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Title:

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Date:

2026-02-01

Citation:

Shafiq, A., Rai, A., Xu, R., Chen, M., Suwakulsiri, W., Greening, D. W. & Simpson, R. J. (2026). Oncogenic H-Ras Reprograms Madin-Darby Canine Kidney (MDCK) Cell-Derived Midbody Remnant Proteome Following Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition. *Proteomics*, 26 (2-3), pp.81-94. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pmic.70051>.

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## RESEARCH ARTICLE OPEN ACCESS

# Oncogenic H-Ras Reprograms Madin-Darby Canine Kidney (MDCK) Cell-Derived Midbody Remnant Proteome Following Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition

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**Received:** 13 May 2025 | **Revised:** 10 September 2025 | **Accepted:** 15 September 2025

**Funding:** A.S. and R.J.S. acknowledge funding support from La Trobe University. A.S. was supported by the La Trobe University Postgraduate Scholarship.

**Keywords:** epithelial-mesenchymal transition | extracellular vesicles | midbody remnants | proteomics

## ABSTRACT

Epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) is a fundamental, dynamic cellular process involved in embryonic development, metastasis, organ fibrosis, and tissue regeneration. To define the molecular landscape of secreted midbody remnants (MBRs) to the EMT process, a proteome analysis of MBRs released from Madin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells and following oncogenic H-Ras transformation (21D1 cells) was performed. MBRs, a new class of membranous extracellular vesicle (EV) molecularly distinct from exosomes/small EVs, were purified using sequential centrifugation/buoyant density gradient centrifugation. Proteomic profiling revealed MDCK cell-MBRs reflect their epithelial origin (e.g., enriched CDH1, DSP, THBS1, OLCN, EPCAM proteins) and 21D1 cell-MBRs their oncogenic and mesenchymal phenotype (e.g., HRAS, VIM, MMP14, CDH2, WNT5A, and enriched invasive and cell motility protein networks). Validation of proteome cargo revealed key protein networks associated with the EMT process in MBRs, and conserved MBR proteome across different cell types. Prominent findings were the unique expression of the immune checkpoint protein NT5E/CD73 (ecto-5'-nucleotidase) and ser/thr kinases LIMK1/K2 in MBRs from mesenchymal cells following their oncogenic transformation, and enrichment in Wnt signaling network proteins. These data identify the core proteome of MBRs regulated during the dynamic process of EMT and cell transformation over other EV types in context of the EMT process.

Adnan Shafiq, Alin Rai, and Rong Xu contributed equally to this study.

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## Summary

- Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) is a critical cell biological process that occurs during embryonic development and cancer progression. Our study describes sequential purification of secreted midbody remnants (MBRs) and exosomes/sEVs from the in vitro cell line EMT model Madin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells and MDCK cells transformed with oncogenic H-Ras (21D1 cells): Proteomics identified the repertoire of enriched MDCK-MBR proteins following EMT.
- MBRs display a proteome profile distinct from sEVs that is enriched with factors of the centralspindlin complex (KIF23.1, KIF4A, INCENP, CEP55, PLK1) and further includes components of the mitochondrial network, cytokinesis, microtubule movement, and intercellular connection.
- In the context of EMT, our data reveal enriched EMT pathways in MBRs including signaling receptor binding, regulation of cell differentiation, and Wnt, VEGF, and PDGF signaling. We have validated these findings in the context of Wnt signaling in other EV types.
- We identify several mesenchymal-enriched networks in MBRs associated with focal adhesion, cell matrix, kinase activity, and cell shape/organization, while epithelial-derived MBRs show enriched networks predominantly associated with mitochondrial (processing/transport), midbody, and plasma membrane annotation.
- Our study sheds light on the proteome architecture of MBRs following oncogenic H-Ras-induced EMT in cell transformation: collectively, our data informs ongoing efforts to delineate oncogenic drivers of cancer initiation, progression, and metastasis.

## 1 | Introduction

Epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) is an evolutionary conserved cellular process that enables highly polarized immotile epithelial cells to lose their epithelial cell attributes (e.g., cell-cell and cell-matrix connectivity) and acquire features of mesenchymal cell phenotype (e.g., anchorage-independent growth, elongated morphology, increased motility, reduced proliferation rate) [1]. This highly regulated and dynamic program of cell transformation is critical for physiological and pathological processes such as early embryogenesis, wound healing, tissue regeneration, and cancer progression [2–4]. EMT can be induced in epithelial cancer cells, including by activation of proto-oncogenes (e.g., *Ras*), growth factor receptor pathways (e.g., those driven by transforming growth factor- $\beta$  (TGF $\beta$ ), hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) receptor (MET), or epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)). Multiple cellular regulatory networks have been implicated in triggering EMT, such as tyrosine kinase receptors (e.g., epidermal growth factor (EGF), fibroblast growth factor (FGF), connective tissue growth factor, platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), insulin-like growth factor (IGF), etc.), and signaling pathways involving integrin interactions, Wnt proteins, nuclear factor NK- $\kappa$ B, and TGF- $\beta$  [2, 3, 5–7].

The contribution of soluble protein factors secreted into the extracellular space (the *secretome*) plays a critical role in eliciting the EMT program [3, 8, 9]. Previously we have assessed the secretome (soluble-secreted proteins) [10, 11] and small EVs [12, 13] released from Madin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells, and MDCK cells transformed with oncogenic H-Ras (21D1 cells) to identify extracellular modulators of the EMT process that regulate cell phenotype and cell invasion, including reviews [14, 15]. These analyses revealed extracellular effectors that coordinate biological responses that enhance cell motility, reduce cell-cell contact and cell-matrix adhesion networks, and reprogram the extracellular matrix (ECM) [10, 16]. We demonstrate H-Ras-induced EMT in MDCK cells, reprogram the protein repertoire of exosomes/sEVs [17]—including the selective remodeling of regulators of metastatic niche formation, and transcription/splicing factors related to EMT [12]. Further, we demonstrated that microvesicles (MVs)—an EV subclass arising from plasma membrane blebbing—have distinct proteome composition and invasive capacity compared to exosomes/sEVs following EMT [13]. Recently, to assess the contribution of secreted midbody remnants (sMBR) to the EMT program, we conducted a proteomic analysis of MBRs released from MDCK/21D1 cells. MBRs, which have a particle diameter range of 200–600 nm, are a major class of membranous EVs, released from most cell types, that arise by symmetrical cytokinetic abscission during final phase of mitosis (telophase) [17–20].

Here, we conducted large-scale purification of MBRs and sEVs/exosomes from MDCK/21D1 cells and determined their conserved (core MBR proteome) and differential proteome composition (between EV types). We demonstrate that MBRs released from MDCK/21D1 cells have distinct proteome compared to sEVs, enriched in cytokinesis factors in midbodies (e.g., KIF23 and RACGAP1 [18, 21]) and components associated with mitochondrial network and cytokinesis, microtubule movement, and intercellular connection. We highlight differential abundance of protein networks associated with key processes of EMT in H-Ras-induced EMT in MDCK cells, including signal transduction (HRAS, PLAUR, RGS12), plasticity (TNC, VGF), polarity (MARK1, FRMD4A, MPP1, FZD2), and the EMT process (TEAD1, MCU, ESRP1, ESRP2, PKP3, TJP3). We report EMT-related transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulators, including TEAD1, MCU, ESRP1, ESRP2, PKP3, and TJP3, suggesting broader reprogramming of gene expression and cell adhesion machinery. Findings from this study provide new knowledge on the conservation of the MBR proteome and signaling architecture of MBRs following H-Ras-induced EMT.

