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## Developmental and Comparative Immunology

journal homepage: [www.elsevier.com/locate/dci](http://www.elsevier.com/locate/dci)Immune functions of insect  $\beta$ GRPs and their potential applicationXiang-Jun Rao <sup>a,\*</sup>, Ming-Yue Zhan <sup>a</sup>, Yue-Min Pan <sup>a</sup>, Su Liu <sup>a</sup>, Pei-Jin Yang <sup>a</sup>, Li-Ling Yang <sup>a</sup>, Xiao-Qiang Yu <sup>b</sup><sup>a</sup> School of Plant Protection, Anhui Agricultural University, Hefei, Anhui 230036, China<sup>b</sup> Institute of Insect Science and Technology & School of Life Sciences, South China Normal University, Guangzhou 510631, China

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## ABSTRACT

Insects rely completely on the innate immune system to sense the foreign bodies and to mount the immune responses. Germ-line encoded pattern recognition receptors play crucial roles in recognizing pathogen-associated molecular patterns. Among them,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan recognition proteins ( $\beta$ GRPs) and gram-negative bacteria-binding proteins (GNBPs) belong to the same pattern recognition receptor family, which can recognize  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans. Typical insect  $\beta$ GRPs are comprised of a tandem carbohydrate-binding module in the N-terminal and a glucanase-like domain in the C-terminal. The former can recognize triple-helical  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans, whereas the latter, which normally lacks the enzymatic activity, can recruit adapter proteins to initiate the protease cascade. According to studies, insect  $\beta$ GRPs possess at least three types of functions. Firstly, some  $\beta$ GRPs cooperate with peptidoglycan recognition proteins to recognize the lysine-type peptidoglycans upstream of the Toll pathway. Secondly, some directly recognize fungal  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans to activate the Toll pathway and melanization. Thirdly, some form the 'attack complexes' with other immune effectors to promote the antifungal defenses. The current review will focus on the discovery of insect  $\beta$ GRPs, functions of some well-characterized members, structure-function studies and their potential application.

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## 1. Introduction

Insects are frequently threatened by various pathogens in their living environment, among which, bacteria, viruses, fungi and parasites are fatal to insects with a compromised immune system. The vertebrate immune system is made up of the innate immune system and the adaptive immune system. In contrast, insects rely solely on the innate immune system against pathogens (Lemaitre and Hoffmann, 2007). Such innate immune system depends on germline-encoded pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) to detect the pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and to initiate the cellular as well as humoral responses. Cellular responses are comprised of phagocytosis, encapsulation and nodulation (Smith, 2010), whereas humoral responses include melanization and production of antimicrobial molecules (Zänker, 2010). Moreover, PRRs can be classified into several groups according to the particular PAMP type they recognize. Lectins can recognize carbohydrates

(Barondes et al., 1994; Weis and Drickamer, 1996), peptidoglycan recognition proteins (PGRPs) can recognize peptidoglycans (PGs) (Kurata, 2014; Royet et al., 2011; Warr et al., 2008), while fungal  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans can be recognized by  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan recognition proteins ( $\beta$ GRPs) or gram-negative bacteria-binding proteins (GNBPs) (Brown and Gordon, 2005; Levitin and Whiteway, 2008). The Imd and Toll pathways in *Drosophila melanogaster* can regulate the expression of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) (Ferrandon et al., 2007). The Imd pathway can mediate the recognition of gram-negative bacteria through the interaction between PGRP-LC and diaminopimelic acid (Dap)-type peptidoglycans (Choe et al., 2002; Gregorio et al., 2002; Lemaitre et al., 1995). The Toll pathway can be activated by lysine (Lys)-type peptidoglycans on the one hand, which is initiated by their interactions with circulating immune receptors GGBP1 and PGRP-SA. On the other hand, fungal  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans can be sensed by GGBP3 to initiate the protease cascade, thus leading to Spätzle processing by Spätzle-processing enzyme (SPE) and activation of the Toll pathway (Jang et al., 2006; Lemaitre et al., 1996; Valanne et al., 2011). Furthermore, some GNBPs are involved in activating the prophenoloxidase system, which is achieved by a similar mechanism through different proteases (Lu et al., 2014; Söderhäll and Cerenius, 1998; Wang and Jiang, 2017).

