

REVIEW

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$\alpha 6$ -Integrin alternative splicing: distinct cytoplasmic variants in stem cell fate specification and niche interaction

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Abstract

$\alpha 6$ -Integrin subunit (also known as CD49f) is a stemness signature that has been found on the plasma membrane of more than 30 stem cell populations. A growing body of studies have focused on the critical role of $\alpha 6$ -containing integrins ($\alpha 6\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6\beta 4$) in the regulation of stem cell properties, lineage-specific differentiation, and niche interaction. $\alpha 6$ -Integrin subunit can be alternatively spliced at the post-transcriptional level, giving rise to divergent isoforms which differ in the cytoplasmic and/or extracellular domains. The cytoplasmic domain of integrins is an important functional part of integrin-mediated signals. Structural changes in the cytoplasmic domain of $\alpha 6$ provide an efficient means for the regulation of stem cell responses to biochemical stimuli and/or biophysical cues in the stem cell niche, thus impacting stem cell fate determination. In this review, we summarize the current knowledge on the structural variants of the $\alpha 6$ -integrin subunit and spatiotemporal expression of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants in embryonic and adult stem/progenitor cells. We highlight the roles of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants in stem cell fate decision and niche interaction, and discuss the potential mechanisms involved. Understanding of the distinct functions of $\alpha 6$ splicing variants in stem cell biology may inform the rational design of novel stem cell-based therapies for a range of human diseases.

Keywords: $\alpha 6$ -Integrin, Stem cell; Stemness, Niche, Alternative splicing

Background

Integrins are transmembrane glycoproteins composed of an α and a β subunit which are linked via noncovalent bonds. Most integrin subunits including $\alpha 6$ (also known as CD49f) contain a short cytoplasmic domain. The $\alpha 6$ subunit associates with the $\beta 1$ or $\beta 4$ subunit to form $\alpha 6\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6\beta 4$ integrin heterodimers. $\alpha 6\beta 1$ is expressed on a variety of cell types and functions as a cellular receptor for matrix laminin [1]. $\alpha 6\beta 4$ is found on the basal surface of polarized epithelial cells where it is located at the hemidesmosome adhesion complex [2]. In cells expressing both $\beta 1$ and $\beta 4$, $\alpha 6$ appears to preferentially bind to $\beta 4$ [3]. Two unique regions (554–561 amino acids and 641–690 amino acids) in the extracellular domain of $\alpha 6$ are likely responsible for this preferential association [4]. To date, over 30 different stem

cell populations have been found to express $\alpha 6$ integrins on the plasma membrane [5]. Transcriptional profiling analyses from independent groups have identified *ITGA6*, the gene encoding $\alpha 6$ subunit, as a signature gene of embryonic stem cells (ESCs), neural stem cells (NSCs), and hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) [6–8]. In addition to acting as a “stemness” biomarker, there is increasing evidence that $\alpha 6$ integrins ($\alpha 6\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6\beta 4$) confer the functional characteristics of stem cells. Alternative splicing of precursor mRNA occurs with many integrin subunits, including $\alpha 6$ [4]. Alternative splicing increases the complexity of gene expression and is thought as a strategy for modifications of the function of encoded gene products. In this review, we summarize the current knowledge regarding the structural variants of the $\alpha 6$ -integrin subunit. We highlight the spatiotemporal expression of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants in embryonic and adult stem/progenitor cells, and discuss the potential roles of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants in stem cell fate determination and niche interaction.

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Structural variants of $\alpha 6$ -integrin subunit

The full-length of the human prototypic $\alpha 6$ transcript ($\alpha 6A$) consists of a 5'-untranslated region (146 nucleotides), an open reading frame (ORF; 3219 nucleotides), and a 3'-untranslated region (2264 nucleotides) (Fig. 1). The ORF encodes a putative signal peptide (23 amino acids), an extracellular domain (988 amino acids), a transmembrane region (26 amino acids), and a short cytoplasmic domain (36 amino acids) [4]. A major alternative splicing of $\alpha 6$ occurs in the coding region of the cytoplasmic domain. Deletion of 130 nucleotides in this region results in a frameshift that eliminates the original stop codon, generating an alternative splicing variant ($\alpha 6B$) that is 18 amino acids longer than $\alpha 6A$. This also results in a high number of charged amino acids (24 out of 54) in the $\alpha 6B$ isoform [9]. $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ bear no

