## **Chapter 4**

# Detection of Cell Surface Markers with Encoded ssDNA Reporters: Towards Global Cell Surfaceome Profiling

## 4.1 Introduction

The proteins on the surface of the cell membrane play important roles in various aspects of tumor biology. Cell surface markers are involved in cancer pathogenesis, aid in staging, and represent a large class of proteins targeted for therapy. The importance of the membrane-bound oncogenes EGFR and ERBB2 and the development of small molecule inhibitors against them have been expounded on in the previous chapters. Identification of altered or expression of cancer associated surface antigens is an area of active research. For example, the cell surface marker CD40 has been found to be expressed in many B cell malignancies and has been investigated as the possible target for anti-CD40 antibody-based cancer therapy (1). Development of methods that enable

comprehensive mapping of the cell surface proteome would provide new avenues for investigation, analogous to the effect global transcriptome expression profiling has had in providing valuable fundamental and therapeutic information for various types of cancers (2). However, there have been few documented effective strategies for high-throughput, global profiling of surface membrane proteins. One approach is to purify cellular membrane fragments by two-phase separation, but cross-contamination from cytosolic proteins is a major limitation (3). Other reports have demonstrated the feasibility of retrieving membrane fragments *in vivo* from endothelial cells using a combination of colloidal silica particles and polymers (4). Membrane proteins have also been isolated through chemical biotinylation followed by enrichment with a streptavidin column (5–7). Typically after enrichment, the membrane bound proteins are identified by the combination of 2-D gel electrophoresis and mass spectrometry. A major limitation of these studies is that the labeling strategies are non-specific and the biological samples are lysed, precluding dynamic studies.

In this chapter summarizing current work, I present an antibody-based, membrane-protein profiling approach, which uses a library of capture agents to probe membrane-bound antigens. Similar to DEAL or NACS conjugates, each capture agent is conjugated to a distinct ssDNA tag but differs in that the sequence incorporates a photo-labile base. The capture agents are allowed to bind to cell surface antigens, after which the ssDNA tags are released into solution by UV-induced cleavage, collected and detected by PCR (**Figure 4.1**). This approach is called cellular barcoding. There have been quite a few studies integrating the specificity of antibodies for antigen detection with nucleic acid readouts, including immuno-PCR (8–10), immunodetection amplified

by T7 RNA polymerase (11–12), proximity ligation (13–14), and nanoparticle assays (15). However, all these assays were used to detect single proteins in idealized solutions, and were not utilized in a high throughput, multi-parameter manner for detecting and profiling cell surface proteins.



## 4.2 Experimental Methods

### 4.2.1 DNA sequences and production of conjugates

All DNA sequences were purchased with HPLC purification from Integrated

DNA Technologies (www.idtdna.com) and are listed in Table 4.1.

 Table 4.1 Cellular barcoding DNA sequences

Name Sequence\*

 $PC^1$ 

 $5^{\prime}$  –  $\text{NH}_2$  – PC – ATC CTG GAG CTA AGT CCG TAG CCT CAT TGA ATC ATG CCT AGC ACT CGT CTA CTA TCG CTA

PC forward primer

5' – ATG GTC GAG ATG TCA GAG TAA TCC TGG AGC TAA GTC CGT A

PC reverse primer

5' – TAG ATA CTG CCA CTT CAC ATT AGC GAT AGT AGA CGA GTG C

A' 5' - NH<sub>2</sub>- AAA AAA AAA ATA CGG ACT TAG CTC CAG GAT-cy3

\* The 5' amine functional group for sequences PC and EcoRV is necessary to conjugate the oligonucleotide to SAC or antibodies.

<sup>1</sup> PC = photocleavable

Antibody-ssDNA (DEAL) conjugates were synthesized, purified and characterized according to previously published protocols (16). The HLA-A\*0201 restricted MHC class I monomers loaded with MART- $1_{26-35}$  (ELAGIGILTV) were produced in house according to previous published protocols (17). The production of p/MHC-ssDNA constructs (NACS conjugates) were according to previous published protocols (18).

#### 4.2.2 Detection of surface markers with PCR

Prior to all experiments, blocking buffer (1.5% BSA, 150  $\mu$ g/ml salmon sperm DNA in PBS) was used to block all 1.5 ml tubes and a 96-well plate for 1 hour at room temperature (RT) before rinsing 2x with PBS. The blocked tubes and plate were used immediate for experiments. One million cells (Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -MART-1</sup></sub>, Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -Tyro</sup>, or GBM1600) were transferred to 1.5 ml tubes, and resuspended in 100  $\mu$ l staining buffer (HBSS supplemented with 2.5mg/ml BSA, 10mM HEPES, 0.01% azide). The cells were blocked by adding 100  $\mu$ l of 2mg/ml salmon sperm DNA for 20 min. at 37°C before

resuspension in staining buffer. Capture agents tagged with ssDNA (Cetuximab, MART-1) were added (0.5  $\mu$ g per 10<sup>6</sup> cells) to the cell suspension for 20–25 min. at 37°C. The samples were then washed 3x with staining buffer before a final wash and resuspension in 1% BSA PBS. For UV-dependent cleavage of the ssDNA tags, 5 x 10<sup>5</sup> cells in 50  $\mu$ l were transferred to a 96-well plate on ice and exposed to long wave UV for 1 hr. The cells were pelleted and the supernatant containing the DNA codes was collected for PCR analysis.

