Reversible Binding of Platelet-derived Growth Factor-AA, -AB, and -BB Isoforms to a Similar Site on the "Slow" and "Fast" Conformations of α_2 -Macroglobulin*

(Received for publication, October 21, 1991)

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The mechanism by which the platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)-binding protein, α_2 -macroglobulin (α_2 M), modulates PDGF bioactivity is unknown. but could involve reversible PDGF- α_2 M binding. Herein we report that >70% of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB or -AB complexed to $\alpha_2 M$ was dissociated by SDS-denaturation followed by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, *i.e.* most of the binding was noncovalent. Reduction of the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex following denaturation dissociated the cytokine from α_2 M by >90%, suggesting covalent disulfide bond formation. Approximately 50% of the growth factor was dissociated by lowering the pH from 7.5 to 4.0. ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB bound α_2 M in a time-dependent manner ($t_{1/2} = \sim 1$ h), reaching equilibrium after 4 h. The ¹²⁵I-PDGF·BB/ α_2 M complex dissociated more slowly ($t_{1/2} = \sim 2.5$ h). "Slow" and "fast" α_2 M bound nearly equal amounts of PDGF-AB or -BB. Trypsin treatment converted PDGF-BB/ α_2 M complex to the fast conformation but did not release bound ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB. All PDGF-isoforms (AA, -AB, and -BB) competed for binding with ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding to slow α_2 M and fast α_2 M-methylamine by 65–80%. Other cytokines that bind $\alpha_2 M$ (transforming growth factor- β 1 and $-\beta$ 2, tumor necrosis factor- α , basic fibroblast growth factor, interleukin- 1β , and -6) did not compete for ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding slow α_2 M, but transforming growth factor- β 1 and basic fibroblast growth factor inhibited ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding α_2 M-methylamine by 30-50%. The reversible nature of the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex could allow for targeted PDGF release near mesenchymal cells which possess PDGF receptors.

Platelet-derived growth factor $(PDGF)^1$ and PDGF-like factors secreted by smooth muscle cells (1), endothelial cells (2), monocytes (3, 4), and macrophages (4-6) are potent mitogens and chemoattractants for cells of mesenchymal origin. Numerous studies that implicate PDGF as a key mediator in the normal processes of development, tissue maintenance, and wound healing have been reviewed (7). PDGF has also been proposed as a link in the progression of diseases such as atherosclerosis (8) and pulmonary fibrosis (9, 10). Two different monomeric chains of PDGF (A and B) give rise to three possible dimers (AA, AB, BB), and these dimeric isoforms recognize dimeric cell-surface receptors composed of α and/or β chains (11). PDGF isoforms recognize their receptors according to a receptor subunit model, *i.e.* AA, AB, BB dimers bind to $\alpha\alpha$ receptors; BB, AB dimers to $\alpha\beta$; and the BB dimer to $\beta\beta$ receptors (12). The different subtypes of PDGF and receptors could allow for a fine tuning of cell responsiveness, since different cell types can vary greatly in the ratio of isoforms secreted and in the receptor composition which the target cell possesses (13). Cell responsiveness to PDGF in vitro can be further modulated by other growth factors such as TGF- β (14) and by PDGF-binding proteins (15)

The major PDGF-binding protein is α_2 -macroglobulin $(\alpha_2 M)$ and PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complexes have been isolated from plasma and from macrophage supernatants (16-19). This 725kDa protein apparently serves mutiple functions as a cytokine-binding protein (20), wide spectrum proteinase inhibitor (21-25), and immune regulator (26, 27). $\alpha_2 M$ was first described as a proteinase inhibitor and the mechanism whereby native or electrophoretically "slow" $\alpha_2 M$ covalently entraps proteinases has been extensively studied (see Ref. 25 for review). A proteinase cleaves $\alpha_2 M$ in its "bait region," and this cleavage induces a conformational change in the $\alpha_2 M$ molecule which entraps the proteinase. The conformational change makes the $\alpha_2 M$ more compact and hence has greater mobility on nondenaturing gel electrophoresis than the native or slow form of $\alpha_2 M$. The irreversible triggering of the proteinase trap is mimicked by primary amines (28), and the electrophoretically "fast" α_2 M-proteinase or α_2 M-amine complex is receptor-recognized by fibroblasts (29, 30) and macrophages (31-34). PDGF binds both slow and fast forms of α_2 M (15), and PDGF-stimulated fibroblast proliferation (15) and chemotaxis (35) are inhibited by slow $\alpha_2 M$. $\alpha_2 M$ inhibits the binding of PDGF to its cell-surface receptor and thus has been suggested to limit the amount of PDGF that is available to bind to these receptors (16). On the other hand, methylamine-modified, fast, $\alpha_2 M$ synergistically enhances the growth promoting activity of human PDGF purified from platelets (15). Thus, $\alpha_2 M$ modulates the biological activities of PDGF in vitro. It has been speculated that $\alpha_2 M$ could serve multiple functions as a PDGF-binding protein in vivo (16), including 1) modulation of PDGF biological activity as discussed above, 2) protection of PDGF against proteolytic degradation, and

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¹ The abbreviations used are: PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; α_2M , α_2 -macroglobulin; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate; TGF- β , transforming growth factor- β ; TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor- α ; IL, interleukin; FPLC, fast protein liquid chromatography; BAPNA, Nabenzoyl-DL-arginine-*p*-nitroanilide; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbant assay; BSA, bovine serum albumin; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; HEPES, 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid.

3) clearance of PDGF from the circulation.