sequence homology at the cytoplasmic domain, except a GFFKR sequence common to all α -integrin subunits at the N-terminus of the cytoplasmic domain [10] (Fig. 1). Epithelial splicing regulatory protein 1 (ESRP1) is known to promote exon skipping by binding to the consensus UGG-rich motif in either introns or exons. Mutations of the UGG motifs downstream of exon 25 in *ITGA6* abolishes ESRP1 binding to and ESRP1-dependent exon inclusion of *ITGA6* [11]. Furthermore, loss of ESRP1-mediated mRNA splicing results in deletion of exon 25 from the mature mRNA and generation of $\alpha 6B$ with an alternative cytoplasmic domain [12]. These findings suggest that ESRP1 is associated with the generation of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants. Regarding the nomenclature of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants, it should be noted that the prototypic $\alpha 6A$ is designated as integrin alpha-6 isoform B

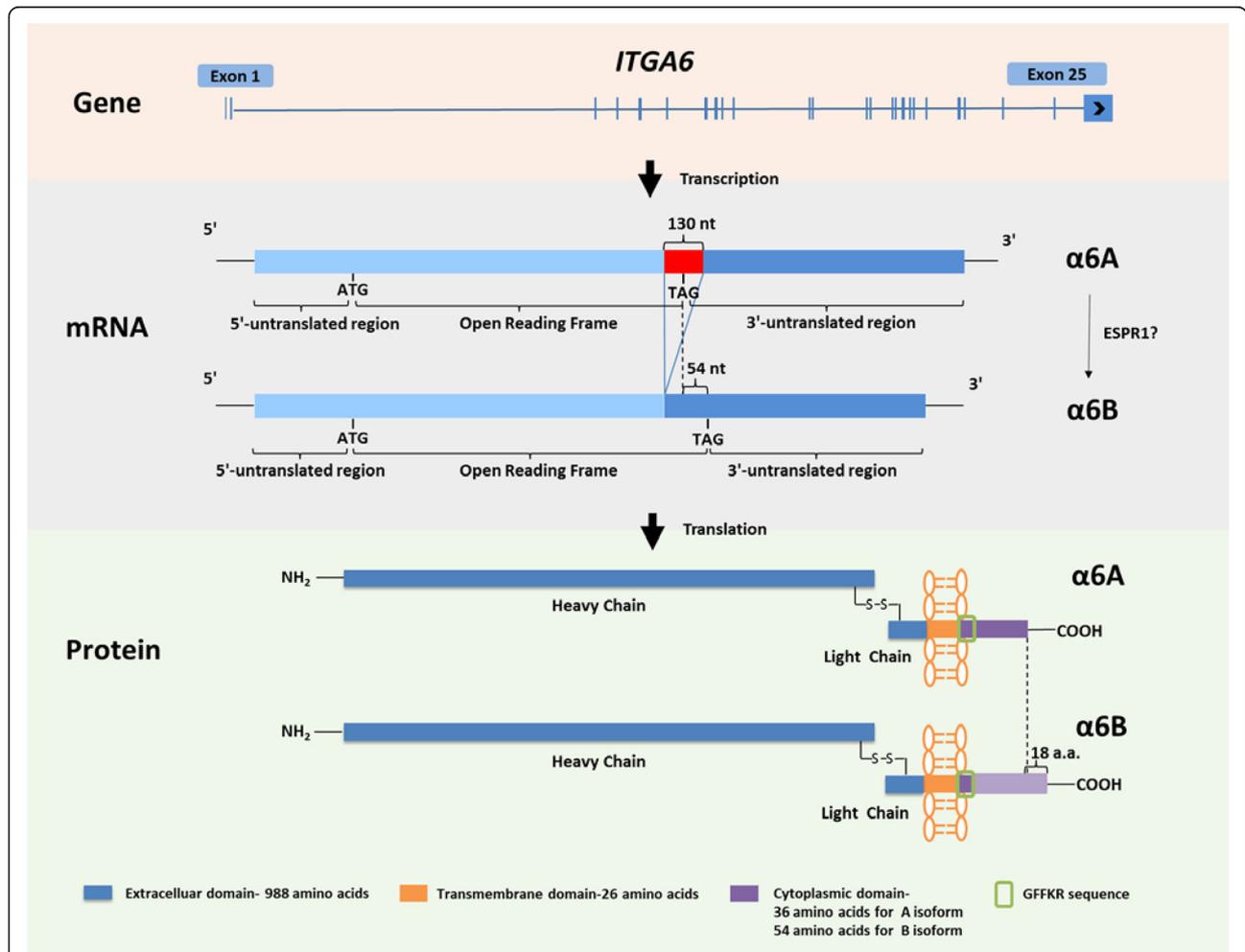


Fig. 1 Schematic depiction of *ITGA6* gene and mRNA and protein of two identified $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants. Human *ITGA6* gene contains 25 exons and is transcribed into prototypic $\alpha 6A$ pre-mRNA. Alternative splicing of $\alpha 6A$ pre-mRNA at exon 25 deletes 130 nucleotides (nt) containing the original stop codon. This deletion results in a frameshift of the downstream coding sequences and generation of a new stop codon 54 nt downstream of the original stop codon. The messenger RNAs of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ are translated into two transmembrane protein isoforms, in which $\alpha 6B$ isoform is 18 amino acids (amino acids) longer than and bears a poor homology with the $\alpha 6A$ isoform

preproprotein (NP_000201) and alternative splicing variant $\alpha 6B$ as integrin alpha-6 isoform A preproprotein (NP_001073286) in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database.

In addition to the cytoplasmic variants, it has been reported that human *ITGA6* contains alternative X1 and X2 exons [13]. Alternative splicing of exon X2 yields two extracellular domain variants, $\alpha 6X1$ and $\alpha 6X1X2$ [14]. $\alpha 6X1$ expression is relatively ubiquitous, whereas $\alpha 6X1X2$ expression is restricted to certain types of tissues and cell lines. $\alpha 6X1$ and $\alpha 6X1X2$ do not appear to differ in ligand specificity and affinity [13]. The functional role of $\alpha 6$ extracellular splice variants remains to be determined. Furthermore, a smaller form (70 kDa) of the $\alpha 6$ variant, termed $\alpha 6p$, has been identified in human prostate, colon, and epithelial cancer cell lines [15]. $\alpha 6p$ corresponds exactly to the ORF encoded by exons 13–25 of $\alpha 6A$. It contains the “stalk region” of the extracellular domain, the transmembrane region, and the