

Review

Receptor communication within the lymphocyte plasma membrane: a role for the thrombospondin family of matricellular proteins

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Abstract. Lymphocytes, the principal cells of the immune system, carry out immune surveillance throughout the body by their unique capacity to constantly reposition themselves between a free-floating vascular state and a tissue state characterized by migration and frequent adhesive interactions with endothelial cells and components of the extracellular matrix. Therefore, mechanisms co-ordinating adhesion and migration with signals delivered through antigen recognition probably play a pivotal role

for the regulation of lymphocyte behaviour and function. Endogenous thrombospondin-1 (TSP-1) seems to be the hub in such a mechanism for autocrine regulation of T cell adhesion and migration. TSP-1 functions as a mediator of *cis* interaction of vital receptors within the T lymphocyte plasma membrane, including integrins, low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein, calreticulin and integrin-associated protein.

Keywords. Thrombospondin; lymphocyte; extracellular matrix; adhesion; integrin-associated protein; antigen-presenting cell.

Cell surface receptors are important tools for cellular recognition and interaction with components on other cells and the extracellular matrix (ECM). In lymphocytes, the principal cells of the adaptive immune system, cell surface receptors play a pivotal role for antigen recognition and for the unique capacity of these cells to reposition themselves within the organism through adhesive interactions and controlled migration. Accordingly, the T lymphocyte antigen receptor, TCR/CD3, forms a complex cellular structure, termed the immunological synapse (IS), with appropriate peptide-major histocompatibility complexes (MHC) on antigen-presenting cells [1]. Integrins mediate adhesion of lymphocytes and other cells to basement membranes and the surrounding ECM and cell-cell adhesion. T cells express integrins of the $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$

and $\beta 7$ sub-families where $\alpha 4\beta 1$, $\alpha 5\beta 1$ and $\alpha L\beta 2$ mediate T cell adhesion to endothelial cells and the ECM component fibronectin (FN) [2, 3]. T cell motility is further regulated via $\alpha 1\beta 1$, $\alpha 2\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6\beta 1$ receptors for collagens and laminin (LN) [4, 5] and during T cell activation, $\alpha L\beta 2$ is an important part of the IS [6]. Lymphocytes in the blood thus extravasate by a series of adhesive interactions with vascular endothelial cells involving integrins, selectins and chemokines [7–9]. An additional example of cellular recognition is the clearance of apoptotic cells through calreticulin (CRT) activation of lipoprotein receptor-related protein (LRP) on phagocytes [10].

As well as interacting with molecules on neighbouring cells or ECM, cell surface receptors can also form *cis* associations with other receptors on the same cell. LRP/CD91, a large, multifunctional, endocytic cell surface receptor expressed in a variety of tissues, functions as a co-

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receptor with other cell surface and integral membrane proteins including amyloid precursor protein (APP), platelet-derived growth factor receptor- β (PDGFR- β), urokinase plasminogen activator receptor (uPAR) and CRT [11, 12]. Interactions in *cis* between integrins and other receptors within the same plasma membrane recruit signalling molecules to sites of cell-cell or cell-matrix adhesion, such as the IS, focal complexes or focal adhesions. Examples of integrin-associated cell surface receptors include integrin-associated protein (IAP/CD47), members of the transmembrane-4 superfamily, CD44 and proteins within the peripheral region of the IS [13–17]. TCR-mediated antigen recognition and signal transduction require interaction with CD3 that contain intracellular signalling domains coupling the TCR/CD3 complex to the downstream signalling machinery and are facilitated by proteins that segregate to the central area of the IS including the co-receptors CD4 and CD8 [16, 18–20].

This review discusses a possible mechanism for regulation of *cis* interactions between receptors within the same plasma membrane through ligands with multiple binding sites for cell surface components, thus enabling cross-linking and aggregation of separate receptors. Such ligands may be either of environmental or exogenous origin, but a prerequisite for putative ligand candidates to be interesting as cross-linkers is that they can induce functional responses in their host cells and are available in the context of cellular recognition and activation. The thrombospondin (TSP) family of glycoproteins with five distinct members identified so far, namely TSP-1, TSP-2, TSP-3, TSP-4 and TSP-5 (cartilage oligomeric matrix protein), fulfil several criteria to be functionally important cell surface ligands. The members of the TSP family show a widespread distribution in various organs in the embryonic as well as the adult organism [21–23].

