
REVIEW

Collectins – soluble proteins containing collagenous regions and lectin domains – and their roles in innate immunity

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Abstract

The collectins are a group of mammalian lectins containing collagen-like regions. They include mannan binding protein, bovine conglutinin, lung surfactant protein A, lung surfactant protein D, and a newly discovered bovine protein named collectin-43. These proteins share a very similar modular domain composition and overall 3-dimensional structure. They also appear to play similar biological roles in the preimmune defense against microorganisms in both serum and lung surfactant. The close evolutionary relationship between the collectins is further emphasized by a common pattern of exons in their genomic structures and the presence of a gene cluster on chromosome 10 in humans that contains the genes known for the human collectins. Studies on the structure/function relationships within the collectins could provide insight into the properties of a growing number of proteins also containing collagenous regions such as C1q, the hibernation protein, the α - and β -ficolins, as well as the membrane acetylcholinesterase and the macrophage scavenger receptor.

Keywords: collagen-like; collectins; innate immunity; lectin; mannan binding protein; lung surfactant protein

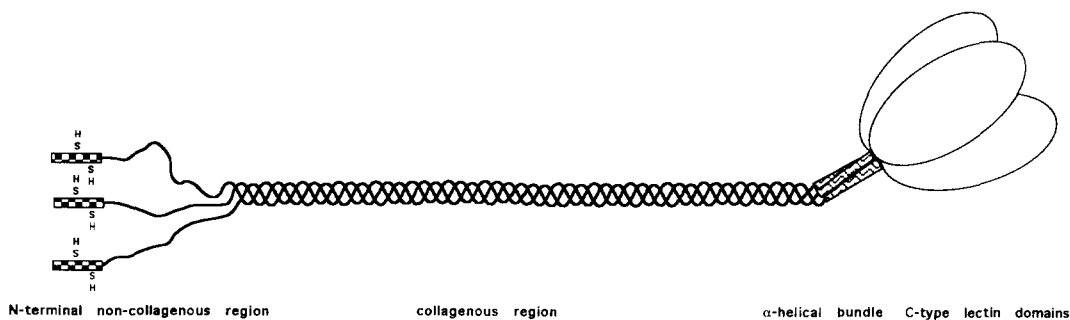
A growing number of mammalian plasma and cell-surface proteins have been found to contain collagen-like regions attached to noncollagenous domains; however, they are not included in the definition of “collagens,” which exclusively refers to proteins of the extracellular matrix. The proteins with collagenous domains found in other locations include not only the “collectins,” but also 6 other proteins, namely serum complement protein C1q (Brodsky-Doyle et al., 1976; Sellar et al., 1991), α - and β -ficolin (Ichijo et al., 1993), the “hibernation protein” from squirrel (Takamatsu et al., 1993), the macrophage scavenger receptor (Kodama et al., 1990), and the membrane acetylcholinesterase (MacPhee-Quiley et al., 1986; Krejci et al., 1991). Among these collagenous molecules are the collectins, which form a family of oligomeric proteins, which contain a C-type lectin domain at the C-terminal end of each of their polypeptide chains. The collectins include serum mannan binding protein (MBP), bovine conglutinin and collectin-43 (CL-43), and the lung surfactant proteins SP-A and SP-D (Holmskov et al., 1994). The struc-

ture/function relationships within the collectins are at present under intensive study and it is becoming clear that the C-type lectin domains, by binding to carbohydrate ligands on the cell-surface of pathogens, fulfill a recognition function that can elicit effector functions via the collagen-like region, such as complement activation (in the case of MBP) or binding to cell-surface receptors to trigger phagocytosis or oxidative killing. These relationships resemble closely the well-established correlation between the structure of C1q and its functions, such as binding to immune complexes, activating complement and interacting with cell-surface receptors, with the collagen-like regions and the globular domains playing very distinct roles (Reid, 1983; Tenner, 1993). Because some of the collectins display similar functions to C1q, but do so without the involvement of antibody, it is probable that they play an important role in innate immunity.

The overall domain organization seen in the collectins is illustrated in Figure 1A. Four distinct regions can be identified within these proteins, three of which are structurally well defined. An independently folding C-type lectin domain is located at the C-terminal end of each polypeptide chain (Drickamer, 1988). The lectin domain is preceded by a stretch of about 40 amino acids, which have the potential to form a 3-stranded

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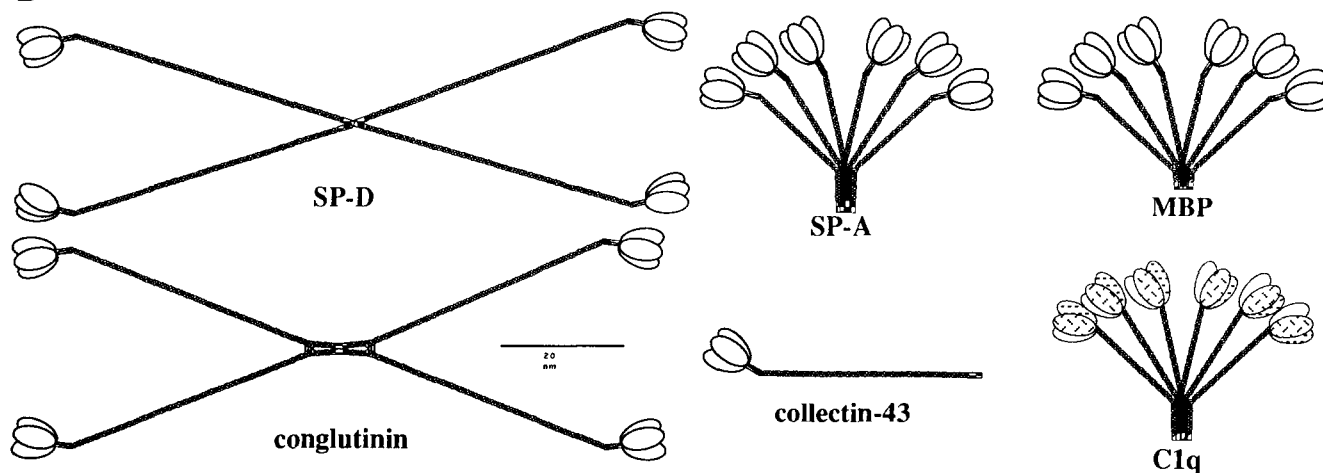


Fig. 1. Domain organization and assembly of the collectin molecules and C1q. **A:** Three polypeptide chains, each having a C-terminal C-type lectin domain, are considered to associate through strong hydrophobic interactions via the α -helical bundle forming the "neck" region. The collagen triple-helix forms in a zipper-like fashion from the C-terminal end to the N-terminal end, where a short noncollagenous region is believed to mediate oligomerization, involving disulfide bridges, to the higher oligomers shown in **B**. **B:** Schematic drawings of C1q and the molecules belonging to the collectin family of proteins (drawn to scale). The overall dimensions were determined by electron microscopy. However, very few side views are available of SP-A to allow the estimation of the length of the collagenous parts, which appear aligned in parallel at the foot of the molecule and thus hold the 6 triple-helical rods together to give a hexameric structure. No oligomers have as yet been found in the case of collectin-43. The globular domains of the 3 chains of C1q are not identical.

α -helical coiled-coil when associated with the equivalent regions in 2 other chains (Hoppe et al., 1994). The third domain is the collagenous region, which is always found directly N-terminal to the α -helical bundle. The repeating Gly-Xaa-Yaa triplet regions from 3 chains of any collectin form a collagen triple-helix of varying length. In SP-A and MBP, the sequences include an interruption, at triplets 13 and 8, respectively, and therefore the collagen helices are considered to bend at these points (Voss et al., 1988; Fig. 1B). The N-terminal portion in each molecule is short, containing at least 1 cysteine residue per chain, and these cysteines are thought to play an important role in the assembly of the trimeric, collagen-containing rods into higher oligomers (Fig. 1B). However, little is known about the secondary structure of this region.

The collectins are considered to act as a "bridge" between very large particles, which have on their surface certain exposed carbohydrates (Lu et al., 1990) (such as those found on invading microorganisms or, indeed, allergens derived from house dust mites or pollen grains), and the host's immune system. Their functions can be divided into 2 categories, namely those that rely on the carbohydrate recognition specificities of the lectin do-

main involved and those of the subsequent interactions with the host's effector systems or cells (Malhotra et al., 1990).

The collectins have been characterized at the cDNA and the genomic levels and the sequences, and intron/exon positions, are consistent with the domain organization outlined in Figure 1. Bacterial expression of distinct regions of the collectins has been crucial to the structure determination of both the C-type lectin domain (of MBP) and the 3-stranded α -helical bundle (of human SP-D). Analysis of the gene sequence of MBP suggests that the opsonic defects seen in infants suffering from recurrent infections correlate with point mutations in the MBP genes, a finding that may have important implications for the analysis of inflammatory disorders of the lung, possibly involving the collectins SP-D and SP-A and their genes.