 α_2 M also binds and modulates the biological activities of several other growth promoting cytokines, including transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) (36-42), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) (43), basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) (44), interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) (45), interleukin-6 (IL-6) (46), nerve growth factor (47) and human growth hormone (48). The biological activity of some of these cytokines is inhibited when bound to α_2 M, as is the case with TGF- β (42). Others such as IL-6 (46) and PDGF (15, 18) retain biological activity when complexed to this binding protein. While it is becoming increasingly apparent that a number of different cytokines utilize $\alpha_2 M$ as a binding protein, the sites on the $\alpha_2 M$ molecule to which these factors bind could differ. Determining whether or not these different cytokines compete for the same binding site(s) on this protein could be important in discerning the in vivo effects of $\alpha_2 M$ as a potential modulator of cvtokine activity. This is likely since many cell types (e.g. macrophages) secrete mixtures of these cytokines and $\alpha_2 M$ (49). Also, it has been suggested that these cytokines bind $\alpha_2 M$ either covalently, noncovalently, or via a mixture of covalent and noncovalent associations (see Ref. 20 for review).

PDGF has been reported to bind $\alpha_2 M$ covalently (17, 18). However, other studies suggest that at least part of the PDGF is noncovalently bound, since it can be released by 1 M acetic acid treatment (16, 19). Thus, the first objective of the present study was to establish the ratio of covalent/noncovalent binding of PDGF to $\alpha_2 M$ slow and fast forms. The issue of reversible binding is of paramount importance if one is to elucidate the mechanism(s) by which this binding protein modulates PDGF activity. Furthermore, such information may reconcile the apparent differences that currently exist in the literature regarding covalent and noncovalent associations between PDGF and $\alpha_2 M$ (16–19). Second, because only PDGF purified from platelets has been reported to bind $\alpha_2 M$, it is not known if one or all of the three different PDGF isoforms (AA, AB, BB) bind to a similar site on the α_2 M molecule. Thus, we sought to establish the competition of these isoforms for ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding to α_2 M. Third, since several other cytokines bind $\alpha_2 M$, it is of major importance to determine the possible competitive nature of these factors for PDGF binding to α_2 M. Herein, we report that the majority of PDGF binding to slow or fast $\alpha_2 M$ is reversible or noncovalent, and that all PDGF isoforms compete for a similar site on $\alpha_2 M$.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Growth Factors and $\alpha_2 M$ —Human PDGF purified from platelets, TGF- β 1, and TGF- β 2 were purchased from R & D Systems (Minneapolis, MN). PDGF-AA, -AB, and -BB isoforms, bFGF, TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 were obtained from UpState Biotechnology (Lake Placid, NY). Human $\alpha_2 M$ was purchased from Calbiochem (San Diego, CA) and bovine plasma $\alpha_2 M$ was obtained from Boehringer Mannheim.

Conversion of $\alpha_2 M$ from Slow to Fast-All $\alpha_2 M$ preparations were subjected to dialysis against 100 volumes of distilled water to precipitate fast $\alpha_2 M$, which was present to some extent in all preparations. The native $\alpha_2 M$ was tested for trypsin binding activity as described below. Slow $\alpha_2 M$ was converted to fast $\alpha_2 M$ by incubation with 25 mM methylamine (Tris-HCl, 50 mM, pH 8.0) overnight at 25 °C or by incubation with a 4:1 molar excess of trypsin or plasmin for 30 min at room temperature. Excess methylamine was removed from α_2 M-methylamine complexes by dialysis against 100 volumes of 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.2, at 4 °C. Excess trypsin or plasmin was removed from α_2 M-trypsin or α_2 M-plasmin complexes by gel filtration chromatography (Superose 6 FPLC). Fast $\alpha_2 M$ preparations were stored at 4 °C in 50 mM Tris, pH 8.2, to prevent precipitation. Slow $\alpha_2 M$ was stored at 4 °C in 20 mM sodium citrate buffer, pH 6.5. $\alpha_2 M$ preparations were tested for PDGF contamination as described previously (15)

Trypsin Binding Assay for $\alpha_2 M$ —Native $\alpha_2 M$ was tested for trypsin binding activity by a modification of a previously described method

(50). Increasing concentrations of $\alpha_2 M$ were added to 96-well microtiter plates to a final volume of 50 µl/well in 25 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4. 3 µl/well of 1 mg/ml trypsin (Sigma) was then added for 10 min to bind available native $\alpha_2 M$, followed by the addition of 6 µl/well of 1 mg/ml soybean trypsin inhibitor (Sigma), which inhibited all trypsin activity not bound to $\alpha_2 M$. After 10 min, 80 µl/well of 0.1 M Tris-HCl, 10 mM CaCl₂ buffer, pH 8.0, was added, followed immediately by 100 µl/well 3 mM Na-benzoyl-DL-argininep-nitroanilide (BAPNA) hydrochloride (Sigma). The colorimetric reaction was stopped by the addition of 10 µl of glacial acetic acid. The increase in the optical density read at 405 nm is proportional to the quantity of active trypsin (covalently trapped within $\alpha_2 M$) available to convert the BAPNA substrate to its product.