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## 2. Pioneering studies on $\beta$ GRPs

$\beta$ GRPs were originally purified from the plasma of a lepidopteran model: the silkworm *Bombyx mori* (Ochiai and Ashida, 1988). Imler had briefly discussed the discovery of  $\beta$ GRPs in a review (Imler, 2014). In 1986, Ashida reported that the phenoloxidase activity in silkworm plasma depleted of  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan receptors through passing over a curdlan-type polysaccharide bead (plasma-CPB) column still could be triggered by peptidoglycans, rather than by  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans. This finding suggested that peptidoglycan receptors and  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan receptors existed as separate entities in the plasma, while the latter were necessary for  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan-triggered phenoloxidase activity (Yoshida et al., 1986). A  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan recognition protein (Bm $\beta$ GRP) with a molecular mass of 62 kDa and an isoelectric point of 4.3 was then purified from silkworm hemolymph biochemically (Ochiai and Ashida, 1988). Bm $\beta$ GRP was able to restore the phenoloxidase activity in  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan-triggered plasma-CPB. The immunocytochemical localization study suggested that Bm $\beta$ GRP was enriched in granules of granulocytes and spherules of spherulocytes (Ochiai et al., 1992). In 1996, Lee et al. reported the purification of a 50-kDa protein from silkworm plasma, which showed a strong affinity to the gram-negative bacterial cell wall (Lee et al., 1996). This protein was named gram-negative bacteria-binding protein (BmGNBP or Bm $\beta$ GRP2 in Table 1). The expression of BmGNBP was remarkably up-regulated by bacterial challenges. The deduced amino acid sequence displayed marked homology to the catalytic regions of bacterial  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases. Following their preceding work, Ashida reported the cloning of Bm $\beta$ GRP cDNA (Bm $\beta$ GRP1 in Table 1) and the binding properties of two  $\alpha$ -chymotrypsin digested Bm $\beta$ GRP fragments (Ochiai and Ashida, 2000). Results of binding assays indicated that it was the N-terminal region (Tyr<sup>1</sup> to Ala<sup>102</sup>), instead of the glucanase-like region, that bound strongly to  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans. The comparison of amino acid sequences revealed significant similarities among Bm $\beta$ GRP1 (Thr<sup>264</sup> to Pro<sup>386</sup>), BmGNBP (Ser<sup>243</sup> to Ala<sup>372</sup>) and the catalytic regions of bacterial  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases. Bm $\beta$ GRP1

and BmGNBP both lacked key glutamic acid residues for the glucanase activity. Homologs with similar functions were isolated during the same period from the crayfish *Pacifastacus leniusculus* (Duvic and Söderhäll, 1990), the cockroach *Blaberus craniifer* (Söderhäll et al., 1988), the tobacco hornworm *Manduca sexta* (Ma and Kanost, 2000), the pyralid moth *Plodia interpunctella* (Fabrick et al., 2003, 2004) and the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* (Kim et al., 2000). These preliminary studies demonstrate that  $\beta$ GRPs and GNBP belong to the same PRR family displaying specific affinity to  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans.

## 3. Features of the conserved domains and the phylogeny

The typical domain architecture of  $\beta$ GRPs was shown in Fig. 1A. The full-length  $\beta$ GRPs consist of a signal peptide, a carbohydrate-binding module (CBM) in the N-terminal and a glucanase-like domain (Glu) in the C-terminal. CBMs can be found in many carbohydrate-active enzymes, and they can enhance the catalytic efficiency of the carbohydrate-active enzymes against the soluble or insoluble substrates (Hashimoto, 2006). CBMs in insect  $\beta$ GRPs belong to family 32, which are further classified into 3 categories based on their respective substrate binding mechanisms: 'surface-binding' (type A), 'glycan chain-binding' (type B) and 'small sugar-binding' (type C). Type A CBMs can bind to insoluble ligands through a platform-like surface composed of aromatic residues (Boraston et al., 2004). Interestingly, 8 proteins with multiple CBM and Glu domains were identified from Lepidoptera and Coleoptera species, among which, 6 have 2 CBM and 2 Glu domains, while 2 have 2 CBM and 3 Glu domains (Fig. 1B). Protein sequences with the typical CBM-Glu domain architecture were aligned to construct an NJ tree (Fig. 2). The phylogenetic analysis revealed that  $\beta$ GRPs mainly exist in the phylum Arthropoda. They are also distributed in phylum Echinodermata, Hemichordata, Brachiopoda and Mollusca. The amino acid sequences are highly conserved within the same order of insects, and most orthologs derived from common ancestors before the divergence of insect orders. The non-Arthropoda