TSP-1 is a multifunctional ECM glycoprotein that displays distinct biological activities in different cell types and has been implicated in cancer cell invasion as an inhibitor of angiogenesis and tumour growth, activates transforming growth factor (TGF)- β and is necessary for maintenance of normal pulmonary homeostasis [24–27]. TSP-1 is a major component of platelet α -granules released in response to thrombin and binds to the platelet surface [28]. The expression of TSP is up-regulated in proliferating cells, in inflammation and in wound healing, and increased TSP expression has been linked to disease states including tumour progression, atherosclerosis and arthritis [29–37]. While ECM glycoproteins like FN, collagen, vitronectin (VN) or LN generate a structural scaffold which enables cellular organization and as such regulates adhesion, survival and differentiation of attached cells, TSP-1 and -2 together with tenascin C, osteopontin, the cysteine-rich 61/connective tissue growth factor/nephroblastoma overexpressed (CCN) family and

SPARC (serum protein acidic and rich in cysteine)/osteonectin belong to a different class of ECM molecules, the matricellular proteins, known to modify cell-ECM interactions. Matricellular proteins function as both soluble and insoluble proteins and do not contribute directly to tissue integrity but are capable of modulating cell function. When presented in mixed substrata, the matricellular proteins can antagonize the pro-adhesive activities of other matrix proteins and cause deadhesion when presented in soluble form to cells in a strong adhesive state [38, 39]. TSP-1 in soluble form has primarily anti-adhesive effects characterized by a reorganization of stress fibres and loss of focal adhesion plaques [40]. This effect is mediated through interactions of the NH₂ terminal domain of TSP-1 with the NH₂ terminal domain of cell surface CRT and its co-receptor LRP/CD91 [11, 40, 41].

TSP structure and receptor-binding sites indicate the capacity to cross-link cell surface receptors

Matricellular proteins are expressed during development and in areas of tissue repair as well as inflammatory sites [42]. In contrast to ECM glycoproteins which induce cell adhesion, matricellular proteins can act as antagonists of cell-ECM interaction if presented in a soluble form but generally support weak cell adhesion in a bound form [43]. Furthermore, the presence of several distinct cell- and ECM-binding sites on the same protein sequence enables interaction with multiple receptors on the same cell, on separate cells and binding to both cell surface receptors and ECM components. In addition, sites on matricellular proteins that mediate association with growth factors, proteases and cytokines may serve to increase locally the concentration of molecules that regulate growth, survival and motility [38, 44–46].

The TSP are usually divided into two sub-groups, A and B, according to their structure and oligomerization (Fig. 1). Group A comprises two members, TSP-1 and TSP-2, with a molecular mass of about 170 kDa for each monomer on reducing gels and 420 kDa in a trimeric non-reduced form. Each monomer consists of an NH₂-terminal heparin-binding domain, a pro-collagen and connecting domain, type 1, type 2 and type 3 repeats and a COOH-terminal cell-binding domain (Fig. 1). Three monomers are covalently linked through disulphide bonds in the coiled-coil oligomerization region close to the NH₂-terminal domain. Group B are pentamers comprising TSP-3, TSP-4 and TSP-5, and consist of monomers of about 100 kDa. The TSP members of group B do not have the connecting and pro-collagen domain and no type I repeat but have four copies of the type 2 repeat [47–51]. Generally, all TSPs have different numbers of type II epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like domains followed by seven type III repeats followed by a highly conserved COOH-ter-