Gel Filtration Chromatography—PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complexes were routinely prepared by incubating 1 ng of human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB or human recombinant ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB with 100 μ g of $\alpha_2 M$ fast or slow form for 24 h at 37 °C. These mixtures were isolated by loading onto a gel filtration, molecular weight exclusion column (Superose 6 FPLC, Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology Inc.) equilibrated in phosphate-buffered saline, pH 7.5, operating at a flow rate of 0.5 ml/min. The column was standardized with the following molecular mass markers: aprotinin (6.5 kDa), cytochrome c (12.4 kDa), carbonic anhydrase (29 kDa), bovine serum albumin (66 kDa), β -amylase (200 kDa), apoferritin (440 kDa), thyroglobulin (669 kDa), and blue dextran (V₀). Fractions (1 ml) were counted on a γ -counter to measure radiolabeled PDGF or assayed for $\alpha_2 M$ by ELISA as described below. Protein was routinely measured by absorbance (280 nm) to ensure that identical amounts of PDGF/ $\alpha_2 M$ were loaded onto the column.

Gel Electrophoresis—Electrophoresis of the PDGF/ α_2 M mixtures in a nondenaturing (5% Tris-borate) gel was performed as described previously (51). α_2 M that was incubated with ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB or -BB as described above for gel filtration chromatography was mixed with Tris-borate buffer (10 μ g of α_2 M in 40 μ l added to 4 μ l of 10 × buffer with 10 μ l of glycerol) and electrophoresed on a native 5% gel. Native gels were either stained with Coomassie Blue and dried for autoradiography or transferred to nitrocellulose, blocked with 5% BSA for 2 h, then shaken with 1:2000 sheep anti-human α_2 M-horseradish peroxidase (Vector Laboratories) in BSA/PBS-Tween for 4 h and developed. For SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis 80 μ l (20 μ g) PDGF/ α_2 M samples were mixed with an equal volume of 10% SDS and heated to 37 °C for 1 h, and half of each resulting sample received 10% 2-mercaptoethanol. Samples were run on a 7.5% SDS gel. The gels were stained with Coomassie Blue and dried for autoradiography and γ -counting.

 $\alpha_2 M$ ELISA—We developed an enzyme immunoassay for human α_2 M using Immulon 2 Removawell flat-bottomed wells (Dynatech, Chantilly, VA) which were coated 100 μ l/well with a 1:1000 dilution of rabbit anti-a2M in PBS (DakoPatts, Santa Barbara, CA) and incubated overnight at 4 °C. The following day, the wells were washed five times with PBS containing 0.05% Tween-20 (PBST) and then 200 μ l/well of 1% BSA in PBS was added. After a 5-h incubation at 4 °C, the wells were washed five times with PBST, and 100 μ l/well of standard $\alpha_2 M$ or unknown sample diluted in 1% BSA-PBS were added and incubated overnight at 4 °C. Zero antigen controls and horseradish peroxidase-antibody blanks received only 1% BSA-PBS. The following day, the plate was washed five times with PBST and 100 μ l/well of horseradish peroxidase-conjugated, sheep anti-human $\alpha_2 M$ (Serotec, Kidlington, Oxford, United Kingdom) diluted in 1% BSA-PBS (1:5000) was added and incubated at room temperature for 5 h. After washing five times with PBST, the wells were developed for 15-30 min with the diammonium salt of 2,2'-azinobis-3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid (Sigma) containing 0.003% hydrogen peroxide. The absorbance (405 nm) was measured on a Titertek Multiskan 96-well plate reader (Flow Laboratories, Mclean, VA). Doubling dilutions of $\alpha_2 M$ (2-1000 ng/ml) were used, and the linear range of the curve was between 5-500 ng/ml.

RESULTS

Isolation of PDGF $\alpha_2 M$ Complexes by Gel Filtration Chromatography—To establish the elution profile of the PDGF. $\alpha_2 M$ complex, human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB was incubated with human $\alpha_2 M$ in Ham's F-12 buffer with HEPES, CaCl₂, and 0.25% BSA (binding buffer) at pH 7.4 and the mixture was loaded onto a Superose 6 FPLC column equilibrated in PBS at the same pH. Later experiments were designed to study the formation of this complex on the same column and the subsequent dissociation of human PDGF-AB or recombinant PDGF-BB from human or bovine $\alpha_2 M$ following a decrease in the pH of the binding buffer. A separate series of experiments addressed the formation of the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex on this column in the absence or presence of the three recombinant human PDGF isoforms or several other cytokines (TGF- β , bFGF, IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF- α) that have been reported to bind to $\alpha_2 M$. Human $\alpha_2 M$ eluted as single peak as measured by ELISA and the major peak of human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB coeluted with this immunoreactive $\alpha_2 M$ (Fig. 1).

Binding of PDGF to Slow and Fast $\alpha_2 M$ —Isolation of the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB· $\alpha_2 M$ complex by nondenaturing gel electrophoresis was performed to demonstrate the purity of slow and fast $\alpha_2 M$ preparations and to establish the amount of human plasma-derived ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB bound to these forms of $\alpha_2 M$. Both purified forms of slow human $\alpha_2 M$ and fast methylamine-modified $\alpha_2 M$ bound human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB (Fig. 24). A



FIG. 1. Binding of human slow $\alpha_2 M$ to human ¹²⁵I-PDGF purified from platelets. 100 µg of $\alpha_2 M$ was mixed with 1 ng of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB in 500 µl of binding buffer and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C prior to loading on a Superose 6 FPLC column. ¹²⁵I-PDGF (open circles) coeluted with a single peak of $\alpha_2 M$ (closed circles) that was measured by ELISA. The $\alpha_2 M$ was quantified based on a standard curve (inset) generated with the same human $\alpha_2 M$ that was present in the PDGF-AB· $\alpha_2 M$ complex. Arrows indicate molecular mass markers, *I*, blue dextran (V₀); 2, thyroglobulin (669 kDa); 3, apoferritin (440 kDa); 4, β -amylase (200 kDa); 5, BSA (66 kDa); 6, carbonic anhydrase (29 kDa); and 7, cytochrome c (12.4 kDa).