cytoplasmic domain of $\alpha 6A$. Rather than alternative splicing of precursor mRNA, $\alpha 6p$ results from urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA)-mediated proteolytic cleavage of the extracellular domain of $\alpha 6A$ after it is presented on the cell surface [16]. Because of the absence of the entire β -propeller domain, $\alpha 6p$ is believed to function as an inactive receptor for cell adhesion to the extracellular ligand [15]. Additionally, the amino terminal fragments shed from $\alpha 6A$ may have a functional role as well.

$\alpha 6$ mRNA is translated into a single protein precursor which further undergoes furin endoprotease-mediated cleavage in the extracellular domain [17]. The cleavage yields a heavy chain (110 kDa) and a light chain (30 kDa) that are noncovalently linked by disulfide bonds (Fig. 1). However, an uncleaved form of $\alpha 6$ has been reported in differentiating lens fiber cells [18]. The heavy chain of $\alpha 6$ contains most of the extracellular domain, whereas the light chain contains the cytoplasmic domain, the transmembrane domain, and the remaining extracellular domain [9]. The endoproteolytic cleavage of $\alpha 6$ may provide a conformational flexibility for $\alpha 6$ to bind the ligands [19].

Spatiotemporal expression of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants in embryonic and adult stem/progenitor cells

The cytoplasmic variants of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ are differentially expressed in developing mouse embryos. $\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$ expression is present at all embryo stages and is more widespread than $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ expression [20]. $\alpha 6B$ is the only splice variant found in the developing nephrogenic system and the central and peripheral nervous systems [20], suggesting that $\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$ may play an important role in the development of nephrogenic and nervous systems. In contrast, $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ is expressed much later than

$\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$, beginning in 8.5–9.5 days post-coitum embryos, and its expression is restricted to a few organs, including the developing heart, epidermis, and dental primordia [20]. Since $\alpha 6$ is the only known α subunit that associates with $\beta 4$, areas where both $\alpha 6$ and $\beta 4$ proteins are present presumably represent the presence of $\alpha 6\beta 4$ integrins. It was found that $\beta 4$ protein was absent in early post-implantation stages, but was present in the epidermis and digestive tract of embryos 12.5 days post-coitum [20], suggesting a functional role of $\alpha 6A\beta 4$ in the development of epidermis and epithelium of the intestinal tract.