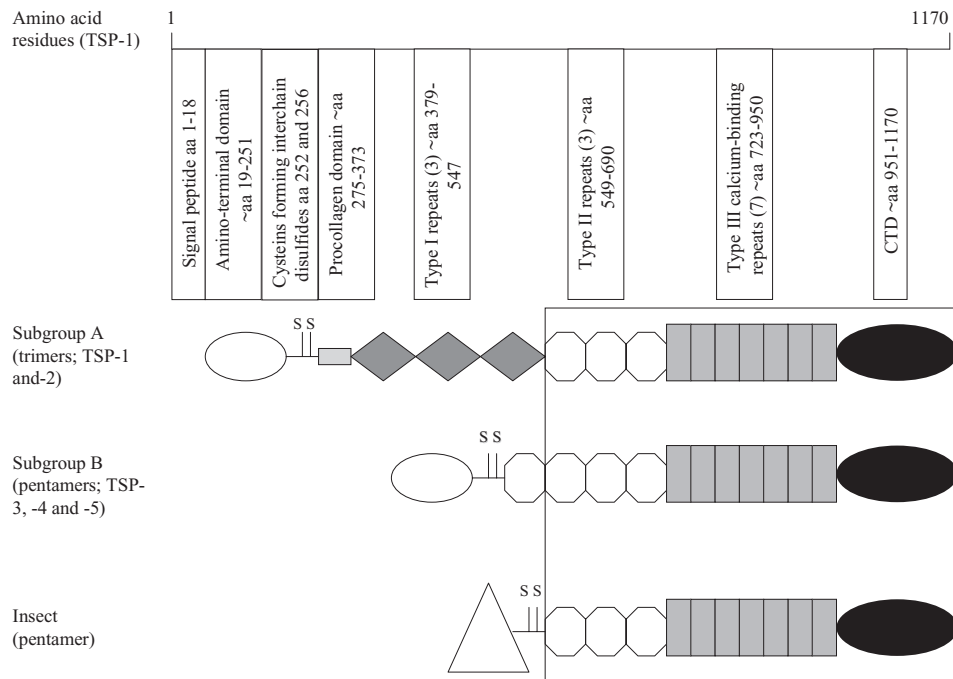


Figure 1. Schematic domain structure of TSPs. [modified from ref. 53]

minimal cell-binding domain that is involved in the regulation of cell adhesion and proliferation [52]. TSP-1 and TSP-2 have type I properdin domains that bind CD36 and glycosaminoglycans. TSP-3, TSP-4 and TSP-5 lack properdin repeats and thus CD36-binding capacity [53]. The N-terminal heparin-binding domains of TSP-1 and TSP-2 show low sequence similarities, with only 32% amino acid sequence identity [54]. However, the deadhesive activity of both TSP-1 and TSP-2 is dependent on signalling events mediated through binding to CRT and LRP [55]. Furthermore, TSP-1 and TSP-2 compete with each other for endocytosis and degradation via binding to LRP [56]. N-terminal binding of TSP-1 and TSP-2 to integrin $\alpha 4 \beta 1$ stimulates T cell adhesion and chemotaxis [57]. However, the physiological roles of TSP-1 and TSP-2 are probably different. Whereas TSP-1 null mice have epithelial and smooth muscle cell hyperplasia and inflammation of the lung, TSP-2 null mice show increased angiogenesis, bleeding diathesis and reduced fibroblast adhesion [25, 58, 59].

The different domains of TSP-1 subunits display binding sites for various cell surface receptors including the integrins $\alpha v \beta 3$, $\alpha 3 \beta 1$, $\alpha 4 \beta 1$, $\alpha 5 \beta 1$ and $\alpha 6 \beta 1$ and CRT/CD91, CD36 and CD47 [60–66]. TSP-1 is involved in multiple functional activities through these receptors, such as adhesion, angiogenesis and cell injury [67, 68] (Table 1). TSP-1 can also bind other extracellular proteins including plasminogen, fibrinogen, fibronectin, heparin and urokinase [45, 69, 70].

The same TSP-1 molecule in soluble form or bound to the ECM or to artificial substrata may cross-link sepa-

rate cell surface receptors. Cross-linking of surface receptors generally increases the capacity of ligands to induce functional responses in target cells, which is well illustrated by the ‘capping phenomenon’ induced by antibodies to surface antigens on lymphocytes and other cells [71, 72]. It is also reasonable to assume that free soluble TSP-1 molecules may attach to a cell surface through co-operative binding via their binding sites for integrins, CRT/CD91 and CD47. In support of this idea, TSP-1 can be detected on the lymphocyte surface and appears to be bound to CRT/CD91 [73, 74]. Based on predictions from its structure, each TSP-1 molecule may cross-link separate receptors on the cell surface. Accordingly, one TSP-1 molecule may cross-link three CD47 receptors through its COOH-terminal binding sites although the flexibility of the molecule may limit the cross-linking capacity. One TSP-1 molecule may also cross-link CRT/CD91, integrins and CD47 on the same cell surface. The potential capacity of TSP-1 to cross-link separate receptors on the cell surface implies that ligation of a TSP-1-associated cell surface receptor, such as $\alpha 4 \beta 1$, by an ECM ligand (fibronectin in the case of $\alpha 4 \beta 1$) influences the cell surface localization and proximity of other TSP-associated receptors, particularly CD47, facilitating functional interactions [57, 75]. Alternatively, TSP-1 may have a basic cell surface association to one major receptor, for example CRT and its co-receptor CD91, and as a consequence of integrin ligation or chemokine stimulation, other receptor binding sites within the TSP molecule are brought into contact with cell surface receptors such as CD47 with a capac-