FIG. 2. Binding of methylamine-treated and untreated slow human α_2 M to human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB purified from platelets. Slow a2M was modified by methylamine as described under "Materials and Methods." ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB (1 ng) was mixed 100 μ g of human slow $\alpha_2 M$ or $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine in 500 μ l of binding buffer. 10 μ g of the 125 I-PDGF-AB/ α_2 M mixture was loaded onto a nondenaturing 5% Tris-borate gel and electrophoresed to demonstrate fast (F) α_2 Mmethylamine and slow (S) $\alpha_2 M$ migration. Complexes of ¹²⁵I·PDGF. α_2 M were transferred to nitrocellulose. Panel A, Western blot of slow $\alpha_2 M$ (lane 1) and methylamine-modified $\alpha_2 M$ (lane 2) using a rabbit anti-human α_2 M horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibody and the corresponding autoradiograph of ¹²⁵I-PDGF bound to slow a2M (lane 3) and α_2 M-methylamine (lane 4). Panel B, quantitation of bound ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB in slices of nitrocellulose from the same experiment shown in panel A as determined by γ -counting. S and F represent slow $\alpha_2 M$ (open circles) and $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine (closed circles), respectively.

quantitative analysis of the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB bound to these α_2 M forms showed that approximately equivalent amounts of PDGF bound either the fast or the slow form (Fig. 2B).

Preferential Noncovalent Binding of PDGF to $\alpha_2 M$ —To measure the extent of covalent or noncovalent binding of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB to native $\alpha_2 M$, the ¹²⁵I·PDGF-AB· $\alpha_2 M$ complex was subjected to SDS denaturation or 2-mercaptoethanol reduction prior to SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. As expected, SDS treatment dissociated the α_2 M molecule into its ~180-kDa subunits as determined by protein staining and autoradiography of ¹²⁵I- α_2 M-methylamine (Fig. 3). No ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB was initially detected by autoradiography at the molecular weight of this $\alpha_2 M$ subunit (Fig. 3A). Instead, the 125 I-PDGF-AB was detected at the molecular mass of the ~ 30 kDa PDGF dimer (SDS treatment) or the ~15-kDa PDGF monomer following reduction. However, a longer exposure of the SDS-denatured ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB·a₂M complex revealed a minor autoradiographic signal, indicating that some PDGF remained covalently bound to the $\alpha_2 M$ (Fig. 3B). The same experiments were performed with recombinant ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB. γ -Counting the intact ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex from the nondenaturing gels and the α_2 M subunits from denatured or reduced SDS gels (Fig. 4) demonstrated that 20-30% of the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB remained bound to the denatured $\alpha_2 M$ subunit and less than 10% of the 125I-PDGF-BB remained bound to the binding protein subunits after reduction (Fig. 4). Similar results were obtained for bovine ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB. α_{2} M complex.



FIG. 3. Effect of denaturation and reduction on the human ¹²⁵I·PDGF-AB·α₂M complex and ¹²⁵I-α₂M-methylamine. Human slow $\alpha_2 M$ (100 µg) was incubated with ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB (1 ng) in 500 µl of binding medium, pH 7.4, and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C and then treated with either 7.5% SDS or 10% 2-mercaptoethanol in SDS prior to electrophoresis in a 7.5% SDS gel. Panel A, Coomassie Bluestained protein of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB/ α_2 M that was denatured (lane 1) or reduced (lane 2); arrow (a) indicates $\alpha_2 M$ subunit in lane 1. Autoradiography of lane 1 shows that human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB was dissociated from the $\alpha_2 M$ subunit upon denaturation by SDS and all visible radioactivity appears at ~30 kDa (lane 3). Autoradiography of lane 2 demonstrates that reduction results in the appearance of a ~15-kDa monomer of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB (lane 5). Autoradiography of standard human ¹²⁵I-a₂M-methylamine that contained no PDGF following denaturation (lane 4) or reduction (lane 6) was useful in visualizing the subunits of $\alpha_2 M$. Panel B, overexposure of lane 1 from Fig. 3 allowed visualization of some ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB bound to the denatured $\alpha_2 M$ subunit.



FIG. 4. Quantitation of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB bound to slow and methylamine or plasmin-treated fast α_2 M under nondenaturing, denaturing, and reducing conditions. 100 μ g of human (panel A) or bovine (panel B) $\alpha_2 M$, $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine, or $\alpha_2 M$ -plasmin was incubated with 1 ng ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB in 500 μ l of binding buffer for 24 h at 37 °C, and then equivalent aliquots containing 10 μ g of α_2 M were electrophoresed in a nondenaturing (Tris-borate) gel or were pretreated with either SDS or SDS-containing 2-mercaptoethanol prior to electrophoresis in a SDS gel. The amount of PDGF-BB bound to either the intact (720 kDa) α_2 M on a nondenaturing gel (hatched bars) or bound to ~180-kDa α_2 M subunits on a denatured gel (open bars) or a reduced gel (solid bars) was measured on a γ -counter. See Fig. 3A, lanes 4 and 6 for visualization of the ¹²⁵I- α_2 M-methylamine subunits by autoradiography. The data are expressed as the percentage of α_2 M-bound radioactivity relative to the total amount of radioactivity excised from the gel (*i.e.* α_2 M-bound and free ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB).