In the early post-implantation embryos, heart is the major site where $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ expression was observed [21]. Quantitative confocal microscopy shows that $\alpha 6A$ expression is increased from the outer to the inner layers of the myocardium. Substitution of $\alpha 6A$ by $\alpha 6B$ in mice does not impair the development and function of the heart [22], suggesting that $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ is not essential for the differentiation of cardiac muscles.

It has been observed that isoform switching of the predominant $\alpha 6$ from $\alpha 6B$ to $\alpha 6A$ occurs during lens cell differentiation in both chicken and rat embryos [23, 24]. In undifferentiated central lens epithelial cells, $\alpha 6B$ is most highly expressed in the equatorial epithelium, and expression of $\alpha 6B$ begins to drop as cells initiate their differentiation. In the cortical fiber zone where lens differentiation occurs, $\alpha 6A$ expression is high and predominates until cortical fiber cells became terminally differentiated [23, 24]. The isoform switching from $\alpha 6B$ to $\alpha 6A$ predominance has been confirmed in vitro in a FGF-induced rat lens fiber cell differentiation model [24]. Immunoprecipitation of biotinylated microdissected fractions of chick embryo lens has demonstrated that both $\beta 1$ and $\beta 4$ are expressed by the E10 chick embryo lens [23]. $\beta 1$ is strongly expressed in the germinative and transitional zones of rat lens, where cells proliferate and differentiate, respectively, suggesting that $\beta 1$ coupling with $\alpha 6$, presumably $\alpha 6A$, may play a role during rat lens fiber differentiation [24]. In addition, $\beta 1$, $\alpha 6A$, and $\alpha 6B$ mRNAs and proteins are distinctly localized along basolateral surfaces of rat lens fibers, particularly during early fiber differentiation below the lens equator and at the posterior pole [24]. This indicates the involvement of $\alpha 6A\beta 1$ and/or $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ integrins in cell–cell interactions, particularly attachment and migration of the apical tips of elongating fibers along the epithelial–fiber interface and fiber–fiber cell interactions.

The studies of other stem cell populations support the ratio of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants as an important indicator of whether stem cells remain undifferentiated or undergo differentiation. It has been reported that $\alpha 6B$ is predominantly expressed in undifferentiated visceral endoderm, parietal endoderm, and embryonic stem cells.

When these cells are induced to differentiate, $\alpha 6A$ expression is upregulated and predominates over $\alpha 6B$ [25–27]. In embryonic mouse kidney, $\alpha 6B$ is the major splice variant and $\alpha 6B\beta 1$ plays a role in the conversion of nephrogenic mesenchyme to epithelial tubules [28]. Fetal testis exclusively expresses $\alpha 6B$, whereas both $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ and $\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$ are expressed when differentiation is induced in pre-pubertal testes and Sertoli-spermatogenic cell co-cultures [29]. Taken together, these findings strongly suggest that the distinct $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants have differential functions in the developing embryos.

There is evidence that $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants contribute to adult stem/progenitor cell properties as well. Breast cancer stem cells (CSCs), characterized by $CD44^{\text{high}}/CD24^{\text{low}}$, consist of epithelial and mesenchymal cells. The epithelial population predominantly expresses $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$, whereas the mesenchymal population predominantly expresses $\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$ [12]. The function of breast CSCs appears to depend on the relative expression of $\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$. $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ expression is not required for breast CSC properties [12], and this study suggests that these are manifested primarily by the mesenchymal cell population which is characterized by a high ratio of $\alpha 6B/\alpha 6A$. In contrast to breast CSCs, undifferentiated human intestinal cells predominantly express $\alpha 6A(\beta 4)$, whereas $\alpha 6B(\beta 4)$ expression is mainly detected in differentiated cells. This finding suggests that a high $\alpha 6B/\alpha 6A$ ratio is permissive for enterocytic differentiation [30].