Table 1. List of TSP-1 sequences related to known functions [modified from ref. 7].

TSP-1 domains	Sequences	Receptors	Functions	Reference
Amino-terminal domain	QNV	$\alpha 3\beta 1$	cell adhesion to TSP-1 haemostasis	62, 107
	RKGSRR/KKTR	HSPG-LRP-gp330 syndecan sulphated glycolipid	endocytosis	108–112
	ELTGAARKGSGR RLVKGP (Hep1)	calreticulin heparin	focal adhesion disassembly inhibition of T cell motility	40, 73, 113
	MKKTRG	decorin	inhibits cell adhesion	114
	LDVP	$\alpha 4\beta 1$	promotes cell adhesion and chemotaxis	57, 65
	LALERKDHSG	$\alpha 6\beta 1$	endothelial cell binding to TSP-1 and TSP-2 and laminin	66
	25-kDa peptide	?	stimulates angiogenesis	115
Oligomerization domain			multimerization	
Procollagen homology domain	NGVQYRN		angiogenesis inhibition chemotaxis inhibition	116
Type I repeat domains (1–3)	RFK	LTGF- β	activation of latent TGF- β	117, 118
	WSHWSPW	protein glycosaminoglycan	activation of latent TGF- β	119, 120
	CSVTCG	HIV gp120 HSPG, CD36	anti-angiogenesis cell adhesion	121–123
	GVQxR	CD36	endothelial cell migration	124
Type II repeat domains (1–3)				
Type III repeat domains (1–7)	RGD	$\alpha v\beta 3$ $\alpha 1\text{Ib}\beta 3$ $\alpha 5\beta 1$	cell adhesion	57, 60, 65, 125
			calcium binding	64
	NCPFHYNP NCQYVNV	cathepsin G, elastase		38
Carboxy-terminal domain (CTD)	RFYVVM IRVVM	CD47	chemotaxis cell proliferation apoptosis	63, 126

ity to trigger functional responses such as spreading and proliferation [57, 75].

TSPs and the function of the immune system

TSP-1-deficient mice show aberrant cutaneous wound healing, decreased macrophage recruitment and a disturbance in pulmonary homeostasis [59]. The lungs of these mice exhibit acute and chronic inflammatory infiltrates and increased fibroblastic and epithelial cell proliferation, matrix deposition and haemorrhages in alveoli. These lesions may be specific to the lungs because TSP-1 is normally expressed at high levels in the lung. Crossing strains of integrin $\beta 6$ null and TSP-1 null mice and comparing the double-null mice showed that these exhib-

ited pneumonia and also a significantly higher incidence of inflammation in tissues other than the lung, including hepatitis, polyarteritis nodosa, colitis, pyometra, conjunctivitis, pancreatitis and peritonitis [76]. The conclusion by the authors was that TSP-1 is involved in the regulation of the immune system. However, it remains to be clarified whether infections due to an aberrant adaptive immune system could arise from the TSP deficiency and thus be responsible for the inflammation in multiple organs. The phenotype of the TSP-2 null mouse implicates TSP-2 in the regulation of adhesion and migration of mesenchymal cells [77]. TSP-2 deficiency in mice leads to increased and prolonged delayed-type hypersensitivity reactions as compared with wild-type mice [78]. The TSP-2-deficient mice also display significantly increased leucocyte adhesion to the endothelium of cutaneous blood vessels. These

results show that TSP-2 plays an important role in limiting inflammatory cell infiltration.