pH-dependent Release of PDGF from $\alpha_2 M$ -Denaturation of the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex by treatment with SDS or 1 M acetic acid was shown to release the majority of PDGF bound to α_2 M, and these harsh conditions are known to dissociate the $\alpha_2 M$ molecule into its subunits. Thus, we studied the possible release of PDGF from $\alpha_2 M$ over a range of "physiological" pH (7.5-4.0) where the α_2 M molecule remains intact. Recombinant human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB incubated with bovine slow α_2 M at pH 7.5 at 37 °C for 24 h formed a high molecular weight complex that eluted on a Superose 6 FPLC column at the same position as the plasma-derived human ¹²⁵I-PDGF- α_2 M (see Fig. 1). By lowering the pH of solutions containing PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complexes with acetic acid for 1 h prior to loading onto the Superose 6 column, a pH-dependent decrease in ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB bound to bovine $\alpha_2 M$ was demonstrated (Fig. 5). The α_2 M retained its tetrameric (~725 kDa) structure across this pH range, and the amounts of $\alpha_2 M$ that eluted at this high molecular mass were equivalent as determined by protein absorbance (280 nm). The quantity of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB bound to $\alpha_2 M$, *i.e.* isolated from the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex on the gel filtration column, decreased $\sim 50\%$ as the pH was decreased from 7.5 to 4.0 (Fig. 5). At pH less than 4.0, the $\alpha_2 M$ was denatured and migrated as subunits with molecular mass >440 kDa.

Time Course of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB· α_2M Association and Dissociation—The time course of association of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB with α_2M and the subsequent dissociation of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB from the purified ¹²⁵I·PDGF-BB· α_2M complex was investigated at pH 7.4. Identical aliquots of slow α_2M (200 µg/ml) and ¹²⁵I-



FIG. 5. pH-dependent dissociation of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB from $\alpha_2 \mathbf{M}$. After bovine slow $\alpha_2 \mathbf{M}$ (100 µg) was incubated with 1 ng of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB in 500 µl of binding buffer for 24 h (37 °C, pH 7.4), the pH was lowered by titrating parallel incubations with 1 M acetic acid. After reaching the desired pH, the samples were left at 25 °C for 1 h and then loaded onto a Superose 6 FPLC and the ¹²⁵I-PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 \mathbf{M}$ complexes isolated and counted for radioactivity.



FIG. 6. Time course of association and dissociation between ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB and α_2 M. Panel A, to measure association of radiolabeled PDGF with its binding protein, slow bovine $\alpha_2 M$ (100 μg) was incubated at increasing time points (30 min to 24 h) at 37 °C in 0.5 ml of binding buffer, pH 7.4, with ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB (1 ng = \sim 26,000 cpm) prior to isolating ¹²⁵I.PDGF-BB.a₂M complex by FPLC gel filtration chromatography as described under "Materials and Methods." The amount of radioactivity bound to $\alpha_2 M$ in the 20-28-min elution zone of the gel filtration column (see Fig. 1) was pooled for each time point. At equilibrium binding (>4 h), approximately half of the radiolabeled PDGF was bound to $\alpha_2 M$ under these conditions. Panel B, dissociation of ¹²⁵I·PDGF-BB from ¹²⁵I·PDGF-BB· α_2 M complex was determined by incubating ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB with $\alpha_2 M$ for 24 h as shown in panel A, then incubating the isolated $^{125}I \cdot PDGF$ -BB $\alpha_2 M$ complex for increasing time prior to FPLC separation. Again, the 20-28 min elution zone was pooled and radioactivity quantitated by γ -counting. An equilibrium of bound to free 125 I PDGF-BB was reached by 6 h; i.e. approximately half of the PDGF dissociated by this time point.

PDGF-BB (2 ng/ml) were incubated at various time points (30 min to 24 h) at 37 °C in 0.5 ml of binding buffer prior to loading onto a Superose 6 FPLC column. The α_2 M peak zone (20–28 min) was pooled and bound ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB quantitated by γ -counting as demonstrated in Fig. 1. The association time course showed that PDGF-BB bound α_2 M with a $t_{1/2} = \sim 1$ h, and equilibrium was reached at ~4 h (Fig. 6A). Of the total amount of free ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB added to the binding buffer (1 ng = 25,000–27,000 cpm), approximately half of this radioligand bound to α_2 M (~12,000–14,000 cpm) after 24 h of incubation. Identical aliquots of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB $\cdot \alpha_2$ M complex isolated by FPLC after 24 h of incubation (the end point on Fig. 6A) were allowed to further incubate for various time points (0–24 h) at 37 °C to measure the extent of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-

BB dissociation at pH 7.4. Under these conditions, 50–60% of the bound ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB dissociated from $\alpha_2 M$ ($t_{1/2} = \sim 2.5$ h) and an equilibrium was reached by ~6 h (Fig. 6B).

PDGF Remains Bound to $\alpha_2 M$ following Proteolytic Conversion to the Fast Form—In order to determine whether or not PDGF would be released from slow $\alpha_2 M$ during the proteolytic conversion of the $\alpha_2 M$ from slow to fast by trypsin, recombinant human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB complexed to bovine slow $\alpha_2 M$ at pH 7.5 was treated with a 4:1 molar excess (trypsin/ $\alpha_2 M$) for 20 min prior to nondenaturing gel electrophoresis. Autoradiography of the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB· $\alpha_2 M$ complex before and after trypsin exposure showed that this proteolytic treatment converted the $\alpha_2 M$ to the electrophoretically fast form, but the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB remained bound to the trypsin-activated $\alpha_2 M$ (Fig. 7).