Structure of the collectins

The lectin domain

Lectins are defined as proteins other than antibodies or enzymes that bind carbohydrates (Barondes, 1988). The specificity of a

given lectin is usually determined by the method of binding-site saturation in which different sugars are tested for their ability to inhibit lectin binding to immobilized carbohydrates and is defined in terms of the most potent carbohydrate inhibitor. Animal lectins are not a homogeneous class of proteins, but can be divided into 2 major groups: the C-type and the S-type lectins (Drickamer, 1988). C-type lectins are extracellular proteins that bind to a variety of carbohydrates in a strictly Ca^{2+} -dependent manner, whereas S-type lectins have no requirement for divalent cations; they occur both intra- and extracellularly and bind predominantly β -galactosides (Barondes, 1984; Liao et al., 1994). The main exceptions, in terms of carbohydrate binding proteins, which do not fit into either of these categories of lectins, are the extracellular proteins laminin and fibronectin (Yamada, 1983); the mannose-6-phosphate receptor (Kornfeld, 1986), responsible for targeting proteins to the lysosomal compartments; and the viral hemagglutinins (Wiley & Skehel, 1987). The pentraxin C-reactive protein (Kolb-Bachofen, 1991; Kottgen et al., 1992) and serum amyloid component P (SAP) (Kubak et al., 1988) also show lectin activities. The crystal structure of SAP has recently been determined and a high degree of similarity was seen in comparison to the 3-dimensional structure of legume lectins, such as concanavalin A (Emsley et al., 1994).

Collectins contain lectin domains of the calcium-dependent type that are between 114 and 118 amino acids long with 14 invariant and 18 highly conserved residues, including 4 cysteine residues giving rise to the disulfide pattern 1-4 and 2-3 (Drickamer, 1988). C-type lectin domains occur in a wide variety of modular proteins (Table 1). The 3-dimensional structure of the recombinant C-type lectin domain of rat MBP has been determined by X-ray crystallography (Weis et al., 1991b) and was found to have the following features: (1) the N- and C-terminal ends of the lectin domain are located very close to one another, thus making it an ideal domain to link to the N- or C-terminal end of a polypeptide chain; and (2) the structure appears divided by 2 transverse β -strands that separate a compact scaffold of 2 helices and 2 β -sheets, with the N- and C-termini, from 1 very extensive loop, carrying the binding sites for 2 calcium ions as well as for the carbohydrate ligand. Thus, half of the domain, consisting of nonregular secondary structure, is responsible for carbohydrate binding and is attached to a very tight core structure. One of the calcium ions bound by the lectin domain was shown in the crystal structure to be complexed by both conserved residues within the lectin domain and the 3 and 4 hydroxyl groups of the terminal α -D-mannose residue bound by the domain (Weis et al., 1992). Modeling different carbohydrate structures onto the binding site of the MBP lectin domain showed the importance of other residues in the domain, which are in close proximity to the binding site and sterically restrict the access of differently shaped carbohydrates. However, the binding site is not buried within the protein structure but appears to be located at the surface of the $2.5 \times 2.5 \times 4.0$ -nm lectin domain, allowing for binding to accessible sugars contained within complex oligosaccharide chains as well as recognition of terminal nonreducing sugars. However, in contrast to the interactions seen in S-type and legume lectin-type protein-carbohydrate binding, the crystal structure of the C-type lectin domain of MBP provided little evidence for van der Waals or hydrophobic interactions with the complexed carbohydrate.

The molecular architecture of C-type lectin domains permits site-specific alterations to be made in the carbohydrate-binding

region, within the flexible loop, which do not appear to affect the integrity of the structural scaffold holding the loop in place (Quessenberry & Drickamer, 1991). Such alterations can transfer a galactose-binding activity into the mannose-binding protein C-type lectin domain (Drickamer, 1992). Two of the 5 residues responsible for complexing the calcium ion involved in carbohydrate binding, namely E185 and N187 within the sequence EPN-E-WND (where E185, N187, E193, N205, and D206 are considered to be of importance in binding Ca^{2+}), were shown to be predominantly involved in determining the specificity for hydroxyl groups in positions equivalent to the 3- and 4-OH groups of D-mannose ($^4\text{C}_1$ form) in monosaccharide recognition (Drickamer, 1992). Change of these 2 residues to Q185 and D187 resulted in a large increase in the affinity for D-galactose as opposed to D-mannose seen for the E/N wild type, reflecting the steric requirements of bi-equatorial vs. equatorial-axial positioned hydroxyl groups at positions 3 and 4 of the ligand. The correlation between specificity and residue pair was found in sequence comparisons to be in excellent agreement with other C-type lectin domains of known sequence and monosaccharide specificity (Table 1). Point mutations as well as peptide/mAb inhibition studies (Geng et al., 1991, 1992) were also used to localize the binding site(s) within the E- and P-selectin molecules (Erbe et al., 1992, 1993). However, the possibility of more than 1 binding site present within these adhesion molecules, or additional protein-protein interactions involved in selectin-glycoprotein recognition, cannot be ruled out, and should also be considered in the definition of ligands for the collectins.

Using the criteria discussed above in sequence alignments, the collectins MBP, conglutinin, CL-43, and SP-D were all found to belong to the mannose-type carbohydrate binding family, whereas SP-A assumes a hybrid position between the rest of the collectins and the domains of other lectins specific for galactose-type sugars, e.g., the cartilage proteoglycans, which is in good agreement with the observation that both types of sugars, galactose and mannose, can inhibit SP-A binding equally well (Haagsman et al., 1987). The macrophage galactose-receptor (Sato et al., 1992) and the Kupffer cell fucose receptor (Hoyle & Hill, 1988) also exhibit galactose-type selectivity, however they contain within their binding regions a 4-amino acid-long insertion between the 2 residues found to direct mannose-type or galactose-type hydroxyl-group specificity and residue E193. This may influence the conformation of the lectin domain at the binding site and thus define the steric requirements determining the binding activity for the natural polysaccharide ligands of these proteins. A similar observation can be made in case of the selectins (Lasky et al., 1989), which have a highly charged and conserved 5-residue-long insertion between E193 and N205/D206. Therefore, although the requirement for hydroxyl-groups of the mannose- or galactose-type within the binding-site on the carbohydrate molecules is determined by the E-N/Q-D pair of residues, other differences seen in the sequences of the lectin domains, and of the extensive loop carrying the binding sites in particular, seem to be also involved in ligand selection in the *in vivo* interaction of C-type lectins with complex carbohydrate structures. Domains identified by sequence comparison and predicted to have an overall folding similar to that seen in the crystal structure of the C-type lectin domain of MBP (Weis et al., 1991b), but lacking some of the characteristic residues involved in calcium/carbohydrate binding, are seen in a number of type II membrane proteins (Table 1). These exceptions include the mu-

Table 1. Proteins containing C-type lectin domains or homologous regions^a

	Specificity known	Reference	Gal/Man type
1. Proteoglycans			
Rat cartilage proteoglycan core protein	Gal-Fuc	Doege et al., 1987	QPD-E-WND gal
Human cartilage proteoglycan core protein	Gal-Fuc	Doege et al., 1991	QPD-E-WND gal
Chicken cartilage proteoglycan core protein	Gal-Fuc	Tanaka et al., 1988	QPD-E-WND gal
Fibroblast proteoglycan protein	Gal-Fuc	Zimmerman & Ruoslahti, 1989	QPD-E-WND gal
2. Type II membrane proteins			
Chicken hepatic lectin	GlcNAc	Drickamer, 1981	EPN-E-WND man
Human asialoglycoprotein receptors 1 and 2	Gal-GalNAc	Spiess & Lodish, 1985	QPD-E-WND gal
Rat asialoglycoprotein receptor	Gal-GalNAc	Drickamer et al., 1984	QPD-E-WND gal
Rat peritoneal macrophage lectin	Gal-GalNAc	Li et al., 1990	QPD-E-WND gal
Rat Kupffer cell lectin	Gal-Fuc	Hoyle & Hill, 1991	QPD-E-WND gal
Murine macrophage lectin	Gal-GalNAc	Sato et al., 1992	QPD-E-WND gal
Human placenta-derived gp120 binding lectin	Man	Curtis et al., 1992	EPN-E-WND man
Human CD23	*	Suter et al., 1987	EPN-E-WND
Murine T lymphocyte antigen (A1)	*	Yokoyama et al., 1989	----G-RLD
Murine T lymphocyte antigen (YE1/48)	*	Chan & Takei, 1989	-----
Rat NKR-P1	*	Giorda et al., 1990	----D-VLS
Human Lyb-2	*	Van Hoegen et al., 1990	KPF-D-WIM
Human NKG2 (A-D)	*	Houchins et al., 1991	----L-LKS
Murine NK cell protein Ly49	*	Wong et al., 1991	----G-LDN
Human T cell hybridoma lectin homologue	*	Yoshimatsu et al., 1992	QPW-G-WRR
3. The collectins			
Bovine conglutinin	GlcNAc	Lee et al., 1991	EPN-E-WND man
Human mannan binding protein	Man-Fuc	Taylor et al., 1989	EPN-E-WND man
Rat mannan binding proteins A and C	Man-Fuc	Drickamer et al., 1986	EPN-E-WND man
Human lung surfactant protein A	Man-Fuc	White et al., 1985	EPA-E-WND
Dog lung surfactant protein A	*	Benson et al., 1985	EPR-E-WND
Human lung surfactant protein D	Malt-Man	Rust et al., 1991	EPN-E-WND man
Bovine collectin-43	Man-ManNAc	Holmskov et al., 1993b	EPN-E-WND man
Bovine mannan binding protein	Man-Fuc	Holmskov et al., 1993a	EPN-E-WND man
4. The selectins			
L-selectin	NeuNAc-Fuc	Lasky et al., 1989	EPN-E-WND man
E-selectin	NeuNAc-Fuc	Bevilacqua et al., 1991	EPN-E-WND man
P-selectin	NeuNAc-Fuc	Johnson et al., 1989	EPN-E-WND man
5. Other C-type lectins			
Human HIP	Lac	Christa et al., 1994	EPN-G-WKD
Sea raven antifreeze protein	Ice	Ng & Hew, 1992	KPD-A-WDD
Smelt antifreeze protein	Ice	Ewart et al., 1992	QPD-E-WND gal
Rat pancreatic thread protein	CaCO ₃	Rouquier et al., 1991	YPN-G-WRD
Macrophage mannose receptor	Man	Taylor et al., 1990	
CRD-1			SPS-K-WEN
CRD-2			EPS-E-WAD
CRD-3			MPG---WDV
CRD-4			EPN-W-WND man
CRD-5			EPN-W-WND man
CRD-6			YPG-A-WMD
CRD-7			EPK---WKT
CRD-8			DPS---WSN