T lymphocytes express TSP-1 with a high turnover and the intracellular storage form of TSP-1 can apparently be mobilized and expressed onto the cell surface as a consequence of appropriate adhesive cellular interactions and during migration in three-dimensional substrata [73, 79]. This points to the possibility that TSP-1 plays a role in the function of the immune system.

The inflammation of joints in rheumatoid arthritis is characterized by infiltration and in situ expansion of lymphocytes. It has been speculated that TSP-1 may augment the inflammation in rheumatoid arthritis since the molecule is exposed on synoviocytes and acts as a co-stimulator of T cells by engaging the receptor CD47 [80]. CD47-TSP-1 interaction may thus be a key element of a regulatory circuit that perpetuates the inflammatory process in the rheumatoid joint.

TSP-induced T cell responses through integrins and CD47

Several studies involving exogenous TSP-1, TSP peptides or antibodies to cellular TSP receptors have shown that TSP-1 can influence T cells and that these effects are mediated through interactions with integrins and CD47. CD4+ T cells adhere to TSP-1 via three distinct receptors – an adhesion-independent receptor that controls adhesion of resting T cells, and the $\alpha 4\beta 1$ and $\alpha 5\beta 1$ integrins, which mediate increased adhesion upon activation [65]. A binding site for $\alpha 4\beta 1$ integrin has been localized to the NH₂-terminal domain of TSP-1 and TSP-2 [57]. Adhesion of Jurkat T cells to TSP-1 or TSP-1-derived peptides stimulate CD3-induced Ras activation and tyrosine phosphorylation of several T cell proteins and transduced signals to the nucleus [81]. ERK phosphorylation was dependent on a $\beta 1$ integrin receptor, MAPK phosphorylation was dependent on CD47 and a heparin peptide-binding receptor was shown to provide a MAPK-dependent nuclear pathway. Insoluble antibodies to CD47 induce co-stimulation or kill T cells in response to CD3 activation, and a synergy between CD47 and TCR ligation is found in early T cell activation [75, 82–84]. In contrast, soluble anti-CD47 antibodies inhibit the allogeneic mixed lymphocyte reaction indicating that the presentation of CD47-binding ligands is critical for the functional effect [85]. Co-stimulatory activity of TSP-1 through interaction with CD47 has also been implicated in synoviocyte-mediated expansion of inflammatory T cells in rheumatoid synovitis [80]. Ligation of CD47 associated with membrane rafts was demonstrated to induce T cell spreading, and actin polymerization and simultaneous ligation of CD47 and CD3 led to additive effects on F-actin [86, 87].

CD47 is not only a receptor for induction of proliferative responses in T cells but has also been shown to be a receptor for induction of T cell anergy in human naive T cells using anti-CD47 antibodies [88]. Whether TSP-1 may induce T cell anergy is still unknown. Intact TSP-1 has been found to inhibit TCR-mediated early T lymphocyte activation and this inhibition depended on CD47 and integrin-associated protein heparan sulphate proteoglycans [89].

CD47 is also a receptor for signal regulatory proteins (SIRPs α and γ), which are expressed at the cell surface of myeloid, haematopoietic and neuronal cells (SIRP α) and on T cells and natural killer (NK) cells (SIRP γ) [90–94]. SIRP α has a transmembrane domain, which contains immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motifs (ITIMs) known to interact with the Src-homology 2 domain-containing phosphatases (SHP)-1 and -2, which inhibit tyrosine kinase-coupled signalling pathways [95, 96]. The function of SIRP α is inhibitory during dendritic cell activation and macrophage phagocytosis [97, 98] whereas it plays a positive role in mediating CD47-dependent migration of neutrophils across epithelium [99]. SIRP γ (also named SIRP $\beta 2$) does not have a transmembrane signalling domain and mediates adhesion between CD47-expressing antigen-presenting cells and SIRP γ -expressing T cells, thereby promoting T cell activation and proliferation [93, 94]. TSP-1 on the T cell surface might compete in a *cis* manner with SIRP γ for binding to CD47 on the antigen-presenting cell, generating altered or impaired T cell activation.