## 2 | Experimental Procedures

### 2.1 | Continuous Cell Culture and Large-Scale Purification of MBRs and sEVs/Exos

Madin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells, and MDCK cells transformed with oncogenic H-Ras (21D1 cells) [12, 13, 22] were cultured as described [12, 13, 22]. Primarily for large-scale EV production,  $3 \times 10^6$  MDCK and 21D1 cells were seeded separately in CELLline AD1000 Bioreactor classic flasks (Integra Biosciences) using EV-depleted FCS (centrifuged at 100,000  $\times$  g for 18 h) and incubated for 2 weeks [13, 19, 21]. EV types were purified from

collected culture media [19]. For each collection, MDCK and 21D1 culture media were sequentially centrifuged at  $500 \times g$  for 5 min (to remove floating cells),  $2000 \times g$  for 10 min (to remove apoptotic body debris), and  $10,000 \times g$  for 30 min at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  as described [19, 21] (see Figure S1). The 10K pellet was subjected to buoyant density (isopycnic iodixanol (OptiPrep) gradient centrifugation using a top-down manner as described [23], and buoyant density fraction #9 (1.21 g/mL) was taken for proteomic sample preparation. MDCK/21D1 cell-derived sEVs/exosomes were purified from the 100 K-10 K supernatant, as described [19], and fraction #7 (OptiPrep buoyant density, 1.10 g/mL) was taken for proteome analyses.

## 2.2 | Protein Quantitation and Western Blot Analysis

Protein quantification of purified EV samples and western blot analyses were determined as described [18, 21, 24]. For Western blot analysis membranes were probed with primary antibodies (anti-mouse ALIX, 1:1000, Cell Signaling, Cat. No. 2171), (anti-mouse TSG101, 1:1000, BD Bioscience, Cat. No. 612697), (anti-rabbit GAPDH, 1:3000, Cell Signaling, Cat. No. 2118), (anti-mouse KIF23, 1:1000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat. No. sc-390113), (anti-TGM2, 1:1000, Invitrogen, Cat. No. MA5-12739), (anti-beta actin, 1:1000, Invitrogen, Cat. No. MA1-91399), (anti-mouse RAC-GAP1, 1:1000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat. No. sc-271110) according to manufacturer's instructions. The secondary antibodies (IRDye800 goat anti-mouse IgG [Cat. No. AP308P] or IRDye700 goat anti-rabbit IgG [Cat. No. SAB4600400]) were diluted (1:15,000), and the fluorescent signals were detected using the Odyssey Infrared Imaging System, v3.0 (Li-COR Biosciences, Nebraska, USA).

## 2.3 | EV Biophysical Characterization

Cryo-transmission electron microscopic analyses on EV samples were performed as described [18, 25]. MBR and sEV particle diameters were determined by nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA; NanoSight NS300, Malvern) as described [25].

## 2.4 | Proteomic Sample Preparation

MDCK/21D1-MBR/ sEV samples ( $n = 3$ , 10  $\mu\text{g}$ ) were lysed in 1% v/v sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS), 50 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate (TEAB), pH 8.0, incubated at  $95^\circ\text{C}$  for 5 mins, and quantified by microBCA (Thermo Fisher Scientific) as described [26]. Proteomic sample preparation was performed using single-pot solid-phase-enhanced sample preparation (SP3) [27] as described [28, 29].

## 2.5 | Liquid Chromatography–Tandem Mass Spectrometry

Peptides were analyzed on a Dionex UltiMate NCS-3500RS nanoUHPLC coupled to a Q-Exactive HF-X hybrid quadrupole-

Orbitrap mass spectrometer equipped with a nanospray ion source in positive, data-independent acquisition mode as described [27, 28] with minor modifications. Peptides were loaded (Acclaim PepMap100 C18 5  $\mu\text{m}$  beads with 100  $\text{\AA}$  pore-size, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and separated (1.9- $\mu\text{m}$  particle size C18,  $0.075 \times 250$  mm, Nikkyo Technos Co. Ltd) with a gradient of 2%–80% acetonitrile containing 0.1% formic acid over 110 min at 300 nL/min at  $55^\circ\text{C}$  (in-house enclosed column heater). Full scan MS were performed in the m/z range of 350 to 1100 m/z with a 120,000 resolution, using an automatic gain control (AGC) of  $3 \times 10^6$ , maximum injection time of 50 ms, and 1 microscan. MS2 was set to 45,000 resolution,  $1e6$  AGC target, and the first fixed mass set to 120 m/z. Default charge state set to 2 and recorded in centroid mode. Total scan windows (65) were performed with staggered isolation windows from 350 to 1100 m/z and applied with 28% normalized collision energy as described [30]. MS-based proteomics data is deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the MASSive partner repository and available via MASSive with identifier (MSV000093044).

## 2.6 | Data Processing and Informatics Analysis

Peptide identification and quantification were performed as described previously using DIA-NN (v1.8) [31] against *Canis lupus familiaris* (dog, UP000002254) reference proteome (59,101 entries, downloaded 12–2022). Spectral libraries were predicted using the deep learning algorithm employed by DIA-NN with Trypsin/P, allowing up to 1 missed cleavage [31]. The precursor change range was set to 1–4, and the m/z precursor range was set to 300–1800 for peptides consisting of 7–30 amino acids with N-terminal methionine excision and cysteine carbamidomethylation enabled as a fixed modification with 0 maximum number of variable modifications. The mass spectra were analyzed using default settings with a false discovery rate (FDR) of 1% for precursor identifications and match between runs (MBR) enabled for replicates [27]. The resulting output files, contaminants, and reverse identifications were removed and further analyzed using Perseus (v2.0.7.0). Perseus was applied for downstream data processing and analysis. Data quality cut-off was applied with a minimum of 50% protein group quantification in at least one group. Hierarchical clustering was performed in Perseus using Euclidean distance and average linkage clustering. Gene ontology (biological process, specific level 10) and KEGG pathways (organism: hsa,  $p$  value cutoff: 0.05) were analyzed based on highly-enriched proteins from the statistical analysis using cluster Profiler [32] (v.3.11, <https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/clusterProfiler.html>) in R. Principle component analysis, dot, box, and ridge plots were visualized using ggplot (v.3.3.2, <https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org/>) in R. Heatmaps were visualized using pheatmap (v.1.0.12, <https://www.rdocumentation.org/packages/pheatmap/versions/1.0.12>) in R. Venn diagram was generated using a web-based tool (<http://www.interactivenet.net/>) [33]. KEGG pathway analysis was visualized using pathview (v.3.1.2, <http://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/pathview.html>) [34] in R.