Competition of PDGF Isoforms and Other Cytokines for ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB Binding to $\alpha_2 M$ —The three different isoforms of PDGF were tested for competitive binding to α_2 M to evaluate the capacity of this binding protein to potentially modulate the activity of all of the PDGF dimers. Human recombinant ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB (2 ng/ml) and bovine $\alpha_2 M$ (200 $\mu g/ml$) were incubated in the absence or presence of an excess of nonradioactive PDGF-AA, -AB, or -BB (8 µg/ml) for 24 h at 37 °C. All three nonradioactive isoforms inhibited the majority of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding as determined by a decrease in the radioactivity associated with the slow bovine α_2 M peak on the Superose 6 FPLC column (Fig. 8). The same experiment was performed using fast, methylamine-modified, $\alpha_2 M$. Importantly, several other cytokines that have been reported to bind a2M (i.e. bFGF, IL-18, IL-6, TNF-a, TGF-81, and TGF- β 2) were tested for their ability to compete with the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB for binding to both slow and fast α_2 M. The column fractions containing the PDGF $\alpha_2 M$ complex (10-30 min elution time) were pooled and counted for radioactivity. Nonradioactive PDGF-AA, -AB, and -BB all inhibited complex formation between ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB and α_2 M or ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB and α_2 M-methylamine by 65-80% compared to control treatments that received no excess isoform (Fig. 9). IL-1 β , IL-6, bFGF, TNF- α , TGF- β 1, and TGF- β 2 each at an excess concentration (8 µg/ml) did not inhibit the binding of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB to slow $\alpha_2 M$. TGF- $\beta 1$ inhibited complex formation between ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB and α_2 M-methylamine by as much as 50%, while TGF- β 2 inhibited this interaction by only 10%. IL-6 and bFGF inhibited ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding to α_2 Mmethylamine 30–35%, while IL-1 β and TNF- α had negligible inhibitory effects on this complex formation. Bovine α_2 M and



FIG. 7. Autoradiography of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB bound to $\alpha_2 M$ before and after conversion of slow bovine $\alpha_2 M$ to the fast form by trypsin treatment. Slow $\alpha_2 M$ (100 µg) was incubated with ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB (1 ng) in 500 µl of binding buffer for 24 h at 37 °C. Slow $\alpha_2 M$ was converted to the fast form by treatment with trypsin for 20 min at 25 °C as described under "Materials and Methods." $\alpha_2 M$ -trypsin complexes were purified by Superose 6 FPLC. ¹²⁵I. PDGF-BB $\alpha_2 M$ complexes were loaded onto 5% Tris-borate (non-denaturing) gels and electrophoresed as described under "Materials and Methods."



FIG. 8. Superose 6 FPLC chromatography demonstrating competition of human recombinant PDGF-AA, -AB, and -BB dimers for ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding to slow bovine $\alpha_2 M$. ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB (1 ng) was mixed with 100 µg of $\alpha_2 M$ in 500 µl of Ham's F-12 binding buffer with HEPES, CaCl₂, and 0.25% BSA, pH 7.4, in the absence (open circles) or presence of 5 µg of nonradioactive human recombinant PDGF-AA (open triangles), -AB (closed triangles), or -BB (closed circles) for 24 h at 37 °C prior to loading chromatography in phosphate-buffered saline, pH 7.4. $\alpha_2 M$ eluted between 20–28 min (see Fig. 1 for immunoreactive profile). All three nonradioactive PDGF isoforms inhibited the formation of the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB- $\alpha_2 M$ complex by ~70% (see Fig. 5). Arrows indicate molecular mass markers: 1, blue dextran (V_0); 2, thyroglobulin (669 kDa); 3, apoferritin (440 kDa); 4, β -amylase (200 kDa); 5, BSA (66 kDa); 6, carbonic anhydrase (29 kDa); and 7, cytochrome c (12.4 kDa).



FIG. 9. Competition of the known α_2 M-binding cytokines for recombinant ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding to slow bovine a₂M and fast α_2 M-methylamine. ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB (1 ng) was mixed with 100 µg of either slow bovine $\alpha_2 M$ (hatched bars) or $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine (hatched bars) in binding buffer in the absence or presence of 5 μ g of nonradioactive cytokine. The amount of radioactivity bound to $\alpha_2 M$ in the 10-30-min elution zone of the gel filtration column (see Fig. 4) was pooled for each column run. None of the cytokines tested, other than the PDGF isoforms, competed for slow α_2 M, while bFGF, IL-6, and TGF- β 1 prevented complex formation between PDGF-BB/ α_2 M 30-50%. Inactivation of the proteinase binding capacity of the slow $\alpha_2 M$ by methylamine was measured by the trypsin binding assay described under "Materials and Methods" (inset); closed circles show that slow $\alpha_2 M$ possesses trypsin binding activity that is proportional to an increase in absorbance, while methylamine-activated $\alpha_2 M$ (open circles) does not bind trypsin.