^a Proteins containing C-type lectin domains or regions with homology to C-type lectin domains are listed and are divided into 5 groups (Drickamer, 1992). Not all of the carbohydrate specificities have been determined (*), and certain proteins, although they contain the conserved residues consistent with a C-type lectin domain being present, do not appear to bind carbohydrate (e.g., the sea raven antifreeze protein). The mannose or galactose types indicate the presence of residues (Drickamer, 1992) shown to correlate with the binding specificity of the particular lectin domain for either galactose or mannose.

rine T lymphocyte antigens A1 (Yokoyama et al., 1989) and YE1/48 (Chan & Takei, 1989), the murine natural killer cell protein Ly49 (Wong et al., 1991), and its rat homologue NKR-P1 (Giorda et al., 1990), as well as the human and murine Lyb-2

proteins (Van Hoegen et al., 1990). Also lacking one of the conserved residues considered to be involved in MBP-carbohydrate interaction is the human IgE receptor CD 23, which binds in a calcium-dependent manner to IgE, but also to nonglycosylated

IgE (Vercelli & Geha, 1989). The macrophage mannose receptor, which is the only protein known to contain within its primary sequence more than a single C-type lectin domain, also falls into this category. Only 2 of the 8 domains show all of the calcium-binding residues required for interacting with a carbohydrate ligand seen in the MBP crystal structure. Interestingly, significant sequence homology to C-type lectin domains is also seen in a group of antifreeze proteins from herring, sea raven, and smelt (Ewart et al., 1992; Ng & Hew, 1992). These polypeptides inhibit the growth of ice crystals in a calcium-dependent manner; however, there is no evidence yet whether the interaction with ice crystals is similar to that of C-type lectins to hydroxyl groups of carbohydrates.

The α -helical bundle

Recently the structural characteristics of the domain located immediately N-terminal to the lectin domain, and which is common to all of the collectins, were established (Hoppe et al., 1994). The short stretch of 34–41 amino acids between the N-terminal end of the lectin domain and the beginning of the collagen-like triple helix contains hydrophobic residues that show a heptad repeat (Fig. 2). A recombinant peptide equivalent to this region in human SP-D was analyzed, by size exclusion chromatography and crosslinking experiments, and found to form a trimer in solution. CD measurements indicated mostly α -helical structure and multidimensional NMR revealed the parallel nonstaggered orientation of the α -helices in a 3-stranded coiled-coil. The structure is held together by very strong, hydrophobic forces and proved to be very stable against denaturation by heat ($T_m > 55^\circ\text{C}$) or pH (pH 3.0–8.5). Coiled-coils are found in a variety of modular proteins, and can contain 2, 3, or 4 α -helices in parallel and nonstaggered, or antiparallel and staggered, orientation. The strong and noncovalent forces that hold these helices together result from hydrophobic side chains (Harbury et al., 1993), in a and d positions of the heptad repeat, forming the interface between the helices (Fig. 2). However, other side chains also play an important role in the interactions between the helices and may be crucial to the interchain recognition process in the folding pathway of these molecules. SP-D, conglutinin, and CL-43 show a good agreement with the heptad repeat pattern, whereas irregularities occur in the sequences of MBP and SP-A (Fig. 2). However, hydrophilic or charged residues in positions a and d can also be found in the chains of other α -helices of known coiled-coil structure, such as laminin (Timpl et al., 1979) and the macrophage scavenger receptors (Kodama et al., 1990).

The collagenous domain

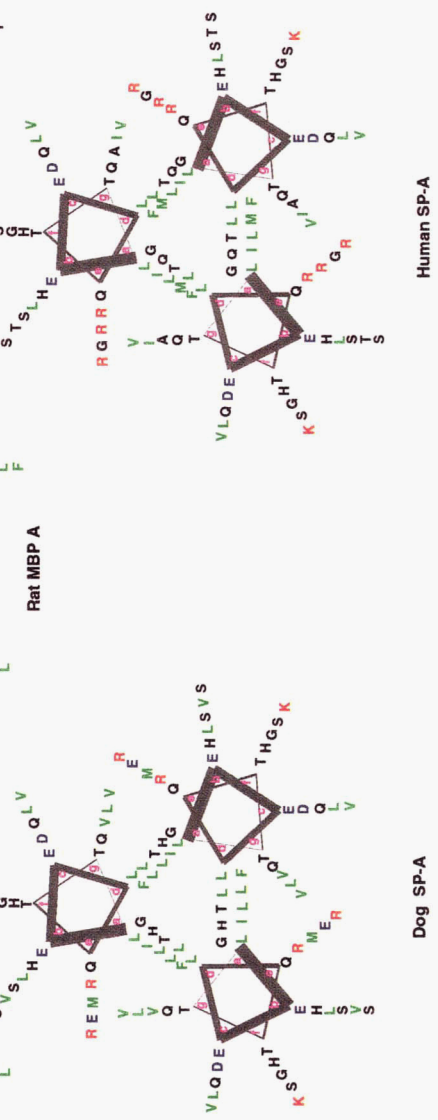
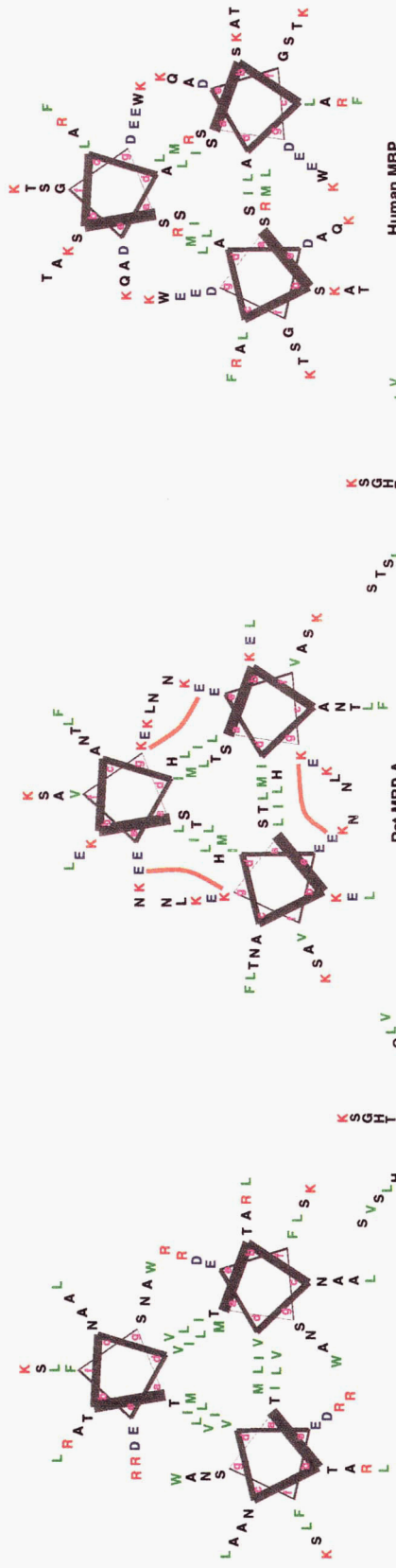
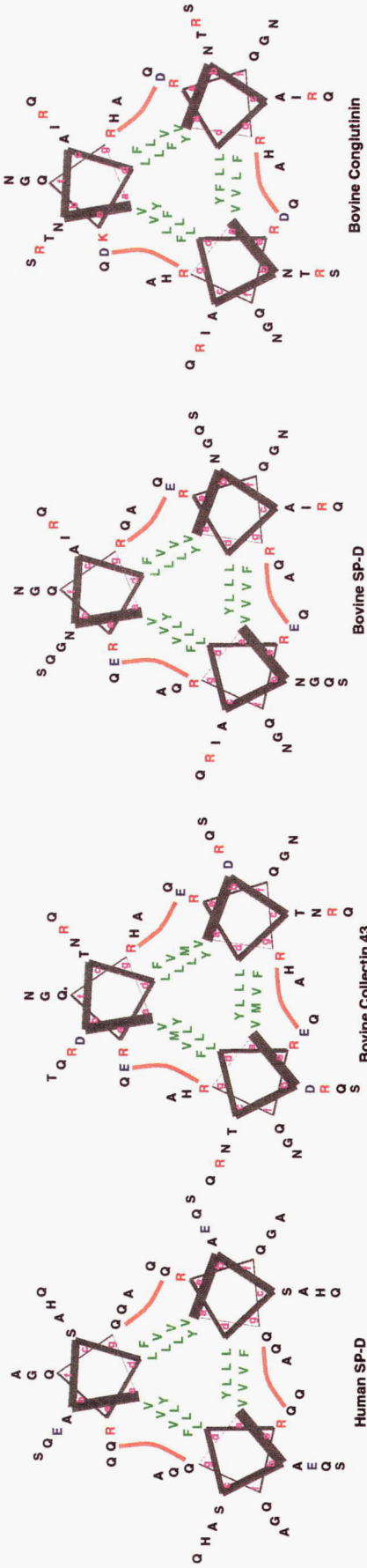
The collectins are a family of soluble proteins containing collagenous sequence. Most collagens are insoluble constituents of the extracellular matrix, such as the fibril-associated collagens with interrupted triple-helix (FACITs) (collagen types IX, XII, XIV, and XVI) and the collagens of striated fibrils (types I, II, III, V, and XI) (Van der Rest & Garrone, 1991). C1q is well known as a serum protein containing collagen-like triple helical structures (Reid, 1983), and its C-terminal globular domains show significant similarity to the C-terminal noncollagenous regions of the chains of the ground squirrel hibernation protein (Takamatsu et al., 1993) as well as to the C-terminal regions of

