the typic structure is a monosaccharide attach to the $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{N}$ or C atom of an amino acid, followed by a core, one type of core is found in N -glycosylation and several in O-glycosylation, attached to the core there is one or several antennae finally decorated with peripheral sugars, mainly N -acetylneuraminic acid (Neu5Ac, Sia or sialic acid) and fucose (Fuc). In N-glycosylation, the linkage is between a N -acetylglucosamine (GIcNAc) and an asparagine (Asn). In very few cases, N -glycosylation can refer to the linkage between mannose (Man) on azote atom of a tryptophan (Trp). O-glycosylation is mainly mucin type, the linkage is between a N -acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc) and a serine (Ser) or a threonine (Thr). Other types of O-glycosylation exist; in collagen type, the linkage is with hydroxylysine, in glycogen type, linkage is between glucose (Glc) and tyrosine (Tyr), in proteoglycan, xylose (Xyl) is linked to Ser or Thr. Man, Fuc and GlcNAc can be linked to Ser or Thr via oxygen atom. C-glycosylation represents about $15 \%$ of glycosylated proteins and consists in the linkage between Man and Trp. N - and mucin type O-glycosylation are the most prevalent type of protein glycosylation found in humans, thus we will focus only on these two types of protein glycosylation (Corfield 2017).

### 1.2.1. N-glycosylation

### 1.2.1.1. Structure

In N-glycosylation, the GIcNAc is linked to an Asn found in a consensus sequence, this sequence is three amino acids, Asn-X-Ser/Thr, where X represents any amino acid except proline (Pro) (Bause 1983). This consensus sequence is necessary but not sufficient. The core attached to the GlcNAc is common to all N -glycoproteins (Figure 1.1A). Attached to the core, antennae determine the type of N -glycan, mannosidic (Figure 1.1B), complex (Figure 1.1C) or hybrid (Figure 1.1D). There are two main peripheral
sugars bound to the structure by sialyltransferases (SiaTs) and fucosyltransferases (FucTs). Sialylation is generally found on the galactose (Gal) in terminal position in $\alpha 2,3$ or $\alpha 2,6$ linkage. Polysialylation can occur, mainly in nervous tissues, consisting in the addition of sialic acid in $\alpha 2,8$ on terminal sialic acid. Fucosylation can be present on Gal or GlcNAc from the antennae, in $\alpha 1,3, \alpha 1,4$ or $\alpha 1,2$, or on GlcNAc of the core structure in $\alpha 1,6$ and is then referred as core-fucosylation.

A


คAsn-X-Ser/Thr



Man
 Gal

B


C


D


Figure 1.1 N -glycan structures. A. N -glycan core structure Man $\mathrm{GlcNAc}_{2}$ is common to all N -glycan types. B. Mannosidic N -glycan type gathers structures composed of the N -glycan core and Man residues. C. Complex N -glycan type represents N -glycan core with one to six branches with or without peripheral sugars (Sia and/or Fuc residues). D. Hybrid N -glycan type is mixing the previous two types, i.e., one of the terminal Man of the N -glycan core carries complex N -glycan type branch while the other terminal Man is substituted with only Man residues. Glycans are represented according to the Consortium for Functional Glycomics (CFG) Nomenclature (CFG Nomenclature).

### 1.2.1.2. Biosynthesis of N -glycans

N -glycan biosynthesis takes place in two organelles of the eukaryotic cell, in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and the Golgi apparatus. The following section details the different steps of the N -glycans biosynthesis process with their organelle localisation. Briefly, in the ER takes place the synthesis of the glycan precursor, its transfer to a nascent protein and the beginning of glycan maturation associated with the conformation step of N -glycoproteins. In the Golgi apparatus occurs the glycan maturation leading to the formation of the hybrid and complex N -glycan type structures.

### 1.2.1.2.1. Glycan precursor synthesis (ER)

The N -glycan precursor is composed of fourteen monosaccharides. Its synthesis is initiated in the cytoplasmic side of the ER and once the N -glycan precursor is fully synthesised, it is transferred on a nascent protein in the ER lumen (described in Figure 1.2). Since the transfer of the N -glycan precursor occurs while the protein did not complete its translation, the N -glycosylation modification is therefore
co-translational. In the enzymatic glycosylation reaction, the transferred sugar to an acceptor must be activated. These activated sugars, also called nucleotides-sugars (e.g., UDP-GlcNAc), become the appropriate substrates of the glycosyltransferases. To penetrate the ER membrane to reach the ER lumen, the nucleotides-sugars are transferred on a lipid anchored in the ER membrane, the dolichol. The dolichol is the lipid acceptor for the precursor synthesis. This lipid comes from the same precursor than cholesterol and its use is cyclic due to the necessity to recycle it. Briefly, on the cytosolic side of the ER, phosphorylated dolichol receives the first GlcNAc, then the second, followed the addition of five Man residues. The formed dolichol-pyrophosphate-GIcNAc ${ }_{2} \mathrm{Man}_{5}$ complex is translocated to the $E R$ lumen by the action of membrane transporters called "flippases". The synthesis of the N-glycan precursor ends in the ER lumen with the transfer of four extra Man and three Glc. Different glycosyltransferases are necessary to produce the glycan precursor, depending on the type of linkage, glycan donor and acceptor (Aebi 2013). Finally, the precursor is transferred en bloc on the Asn of a protein in synthesis by the oligosaccharide transferase (OST), a complex of several protein subunits (Shrimal, Cherepanova, and Gilmore 2015). Once the precursor is transferred, the remaining dolichol pyrophosphate undergoes the action of a pyrophosphatase, the resulting dolichol phosphate can enter once again in the synthesis of a new precursor. Therefore, this recycling process took the name of dolichol phosphate cycle.


Figure 1.2 N -glycan precursor synthesis and transfer. Initiation of the N -glycan precursor synthesis occurs in the cytosolic side of the ER with the formation of the $\mathrm{GlcNAc}_{2} \mathrm{Man}_{5}$ structure attached to a dolichol pyrophosphate. Dolichol-pyrophosphate-GIcNAc2Man5, dolichol-phosphate-Man and dolichol-phosphate-Glc synthesised in the cytosol side of the ER are "flipped" to the lumen side where appropriate glycosyltransferases process to the complete synthesis of the N -glycan precursor. The precursor is transferred by a complex of protein, the OST, to an Asn belonging to a consensus sequence of a nascent protein peptide chain. UDP: Uridine diphosphate; UMP: Uridine monophosphate; GDP: Guanosine diphosphate.

### 1.2.1.2.2. ER maturation and conformation

After its transfer to the nascent protein, the precursor is subjected to the action of different glycosidases. The ER glucosidases I and II, respectively $\alpha 1,2$ and $\alpha 1,3$ glucosidases, remove the two terminal glucoses, the third one intervenes in the conformation step. Two lectins recognise the monoglucosylated precursor structure, calnexin and calreticulin. Their function is to bury the closed hydrophobic polypeptide inside the protein and their action is combined with different chaperon proteins on non-mature N -glycoproteins. The conformation change allows the action of the ER glucosidase II which removes the last glucose. If the folding of the protein is incorrect, the glucose is added again by the UDP-glucose glycoprotein glycosyl transferase (UGGT), and the protein returns to the previous step of protein conformation until it reaches the right conformation. The UGGT owns a folding sensor activity, allowing to detect immature glycoprotein. This cycle of glucosylation/deglucosylation is important and when a glycoprotein never acquires the correct conformation, it leads to its elimination to avoid the accumulation of unfolded proteins in the ER (Trombetta and Parodi 2005). This is done by the endoplasmic reticulum associated degradation (ERAD) process. As for the correctly folded glycoproteins, the ER mannosidase I ( $\alpha 1,2$-mannosidase, MAN1B1) removes one mannose, giving the formation of the isomer B (Figure 1.3 Gonzalez et al. 1999) which is sent to the Golgi apparatus where N -glycan maturation ends.


Figure 1.3 $\mathrm{Man}_{8} \mathrm{GlcNAc}_{2}$ isomer $B$.

### 1.2.1.2.3. Golgi maturation

In the Golgi apparatus, the N-glycan type, mannosidic, complex or hybrid, is determined by the action of two glycosidases subfamilies, the Golgi mannosidases I and II. Golgi mannosidases I remove all the remaining mannoses in $\alpha 1,2$ linkage (Tremblay and Herscovics 2000; Tremblay, Campbell Dyke, and Herscovics 1998; Bause et al. 1993) and without the action of these glycosidases, the N-glycan is mannosidic type. N -acetylglucosaminyltransferase I (GIcNAcT-I) can act after Golgi mannosidases I, the Golgi mannosidases II can then enter in action to remove the two last mannoses linked to the core structure (Misago et al. 1995). Without the Golgi mannosidases II action, the N-glycoprotein is hybrid type. Thus, the N -glycan mannosidic and hybrid type are due to the activity defect of Golgi mannosidases. Multiple glycosyltransferases proceed to offer the variety of glycan structure found in complex type N -glycoprotein.

### 1.2.1.2.3.1. Branching

The complex type N -glycans can possess up to six antennae, initiated by the transfer of a GlcNAc residue by the GlcNAcTs on the $\alpha 1,6$ and $\alpha 1,3$ Man of the $N$-glycan core. In total, seven enzymes are found and each of them add a GlcNAc with a specific linkage/position, described in Figure 1.4 (Stanley, Schachter, and Taniguchi 2009). Among the seven GlcNAcTs, six of them act on the terminal $\alpha 1,6 / 3 \mathrm{Man}$ of the core and one on the internal $\beta 1,4 \mathrm{Man}$. This later is the GIcNAcT-III, responsible of the addition of the GlcNAc called bisecting GlcNAc. Importantly, the presence of this bisecting GlcNAc prevents the action of the other GlcNAcTs.



Figure 1.4 GIcNAcTs for N -glycans branching. Six GlcNAcTs, GIcNAcT-I, II, IV, V, Vb/IX and VI, can add a GIcNAc to the terminal Man residues of the N -glycan core structure, initiating the antennae of the complex N -glycans. Each one of these GlcNAcTs possesses their own substrate and linkage specificities. The GIcNAcT-III is responsible of the synthesis of the bisecting GIcNAc, added to the internal Man of the N -glycan core, which impedes the action of other GlcNAcTs.

Galactosyltransferases (GalTs) transfer Gal in $\beta 1,4$ on GlcNAc residues, except on bisecting GlcNAc. This Galß1,4GlcNAc structure is referred as type 2 N -acetyllactosamine (LacNAc), type 1 LacNAc refers to Galß1,3GlcNAc where GalTs transfer Gal in $\beta 1,3$ on GlcNAc. Repetition of type 2 LacNAc disaccharide, with the GIcNAc linked to Gal in $\beta 1,3$, termed poly-N-acetyllactosamine (polyLacNAc) can be found, and sometimes ended with a type 1 LacNAc. The antennae can also be elongated with GalNAc residues instead of Gal and the linkage with the GIcNAc is in $\beta 1,4$. This GalNAc $\beta 1,4 \mathrm{GlcNAc}$ is called LacdiNAc for $\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{N}$-diacetyllactosamine and polyLacdiNAc sequence exists but is uncommon compared to polyLacNAc sequence (Stanley and Cummings 2009).

### 1.2.1.2.3.2. Peripheral sugars

N -glycans antennae can be further decorated with peripheral sugars, Sia and Fuc.
Sia is added by sialyltransferases (SiaTs), which are polygenic. There is $\alpha 2,3$-SiaTs, which add sialic acid on terminal Gal in $\alpha 2,3$ linkage; $\alpha 2,6-\mathrm{SiaT}$, which add sialic acid on terminal/subterminal GlcNAc or on terminal Gal in $\alpha 2,6$ linkage; and $\alpha 2,8-$ SiaT, which transfer sialic acid on sialic acid only in $\alpha 2,8$ linkage. Addition of sialic acid occurs in the end of the maturation process in the trans Golgi while branching occurs in cis/median Golgi.

Fucosylation is supported by fucosyltransferases (FucTs) coded by FUT and 11 FUTs are found. Different fucosylation arises, the core-fucosylation consists in the addition of Fuc in $\alpha 1,6$ on the GIcNAc linked to the Asn residues. The core-fucosylation is supported by the FucT-VIII coded by FUT8 which is the only monogenic FucT, the others, like the SiaTs, are polygenic. The addition of Fuc on type 2 LacNAc in $\alpha 1,3$ leads to the Lewis $X\left(\mathrm{Le}^{\mathrm{X}}\right.$ ) antigen, and if the $G a l$ is sialylated in $\alpha 2,3$ the structure is therefore the sialyl Le ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}\left(\mathrm{sLe}^{\mathrm{x}}\right.$ ) antigen. This fucosylation can also be in $\alpha 1,4$ on type 1 LacNAc leading to Lewis $A$ ( $L^{A}$ ) or sialyl Le ${ }^{A}\left(s L e^{A}\right)$ antigen upon Gal sialylation. The fucosylation of the terminal Gal in $\alpha 1,2$ leads to the H antigen, only FucTs coded by FUT1 and FUT2 own this enzymatic activity. In presence of Fuc in $\alpha 1,2$, the terminal Gal can also carry a GalNAc or a Gal in $\alpha 1,3$ leading to, respectively, the $A$ and $B$ antigen. These antigens, $A, B$ and $H$, found on red blood cells correspond to the antigen which determine the blood group of the ABO blood group system. When fucosylation of terminal GlcNAc and Gal occurs, two antigens are produced, Lewis $Y\left(L^{Y}\right)$ and Lewis $B\left(L e^{B}\right)$ antigen (Stanley and Cummings 2009). The Figure 1.5 resumes the different antigens mentioned above.


Figure 1.5 A, B and $\mathbf{H}$ and Lewis blood group antigens. Multiple enzymes intervene in the synthesis of glycan antigens, GalTs, GalNAcTs, SiaTs and FucTs. H, A and B blood group antigens are formed from either type 1 or 2 LacNAc structure. Le ${ }^{A}$, sLe ${ }^{A}$ and Le ${ }^{B}$ antigens are formed from type 1 LacNAc structure, i.e., Galß1,3GlcNAc, while Le ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}, \mathrm{sLe}^{\mathrm{X}}$ and $\mathrm{Le}^{\gamma}$ antigens are formed from type 2 LacNAc structure, i.e., Galß1,4GIcNAc.

### 1.2.2. Mucin type O-glycosylation

### 1.2.2.1. Structure

The basic structure of mucin type O-glycan is characterised by a GalNAc linked to a Ser or Thr residue. This GalNAc can be further modified by the action of different glycosyltransferases giving the core
structures of mucin type O-glycans. There are eight different cores which can be linked to the GalNAc, but cores 1 to 4 are the most common, cores 5 to 8 are extremely rare, thus we will describe structure and biosynthesis of core 1 to 4 only. In Figure 1.6 (left), the structures of the four first cores are described. Two types of antenna are found: type 1 antenna with Galß1,3GIcNAc and type 2 antenna with Galß1,4GIcNAc. The antennae can be rearranged, been linear or branched (Figure 1.6 right). Like in N -glycosylation, peripheral sugars are sialic acid and Fuc (Brockhausen and Stanley 2015).


Figure 1.6 Mucin type O-glycan cores and antennae. Structures on the left are the cores. Core 1 to 4 are the most found on mucin type O-glycans, obtained with the action of GalTs and GlcNAcTs on the GalNAc linked to the Ser/Thr of the O-glycosylated protein. On the right are depicted the different antennae. Type 1 antenna consists in Galß1,3GIcNAc repeated units and type 2 antenna in Galß1,4GIcNAc repeated units, both via GlcNAc $\beta 1,3$ Gal linkage. Type 1 or 2 LacNAc unit can be in a linear arrangement or branched via GIcNAc $\beta 1,6 \mathrm{Gal}$ linkage.
1.2.2.2. Biosynthesis of mucin type O-glycans

Mucin type O-glycosylation occurs in Golgi apparatus. It starts in cis Golgi network in the first Golgi vesicles from the ER. In the cis Golgi network, the GalNAc is added. This O-glycosylation is done in a quick and sequential way. The glycosyltransferases work as those of the N -glycosylation.

### 1.2.2.2.1. Attach point synthesis

Contrary to N -glycosylation, no consensus sequence is found on the protein for O-glycosylation. From UDP-GaINAc, polypeptide-N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferases (ppGalNAcTs) transfer GalNAc to Ser or Thr residues. This simplest structure is named Thomsen-nouveau (Tn) antigen and is rarely found in normal mucins, but more common in mucins from cancer tissues. Tn antigen can be sialylated in $\alpha 2,6$ and then called sialyl Tn (sTn) antigen (Figure 1.7), the sTn antigen cannot be further glycosylated (Brockhausen and Stanley 2015).


Figure 1.7 Mucin type O-glycans biosynthesis. From the GalNAc linked to the protein, several enzymes give rise to the core 1 to 4 of mucin type O-glycan or to the Tn antigen which can be sialylated. The core 1 disaccharide structure is called T antigen and, as Tn antigen, can be sialylated.

### 1.2.2.2.2. Cores synthesis

The core 1 is synthesised by the action of the core $1 \beta 1,3$ galactosyltransferase (C1GalT), adding a Gal residue on the first GalNAc in $\beta 1,3$. This enzyme activity requires a chaperone protein, the core 1,3-Gal-T-specific molecular chaperone commonly called Cosmc (Ju and Cummings 2002). The resulting structure is called Thomsen-Friedenreich antigen or $T$ antigen and can be sialylated in $\alpha 2,3$ on the Gal residue giving the sialyl T (sT) antigen. The sT antigen can only be sialylated in $\alpha 2,6$ on GalNAc residue and no further glycosylation is possible. The core 2 is obtained after the action of core $2 \beta 1,6 \mathrm{~N}$-acetylglucosaminyltransferase (C2GnT) on the GaINAc residue of core 1 structure. So far, three C2GnT has been identified, the C2GnT-1 and -3 are only involved in core 2 synthesis while C2GnT-2 is also involved in core 4 synthesis. Core 3 synthesis is supported by the action of core 3 $\beta 1,3-\mathrm{N}$-acetylglucosaminyltransferase (C3GnT) on the attach point GalNAc, adding a GIcNAc residue in $\beta 1,3$, and, as mentioned above, C2GnT-2 action on core 3 structure results in core 4 synthesis, adding another GlcNAc on the attach point GalNAc, this time, in $\beta 1,6$ linkage type (Figure 1.7).

### 1.2.2.2.3. Branching

As mentioned above, the mucin type O-glycan cores can be further elongated with two types of antenna which can be in a linear or branched arrangement. Four types of glycosyltransferases originate the antennae synthesis on mucin type O-glycans, two GlcNAcTs and two GalTs. $\beta 1,3$ or $\beta 1,6$ GIcNAc condition the branching type, only $\beta 1,3$ linkage gives linear antennae. The antenna type 1 or 2 is determined by the action of $\beta 1,3$ or $\beta 1,4 \mathrm{Ga}$ ITs. As described in section 1.2.1.2.3.1, Gal $\beta 1,3$ GIcNAc and Galß1,4GIcNAc are, respectively, called type 1 and type 2 LacNAc sequence, and

Chapter 1 - Introduction

LacdiNAc (GalNAcß1,4GIcNAc) sequence can also be found. As for N-glycans, polyLacNAc with type 2 LacNAc is the most common extension found (Stanley and Cummings 2015).

### 1.2.2.2.4. Peripheral sugars

Sialylation and fucosylation represent the most common terminal step of mucin type O-glycosylation. Moreover, carbohydrate sulphation brings supplementary negative charges to mucins, usually on the Gal in C-3 position or on GlcNAc in C-6 position. The ABO blood group antigens and the Lewis antigens with their related sialylated forms described in Figure 1.5 are found in terminal structures, their synthesis involves the same glycosyltransferases as in N-glycans synthesis. Unlike N-glycan, there is generally no $\alpha 2,6$ sialylation on terminal Gal, mostly, sialylation occurs in $\alpha 2,6$ on GalNAc and in $\alpha 2,3$ on Gal (Stanley and Cummings 2015).

### 1.3. Protein glycosylation alteration in colorectal cancer

Glycosylation alterations are found in all types of cancer, here, we will focus on the observed changes in CRC. Increased novel or truncated glycan structures, highly branched N-glycan, polyLacNAc, as well as enhanced sialylation and fucosylation are found in CRC. Underexpressed structures include core 3 and 4 structures on mucin type O -glycans and bisecting GlcNAc on N -glycan.

### 1.3.1. N-glycans

Different studies show alterations of N -glycan structures on CRC patient tissues and serum glycoproteins, and CRC cell lines. Mannosidic type N-glycan structures increase in CRC. Indeed, quantitative mass spectrometry N -glycome profiling comparing CRC tissues to adjacent normal tissues highlights an increase in high-mannose type N -glycan structure ( $\mathrm{GlcNAc}_{2} \mathrm{Man}_{7}$ and $\mathrm{GlcNAc}_{2} \mathrm{Man}_{8}$ ) in 43 CRC patients (D. Zhang et al. 2019). Similar observations have been made in another study with five CRC patients (Sethi et al. 2015), which also shows an enhancement in paucimannose structures, i.e. GlcNAc $_{2}$ Man $_{1-4}$. Likewise, 25 CRC cell lines $N$-glycome profile reveals abundant high-mannose structure, although the extent is more important when compared to tissues, probably due to enrichment of precursor structures during $N$-glycan extraction from cell lines (Holst et al. 2016). Comparison of rectal carcinoma versus adenoma indicates the enhancement of paucimannose structure with or without core-fucosylation in carcinomas (Kaprio et al. 2015) and also in CRC tissues compared to adjacent normal tissues (Balog et al. 2012).

Actually, core-fucosylated paucimannose structures are overexpressed at high CRC stage compared to first stage (Kaprio et al. 2015). The expression of FucT-VIII responsible for N-glycan core-fucosylation is found increased in CRC and correlates with decrease overall and disease free survival (Muinelo-

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Romay et al. 2011). Moreover, in vitro drug resistance study shows an increase of core-fucosylated structures and an overexpression of FUT8 mRNA level in SW620 cell line (L. Shen et al. 2018).