$\alpha 6$ Cytoplasmic variants in stem cell fate decision

Integrin-mediated cell–extracellular matrix (ECM) interactions transmit biochemical and mechanical signals from the ECM to the interior of cells via the cytoplasmic domains of integrins [31, 32]. The cytoplasmic domains of integrins typically interact with cytosolic adaptor proteins and/or kinases to further activate the downstream signals. In embryonic lens cells, $\alpha 6A$ interacts with adaptor protein Shc and the downstream effector Grb2 to form a complex [18]. The greatest amount of the complex is found in the differentiating cortical fiber cell zone. $\alpha 6A$ in the cortical fiber region interacts with the cytoskeleton and is associated with activation of specific cell signals for lens cell differentiation [18]. An additional study has shown that $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ and/or $\beta 4$ expression is required for acquisition of a migratory cell phenotype accompanying lens cell differentiation [23].

The cytoplasmic domain of $\alpha 6A$, specifically the 11 amino acids at the C-terminus of the $\alpha 6A$ cytoplasmic tail, inhibits proliferation and promotes terminal differentiation of primary quail myoblasts by suppression of focal adhesion kinase (FAK) and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) [33]. The findings suggest that $\alpha 6A$ cytoplasmic domain-dependent changes in focal adhesion signals regulate the withdrawal of myoblasts from

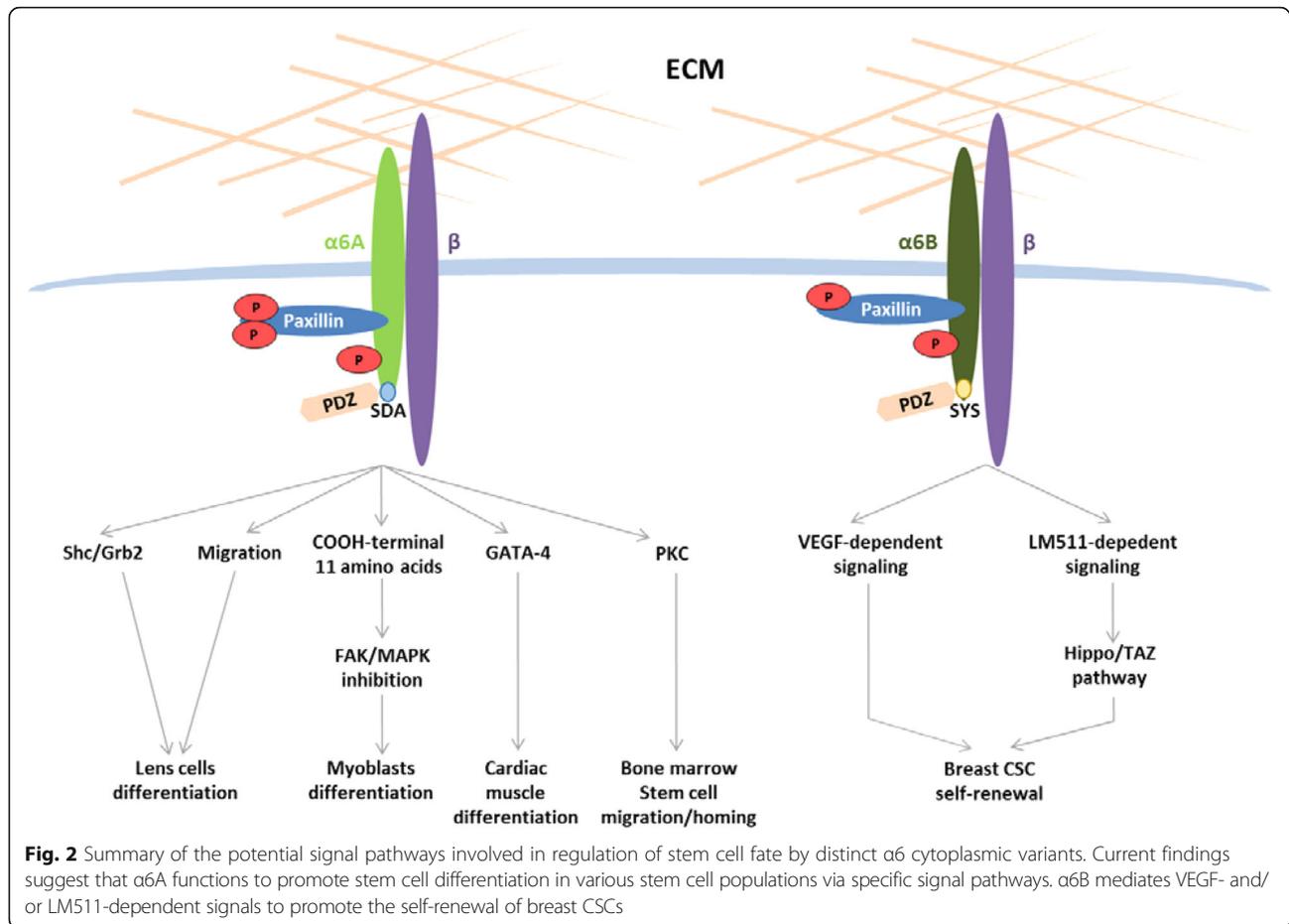
the cell cycle and initiation of terminal differentiation. GATA-4 is known to be a critical transcription factor in the development of cardiac muscles [34]. Temporal correlation of $\alpha 6A$, GATA-4, and myosin light chain-2 V (a cardiac-muscle-specific marker) has been observed during mouse embryonic stem cell differentiation [35], suggesting that $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ may be involved in activation of GATA-4 signals which in turn direct the development of cardiac muscles.