the type VIII and X collagens (Sellar et al., 1991), and to the precerebellin molecule (Urade et al., 1991) (Table 2). However, none of these molecules shows a C-type lectin activity or sequence similarity to the lectin domain or appears to contain an α -helical bundle. This also holds for the ficolins (Ichijo et al., 1993), a newly discovered class of molecules bearing fibrinogen-like domains at their C-terminal ends that, like the C1q B chain, conglutinin, and SP-D, contain uninterrupted collagenous regions within the N-terminal halves of their polypeptide chains. The features of the collagenous regions of the collectins and other soluble collagen-containing proteins are compared in Table 2A.

The biosynthesis of collagen-containing molecules requires the correct alignment of 3 polypeptides of repeating Gly-Xaa-Yaa triplets to form the triple-helix (Traub & Piez, 1971). As the formation of the collagen helix proceeds in a zipperlike fashion from a single nucleation point at the C-terminal end of the 3 chains (Engel & Prockop, 1991) and as no direct association between the C-type lectin domains can be observed under physiological conditions (Weis et al., 1991a) it is possible that, in the collectin family of proteins, the tight association of the 3 chains in the α -helical bundle serves as the nucleation point for the formation of the triple-helix (Hoppe et al., 1994). Characteristic side-chain modifications known from collagen molecules are also present in the collagenous portion of the collectins, as for example in the case of MBP, which was shown to carry glycosylgalactosyl modifications on a lysine residue (Colley & Baenziger, 1987) similar to those seen in other collagens and C1q. Many of the proline and lysine residues in the Yaa-position are hydroxylated to give 4-hydroxyproline and hydroxylysine, respectively. Hydroxyproline residues are known to stabilize the collagen triple-helix (Sakakibara et al., 1973) and presumably carry the same function within the collectins. However, the hydroxylysine residues do not appear to participate in the covalent crosslinking reactions mediated by lysyl oxidases as is seen in the collagens of the extracellular matrix (Eyre et al., 1984). In the collectin family of proteins the association of the trimeric collagen-containing rods to form higher order oligomers appears to be mediated predominantly by the N-terminal noncollagenous sequences and often involves disulfide bridges between the subunits (Lu et al., 1993c). The association between the heterotrimeric subunits in the C1q molecule, as well as in the SP-A molecule, involves almost a third of the collagen triple-helix and is characterized by not only disulfide bonds but predominantly by hydrophobic residues thought to face those of the neighboring triple-helices in the collagenous region up to the bend in the bunch-of-tulips-like structure (Kilchherr et al., 1988). However, in the C1q molecule, a region of charged amino acids, in the Xaa- and Yaa-positions, exhibits a significant degree of homology to the regions in the triple-helical domain following the N-terminal domains of the collectin molecules. This region has been postulated to be involved in the interaction between both C1q and the collectins with the C1q receptor (Malhotra et al., 1993b).

The N-terminal region of the collectins

The N-terminal, noncollagenous, sequences of the collectins show only limited similarity to each other and no homologous regions in other proteins were retrieved from the databank in searches with these sequences. However, the conservation of the cysteine residues between conglutinin, CL-43, MBP, and SP-D



is indicative of a similar role for these residues, in the association to higher oligomeric forms (as illustrated in Fig. 1B).

Bovine conglutinin was found to contain an additional cysteine residue within its collagenous domain. This cysteine residue in the interruption of the triple-helix at triplet 8 has been implicated in the increased stability of the disulfide-linked oligomers seen in the electron micrographs and in SDS-PAGE analysis of conglutinin when compared to bovine SP-D (Lu et al., 1993c). The purification of intact oligomers proved to be more difficult in the case of SP-D than of conglutinin and a large excess of monomers is seen in electron microscopy pictures, depending on the preparation; no higher oligomers have as yet been detected in preparations of the recently discovered CL-43 molecule from bovine serum (Holmskov et al., 1993b).

Function

Carbohydrate recognition by the collectins

An important feature of C-type lectin domains is the very low affinity of a single domain for its ligand. Thus, it is not surprising that C-type lectin domains have mainly been found in molecules containing regions mediating oligomerization or membrane attachment. Native MBP, for example, contains 18 lectin domains and exhibits a K_D for mannan of 2×10^{-9} M (Kawasaki et al., 1983), whereas the binding of single recombinant lectin domains of human SP-D to immobilized carbohydrate ligands on plates or resins can be completely inhibited by 0.1 mM glucose (Hoppe et al., unpubl. obs.). Lectin domains in trimeric forms, such as those found in dissociated single subunits of collectins (Fig. 1A) or in recombinant molecules containing the α -helical bundle of human SP-D, can be bound to immobilized monosaccharides and can only be completely eluted when a concentration of free monosaccharide of 20 mM is used (Hoppe et al., unpubl. obs.). However, the degree of multivalency is only 1 structural factor determining ligand specificity of the collectin molecules.

Structural factors influencing carbohydrate binding appear to operate at 3 distinct levels: at the level of the residues directly involved at the binding sites of both the lectin domains and the carbohydrate; at the level of steric hindrance by either protein or carbohydrate structure restricting access to the respective binding sites; and at the level of epitope spacing on the ligand, which has to match the position of the lectin domains in a given collectin as determined by the overall 3-dimensional assembly. Therefore, the conformation of the neighboring hydroxyl groups at the exposed sites of the carbohydrate has to match the subtype of the C-type lectin (this explains the failure of galactose and the success of L-fucose in inhibiting MBP binding to mannan), and the conformation of the carbohydrate around the hy-

droxyl groups directly involved in binding has to be sterically favored by other side chains within the lectin domain (e.g., the increasing size of the groups substituted at the 2-hydroxyl group position in glucose reduces the ability of the sugar to inhibit binding of SP-D to maltosyl-BSA [Lu et al., 1993a], with 50% inhibition being shown by 10 mM glucose or by 19 mM glucosamine or by 29 mM *N*-acetyl glucosamine). Also, a suitable binding site must be present within the carbohydrate moiety and must not be masked by other parts of the structure of the glycoproteins or complex carbohydrates (the recognition of the carbohydrate moiety in iC3b but not in the native C3 by conglutinin in the fluid phase is a good example of the biological significance of this level of regulation of specificity [Lachmann & Müller-Eberhard, 1968]).