## 4.3 Results and Discussion

#### 4.3.1 Detection of differential cell surface expression of EGFR

To illustrate the feasibility of using ssDNA-antibody conjugates to detect membrane-bound proteins by PCR, we selected two cell lines expressing differing levels of human epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR). GBM1600 cells are a low-passage cell line derived from a primary brain tumor expressing high levels of EGFR. Jurkat cells are a hematopoietic derived T cell line with null expression of EGFR. The presence or absence of EGFR expression was verified flow cytometry (**Figure 4.2A**).

We prepared anti-EGFR (Cetuximab) conjugated with photocleavable ssDNA oligonucleotide (PC) and stained GBM1600 and Jurkat cells in separate tubes with the conjugate. After removing excess Cetuximab-PC molecules, the samples were treated in a 96-well plate with UV radiation for one hour. The photo-cleaved ssDNA tags were collected, amplified by PCR and visualized on a 4% agarose gel. As shown in **Figure 4.3**, the reporter tags were detected at an earlier thermal cycle during the amplification in the GBM1600 sample than in the Jurkat sample. Quantitative assessment by Q-PCR

gave a  $\Delta$ Ct of approximately ~8.6 (**Figure 4.3b**). Under ideal experimental conditions, each thermal cycle doubles the total number of amplicons. Assuming EGFR expression directly correlates with the number of ssDNA tags released in solution, the relative difference in EGFR expression between the GBM1600 and Jurkat samples is given by  $2^{8.6}$ , which is approximately equal to 400. In reality, since most processes are non-ideal, this likely represents the upper bound. Assuming each thermal cycle increases the number of amplicons by a factor of 1.8 instead of 2 gives a relative difference of  $1.8^{8.6}$ , which is approximately equal to 160.





#### 4.3.2 Cellular barcoding limits of detection

In order to determine the minimum number of cells required for surface antigen detection, two avenues were investigated. First, GBM1600 cells were spiked into Jurkat cells to produce synthetic cellular mixtures composed of 100%, 10%, 1%, 0.1%, or 0% GBM1600 cells. The total number of cells per condition was kept constant at 10<sup>6</sup> by increasing the number of Jurkat cells. Second, GBM1600 cells were serially diluted into separate tubes, each containing either 10<sup>5</sup>, 10<sup>4</sup>, 10<sup>3</sup>, 10<sup>2</sup>, or 0 cells per tube. No Jurkat cells were added to these vials. These samples were stained using Cetuximab-PC conjugates and the results are shown in **Figure 4.5**. For the cell mixtures, GBM1600 cells at 100% and 10% were detected significantly above the baseline while mixtures 1% and 0.1% were similar in intensity to the baseline (**Figure 4.5A**). In the serial dilutions, samples containing 10<sup>4</sup> cells or more were detected above background (**Figure 4.5B**). Significant signal arose from the vial without any cells, which is likely due to non-specific interactions between Cetuximab-PC conjugates and the vial. We are currently

investigating improvements in the blocking and washing steps to increase the signal to noise ratio.



#### 4.3.2 Detection of antigen-specific T cells using ssDNA-p/MHC tetramers

The ability to profile T cell receptors has many potential fundamental applications in immunology as well as diagnostic potential in many fields like vaccine development, immune monitoring, and cancer immunotherapy. Since the development of p/MHC tetramers (19), it has been possible to directly analyze populations of antigen-specific T cells by staining with fluorescent p/MHC tetramers. The fundamental limitation in this approach is the difficulty in multiplexing since distinct T cell specificities need to be encoded with different colors for discrimination. Therefore, there has been widespread interest in developing p/MHC protein arrays, since in a spatially encoded format, the degree of multiplexing can be increased greatly (18, 20-23). One inherent limitation of array approaches however, is that the sensitivity and scalability is limited by the size of the spots, since the sensitivity is directly proportional to the diameter of the capture surfaces. In addition, arrays approaches are planar substrate-based detection schemes. The limited diffusive capacity of T cells prevents cells from sampling an entire array. Hence for all arrays approaches, T cell recovery is low. The majority of the cells settle on inert areas of the substrate or on non-cognate spots. With an approach like cellular barcoding, the engagement of the encoding agent with the cell surface receptor occurs in solution. Thus by using NACS conjugates, all T cells in a solution is encoded after staining and can subsequently be decoded.