## 3 | Results

### 3.1 | Midbody Remnants Are Secreted From MDCK Cells

In this study, we demonstrate the phenotype of MDCK cells as highly polarized and exhibit a cobblestone-like morphology, while 21D1 cells with fibroblast appearance display spindle-shaped mesenchymal cell morphology. Differential centrifugation and buoyant density gradient separation (iodixanol, OptiPrep) were used to sequentially purify MBRs and sEVs/exosomes from these cells [19, 21]. Refer to Figure S1 for purification strategy. Milligram amounts of purified MBRs were obtained from culture media (CM) by growing parental cells in a continuous bioreactor culture device (CELLineAD-1000) [13]: typically, 260 mL culture medium (CM) was harvested from bioreactor device over 36 days—20 mL per day, 13 days for each biological replicate,  $n = 3$ . For each buoyant density gradient centrifugation (iodixanol, OptiPrep), twelve 1-mL fractions were manually collected (Figure S1) and subjected to immunoblot analysis: anti-MKLP1/KIF23 and anti-RACGAP1 antibodies were used to identify MBRs in the resuspended 10K pellet; and anti-ALIX and anti-TSG101 antibodies to detect exosomes in the resuspended 100K-10K fractions (Figure S3A–D). An inspection of Figure S3A–D showed that fraction #9 in the resuspended 10K pellet (buoyant density  $\sim 1.12$  g/mL) is enriched in MBRs, and fraction #7 in resuspended 100K-10K pellet (buoyant density  $\sim 1.10$  g/mL). MBRs derived from both MDCK and 21D1 cell lines displayed round membranous vesicle structure (based on cryo-EM, Figure 1A) with a particle diameters of 50 to 680 nm and NTA showed particle diameters of 300–315 nm: in comparison, MDCK-/21D1-Exos were much smaller (30–195 nm diameter based on cryo-EM, and single particle tracking analysis, exhibited a smaller diameter range (MDCK-Exos 181.5 nm and 21D1-Exos 157.6 nm) (Figure 1B). Collectively, these data reveal that MBRs and exosomes/sEVs are biophysically distinct. The protein yield of these EVs from equivalent 260 mL of CM was  $\sim 1300$ – $1500$   $\mu\text{g}$  (MDCK-/21D1-MBRs) and 315–436  $\mu\text{g}$  for MDCK-/21D1-Exos.

### 3.2 | Proteome Analysis of MDCK- and 21D1-Cell Derived MBRs and sEVs

Quantitative mass spectrometry using high sensitivity data-independent acquisition [27], using stringent peptide/protein identification criteria (1% false discovery rate), identified a total of 8737 proteins for all MDCK-/21D1 derived MBRs and sEV preparations analyzed ( $n = 3$  biological). Of these, 4423 proteins were identified in all sample groups in at least  $n = 2$  out of 3 biological replicates: protein distribution was based on normalized intensities across all samples (Figure 1, Panels C and D, and Table S1). The distinct EV proteomes reported are highly dynamic, spanning about seven orders of magnitude (precursor ion intensities), with ACTB, ANXA2, GAPDH, H4C9, and HRAS being top-ranked proteins across these datasets based on abundance (intensity) (Table S1).

### 3.2.1 | Hierarchical Clustering

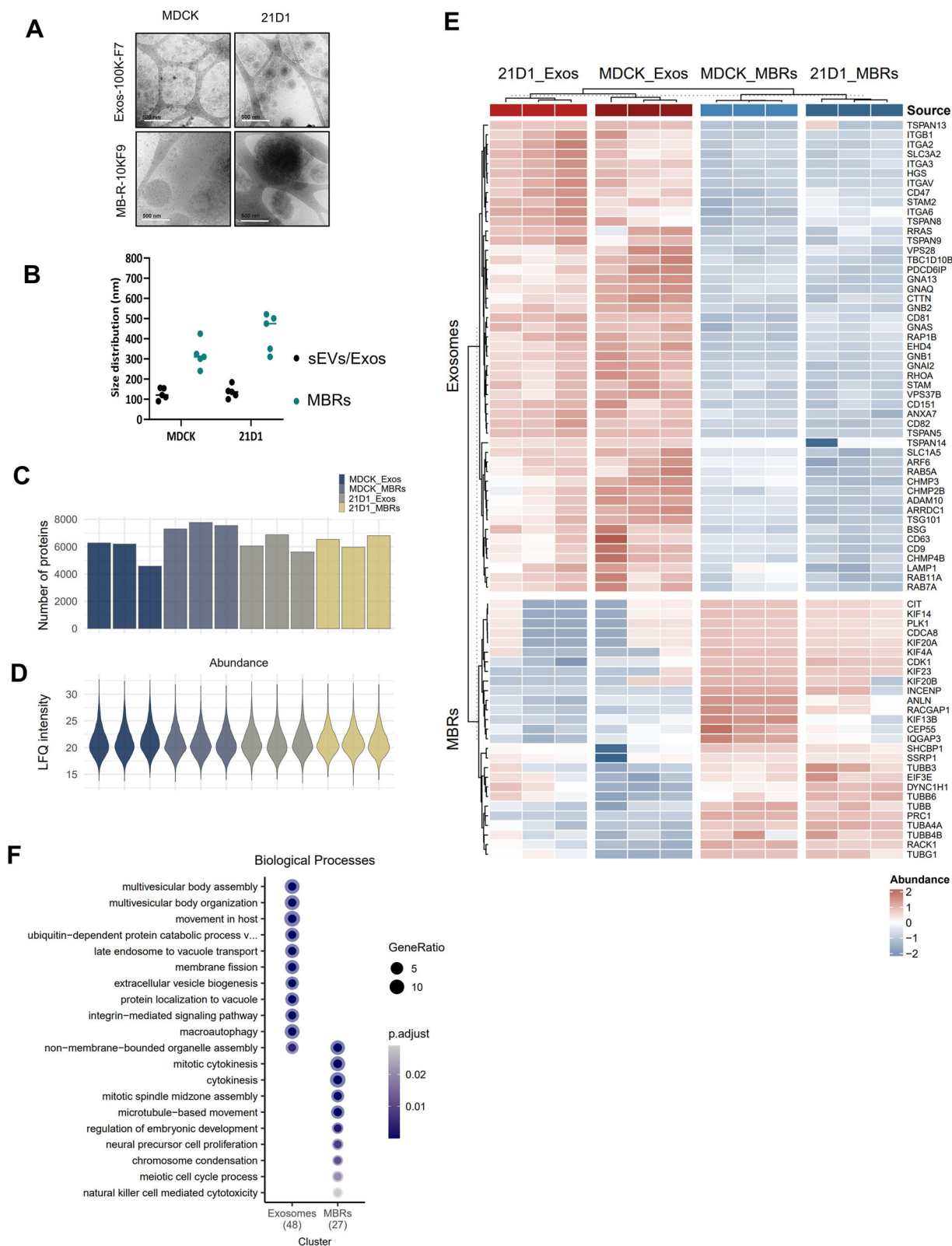
Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of protein expression profiles (Figure 1E) revealed that MBR and sEV proteomes were distinct: MBR/sEV proteomes were combined for each parental cell type ( $p < 0.05$ , fold change (FC):  $\log_2[1.5]$ ). We identified two protein clusters (245 proteins, K-means clustering) with differential abundance between cell origin (MDCK or 21D1) ( $FC > 1.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) in comparison to different EV subtypes (Table S2). EV marker distribution was analyzed across MBR and exosome populations. sEVs/Exos are enriched in classical markers of small EVs (CD44, CD63, CD9, PDCD6IP (Alix), RAB7A, ITGB1) (Figure 1E), whereas MBRs were enriched in proteins associated with the centrosome (KIF23.1, KIF4A, INCENP, CEP55, PLK1) (Figure 1E). Importantly, these protein markers were associated with EV type, independent of parental epithelial (MDCK) or mesenchymal (21D1) cell origin. Interestingly, the majority of core EV proteins [35], including proposed universal markers of exosomes—Syntenin 1 (SDCBP) [35] and MISEV inclusion protein markers [36, 37]—indicated that EV proteins, including CD47, RAB10, and TSG101, were identified in all EV groups (Table S1).