However, the unusual overall structures of the collectin molecules may very well have an additional specificity-determining influence in the *in vivo* situation; for example, conglutinin spans almost 100 nm with its collagenous regions compared to a maximal distance of 28 nm between the lectin domains in the MBP molecule (Strang et al., 1986) (Fig. 1B). It seems unlikely, therefore, that both of these serum collectins exhibit identical binding to the carbohydrate moieties on target particles of different size and shape, such as influenza virus (100 nm), poliomyelitis virus (30 nm), or *Escherichia coli* (1,000 nm), even if those particles contain accessible carbohydrate molecules with the required OH configuration in a comparable density on their surface. The requirement for multiple binding sites on the same particle becomes especially relevant in the case of lectin–ligand interaction where only a single lectin domain, or a lectin “head” composed of a trimeric group of lectin domains, is involved in binding, such as would be required for the crosslinking by collectin molecules of small nonaggregated ligands, e.g., soluble asialoglycoproteins. These interactions should be readily inhibitable by normal serum concentrations of glucose, and this thus represents another factor determining ligand specificity in the *in vivo* situation. Truncated conglutinin is the major form of conglutinin in heat-inactivated bovine serum and lacks the N-terminal 40 residues, resembling a trimeric molecule containing a collagenous triple-helix and a single lectin “head,” and cannot form higher oligomers. This truncated conglutinin molecule was shown to exhibit neither conglutination activity nor binding activity to the sensitized erythrocyte–solid phase iC3b complex (EAiC3b), but it retained the binding activity to mannan in solution and the original binding specificity for *N*-acetylglucosamine (Kawasaki et al., 1983; Lu et al., 1993c). The different shapes of the collectins as well as the length of the collagenous region and their oligomeric assembly all seem capable of influencing the binding specificity for carbohydrate ligands on biologically relevant particles, yet comparative studies identifying distinct targets for the binding of different collectins on an appropriate target

Fig. 2. Wheel projection of the amino acids forming the α -helical bundle. The structure of the α -helical bundle present in human SP-D has been determined by multidimensional NMR, and the equivalent regions of the other collectins are shown for comparison. The sequences begin at the N-terminal end of the α -helical region, with hydrophobic residues shown in green, positively charged residues shown in red, and negatively charged residues shown in blue. The brown line indicates a possible interaction between residues in e and g positions. The wheel projections for bovine SP-D, conglutinin, and collectin-43 are in excellent agreement with the observed structure of human SP-D and illustrate the strong hydrophobic interactions between the helices. The wheels representing MBP and SP-A show a number of hydrophobic residues in positions b, c, e, f, and g, pointing “outward,” and also contain hydrophilic residues in the buried positions a and d. The model drawing of these 2 collectins therefore indicates that the forces holding the α -helical bundle together might not be as strong as those seen in the human SP-D molecule.

Table 2. Comparison of soluble proteins containing collagenous regions

A. Soluble proteins containing collagenous regions ^a										
Protein, origin	Leader length (a.a.)	N-terminal region		Collagen region			Neck region length (a.a.)	Globular domain		
		Length (a.a.)	Cysteines	Length (a.a.)	Cysteines	Interrupted triplet (no.)		Length (EM or calc.)	Length (a.a.)	Domain type
SP-D, human	20	25	2	177	—	—		38	115	C-type lectin
SP-D, rat	19	25	2	177	—	—		38	115	C-type lectin
SP-D, bovine	20	25	2	171	—	—	46 nm	38	115	C-type lectin
Conglutinin, bovine	20	25	2	171	1	GRECPH (4)	39 nm	38	117	C-type lectin
Collectin-43, bovine	20	28	2	114	—	—	37.4 nm	41	118	C-type lectin
SP-A, human	17	10	1	71	—	GEMPCPP (13)	10 + 10 nm	34	114	C-type lectin
MPB, human	21	21	3	59	—	GGTGQ (8)	Ca. 13.2 nm	34	113	C-type lectin
Ficolin α	29	19	1	54	1	—	16 nm (calc.)	NK	220	Fibrinogen
Ficolin β	32	19	1	57	1	—		NK	217	Fibrinogen
HP-20	23	1	0	39	—	—	11 nm (calc.)	NK	133	C1q-like
HP-25	28	11	1	42	—	—		NK	135	C1q-like
HP-27	30	12	1	39	—	—		NK	134	C1q-like
C1q A	22	8	1	79	—	GIRT (10)	11 + 12 nm	NK	136	C1q
C1q B	27	11	1	78	—	—		NK	136	C1q
C1q C	28	5	1	81	—	GIPAIC (11)		NK	131	C1q

B. Cysteines in the N-terminal region ^b		
Protein	Sequence	Origin
SP-D	AEMTTFQKILANACTLVMCSPPEDGLPG	Bovine
SP-D	AEMKTYSHRTTPSACTLVMCSVSEGLPG	Human
SP-D	AEMKTLQSRISITNTCTLVLCSPTEGLPG	Rat
Conglutinin	AEMTTFQKILANACTLVMCSPLESGLPG	Bovine
Collectin-43	EEMDVYWEKTLTDPCTLVVCCAPPADSLRG	Bovine
MBP	ADTETETNEENIRKTCPIACGGPGING	Bovine
MBP	ETVTCEDAQKTCPAVIACSSPGING	Human
MBPc	AVYAETLTEGAQSSCPVIACSSPAWNG	Rat
MBPc	ETLTEGAQSSCPVIACSSPGLNG	Mouse
MBPa	VSSSGSQTCETLKTCSVIACGRDGRDGPCK	Rat
MBPa	SGSQTCEDTLKTCSVIAC	Mouse
SP-A	EVKDVCVSGPIPGTP	Human
SP-A	VSGIENNTKDVCGNPGIPGTP	Dog
C1q A	MVTEDLCRAPDGKKEAGRPRRR	Human
C1q B	GLIDISQAQLSCTGPPAIPGIPGTP	Human
C1q C	ALRGQANTGCYGIPIGMPGLPGAPGKD	Human

^a Domain organization of the collectins and comparison of their sequences with those of the ficolin molecules, the 3 chains of C1q, and the hibernation protein. a.a., Amino acids; EM, determined by electron microscopy; NK, not known.

^b Conserved cysteine residues present in the N-terminal regions of the collectins and comparison of these regions with the N-terminal sequences of the 3 chains of C1q.

microorganism, such as *Salmonella* spp., have not yet been published.

As the activation of the C1 molecule requires only 2 immobilized IgG molecules to interact with 2 (heterotrimeric) globular "heads" of the C1q molecule (Kilchherr et al., 1986), it seems reasonable to assume a similar situation for the interaction of the serum MBP-MASP (MASP = MBP-associated serine protease) complex (see below) with activating carbohydrate-bearing particles (Matsushita & Fujita, 1992). Complement-related, functionally relevant binding levels of MBP to surface carbohydrate structures might thus be considerably lower than those required for the opsonizing and phagocytosis-enhancing functions common to MBP and other collectins via their interaction with the C1q receptor, present on a variety of cells. A single mol-

ecule of MBP can activate the complement system and thereby cause the deposition of iC3b molecules on the activating surface, whereas much higher numbers of MBP molecules have to be bound to a surface of a particle to trigger the phagocytosis-enhancing functions involving the C1q receptor.

Binding of the collectins to bacteria and viruses

MBP is part of the complement-dependent RaRF bactericidal factor that is present in the sera of a wide range of vertebrates (Kawakami et al., 1984; Ji et al., 1993). This factor is composed of the MBP plus the enzyme MASP. MASP, like C1s, can activate components C4 and C2 of the classical pathway of com-

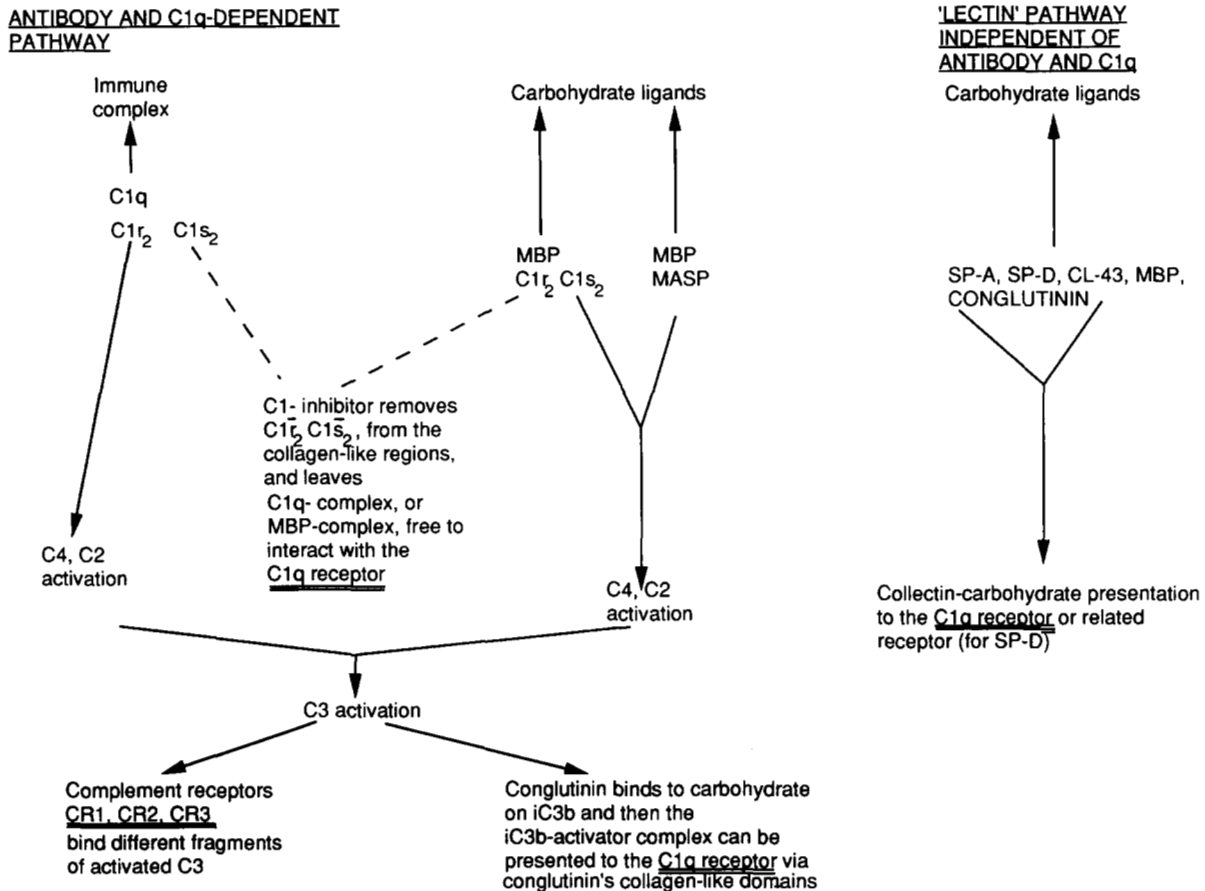


Fig. 3. Interaction of C1q and the collectins with the complement system. Activation of the classical pathway of complement via C1q binding to immune complexes or via the collectins binding to carbohydrate ligands. MASP is considered to be the protease associated with MBP in physiological conditions; however, it is not yet known if MASP associates with the collagen-like region of MBP. It is not known if MASP is bound and inactivated by the serum C1-inhibitor.