**Table 1**  
A list of some insect  $\beta$ GRPs (GNBPs).

Gene	Organism	Accession#	Length (a.a.)	Reference
<b>TmGNBP1</b>	<i>Tenebrio molitor</i>	BAG14263.1	442	(Kim et al., 2008)
<b>TmGNBP3</b>	<i>Tenebrio molitor</i>	Q76DI2.1	481	(Lee et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2003)
<b>Bm<math>\beta</math>GRP1</b>	<i>Bombyx mori</i>	NP_001036840.1	495	(Ochiai and Ashida, 1988, 2000; Takahasi et al., 2009)
<b>Bm<math>\beta</math>GRP2</b> ( <b>BmGNBP</b> )	<i>Bombyx mori</i>	NP_001037450.1	467	(Lee et al., 1996)
<b>Bm<math>\beta</math>GRP3</b>	<i>Bombyx mori</i>	NP_001128672.1	489	(Tanaka et al., 2008)
<b>DmGNBP1</b>	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	CG6895-PA	494	(Filipe et al., 2005; Gobert et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2000; Pili-Floury et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2006a)
<b>DmGNBP2</b>	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	CG4144-PA	461	(Sackton et al., 2010)
<b>DmGNBP3</b>	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	CG5008-PA	490	(Matskevich et al., 2010; Mishima et al., 2009a; Mishima et al., 2009b)
<b>AgGNBPA1</b>	<i>Anopheles gambiae</i>	AGAP006761-PA	490	(Warr et al., 2008)
<b>AgGNBPA2</b>	<i>Anopheles gambiae</i>	AGAP012409-PA, partial	450	(Warr et al., 2008)
<b>As<math>\beta</math>GRP</b>	<i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	AAT99011	500	(Wang et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2006b)
<b>Tc<math>\beta</math>GRP2</b>	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	XP_969449	441	(Tribolium Genome Sequencing et al., 2008)
<b>Tc<math>\beta</math>GRP3</b>	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	XP_972063	481	(Tribolium Genome Sequencing et al., 2008)
<b>Ms<math>\beta</math>GRP1</b>	<i>Manduca sexta</i>	AAF44011	487	(Ma and Kanost, 2000; Rao et al., 2014)
<b>Ms<math>\beta</math>GRP2</b>	<i>Manduca sexta</i>	AAN10151	482	(Jiang et al., 2004; Takahashi et al., 2014; Takahashi et al., 2015)
<b>MsMBP</b>	<i>Manduca sexta</i>	ADT82662, partial	482	(Wang and Jiang, 2017; Wang et al., 2011)
<b>Pi<math>\beta</math>GRP</b>	<i>Plodia interpunctella</i>	AAM95970	488	(Dai et al., 2013)
<b>Se<math>\beta</math>GRP</b>	<i>Spodoptera exigua</i>	–	491	(Bang et al., 2013)
<b>Px<math>\beta</math>GRP</b>	<i>Plutella xylostella</i>	AFK24449	479	(Huang et al., 2015)
<b>Tp<math>\beta</math>GRP4a</b>	<i>Thitarodes pui</i>	ADZ45541	496	(Sun et al., 2011)
<b>As<math>\beta</math>GRP</b>	<i>Armigeres subalbatus</i>	AAT99011	500	(Wang et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2006b)
<b>LmGNBP3</b>	<i>Locusta migratoria</i>	AFD54027	496	(Zheng and Xia, 2012)

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