### 3.2.2 | Gene Ontology (GO)

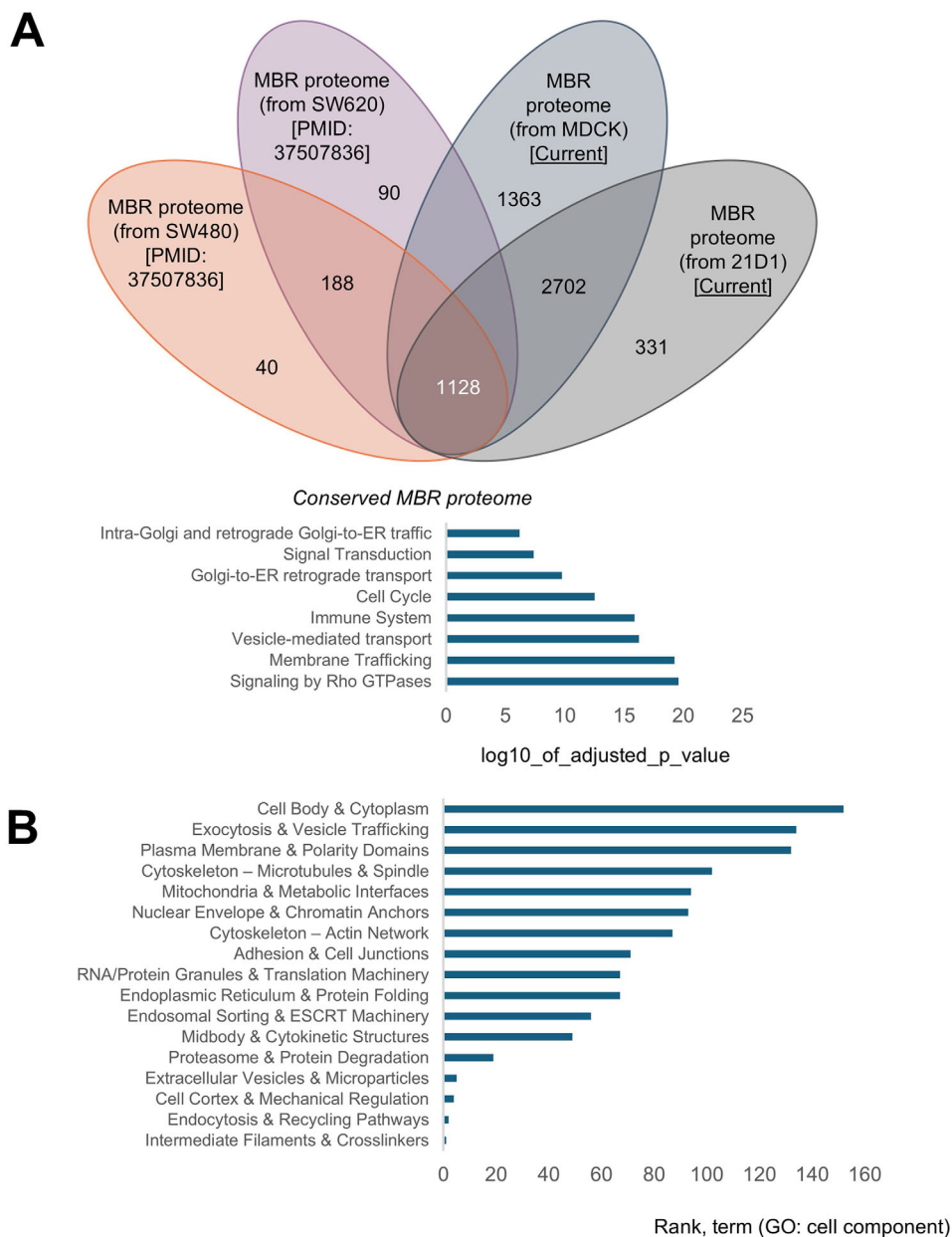
GO enrichment analysis revealed enrichment of MBR components associated with cellular location and functions associated with cytokinesis, mitotic spindle midzone assembly, in addition to localization associated with microtubule network and inter-cellular bridge (Figure 1F, Figure S2). In contrast, sEVs were enriched with biological processes associated with multivesicular body assembly, membrane fission, integrin-mediated signaling, as well as factors associated with ESCRT complex, focal adhesions, and cell-substrate junctions. Collectively, these data show that MDCK//21D1 cell-derived MBRs and exosomes have distinct proteomes.

### 3.3 | Conservation and Validation of the MBR Proteome

Given that different cells can release MBRs [18, 19, 21], we assessed the conservation in MBR proteome from different cell sources. Here, we compared the proteome of MBRs released from primary (SW480) and metastatic (SW620) human isogenic colorectal cancer cell lines [21], with current data from MDCK and 21D1 cell sources (Figure 2A). We highlight 1128 proteins conserved in MBR proteome from these four cell types in the context of EMT biology and cancer progression (Table S5). These proteins include key regulators during cytokinesis (CIT, PRC1, KIF4A, ANXA11, IST1, KIF14, ARL3, CEP55, RACGAP1), bleb assembly during mitosis (membrane bleb) (ANLN), membrane blebbing (TAOK2), oncogenic transformation and membrane trafficking (RALA/B), endosomal trafficking (VPS4A), and multivesicular body biogenesis (SNX3, PDCD6IP, CHMP4B) (Figure 2A). Our analysis revealed conserved MBR proteome categories, including cell body and cytoplasm, cytoskeleton-microtubule network, exocytosis and vesicle trafficking, midbody and cytokinetic structure, and plasma membrane and polarity domains. (Figure 2B, Table S6). This represents an important resource of the MBR proteome



**FIGURE 1** | Biophysical and proteome characterization of MBRs and exosomes. (A) Cryo-electron microscopy for EV (MBR; 10K F9, Exos; 100K F7) morphology and size distribution. Scale bar, 500 nm. (B) Cryo-electron microscopy EV size distribution analysis (each dot represents EV diameter analysis). (C) Bar plots for proteins identified and protein distribution based on LFQ normalized intensities for MBRs and exosomes from each cell type ( $n = 3$ ). (D) Distribution of protein abundance (LFQ intensity,  $\log_2$ ) of each proteome ( $n = 3$ ). (E) Hierarchical cluster analysis of MDCK and 21D1 cells and EV subtypes ( $p < 0.05$ , fold change [FC]:  $\log_2[1.5]$ ) reveals distinct clusters of differential protein abundance based on EV type (MBRs and exosomes). (F) Gene Ontology enrichment analysis (ranked,  $p < 0.05$ ) of different clusters based on biological process.