Lower expression of bisecting GIcNAc and increase $\beta 1,6$-GlcNAc branched N -glycans are well described in CRC. The relationship between the two structures is often presented in studies due to the antagonist activity of the enzymes giving these glycan structures, GlcNAcT-III for bisecting GIcNAc and GIcNAcT-V for $\beta 1,6-\mathrm{GIcNAc}$ branching. Indeed, GlcNAcT-V cannot act on N -glycan structures containing bisecting GlcNAc. GlcNAcT-III inhibits the formation of branched N-glycan structure (Sasai et al. 2002). Thus, bisecting N-glycan structures decreases in CRC tissues (D. Zhang et al. 2019; Balog et al. 2012) while $\beta 1,6-G l c N A c$ branched N-glycan increases (Hägerbäumer et al. 2015) as well as GlcNAcT-V enzyme (Murata et al. 2000). Enhancement of multi-antennae (tri/tetra) N-glycan structure has also been observed on serum proteins from CRC patients (de Vroome et al. 2018; Doherty et al. 2018). In vivo, xenograft experiments using CRC cell lines with overexpressed or silenced GlcNAcT-V shows positive regulation of tumour progression associated with high GlcNAcT-V expression and reduced tumorigenicity and proliferation with low GlcNAcT-V expression. A well-studied target of GIcNAcT-V is the tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-1 (TIMP-1). Kim et al. (2012) propose an original model in which increased TIMP-1 expression in early development of tumour has proliferative effect and enhances tumour growth, while, in late stage of tumour progression, aberrant glycosylation of TIMP-1 triggered by GlcNAcT-V overexpression prevents its inhibitory action on matrix-metalloproteinases (MMPs) allowing tumour progression. Inhibition of GlcNAcT-V activity and enhancement of GIcNAcT-III bisecting N -glycan product has been highlighted by the use of anti-inflammatory drug, mesalamine (5-ASA), in HT29 cell line (Khare et al. 2014). The consequence of this glycosylation modulation by 5-ASA is the maintenance of E-cadherin at the membrane which might prevents EMT in CRC progression. Surprisingly, the identification of a unique bisecting N -glycan structure in a metastatic CRC cell line, together with higher GlcNAcT-III mRNA and bisecting GIcNAc stained by PHA-E lectin levels (Sethi et al. 2014), is contradictory with published reports. For example, recent publication shows the decrease of bisecting N-glycan structures with higher stage in CRC tissues (D. Zhang et al. 2019).

As consequence of the increase of complex $N$-glycans with $\beta 1,6$-GIcNAc branching, enhancement of (poly)LacNAc structure occurs. Synthesis of (poly)LacNAc requires $\beta 1,3-G I c N A c T s$ and $\beta 1,3 / 4-G a l T s$. The $\beta 1,3-\mathrm{GlcNAcT}-\mathrm{VIII}$ shows increased expression in CRC tissues and cell lines (Z. Jiang et al. 2018; Ni et al. 2014). This enzyme initiates the synthesis of polyLacNAc chains on $\beta 1,6-\mathrm{GlcNAc}$ branched N-glycans (H. Ishida et al. 2005). $\beta 1,3-\mathrm{GlcNAcT}$-VIII expression has been linked to chemotherapeutic drug resistance in CRC cell line. Indeed, 5-FU treatment diminishes the expression of this enzyme in SW620 cell line sensitive to the drug, whereas resistant cell line presents the increase of polyLacNAc

Chapter 1 - Introduction
structure accompanied with higher expression of $\beta 1,3$ GIcNAcT-VIII (L. Shen et al. 2014; Gao et al. 2014). These features have also been observed in resistance to another chemotherapeutic drug, oxaliplatin (L. Shen et al. 2018). In this study, the resistant SW620 cell line not only presents the increase of $\beta 1,3-\mathrm{GlcNAcT}-\mathrm{VIII}$ and polyLacNAc structure but also the decrease of GIcNAcT-III and bisecting GIcNAc with the increase of GIcNAcT-V and $\beta 1,6$ branched structures. Others enzymes involved in polyLacNAc biosynthesis, $\beta 1,3-$ GaIT-IV and $\beta 1,4$-GaIT-IV, are overexpressed which correlates with poor prognosis in CRC patients (T. Zhang et al. 2018; W.-S. Chen et al. 2005). These enzymes also provide the substrates for Lewis type antigens synthesis, $\beta 1,3$-GalT for (sialyl) Le ${ }^{A / B}$ and $\beta 1,4$-GalT for (sialyl) Le ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{Y}}$ which will be discussed in a separate section (1.3.5).

Increased terminal sialylation of N -glycans in tissues and serum are observed in CRC patients (de Vroome et al. 2018; Sethi et al. 2015; Gessner et al. 1993). Mediated by $\beta$-galactoside $\alpha 2,6$-sialyltransferase I (ST6GaIT-I), radiation of CRC cells presents an increased expression of the enzyme. Consecutive overexpressed ST6GalT-I induces $\beta 1$ integrin sialylation leading to adhesion and migration of CRC cells (M. Lee et al. 2010). Increased sialylation will be further discussed in separate section (1.3.3).

To resume, the major alterations on N -glycans in CRC are: (i) increased pauci/high-mannosidic type structures (Figure 1.8A), (ii) enhanced core-fucosylation (Figure 1.8A and B), (iii) decrease bisecting GlcNAc (Figure 1.8C) and (iv) augmentation of $\beta 1,6-\mathrm{GlcNAc}$ branching (Figure 1.8B) (v) with higher (poly)LacNAc structures (Figure 1.8B), (vi) and elevated terminal $\alpha 2,6$ sialic acid (Figure 1.8D).


Figure 1.8 Major N-glycans alterations in colorectal cancer. A - D. Red circles emphasises altered glycans structures. A. Pauci/high-mannosidic type structures and core-fucosylation are increased. B. $\beta 1,6-\mathrm{GlcNAc}$ branching, (poly)LacNAc structures and core-fucosylation are enhanced. C. Decrease of bisecting GlcNAc. D. Elevated terminal $\alpha 2,6$ sialic acid. $\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{N}$-glycan.

### 1.3.2. Mucin type O-glycans

The colonic mucus contains high level of heavily O-glycosylated mucin proteins. Observed alterations in mucin type O-glycosylation are downregulation of core 3 and 4 structures, increase of $\mathrm{Tn}, \mathrm{T}$ antigens and their related sialylated forms, and, as in N-glycans, increase of sialyl Lewis antigen structures.

The glycosyltransferases which initiate the mucin type O-glycosylation by transferring a GalNAc on Ser/Thr belong to the ppGalNAcT family and count 20 enzymes. ppGaINAc-T1 and -T2 are more expressed in CRC tissues and cell lines than in adjacent normal tissue and normal colon cell lines (Kohsaki et al. 2000; Shan et al. 2018). A recent study shows, in vitro and in vivo, that long non-coding RNA (LncRNA) SHNG7 high expression, found in CRC tissues and cell lines, promotes proliferation and metastasis, and correlates with ppGalNAc-T1 expression. The authors propose that LncRNA SNHG7 influences the availability of microRNA (miRNA) miR-216b which target ppGalNAc-T1 gene (Shan et al. 2018). Several studies show increased expression of ppGalNAc-T3 in CRC tissues and cell lines, however, the impact on CRC malignant behaviour is controversial. Indeed, ppGalNAc-T3 and ZEB2, transcriptional repressor playing a role in EMT induction, have negatively correlated expression. Thus, in tissue high expression of ppGalNAc-T3 and low expression of ZEB2 suggest less extent of EMT, disadvantaging metastasis (Balcik-Ercin et al. 2018). Furthermore, Shibao et al. (2002) associate strong

Chapter 1 - Introduction
ppGalNAc-T3 expression in CRC with better outcome for patients ( $n=106$ ). On the opposite, similarly to Shan et al. study on ppGalNAc-T1 gene expression, ppGalNAc-T3 expression is linked to LncRNA linc01296 expression. LncRNA linc01296 targets miRNA miR-26a which is associated with poor overall survival and prognosis, and metastasis (B. Liu et al. 2018). A study of negative prognostic factor BRAF mutation V600E in vitro demonstrates the increased expression of macrophage galactose lectin (MGL) ligand (i.e. sTn) via ppGalNAc-T3 (Sahasrabudhe et al. 2018). Thus, observed different outcomes in high ppGalNAc-T3 expression may be explained by the different pathways leading to this expression pattern.
ppGalNAc-T4 is a direct target of miRNA miR-4262, which has a decreased expression in CRC tissues and cell lines. In vitro experiments show unfavourable role of miR-4262 in apoptosis, proliferation, viability and colony formation and in vivo in tumour growth (Weng et al. 2018; Qu, Qu, and Zhou 2017). ppGalNAc-T4 is upregulated in CRC in a stage dependent manner, leading to establishment of a model where high expression of ppGalNAc-T4 in early stages contributes to tumorigenesis and decreased expression in later stages facilitates tumour migration and invasion (Yan et al. 2018). ppGalNAc-T5 knock-down (KD) reduces cell migration ability in vitro and is the target of miRNA miR-196b-5p whose expression is associated with better 5-years overall survival (Stiegelbauer et al. 2017). In patients, high ppGalNAc-T6 expression correlates with higher overall survival (Duan et al. 2018; Ubillos et al. 2018) and decreased expression is associated with poor prognosis in a subtype of CRC with MMR deficiency (Noda et al. 2018). Thus, ppGalNAc-T6 expression seems to be an interesting prognostic factor since its expression is observed in CRC patients tissues and not in adjacent normal colon tissues (Lavrsen et al. 2018; Ubillos et al. 2018).

As mentioned above, SNHG7/miR-216b/ppGalNAc-T1 axis is proposed as a therapeutic target for its role in proliferation and metastasis. A different study provides evidence that LncRNA SNHG7 targets another miRNA, miR-34a, leading to the increased expression of ppGalNAc-T7 (Y. Li et al. 2018). This other axis seems to have similar influence on proliferation and metastasis in vitro and in vivo. ppGalNAc-T12 expression has been shown lower in CRC cell lines and tissues compared to normal colon, and this low expression profile influences metastases development (J.-M. Guo et al. 2004). Moreover, mutation with deleterious effect on enzyme activity is associated with higher risk of CRC susceptibility in several studies (Evans et al. 2018; Clarke et al. 2012; Guda et al. 2009).

Following ppGalNAcTs activities, different enzymes give rise to O-glycan core structures. The activity of C3GnT is reduced in tissues from CRC patients (Yang et al. 1994). Further studies observe an undetectable expression of the enzyme in tumour tissues and in vivo models attributing a preventive role in tumorigenesis, migration and lung metastases formation (An et al. 2007; Iwai et al. 2005). Core 3

Chapter 1 - Introduction
is the substrate of core 4 structure, synthesised by C2GnT-2, which can also give core 2 structure. This enzyme is proposed for prognostic biomarker in patients due to its observed downregulation in tumour (González-Vallinas et al. 2015; Huang et al. 2006). A role in chemoresistance, in vitro and in vivo cell growth and invasion is also attributed to C2GnT-2 expression (Fernández et al. 2018; Huang et al. 2006).

When Core 1 synthase or T synthase (C1GaIT) is silenced, increased expression of core 3 structure, Tn and sTn antigen are observed showing a competition between C1GaIT, and C3Gnt, and $\alpha$-N-acetylgalactosaminide $\alpha 2,6$-sialyltransferase I (ST6GalNAcT-I) (Barrow et al. 2013). C1GaIT, its product $T$ antigen, and its chaperone Cosmc are overexpressed in CRC cancer tissues and associated with lower survival rate in patients (X. Sun, Ju, and Cummings 2018; Hung et al. 2014). Although, Cosmc knock-out (KO) in two CRC cell lines results in Tn expression, leading to highest invasive, migration, and metastasis by EMT activation via H-Ras, in concordance with Cosmc/H-Ras expression level in TCGA cohort ( $\mathrm{n}=438$ ) (Z. Liu et al. 2019). Similarly, C1GALT1 KO induces Tn expression in HCT116 colon cancer cell line, resulting in increased proliferation, adhesion, migration and invasion abilities and activation of EMT pathway (Dong et al. 2018). Tn antigen staining is positive in $86.6 \%$ of CRC patients tissues ( $\mathrm{n}=186$ ), while absent in adjacent normal tissues. Tn antigen expressing tissues present C1GalT and Cosmc expression defects (Yuliang Jiang et al. 2018). Thus, T and Tn antigen expression are closely related and, both increase malignant phenotype and poor overall survival. Their sialylated forms, sT and $s T n$, have similar features and will be described section below.

### 1.3.3. Sialylation

Increased sialylation is typically observed in CRC and associated with malignancy and poor prognosis. This hypersialylation is observed on N - and O -glycans with higher $\alpha 2,6$ and $\alpha 2,3$ terminal sialic acids and enhancement of tumour $s T$, $s T n$ and $s L e^{x / A}$ antigens. Different mechanisms can lead to the observed hypersialylation, such as dysregulation of SiaT and/or neuraminidases.

Four neuraminidases NEU1 to 4, also called sialidases, are identified and differ by their subcellular location and targets. NEU2 is very low expressed in healthy colon tissues and CRC cell lines (Forcella et al. 2018; Koseki et al. 2012). NEU1 and NEU4 are downregulated in CRC, and in vitro experiments show increased migration and invasion properties of KD CRC cells for both genes (Uemura et al. 2009; Yamanami et al. 2007; Forcella et al. 2018; Miyagi et al. 2008). Moreover, in vivo assays show marked decrease of liver metastasis upon NEU1 overexpression (Uemura et al. 2009). NEU4 silencing reduces apoptosis and downregulates sLe antigen expression abrogating E-selectin interaction (Yamanami et al. 2007; Shiozaki et al. 2011). On the opposite, NEU3 is highly expressed in CRC and possesses suppressive effects on cell apoptosis (Forcella et al. 2018; Wada et al. 2007; Kakugawa et al. 2002). Its

Chapter 1 - Introduction
overexpression in vitro facilitates cell invasion via integrin-mediated signalling through extracellular matrix interaction (Kato et al. 2006).

As mentioned above, sTn and sT are highly expressed in CRC, while these antigens are not found on normal colorectal mucosa. The sialylation of Tn antigen is mediated by ST6GalNAcT-I and sTn expression is associated with aggressiveness and poor prognosis (X. Sun, Ju, and Cummings 2018; Munkley 2016). Indeed, sTn presents strong expression on tumour, especially tumour with recurrence, accompanied by an increase of ST6GALNAC1 mRNA level, which correlates with lower overall survival for stage III and IV ST6GALNAC1 positive patients (Mihalache et al. 2015; Ogawa et al. 2017). The expression of ST6GALNAC1 has been proposed as a candidate for colorectal cancer stem cells and cancer initiating cells (CR-CSCs/CICs) specific genes, silencing reveals a less extent of CR-CSCs/CICs in vitro and in vivo and overexpression enhances this characteristic phenotype of CR-CSCs/CICs in vitro (Ogawa et al. 2017). Several studies evaluate the potential of sTn as a therapeutic target, thus different mAb has been developed to target the disaccharide (Loureiro et al. 2018) and mAb conjugated with drug shows promising inhibiting effect on tumour growth in xenograft model using CRC cell line (Prendergast et al. 2017). Remarkably, the antigen can also be detected on circulating tumour cells (CTCs) even at early stage regardless with metastasis (Neves et al. 2019). T antigen can be mono or di-sialylated, on the Gal residue by $\beta$-galactoside $\alpha 2,3$-sialyltransferase I (ST3GaIT-I) and on the GaINAc residue by ST6GalNAcT-II (Marcos et al. 2004), sT and di-sT antigens are more expressed on tumours and this correlates with recurrence potential (Mihalache et al. 2015). Thus, ST3GAL1 and ST6GALNAC2 mRNAs were highly expressed in CRC tumour tissues compared to normal tissues (Petretti et al. 2000; Schneider et al. 2001).

As mentioned in section 1.3.1, ST6GaIT-I is highly expressed in CRC tumours which results in an increase $\alpha 2,6$ terminal sialylation of N -glycans. Recent studies attribute to the differential expression of the enzyme a correlation with stem cell profile, tumorigenesis and chemotherapy resistance (Cui et al. 2018; S. Zhang et al. 2017; Swindall et al. 2013). Moreover, downregulation of ST6Gal-I in HT29 cell line by antisense DNA transfection reduces the cells aggressiveness and invasiveness capacities (Zhu et al. 2001). A link between $\alpha 2,3$ sialylation of type 2 chain, precursor of sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen, and metastasis has been established and five-year survival rate decreases in patients presenting positive staining of this type of structure using lectin (Fukasawa et al. 2013). The sLe antigen expression in CRC will be further discussed in a separate section (1.3.5). In sum, increase of sialylation affect CRC aggressiveness and is related to poor prognosis for patients.

## Chapter 1 - Introduction

### 1.3.4. Fucosylation

Core fucosylation of N -glycans which is mediated by FUT8 was discussed in section 1.3.1. The expression of others FucTs are altered in CRC. Increased fucosylation is reported in CRC tumour tissues and serum proteins (D. Zhang et al. 2019; Takahashi et al. 2016). Inhibition of fucosylation of TGF- $\beta$ reduces the invasion and migration abilities of CRC cells and EMT (Hirakawa et al. 2014). Overexpression of fucosylation in CRC patients with metastasis improves immune evasion and reduces response to cetuximab or bevacizumab drug therapy, leading to reduce overall survival (Giordano et al. 2015). FucTs involved in Lewis type antigens biosynthesis will be discussed in the section 1.3.5.

### 1.3.5. Lewis antigens

Lewis blood group antigens (Figure 1.5) are carried in terminal position of N -/O-glycans and glycolipids. $L e^{A}, L e^{B}$ and $s L e^{A}$ are synthesised from type 1 LacNAc structure while $\mathrm{Le}^{\mathrm{X}}, \mathrm{Le}^{\mathrm{Y}}$ and $\mathrm{sLe}^{\mathrm{X}}$ from type 2 LacNAc structure. Several SiaTs and FucTs are involved in the synthesis of these antigens. In CRC, the increase of these antigens is observed and related to tumour progression, drug resistance, metastasis, and poor overall survival.

Type 1 or 2 LacNAc structure are obtained by the activity of $\beta 1,3$ - or $\beta 1,4$-GalT activity, respectively. Thus, $\beta 1,3-$ GalT-V activity correlates with type 1 chain-derived Lewis antigens expression in CRC cell lines (Isshiki et al. 1999). Surprisingly, its transcript and protein levels, as well as enzymatic activity, are downregulated in CRC tissues (Aronica et al. 2017; Mare et al. 2013; Salvini et al. 2001), whereas the enzyme is expressed and correlates with sLe ${ }^{A}$ expression in CRC cell lines (Mare and Trinchera 2004). In CRC tissues, Isshiki et al. (2003) observe that even if the level of $\beta 1,3$-GalT-V protein is lower in CRC tissues compared to normal, the sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen is expressed. Therefore, they hypothesise that the enzyme expression level, even if downregulated in CRC tissues, remains sufficient for sLe ${ }^{A}$ synthesis and other glycosyltransferases determine the antigen expression. Indeed, for example, FucT-III is a key enzyme for type 1 chain-derived Lewis antigens expression supporting a1,4FucT activity. Together, high expression of immune checkpoint Cluster of Differentiation (CD) 276, also known as B7-H3, and $\beta 1,3 \mathrm{GaIT}-\mathrm{IV}$ is associated with poor overall survival in CRC patients and their expressions positively correlate in CRC cell lines (Zhang et al. 2018). Among GalTs responsible for type 2 chain structure synthesis, the increased expression of $\beta 1,4 \mathrm{GaIT}-\mathrm{I}$ is highlighted in CRC, with an increase of LacNAc structures (Ichikawa et al. 1999). Chen et al. (2005) show that $\beta 1,4$ GalT-IV expression exhibits a strong correlation with tumour metastasis and poor overall survival. No relationship between sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen level and $\beta 1,4$ GaIT-IV expression is found, but the study does not include other type 2 chain-derived Lewis antigens expression evaluation. On the contrary, low expression of $\beta 1,4 \mathrm{GaIT}$-III in CRC tissues is associated with the severity of the cancer, defined by poorly differentiated tumour grade, high tumour

Chapter 1 - Introduction
stages and metastasis (Chen et al. 2014). In the same study, the authors also evaluate the impact of the $\beta 1,4 \mathrm{GaIT}$-III overexpression or KD in different CRC cell lines, resulting in cell migration and invasion suppression or increase, respectively.

Le ${ }^{B}$ and Le ${ }^{\gamma}$ antigens enhancement is due to the increased expression of $\alpha 1,2$ FucTs (FUT1, FUT2) in CRC tissues and cell lines (Yazawa et al. 2002; Nishihara et al. 1999; J. Sun et al. 1995). In vitro, overexpression of FUT1 provides 5-FU drug resistance to CRC cells (Yazawa et al. 2002). The expressions of FUT1 and Le ${ }^{\curlyvee}$ antigen correlate positively with adhesion, migration and angiogenesis (Sauer, Meissner, and Moehler 2015; Moehler et al. 2008). Moreover, T cells genetically engineered to target Le ${ }^{\gamma}$ antigen shows promising anti-tumour cells effect (Westwood et al. 2009). Le ${ }^{\gamma}$ antigen presents a stronger expression in stage IV tumour (Baldus et al. 2006). Nonaka et al. (2014) show that the mannan-binding protein (MBP) lectin, which recognise Le ${ }^{A}$ and Le ${ }^{B}$ antigens, stains CRC tissues and not normal mucosa, Le ${ }^{B}$ antigen is the main recognised glycan by MBP and inverse correlation is observed between MBP and sLe ${ }^{A}$ staining. MBP ligand expression depends on differentiation degree, diminishing with lower differentiation, and associates with immune cells infiltration. Thus, MBP ligand expression results in better survival for patients (Nonaka et al. 2014).

High expression of Le ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens and their sialylated forms is found in cancer. A recent study on CRC stage II patients shows a greater disease-free survival and cancer specific survival in patients presenting low sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ expression than patients with high sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ expression on tumour. Thus, sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ expression correlates with poorer prognosis and higher recurrence, with liver recurrence being the most frequent one (Yamadera et al. 2018). High sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens expression is associated with metastasis and aggressiveness, translated by depth of invasion, grade and serum CEA level (Fukasawa et al. 2013; Yamadera et al. 2018). Among the FucT responsible for the Lewis antigens synthesis, FucT-III is the only characterised enzyme which possesses an $\alpha 1,4$ FucT activity. Therefore, FucT-III can synthesise Le ${ }^{A / B}$ and $s L e^{A}$, but this enzyme is also involved in Le ${ }^{X / Y}$ and $s L e^{X}$ expression. FucT-IV and FucT-IX are mainly responsible for non-sialylated Le ${ }^{x}$ antigen expression. In CRC, higher level of FUT4 mRNA is found in tumour tissues compared to normal tissues (lto et al. 1997). In a murine CRC cell line, Blanas et al. (2019) show that FUT4 or FUT9 transcription activation using CRISPR-dCas9-VPR system (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats-dead CRISPR-associated protein 9-VP64-p65-Rta) results in specific expression of Le ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen. FucT-III, V, VI and VII can produced sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen, although FucT-VI and VII are more specific for its synthesis (Mondal et al. 2018). The expression of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ requires $\alpha 2,3$ sialylation prior fucosylation, ST3GaIT-III transfers sialic acid on type 1 and 2 chains allowing to obtain sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$, also ST3GaIT-IV and VI act on type 2 chains (Dall'Olio et al. 2014). Thus, flow cytometry staining of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigen in CRC cell lines correlates with mRNA expression of previously cited SiaTs and FucTs, together with an increase adherence to E-selectin (Carvalho et al. 2010; Majuri et al. 1995).