T lymphocytes may encounter TSP-1 or TSP-1 fragments at inflammatory sites. The demonstration that exogenous TSP-1 could modulate TCR-induced T cell responses through distinct cell surface receptors and elicit both stimulatory and inhibitory signals implies that TSP-1 or TSP-1 fragments may be considered as physiological regulators of T cell function [80, 89]. This has a bearing on normal immune responses to infectious agents as well as on pathological situations such as autoimmune and allergic diseases and graft rejection.

Autocrine regulation of T cell adhesion and motility by TSP-1

T lymphocytes express endogenous TSP-1 with a high turnover [73, 79]. CRT and its co-receptor CD91 seem to function as a cell surface receptor for the NH₂-terminal domain of TSP-1 [74]. Adhesion to ICAM-1 or ECM components via $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ integrins brings cell surface TSP-1, which is anchored to CRT/CD91 via the NH₂-terminal domain, in contact with CD47 through its COOH-terminal domain, and up-regulates TSP turnover from a low level in non-adherent cells. CD47 is essential for TSP turnover and adhesion through interaction with the

COOH-terminal domain of TSP-1 in response to triggering signals delivered at the NH₂-terminal. In support of these conclusions, the TSP-1-binding site in CRT, within residues 19–36, markedly enhances integrin-dependent adhesion and cytoplasmic spreading of T cells. 4N1K, the CD47-binding sequence in TSP-1, prevents the increased adhesion induced by CRT 19–36 as well as the basal integrin-dependent adhesion. 4N1K also significantly inhibits the turnover of TSP-1 on fibronectin and ICAM-1, while a scrambled control peptide does not affect TSP expression, and as a result cell surface TSP-1 expression is increased. These results indicate that endogenous TSP-1 connects CRT/CD91 and integrins to CD47 and that this cross-bridging stimulates T cell adhesion. Interestingly, CD3 stimulation seems to inhibit TSP turnover through interference with CD91/CRT-mediated internalization, suggesting that the T cell antigen receptor participates in the control of T cell adhesion via CRT/CD91. β 2 integrin clustering is a key event in leucocyte adhesion to the endothelium during the inflammatory response. CD91 has been shown to be a partner for β 2 integrins at the leucocyte surface that is essential for integrin clustering and adhesion, as indicated by blocking antibody experiments and inhibition of adhesion by antisense oligonucleotides to down-regulate CD91 [100]. This provides further evidence for a previously unrecognized link between CD91 and leucocyte function [100]. Noteworthy in this context is that the CD91 co-receptor CRT has been shown to be involved in adhesion of non-lymphoid and lymphoid cells to ECM substrata and in the regulation of TSP-1-dependent T cell migration [15, 40, 41, 73, 74, 79, 101–104]. Endogenous TSP-1 also seems to play a role in the migration of T cells into three-dimensional collagen gels and CRT and CD47 participate in the TSP-dependent migration [73]. One possible explanation for the participation of TSP-1 in both adhesion and migration is that the TSP molecule has a common functional role in these two processes. However, an alternative, more plausible

explanation is that TSP-1 exerts distinct effects on adhesion and migration on different substrata. Accordingly, the TSP molecule is probably handled differently in cells adherent to two-dimensional ECM substrata or other cells than in cells crawling in three-dimensional collagen matrices, since the lymphocytes crawl through the collagen in a non-adhesive fashion and do not perturb the collagen organization [105, 106].

A model for *cis* receptor communication within the plasma membrane

Figure 2 presents a tentative model for *cis* receptor communication between CRT/CD91, integrins and CD47 within the lymphocyte plasma membrane through endogenous TSP-1. This mechanism is triggered by integrin ligands but may also be triggered by CRT, since the TSP-binding site in CRT is capable of stimulating CD47 via TSP-1 [74]. This means that TSP-1 regulates integrin-dependent T cell functions, such as adhesion and migration, and is consequently important for the capacity of T cells to migrate between separate compartments of the organism. This is consistent with the findings that the turnover of TSP-1 is up-regulated by the integrin ligands FN and ICAM-1 and that TSP turnover depends on interactions with CD47. In non-adherent cells, TSP-1 is probably attached only to CD91/CRT and/or to integrins, and integrin ligation brings TSP-1 into contact with CD47 thus generating a signal that supports adhesion and spreading. These collaborative interactions of TSP-1, via its COOH- and NH₂-terminal domains, with CD47, CRT/CD91 and integrins are further enhanced by up-regulation of TSP turnover through CD91-dependent internalization and the appearance of new TSP. Based on the evidence that stimulation of CD3 augments TSP expression [74], one may postulate that TSP-1-dependent communication between CRT/CD91, integrins and CD47 is down-