To demonstrate the feasibility of detecting antigen-specific TCRs with cellular barcoding, the T cell lines Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -MART-1</sup> and Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -Tyr</sup> were chosen as the model lines. These are transduced T cells expressing TCRs specific for the antigens MART-1 and tyrosinase respectively and were described in detail in chapter 3. MART-1 p/MHC tetramers were prepared encoded with fluorescent DNA (A') or photocleavable DNA (PC). MART-1-A' p/MHC tetramers were compared with fluorescent MART-1-APC p/MHC tetramers for their ability to stain Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -MART-1</sup> cells. The results are shown in **Figure 4.2B**. Both tetramers stained Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -MART-1</sup> cells similarly (right upper, right lower panels). Importantly, cells expressing the non-cognate TCR were not stained by MART-1-A' tetramers (lower left panel), demonstrating that p/MHC tetramers appended with ssDNA pendants can engage with the cognate TCR in the suspension phase.

Both T cell lines were then stained with MART-1-PC tetramers, treated with UV and analyzed by PCR. The results are shown in **Figure 4.4**. Approximately five fewer

thermal cycles were required before PC was detected from the Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -MART-1</sup> sample than from the Jurkat<sup> $\alpha$ -Tyr</sup> sample. In comparison with EGFR detection by Cetuximab-PC, the discrimination between the two T cell lines is less significant. This may be attributed to higher affinity Cetuximab-PC conjugates relative to ssDNA-p/MHC complexes. We are currently investigating more comprehensive purification strategies that would yield the highest avidity ssDNA-p/MHC complex by separating fully tetrameric p/MHC constructs from complexes of lower valency.



## **4.4 Conclusions and Future Directions**

In its present state, the dynamic range of membrane antigen detection with antibody-DNA conjugates is approximately  $10^2$ . This is sufficient in distinguishing cells that express a surface antigen from cells that do not, since most proteins are found on the cell surface at approximately 2,000–500,000 copies per cell (24). Improvements to this technique that expands the dynamic range will be beneficial as well as improvements that

lower the sensitivity of this approach, which would allow the detection of membrane proteins from small sample sizes below  $10^4$  cells. In addition, with heterogeneous mixtures of cells, it may be necessary to enrich for a particular phenotype prior to cellular barcoding, since a surface antigen that has been detected cannot be assigned to any particular cell type within a mixture *a priori*. To this end, it may be advantageous to integrate DEAL/NACS cell sorting prior to barcoding.

While this demonstration using conventional PCR highlights the technical feasibility of this approach, the goal is integration with high-throughput sequencing employing the Solexa platform. This second generation sequencer works by ligating cDNA libraries to the bottom of microfluidic flow cells. The flow cells are sufficiently large to ensure scattered coverage, enabling spatial resolution of individual cDNA fragments. After *in situ* amplification, the sequences are read by a sequence-by-synthesis approach. Typically, 25 base pair reads are taken from  $10^7-10^8$  possible unique sequences per flow cell (25, 26). This approach is digital and quantitative because each read is from a cDNA fragment that is spatially resolved. By integrating a library of capture agents encoded with ssDNA identifiers with Solexa sequencing, it should be possible to generate a quantitative cell surface-ome heat map. A schematic is illustrated in **Figure 4.6**.



There are several DNA sequence design considerations to interface with Solexa sequencing. First, since 25 base pair reads are commonly employed, the barcoding segment of the DNA should lie within 25 base pairs from the 5' or 3' end. Second, the barcoding region can be small. A stretch of 6 bases will encode for  $4^6 = 4096$  different parameters. Third, prior to ligation to the flow cell, small cDNA libraries are typically amplified by PCR. To avoid biasing the ssDNA tag library, universal primers can be integrated, flanking the barcode (**Figure 4.7A**). Lastly, because of the high-throughput and current cost of each sequencing run, it should be possible to utilize different sets of universal primers with 3 base pair overhangs as experimental identifiers. This would allow barcode tags from multiple experiments to be pooled together for a single

sequencing run (**Figure 4.7B**). A 3 base stretch would allow  $4^3 = 64$  different experiments to be pooled together.



**Figure 4.7 DNA sequence design considerations** (A) Illustration of a generic DNA sequence that can interface with Solexa sequencing containing two universal primers flanking a 6 bp encoding region. Six bases encodes for 4096 different parameters. (B) Because the throughput of second generation sequencers are high, experimental ID tags can be integrated through unique set of universal primers, enabling multiple experiments to be decoded and sequenced simultaneously. A three base stretch is sufficient to encode 64 unique experiments.

In conclusion, a solution phase approach has been introduced that allow cell membrane bound proteins to be detected by capture agents like antibodies or p/MHC tetramers encoded with ssDNA tags. The pendant oligonucleotides function as reporter molecules that can be detected and quantified with conventional thermal amplification approaches. The successful integration of a library of ssDNA-encoded captured agents with high-throughput sequencing for quantitative assessment would provide a global profiling tool to survey the cell surface-ome with fundamental and diagnostic implications.

## **4.5 References**

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