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Indeed, sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ are the minimal binding determinant for selectins family, involved in metastasis formation and discussed in separate section (1.4.1).

A recent study demonstrates the positive correlation of the LncRNA ST3GAL6-anti sense RNA 1 and ST3GaIT-VI expression, which are downregulated in CRC tissues. Overexpression of this LncRNA reduces proliferation, tumorigenesis and metastasis in vitro and in vivo (Hu et al. 2019). Another mechanism leading to the strong expression of $s L e^{X / A}$ antigens in CRC is the downregulation of di-sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen and 6-sulfo-sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ structures. Indeed, early observations present the exclusive expression of sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen in tumour tissues and not in normal tissue, while Le ${ }^{A}$ and di-sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigens are found in both (Itzkowitz et al. 1988). ST6GalNAcT-VI overexpression demonstrates its involvement in di-sLe ${ }^{A}$ biosynthesis in CRC cell lines and leads to lower expression of sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen together with the decrease of E-selectin adhesion and the increase binding to sialic acid-binding immunoglobulin-like lectin (Siglec) 7. In CRC tissues, ST6GALNAC6 mRNA decreases compared to normal adjacent tissues, di-sLe ${ }^{A}$ staining occurs in non-malignant tissues while sLe ${ }^{A}$ staining is present in tumour tissues, and infiltration of siglec-7 expressing leucocytes decreases in CRC tissues (Tsuchida et al. 2003; Miyazaki et al. 2004).

Among FucTs, FucT-III and FucT-VI expression are involved in proliferation and tumour growth in vitro (Hiller et al. 2000). Interestingly, Stern et al. and Zhang et al. studies show that CRC cell lines sensitive to TRAIL-mediated apoptosis via death receptor-5 (DR5) express high FUT3/6 mRNA and are sensitive to agonist drugs, dulanermin (rhApo2L/TRAIL) and drozitumab (DR5-agonist antibody). Thereby, the authors propose to assess FUT3/6 expression as predictive biomarker for targeted therapy efficiency in clinical trials for these two drugs (Stern et al. 2010; B. Zhang et al. 2019). In vitro, different growth factor treatments-mediated EMT correlates with FucTs and SiaTs involved in sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigen expression (Sakuma, Aoki, and Kannagi 2012; Hirakawa et al. 2014). Thus, epithelial growth factor (EGF)/basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) treatment induced ST3GAL1/3/4 and FUT3/6 increased expression and FUT2 reduced expression, together with high sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ and selectin ligand expression in two CRC cell lines. Furthermore, FUT3/6 silencing reduces TGF- $\beta$-mediated EMT and inhibits migration and invasion.

To conclude, Lewis antigens expression in CRC are involved in different cancer progression mechanisms through, for example, newly available ligands. Specifically, selectin ligand expression takes important part in metastasis formation which will be the subject of the section below.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

### 1.4. Role of Lewis antigens in colorectal cancer

### 1.4.1. Metastasis

Being the leading cause of cancer related mortality, metastases are observed in approximatively 20\% of patients with CRC at first diagnostic (Siegel et al. 2017; van der Geest et al. 2015). The organs mostly affected by metastases from CRC are liver and lungs (Qiu et al. 2015).

In order to colonise a secondary site, tumour cells follow different steps of the so-called metastasis cascade (Figure 1.9). First, tumour cells follow EMT program and suffer downregulated expression of adhesion molecules involved in cell and matrix interactions leading to motile tumour cells (Yeung and Yang 2017). Then, degradation of extracellular environment is supported by enhanced proteolysis through principally matrix metalloproteinases. Subsequently, tumour cells intravasate, i.e., enter in the lumen of lymphatic or blood vessels and initiate its circulation, being then termed CTCs. The invasion of distant organs or lymph nodes is possible only if the CTCs succeed to interact and bind to the endothelium of the vessels.


Figure 1.9 The Metastasis Cascade. Figure from "Robbins and Cotran pathologic basis of disease" (Kumar, Robbins, and Cotran 2005).

It is thought that CTCs reach distant organs by using the same mechanism as circulating leukocytes apply to extravasate from bloodstream into an inflammation site which, firstly, consists in rolling on activated endothelium through selectin-ligand interaction. This interaction is crucial since it allows cells to slow down in the stream and to receive proper stimuli, as those leading to integrin activation. The tethering and rolling steps are followed by firm adhesion via integrins allowing transendothelial
migration and, in fine, development of a secondary tumour, as depicted in Figure 1.10 (Baldawa et al. 2017; Valastyan and Weinberg 2011).


Figure 1.10 Schematic leukocyte migration. Adapted from Jacobs and Sackstein (2011). To reach inflammation site, circulating leukocytes undergo transendothelial migration. The process requires the leukocytes deceleration and rolling on endothelial surface, this step is mediated by the interaction between endothelium E-selectin and leukocytes selectin ligands. Leukocytes are then able to sense the locally expressed chemokines, resulting in integrin activation which conducts in firm adhesion to the endothelium and in fine transendothelial migration.

CTCs can interact with the different selectin family members by expressing sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens, as shown in Figure 1.11. The selectin family is composed of three transmembrane proteins called L-, E- and P-selectin. Selectins are C-type lectins expressed by leukocytes (L-selectin), platelets (P-selectin) and endothelium ( $\mathrm{E}-$ and P -selectin). The E-selectin minimal binding tetrasaccharide is $s L e^{\mathrm{X}}$ and its isomer $s L e^{A}$. The importance of $E$-selectin interaction in CRC metastasis formation is shown in several studies. In fact, blocking E-selectin interaction by tumour cells prevents metastasis in CRC (Köhler et al. 2010; Kobayashi et al. 2000). In vitro studies show a link between metastatic potential of CRC cell lines and increased sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens expression. Thus, highly metastatic cell


Figure 1.11 Possible interaction between CTC and selectins. Adapted from Jacobs and Sackstein (2011). Circulating tumour cells express selectin ligands allowing the interaction with the different selectins, with E - and P -selectin on activated endothelium, with L-selectin on leukocytes and with P-selectin on platelets.

Chapter 1 - Introduction
lines variants express higher sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens than parental cell lines, associated with an increase of FucTs activity, rather than SiaTs (Yamada et al. 1997; Weston et al. 1999). The high sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens expression leads to increase the adhesion capacities to E-selectin and endothelial cells. In section 1.3.5, FucT-III/VI were mentioned for their role in EMT upon growth factor treatment. Targeting E-selectin ligands in combination to epithelial cell adhesion molecule (EpCAM) allow to prevent adhesion and thereby metastasis in vitro (Xie et al. 2015). The protein scaffold that carries sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigen also modulates E-selectin binding (Sperandio, Gleissner, and Ley 2009). In CRC cancer, several E-selectin ligands have been identified so far such as hematopoietic cell E/L-selectin (HCELL) glycoform of CD44 (Burdick et al. 2006), CEA (Thomas et al. 2008), podocalyxin-like protein (PCLP), LAMP-1 (lysosomal associated membrane glycoprotein-1) and LAMP-2 (Tomlinson et al. 2000).

During metastasis, CTCs can interact with polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) in the blood stream. This interaction CTCs-PMNs can affect the CTCs ability to metastasise. Some studies propose an anti-tumour role of the interaction CTCs-PMNs (reviewed in Di Carlo et al. 2001). However, other studies demonstrate that PMNs may promote CTCs potency to metastasise by supporting CTCs transendothelial migration in vitro (Wu et al. 2001; Starkey et al. 1984) and attachment to vasculature in vivo (Borsig et al. 2002; Ishikawa et al. 1986; Orr and Mokashi 1985). In patients with metastatic cancer from colon, breast, and pancreas, activated PMNs are found in the vascular system (Schmielau and Finn 2001). Some investigations show that PMNs interact with CRC cells via CD18 ( $\beta 2$ ) integrin receptor (Miyata et al. 1999) and via L-selectin when integrin is inactivated (Mannori et al. 1995). Nevertheless, in shear conditions, PMNs interaction with CRC cells seems to require L-selectin expression on PMNs and expression of a sialofucosylated O-glycoprotein ligand on cancer cells (Jadhav and Konstantopoulos 2002; Jadhav, Bochner, and Konstantopoulos 2001). Indeed, L-selectin binds to sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{A} / \mathrm{X}}$ antigens upregulated in CRC and HCELL is the major L-selectin ligand expressed on LS174T (Burdick et al. 2006; Hanley et al. 2006; 2005). Despite the controversial role of CTCs-PMNs interaction, enhancement of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{A} / \mathrm{X}}$ antigens expression is described and associated with poor prognosis in CRC, thus interaction between sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{A} / X}$ antigens overexpressing CRC cells and PMNs via L-selectin could be a potential therapeutic target to inhibit metastasis development.

Like selectin-sLe ${ }^{A / X}$ antigens interaction, other glycan-binding lectins can play essential roles in the modulation of the immune response and are further discussed below. Understanding the molecular mechanisms which govern tumour-induced immune tolerance through lectin interactions provides new insights for the development of early detection strategy and paves the way for novel therapeutic targets.

## Chapter 1 - Introduction

### 1.4.2. Immunomodulation

The cancer immunosurveillance is a process in which the immune system is able to detect and eliminate malignant cells. This concept was suggested more than one century ago by Paul Ehrlich (Ehrlich 1909) but remains controversial due to divergent experimental results, knowledges and technical limitations. Later on, tumour antigen and tumour associated antigen notions emerged, as well as immune cells infiltration within the tumour (Neville 1974; Miwa 1984). From immunosurveillance concept came the immunoediting model in which the immune system holds a dual role (Dunn et al. 2002). The elimination of malignant cells leads to the selection of tumour cells with the capability to remain hidden. Like some pathogens, these tumour cells camouflage themselves to not be spotted and eliminated. They also use the immune system for their own profit. Thus, the selective pressure of the tumour cells by the immune system brings to the survival of more aggressive tumour cells. Expression of immunomodulatory molecules allows to improve tumour evasion, for example the PD1-PDL1 interaction recently highlighted by the 2018 Nobel Prize (L. Z. Shi et al. 2016). Glycan alterations are considered as a new type of immune checkpoint molecules expressed by tumour cells to escape and modulate the immune responses. Effectively, immune cells express a large set of receptors which recognise glycan structures. These lectin-glycan interactions participate to the tumour evasion from the immune system. Sialic acid-binding immunoglobulin-like lectins (Siglecs), Dendritic Cell-Specific Intercellular adhesion molecule-3-Grabbing Non-integrin (DC-SIGN), selectins, scavenger receptors (SRs) and many other lectins interactions with their respective ligands have been studied for their evasion and immunomodulation roles (Rodríguez, Schetters, and van Kooyk 2018; R. E. Li, van Vliet, and van Kooyk 2018).

### 1.4.2.1. Scavenger Receptors

Macrophages can play dual role in tumour progression according to the phenotype $M 1 / M 2$, they may have a preventing or a promoting role. Macrophage displaying M2 phenotype can promote tumour growth. It has been shown that macrophages inhibit pro-inflammatory cytokines expression after phagocytosis of apoptotic cells (Fadok et al. 1998). Thus, phagocytosis of apoptotic cancer cells supports tumour growth by releasing specific anti-inflammatory mediators, such as TGF- $\beta 1$, interleukine-6 (IL-6) and IL-10. Moreover, several lines of evidence point an elevated expression of IL-6 and IL-10 in patients with CRC (Galizia et al. 2002; Kamińska et al. 2000). Recognition of apoptotic cells by macrophages is supported by different receptors including SRs (Ramirez-Ortiz et al. 2013; Platt et al. 1996). SRs bind sulphatides (Yoshiizumi et al. 2002) and sulphated glycosphingolipids (GSLs) are found elevated in mucosa of CRC tumour (Siddiqui, Whitehead, and Kim 1978). One glycolipids alteration occurring in CRC affects sulphatides and is associated with lymph node metastasis

## Chapter 1 - Introduction

(Morichika et al. 1996). The sulphatide SM4s, expressed on apoptotic cells, enhances the clearance of these cells by macrophages in a SRs-dependent recognition manner and increases the production of TGF- $\beta 1$ and IL-6 by macrophages (Popovic et al. 2007). Furthermore, mucins presenting sTn antigen mediate production of IL-6 by monocytes via SRs (Yokoigawa et al. 2005). Subsequently, IL-6 production by macrophages can bind to its receptor on CRC cells and induces production of the immunosuppressive cytokine IL-10 through the signal transducer and activator of transcription protein 3 (STAT3) signalling pathway (Herbeuval et al. 2004). Finally, Samsen et al. (2010) suggest that the interaction between scavenger receptor with C-type lectin (SRCL), expressed on subpopulations of human macrophages, and the Gal of the Le ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ structure, present on CEA-related cell adhesion molecule 1 (CEACAM1) and CEACAM5, modulates the immune response during CRC.

### 1.4.2.2. DC-SIGN

Several studies underline the role of DC-SIGN in the association of DCs and CRC cells in situ through cancer-related glycans. DC-SIGN, also known as CD209b, and its homologue murine receptor Specific Intercellular adhesion molecule-3-Grabbing Non-Integrin-Related 1 (SIGN-R1), are C-type lectins whose role has been investigated in CRC. Being one of the major C-type lectin expressed on immature myeloid DCs and immature monocytes derived from DCs (moDCs), DC-SIGN is found overexpressed on these immune cells in CRC. DC-SIGN binds to "self" glycan ligands expressed on human cells and plays a role of adhesion receptor mediating binding and internalisation. Specifically, it recognises glycoconjugates containing Man, Fuc, and Le ${ }^{A} / L e^{B}$ antigens, which are overexpressed on tumours (Yanmei Jiang et al. 2014; Maciejewski et al. 2013). Indeed, Nonaka et al. (2011) and van Gisbergen et al. (2005) demonstrate in vitro with human CRC cells and with CRC patient tissues that DC-SIGN expressed on immature moDCs could interact with CEA, CEACAM1 and Mac-2-binding protein (Mac-2BP), via the recognition of Lewis epitopes carried by these glycoproteins overexpressed in CRC cells. This interaction significantly inhibits moDCs functional maturation, highlighted by the decrease of CD83 and CD86 co-stimulatory molecules expression, together with the increased levels of immunosuppressive cytokines, such as IL-6 and IL-10. These studies demonstrate that tumour cells may interact with DC-SIGN to suppress DCs functions providing a tolerogenic microenvironment to initiate a powerful anti-tumour response (Saeland et al. 2012; Samsen et al. 2010; Nonaka et al. 2008). DC-SIGN has also been taken in consideration as target molecule to eradicate tumour in preclinical animal experimentation. In the study of Melero et al. (2002), a monoclonal antibody (mAb) is used to target Intercellular adhesion molecule 2 (ICAM-2), a surface antigen glycoprotein expressed on T and $B$ lymphocytes, leading to the modification of this molecule in a specific manner making it more prone to interact with DC-SIGN on human DCs. This interaction is important at the immunological synapse and provides an enhancement of the anti-tumour immunity. This study also shows that phagocyte
lectins could not only have a role recognising glycoconjugates on the surface of cancer cells but could also recognise glycoconjugates on the cell surface of other cell types present in the tumour microenvironment. Investigated in phase-I clinical trial in cancer patients, another study uses a recombinant glycoengineered vector directed against DC-SIGN in order to deliver antigen-encoding nucleic acids selectively to human DCs in vivo, leading to an enhanced CD4+ and CD8+ T-cell responses and to prophylactic protection (Odegard et al. 2015).

### 1.4.2.3. Siglecs

Siglecs are a family of immunomodulatory lectins either secreted into the extracellular environment or attached to the cells surface. They interact specifically with sialic acids on glycan structures and are expressed prominently on leukocytes.

### 1.4.2.3.1. Siglec-1

Siglec-1 (CD169, sialoadhesin) is a sialic acid receptor expressed on specific macrophages such as lymph node sinus macrophages. In a clinic pathological study, Siglec-1-expressing macrophages interact with leukosialin (CD43) expressed on CD8+ $T$ cells suggesting that these macrophages mediate an anti-tumour immunity being correlated with a better prognosis (Ohnishi et al. 2013). In another study, the increased expression of sialylation observed on the surface of the liver membrane in response to the distal tumour acts as a ligand for macrophage receptors, such as Siglec-1, whereby it could modify cell adhesion and interaction playing a role in tumour-induced liver inflammation (Lee et al. 2011).

### 1.4.2.3.2. Siglec-3

Ishida et al. (2008) demonstrate in vitro that the mucin MUC2 secreted by CRC cells interacts with Siglec-3 (CD33) expressed by DCs through $\alpha 2,6$-sialic acid-containing O-glycans, including sTn antigen. The authors show also that this interaction is partially responsible for DCs apoptosis suggesting that Siglec-3 could play a role in the reduction of DCs during CRC development being therefore an attractive target for cancer immunotherapy.

### 1.4.2.3.3. Siglec-7 and -9

Miyazaki et al. (2004) show that in normal colonic mucosa di-sLe ${ }^{A}$ possesses binding activity to both Siglec-7 and -9, and sialyl 6-sulfo Le ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ binds significantly to siglec-7. Such interactions contribute to the immunological homeostasis maintenance in normal mucosal membranes by suppressing tissue macrophage cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2) expression. During CRC, sLe ${ }^{A / X}$ antigens replace these glycan structure ligands, and without the Siglec-7 and -9 engagements, inflammatory mediators enhance through COX2 production by mucosal macrophages providing a putative mechanism for progression
of CRC (Miyazaki et al. 2012). Moreover, Siglec-9 is described to have high affinity for heavily N-glycosylated lectin galactoside-binding soluble 3 binding protein (LGALS3BP), also called Mac-2BP, overexpressed in CRC. Interaction of LGALS3BP with Siglec-9 can inhibit spontaneous production of extracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) formation by neutrophils, as well as lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced ROS production. These data suggest an immunomodulatory role of Siglec-9 on neutrophils via the inhibition of their anti-tumour activity (Läubli et al. 2014).

### 1.4.2.3.4. Siglec-10

Siglec-10 also binds LGALS3BP and is expressed on myeloid and B cells. Therefore, it could reasonably play a role in cancer progression. Based on a previous study that implicates soluble glycosylated CD52 to allow binding and inhibition of T cell activation via Siglec-10 (Bandala-Sanchez et al. 2013), Läubli et al. (2014) suggest that a similar mechanism could be involved in the context of Siglec-10/LGALS3BP Interaction.

### 1.4.2.4. Mannose Receptor

The Mannose Receptor (MR) belongs to a family of lectins which binds mannose-, N -acetylglucosamine- or fucose-terminated oligosaccharides and which is involved in the antigen uptake, processing, and presentation to T cells. Mytar et al. (2004) demonstrate that MR is involved, to different extents, in the induction of cytokines and ROI production by monocytes when stimulated with tumour cells bearing MR-glycan ligands. The MR is also the target of an in vitro tested vaccine for many cancers that exploits the tumour-associated antigen human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG). With this vaccine, MR expressed on DCs is targeted leading to the induction of Cytotoxic T Lymphocytes (CTLs) responses which are specific for this tumour-associated antigen, including proliferation of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, as well as, increased cytotoxic activity of CD8+ T cells (He et al. 2004). In the context of CRC, MR has also been involved in metastatic process. Indeed, the MR expressed by liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (LSECs) leading to endocytosis and antigen presentation could, in turn, modulates the response of the adaptive immune system (Höchst et al. 2012; Arteta et al. 2010).

Chapter 2 - Rationale and aims of the thesis

Chapter 2 - Rationale and aims of the thesis

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the third most commonly occurring cancer in men and the second in women. In terms of mortality, CRC is the second leading cause of cancer death in the world, mainly due to the late diagnosis which contributes to this disastrous record. Indeed, other intestinal disorders can present symptoms similar to CRC, making its diagnostic difficult. Moreover, once the symptoms appear, CRC is often already at an advanced stage, which is also valid for other cancer types but particularly in CRC cases. Advances in CRC screening have fuelled the reduction in mortality in the developed world, even in the face of growing incidence in many nations. However, discovery of new early-stage detection system and specific targeted treatments is crucial to reduce CRC mortality.

Typically, cancer is a disease defined by the transformation of normal cells into malignant cells. This transformation deeply changes the biology of the cancerous cells which gain increased proliferation and survival properties. Several pathways and mechanisms exist to eliminate abnormal cells, i.e., apoptosis, immune system recognition, etc. However, malignant cells have the capacity to avoid the cell death programs and escape the immunosurveillance. To acquire these capacities, cell biological processes changes occur including glycosylation alterations.

In CRC, glycosylation alterations include general increase of sialylation and fucosylation which are associated with malignant features and poor survival. Specific antigens increase is highlighted in CRC such as sialylated Lewis antigens (sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ ), truncated O-glycans T and Tn antigens and their sialylated forms. For instance, the expression of $s L e^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ is studied for its role in E-selectin binding and metastasis formation. Although sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ is the minimal tetrasaccharide recognised by E-selectin, the protein carriers are as well important to appropriately engage with E-selectin.

Glycosylation alterations studies can contribute to the development of new detection and treatment strategies. For this reason, the multidisciplinary European training and research network GlyCoCan was created, with the main objective to improve the comprehension on the structure-function relationship of glycosylation in CRC allowing to discover better diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers and to pave the way for novel therapeutic targets. The present study took place in this network with the main aims to study the sialofucosylated sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen function in tumour migration, E-selectin ligands expression and immunomodulation capabilities. The GlyCoCan network allowed to access to multiple techniques and methods in the different partners facilities permitting to achieve and complete the aims of the thesis.