 α_2 M-methylamine bound approximately equivalent amounts of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB on the gel filtration column, a result similar to that obtained with human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB binding to human α_2 M and α_2 M-methylamine on a nondenaturing gel (Fig. 2). Bovine α_2 M and α_2 M-methylamine were not run on a nondenaturing gel to test for differences in electrophoretic migration because, unlike human α_2 M-methylamine, bovine α_2 Mmethylamine does not migrate as a fast form in a nondenaturing gel (27). For this reason, the complete conversion of bovine $\alpha_2 M$ to $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine was determined by the inability of the methylamine-treated $\alpha_2 M$ to bind and thus inactivate trypsin (Fig. 9). Trypsin that is trapped within the $\alpha_2 M$ molecule is still able to react with small molecules such as the BAPNA reagent (50), producing a yellow product that increases in proportion to the amount of slow $\alpha_2 M$ in the reaction mixture (Fig. 9). These data demonstrated that methylamine treatment inhibited the trypsin binding capacity of bovine slow $\alpha_2 M$.

DISCUSSION

Earlier studies on plasma-derived PDGF introduced the concept that this growth factor forms covalent bonds with its binding protein, $\alpha_2 M$ (17, 18). In the process of isolating and purifying PDGF from plasma and macrophage supernatants, we and others observed that it was necessary to acidify these biological fluids in order to separate the PDGF from its higher molecular weight-binding proteins before the growth factor could be detected by immunoassay or receptor assay (16, 19). The principal PDGF-binding proteins in these fluids were identified as α -macroglobulins and they were found to inhibit the binding of PDGF to either its cell-surface receptor or anti-PDGF antibodies, presumably by masking the receptor and antibody recognition site on the growth factor (19). The observation that PDGF could be detected after acidification suggested that at least a portion of the PDGF complexed to α_{2} M was bound noncovalently. The issue of covalent versus noncovalent binding of PDGF to α_2 M is key to understanding the biological role(s) that this binding protein could serve in affecting the growth promoting activity of this cytokine. For example, $\alpha_2 M$ has been proposed as a clearance protein for PDGF released into the circulation following platelet degranulation and the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex could be cleared in the liver via $\alpha_2 M$ receptors on hepatocytes (52). In extravascular tissues, macrophages, among other cell types, produce PDGFlike molecules and $\alpha_2 M$ (19, 53, 54), and the proliferative response of fibroblasts to PDGF may be inhibited or enhanced by $\alpha_2 M$, depending on whether it is in the slow form or the fast receptor-recognized conformation (15). Thus, $\alpha_2 M$ could serve as a clearance pathway for PDGF in the circulation and in extravascular tissues, but also as a positive or negative regulator of growth factor activity. We postulated that the control of PDGF-stimulated growth by $\alpha_2 M$ likely involves the release of the growth factor from this binding protein, allowing PDGF to bind to its own receptor and trigger a mitogenic response (15). For this reason, the observation that the majority of the PDGF is bound to $\alpha_2 M$ noncovalently (Figs. 3 and 4) and the demonstration that approximately 50% this growth factor can be released from its binding protein by lowering the pH of the incubation medium from 7.5 and 4.0 (Fig. 5) or in a time-dependent manner at pH 7.4 (Fig. 6) are consistent with our hypothesis that PDGF binding to α_2 M is reversible. Such information is basic to our understanding of the mechanism(s) by which the binding protein influences cytokine activity.

Human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB and recombinant human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB both bound human or bovine slow $\alpha_2 M$, as well as fast $\alpha_2 M$ that was prepared by reaction with either methylamine, plasmin, or trypsin. All three recombinant PDGF isoforms were observed to compete for ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB binding to either $\alpha_2 M$ or $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine, suggesting that these isoforms all bind to a similar site on the $\alpha_2 M$ molecule and that conversion from the slow to fast conformation by methylamine does not alter PDGF isoform binding. Indeed, $\alpha_2 M$ and $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine that had been incubated with radiolabeled PDGF and

then isolated by nondenaturing gel electrophoresis were found to contain approximately equivalent amounts of human ¹²⁵I-PDGF-AB or human recombinant ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB. It will be of interest to determine whether or not the biological activities of PDGF-AA, -AB, and -BB are modulated by $\alpha_2 M$ in a similar manner. Interestingly, the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB remained bound to bovine $\alpha_2 M$ after the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex was treated with an excess of trypsin to convert the $\alpha_2 M$ to fast form (Fig. 7). Thus, proteinases apparently do not displace PDGF bound to $\alpha_2 M$, and these data suggest that $\alpha_2 M$ could serve to protect PDGF from proteolytic degradation. Such a role for $\alpha_2 M$ has been suggested for IL-6, which is inactivated by trypsin, but retains IL-6-like activity in the presence of trypsin when complexed to $\alpha_2 M$ (46). These observations also suggest that PDGF and IL-6 interact with α_2 M by a mechanism different from that of proteinases and primary amines.

The PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex could provide a readily obtainable source of PDGF in vivo since the growth factor can be removed under physiological conditions in vitro. Kinetic studies showed that under conditions which are similar to those found in plasma, *i.e.* high $[\alpha_2 M]$ and relatively low [PDGF], half of the PDGF bound $\alpha_2 M$ in a time-dependent manner reaching equilibrium after 4 h at 37 °C and subsequently half of this α_2 M-bound PDGF dissociated from isolated PDGF/ α_2 M complex more slowly and reached a new equilibrium after 6 h at 37 °C (Fig. 6). A calculation of the rate constants for association (k_1) and dissociation (k_2) , which must assume an excess of radioligand over receptor (or binding protein), were not performed on these kinetic data due to the low molarity of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB (6.7 × 10⁻¹¹ м) relative to α_2 M (3 × 10⁻⁷ м); *i.e.* there was likely an excess of binding sites for PDGF. Further studies using saturation binding and kinetic studies are in progress to address the relative affinities of PDGF for α_2 M versus the PDGF cell-surface receptor. The time course data shown in Fig. 6 for association of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB with α_2 M are closely similar to the time course of ¹²⁵I-bFGF binding $\alpha_2 M$ (44); *i.e.* low concentrations of both bFGF and PDGF binding to 200 μ g/ml α_2 M reached an equilibrium state at about 4 h. ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB was released rapidly from the ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex by lowering the pH over a physiological range of 7.4-4.0 (Fig. 5). Such low pH could be encountered within lysozomes following internalization of the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex via the $\alpha_2 M$ receptor. In this case, it would be of interest to learn whether or not released PDGF (which is acid stable) could then be recycled to the cell-surface and remain bioactive. Thus, it is conceivable that PDGF could be dissociated from the PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2 M$ complex by either depletion of unbound PDGF via internalization by PDGF cellsurface receptors (which would favor the release of α_2 M-bound PDGF to establish a new extracellular equilibrium) or PDGF could be released under conditions where pH is reduced.