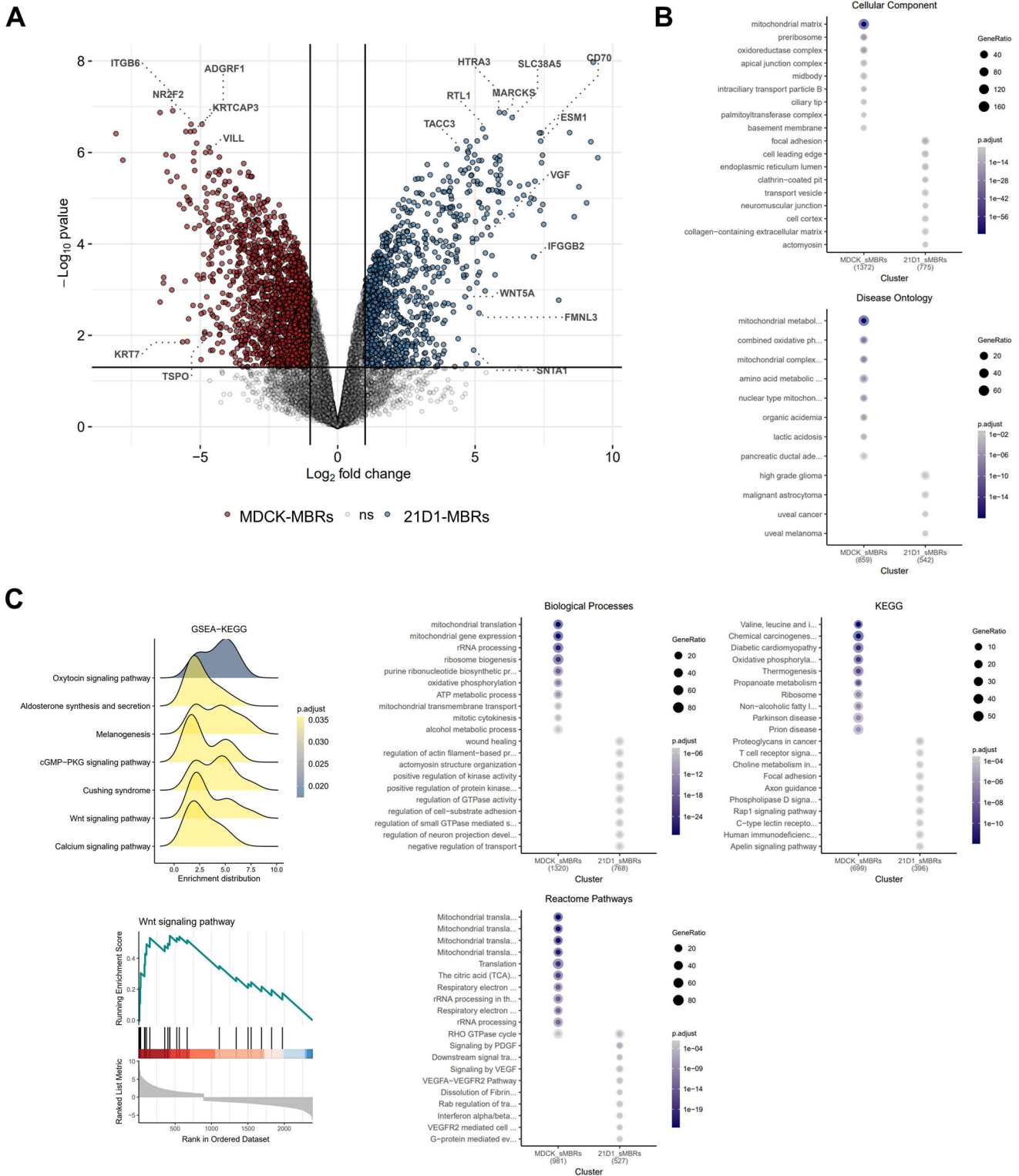
**FIGURE 2** | Conservation and validation of the MBR proteome. (A) Venn diagram protein distribution of MBRs from different cell sources: SW480, SW620 [21], isolated as per current study. Proteins commonly identified represent a conservation in MBR proteome from different cell sources (1128 proteins), while proteins distinct to cell types (unique identification) are shown. Lower panel, Reactome network analysis of conserved 1128 MBR proteome. (B) Gene Ontology (cellular component) analysis and clustering of proteins identified in conserved MBR proteome with terms associated with MBR biology, ranked ( $p < 0.05$ ) based on number of proteins assigned to each category. Ranked terms and assigned Table S6.

and assigned cell component and biological process categories from different cell sources.

### 3.4 | Proteins Selectively Enriched in MBRs Released From MDCK Cells Following Oncogenic H-Ras-Induced EMT

Next, we investigated whether the MBR proteome from oncogenic H-Ras-transformed MBCK cells might reveal new insights into EMT biology. We highlight 267 proteins in 21D1-derived MBRs significantly enriched ( $FC > 1.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and 31/267 proteins

uniquely identified (i.e., not seen in MDCK-derived MBRs or sEVs) (Figure 3A, Tables S1 and S3). Of note, networks associated with this 31-protein subset include Interferon Signaling (R-HSA-913531), Cytokine Signaling in Immune System (R-HSA-1280215), and PKR-mediated signaling (R-HSA-9833482), linked with tumor cell regulation, metastasis, and EMT process [38–41]. Prominent amongst the 267 proteins enriched in 21D1-MBRs include EMT-related factors WNT5A, STOML3, VGF, MARCKS, and CD70. In contrast, ADGRF1, VILL, TSPO, KRT7, and ITGB6 were significantly up-regulated in MDCK-derived MBRs (Tables S1 and S2). We highlight differential abundance of key proteins associated with key processes of EMT in H-Ras-induced EMT in



**FIGURE 3** | Remodeled proteome cargo of MBRs following H-Ras-induced oncogenic EMT. (A) Pair-wise comparison of MBRs proteome in MDCK or 21D1 cells ( $n = 3$ ). Enriched (blue) or decreased (red) in expression,  $p$  value ( $\log_{10}$ ) 1.5 relative to 21D1 MBR. Protein expression non-significant, as shown, ns. (B) Gene Ontology enrichment analysis (ranked,  $p < 0.05$ ) of pairwise comparison of MBRs based on cellular component, biological processes, KEGG pathway analyses, disease ontology (DO), and Reactome analyses. (C) Reactome network pathways enriched in MBRs (21D1/MDCK, red enrichment in 21D1). Black vertical lines indicate positions where proteins associated with Wnt signaling pathway are in the ranked gene list. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis of KEGG enriched networks in MBRs ( $p$ -adj,  $< 0.05$ ) supports enrichment in 21D1-MBRs (yellow) relative to MDCK-MBRs.

MDCK cells, such as signal transduction (up-regulated: HRAS, PLAUR, RGS12), plasticity (up-regulated: TNC, VGF), polarity (up-regulated: MARK1, FRMD4A, MPP1, FZD2), and the EMT process (down-regulated: TEAD1, MCU, ESRP1, ESRP2, PKP3, TJP3) (Table 1). Findings from this study provide new knowledge on the signaling architecture of MDCK-MBRs following H-Ras-induced EMT.

Gene Ontology analysis of MDCK-MBRs revealed enrichment of cellular regions and biological processes associated with mitochondrial matrix, ribosome biogenesis, apical junction complex, midbody, basement membrane, rRNA processing, mitotic cytokinesis, and palmitoyl transferase complex (Figure 3B). In contrast, GO terms enriched in 21D1-MBRs included processes associated predominantly with EMT and cancer progression, including focal adhesion, cell leading edge, collagen-containing extracellular matrix, wound healing, and the positive regulation of kinase and GTPase activity (Figure 3B, Table S4). Further differential analysis of MBR proteome associated with MDCK-MBRs ( $FC < 1.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) displayed upregulation in various processes related to mitochondrial translation, the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, and rRNA processing (Figure 3B). In contrast, for upregulated proteins in 21D1-MBRs ( $FC > 1.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), using KEGG and Reactome pathway analysis revealed categories associated with PDGF and VEGF-A/R signaling pathways, Rab GTPase regulation, interferon alpha/beta responses, fibril dissolution, proteoglycan in cancer, and Rap1 signaling pathway (Figure 3B). WNT signaling pathway components (WNT5A, PLCB1, CCND1, PORCN, FZD2, CHP1, PRKCA, MAPK9, PPP3CC, PPP2R5B, NFAT5, DVL1) were further identified to be significantly enriched relative to the entire MBR proteome from MDCK and 21D1 cells (Figure 3C). This was further supported by KEGG analysis using Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA), which further identified WNT signaling pathway as being enriched in MBRs following H-Ras-mediated EMT (Figure 3C).