To achieve the aims of the thesis, the first objective was to finely characterise glycoengineered CRC cell lines overexpressing sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$. Two CRC cell lines transfected with FUT6 were used, HT29 and SW620. Immunostaining, by flow cytometry and western-blot techniques, and fucosyltransferases gene expression measurement by RT-qPCR were the techniques used to evaluate the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens and

E-selectin ligands expression. This first task led to select SW620 cell lines overexpressing sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen. N-glycan profiles were established for this cell line by mass spectrometry (secondment Ludger, England). To study the role of sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen in cancer cell migration, cell growth and invasion were analysed for SW620 cell lines overexpressing sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ (secondment University of Bologna, Italy).

## Section 4.1

The second objective was to study the E-selectin ligand scaffolds, since the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen carrier is essential to appropriately engage E-selectin. Thus, E-selectin ligands expression was analysed by flow cytometry and immunoblotting. The isolation of the E-selectin ligands was performed by immunoprecipitation using E-selectin chimeras. With mass spectrometry analysis, protein scaffolds (secondment LUMC, The Netherlands) and glycans acting as selectin ligands (secondment LUD, Ludger, England, "Identification of the selectin ligand glycans") were identified. Section 4.2

Finally, the last objective was to determine the impact of $s L e^{x}$ overexpression on immunomodulation. The maturation markers and cytokines gene expression were assessed on human dendritic cells derived from monocytes in contact with CRC cells overexpressing sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen. Section 4.3

Chapter 3 - Materials and Methods

### 3.1. Reagents

PBS pH 7.4: $1.47 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KH}_{2} \mathrm{PO}_{4}$ (Merck), $4.29 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{Na}_{2} \mathrm{HPO}_{4}$ (Merck), 137 mM NaCl (Sigma), 2.68 mM KCl (Merck), pH adjusted to 7.4 with 400 mM NaOH (Sigma) solution, diluted in sterile Milli-Q ${ }^{\circledR} \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ to 1 L .

For Western Blot (WB), TBS pH 7.6: 15.4 mM Tris-HCl (Sigma), $137 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, \mathrm{pH}$ adjusted to 7.6 with 400 mM NaOH solution, diluted in sterile Milli-Q ${ }^{\circledR} \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ to 1L; wash buffer: TBS-0.1\% Tween 20 (Sigma); blocking buffer: wash buffer 10\% dry milk (VWR, \#97063-958).

For immunoprecipitation, wash buffer: $150 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, 2 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{CaCl} 2$ (Merck), 50 mM Tris pH 7.4 (Sigma), 1 Complete, Mini, Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA)-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tablet (Roche), 2\% NP-40 (Sigma); blocking buffer: wash Buffer, 1\% BSA (bovine serum albumin, Sigma); denaturing Buffer: wash buffer without NP-40, $0.5 \%$ SDS (Merck), 40mM DTT (Dithiothreitol, Sigma).

### 3.2. Cell culture

The human colon cancer cell lines, HT29Mock, HT29FUT6, SW620Mock and SW620FUT6, were kindly provided by Pr. Fabio Dall'Olio (UNIBO, University of Bologna, Italy) (Trinchera et al. 2011). In sterile condition, HT29 cell lines were grown in Dulbecco modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Gibco ${ }^{\text {™ }}$, \#11960044) at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $5 \% \mathrm{CO}_{2}$ and SW620 cell lines were grown in Leibovitz (L-15) medium (Lonza, \#12-700F) at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ without $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$, both culture media were supplemented with $10 \% \mathrm{FBS}$ (foetal bovine serum) (Gibco ${ }^{\text {TM }}, \# 10500064$ ), 2 mM L-glutamine (Gibco ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#25030081), 100U. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ penicillin and $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL}^{-1}$ streptomycin (Gibco ${ }^{\text {TM }}, ~ \# 15140122$ ). Cultures were passaged using 1 X trypsin-EDTA (Gibco ${ }^{\text {TM }}, \# 15400054$ ). Cell lines were certified authenticate and without contamination with human origin by the Microsynth AG company via their cell line authentication service. Briefly, the profiling of human cell line was done using highly-polymorphic short tandem repeat loci (STRs). STR loci were amplified using the PowerPlex ${ }^{\circledR} 16$ HS System (Promega). Fragment analysis was done on an ABI3730xI (Life Technologies) and the resulting data were analysed with GeneMarker HID software (Softgenetics).

Monocytes were cultured and co-cultures were realised at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $5 \% \mathrm{CO}_{2}$ in Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI)-1640 medium (Gibco ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#31870017), supplemented with $10 \%$ (v/v) FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, $1 \%\left(\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v}\right.$ ) non-essential amino acid (Gibco ${ }^{\text {™ }}$, \#11140050), 1\% sodium pyruvate (Gibco™, \#11360070), 100U. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ penicillin and $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ streptomycin.

### 3.3. Monocytes isolation and differentiation to immature monocyte derived dendritic cells

In sterile conditions, peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated by Ficoll (Biocoll, density $1.077 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}^{-1}$, isotone, Biochrom, \#L6115) gradient centrifugation, from blood buffy coats of healthy volunteers provided and ethically approved by the Portuguese Blood Institute. Monocytes
were isolated by positive selection using anti-CD14 coated magnetic microbeads (Miltenyi Biotech, \#130-050-201), LS columns (Miltenyi Biotec, \#130-042-401) and MidiMACS ${ }^{\text {M }}$ separator in PBS supplemented with 2 mM EDTA (Merck) and $1 \%(\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v})$ FBS. To obtain immature dendritic cells derived from monocytes (moDCs), monocytes were cultured at a density of $10^{6}$ cells per mL of complete RPMI medium (see cell culture) supplemented with 1000U. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ of GM-CSF (R\&D Systems, \#215-GM-050) and 750U. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ of IL-4 (R\&D Systems, \#204-IL-010) for five days, medium was changed at day 3.

### 3.4. SW620:moDCs co-culture conditions

In sterile condition, SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells were seeded 24 hours prior the co-culture in 6 -wells plates at $0.3 \times 10^{6}$ cells per mL in 3 mL of complete $\mathrm{L}-15$ medium per wells and incubate at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ without $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$. The moDCs were collected and resuspended in fresh RPMI medium (see cell culture). Cancer cells were washed with PBS once and moDCs were added with a ratio 1:5 (cancer cells/dendritic cells). The plates were then incubated at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C} 5 \% \mathrm{CO}_{2}$ for the desired time. Controls consisted in unstimulated moDCs (moDCs alone, base line control), stimulated moDCs (positive control of dendritic cells activation) supplemented with $5 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL}^{-1}$ LPS (Sigma-Aldrich) and cancer cells alone. After 2 hours of incubation, cells were collected for RNA extraction to proceed to further cytokines gene expression analysis by RT-qPCR. After 6 hours of incubation, cells were collected to assess maturation profile of DCs and percentage of adhering moDCs. For "LPS challenged co-culture", $1 \mathrm{ng} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ or $10 \mathrm{ng} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ of LPS were added at 6 hours of incubation to co-cultured cancer cells/moDCs as well as moDCs alone, unstimulated moDCs, stimulated moDCs supplemented with $5 \mu \mathrm{~g} \cdot \mathrm{~mL}^{-1} \mathrm{LPS}$ and cancer cells alone were, as previously, controls. At 24 hours incubation, cells were collected to assess maturation profile of DCs and percentage of adhering moDCs.

### 3.5. Flow cytometry

Harvested cells were counted using Neubauer chamber, trypan blue (Merck) was used to stain dead cells. For each staining condition, $0.2 \times 10^{6}$ cells in suspension was used. Cells were washed with PBS.

- For E-selectin ligands staining; four conditions were necessary and cells were pre-washed once with the correct PBS: to set flow cytometer, cells alone in $\mathrm{PBS}+\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}\left(2 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{CaCl}_{2}\right.$, Merck $)$; to control unspecific staining, cells in $\mathrm{PBS}+\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ with anti-human IgG (Fc Specific)-Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) (Sigma, \#F9512); as negative control, cells in PBS+EDTA (2mM, Merck) with recombinant Human E-Selectin/CD62E Fc Chimera Protein (R\&D, 724-ES), here called E-Ig chimera, plus anti-human IgG (Fc Specific)-FITC; to evaluate E-selectin ligands staining, cells in PBS $+\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ with recombinant E-Ig chimera plus anti-human IgG (Fc Specific)-FITC. Cells were
incubated at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for one hour, then washed and resuspended in 1 mL using correct PBS for each condition.
- For HECA-452, CD15s, CA19-9, L1CAM, PTPRJ, integrin $\alpha-6$ and integrin $\beta-1$ staining; three conditions were used: to set flow cytometer, cells alone in PBS; to control unspecific staining, cells in PBS with secondary antibody goat anti-rat Ig allophycocyanin (APC) (BD Pharmingem ${ }^{\text {M }}$, \#551019), or goat anti-mouse Ig FITC (Dako, \#F0479), or secondary antibody goat anti-mouse IgG FITC (Southern Biotech, \#1030-02); to evaluate proteins staining, cells in PBS with primary monoclonal antibody (mAb) rat anti-human Cutaneous Lymphocyte Antigen (CLA) clone HECA-452 (BioLegend, \# 321302), or primary mAb mouse anti-human CD15s clone CSLEX1 (BD Pharmingem ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#551344), or primary mAb mouse anti-human CA19-9 clone CA19-9-203 (Abcam, \#ab116024), or primary mAb mouse anti-human L1CAM clone UJ127.11 (Santa Cruz, \#sc-53386), or primary mAb mouse anti-human PTPRJ clone F-12 (Santa Cruz, \#sc-376794), or primary mAb mouse anti-human integrin $\alpha-6$ clone BQ16 (Santa Cruz, \#sc-13542), or primary mAb mouse anti-human integrin $\beta-1$ clone JB1B (Santa Cruz, \#sc-59829), plus appropriate secondary antibody. Cells were incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes (min) with primary antibody, then washed with PBS, incubated 15 min with secondary antibody, washed and resuspended in 1 mL of PBS.
- For co-cultures; cells from co-cultures were harvested, washed, and stained with FITC-labelled monoclonal antibody (mAb) mouse anti-human CD86 clone BU63 (Immunotools, \#21480863), phycoerythrin (PE)-labelled mAb mouse anti-human CD45 clone MEM-28 (Immunotools, \#21270454) and APC-labelled mAb mouse anti-human HLA-DR clone GRB-1 (Immunostep, \#HLADRA-100T). Negative controls were unstained and corresponding isotype control stained cells. Cells were incubated at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 min , then washed with PBS and resuspended in 1 mL of PBS.

Cells were read with flow cytometer Attune ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Acoustic Focusing Cytometer (Applied Biosystems ${ }^{\circledR}$ ). To analyse the results and for the figures, FlowJo software was used. Median fluorescent intensities (MFI) ratios were determined by the MFI values of stained FUT6 transfected cell lines divided by MFI values of stained Mock transfected cell lines values and used for statistical analysis for E-Ig chimera, HECA-452, CD15s and CA19-9 staining. MFI values were used for statistical analysis for L1CAM, PTPRJ, integrin $\alpha-6$ and integrin $\beta-1$ staining. For co-cultures, MFI fold changes were determined by (MFI values of stained stimulated moDCs or moDCs+SW620FUT6 transfected cell lines minus MFI values of unstimulated moDCs or stained moDCs+SW620Mock transfected cell lines values) divided by MFI values of unstimulated moDCs or stained moDCs+SW620Mock transfected cell lines values, respectively, and used for statistical analysis.

### 3.6. Membrane protein extraction

Membrane proteins from SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells were obtained using Mem-PER ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Plus Membrane Protein Extraction Kit (Thermo Scientific ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#89842) following the manufacturer's instruction. Protease inhibitor (Roche, \#11836170001) was added to extracted membrane and membrane-associated proteins. Protein concentrations were evaluated using Pierce ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ BCA (Bicinchoninic acid assay) Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#23225).

### 3.7. Immunoprecipitation

Two tubes with the recombinant Protein (rProtein) G Agarose (Invitrogen, \#15920010) beads for each protein extracts were used, one for clearing $(80 \mu \mathrm{~L})$ and one for immunoprecipitation $(60 \mu \mathrm{~L})$. Beads were washed three times with wash buffer (see 3.1), blocked with blocking buffer (see 3.1) for an hour at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with rotation and washed again three times. Then, $100 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of membrane extracted proteins was cleared with rProtein G-agarose ('clearing' tube), incubation was made at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for two hours with agitation. Cleared samples were saved and rProtein G agarose beads ('immunoprecipitation' tube) were incubated with 3 or $2 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of antibody (E-Ig chimera or mAb mouse anti-human L1CAM, respectively) overnight at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with agitation. Cleared proteins were added to the rProtein G agarose ('immunoprecipitation' tube) with antibody for six to eight hours at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with agitation. After three washes, immunoprecipitated (IP) proteins were obtained by boiling the rProtein G-agarose with denaturing buffer (see 3.1) for ten minutes. Supernatant containing IP proteins were conserved at $-80^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

### 3.8. Mass spectrometry

### 3.8.1. E-selectin ligands identification

### 3.8.1.1. Mass Spectrometry

IP proteins with E-Ig chimera were subjected to SDS-PAGE short run (NuPAGE ${ }^{\text {TM }} 4-12 \%$ Bis-Tris Protein Gels, Invitrogen ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ ). Proteins were in-gel digested with trypsin after reduction (dithiothreitol) and alkylation (iodoacetamide) using Proteineer DP digestion robot (Bruker Daltonics). Tryptic peptides were then extracted from the gel slices, lyophilized, dissolved in solvent A (water/0.1 formic acid (FA) v/v), and subsequently analysed by online C18 nano-HPLC MS/MS with a system consisting of an Easy nLC 1200 gradient HPLC system (Thermo, Bremen, Germany) and a LUMOS mass spectrometer (Thermo). Fractions were injected onto a homemade pre-column ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~m} \times 15 \mathrm{~mm}$; Reprosil-Pur C18-AQ $3 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, Dr. Maisch, Ammerbuch, Germany) and eluted via a homemade analytical nano-HPLC column ( $20 \mathrm{~cm} \times 75 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; Reprosil-Pur C18-AQ $3 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) using a gradient from 10 to $40 \%$ solvent $\mathrm{B}(20 / 80 / 0.1$
water/acetonitrile/FA $v / v / v$ ) in 20 min . The nano-HPLC column was drawn to a tip of $\sim 5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and acted as the electrospray needle of the MS source. The LUMOS mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent MS/MS mode (cycle time 3 seconds) with a normalised collision energy of 32 and recording of the MS2 spectrum in the Orbitrap. In the master scan (MS1) the resolution was 120000 , and the scan range was from $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 400-1500$ at an AGC target of 400000 with maximum fill time of 50 ms . Dynamic exclusion after $\mathrm{n}=1$ with exclusion duration of 10 s was applied. Charge states $2-5$ were included for MS2. For this, precursors were isolated with the quadrupole with an isolation width of 1.2Da. The MS2 scan resolution was 30000 with an AGC target of 50000 with maximum fill time of 60 ms .

### 3.8.1.2. Data analysis

MS/MS data were searched against a human protein database (UniProt, 67915 entries) using the Mascot search algorithm (Matrix Science, London, UK; version 2.2.04). Trypsin was selected as enzyme (up to two missed cleavages were allowed) and the MS and MS/MS tolerance were 10 p.p.m. and 0.02Da, respectively. Carbamidomethylation of cysteine was set as a fixed modification and oxidation of methionine was specified as a variable modification. Scaffold (version Scaffold_4.8.4, Proteome Software Inc., Portland, OR) was used to validate MS/MS based peptide and protein identifications applying an FDR (False Discovery Rate) of 1\% at minimum two unique peptides identified with a 95\% peptide threshold identification.

### 3.8.2. Glycoanalysis

### 3.8.2.1. $N$-glycan release

IP proteins with L1CAM mAb, L1CAM mAb and membrane proteins extracted from SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells were dried down. Reagents used for N -glycan released were obtained from the LudgerZyme ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ PNGase F Release Kit (LZ-rPNGaseF-kit, Ludger). Samples were resuspended in water and denatured at $100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min with denaturation buffer ( $5 \%$ SDS 400 mM DTT). Following the denaturation, after the samples cool down to room temperature, samples were incubated with PNGase F in reaction buffer ( 500 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.5 at 1 X dilution) and NP-40 at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ overnight. Released N -glycans were dried with vacuum centrifugation and then converted to aldoses by incubating with $1 \%$ formic acid solution at room temperature for 45 min . Remaining proteins and enzymes were removed using a LudgerClean ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Protein Binding Membrane Plate (LC-PBM-96, Ludger). Finally, eluted N -glycans were dried using vacuum centrifugation prior to labelling.

Chapter 3 - Materials and Methods

### 3.8.2.2. Glycans labelling

Glycans were labelled with procainamide using a LudgerTag ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Procainamide Glycan Labelling Kit with sodium cyanoborohydride (LT-KPROC-24, Ludger; Kozak et al. 2015). The procainamide dye solution (DMSO, acetic acid, procainamide, sodium cyanoborohydride, water) was prepared following the manufacturer's protocol and added to the samples. Labelling was done at $65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for one hour and labelled samples were then cleaned-up.

### 3.8.2.3. N -glycan clean-up

Clean up of samples and removal of excess dye was performed using a Ludger Clean plate (LC-PROC-96, Ludger) following the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, samples were added to the plate in acetonitrile, washed 3 times with acetonitrile $(200 \mu \mathrm{~L})$ and eluted in water $(2 \times 100 \mu \mathrm{~L})$. Purified labelled N -glycans were stored at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ until they could be processed. For longer term storage $-20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ was used.

### 3.8.2.4. HILIC-UHPLC analysis on a Dionex Ultimate 3000 with inline MS

Samples and standards were analysed by liquid chromatography electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry (LC-ESI-MS/MS). Procainamide labelled glycans were dried using vacuum centrifugation. Samples were resuspended in pure water. Samples were injected in $25 \%$ aqueous $/ 75 \%$ acetonitrile; injection volume $25 \mu \mathrm{~L}$. Samples made up as follows: IP, $12.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ plus $3.57 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ acetonitrile; $\mathrm{mAb}, 12.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ plus $37.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ acetonitrile; membrane proteins, $12.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ plus $37.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ acetonitrile; standards, $25 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ plus $75 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ acetonitrile.

Samples were analysed by HILIC-LC on an Ultimate 3000 UHPLC using a BEH-Glycan $1.7 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, $2.1 \times 150 \mathrm{~mm}$ column (Waters) at $40^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with a fluorescence detector ( $\lambda_{\mathrm{ex}}=310 \mathrm{~nm}, \lambda_{\mathrm{em}}=370 \mathrm{~nm}$ ), controlled by Bruker HyStar 3.2 and Chromeleon data software version 7.2. Buffer A was 50 mM ammonium formate made from LudgerSep N Buffer stock solution, pH4.4 [LS-N-BUFFX40]; Buffer B was acetonitrile (acetonitrile 190 far UV/gradient quality; Romil \#H049). Gradient conditions were: 0 to $53.5 \mathrm{~min}, 24$ to $49.0 \% \mathrm{~A}\left(0.4 \mathrm{~mL} . \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right) ; 53.5$ to $55.5 \mathrm{~min}, 49.0$ to $0 \% \mathrm{~A}\left(0.4\right.$ to $0.2 \mathrm{~mL} . \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ); 55.5 to $57.5 \mathrm{~min}, 100 \%$ A $\left(0.2 \mathrm{~mL} . \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right) ; 57.5$ to $59.5 \mathrm{~min}, 100$ to $24 \%$ A $\left(0.2 \mathrm{~mL} . \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right) ; 59.5$ to $65.5 \mathrm{~min}, 24 \% \mathrm{~A}$ $\left(0.2 \mathrm{~mL} . \mathrm{min}^{-1}\right)$; 65.5 to $66.5 \mathrm{~min} 24 \%$ A ( 0.2 to $0.4 \mathrm{~mL} \cdot \mathrm{~min}^{-1}$ ); 66.5 to 70 min , $24 \%$ A ( $0.4 \mathrm{~mL} . \mathrm{min}^{-1}$ ). Sensitivity S5 was used for the standards and membrane protein samples. Sensitivity S8 was used for the IP and mAb samples. Chromeleon data software version 7.2 with a cubic spline fit was used to allocate glucose unit (GU) values to peaks. Procainamide labelled glucose homopolymer was used as a system suitability standard as well as an external calibration standard for GU allocation for the system (Guile et al. 1996).

Analysis was performed using a Bruker amaZon Speed ETD electrospray mass spectrometer which was coupled directly after the UHPLC FD without splitting. The instrument scanned samples in maximum resolution mode, positive ion setting, MS scan + three MS/MS scans, nebulizer pressure 14.5 psi, nitrogen flow 10L. $\mathrm{min}^{-1}$, capillary voltage 4500 Volts. MS/MS was performed on three ions in each scan sweep with a mixing time of 40 ms . Mass spectrometry data were analysed using the Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 software. LC-ESI-MS/MS chromatogram analysis was performed using Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.4 and GlycoWorkbench software. Structures were identified by comparing LC, MS, and MS/MS data.

### 3.9. RT-qPCR

RNA extraction was made using GenElute ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Mammalian Total RNA Miniprep Kit (Sigma-Aldrich) following the manufacturer's instruction. On-Column DNase I Digestion Set (Sigma-Aldrich) was used to eliminate genomic DNA from RNA extracts. RNA was converted to cDNA using High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#4368814) following the manufacturer's instruction. qPCR assays were performed in Rotor-Gene 6000 system (Corbett Research) using TaqMan ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Fast Universal PCR Master Mix (2X), no AmpErase ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ UNG (Applied Biosystems ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#4366073), TaqMan ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Gene Expression Assay primers and probe with the following ID: Hs00356857_m1 (FUT3, \#4331182), Hs01106466_s1 (FUT4, \#4331182), Hs00704908_s1 (FUT5, \#4331182), Hs03026676_s1 (FUT6, \#4331182), Hs00237083_m1 (FUT7, \#4331182), Hs00276003_m1 (FUT9, \#4331182), Hs00327091_m1 (FUT10, \#4331182), Hs00543033_m1 (FUT11, \#4331182), Hs00174097_m1 (IL-16, \#4331182), Hs00174131_m1 (IL-6, \#4331182), Hs00174086_m1 (IL-10, \#4331182), Hs00168405_m1 (IL-12A, \#4331182), Hs00233688_m1 (IL-12B, \#4331182), Hs00171257_m1 (TGF-61, \#4331182) and Hs00174128_m1 (Tumor Necrosis Factor $\alpha$, TNF- $\alpha$, \#4331182). The relative mRNA levels were normalised against the mean of the $\beta$-actin (Hs99999903_m1, \#4352935E) and GAPDH (Hs99999905_m1, \#4333764F) expression and calculated by adapted formula $2^{-\Delta C t} \times 1000$ which infers the number of mRNA molecules of the gene of interest per 1000 molecules of the endogenous controls (Videira et al. 2009). $\Delta$ Ct stands for the cycle threshold difference between the target gene and the endogenous control genes. Cycle thresholds were obtained by analysing the qPCR results with Rotor Gene 6000 software.