plement (Ji et al., 1993) (Fig. 3). The RaRF factor was first isolated by virtue of its calcium-dependent lectin binding to the rough Ra-chemotype strains of *Salmonella* and the rough R2 strains of *E. coli*. Enhanced phagocytosis of MBP-coated *Salmonella montevideo* is shown by human monocytes (Kulhman et al., 1989), but this appears to be due to a direct interaction of MBP with monocyte receptors rather than by means of complement activation and complement receptors. MBP interacts with envelope glycoproteins of HIV-1 and HIV-2 and, in serum, this results in activation of the classical pathway (Haurum et al., 1993), which could lead to lysis and/or opsonizing of the virus. On the other hand, inhibition of infection of a T-cell line by HIV-1 was achieved by prior incubation of HIV-1 with MBP, in the absence of complement (Ezekowitz et al., 1989). Bovine serum conglutinin has been shown, in vitro, to have antibacterial activity against *Salmonella typhimurium* and *E. coli*, with the activity requiring the presence of an intact complement system and macrophages (Friis-Christiansen et al., 1990), thus suggesting that the conglutinin was playing a crosslinking role between the iC3b-coated microorganisms and complement/collectin receptors. Bovine conglutinin binds, in a calcium-dependent and lectin fashion, to the recombinant form of the gp160 envelope glycoprotein of HIV-1 and inhibits the binding of the gp160

to the CD4 receptor on CEM 13 cells (Andersen et al., 1990). Recently, Ushijima et al. (1992) have purified a human conglutinin-like protein that bound to gp120 of HIV-1 and prevented infection of CD4 positive a CEM lymphoblastoid cell line by HIV-1. Conglutinin and MBP also appear likely to be the β -inhibitors present in bovine serum that have been reported to inhibit the infectivity and hemagglutinating activity of different influenza viruses (Andersen et al., 1990). The ability of bovine serum CL-43 to bind to microorganisms has not yet been reported.

SP-A is a major protein in the pulmonary surfactant, which is a complex of lipids and proteins that form an interface between the aqueous film on the alveolar epithelium surface and the air in the alveolar space (Weaver & Whitsett, 1991). SP-A appears to enhance the activities of the hydrophobic surfactant proteins SP-B and SP-C and it may also be involved in the recycling of surfactant and inhibition of surfactant secretion. However, in addition to these properties, SP-A also has been shown to enhance the phagocytosis of bacteria and viruses by alveolar macrophages (Van Iwarden et al., 1991) and to induce the production of oxygen radicals by these cells. The binding of SP-A, via its lectin domain, has been shown to take place with the gp120 glycoprotein of *Pneumocystis carinii* (Zimmerman et al., 1992) and with *Staphylococcus aureus* (McNeely & Coon-

rod, 1993), the latter binding enhancing the adherence of the SP-A coated bacteria to alveolar macrophages. SP-D is present at an approximately 10-fold lower level in the lung than SP-A, as judged by analysis of bronchoalveolar lavage. SP-D, unlike SP-A, does not show a strong affinity for phospholipids and therefore it is found in the lipid-free portion of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid. SP-A is perhaps a stronger candidate for playing a role in antibody-independent defense against lung infections or in the removal or presentation of allergens. For example, SP-D can bind to, and agglutinate, *E. coli*, probably via carbohydrate structures within the surface lipopolysaccharides (Kuan et al., 1992), which is strongly suggestive that SP-D plays a role in the lung's defence against Gram-negative bacteria.

Interaction of the collectins with the complement system and the C1q/collectin receptor

C1q, along with the calcium-dependent proenzyme, C1r₂C1s₂ complex, forms C1, the first component of the classical pathway of complement. The C1 component is activated upon its interaction with immune complexes by the binding of the globular heads of C1q to specific sites on the C_H2 domains of antibody IgG, or the C_H3 domains of antibody IgM. This binding of C1q, to the Fc regions of antibodies, results in activation of both C1r and C1s and the initiation of the complement cascade via activation of both C4 and C2 by C1s. The C1r₂C1s₂ complex is known to be bound to the collagen-like regions of C1q and, after activation, to be rapidly removed and inactivated by the control protein C1-inhibitor (Reid, 1983). This leaves the collagen-like regions of C1q free to interact with the C1q receptor (which is known to also interact with many of the collectins). In view of the striking structural similarity between C1q and the collectins (especially SP-A and MBP), it is perhaps not too surprising that the collectins show certain functional similarities to C1q (Holmskov et al., 1994). For example, it is now clear that MBP can mimic the action of C1q in bringing about the activation of the classical pathway of complement but it appears that it is the only collectin that has this property. On the other hand, all the collectins, with the probable exception of SP-D, are bound by the C1q receptor.

MBP, after binding to carbohydrate ligands, has been shown to activate the proenzyme C1r₂C1s₂ complex (Lu et al., 1990; Ohta et al., 1990) and thus bring about activation of components C4 and C2 of the classical pathway of complement. However, it seems likely that in plasma MBP is normally complexed with the proenzyme MASP and that, upon binding of the MBP-MASP complex to suitable ligands, the MASP is activated and it is this enzyme that normally brings about complement activation mediated via MBP (Matsushita & Fujita, 1992; Ji et al., 1993; Takada et al., 1993). Although it has been shown that the 80-kDa MASP enzyme is about 36% identical in amino acid sequence to both C1r and C1s, and has the same overall domain organization, it is still not known with certainty what the stoichiometry is with respect to MBP and MASP in the MBP-MASP complex, although the most recent studies suggest a ratio of 1:1 (Ji et al., 1993). Also it is not clear if the MASP is bound to the collagen-like regions of MBP or if the activated MASP is, like activated C1r and C1s, controlled by the C1 inhibitor. As discussed below, the MBP-MASP complex thus provides a route for activation of the classical pathway of complement that

is triggered by carbohydrate ligands and is independent of both antibody and the C1 complex.

Conglutinin also exhibits leucocyte- and complement-dependent bactericidal activity but in contrast to MBP this does not appear to involve a direct activation of complement by the carbohydrate ligand-conglutinin complex. The opsonic effects seen with conglutinin are dependent upon prior activation of complement taking place up to at least the C3b stage so that the bacterial target becomes coated with large numbers of C3b molecules. The C3b is converted to iC3b by the enzyme factor I, in the presence of the cofactor H, and this exposes a carbohydrate structure on the α' chain of iC3b, which is recognized and bound by conglutinin. It seems likely that some of the opsonic effects and triggering of other effector functions are mediated by the interaction of the collagen-like regions of conglutinin with the C1q/collectin receptor as outlined below.

MBP, conglutinin, CL-43, and SP-A all appear to bind to the cell-surface C1q receptor, which is consequently also referred to as the "collectin receptor" (Malhotra et al., 1992). The C1q receptor is found on a wide variety of cell types, including most leukocytes, endothelial cells, eosinophils, platelets, fibroblasts, and neutrophils. A number of C1q-mediated cellular responses have been described, including the enhancement of monocyte phagocytic activity, stimulation of fibroblast adhesion, stimulation of an oxidative burst in neutrophils, enhancement of phagocytosis by pulmonary endothelial cells, inhibition of collagen-induced platelet aggregation, and serotonin release (Tenner, 1993). If these, and other, responses attributed to triggering of the C1q receptor by C1q are also set in motion by binding of complexes, composed of collectins bound to carbohydrate ligands on the surfaces of microorganisms, then a wide variety of cellular responses in the blood and lung fluids might be expected as a result of collectins interacting with the C1q receptor. The C1q receptor is an acidic protein, which behaves as an elongated molecule of 115 kDa after purification using detergents (Malhotra et al., 1993c). The detergent-solubilized molecule is composed of 2 identical chains, each of approximately 60 kDa, which show a remarkable degree of sequence identity to the intracellular, calcium-binding, protein calreticulin. However, it is considered, in view of certain differences in the structural and antigenic properties between the 2 proteins, that although they are very similar they may not be identical (Malhotra et al., 1993c). The binding of C1q to its receptor, and the collectins known to bind the C1q receptor, is considered to take place via their collagen-like regions in a Ca²⁺-independent manner. The collagen-like regions of C1q are masked by the C1r₂C1s₂ proenzyme complex and upon activation the activated C1r and C1s are rapidly removed by the C1-inhibitor thus exposing the collagen-like regions and allowing the antibody-antigen-C1q complex to be presented to the C1q receptor. A similar situation may apply to MBP due to its association in plasma with the proenzyme form of the MASP protease. Thus, it is likely that upon activation the MASP enzyme is removed, allowing the carbohydrate ligand-MBP complex to be presented to the C1q receptor via the collagen-like regions in MBP. Studies on the binding of intact and truncated conglutinin to the C1q receptor indicate that the receptor binding site in conglutinin lies within the first 54 N-terminal amino acid residues in the molecule (Malhotra et al., 1993b). Comparison of the N-terminal regions of the chains of C1q, MBP, conglutinin, CL-43, and SP-A has led to the identification of a possible receptor bind-

ing site, composed of 5 Gly-Xaa-Yaa triplets with many charged residues in the X and Y positions, within the N-terminal portions of the collagenous regions of all these molecules (Malhotra et al., 1993b). However, this site is also present in SP-D, which does not appear to bind to the C1q receptor but to bind to a different, but probably related, receptor on alveolar macrophages (Miyamura et al., 1994).