To identify the networks and their interactions in MBRs following H-Ras-mediated EMT, we performed STRING interactome analysis on 267 proteins (Figure 4). These differential findings highlight that the landscape of MBRs is tuned by oncogenic transformation, favoring signaling pathways that drive epithelial plasticity, migration, and pro-tumorigenic transformation, including Wnt signaling, PDGF signaling, RAF1 mutant signaling, and oncogenic MAPK signaling.

We questioned whether these findings of signaling regulators and Wnt enrichment were identified in other EV types following H-Ras-mediated EMT. Here, proteome analysis of different EV types (endosomal-derived exosomes/sEVs, membrane-derived microvesicles (MVs), and MBRs) was performed from 21D1 cells. This orthogonal validation proteomic set revealed 4332 proteins commonly identified in different EV types from mesenchymal cells, and identification and enrichment of common Wnt signaling regulators in these EV types (Figure 5, Table S7). We further highlight 329 proteins uniquely identified in MBR proteome for 21D1 cells, including various cancer/mutated proteins implicated in the oncogenic development, progression, and dissemination of cancer (Table S7). These include TRIM33 (tumor suppressor/oncogene), INCENP (chromosomal passenger complex), and RAD21 (cell division regulator/driver).

These data highlight the significant remodeling of MBR proteome that occurs following H-Ras-induced EMT (network analysis of enriched biological processes, signaling networks associated with 21D1-MBRs), to support potential signaling capacity of MBRs in the context of EMT.

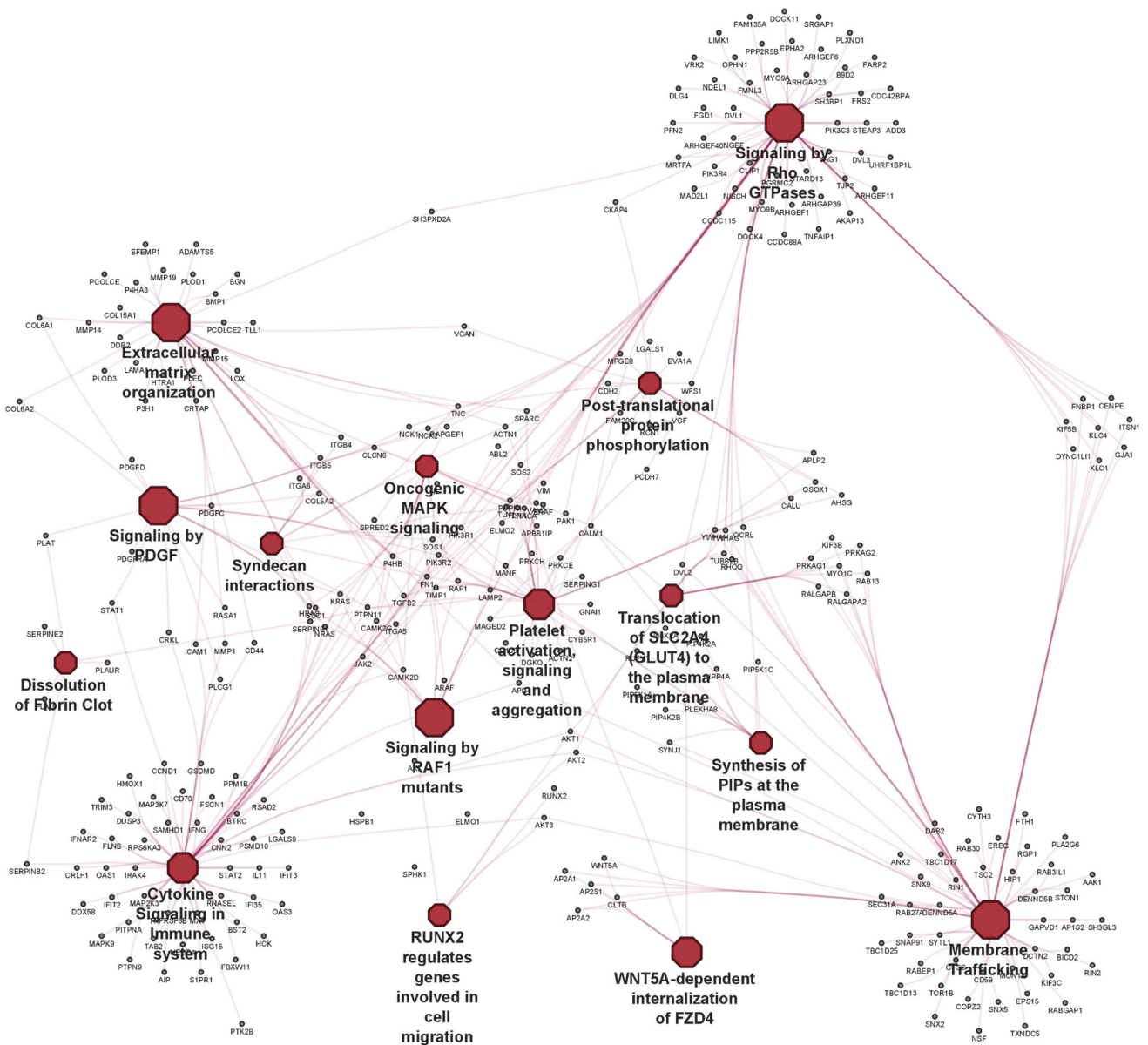
## 4 | Discussion

In this study, we describe a large-scale purification procedure for obtaining highly purified MBRs and exosomes/sEVs from MDCK cells transformed with oncogenic H-Ras. The purification procedure involved continuous culture of MDCK/21D1 cells (CELLLineAD-1000) followed by processing the CM by sequential use of differential centrifugation and buoyant density centrifugation (iodixanol, OptiPrep). This workflow enabled milligram amounts of EVs for biochemical characterization. High-sensitivity data-independent acquisition (DIA) mass spectrometry was used to obtain the proteome of MBRs and exosomes/sEVs from MDCK/21D1 cell source. Our analysis showed that MDCK-MBRs and 21D1-MBRs have distinct protein signatures that distinguish both their cell source (origin), in addition to a conserved “core” MBR proteome. Further, we decipher the proteome composition of different EV types (e.g., exosomes/sEVs derived from the same source cells) to highlight the key, selective features of the MBR proteome. Such insights provide new knowledge in the proteome landscape of MBRs following oncogenic cell transformation. We describe key signaling networks in MBRs for the first time, highlighting oncogenic signaling factors, changes in ECM organization, and associated functions of cytokine signaling, Wnt signaling, protein localization, and membrane trafficking associated with MBRs following EMT. We highlight the landscape of MBR proteome as a dynamic proteome—remodeled by oncogenic transformation in signaling pathways that drive epithelial plasticity, migration, and pro-tumorigenic transformation, including Wnt signaling, PDGF signaling, RAF1 mutant signaling, and oncogenic MAPK signaling.