### 3.10. SDS-PAGE and Western-Blot

Protein concentrations were evaluated using Pierce ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#23225). $20 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of proteins obtained from total cell lysates, $10 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of membrane extracted proteins, $20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of cleared proteins from immunoprecipitation or $10 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of IP proteins were diluted with SDS-PAGE sample buffer (Alfa Aesar ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#J61337) and electrophoresed through 6\% (v/v) polyacrylamide SDS-PAGE
gels. Pre-stained protein ladder (Abcam, \#ab116028) was included in adjacent lanes in all experiments. Separated proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF, GE Healthcare Life Science, \#10600021) membranes. PVDF membranes were blocked for one hour at room temperature, then stained with E-Ig chimera (in this case, all buffers were supplemented with $2 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{CaCl}_{2}$ ), or mAb mouse anti-human L1CAM clone UJ127.11 (Santa Cruz, \#sc-53386), or rat anti-human Cutaneous Lymphocyte Antigen (CLA) mAb clone HECA-452 (BioLegend, \# 321302), overnight at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. After three washes, for E-Ig chimera staining only, incubations with rat anti-mouse CD62E mAb (BD Pharmingen ${ }^{\text {TM }}$, \#553749) for an hour at room temperature were done and membrane was washed three times. After washes, membranes were incubated with appropriate Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibodies at room temperature for one hour, for L1CAM, with goat anti-mouse Ig HRP (BD Pharmingen ${ }^{\top M}$, \#554002), for E-Ig chimera, with goat anti-rat $\operatorname{lgG}(H+L)$ HRP (Southern Biotech, \#3050-05), and for HECA-452, with goat anti-rat IgM HRP (Southern Biotech, \#3020-05). Lumi-light western blotting substrate (Roche, \#12015200001) was used as developing reagent on washed PVDF membrane. To obtain the results, PVDF membranes were exposed to Hyperfilm ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ ECL $^{\text {TM }}$ (GE Healthcare Life Science, \#28906837) and to develop the films, developer (Sigma, \#P7042) and fixer (Sigma, \#P7167) solutions were employed. $\beta$ tubulin protein expression level was analysed as loading control using mAb mouse anti-human $\beta$ tubulin clone D-10 (Santa Cruz, \#sc-5274) with appropriate HRP-conjugated secondary antibody.

### 3.11. Wound healing assay

The Ibidi Culture-Inserts 2 Wells (\#80209) were used according to the manufacturer's instructions to perform wound healing assay. For SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cell lines, to obtain confluent layer after 24 hours, cell suspension concentration was $7.5 \times 10^{5} \mathrm{cells} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$. Culture conditions were identical as in "Cell culture". To assess the migration capability, microscope with a digital camera was used to take pictures of the wound each day. Then, the pictures were analysed using ImageJ software to measure the area of the wound free of cells.

### 3.12. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 6 (GraphPad Software, Inc). Data were analysed using D'Agostino and Pearson omnibus normality test to determine normal distribution, then unpaired Student's $t$-test for parametric data or Mann-Whitney test for non-parametric data were applied. Differences were considered statistically significant when $\mathrm{p}<0.05\left(^{*}\right), \mathrm{p}<0.01\left(^{* *}\right), \mathrm{p}<0.005$ $\left(^{* * *}\right)$ and $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ (****).

Chapter 3 - Materials and Methods

Chapter 4 - Results

### 4.1. Characterisation of sialyl Lewis X expressing cell lines

### 4.1.1. Characterisation of colon cancer cell lines overexpressing FUT6

In order to characterise the glycoengineered CRC cell lines overexpressing sialyl Lewis $X\left(s L e^{x}\right)$, we confirmed the FUT6 overexpression and determine the effect of the transfection on others FUTs expression by RT-qPCR. Immunostaining, by flow cytometry and western-blot techniques, were used to evaluate the expression of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens and E-selectin ligands. SW620 and HT29 colon cancer cell lines were transfected with FUT6 gene (Trinchera et al. 2011). The Table 4.1 resumes the known information on these two cell lines. Presenting different grade, SW620 cell line was obtained from lymph node metastatic site while HT29 cell line from primary tumour site. The two cell lines differ also in term of differentiation profile, poorly differentiated for SW620 cells whereas HT29 cells are well differentiated, involving different aggressiveness properties.

Table 4.1 Cell lines information. Colon cancer cell lines used in this study and their characteristics. Information obtained from ATCC and additionally stated literature. † Leibovitz et al. 1976, § Fogh and Trempe 1975, $\ddagger$ Blottière et al. 1993.

| Cancer <br> cell line | Patient's Age <br> and Gender | Tissue | Histologic type | Clinical <br> stage | Tumour <br> site | Grade $\ddagger$ | Differen- <br> tiation $\ddagger$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SW620t | 51, Male | Colon; derived <br> from metastatic <br> site: lymph node adenocarcinoma | Duke's type C <br> colon | 3 | Lymph node <br> metastasis | IV | Poorly |
| HT29§ | 44, Female | Colon | Duke's type B <br> colon <br> adenocarcinoma | 3 | Primary | I | Well |

FUT6 overexpression was confirmed by RT-qPCR (Figure 4.1). As expected, FUT6 transfected cell lines presented significant higher level of FUT6 mRNA level compared to Mock transfected cell lines in both SW620 and HT29 cells. Among others a1,3/4-fucosyltransferases (FUTs), FUT5 mRNA expression was found decreased in FUT6 transfected cells in both cell lines and, only in SW620 cell lines, FUT3 mRNA expression was lower in FUT6 transfected cell lines. However, the expression values were extremely low, especially for FUT3 gene. Others FUTs mRNA expression levels were not significantly affected by FUT6 transfection. FUT9 was not expressed or at an undetectable level by the experimental procedure.


Figure $4.1 \alpha 1,3 / 4$ fucosyltransferases (FUTs) gene expression in SW620 and HT29 cell lines by RT qPCR. A - B. Values represented in mean $\pm$ SEM (Standard Error of Mean) are the number of mRNA molecules of the gene of interest per 1000 molecules of the endogenous controls (section 3.9), $p$ value obtained with Mann-Whitney test, $\mathrm{n}=5, \mathrm{p}=0.0317\left(^{*}\right), \mathrm{p}=0.0079\left(^{* *}\right)$. FUT9 was not detectable.

FUT6 gene expression has been shown to impact sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen expression in these cell lines (Trinchera et al. 2011), thus to confirm that FUT6-overexpressing cell lines show increase of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ expression, we extracted proteins from Mock and FUT6 transfected cell lines and stained with HECA-452 mAb by WB. This mAb reacts with both sialyl Lewis A (sLe ${ }^{A}$ ) and sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigens (Berg, Robinson, et al. 1991; Berg, Yoshino, et al. 1991). Figure 4.2A shows no staining of proteins from SW620Mock cells while proteins from SW620FUT6 cells present different bands between 75 and 245 kDa . In Figure 4.2B, proteins from

HT29 cells transfected with FUT6 also present multiple different bands with a wider range of weight compared to SW620FUT6 cells. However, contrary to extracted proteins from SW620Mock cells, HT29Mock proteins shows reactivity with HECA-452. Expression levels of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ highlighted by WB stained with HECA-452 mAb is high in both SW620 and HT29 cell lines transfected with FUT6, null in SW620Mock cells but not in HT29Mock cells.


Further analysis by flow cytometry allowed to precise the expression pattern of the two cell lines, Mock or FUT6 transfected, for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen, sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands (Figure 4.3). For this purpose, we used HECA-452 mAb for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens, anti-CD15s for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen, anti-CA19-9 for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{A}}$ antigen and E -selectin chimera ( $\mathrm{E}-\mathrm{Ig}$ ) for E -selectin ligands, which can carry $\mathrm{sLe}^{\mathrm{A}}$ and/or sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigens. Figure 4.3A shows increased and strong staining of FUT6 transfected cells for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens (HECA-452), sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen (anti-CD15s) and E-selectin ligands (E-Ig) compared to SW620Mock cells, which, unlike WB staining suggested it , are not null in term of $s L e^{x / A}$ antigens expression. For sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen (anti-CA19-9), expression levels are low in SW620 cells, even more in FUT6 transfected cells compared to Mock. Statistical analysis confirmed the significant differences between SW620FUT6 and Mock cells regarding $s L e^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands expression. Thus, Figure 4.3C showed the MFI ratios comparing FUT6 vs. Mock SW620 transfected cells, sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands are overexpressed and sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen expression is decreased in SW620FUT6 compared to SW620Mock. Regarding HT29 cell lines staining with same mAbs by flow cytometry was inconclusive. Indeed, while proteins from HT29 cells WB staining suggested strong difference of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens expression in favour of HT29 cells transfected with FUT6, flow cytometry indicates opposite results with anti-CD15s and anti-CA19-9 but not with HECA-452 mAb and E-selectin ligands staining (Figure 4.3B). According to statistical analysis, no significant differences are observed for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens (HECA-452) and E-selectin ligands staining, while HT29Mock cells shows higher staining for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ (anti-CD15s) and sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigens (anti-CA19-9) compared to HT29FUT6 with significance (Figure 4.3D). WB and flow cytometry results of HT29 cell lines do not allow to make conclusions in term of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens and E -selectin ligands expression regarding FUT6 overexpression. For this reason, we focus further experiments only on SW620 cell lines.


Figure 4.3 Comparison of sialyl Lewis X/A and E-selectin ligand expression on Mock and FUT6 transfected cell line. A. SW620Mock cells (grey) and SW620FUT6 transfected cells (black) were stained with primary antibody (see below histograms) plus fluorescent secondary antibody in PBS, supplemented with $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ for E-selectin chimera staining. SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 transfected cells controls (dashed lane) were stained with secondary antibody only, or in PBS with EDTA for E-selectin chimera staining. B. Same as A with HT29Mock and HT29FUT6 transfected cell lines. C. MFI ratios for each independent staining experiment were determined by the MFI values of stained SW620FUT6 transfected cell lines divided by MFI values of stained SW620Mock transfected cell lines; for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x/A}}$ (HECA-452) staining $\mathrm{n}=17 \mathrm{p}<0.0001$ (****); for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ (CD15s) staining $\mathrm{n}=17 \mathrm{p}=0.0001$ (***); for sLe ${ }^{A}$ (CA-19-9) staining $\mathrm{n}=12 \mathrm{p}<0.0001$ (****); for E-selectin ligands ( $\mathrm{E}-\mathrm{Ig}$ ) staining $\mathrm{n}=14$ $\mathrm{p}<0.00011^{(* * * *)}$. D. Same as C with HT29Mock and HT29FUT6 transfected cell lines; for sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ (HECA-452) staining $n=7 p=0.4514$; for $s L e^{x}$ (CD15s) staining $n=7 p=0.0169\left(^{*}\right)$; for sLe ${ }^{A}$ (CA-19-9) staining $n=7 p<0.0001\left({ }^{* * * *}\right.$ ); for E -selectin ligands ( $\mathrm{E}-\mathrm{Ig}$ ) staining $\mathrm{n}=7 \mathrm{p}=0.49$ (N.S.).

Chapter 4 - Results

### 4.1.2. N-glycan profiles of Mock vs. FUT6 transfected SW620 cells

To obtain more information on the glycosylated structures of SW620 cells transfected with FUT6 compared to Mock, we extracted membrane proteins from both cell lines and released N -glycans using PNGase F enzyme. N-glycan profiles of SW620 cell lines were obtained by HILIC-UHPLC-MS/MS. The profiles of N-glycans from SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cell lines ranged from m/z 960 and 3910. The ions were singly to quadruply charged. In the Figure 4.4, each identified structure is represented with its attributed peak ID reported on supplementary Table S4.1 and Table S4.2 for SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells, respectively. The composition of the N -glycans has been confirmed by $\mathrm{MS}^{n}$ fragmentation analysis. Thus, the identified $Y$ - and $B$-ion fragments for each structure are shown in supplementary Table S4.1 and Table S4.2. In total, 69 and 78 N-glycans were identified in SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells, respectively. Among them, it appeared some isomeric structures, for example N-glycans \#50 in SW620Mock and \#53 in SW620FUT6 have same $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z}^{3+}$ value of 815.35 , the two structures differentiate by the position of the antennary fucose, in Mock the Fuc residue is on the non-sialylated antennae while in FUT6 it is on the sialylated antennae, giving, respectively, Le and sLe antigen structures. This difference was identified in the B-ion fragments, indeed, characteristic B-ions of sLe structure 803.34 (H1N1F1S1), 1289.63 (H4N1S1F1) and 1330.38 (H3N2S1F1) were identified in SW620FUT6 \#53 N-glycan when absent in SW620Mock \#50 N-glycan. Such differences appeared on other structures, such as N-glycan \#65 and \#68 from Mock compared to \#76 from FUT6, here the difference concerned the core position of the Fuc residue in Mock versus sLe antigen structure in FUT6 established by ion fragments intensities comparison. Similar differences were attributed to the following N-glycan structures from Mock compared to FUT6: \#38 compared to \#34, \#45 compared to \#48, \#55 compared to \#59, \#67 compare to \#73 and \#74. All these differences are consistent with the increase of sLe structures due to the transfection of FUT6 in SW620 cells. Other structure differences were identified for isomeric structures, the \#18 and \#22 from Mock cells compared to the \#21 and \#25 from FUT6 cells, in these cases, bisecting GIcNAc for mono-galactosylated N-glycan (\#18) was identified in Mock and not in FUT6 (\#21) and inversely bisecting GlcNAc for bi-galactosylated N-glycan (\#25) was identified in FUT6 and not in Mock cells (\#22). Other neutral N-glycans were identified only in Mock or FUT6 cells, comprising hybrid and complex N-glycan structures. Furthermore, N-glycan structures with four sialylated antennae were identified only in SW620FUT6 cells.


Figure 4.4 N -glycans identified by HILIC-UHPLC-MS from membrane proteins of SW620Mock and FUT6 cells. Schematic representation of the N-glycans released from SW620Mock cells (inside the blue circle) and from SW620FUT6 cells (inside the red circle) membrane proteins. Structures identified in both cell lines are in the two circles overlap. 69 N -glycan structures were identified for SW620Mock membrane proteins and 78 for SW620FUT6 membrane proteins. Y - and B-ion fragments identification, which allowed N -glycan composition determination, is depicted in supplementary Table S4.1 and Table S4.2 for SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells membrane proteins, respectively. In the supplementary Table S4.1 and Table S4.2, peak ID has been attributed to each structure which correspond to the \#number under each N -glycans (in blue for N -glycans from SW620Mock proteins, in red for N-glycans from SW620FUT6 proteins, in black for identical peak ID number attributed to N -glycans from both SW620Mock and FUT6 protein).

### 4.1.3. FUT6 overexpression increases migration ability in SW620 cells

Cells migration capacity was evaluated using scratch wound healing assay. Therefore, Ibidi culture inserts were used with SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells and wound healing monitored for seven days. In Figure 4.5A, qualitative observation of pictures at day 4 indicated that wound with SW620FUT6 cells healed better than with SW620Mock cells and, at day 6, healed completely while some area for wound with SW620Mock cells were still free of cells. Quantitative measurements, plotted in Figure 4.5B, allowed to significantly confirm the higher faculty of SW620FUT6 cells to heal the wound more rapidly than SW620Mock. Thus, cells transfected with FUT6, with increased expression of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands, possess improved migration ability compared to Mock transfected cells.


Figure 4.5 FUT6 overexpression in SW620 cells lead to increased cell migration faculty. A. Pictures of one of the scratch wound healing assays, performed using lbidi culture inserts, from day 0 (left), day 4 (middle) and day 6 (right) with SW620Mock cells (upper) and SW620FUT6 cells (lower) obtained with an inverted microscope. B. Percentage means with standard deviation of free area for 8 independent experiments are represented, free areas were determined from pictures using ImageJ and converted into percentage values. At day $2,3,4$ and 5 , statistical analysis using unpaired Student's $t$-test demonstrated significant higher migration ability for SW620FUT6 cells compared to SW620Mock cells.

### 4.2. E-selectin ligands

### 4.2.1. SW620FUT6 cell line presents high expression of E-selectin ligands

The expression of E-selectin ligands has been observed on SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cell lines by flow cytometry and WB. Using E-Ig chimera, flow cytometry analysis of the two cell lines highlighted a clear higher expression of E-selectin ligands on SW620FUT6 cells compared to SW620Mock cells (Figure 4.6A). Since E-selectin ligands can interact with E-selectin only if expressed on cell surface, membrane proteins from SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells were extracted. Analysis of these membrane proteins with E-Ig chimera by WB confirmed the flow cytometry results. Indeed, SW620Mock cells membrane proteins did not show stained bands whereas SW620FUT6 presented E-selectin ligands with high molecular weight. Three main bands were identified at $\sim 100 \mathrm{kDa}$, between 135 kDa and 180 kDa and $\sim 245 \mathrm{kDa}$ (Figure 4.6B). E-selectin ligands were then immunoprecipitated (IP) from membrane protein of SW620FUT6 cells. The E-selectin ligands were successfully isolated as the E-lg staining showed it (Figure 4.6C).


Figure 4.6 SW620FUT6 cells expresses E-selectin ligands. A. E-selectin ligands were stained with E-Ig chimera plus anti-human IgG (Fc Specific) -FITC on SW620Mock (grey filled lane) and SW620FUT6 (black filled lane) cells in PBS with $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ and analysed by flow cytometry. SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 negative controls (grey and dark dashed lane, respectively) were stained similarly in PBS with EDTA. B. Membrane proteins from SW620Mock (lane 1) and SW620FUT6 cells (lane 2) were stained with E-Ig chimera plus anti-mouse CD62E plus anti-rat $\operatorname{lgG}(\mathrm{H}+\mathrm{L})$ HRP in PBS with $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ by WB. $\beta$ tubulin protein expression level was analyzed as loading control. C. Membrane protein (lane 1), cleared membrane protein from immunoprecipitated (IP) E-selectin ligands (lane 2) and IP E-selectin ligands (lane 3) from SW620FUT6 cells were stained with E-Ig chimera plus anti-mouse CD62E plus anti-rat $\operatorname{lgG}(\mathrm{H}+\mathrm{L})$ HRP in PBS with $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ by WB.

### 4.2.2. E-selectin ligands from SW620FUT6 identification

To identify the E-selectin ligands, immunoprecipitations using E-Ig chimera were made on membrane proteins from SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells. IP E-selectin ligands were denatured and run in SDS-PAGE (short run). Six bands were cut on the gel, digested by trypsin, and analysed by LC-MS/MS. Four independent immunoprecipitations were performed and analysed, resulting in the identification

## Chapter 4 - Results

of 1066 proteins (data not shown). Among these proteins, 434 were present in at least two immunoprecipitations (data not shown). Since E-selectin ligands are glycosylated protein, the list was reduced to 57 glycoproteins, according to UniProtKB database annotations (supplementary Table S4.3). 13 glycoproteins of this list were only identified in IP E-selectin ligands from SW620FUT6 membrane proteins, the others being identified in IP E-selectin ligands from both SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 membrane proteins. The final list of 13 E -selectin ligands is mainly containing plasma membrane protein (Table 4.2). The four first E-selectin ligands from the list had the highest number of identified unique peptide by LC-MS/MS and were plasma membrane proteins presenting high molecular weight. Thus, we decided to continue this work with these proteins: neural cell adhesion molecule L1 (L1CAM), integrin $\alpha-6$, receptor-type tyrosine-protein phosphatase eta (PTPRJ) and integrin $\beta-1$.

Table 4.2 List of identified E-selectin ligands in SW620FUT6 cells by mass spectrometryt. $\boldsymbol{+}$ From SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells extracted membrane protein, four immunoprecipitations with E-Ig chimera were performed and analysed by LC-MS/MS. The present list shows the glycosylated $\ddagger$ immunoprecipitated E-selectin ligands only identified in SW620FUT6 cells (supplementary Table S4.3 for glycosylated $\ddagger$ IP E-selectin ligands identified in both cell lines). § Proteins identified are described with the number of unique peptides for each experiment and the sum of the total spectrum count from the four experiments. $\ddagger$ Protein information on glycosylation status and subcellular location were extracted from UniProtKB database.
Abbreviation: MW, Molecular Weight; Exp., Experiment.

| Protein Name | Gene <br> Name | $\begin{aligned} & \text { MW } \\ & \text { (kDa) } \end{aligned}$ | UniProtKB entry | Exclusive Unique Peptide Count§ |  |  |  | Total spectrum count (sum)§ | Subcellular location $\ddagger$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Exp. 1 Exp. 2 Exp. 3 Exp. 4 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Neural cell adhesion molecule L1 | L1CAM | 140 | $\begin{gathered} \text { P32004 } \\ \text { (L1CAM HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 31 | 20 | 30 | 27 | 118 | Plasma membrane |
| Integrin alpha 6 | ITGA6 | 127 | $\frac{\mathrm{P} 23229}{(\text { ITA } \mathrm{HUMAN})}$ | 11 | 31 | 12 | 10 | 91 | Plasma membrane |
| Receptor-type tyrosineprotein phosphatase eta | PTPRJ | 146 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { Q12913 }}{(\text { PTPR HUMAN) }} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 21 | 9 | 18 | 11 | 58 | Plasma membrane |
| Integrin beta 1 | ITGB1 | 88 | $\frac{\text { P05556 }}{1}$ (ITBUMAN) | 6 | 11 | 7 | 5 | 39 | Plasma membrane, recycling endosome |
| Cation-independent mannose-6-phosphate receptor | IGF2R | 274 | $\frac{\text { P11717 }}{(\text { MPRI HUMAN })}$ | 16 | 3 | 16 | 7 | 39 | Lysosome membrane |
| Receptor-type tyrosineprotein phosphatase alpha | PTPRA | 91 | $\frac{\text { P18433 }}{\text { (PTPR HUMAN) }}$ | 10 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 22 | Membrane |
| Leucyl-cystinyl aminopeptidase | LNPEP | 117 | Q9UIQ6 (LCAP HUMAN) | 7 | 9 | 6 | 5 | 22 | Plasma membrane, secreted |
| Carboxypeptidase D | CPD | 153 | $\begin{gathered} \underline{075976} \\ (\mathrm{CBPD} \mathrm{HUMAN)} \end{gathered}$ | 2 | 0 | 6 | 6 | 13 | Plasma membrane |
| Lysosome-associated membrane glycoprotein 2 | LAMP2 | 45 | $\frac{\mathrm{P} 13473}{(\text { LAMP2 HUMAN) }}$ | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 12 | Lysosome/endosome/ plasma membrane |
| CD109 antigen | CD109 | 162 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { Q6YHK3 }}{(C D 109 ~ H U M A N)} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 12 | Plasma membrane |
| Golgi membrane protein 1 | GOLM1 | 45 | $\frac{\text { Q8NBJ4 }}{(\text { GOLM1 HUMAN })}$ | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 10 | Golgi apparatus membrane |
| Plexin-D1 | PLXND1 | 212 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Q9Y4D7 } \\ \text { (PLXD1 HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 7 | Plasma membrane |
| Zymogen granule protein 16 homolog B | ZG16B | 23 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Q96DAO } \\ \text { (ZG16B HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 4 | Secreted |

### 4.2.3. L1CAM, integrin $\alpha-6$ and integrin $\beta-1$ are expressed on SW620Mock and

 SW620FUT6 cells surfaceE-selectin ligands being expressed on cell surface, the expression of the selected identified E-selectin ligands on cell surface was assessed by flow cytometry on SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells. Unfortunately, PTPRJ was presenting almost no staining in both cell lines (Figure 4.7).