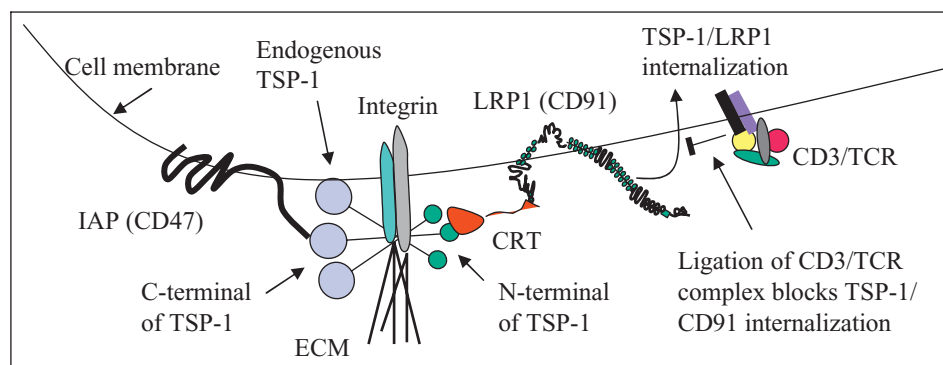


Figure 2. Model of T cell TSP-1 and its interactions with cell surface receptors. TSP-1 is associated with CRT/CD91 and/or integrin before adhesion. Adhesive interactions with ECM components or ICAM-1 via integrins trigger interaction of the COOH-terminal domain of TSP-1 with CD47 and up-regulate TSP turnover. Ligation of TCR/CD3 inhibits internalization of TSP-1, CRT and CD91 and focuses TSP-1 onto its cell surface receptors.

regulated in quiescent, fresh T cells from the blood of healthy individuals. In contrast, this receptor interaction would be up-regulated during normal immune responses and during the course of autoimmune and allergic diseases. Accordingly, TSP-1 may determine an important receptor interaction on the lymphocyte surface and it is conceivable that abrogation of this interaction owing to lack of ligand or blocking of receptors is critical for the control of T cell activity. Interestingly, ligation of TCR/CD3 seems to cause a rapid inhibition of TSP turnover while maintaining TSP expression at a high level, suggesting that a vital molecule for the recognition of antigens and development of immune responses is involved in the regulation of the TSP-dependent mechanism for receptor communication within the T lymphocyte plasma membrane.

The interactions between TSP-1, integrins, CRT/CD91 and CD47 and the effects on these interactions by integrin ligation and stimulation of TCR/CD3 provide potential targets for interference of lymphocyte proliferation and infiltration as well as for prevention of tissue damage in various inflammatory conditions caused by the immune system. This applies to diseases of autoimmune and allergic origin as well as to rejection of transplants. Thus, it may be possible to tailor treatment to combat T cell infiltration through interference with binding sites in the TSP-1 molecule or by blocking its receptors. T cell TSP-1 may play a role in protective immunity to infectious agents. Accordingly, it is possible that the lack of TSP-1 may impair T cell responses to infectious agents and account for the increased circulating white blood cell count and inflammatory infiltrates seen in the lungs of TSP-1-deficient mice and the significantly higher incidence of inflammation in tissues other than the lung in the integrin $\beta 6$ and TSP-1 double-null mice [25, 59, 76]. The identification of a putative mechanism for integrated control of interactions between surface receptors involved in adhesion, migration, growth and survival is thus of great potential interest with respect to understanding the function of the immune system.

Conclusion

TSP-1 is a matricellular protein present in the ECM only at specific stages of development or in association with specific pathological conditions. Studies involving exogenous TSP-1, TSP peptides or antibodies to cellular TSP receptors have shown that TSP-1 can influence T cell adhesion and proliferation and that these effects are mediated through interactions with integrins and CD47. T lymphocytes also express endogenous TSP-1 with a high turnover and this TSP-1 together with integrins, LRP/CD91, CRT and IAP/CD47 seems to play a pivotal role in a mechanism for autocrine regulation of T cell adhesion and motility.

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