Identified proteins common to both MDCK- and 21D1 derived from MBRs reflect their respective parental cell-traits: these include classical EMT markers, such as VIM, MMP14, CDH2, WNT5A, and HRAS from 21D1 cells, while proteins associated with MDCK epithelial cells, including CDH1, DSP, OCLN, THBS1, and EPCAM. Proteins enriched in exosomes correlated with known exosomal marker proteins: for example, PDCD6IP (ALIX), CD9/44, and RAB7A, and various tetraspanins and ESCRT-related factors such as ESCRT 0 (HGS, STAM1), ESCRT I (MVB12A/B, TSG101, VPS26, VPS37), ESCRT II (VPS25, VPS36), and ESCRT III (CHMP1, CHMP2A/B, CHMP3, CHMP4A/B). Proteins enriched in MDCK-/21D1-derived MBRs included markers related to cytokinesis, such as KIF4A, KIF23, INCENP, CEP55, and PLK1. We also noticed other categories of proteins, such as mitochondrial proteins, splicing factors, RNA-binding proteins, and DNA-binding components, were significantly enriched in MBRs, consistent with our previous findings for the isogenic colorectal cell lines SW480/SW620 [18, 21]. We further have provided context of the conservation in the MBR proteome from epithelial and oncogenic cell sources to reveal 1128 proteins conserved in MBR. This subset represents an important development in the form of the MBR as a highly conserved organelle-like structure and core proteome. Such knowledge is supported by

**TABLE 1** | Midbody remnant proteome remodeling following oncogenic H-Ras-induced EMT.

Gene name	Fold change (21D1_MBRs vs. MDCK_MBRs)	Significance (p-adj)	Protein names	Category
HRAS	6.5	1.07E-03	GTPase Hras	Signal transduction
MAP1B	5.7	1.42E-03	Microtubule-associated protein 1B	Membrane blebbing
TNC	5.2	1.50E-02	Tenascin (TN)	Plasticity
VGF	4.8	5.65E-04	Neurosecretory protein VGF	Plasticity
MARK1	4.5	2.69E-04	Serine/threonine-protein kinase MARK1	Polarity
PLAUR	4.4	3.06E-04	Urokinase plasminogen activator surface receptor (U-PAR)	Signal transduction
PARVB	3.8	4.60E-04	Beta-parvin (Affixin)	Polarity
TGFBR2	3.6	2.09E-03	TGF-beta receptor type-2	Signal transduction
CD59	2.8	9.27E-04	CD59 glycoprotein	Signal transduction
FHOD1	2.6	3.19E-03	FH1/FH2 domain-containing protein 1	Membrane blebbing
FRMD4A	2.5	2.21E-02	FERM domain-containing protein 4A	Polarity
MPP1	2.4	4.80E-02	55 kDa erythrocyte membrane protein	Polarity
FZD2	2.2	3.86E-02	Frizzled-2	Polarity
RGS12	2.2	8.46E-04	Regulator of G-protein signaling 12	Signal transduction
ACVR1	2.0	2.29E-02	Activin receptor type-1	EMT process
EPB41L1	1.8	2.69E-02	Band 4.1-like protein 1	Plasticity
PALS1	-2.0	3.05E-02	Protein PALS1	Polarity
TEAD1	-2.8	4.49E-04	Transcriptional enhancer factor TEF-1	EMT process
MCU	-3.1	7.21E-03	Calcium uniporter protein, mitochondrial	EMT process
ESRP1	-4.0	1.79E-02	Epithelial splicing regulatory protein 1	EMT process
ESRP2	-4.1	3.19E-04	Epithelial splicing regulatory protein 2	EMT process
PKP3	-4.1	4.96E-04	Plakophilin-3	EMT process
TJP3	-4.6	7.99E-03	Tight junction protein ZO-3	EMT process



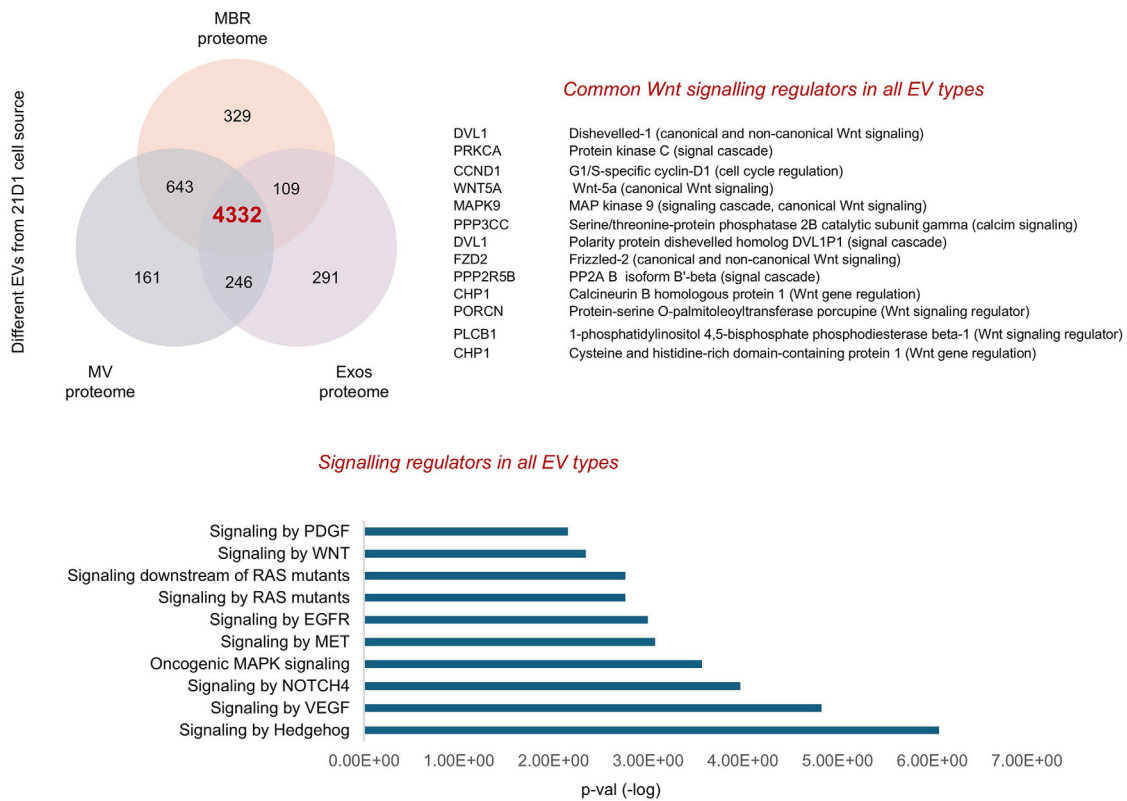
**FIGURE 4** | Protein interaction network of 21D1 cell-derived-MBRs. STRING protein interaction network for proteins differentially enriched in 21D1-cell-derived MBRs based on pair-wise comparison of MBRs proteome relative to MDCK cell-derived MBRs. Significantly enriched central terms/pathways/networks are shown in addition to proteins associated with each node.

the report of a “conserved midbody interactome” across species [42]. Such findings in this study help to decipher that secreted MBRs share a core proteome (similar to the MBR) but further contain vesicle/trafficking proteins, EV markers, and signaling components, suggesting MBRs bridge cytokinesis machinery with extracellular communication.

We identified several integrin components that were significantly enriched in 21D1-MBRs—for example, ITGB1/2/4/5, ITGAV/3/5/6/10. In the case of MDCK-MBRs, the only integrins identified were ITGA3 and ITGB6. In addition to their ascribed functions in cancer progression [43, 44], integrins have been shown to be important in exosomal delivery and organotrophic metastasis [45]. Consistent with our finding of integrins in MDCK/21D1-MBRs, Prekeris and colleagues report that secreted midbodies (referred to as “midbodiesomes”) require integrins and

EGF receptor tyrosine kinase signaling for their functionality [18, 46]. As expected, GO analysis revealed cytokinesis-related proteins commensurate with MBR biogenesis—such as mitotic spindle midzone assembly, and proteins associated with midbody localization in the intercellular bridge (e.g., KIF14, KIF4A, KIF23, CDK1, etc.).