Figure 4.7 PTRJ is not present in SW620 cell surface. PTPRJ was stained with corresponding mAb plus anti-mouse IgG FITC on SW620Mock (grey filled lane) and SW620FUT6 (black filled lane) cells in PBS and analysed by flow cytometry. SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 negative control (grey and dark dashed lane, respectively) were stained with secondary antibody only (anti-mouse IgG FITC).

However, L1CAM, integrin $\alpha-6$ and integrin $\beta-1$ were successfully stained by flow cytometry (Figure 4.8A and B). Interestingly, L1CAM presented a higher expression level on SW620FUT6 cells when compared to SW620Mock cells (Figure 4.8B). This higher expression was also emphasised by WB staining assay (Figure 4.8C). The expression level of integrin $\alpha-6$ and integrin $\beta-1$ was similar between SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells (Figure 4.8B).


C LICAM staining
12


Figure 4.8 E-selectin ligands expression in SW620 cell lines. A. L1CAM, ITGA6 (integrin $\alpha 6$ ) and ITGB1 (integrin $\beta 1$ ) were stained with corresponding mAb plus anti-mouse IgG FITC on SW620Mock (grey filled lane) and SW620FUT6 (black filled lane) cells in PBS and analysed by flow cytometry. SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 negative control (grey and dark dashed lane, respectively) were stained with secondary antibody only (anti-mouse $\lg G$ FITC). B. Median Fluorescent Intensity (MFI) values (filled circles and tringles) of 8 biological independent experiments of anti-L1CAM, anti-ITGA6 and antiITGB1 mAb plus anti-mouse IgG FITC staining obtained by flow cytometry. The data are represented in scatter plot with mean $\pm$ SD. L1CAM expression was significantly higher in SW620FUT6 cells compared to SW620Mock cells, ** $\mathrm{p}=0.0096$ (unpaired Student's $t$-test). C. Membrane proteins from SW620Mock (lane 1) and SW620FUT6 cells (lane 2) were stained with antiL1CAM mAb plus anti-mouse Ig HRP in PBS by WB. $\beta$ tubulin protein expression level was analysed as loading control.

### 4.2.4. L1CAM is an E-selectin ligand in SW620FUT6 cells

Further analysis showed that L1CAM is an E-selectin ligand only in SW620FUT6 cells. Indeed, immunoprecipitation of L1CAM has been done on SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 membrane proteins
and subjected to L1CAM staining by WB, as well as IP E-selectin ligands. From SW620Mock membrane and IP proteins, L1CAM was only identified in total membrane protein and IP L1CAM, not in IP E-selectin ligands. On the opposite, IP L1CAM and IP E-selectin ligands presented a band at the same size when stained with mAb against L1CAM in SW620FUT6 (Figure 4.9A). IP L1CAM and IP E-selectin ligands from SW620FUT6 membrane protein were then stained with HECA-452 (sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens) and E-Ig chimera. The same band as in L1CAM staining appeared with sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands staining in both IP L1CAM and IP E-selectin ligands (Figure 4.9B). Together, these results show that L1CAM is an E-selectin ligand in SW620FUT6 cells.


Figure 4.9 Identification of L1CAM as an E-selectin ligand in SW620FUT6 cells. A. L1CAM and E-selectin ligands immunoprecipitations from SW620Mock and FUT6 cells membrane proteins, as well as cleared membrane protein from IP L1CAM, were stained with anti-L1CAM mAb plus anti-mouse Ig HRP in PBS by WB. IP E-selectin ligands from SW620FUT6 cells showed a stained band corresponding to L1CAM protein suggesting that L1CAM is an E-selectin ligand, in contrast to IP E-selectin ligands from SW620Mock cells. B. IP L1CAM and IP E-selectin ligands from SW620FUT6 membrane proteins were stained with anti-human L1CAM mAb plus anti-mouse Ig HRP in PBS (left), with HECA-452 (anti-human CLA mAb) plus anti-rat IgM HRP in PBS (middle) and with E-Ig chimera plus anti-mouse CD62E plus anti-rat IgG (H+L) HRP in PBS with $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$ (right) by WB.
Tot: total, Mb Prot: membrane proteins, IP: immunoprecipitated, L1: L1CAM, E-sel: E-selectin ligands.

### 4.2.5. L1CAM N -glycan analysis

To determine the N -glycan structures of L1CAM from SW620FUT6 cells, immunoprecipitations of L1CAM were performed on membrane proteins. To make immunoprecipitations L1CAM mAb is used and can be a source of contamination in the MS analysis since the mAb is N -glycosylated. Thereby, N-glycan structures from mAb were analysed like N -glycan structures from IP L1CAM to exclude N -glycan structures from the mAb to the N -glycan analysis of IP L1CAM. N -glycans from IP L1CAM and L1CAM mAb were released with PNGase F treatment, labelled with procainamide, and analysed by HILIC-UHPLC-MS. The profiles of N -glycans from L1CAM mAb and IP L1CAM ranged from $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 1110$ and 3100. The ions were singly to triply charged. The composition of the N -glycans has been confirmed by $M S^{n}$ fragmentation analysis. Thus, the identified $Y$ - and $B$-ion fragments for each structure are shown in supplementary Table S4.4 and Table S4.5 for L1CAM mAb and IP L1CAM, respectively. The N-glycan structures from mAb and IP were compared, once common structures excluded, remaining structures were annotated on the chromatogram in Figure 4.10 with their attributed peak ID reported on supplementary Table S4.5. Unfortunately, sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ structure was not identified on N -glycans, but we cannot exclude the possibility of the presence of this structure on O-glycans.


Figure 4.10 HPLC profile of N-glycans released from IP L1CAM. N-glycans from IP L1CAM and anti-L1CAM mAb were released by PNGase F treatment, reduced, and labelled with procainamide. N-glycans were analysed by LC-ESI-MS/MS in positive mode. Structures only identified in IP L1CAM samples are represented with their peak ID number (supplementary Table S4.5). PROC: procainamide; blue square: N -acetylglucosamine; green circle: Mannose; yellow circle: Galactose; red triangle: Fucose; purple diamond: N -acetylneuraminic acid.

### 4.3. Immunomodulation

4.3.1. MoDCs adherence to SW620 cells and maturation profile are affected by FUT6 overexpression

In vitro co-cultures were established to study the influence of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}} /$ selectin $^{\text {ligand overexpressing CRC }}$ cells interaction on moDCs. Thus, SW620 cells transfected with FUT6 overexpress sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ and E -selectin ligands compare to Mock transfected SW620 cells, as shown previously. The two cell lines were co-cultured with moDCs. The adherence of moDCs to cancer cells was significantly higher in the co-cultures with FUT6 transfected cells than Mock (Figure 4.11), suggesting a role of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ in moDCs interaction.


Figure 4.11 MoDCs adhere more to FUT6 transfected SW620 than Mock cells. MoDCs were co-cultured with SW620 cell lines and after 6 hours incubation, non-adherent moDCs were washed and the percentages of adhering moDCs to cancer cells were determined by flow cytometry using the expression of CD45 marker to differentiate moDCs from tumour cells. Data were collected for 16 independent experiments and adhering moDCs percentages were significantly higher in the cocultures with SW620FUT6 than SW620Mock cells with $p=0.0369$ (*, unpaired Student's $t$-test).

Then, we assess the maturation phenotype of the moDCs which interacted with the colon cancer cells. For this purpose, the expression patterns on moDCs of major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC-II), an antigen presenting protein, and CD86, a co-stimulatory protein, were measured by flow cytometry. The gating strategy presented in Figure 4.12A demonstrates how the moDCs and the colon cancer cells populations were distinguished. Firstly, the singlets population was selected using forward scatter height versus area, secondly, living cells selection was done using side versus forward scatter height. Thirdly, the CRC cells alone control allowed to confirm the absence of CD45 and CD86 expression which was thus used to establish the distinction between moDCs and CRC cells. The staining comparison of stimulated moDCs with LPS and unstimulated moDCs permitted to confirm that the moDCs were susceptible to maturation. Indeed, upon LPS stimulation moDCs showed higher mature profile with 2.5 and 2.2-fold change in MHC-II and CD86 expression, respectively (Figure 4.12B). Cancer cells alone and in the co-cultures did not show MHC-II or CD86 staining (data not shown). In the co-cultures, the moDCs incubated with SW620FUT6 cells presented a lower expression of MHC-II and CD86 than the moDCs incubated with SW620Mock cells (Figure 4.12B). Taken together, these results
suggest an influence of sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen/selectin ligands expression by CRC cells on immune cells maturation.


Figure 4.12 MoDCs are less mature when co-cultured with SW620FUT6 cells compared to Mock.
A. Gating strategy to differentiate tumour cells and moDCs in co-cultures, singlets selection (upper left) using forward scatter height/area, living cells selection (upper right) using side/forward scatter height, distinction of moDCs and tumour cells (lower left) using CD45/CD86 staining, and MHC-II staining histogram (lower right) with unstimulated moDCs (dashed grey lane), moDCs populations from co-culture with SW620Mock cells (dotted black lane) and SW620FUT6 cells (black lane). B. MoDCs were co-cultured with SW620 cell lines and after 6 hours incubation, non-adherent moDCs were washed and co-cultured cells were harvested to assess MHC-II and CD86 expression by flow cytometry. MFI fold changes for 16 independent experiments were determined as described in materials and methods, for both CD86 and MHC-II p<0.0001 (***) for stimulated/unstimulated moDCs, for CD86 $\mathrm{p}=0.0006\left({ }^{(* * *}\right)$ and MHC-II $\mathrm{p}<0.0001\left(^{(* * *)}\right.$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells/moDCs with SW620Mock cells.

### 4.3.2. No effect of FUT6 expression in SW620 cells to moDCs cytokines gene expression

To further investigate the role of sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen/selectin ligands expression by CRC cells on the moDCs maturation profile, the expression levels of different cytokines genes were determined. Thus, the expression of IL-16, IL-6, IL-10, IL-12B, TGF-61 and TNF $\alpha$ was analysed by RT-qPCR on extracted RNA from co-cultures after two hours of incubation (Figure 4.13). Regarding immune cells controls, moDCs stimulated by LPS expressed higher levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-16, IL-6, IL-12B (subunit of IL-12 and IL-23 cytokines) and TNF (respectively Figure 4.13A, B, D and F). Controls with tumour cells alone showed undetectable expression levels for these pro-inflammatory cytokines, however, anti-inflammatory cytokines IL-10 and TGF-81 (respectively Figure 4.13C and E) were both expressed by CRC cells and IL-10 was significantly more expressed by SW620Mock cells than SW620FUT6 cells.


Figure 4.13 Co-cultures with SW620FUT6 cell line do not affect cytokines gene expression. A - F. Values represented in mean $\pm$ SD (Standard Deviation) are the number of mRNA molecules of the gene of interest per 1000 molecules of the endogenous controls (section 3.9), left column scatter plots show gene expression for immune cells controls, middle column scatter plots show gene expression for co-cultures, left column scatter plots show gene expression for tumour cells controls, $n=16$. A. $I L-16$ expression is increased in stimulated moDCs compared to unstimulated p<0.0001 (****, Mann-Whitney test), B. IL-6 expression is increased in stimulated moDCs compared to unstimulated $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ (****, Mann-Whitney test), C. IL-10 expression is increased in SW620Mock compared SW620FUT6 $p=0.0156$ (*, unpaired Student's $t$-test), D. IL-12B expression is increased in stimulated moDCs compared to unstimulated $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ ( ${ }^{* * * *}$, Mann-Whitney test), E. TGF-81 expression, F. TNF $\alpha$ expression is increased in stimulated moDCs compared to unstimulated $p<0.0001$ (****, Mann-Whitney test). N.D.: not detectable.

Unfortunately, no differences were observed for cytokines gene expression levels in the co-cultures with CRC cells and moDCs. Thus, sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen/selectin ligands expression by tumour cells does not influence the expression of pro- or anti-inflammatory cytokines by moDCs.

### 4.3.3. MoDCs maturation profile is affected by FUT6 overexpression after stimulation

Subsequently, we evaluated the effect of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen/selectin ligands overexpressing tumour cells on the maturation profile of moDCs challenged with LPS. Therefore, LPS has been added at 6 hours of incubation to co-cultures and maturation profile of DCs and percentages of adhering moDCs were assessed after 24 hours of incubation. Unlike previous observation, no significant differences were observed in the adherence of moDCs to Mock or FUT6 transfected SW620 cells with or without LPS challenges (Figure 4.14).


Figure 4.14 MoDCs adherence in co-cultures challenged with LPS. MoDCs were co-cultured with SW620 cell lines, supplemented or not at 6 hours with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ or $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$, and after 24 hours incubation, non-adherent moDCs were washed and the percentages of adhering moDCs to cancer cells were determined by flow cytometry using the expression of CD45 marker to differentiate moDCs from tumour cells. Data were collected for 8 independent experiments and no significant difference has been observed for the adhering moDCs percentages comparing the co-cultures with SW620FUT6 and SW620Mock cells without or with 1 or $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ of LPS.

As previously, the expression patterns on moDCs of MHC-II, antigen presenting protein, and CD86, co-stimulatory protein, were measured by flow cytometry using the same gating strategy presented in Figure 4.12A. The staining comparison of stimulated moDCs with LPS, challenged with LPS 1 or 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ and unstimulated moDCs confirmed the moDCs susceptibility to maturate: for CD86 expression 40.7, 23.7 and 40.4-fold changes and for MHC-II expression 2.9, 2.4 and 2.9-fold changes were observed, respectively (Figure 4.15A and B). In addition, the comparison of LPS $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ challenged moDCs with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ challenged moDCs showed a positive correlation between the LPS-dose and the expression extent of CD86 and MHC-II ( $p<0.0001$ Figure S4. and $p=0.0009$ Figure S4.17, respectively). Cancer cells alone and in the co-cultures, challenged with 1 or $10 \mathrm{ng}_{\mathrm{g}} \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ of LPS, did not show CD86 or MHC-II staining (data not shown).

As observed with moDCs controls, the expression extent of maturation markers was LPS-dose dependant in both SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 co-cultured with moDCs (Figure S4. and for CD86 expression and Figure $\mathbf{S 4 . 1 7}$ for MHC-II expression). As shown previously at 6 hours of incubation (Figure 4.12B), the moDCs incubated with SW620FUT6 cells presented a lower expression of CD86 and MHC-II than the moDCs incubated with SW620Mock cells, also observed with LPS challenges (respectively Figure 4.15A and B). Thus, the greater resistance to maturate was incontestable when moDCs were incubated with SW620FUT6 cells, as compared with SW620Mock cells, with or without LPS. These results reinforce the influence potential of sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen/selectin ligands expression by CRC cells on immune cells maturation.


Figure 4.15 Increased resistance to maturation of moDCs when incubated with FUT6 transfected
cancer cell line. A - B. MoDCs were co-cultured with SW620 cell lines, supplemented or not at 6 hours with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ or $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$, and after 24 hours incubation, non-adherent moDCs were washed and co-cultured cells were harvested to assess MHC-II and CD86 expression by flow cytometry. MFI fold changes for 8 independent experiments were determined as described in materials and methods, A. MFI fold changes for CD86 co-stimulatory protein, $\mathrm{p}<0.0001(* * * *)$ for stimulated/unstimulated moDCs, moDCs with LPS 1ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ /unstimulated moDCs and moDCs with LPS 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} /$ unstimulated moDCs, $\mathrm{p}=0.0013\left(^{* *}\right.$ ) for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells/moDCs with SW620Mock cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0025\left(^{* *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells/moDCs with SW620Mock cells both challenged with LPS 1ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$, $\mathrm{p}=0.0033\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells/moDCs with SW620Mock cells both challenged with LPS 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$. B. MFI fold changes for MHC-II antigen presenting protein, $\mathrm{p}=0.0003$ ( $^{* * *)}$ for stimulated/unstimulated moDCs, $\mathrm{p}=0.0002$ (***) moDCs with LPS 1ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} /$ unstimulated moDCs, $\mathrm{p}<0.0001\left(^{(* * * *)}\right.$ moDCs with LPS 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} /$ unstimulated moDCs, $\mathrm{p}=0.0073$ (**) for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells/moDCs with SW620Mock cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0087$ (**) for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells/moDCs with SW620Mock cells both challenged with LPS 1ng.mL ${ }^{-1}$, $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ (****) for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells/moDCs with SW620Mock cells both challenged with LPS $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$.

### 4.4. Supplementary Data

Table S4.1 Membrane proteins N -glycans composition of SW620Mock cells identified by MS ${ }^{\mathrm{n}}$ fragmentation analysis with identified Y -and B-ion fragments. Membrane proteins N -glycans from SW620Mock cells were released, labelled, and analysed by LC-ESI-MS/MS. Mass spectrometry data were analysed using the Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 software. LC-ESI-MS/MS chromatogram analysis was performed using Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.4 and GlycoWorkbench software. Structures were identified by comparing LC, MS, and MS/MS data. Structures for N -glycans are depicted with the following notation: PROC: procainamide; blue square: N -acetylglucosamine; green circle: Mannose; yellow circle: Galactose; red triangle: Fucose; purple diamond: N -acetylneuraminic acid. Identified Y - and B -ion fragments, noted respectively in black and blue, are given in terms of the number of hexose ( H ), N -acetylhexosamine ( N ), deoxyhexose ( F ) and N -acetylneuraminic acid ( S ). Abbreviations: LC-ESI-MS/MS, liquid chromatography electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry; Hex, hexose; HexNAc, N-acetylhexosamine; Fuc, Fucose; Neu5Ac, N -acetylneuraminic acid; Cmpd, compound; n.d., not detectable.


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.1 (continued)


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.1 (continued)


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.1 (continued)


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.1 (continued)


Table S4.2 Membrane proteins N-glycans composition of SW620FUT6 cells identified by MS ${ }^{n}$ fragmentation analysis with identified $\mathbf{Y}$ - and B-ion fragments. Membrane proteins N -glycans from SW620FUT6 cells were released, labelled, and analysed by LC-ESI-MS/MS. Mass spectrometry data were analysed using the Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 software. LC-ESI-MS/MS chromatogram analysis was performed using Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.4 and GlycoWorkbench software. Structures were identified by comparing LC, MS, and MS/MS data. Structures for N -glycans are depicted with the following notation: PROC: procainamide; blue square: N -acetylglucosamine; green circle: Mannose; yellow circle: Galactose; red triangle: Fucose; purple diamond: N -acetylneuraminic acid. Identified Y - and B -ion fragments, noted respectively in black and blue, are given in terms of the number of hexose ( H ), N -acetylhexosamine ( N ), deoxyhexose ( F ) and N -acetylneuraminic acid ( S ). Abbreviations: LC-ESI-MS/MS, liquid chromatography electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry; Hex, hexose; HexNAc, N-acetylhexosamine; Fuc, Fucose; Neu5Ac, N -acetyIneuraminic acid; Cmpd, compound; n.d., not detectable.