SP-A has been found to bind to pollen grains, and also to specific proteins in an aqueous extract of pollen grains, in a calcium-dependent and mannose-type fashion (Malhotra et al., 1993a). The interaction between SP-A and the pollen grains/extract allows the presentation and adhesion of the pollen grains/extract to A549 alveolar type II cells to take place, probably via the collagen-like regions in SP-A binding to the C1q/collectin receptor, thus suggesting that this receptor may play a role in removal of potential allergens.

Biosynthesis, tissue location, and genetics

cDNA and genomic cloning of the collectins

The liver appears to be the major site of synthesis of both the tissue and serum forms of MBP, since this collectin was first characterized from rabbit, rat, and human liver (Kawasaki et al., 1978; Wild et al., 1983) and subsequently, in higher oligomeric forms, from the sera of these and other species. MBP has also been shown to be synthesized by hepatocytes and liver cell lines. As judged by cDNA, and genomic cloning studies, there are 2 forms of rat and mouse MBP (the A and C forms), which show 55% identity in amino acid sequence within species (Drickamer et al., 1986; Sastry et al., 1991; Wada et al., 1992). Only 1 sequence for human MBP has been described so far, by cDNA and genomic cloning, and it shows approximately 62% identity in amino acid sequence to both the A and C forms of rat MBP (Ezekowitz et al., 1988; Sastry et al., 1989; Taylor et al., 1989). The human MBP gene (Fig. 4) is 7 kb long and contains 4 exons: exon 1 encodes the leader peptide, N-terminal region and part of the collagen-like region; exon 2 encodes the remainder of the collagen-like region; and exon 3 encodes the sequences

that form the short α -helical bundle located just prior to the C-terminal C-type lectin domain, which is encoded by exon 4.

SP-A is synthesized in the lung by the alveolar type II cells and, as judged by cDNA and genomic cloning, there appear to be at least 2 expressed human SP-A genes (SP-A I and SP-A II; White et al., 1985; Floros et al., 1986; Katyal et al., 1992). The human SP-A structural gene (gene symbol SFTP 1) is 4.5 kb long and contains 5 exons, with exon 2 encoding the signal peptide, the amino-terminal region, and the first 10 Gly-Xaa-Yaa triplets, and exon 3 encoding the remaining 13 Gly-Xaa-Yaa triplets. Thus, as in MBP, C1q, and type IV collagen, an intron is found within the codon for the glycine located between 2 and 9 residues before an interruption to the repeating nature of the Gly-Xaa-Yaa sequence (since in SP-A the repeats are interrupted after the 13th triplet by the sequence Pro-Cys-Pro-Pro). Exon 4 and part of exon 5 encode a putative amphipathic α -helical region, whereas the remainder of exon 5 encodes the C-type lectin domain. The 2 SP-A genes that are expressed encode for polypeptides differing at only 6 amino acid positions (White et al., 1985; Katyal et al., 1992). SP-A has been cloned at the cDNA level in a variety of other species, such as dog, rabbit, rat, and mouse (Korfhagen et al., 1991). So far, only single SP-A genes have been reported to be present in the rat, rabbit, and mouse.

SP-D is synthesized by alveolar type II cells and has also been reported to be present in alveolar macrophages (in endocytic and lysosomal structures) and in the secretory granules of bronchiolar "Clara" cells. Human SP-D has been cloned at the cDNA (Rust et al., 1991; Lu et al., 1992) and genomic (Crouch et al., 1993) levels. The human SP-D gene (gene symbol SFTP 4) is approximately 11 kb long and contains 8 exons (Fig. 4): exon 2 encodes the signal peptide, the N-terminal region, and the first 7 Gly-Xaa-Yaa triplets; exons 3-6 are all 117 bp in length and encode the remainder of the collagen-like region; and exon 7 encodes the sequences that form the α -helical bundle that links the collagenous regions to the C-type lectin carbohydrate recognition domain (which is encoded by exon 8). SP-D has been cloned at the cDNA level in rat and bovine systems, but no data are yet available at the gene level in these species.

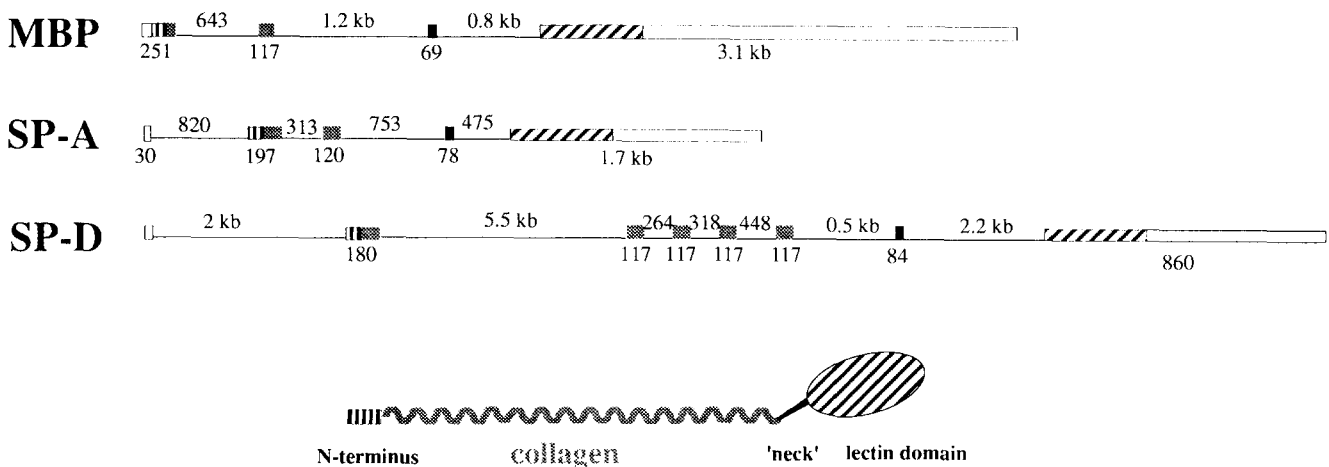


Fig. 4. Organization of the genes of MBP, SP-A, and SP-D on the genomic level. The genes for SP-A, SP-D, and MBP have been mapped to chromosome 10 in humans. Four exons were found to encode MBP, whereas the genes encoding the surfactant proteins A and D span 5 and 8 exons, respectively.

Cluster of genes encoding collectins on human chromosome 10

The genes for MBP, SP-A, and SP-D have all been mapped to the long arm of human chromosome 10. The human MBP gene (gene symbol -MBL) has been localized to 10q11.2–q21 (Sastry et al., 1989), and the human SP-A gene(s) (gene symbol SFTP 1) have been localized to 10q21–q24 (Fisher et al., 1987). There appear to be at least 2 SP-A genes (SP-AI and SP-AII; White et al., 1985; Floros et al., 1986; Katyal et al., 1992) and 1 SP-A pseudogene (Korfhagen et al., 1991) forming a closely linked cluster. STS mapping has also allowed localization of the human SP-D gene (gene symbol SFTP 4) to 10q23–q23, close to the SP-A genes and a 430-kb genomic MluI fragment has been identified that contains both the SP-D gene and the SP-A gene cluster (Köible et al., 1993). The presence of the gene for the $\alpha 1$ chain of human collagen XIII (gene symbol COL 13A1) at 10q 22 is of some interest because this non-fibril-forming collagen has 4 noncollagenous regions of unknown function and therefore the presence of this gene along with the genes for the collectins suggests that an ancestor for a superfamily of genes containing collagen-like regions and carbohydrate recognition domains may have originated on the long arm of human chromosome 10.

Susceptibility to disease associated with genetic deficiency of MBP

It has proved difficult to obtain reliable measurements of SP-A and SP-D levels in bronchoalveolar lavage samples from healthy individuals, or patients, and measurements of conglutinin and CL-43 serum levels have, to date, only been made in cows. However, the serum levels of human MBP in Caucasians are well studied and have been found to vary quite considerably (0–5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ with an average value of 1.23 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) with quite a high percentage of individuals showing close to zero and therefore suggesting at least a partial deficiency of MBP.