A salient finding in our study was the remodeling of the MDCK-derived MBR proteome following oncogenic H-Ras-induced EMT. Our data analyses support previous findings that EVs comprise signaling factors associated with Wnt and can regulate EMT [12, 13, 47, 48]. Expression of the Wnt family is strongly associated with epithelial differentiation, including capacity to promote EMT and metastasis of pancreatic cancer cells and non-small-cell lung cancer cells [48, 49]. Further, we provide further context and validation of Wnt signaling network in other



**FIGURE 5** | Validation of proteome from different EVs from 21D1 cells. Proteome analysis of different EV types from 21D1 cell source were performed (MBRs, MVs, Exos) to identify and validate common regulators of Wnt signaling. Of the 45 Wnt components identified in 21D1-MBR, 13/45 proteins were commonly identified in other EV types (panel). Further, of the 4332 proteins common to EV types, signaling modules associated with Wnt, VEGF, MET, EGFR, Hedgehog, PDGF, and Ras mutant signaling were significantly enriched ( $p < 0.01$ , Reactome).

EV types in this study from cells following oncogenic H-Ras-induced EMT (Figure 5). Indeed, of the 45 Wnt components identified in 21D1-MBR, 13/45 proteins were commonly identified in other EV types, including Wnt5a. Wnt5a is known as a typical non-canonical Wnt protein and is associated with the progression and development of many malignant tumors. Many previous studies have demonstrated that Wnt5a is upregulated in various cancers, including gastric, colorectal, pancreatic, and prostate cancers [50]. WNT5A produced by the TME enables the activation of CDC42, a small GTPase of the Rho family, in hematopoietic stem cells and results in EV release, including sEVs/Exos [51]. However, given that such sEVs were isolated with a direct ultracentrifugation strategy, which may contain other EV subtypes that co-purify (e.g., MBRs), this likely contributed to these Wnt5a findings. Indeed, this is supported by the fact that we identify various pro-angiogenic factors, including VEGF, in both EV types in this study—shown by Ekstrom et al. [51], that exosomes/sEVs contain VEGF, which is reported to favor angiogenesis, and modulation of adhesion, migration, homing, and engraftment.

A major finding in our differential MDCK-/21D1-derived MBR proteome study was the unique identification of NT5E (ecto-5'-nucleotidase, or CD73) and the ser/thr kinases LIMK1 and LIMK2 in 21D1-MBRs (not present in MDCK cell-derived MBRs). NT5E is an immune checkpoint protein involved in converting ATP into adenosine, promoting immune escape of tumor cells [52]. Xu and colleagues identified CD73 as highly expressed in gastric cancer

linked with poor prognosis, identifying CD73 and adenosinergic signaling within the tumor microenvironment: here, CD73 was also shown to be capable of inducing EMT phenotype during gastric cancer metastasis [53]. Additionally, transcriptome analysis revealed that CD73 modulates the RICS/RhoA pathway extracellularly, leading to LIMK/cofilin phosphorylation inhibition and  $\beta$ -catenin activation [53]. Of note, we identify enriched expression of ser/thr kinases LIMK1 in 21D1-MBRs (relative to MDCK); functionality of this ser/thr kinase as part of the Rho family GTPase signal transduction pathway, involved in microtubule stability and actin polymerisation [54], and various cell fate processes including cancer development, neurological diseases, and viral infections (reviewed [55]). Importantly, prior studies have identified LIMK1 as a cancer-promoting regulator in multiple organ cancers, such as breast, prostate, and colorectal cancers [56–59]. Our proteome analysis of unique proteins associated with only MBRs from mesenchymal cells (relative to MDCK cells and sEVs) demonstrates involvement and enrichment of proteins associated with immune regulation, including interferon signaling (FANCM, TRIM3, IFIT3, TARBP2), genes involved in invasion (GMPR), and cytokine signaling (STAT5A, TNFRSF6B, FANCM, TRIM3, IFIT3, TARBP2) [3, 60]. In the context of EMT and immunoregulation, whether these molecular MBR cargo can transfer their functionalities to other recipient cells warrants further investigation. Further insights into involvement of unique regulators in MBRs that can functionally mediate such hallmarks of EMT are warranted, such as of the 331 unique proteins identified in 21D1-MBRs (Figure 2A), including polarity

regulators: protrudin (cell migration and angiogenesis [61]), KIF20B (regulates cell protrusion and modulates cytoskeleton networks [62]), and metalloprotease YME1L1 (implicated in adhesion-mediated mechanosignaling [63]). Secreted factors, like MBRs, could contribute as extracellular signals provided by the tumor microenvironment to potentially enhance the occurrence of EMT [64] and contribute to the induction of partial EMT. Such targets could form the basis of cell fate regulators in cancer biology, to either regulate the transition to mesenchymal cell state (i.e., EMT) or its cellular reversal to an epithelial-like phenotype (i.e., mesenchymal-epithelial transition [MET]) to regulate metastatic outgrowth [65].

In summary, we demonstrate for the first time the large-scale isolation and biophysical/biochemical characterization of MBRs from MDCK cells following oncogenic H-Ras-induced EMT. We highlight distinct proteome signatures between MDCK-/21D1-derived MBRs and exosomes and highlight the conservation of MBR proteome from different cell sources, noting the core features of the MBR proteome in cytokinesis core regulators, cytoskeletal & motor proteins, membrane trafficking machinery, scaffold/adaptor proteins, and vesicular trafficking and signaling regulators. We highlight how the MDCK-MBR proteome is dynamically reprogrammed following oncogenic H-Ras-induced EMT and how Wnt signaling features are validated in different EV types from cells following their oncogenic transformation. Our findings demonstrate MBRs as a unique class of EVs—distinct from exosomes—and suggest they may have previously unrecognized roles in cell differentiation, cell polarity, stem cell biology and cancer biology. Future studies to understand their molecular factors in intercellular communication (as distinct from other EV types [18, 42] and [66], linking biogenesis and abscission with signaling and localised translation [67, 68], their intercellular transfer mechanisms, role of RBPs as complexes in functional regulation, and influence of MBRs on cell fate mechanisms in their temporal release during mitosis and functional regulation [69] are all pressing interests that require a level of EV specificity to decipher the form and function of MBRs.

#### Author Contributions

Adnan Shafiq and Richard J. Simpson conceived and designed the study. Adnan Shafiq, Alin Rai, and Rong Xu conducted the experiments. Alin Rai and David W. Greening performed all proteomic data generation, bioinformatic analyses, and interpreted the data. Maoshan Chen and Wittaya Suwakulsiri provided intellectual input. David W. Greening and Richard J. Simpson supervised the project and, with Adnan Shafiq and Alin Rai, wrote the manuscript.

#### Acknowledgments

A.S. and R.J.S. acknowledge funding support from La Trobe University. A.S. was supported by the La Trobe University Postgraduate Scholarship. We acknowledge La Trobe University Comprehensive Proteomics Platform for providing infrastructure.

Open access publishing facilitated by La Trobe University, as part of the Wiley - La Trobe University agreement via the Council of Australian University Librarians.

#### Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

#### Data Availability Statement

All MS-based proteomics data and processed parameter/search outputs, including UniProt UP000002254 fasta sequence database, have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the MassIVE partner repository and are available via MassIVE with identifier (MSV000093044).

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## Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section.

**Supporting File:** pmic70051-sup-0001-SupMat.xlsx.