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.2 (continued)


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.2 (continued)


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.2 (continued)


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.2 (continued)


## Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.2 (continued)


Table S4.3 57 immunoprecipitated glycoproteins with E-selectin chimera in SW620 cell lines identified by mass spectrometryt. $\boldsymbol{+}$ From SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells extracted membrane proteins, four immunoprecipitations with E-Ig chimera were performed and analysed by HPLC-MS/MS. The present list shows the glycosylated $\ddagger$ immunoprecipitated proteins with E-selectin chimera identified in SW620 cell lines. § Proteins identified are described with the number of unique peptides for each experiment and the sum of the total spectrum count from the four experiments. $\ddagger$ Protein information on glycosylation status and subcellular location were obtained from UniProtKB database. Abbreviation: MW, Molecular Weight; Exp., Experiment.

| Protein Name | Gene Name | UniProtKB entry | $\begin{gathered} \text { MW } \\ \text { (kDa) } \end{gathered}$ | Exclusive Unique Peptide Count§ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Total spectrum count (sum)§ |  | Subcellular location $\ddagger$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |
|  |  |  |  | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 |  |  |  |
| Ig gamma-3 chain C region (Fragment) | IGHG3 | $\begin{gathered} \text { P01860 } \\ \text { (IGHG3 HUMAN) } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 41 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 840 | 831 | Cell membrane, secreted |
| Keratin, type II cytoskeletal 8 | KRT8 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\mathrm{P} 05787}{(\mathrm{~K} 2 \mathrm{C} 8 \text { HUMAN) }} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 54 | 59 | 62 | 60 | 64 | 48 | 40 | 41 | 43 | 884 | 469 | Cytoplasm, nucleus |
| Golgi apparatus protein 1 | GLG1 | $\frac{\text { Q92896 }}{\text { (GSLG1 HUMAN) }}$ | 135 | 31 | 44 | 43 | 37 | 78 | 58 | 77 | 67 | 284 | 697 | Golgi apparatus membrane |
| Ig gamma-2 chain C region | IGHG2 | $\begin{gathered} \text { P01859 } \\ \text { (IGHG2 HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 36 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 600 | 551 | Cell membrane, secreted |
| Ig gamma-4 chain C region | IGHG4 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { P01861 }}{(\text { IGHG4 HUMAN) }} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 36 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 434 | 424 | Cell membrane, secreted |
| Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 18 | KRT18 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\mathrm{P} 05783}{(\text { K1C18 HUMAN })} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 48 | 46 | 49 | 43 | 51 | 30 | 29 | 21 | 22 | 485 | 145 | Nucleus |
| Galectin-3-binding protein | LGALS3BP | (LG3BP HUMAN) | 65 | 26 | 28 | 28 | 24 | 35 | 30 | 28 | 29 | 285 | 452 | Secreted, extracellular matrix |
| Serum albumin | ALB | $\begin{gathered} \text { P02768 } \\ (\text { ALBU HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 69 | 8 | 7 | 15 | 33 | 10 | 40 | 13 | 15 | 235 | 216 | Secreted |
| Vimentin | VIM | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { P08670 }}{\text { (VIME HUMAN) }} \end{gathered}$ | 54 | 32 | 32 | 24 | 28 | 31 | 15 | 19 | 25 | 162 | 110 | Cytoplasm, Cytoskeleton, Nucleus |
| Sortilin-related receptor | SORL1 | $\begin{gathered} \underline{\text { Q92673 }} \\ \text { (SORL HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 248 | 32 | 19 | 15 | 33 | 35 | 17 | 41 | 21 | 100 | 130 | Endosome, Golgi apparatus, Membrane, Secreted |
| Sulfhydryl oxidase 2 | QSOX2 | Q6ZRP7 (QSOX2 HUMAN) | 78 | 11 | 8 | 17 | 8 | 28 | 11 | 27 | 25 | 78 | 150 | Cell/nucleus membrane, secreted |
| Integrin beta 4 | ITGB4 | $\begin{gathered} \text { P16144 } \\ \text { (ITB4 HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 202 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 5 | 20 | 42 | 21 | 26 | 20 | 163 | Cell membrane |
| Neutral amino acid transporter $\mathrm{B}(0)$ | SLC1A5 | Q15758 (AAAT HUMAN) | 57 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 17 | 6 | 6 | 21 | 113 | Cell membrane |
| Heat shock protein HSP 90-beta | HSP90AB1 | $\frac{\text { P08238 }}{\text { (HS9OB HUMAN) }}$ | 83 | 34 | 37 | 15 | 17 | 39 | 9 | 18 | 21 | 110 | 92 | Cell membrane, Cytoplasm, Nucleus, Secreted |

Table S4.3 (continued)

| Protein Name | Gene <br> Name | UniProtKB entry | $\begin{aligned} & \text { MW } \\ & \text { (kDa) } \end{aligned}$ | Exclusive Unique Peptide Count§ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Total spectrum count (sum)§ |  | Subcellular location $\ddagger$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |
|  |  |  |  | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 |  |  |  |
| Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein K | HNRNPK | $\frac{\text { P61978 }}{}$ <br> (HNRPK HUMAN) | 51 | 21 | 18 | 15 | 16 | 19 | 2 | 14 | 21 | 102 | 78 | Cytoplasm, nucleus |
| Neural cell adhesion molecule L1 | L1CAM | P32004 (L1CAM HUMAN) | 140 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 31 | 20 | 30 | 27 | 0 | 118 | Plasma membrane |
| Transferrin receptor protein 1 | TFRC | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { P02786 }}{\text { (TFR1 HUMAN) }} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 85 | 13 | 18 | 8 | 2 | 24 | 32 | 12 | 13 | 35 | 98 | Cell membrane, secreted |
| 4F2 cell-surface antigen heavy chain | SLC3A2 | $\begin{gathered} \text { P08195 } \\ (4 \mathrm{~F} 2 \text { HUMAN }) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 68 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 22 | 13 | 14 | 5 | 94 | Cell membrane |
| Junction plakoglobin | JUP | P14923 (PLAK HUMAN) | 82 | 8 | 15 | 10 | 30 | 9 | 14 | 9 | 16 | 91 | 63 | Cytoskeleton |
| Integrin alpha 6 | ITGA6 | $\frac{\mathrm{P} 23229}{(\text { ITA6_HUMAN) }}$ | 127 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 31 | 12 | 10 | 0 | 91 | Plasma membrane |
| ATP synthase subunit beta, mitochondrial | ATP5F1B | $\begin{gathered} \text { P06576 } \\ \text { (ATPB HUMAN) } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 57 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 16 | 16 | 10 | 17 | 15 | 81 | 75 | Mitochondrion membrane |
| ATP synthase subunit alpha, mitochondrial | ATP5F1A | $\frac{\mathrm{P} 25705}{(\text { ATPA HUMAN) }}$ | 60 | 25 | 20 | 16 | 15 | 26 | 6 | 20 | 17 | 78 | 72 | Cell/mitochondrion membrane |
| Desmoglein-1 | DSG1 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Q02413 } \\ \text { (DSG1 HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 114 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 20 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 58 | 29 | Cell membrane |
| Receptor-type tyrosineprotein phosphatase eta | PTPRJ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Q12913 } \\ \text { (PTPRJ HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 146 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 9 | 18 | 11 | 0 | 58 | Plasma membrane |
| RNA-binding motif protein, X chromosome | RBMX | $\begin{gathered} \text { P38159 } \\ \text { (RBMX_HUMAN) } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 42 | 7 | 29 | 5 | 12 | 9 | 8 | 3 | 3 | 48 | 22 | Nucleus |
| Alpha-1,6-mannosylglycoprotein 6-beta-N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase A | MGAT5 | Q09328 <br> (MGT5A HUMAN) | 85 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 14 | 11 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 42 | Golgi apparatus membrane/secreted |
| DnaJ homolog subfamily C member 10 | DNAJC10 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Q81XB1 } \\ \text { (DJC10 HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 91 | 10 | 14 | 10 | 10 | 9 | 2 | 12 | 14 | 40 | 33 | Endoplasmic reticulum lumen |
| Dipeptidase 1 | DPEP1 | P16444 (DPEP1 HUMAN) | 46 | 10 | 9 | 5 | 6 | 8 | 2 | 6 | 7 | 40 | 27 | Cell membrane |
| Integrin beta-1 | ITGB1 | $\begin{gathered} \text { P05556 } \\ \text { (ITB1 HUMAN) } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 88 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 11 | 7 | 5 | 0 | 39 | Plasma membrane, recycling endosome |
| UPF0378 protein KIAA0100 | KIAA0100 | $\begin{gathered} \underline{Q 14667} \\ (\text { K0100 HUMAN }) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 254 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 38 | 38 | Secreted |

Table S4.3 (continued)

| Protein Name | Gene <br> Name | UniProtKB entry | $\begin{gathered} \text { MW } \\ \text { (kDa) } \end{gathered}$ | Exclusive Unique Peptide Count§ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Total spectrum count (sum)§ |  | Subcellular location $\ddagger$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |
|  |  |  |  | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 |  |  |  |
| Cation-independent mannose-6-phosphate receptor | IGF2R | $\frac{\text { P11717 }}{\text { (MPRI HUMAN) }}$ | 274 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 3 | 16 | 7 | 0 | 39 | Lysosome membrane |
| N -acetylglucosamine-1phosphotransferase subunits alpha/beta | GNPTAB | $\frac{\text { Q3T906 }}{\text { (GNPTA HUMAN) }}$ | 144 | 12 | 8 | 6 | 10 | 5 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 31 | 12 | Golgi apparatus membrane |
| Polypeptide N -acetylgalactosaminyltransferase 5 | GALNT5 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Q7Z7M9 } \\ \text { (GALT5 HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 106 | 9 | 8 | 6 | 9 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 8 | 29 | 22 | Golgi apparatus membrane |
| ATP-binding cassette subfamily D member 3 | ABCD3 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\mathrm{P} 28288}{(\mathrm{ABCD} 3 \mathrm{HUMAN})} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 75 | 9 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 14 | 12 | 1 | 2 | 12 | 28 | Peroxisome membrane |
| Endoplasmin | HSP90B1 | P14625 (ENPL HUMAN) | 92 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 5 | 8 | 10 | 28 | Endoplasmic reticulum lumen |
| Lysosome-associated membrane glycoprotein 1 | LAMP1 | P11279 (LAMP1 HUMAN) | 45 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 28 | Lysosome/endosome/cell membrane |
| Receptor-type tyrosineprotein phosphatase alpha | PTPRA | P18433 (PTPRA HUMAN) | 91 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 22 | Membrane |
| Leucyl-cystinyl aminopeptidase | LNPEP | Q9UIQ6 (LCAP_HUMAN) | 117 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 9 | 6 | 5 | 0 | 22 | Plasma membrane/secreted |
| HLA class I histocompatibility antigen, A-23 alpha chain | HLA-A | $\begin{gathered} \text { P30447 } \\ (1 \mathrm{~A} 23 \text { HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 41 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 7 | 21 | Membrane |
| Prolactin-inducible protein | PIP | P12273 (PIP HUMAN) | 17 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 17 | 18 | Secreted |
| Syndecan-1 | SDC1 | $\frac{\mathrm{P} 18827}{(\mathrm{SDC1} \text { HUMAN) }}$ | 32 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 18 | Secreted, exosome, membrane |
| DNA replication licensing factor MCM7 | MCM7 | $\frac{\text { P33993 }}{(\text { MCM } 7 \text { HUMAN })}$ | 81 | 6 | 8 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 17 | 4 | Nucleus |
| Keratinocyte-associated transmembrane protein 2 | KCT2 | $\begin{gathered} \underline{\text { Q8NC54 }} \\ \left(\text { KCT2 HUMAN }^{2}\right. \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 29 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 15 | 3 | Membrane |
| Podocalyxin | PODXL | $\frac{000592}{(\text { PODXL HUMAN })}$ | 59 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 13 | Cell membrane |
| Ig gamma-1 chain C region | IGHA1 | $\begin{gathered} \text { P01876 } \\ \text { (IGHA1 HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 38 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 13 | Cell membrane, secreted |

Chapter 4 - Results

Table S4.3 (continued)

| Protein Name | Gene Name | UniProtKB entry | $\begin{gathered} \text { MW } \\ \text { (kDa) } \end{gathered}$ | Exclusive Unique Peptide Count§ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Total spectrum count (sum)§ |  | Subcellular location $\ddagger$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |  |  | E-selectin ligand from SW620Mock | E-selectin ligand from SW620FUT6 |  |
|  |  |  |  | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 | Exp. 1 | Exp. 2 | Exp. 3 | Exp. 4 |  |  |  |
| Carboxypeptidase D | CPD | $\begin{gathered} \frac{075976}{(C B P D ~ H U M A N)} \end{gathered}$ | 153 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 13 | Plasma membrane |
| Leukosialin | SPN | $\stackrel{\text { P16150 }}{\text { (LEUK HUMAN) }}$ | 40 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 12 | Membrane, nucleus |
| Lysosome-associated membrane glycoprotein 2 | LAMP2 | $\stackrel{\text { P13473 }}{\text { (LAMP2 HUMAN) }}$ | 45 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 12 | Lysosome/endosome/plasm a membrane |
| Serpin H1 | SERPINH1 | P50454 (SERPH HUMAN) | 46 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 6 | Endoplasmic reticulum lumen |
| Cathepsin D | CTSD | $\begin{gathered} \text { P07339 } \\ \text { (CATD HUMAN) } \end{gathered}$ | 45 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 0 | Lysosome, secreted |
| CD109 antigen | CD109 | $\frac{\text { Q6YHK3 }}{\text { (CD109_HUMAN) }}$ | 162 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 8 | Plasma membrane |
| Zinc-alpha-2-glycoprotein | AZGP1 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { P25311 }}{\text { (ZA2G_HUMAN) }} \end{gathered}$ | 34 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 7 | 7 | Secreted |
| Golgi membrane protein 1 | GOLM1 | Q8NBJ4 <br> (GOLM1 HUMAN) | 45 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 7 | Golgi apparatus membrane |
| Procollagen-lysine,2oxoglutarate 5dioxygenase 3 | PLOD3 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{060568}{(P L O D 3 ~ H U M A N)} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 85 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 5 | ER lumen/membrane, RER, Secreted |
| Heparan sulphate 2-0sulfotransferase 1 | HS2ST1 | $\begin{gathered} \underline{\text { Q7LGA3 }} \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} \text { HS2ST HUMAN } \end{array}\right. \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 42 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | Golgi apparatus membrane |
| Plexin-D1 | PLXND1 | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { Q9Y4D7 }}{(\text { PLXD1 HUMAN) }} \end{gathered}$ | 212 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 4 | Plasma membrane |
| Zymogen granule protein 16 homolog B | ZG16B | $\begin{gathered} \frac{\text { Q96DAO }}{\text { (ZG16B HUMAN) }} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 23 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 4 | Secreted |

Table S4.4 N-glycans composition of L1CAM monoclonal antibody identified by MS ${ }^{n}$ fragmentation analysis with identified Y - and B -ion fragments. N -glycans from L1CAM mAb were released, labelled, and analysed by LC-ESI-MS/MS. Mass spectrometry data were analysed using the Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 software. LC-ESI-MS/MS chromatogram analysis was performed using Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.4 and GlycoWorkbench software. Structures were identified by comparing LC, MS, and MS/MS data. Structures for N-glycans are depicted with the following notation: PROC: procainamide; blue square: N -acetylglucosamine; green circle: Mannose; yellow circle: Galactose; red triangle: Fucose; purple diamond: N -acetylneuraminic acid; white diamond: N -glycolylneuraminic acid. Identified Y - and B -ion fragments, noted respectively in black and blue, are given in terms of the number of hexose ( H ), N -acetylhexosamine ( N ), deoxyhexose ( F ), N -acetylneuraminic acid ( S ) and N -glycolylneuraminic acid (G). Abbreviations: LC-ESI-MS/MS, liquid chromatography electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry; Hex, hexose; HexNAc, N-acetylhexosamine; Fuc, Fucose; Neu5Ac, N -acetylneuraminic acid; Neu5Gc, N -glycolylneuraminic acid; Cmpd, compound; n.d., not detectable.


Table S4.4 (continued)



Table S4.5 N-glycans composition of immunoprecipitated L1CAM from SW620 membrane proteins identified by MS ${ }^{n}$ fragmentation analysis with identified Y- and B-ion fragments. N-glycans from IP L1CAM were released, labelled, and analysed by LC-ESI-MS/MS. Mass spectrometry data were analysed using the Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 software. LC-ESI-MS/MS chromatogram analysis was performed using Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.4 and GlycoWorkbench software. Structures were identified by comparing LC, MS, and MS/MS data. Structures for N -glycans are depicted with the following notation: PROC: procainamide; blue square: N -acetylglucosamine; green circle: Mannose; yellow circle: Galactose; red triangle: Fucose; purple diamond: N -acetylneuraminic acid; white diamond: N -glycolylneuraminic acid. Identified Y - and $B$-ion fragments, noted respectively in black and blue, are given in terms of the number of hexose (H), N-acetylhexosamine (N), deoxyhexose (F), N -acetylneuraminic acid (S) and N-glycolylneuraminic acid (G). Abbreviations: LC-ESI-MS/MS, liquid chromatography electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry; Hex, hexose; HexNAc, N -acetylhexosamine; Fuc, Fucose; Neu5Ac, N-acetyIneuraminic acid; Neu5Gc, N-glycolylneuraminic acid; Cmpd, compound; n.d., not detectable.


Table S4.5 (continued)



Table S4.5 (continued)



## CD86



Figure S4.16 CD86 expression by moDCs increases with the supplementation of LPS in a dose-dependent manner. MoDCs were co-cultured with SW620 cell lines, supplemented or not at 6 hours with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ or $10 \mathrm{ng} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$, and after 24 hours incubation, non-adherent moDCs were washed and cocultured cells were harvested to assess CD86 expression by flow cytometry. MFI fold changes of CD86 expression by moDCs for 8 independent experiments were determined as described in materials and methods, $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ (****) for moDCs with LPS 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1}, \mathrm{p}=0.0001\left(^{* * *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620Mock cells challenged with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620Mock cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0001$ (***) for moDCs with SW620Mock $^{*}$ cells challenged with LPS 10ng.mL ${ }^{-1} /$ moDCs with SW620Mock cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0002\left({ }^{* * *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620Mock cells challenged with LPS $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620Mock cells challenged with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}, \mathrm{p}=0.0019\left(^{* *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS 1ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620FUT6 cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0002\left({ }^{* * *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620FUT6 cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0067(* *)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS 1ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$.

## MHC-II



Figure S4.17 MHC-II expression by moDCs increases with the supplementation of LPS in a dose-dependent manner. MoDCs were co-cultured with SW620 cell lines, supplemented or not at 6 hours with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$ or $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$, and after 24 hours incubation, non-adherent moDCs were washed and cocultured cells were harvested to assess MHC-II expression by flow cytometry. MFI fold changes of MHC-II expression by moDCs for 8 independent experiments were determined as described in materials and methods, $\mathrm{p}=0.0009\left(^{* * *}\right)$ for moDCs with LPS $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}, \mathrm{p}=0.003$ (**) for moDCs with SW620Mock cells challenged with LPS 1 ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620Mock cells, $\mathrm{p}<0.0001$ ( ${ }^{* * * *}$ ) for moDCs with SW620Mock cells challenged with LPS $10 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620Mock cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0002\left({ }^{* * *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620Mock cells challenged with LPS $10 \mathrm{ng} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620Mock cells challenged with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$, $\mathrm{p}=0.0002\left({ }^{* * *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620FUT6 cells, $\mathrm{p}<0.0001\left(^{* * * *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS $10 \mathrm{ng} \cdot \mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620FUT6 cells, $\mathrm{p}=0.0002\left({ }^{* * *}\right)$ for moDCs with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS 10ng. $\mathrm{mL}^{-1} / \mathrm{moDCs}$ with SW620FUT6 cells challenged with LPS $1 \mathrm{ng} . \mathrm{mL}^{-1}$.

Chapter 5 - Discussion

The importance of proteins and lipids modification by glycosylation is dramatically highlighted by genetic defects of this process observed in patients with congenital disorders of glycosylation (CDG). In regard of these diseases and their heavy consequences on human health (e.g., severe psychomotor developmental delay, multiple organ malfunctions), the importance of glycosylation acquires real meaning. Glycan decoys are involved in essential biological processes from protein folding to cellular differentiation or even immune response, among others (Ohtsubo and Marth 2006). It is not surprising then that altered biological mechanisms, such as cell adhesion or signal transduction, observed in cancer development and progression can find their sources in glycosylation changes. Indeed, cell surface glycosylation is altered in cancer, aberrant glycans, truncated structures or specific increase of glycan antigens expression have been observed and contribute to cancer cell survival and spread (Drake 2015). Thus, glycosylation alterations in colorectal cancer (CRC) have been extensively studied and reviewed by Holst, Wuhrer, and Rombouts in 2015. Strong increase of sialylation and fucosylation was highlighted, leading to the high expression of sialyl Lewis $X\left(s L e^{X}\right)$ and sialyl Lewis $A\left(s L e e^{A}\right)$ antigens. These two tetrasaccharides are particularly interesting since sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens are the minimal binding determinant for the lectin family of selectins (St Hill 2011). Indeed, as an example, E-selectin is involved in cancer metastasis formation process in CRC (Köhler et al. 2010; Kobayashi et al. 2000). Engagement of circulating tumour cells (CTCs) to endothelial cell adhesion molecules is supported by E-selectin essentially, allowing tumour cells to firmly adhere on endothelium and invade a new organ, developing thus metastasis (Baldawa et al. 2017; Valastyan and Weinberg 2011).

### 5.1. Characterisation of sialyl Lewis $X$ expressing cell lines

### 5.1.1. Characterisation of colon cancer cell lines overexpressing FUT6

The sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen expression has been highlighted in CRC and correlated with tumour metastasis and aggressiveness and with poorer prognosis and higher recurrence (Fukasawa et al. 2013; Yamadera et al. 2018). Therefore, part of this thesis depicts the characterisation of two cell lines transfected with FUT6. Trinchera et al. demonstrated that FUT6 gene transfection in SW620 and HT29 cell lines increases the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ expression and the FucTs activity (Trinchera et al. 2011). Thus, the transfection of FUT6 in SW620 cell line increases the mRNA level expression, and sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ and E -selectin ligands expression increases as well as observed by the results in sections 4.1.1 and 4.2.1 with two different staining techniques, flow cytometry (Figure 4.3) and WB (Figure 4.2 and Figure 4.6). However, some discrepancies between the techniques appeared. Indeed, in the Mock transfected cell line, the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ and E-selectin ligands expression is null by WB while flow cytometry assays show expression of both. Consistently, FUT6 transfected cell line overexpresses sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ and E -selectin ligands compared to Mock cell line, as expected. The differences of expression observed between the flow cytometry and WB

Chapter 5 - Discussion
staining techniques seem due to a sensitivity difference of the mAb when used in different applications (Acharya, Quinlan, and Neumeister 2017). Surprisingly, sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen staining was found diminished by flow cytometry in FUT6 transfected cell lines compared to control. Since sLe ${ }^{A}$ and sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ biosynthesis required different chain types, and FucT-VI can act only on type 2 chains, substrate competition cannot be considered. Interestingly, FUT3 mRNA expression was significantly reduced in FUT6 transfected cells, and FucT-III is the only FucT with an $\alpha 1,4$ FucT activity, essential for sLe ${ }^{A}$ biosynthesis. Thus, the reduction of sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen expression could be attributed to the lower expression of FUT3. When the expression of a glycosyltransferase is modulated, expression of others can be affected as Guo et al. (2004) showed with the effect of GlcNAcT-V expression on fucosyltransferases, sialyltransferases and core 2 O -glycans GICNAcTs mRNA expression. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that overexpressing FUT6 can affect FUT3 expression. However, both FUT3 mRNA expression and sLe ${ }^{A}$ immunostaining were detected at extremely low levels for Mock and FUT6 transfected cell lines. These observations lead to the conclusion that the strong increase of E-selectin ligands expression in FUT6 transfected cell lines can be imputed to the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ overexpression, without an influence from sLe ${ }^{A}$ antigen expression.

Another FUT gene expression was reduced in FUT6 overexpressing cell line, FUT5. FucT-V is involved in the same antigen synthesis than FucT-VI. According to the flow cytometry and WB staining, the low level of FUT5 mRNA obviously does not affect the increase of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ and E -selectin ligands expression in FUT6 transfected cells, but it may have an impact on Le ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \Upsilon}$ antigens expression which was not evaluated.