It has been established that, in humans, a low serum concentration of MBP correlates with a common opsonic defect (Super et al., 1989) and that deficiency of MBP is associated with recurrent infections in the very young (Turner, 1991). It is considered that low serum levels or lack of MBP results in an inability to activate the classical pathway of complement (via MASP or C1r₂C1s₂), by an antibody-independent route, and this prevents efficient coating of pathogenic organisms with the activated C4 and C3 fragments that are required for efficient opsonization by cells carrying C4b and/or C3b receptors.

Four allelic forms of MBP have been described: the normal, A, allele; the B allele, which shows a single nucleotide substitution within codon 54 in exon 1, which results in the replacement of a glycine by aspartic acid within the collagen-like region (Sumiya et al., 1991); the C allele, which also shows a single nucleotide substitution, but within codon 57 in exon 1, which results in the replacement of a glycine by glutamic acid (Lipscombe et al., 1992) within the collagen-like region; and the D allele, another point mutation, but within codon 52 of exon 1, resulting in the replacement of an arginine by a cysteine, again within the collagen-like region (Madsen et al., 1994). The substitution of glycine in alleles B and C by charged residues results in disruption of the Gly-Xaa-Yaa repeating structure, and this is considered to prevent the correct formation of a triple-helical structure

containing 1 or more of the abnormal alleles. Although the amino acid substitution in the D allele is also within the collagen-like region, it does not disrupt the continuity of the Gly-Xaa-Yaa repeating structure. However, the introduction of a cysteine residue could also cause structural problems due to possible aberrant disulfide bond formation. It is clear that individuals who are homozygous with respect to any of the B, C, or D alleles have undetectable, or trace, amounts of MBP antigenic activity in their sera as judged by sensitive immunochemical assays. The allele frequencies seen in Caucasians for A:B:C:D are 0.81:0.13:0.02:0.05. People who are heterozygous for the normal allele and one of the variant alleles (e.g., A/B heterozygous individuals) do have MBP in their sera that has the same biochemical and functional characteristics as MBP isolated from A/A homozygous individuals. Thus, it is generally agreed that the presence of any of the variant alleles, along with the A allele, decreases the serum concentration of MBP to about 15% of that expected in A/A homozygous individuals. This is consistent with the view that in heterozygous individuals only 1 in any 8 of the MBP "structural units" (composed of 2 triple-helices of disulfide-bonded AAA chains) would be of the normal type while the remaining 7/8 would be abnormal (containing at least one of the variant chains) and probably susceptible to rapid degradation (Sumiya et al., 1991). The fact that the point mutations giving rise to the different allelic forms are clustered within codons 52 and 57 found in exon 1 of the MBP gene is quite striking and indicates that the correct folding of the N-terminal section of the collagen-like region is critical for the stability of MBP.

The identification of the B, C, and D alleles of MBP does not, however, explain the very wide variation seen in serum MBP levels within apparently healthy A/A genotype individuals (0.13–5.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). It is possible that other variants have yet to be identified. Such variants need not necessarily influence the structure of the MBP, but may be affected in the area of the gene responsible for regulation of the level of biosynthesis of MBP.

Conglutinin has, to date, only been fully characterized in the bovine system. Hepatocytes seem likely to be the major site of synthesis, as judged by both immunohistochemical staining (Holmskov et al., 1992) and Northern blotting (Lu et al., 1993b). Bovine conglutinin has been cloned at the cDNA (Lu et al., 1993b) and genomic (Liou et al., 1994) levels. The intron/exon organization of the bovine gene (Liou et al., 1994) is very similar to that of the human SP-D gene, reflecting the high degree of amino acid sequence similarity (86% identity) seen between bovine SP-D and bovine conglutinin (Lim et al., 1993). Although a human lectin with similar structure and functional properties to conglutinin has been described (Thiel et al., 1987; Ushijima et al., 1992), it is still not clear if conglutinin is found in species other than the Bovidae.

Collectin-43, like conglutinin, has only been characterized in the bovine system, where, as judged by Northern blot analysis, it is synthesized in the liver (Lim et al., 1994). It has been cloned at the cDNA (Lim et al., 1994), but not the genomic, level.

Perspectives

The exact compositions of naturally occurring oligosaccharide ligands, for any of the collectins, have not yet been fully identified. The overlapping monosaccharide specificities (Table 3)

Table 3. Comparative functional activities of the collectins^a

Collectin	Principal carbohydrate specificities	C1q receptor binding	Complement activation	iC3b binding	Organisms bound
Human					
MBP	GlcNAc > Man	Yes	Yes	No	<i>S. montevideo</i> , <i>S. typhimurium</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , HIV
SP-A	ManNAc > Fuc	Yes	No	No	<i>P. carinii</i> , pollen extract, <i>S. aureus</i> , herpes simplex virus
SP-D	Mal > Gluc	No	No	No	<i>E. coli</i>
		(SP-D receptor?)			
Bovine					
MBP	Fuc > GlcNAc	Yes	Yes	No	Influenza virus
Conglutinin	GlcNAc > Gluc	Yes	No	Yes	Influenza virus
Collectin-43	Man > ManNAc	Yes	No	No	Not determined

^a The carbohydrate-binding properties of all collectins are of the mannose type and the monosaccharide specificities indicated; although informative in their own right, they do not allow for speculation about the natural ligands for the collectins (Lu et al., 1992; Haurum et al., 1993; Holmskov et al., 1993a, 1993b). The organisms listed do not reflect comparative studies with more than 1 collectin (Ezekowitz et al., 1989; Andersen et al., 1990; Friis-Christiansen et al., 1990; Van Iwarden et al., 1991; Kuan et al., 1992; Zimmerman et al., 1992; Haurum et al., 1993; McNeely & Coonrod, 1993).

for all of the collectins suggest that the various native oligosaccharide ligands for these molecules may be found on the surface of quite a wide range of microorganisms and target particles. In addition to this, oligosaccharides of known composition can assume in solution a range of conformations, of which even energetically unfavorable structures were shown to act as ligands for lectin binding (Imberty et al., 1993), which is reflected in the lack of success in carbohydrate structure determination using X-ray diffraction. The flexible nature of oligosaccharides clearly makes structural analysis by NMR a more suitable approach to determine lectin-carbohydrate interactions. The occurrence of unordered side chains within close proximity to the binding site of MBP seen in the crystal structure also allows for speculation on there being some degree of flexibility of the protein structure, especially within the extended loop of nonregular secondary structure. Obviously, the determination of the monosaccharide specificities is only a step in the right direction towards fully understanding the interaction between collectins and their biologically relevant targets. The well-defined groups of oligosaccharide ligands, like the sialyl Lewis x family of carbohydrate structures (Tyrrell et al., 1991), were available in the study of selectin mediated cell adhesion, but no such well-defined groups of oligosaccharide ligands have yet been identified to allow study of collectin function. It is important to characterize the natural oligosaccharide ligands for the collectins to allow assessment of collectin-mediated reactions, such as complement activation or opsonization. The determination of ligand specificity of the collectins, beyond monosaccharide recognition, should therefore be a promising future direction of investigation.

All the collectins are soluble molecules and are readily secreted in mammalian expression systems, thus avoiding the use of fusion proteins, which is necessary for producing soluble selectins (Foxall et al., 1992). Collectins also have a constant and defined degree of oligomerization and well characterized overall structures. Study of normal and mutated recombinant molecules should allow the establishment of binding sites for carbohydrates, proteins, or even lipids. The interaction with the complement system and host cell receptors via the collagenous/N-terminal regions of the collectins might allow for the classi-

fication of microorganisms according to their ability to be recognized by different collectins. The collectin-microorganism interaction could direct the innate immune response toward either complement activation, opsonization, phagocytosis via the C1q receptor, or utilization of a recently postulated distinct receptor for SP-D (Miyamura et al., 1994). A combination of these reactions may take place, depending on the collectin in question, and the state of inflammation already in progress, especially, since MBP, for example, behaves as an acute phase reactant. The very specific recognition of the high mannose structure in iC3b, but not C3, by bovine conglutinin is a further interaction of this collectin with the complement system. Recent evidence also suggests that allergic reactions to carbohydrate-bearing particles released from pollen grains, or house dust mites, may be affected by the binding of SP-A (Malhotra et al., 1993a) or SP-D to the carbohydrate on the allergen.

As more data become available on proteins showing homology with the C-type lectin domains, it should be borne in mind that not all of the domains identified by sequence alignment as "C-type lectin" domains necessarily bind carbohydrate structures. Some of these proteins have been shown to bind to structures other than carbohydrates and lack some (if not all) of the residues shown in the C-type lectin domains to be responsible for interaction with the calcium ions as well as the carbohydrate molecules, while retaining most of the hydrophobic residues of the core structure, including the disulfide pattern. The pancreatic thread protein binds to CaCO₃ crystals, and binding to ice crystals is seen in the case of antifreeze proteins of smelt (calcium-dependent) and sea raven (no calcium requirement) protein. It might therefore be necessary to consider also studying noncarbohydrate ligands on target organisms and particles, especially in the case of SP-A, which lacks one of the residues thought to be involved in ligand binding.

In view of the possible medical importance of collectins in the lung and plasma, the definition of the natural oligosaccharide structures recognized by the collectins, the further characterization of receptors for collectins, and the precise identification of carbohydrate/glycoprotein structures on the surface of microorganisms that are important in collectin-mediated immune re-

actions seem likely to be the dominant lines of investigation in this area in the near future.

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