The cytoplasmic domains of both $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ contain serine, threonine, and tyrosine residues which could serve as potential phosphorylation sites. In fact, it has been shown that macrophage adhesion to laminin substrates promotes $\alpha 6$ phosphorylation in the cytoplasmic domain [36]. In addition to phosphorylation of their own residues, the cytoplasmic domains of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ also mediate differential tyrosine phosphorylation of paxillin and other signaling molecules [37]. It is predicted that altered phosphorylation of $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ cytoplasmic portions and/or $\alpha 6A/B$ -mediated differential phosphorylation of downstream signal molecules may activate distinct intracellular signals that could potentially regulate the stem cell fate propensity. PDZ domain, a structural fold in many signal molecules, recognizes the C-terminus of membrane-anchored proteins, including integrins [38]. The last three amino acids (SDA) in the cytoplasmic tail of $\alpha 6A$ are a typical PDZ-binding motif, whereas the corresponding amino acids (SYS) in the cytoplasmic tail of $\alpha 6B$ represent an alternative PDZ-binding motif. It has been reported that the SYS motif in $\alpha 6B$ is less efficient in binding to the signal molecules than the SDA motif in $\alpha 6A$ [39]. Thus, altered PDZ-binding motifs in the cytoplasmic domains of $\alpha 6A$ versus $\alpha 6B$ might mechanistically link to the stem cell fate determination. Collectively, alternative splicing of the $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic domain may mediate differential intracellular signals that direct stem cell fate decision (Fig. 2).

$\alpha 6$ -Integrin in stem cell–niche interaction

Stem cells reside in a unique microenvironment known as the stem cell “niche”. The stem cell niche typically constitutes stem cells, support cells, and the ECM [40]. The niche supports and instructs establishment and maintenance of the stem cell population [41]. Integrins, as a microenvironmental sensor, mediate interactions between stem/support cells and the surrounding ECM. The cell–ECM interactions are critical for niche morphogenesis, anchorage of stem and support cells, positioning of dividing stem cells, and controlling the balance between stem cell renewal and differentiation [42].

The ability of stem cells to reside in the niche for a long period of time is paramount for tissue homeostasis and regeneration. $\alpha 6$ -Integrin-mediated ECM adhesion is critical for anchorage and long-term maintenance of a



variety of stem cell populations in the niche. Disruption of interactions between $\alpha 6\beta 1$ and laminin in the lateral ventricle of mice by a function-blocking anti- $\alpha 6$ antibody causes the release of NSCs in the subventricular zone and activation of NSCs [43]. Studies also support that $\alpha 6(\beta 1)$ integrins play an essential role in anchoring spermatogonial stem cells [44] and hematopoietic stem cells [45], and $\alpha 6(\beta 4)$ in anchoring dermal stem cells [46] to their niches.