As for SW620, transfection of FUT6 increases the mRNA level expression in HT29 colon cancer cell line and more sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens were found by WB in HT29FUT6 transfected cells rather than HT29Mock cells. Nevertheless, flow cytometry analysis presented contradictory results. Indeed, while HECA-452, i.e., $s L e^{\mathrm{X} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigen staining, and E -selectin ligands staining remained unchanged, CD15s (sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ ) and CA19-9 (sLe ${ }^{\text {A }}$ ) staining was both diminished after FUT6 transfection. Otherwise, FUT3 mRNA was not significantly affected, but as in SW620, reduction of FUT5 mRNA level was observed in FUT6 transfected cells. Taken together, these results do not explain the aberrant observation in flow cytometry. The differences observed between WB and flow cytometry staining by HECA-452 can have various origins. To begin, the materials used for the two techniques are different, total cell lysate proteins were used for WB staining. Therefore sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ carriers, in FUT6 transfected cell lines, may be cytosolic proteins or membrane proteins from organelles or plasma membrane proteins with sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{A}}$ antigens oriented towards cytosolic compartment and not extracellularly, thus FUT6 transfection increased the amount of these proteins which could not be detected by flow cytometry. Yet, this theory does not explain the flow cytometry results. Against logic, separate staining of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ and sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{A}}$ antigens showed reduction in FUT6 transfected cells, but not of E-selectin ligands and HECA-452,

Chapter 5 - Discussion
sensitivity or specificity of the mAb or recombinant Ab could be advanced to explain this discrepancy, however, without strong conviction especially since nothing similar has been observed in SW620 cell line characterisation. Therefore, the inconsistence of the results obtained from HT29FUT6 and HT29Mock cells leads to focus further experiments on SW620 cell lines.

### 5.1.2. N-glycan profiles of Mock vs. FUT6 transfected SW620 cells

To deepen the characterisation of SW620Mock and FUT6 transfected cells, the N-glycan structures of the two cell lines membrane proteins were determined by LC-ESI-MS/MS. Taking into consideration that physiological conditions are not represented in cultured established cell lines, differences with N -glycan structures expressed by tumour could be observed. Indeed, the tumour microenvironment includes many different cell types such as immune cells, or fibroblasts, tumour vascularisation, signalling molecules expression, cell-cell and cell-extracellular matrix interactions represent a dynamic system which is not reproduced in cell cultures (Nishida-Aoki and Gujral 2019). Yet, despite this lack of physiological environment conditions, CRC cell lines retain similar genetic profiles and functional characteristics to tumour tissues (Pastor et al. 2010). Moreover, Holst et al. (2016) and Chik et al. (2014) established by MS approaches N-glycan profiles for several CRC cell lines which showed minor differences with CRC tumour tissues. On SW620Mock cells N-glycan analysis, our results are consistent with previously established N-glycosylation profiling of SW620WT cell line. Indeed, similar N-glycans such as high mannose type, hybrid, and complex sialylated and/or fucosylated structures were highlighted in our analysis of SW620Mock N-glycans.

Our N-glycan profiles revealed typical pauci-/high-mannose structures identified in SW620Mock and SW620FUT6 cells, which are found elevated in other CRC cell lines and tissues (section 1.3.1). Interestingly, we observed core-fucosylated pauci- and high-mannosidic type structures in both cell lines: Man $_{2}$ GlcNAc $_{2}$ Fuc $_{1}$ (\#2), Man GlcNAc $_{2}$ Fuc $_{1}$ (\#4), Man ${ }_{4}$ GlcNAc $_{2}$ Fuc $_{1}$ (\#8), Man ${ }_{5}$ GlcNAc $_{2}$ Fuc $_{1}$ (\#17 in SW620FUT6 cells only) and Man GlcNAc $_{2}$ Fuc $_{1}$ (\#24 for SW620Mock and \#28 for SW620FUT6 cells). Such structures were reported to be up-regulated in CRC tumour tissues (Balog et al. 2012). The presence of core-fucosylated paucimannosidic type structure is likely to be due to trimmed hybrid or complex structures by lysosomal exoglycosidases. Indeed, the activity of such enzymes (e.g. $\alpha$-mannosidase, $\beta$-galactosidase, $\beta$ - N -acetyl-hexosaminidase) has been reported increased in CRC and proposed as a potential CRC biomarker for diagnosis (Świderska et al. 2014). Nevertheless, few authors reported the description of such structures in cancer and, of our knowledge, no functional role in cancer development has been studied for those. The core-fucosylated high-mannosidic type structure identified in our study contain 5- or 6-Man residues, therefore these structures can also be issued from hybrid type glycans trimmed by lysosomal exoglycosidases. The presence of these unusual

Chapter 5 - Discussion
core-fucosylated structures in CRC cell lines and tissues depicts perfectly how the glycosylation process can be disturbed in cancer cells and reinforces the importance of the field in the study of malignant tumour arise and development.

Other identified structures presented hybrid type and mono- to penta-antennae branched complex type N -glycans. Among these structures, several blood group antigens were identified in both cell lines; one structure with H antigen (SW620Mock: \#34, SW620FUT6: \#37), four structures with Le ${ }^{\mathrm{A} / \mathrm{X}}$ antigens (Mock: \#36, \#44, \#60, \#66; FUT6: \#40, \#47, \#64, \#68), three structures with sLe ${ }^{\text {A/x }}$ antigens (Mock: \#57, \#60, \#66; FUT6: \#65, \#64, \#68) and one structure with two fucoses carried on the antenna of a tri-antennae core-fucosylated N -glycan without specific identified B-ion fragments to determine the type of antigen (Mock: \#51, FUT6: \#58). These structures are typically found elevated in CRC tissues especially sialylated or non sialylated Lewis type antigens (section 1.3.5). As expected, more structures with sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen were identified in FUT6 transfected SW620 cells compare to Mock cells, no less than ten supplementary structures containing this antigen have been characterised (\#34 \#48 \#49 \#53 \#59 \#73 \#74 \#76 \#77 \#78). Thus, the N-glycan analysis showed for the first time the new structures carrying sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen in SW620 cells transfected FUT6, and the abundance of the antigen is in accordance to the different immunostaining techniques and previous report (Trinchera et al. 2011). Few other structures with different blood group and Lewis type antigens were distinguished between the SW620Mock and FUT6 cells such as one structure with type A antigen (\#27) and two structures with Le ${ }^{A / X}$ antigen (\#48 and \#50) in SW620Mock N-glycan and three structures with Le ${ }^{\text {A/X }}$ antigen (\#49 \#57 \#70) and one structure with Le ${ }^{\mathrm{B} / \mathrm{Y}}$ antigen (\#50). Nevertheless, these differences concern a small number of structure and are probably not related to FUT6 overexpression but to biological variation.

Bisecting N-GlcNAc structures have been described to be decreased in CRC tissues with higher stage and to have a preventive role in metastasis formation (D. Zhang et al. 2019; Balog et al. 2012; Khare et al. 2014; Gu et al. 2009). Despite that SW620 cell line is derived from metastatic lymph node site, we identify eight common structures with a bisecting GlcNAc for both SW620Mock and FUT6 cells. The studies of Holst et al. (2016) and Chik et al. (2014) also characterised N-glycan structures with bisecting GlcNAc in SW620WT cell line. As described in the introduction (section 1.2.1.2.3.1), bisecting GlcNAc addition is mediated by the enzyme GIcNAcT-III, the expression of the gene MGAT3, encoding this glycosyltransferase, was found at very low level by Holst et al. (2016). Thus, they hypothesised that the N -glycan structures potentially carrying a bisecting GlcNAc were more susceptible to have a HexNAc located in terminal position of the antenna. In contrast Chik et al. (2014) study, where the mRNA level of MGAT3 was also evaluated in SW620WT cells, affirmed that the MGAT3 expression correlates with the amount of bisecting GlcNAc N-glycan structures. Moreover, Sethi et al. (2014) showed high levels of bisecting GlcNAc N-glycan structures together with high MGAT3 mRNA level in CRC cell line derived

Chapter 5 - Discussion
from omental metastasis. Therefore, it is not surprising to identify different bisecting GlcNAc N-glycan structures in our study.

Interestingly, when comparing N-glycan profiles of the two cell lines, SW620Mock cells presented seven additional bisected N-glycan structures against only two for SW620FUT6 cells. Furthermore, in SW620FUT6 cells, highly branched N-glycan structures with tetra- and penta-antenna were more abundant comparing to N -glycans from SW620Mock cells. Presence of bisecting GlcNAc has been shown to reduce the formation of branched N-glycan structures (Sasai et al. 2002) by preventing the action of branching GlcNAcTs, especially GlcNAcT-V. Moreover, reduced bisecting GlcNAc and increased branched N -glycans structures are typical glycosylation changes observed in CRC, correlating with tumour progression and metastasis formation. With the transfection of FUT6, SW620 cells acquires more aggressive and survival properties, with enhanced migration and immunomodulation abilities. In addition, more mono-sialylated N -glycans are observed in SW620FUT6 cells than Mock, and increase of sialylation is observed in CRC and associated with cancer progression, metastasis and poor prognosis (Sethi et al. 2014; Bresalier et al. 1996).

Taken together, FUT6 overexpression in SW620 cells has a first direct and expected consequence by elevating the amount of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen but seems also to have an indirect influence on the expression of other N -glycan structures associated with tumour progression. Consequently, manipulating the glycosylation in cell lines by overexpressing glycosyltransferase genes seems to have unpredicted impact on the total glycan expression and requires deeper characterisation of glycan structures.

### 5.1.3. FUT6 overexpression increases migration ability in SW620 cells

In this study, we showed that FUT6 transfection increases sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands expression in CRC SW620 cell line. Therefore, this model was used to better understand the role of sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands in tumour progression. In 4.1.3, we evaluated the migration capability of SW620FUT6 cells and compared it to Mock cells. Thus, SW620FUT6 cells possessed improved migration ability compared to control transfected cells. This result proves that increased sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands expression contributes to tumour cell migration. Similar observations were made in other cancer types. Indeed, FUT6 transduced prostate cancer cells showed successful conversion of CD44 to an E-selectin ligand and higher migration capability than control transduced cells (J. Li et al. 2013). Enhanced expression of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ and increased E -selectin binding lead to greater migration ability (Pérez-Garay et al. 2013). In primary invasive ductal carcinoma cell line, inhibition of fucosylation inhibited sle ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen and E -selectin ligands expression leading to lower migration capacity (Carrascal et al. 2018). Furthermore, FUT6 silencing reduced TGF- $\beta$-mediated EMT and inhibited migration in CRC cancer cells (Hirakawa et al. 2014). In summary, we found that FUT6 promotes cell
migration likely through increased expression of in CRC cells. Moreover, increased FUT6 expression is associated to similar roles in other cancer types, suggesting that FUT6, sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands are potentially promising therapeutic targets for patients with cancer.

### 5.2. Selectin ligands

In 4.2.1, we demonstrated that SW620FUT6 cell line expresses high level of E-selectin ligands using E-selectin chimera in different staining techniques. We detected the E-selectin ligands on cell surface and proteins presented high molecular weight (between 100 and 245 kDa ). To identify the E-selectin ligands of SW620FUT6 cell lines, we first isolated these proteins and then used mass spectrometry for identification (4.2.2). This allowed us to identify 13 candidates, some of them were already known Eselectin ligand such as LAMP-2. Indeed, LAMP-1 and LAMP-2 have been identified in Colo-205 cell lines as E-selectin ligands and their expression levels mediated colon cancer cells adhesion to E-selectin (Tomlinson et al. 2000; Sawada, Lowe, and Fukuda 1993). Among the identified potential E-selectin ligands, we found integrins $\alpha-6$ and $\beta-1$ which form the very late antigen 6 (VLA- 6 ), receptor for laminin involved in leukocyte binding under physiological shear flow condition (Kitayama et al. 2000). In CRC cells, the two integrins are targeted by the microRNA miR-30e-5p, which expression is regulated by the tumour suppressor P53, modulating tumour cell adhesion, migration, invasion and proliferation (Laudato et al. 2017). Another identified E-selectin ligand candidate was the receptor-type tyrosine-protein phosphatase eta (PTPRJ). Different studies reported a role of PTPRJ gene due to the loss of heterozygosity of this tumour suppressor gene early in colon neoplasia (X.-F. Zhang et al. 2017; Luo et al. 2006; Ruivenkamp et al. 2003). Nevertheless, the staining of PTPRJ in SW620FUT6 failed in flow cytometry so we decided to not investigate further this protein (4.2.3).

We also demonstrated that the neural cell adhesion molecule L1 (L1CAM) is an E-selectin ligand in colon cancer cells, when carrying the tetrasaccharide determinant sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen (4.2.4). L1CAM has been first identified in rat and was called NGF (Nerve Growth Factor)-inducible large external glycoprotein (McGuire, Greene, and Furano 1978). Subsequently, the human L1CAM was identify, showing similarity to mouse, rat and chick homologs (Wolff et al. 1988). L1CAM is a type 1 membrane glycoprotein belonging to the immunoglobulin superfamily, composed of six immunoglobulin-like domains and five fibronectin type III domains, and owning 21 potential N -glycosylation sites found on the extracellular portion. The protein is heavily glycosylated and migrates at $\sim 220 \mathrm{kDa}$ in SDS-PAGE. Mainly found in the nervous system, L1CAM is involved in several processes such as neuronal migration, neurite fasciculation, synaptic plasticity, and its mutations cause severe neurological disorders (Schultheis, Diestel, and Schmitz 2007; Yamasaki, Thompson, and Lemmon 1997; Bateman et al. 1996). Surprisingly, L1CAM expression has been highlighted in several types of cancer. Indeed,
its expression correlates with aggressiveness of tumour and metastasis in endometrial adenocarcinoma (Klat et al. 2019), in breast cancer (J. Zhang et al. 2015), in non-small cell lung cancer (X. Liu et al. 2019) and in melanoma (Ernst et al. 2018), with reduce overall survival in oesophageal squamous cell carcinoma (J.-C. Guo et al. 2017), with nerve invasion of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (Na'ara, Amit, and Gil 2019) and with chemoresistance in clear cell renal cell carcinoma (Doberstein et al. 2011) among others. Besides, chimeric antigen receptor (CAR)-T cell based immunotherapy using L1CAM as a target has been proposed, especially for neuroblastoma which presents high expression of the L1CAM CE7 epitope (Künkele et al. 2017; Hong et al. 2014). In colorectal cancer patients, L1CAM expression has been associated with invasion, tumour progression, poor survival and metastasis (Fang et al. 2010; Boo et al. 2007; Kaifi et al. 2007). Expression of L1CAM has been highlighted at the invasive front of CRC tumours and would contribute to invasion and liver metastasis formation (Kajiwara et al. 2011; Gavert et al. 2007; 2005). Different mutations of L1CAM showed that the full-length protein enhances proliferation, cell motility and in vivo liver metastasis formation (Haase et al. 2017).

So, E-selectin ligands expression is directly involved in metastasis development as it is showed in Brodt et al. (1997) study, modulation of E-selectin expression in the liver promotes metastasis formation in vivo. On the other hand, L1CAM expression in CRC is also linked to metastasis, by immunohistochemistry staining it has been shown that L1CAM expression is associated with lymph node and bone marrow metastasis (Kaifi et al. 2007). Furthermore, blocking L1CAM decreases adherence and migration of tumour cells from colon adenocarcinoma to nervous system showing involvement of L1CAM in perineural invasion in CRC (Duchalais et al. 2018). In our study, we showed an increase of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ leading to high E-selectin ligands expression and, curiously, resulting in increased L1CAM in SW620FUT6. The role of L1CAM in CRC has been studied before but not as an E-selectin ligand. L1CAM is also expressed on leukocytes (Ebeling et al. 1996) and endothelial cells (Magrini et al. 2014). L1CAM can interact in homophilic binding but also heterophilic binding with integrins (Hall et al. 2004). Nevertheless, even if interaction with E-selectin has never been demonstrate so far, our findings show that being an E-selectin ligand can also contribute to metastasis and invasion role of L1CAM via improvement of endothelial cell interaction with CTCs. Another study reported a link between L1CAM expression and glycosylation, L1CAM overexpression improved cell migration in Chinese hamster ovary ( CHO ) cells through increase of cell surface sialylation and fucosylation (G. Shi et al. 2017).

In the scope of gathering more information on the glycosylation status of L1CAM, the protein was immunoprecipitated (IP) from membrane proteins of SW620FUT6 cells, N -glycans were released and analysed by LC-ESI-MS/MS (4.2.5). The use of mAb for the immunoprecipitation introduced a source

Chapter 5 - Discussion
of contamination, therefore, identified N -glycan structures from L1CAM mAb were excluded to those identified in IP L1CAM. Among the identified N-glycans, pauci-/high-mannosidic and complex type structures were characterised. Complex structures presented multi-sialylated di-/tri-antenna with or without core-fucose. Regrettably, N -glycan structures did not present sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ structure, however, the antigen can also be present on O-glycan, which is, according to the previous several evidence, the most probable assumption.

Thus, this work provides new insight on the L1CAM involvement in colon cancer metastasis mediated by glycan-specific interaction with E-selectin. Thus, with the new role of L1CAM as E-selectin ligand, it is getting more interesting to use this glycoprotein as a therapeutic target in CRC.

### 5.3. Immunomodulation

Since the 1980's, the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen has been studied in human carcinomas due to its expression in serum and tumour tissue of patients with cancer. Therefore, $s L e^{X}$ was reported as a tumour-associated carbohydrate antigen and its expression was found significantly correlated with tumour stage, invasion and recurrence, metastasis formation, and overall survival in diverse cancer types such as CRC, lung cancer, gastric cancer, breast cancer, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, or oesophageal squamous cell carcinoma (Liang, Liang, and Gao 2016). In CRC cancer, sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen expression is a valuable prognostic factor and has been associated with liver metastasis recurrence (Yamadera et al. 2018). Well known to be the ligand of selectin family, the role of sLe ${ }^{x}$ antigen in cancer has been studied regarding its capability to interact with endothelial cells through E-selectin binding. Many studies describe the inhibition of metastasis formation by targeting E-selectin ligands expression. However, potential relationship between sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ expression and anti-tumour immune responses has been less investigated, while immune cells express wide range of lectins including L-selectin which also has sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ as ligand. Knowing this, it is conceivable that sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen, in addition to its role in metastasis and invasion, could as well influence immunologically tumour microenvironment by interacting with infiltrated immune cells, affecting pro-/anti-inflammatory molecules expression, contributing to immune evasion.

In section 4.3, we addressed the influence of $s L e^{x}$ antigen in the immunomodulation of DCs. DCs possess crucial functions in the immune responses and have a critical role in anti-tumour immunity. Briefly, DCs can induce innate immune responses by production of cytokines such as interferon (IFN) $\alpha$ in response to pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) activation through expressed tumour cells pathogen/damage-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs/DAMPs) recognition, leading to anti-tumoral cytotoxic action of stimulated Natural Killer (NK) cells, NK-T cells, and macrophages (Banchereau et al. 2000). Adaptive immunity can also be engaged by DCs, immature DCs capture
tumour antigens delivered by the cancer cells leading to their maturation and migration to lymphatic organs where mature DCs present the antigens to lymphocytes. Successfully activated lymphocytes can therefore trigger anti-tumour immune elimination (Banchereau et al. 2000). However, cancer cells can escape immune system responses by using DCs to induce tumour antigens tolerance. In our study, SW620FUT6 CRC cells, with increased sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expression, were co-cultured with DCs derived from monocytes (moDCs), in parallel SW620Mock control cells undergo identical procedure. In response to sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen overexpressing cells, DCS showed less mature profile, translated by a reduced expression of antigen presenting MHC-II and co-stimulatory CD86 molecules, when compared to DCs maturation profile in Mock cells co-cultures. MHC-II and CD86 are essential to favourably induce T cell activation and downstream effective adaptive immune response. Therefore, the influence of the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expression is likely to induce tolerant profile of DCs by maintaining their immature status. For our knowledges, this is the first report showing immunomodulation feature of DCs by sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expressing cancer cells. Another aspect of DCs maturation was evaluated, the expression of cytokines genes. IL-16, IL-6, IL-10, IL-12B, TGF-61 and TNF $\alpha$ expression by DCs did not present differences between the co-cultures with cancer sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen overexpressing cells and the co-cultures with control cancer cells.

Following these remarkable results, our goal was to evaluate the immunosuppressive properties towards DCs of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expressing cancer cells with stimulus challenges. Thus, LPS, well-known DCs maturation inducer already used for mature DCs control evaluation, was added during the co-cultures of cancer cells with moDCs. The same lower expression of MHC-II and CD86 molecules by DCs has been measured when sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expressing CRC cells were in contact with moDCs, compared to Mock control CRC cells and moDCs co-cultures. The persistence of the resistance to DCs maturation with two different doses of LPS maturation stimuli confirmed and reinforced the fact that sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expressing cells possessed improved immunomodulation power.

With its wide high expression in multiple cancer types, another approach can also consider sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen carriers, E-selectin ligands, as a target to develop anti-sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}} / \mathrm{E}$-selectin ligands-based therapeutics. Indeed, it is largely accepted that classic chemotherapeutic, radiotherapeutic based treatments of cancer patients are extremely aggressive and even if results are achieved the side effects are extremely difficult for patients. Targeted and personalised medicine is the future of cancer treatment and we can already see the efficiency of such approaches with successful CAR-T and TCR-T cell-based treatments (Zhao and Cao 2019). Therefore, the importance of new target discovery for cancer immunotherapy-based treatment is essential and E-selectin ligands can represent promising targets for such therapeutic approaches.

### 5.4. Conclusions

In conclusion, we studied the roles of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen and E-selectin ligands in CRC. The precise characterisation of glycoengineered CRC cells establishment gave important insights on the influence of FUT6 overexpression in CRC cells. Thus, sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen overexpressing CRC cells induced improved cell migration ability, feature contributing to tumour spread and progression. Furthermore, we showed that sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expression by CRC cells modulated maturation profile of DCs, which resulted in reducing DCs ability to activate appropriate immune response against tumour cells. Therefore, the sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen expression can contribute to the tumour immune system escape strategy. By MS-based identification technique, E -selectin ligands were identified in sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ antigen overexpressing CRC cells. Several E-selectin ligand candidates were evaluated, leading to the identification of L1CAM. This glycoprotein is elevated in many cancer types and can be considered as a promising therapeutic target. This study described LICAM as an E-selectin ligand for the first time, opening new approaches to uncover the role of L1CAM in metastasis formation and cancer progression. Overall, these findings contribute to elucidate the role of sLe ${ }^{\mathrm{X}}$ antigen and E -selectin ligands in CRC and to propose new targets for immunotherapeutic treatments.

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