Since several other cytokines bind to $\alpha_2 M$ we sought to establish if these growth factors compete for PDGF binding to $\alpha_2 M$. Excess concentrations of TGF- $\beta 1$, TGF- $\beta 2$, TNF- α , bFGF, IL-1 β , and IL-6 were tested for their inhibitory potency in preventing complex formation between ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB and $\alpha_2 M$ or $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine. None of these cytokines inhibited the binding of ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB to the slow form of $\alpha_2 M$ (Fig. 9). These data suggest that PDGF isoforms could bind to slow $\alpha_2 M$ unhindered in the presence of cytokine mixtures *in vivo*. In contrast, some of these cytokines competed for PDGF binding to fast $\alpha_2 M$. TGF- $\beta 1$, but not TGF- $\beta 2$, inhibited complex formation between ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB and $\alpha_2 M$ -methylamine by ~50%. While both TGF- $\beta 1$ and TGF- $\beta 2$ bind to fast $\alpha_2 M$ (42), it is conceivable that these two factors have differing affinities for $\alpha_2 M$ or bind to different sites on the α_2 M molecule. Thus, the TGF- β 1-binding site on the fast α_2 M could overlap or allosterically modulate the PDGF-binding site. Similarly, IL-6 and bFGF inhibited complex formation between ¹²⁵I-PDGF-BB and α_2 M-methylamine by ~20-30%, which could suggest some overlap or allosteric hinderance by PDGF and these cytokines binding simultaneously to fast α_2 M. TGF- β 1 has been reported to inhibit the binding of ¹²⁵IbFGF binding to α_2 M, while PDGF does not compete for this interaction (44). It is conceivable that certain α_2 M-binding cytokines, such as TGF- β 1 and bFGF, could mediate the release of PDGF from the fast form of $\alpha_2 M$, but not the slow form. Other cytokines apparently do not interfere with PDGF binding to $\alpha_2 M$. For example, TNF- α binds fast $\alpha_2 M$ -methvlamine (43) but did not inhibit the formation of the PDGF-BB- α_2 M-methylamine complex (Fig. 9). Such interactions between these cytokines and the two forms of $\alpha_2 M$ are likely to be complex and require further study.

A variety of growth-promoting cytokines, including PDGF, are likely to be involved in the processes of normal tissue maintenance and repair, and their abberant expression may well be linked to pathogenic disorders such as pulmonary fibrosis and atherogenesis that are characterized by an increase in cell proliferation and extracellular matrix production (7). A growing number of studies suggest that $\alpha_2 M$ could play a role in modulating the biological activity, clearance, and degradation of these cytokines in either the circulation or in extravascular tissues (36-48). Because α_2 M also serves as a proteinase inhibitor and since proteinases irreversibly convert α_2 M to a fast or receptor-recognized form, this adds another layer of complexity to the problem of understanding the mechanisms by which a number of cytokines interact with a common binding protein. Proteinases apparently are capable of "turning on" the modulatory effects that $\alpha_2 M$ has for some cytokines in at least two different ways: 1) cytokines such as TNF- α (43) and IL-1 β (45) preferentially bind fast $\alpha_2 M$ (42) and thus the activity of these cytokines would not be expected to be directly regulated by slow form α_2 M, and 2) PDGF binds both native and proteinase-reacted forms and $\alpha_2 M$ converted to the fast form by methylamine synergistically enhances the growth promoting activity of PDGF, while the slow form inhibits PDGF-stimulated growth (15). It is presently unclear whether or not α_2 M-proteinase complexes potentiate or inhibit the growth promoting activity of the different PDGF isoforms, and this is the subject of ongoing studies. Understanding the interactions between the network of proteinases, α_2 M, and growth factors which bind α_2 M will be fundamental to our knowledge of cytokine function in vivo.

In summary, the majority of the PDGF- α_2 M association is noncovalent and all three PDGF isoforms (-AA, -AB, and -BB) bind similarly to α_2 M. PDGF binds to slow and fast α_2 M and the slow to fast conversion by trypsin does not dissociate bound PDGF. PDGF-BB dissociates slowly from isolated PDGF $\cdot \alpha_2$ M complex ($t_{1/2} = 2-3$ h) at pH 7.4 and reaches an equilibrium state after 6 h. Furthermore, a decrease in pH from 7.4 to 4.0 causes a rapid, progressive release of PDGF from α_2 M. Because PDGF binding to α_2 M is reversible, α_2 M could release PDGF near the cell surface in close proximity to its own receptor.

Acknowledgment—We thank Dr. Arnold R. Brody at The National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, Laboratory of Pulmonary Pathobiology, for continued support.

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