Mammary gland stem cells and interfollicular epidermal stem cells express higher levels of $\alpha 6$ and $\beta 1$ integrin subunits [47, 48]. In breast cancer, $\alpha 6(\beta 1)$ expression promotes self-renewal of tumor-initiating cells (TICs) and mediates transduction of cell signals essential for establishment of an autocrine loop to maintain the TIC niche [49, 50]. Ablation of $\alpha 6\beta 1$ results in random orientation of the basal cell division plane and impairs epithelial homeostasis [51]. Furthermore, laminin511 (LM511) engagement of $\alpha 6\beta 1$ supports the self-renewal of mouse ESCs, whereas internalization of $\alpha 6\beta 1$ promotes mESC differentiation towards an epithelial lineage via a FAK/Akt/Erk-dependent mechanism [52]. In contrast, LM532- $\alpha 6$ interactions direct differentiation of ventral

ectodermal ridge (VER) progenitor cells in developing mouse tails [53]. It remains to be determined whether mESC and VER progenitor cells express distinct $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants and whether this is responsible for the differential responses (self-renewal vs differentiation) of these two stem cell populations to laminin engagement of $\alpha 6$.

Currently, there is limited information for the role of $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants in the regulation of stem cell-niche interactions. $CD34^+$ and $CD34^+CD38^-$ bone marrow stem/progenitor cells express both $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ [54]. Although $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ are equally associated with the $\beta 1$ subunit and also have similar specificity and affinity for ligand binding, it was found that $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$, but not $\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$, was responsible for protein kinase C-dependent activation of MAP kinases. $\alpha 6A(\beta 1)$ was also found to be more active than $\alpha 6B(\beta 1)$ in promoting migration of bone marrow stem cells [54]. Together, these data suggest that $\alpha 6A$ may be important in migration and mobilization of hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells in the bone marrow stem cell niche during hematopoiesis. In addition, breast CSCs express a high level of LM511, which promotes the formation of a

LM511 matrix niche critical for breast CSC self-renewal and tumor initiation [55]. Laminin engagement of $\alpha 6(\beta 1)$ activates the Hippo transducer TAZ, which upregulates the transcription of the $\alpha 5$ subunit in LM511. The latter finding suggests that $\alpha 6(\beta 1)$ integrins mediate the establishment of a positive feedback loop between breast CSCs and the niche, which functions to maintain breast CSC self-renewal and cancer formation.

Conclusions

The $\alpha 6$ -integrin subunit is a common stem cell marker in diverse tissues. As a matrix adhesion molecule, $\alpha 6$ -integrins play important functional roles in the anchorage of stem cells within the niche, maintenance of stem cell stemness, regulation of stem cell differentiation, orientation of dividing stem cells, and migration and/or homing of hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells to the niche of bone marrow. Alternative splicing impacts the function of $\alpha 6$ in the regulation of the stem cell propensity and niche interaction. The spatial and temporal expression of distinct $\alpha 6$ cytoplasmic variants in both embryonic and adult stem cells suggests that $\alpha 6A$ and $\alpha 6B$ have distinct functions during embryogenesis and at the adult age. The cytoplasmic variants of the $\alpha 6$ subunit provide an excellent platform for the study of cell signals important for stem cell self-renewal and differentiation, while deregulation of these signals may underlie a wide range of human diseases. We believe that dissecting the multifaceted functions of $\alpha 6$ splice variants would inform the rational design of novel stem cell-based therapies for a range of human diseases.

Abbreviations

CSC: Cancer stem cell; ECM: Extracellular matrix; ESCs: Embryonic stem cells; ESPR1: Epithelial splicing regulatory protein 1; FAK: Focal adhesion kinase; HSCs: Hematopoietic stem cells; LM: Laminin; MAPK: Mitogen-activated protein kinase; NCB: National Center for Biotechnology Information; NSCs: Neural stem cells; ORF: Open reading frame; TICs: Tumor-initiating cells; VER: Ventral ectodermal ridge

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Authors' contributions

ZZ and YZ were responsible for conceptualization of the review article and wrote a manuscript draft. QJ, LH, HP, PC, and YZ read and revised the manuscript. YZ finalized and approved the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Consent for publication

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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