REVIEW

The complement C3 protein family in invertebrates

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Accepted January 11, 2011

Abstract

Complement C3 plays a pivotal role in the innate immune system of mammals as the central component of the complement system essential for its activation mechanism and effecter function. C3 has a unique intra-chain thioester bond that is shared by some complement and non-complement proteins forming a thioester protein (TEP) family. Phylogenetic analysis of TEP family genes of vertebrates and invertebrates revealed that the TEP family is divided into two subfamilies, the C3 subfamily and the alpha-2-macroglobulin (A2M) subfamily. The establishment of the TEP genes and differentiation of them into the C3 and A2M subfamilies occurred prior to the divergence of Cnidaria and Bilateria, in a common ancestor of Eumetazoa more than 600 MYA. Since then the A2M subfamily has been retained by all metazoan lineages analyzed thus far. In contrast, the C3 subfamily has been retained only by deuterostomes and some protostomes, and has been lost in multiple protostome lineages. Although the direct functional analysis of the most invertebrate TEPs is still to be performed. conservation of the basic domain structure and functionally important residues for each molecule suggests that the basic function is also conserved. Functional analyses performed on a few invertebrate C3 support this conclusion. The gene duplication events that generated C4 and C5 from C3 occurred in a common ancestor of jawed vertebrates, indicating that invertebrate and cyclostome C3s represent the pre-duplication state. In addition to C3, complement Bf and MASP involved in the activation of C3 are also identified in Cnidaria and some invertebrates, indicating that the complement system is one of the most ancient innate immune systems of Eumetazoa.

Key Words: thioester-containing protein (TEP); α-2 macroglobulin (A2M); evolution; Cnidaria

Introduction

The human complement system is composed of about 30 plasma and cell surface proteins and has three physiological functions, host defense against infection, interface between innate and adaptive immunity and disposal of immune complex and apoptotic cells (Volanakis, 1998; Walport, 2001). Since the latter two functions are intimately connected with the canonical adaptive immune system unique to the jawed vertebrates (Kasahara et al., 1997), the original function of the complement system, found in both vertebrates and invertebrates, is believed to be the host defense against infection. In the human complement system, this function is attained by three major effector mechanisms, opsonization, induction of inflammation by chemotaxis and activation of leucocytes, and lysis of bacteria and cells.

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There are three activation pathways for the mammalian complement system (Volanakis, 1998). The classical pathway, termed so because it was discovered first among three pathways, is initiated by binding of C1 to antigen-bound antibody, and results in the formation of the classical pathway C3 convertase composed of C4 and C2, which is responsible for the proteolytic activation of the central component C3. The next found alternative pathway consists of factor D (Df), factor B (Bf) and C3, and the alternative pathway C3 convertase is composed of C3 itself and Bf (Pangburn and Muller-Eberhard, 1984). The activation mechanism of the alternative pathway is still not totally clear, although regulatory factors such as factor H and properdin are reported to play a critical role in initiation of the pathway. The lastly found lectin pathway is initiated by recognition of PAMP (pathogen-associated molecular pattern) by the lectins, MBL (mannose-binding lectin) and ficolin, and the lectin-associated serine proteases. MASP (MBL-associated serine protease) activate C4 and C2, merging to the classical pathway (Matsushita and Fujita, 1992).



Fig. 1 Distribution of the complement genes with characteristic domain structure in invertebrate deuterostome, protostome and Cnidaria. Most key components of the complement system possess unique domain structure, and are classified into five mosaic protein families, C3, Bf, MASP, C6 and If families. The presence of these family genes is schematically shown for the representative species of Vertebrate (human, *H. sapiens*), invertebrate deuterostome (sea squirt, *C. intestinalis*), protostome (horseshoe crab, *C. rotundicauda*) and Cnidaria (sea anemone, *N. vectensis*). Since the genome sequence information is not yet available for *C. rotundicauda*, the absence of the MASP, C6 and If family member is still tentative. The question mark near the C6 family members of *C. intestinalis* indicates that these molecules are probably not involved in the sea squirt complement system in spite of close structural similarity to mammalian C6 family members (see text). Abbreviations of domain names are: MG, macroglobulin; ANA, anaphylatoxin; CUB/TEP, CUB domain inserted with thioester region; C345C, C-terminal of C3, C4 and C5; CCP, complement control protein; vWA, von Willebrand factor type A; SP, serine protease; CUB, C1r, C1s, uEGF, and bone morphogenetic protein; EGF, epidermal growth factor-like; TSP, thrombospondin type 1 repeats; MAC/P, membrane-attack complex/perforin; LDL, Low-density lipoprotein receptor domain class A; FIM, factor I/membrane attack complex; and SR, scavenger receptor Cys-rich.

Upon activation by C3 convertases, C3 is cleaved into the larger C3b and the smaller C3a fragments. C3b has ability to bind covalently to acceptor molecules on cell surfaces via ester or amide linkages (Law et al., 1979), and cell-bound C3b is recognized by CR1 (complement receptor 1) on phagocytic cells, resulting in opsonic function (Ehlenberger and Nussenzweig, 1977). C3b can also react with C4b or C3b of the C3 convertases, leading to loss of C3 convertase activity and acquisition of C5 convertase activity (Takata et al., 1987; Kinoshita et al., 1988). Like C3 convertase, C5 convertase cleaves C5 into C5b and C5a. C5b initiates the assembly of the MAC (membrane attack complex) by sequential binding of C6, C7, C8 and C9. During this assembly process, hydrophobic domains of the participating proteins become exposed on the surface of the complex, and the complex becomes gradually inserted into the lipid bilayer and eventually forms a transmembrane channel (Podack et al., 1981), leading to killing of the susceptible cells. C3a, C5a and the equivalent peptide derived from C4, C4a are termed as anaphylatoxin, since these peptides have prominent pro-inflammatory activity to induce

chemotaxis and degranulation of leukocytes (Hugli, 1984).

C3, C4 and C5 are structurally homologous genes (Wetsel et al., 1987), arose from a common ancestor by gene duplications occurred in the early stage of vertebrate evolution (Nonaka et al., 1984). They are similar in size (~200kDa) and are composed of α and β subunits (C3 and C5) or α , β and γ subunits (C4). During complement activation, all three proteins are proteolytically cleaved at near the N-terminal end of α chain, liberating the C3a, C4a and C5a anaphylatoxins. C3 and C4 have a unique intrachain thioester bond formed between Cvs and Gln in α chain, which is hidden inside of the molecule (Janatova and Tack, 1981; Levine and Dodds, 1990). Upon structural change induced by proteolytic activation of these molecules, the highly reactive thioester bond is exposed at the molecular surface, and can form an ester bond with a hydroxyl group or amide bond with an amino group on the target surface. This covalent tagging of the foreign particles seems to be the central function of the complement system, enabling the following elimination or killing of the pathogens.



Fig. 2 Phylogenetic tree of animals. Out of more than 30 animal phyla, only those relevant to this review are shown with photographs of a belonging species. Taxonomic groups higher than phylum are shown in bold, whereas lower than phylum are shown in italic.

The 3-dimensional structure analysis of human C3 revealed the presence of the unpredicted macroglobulin (MG) domain, which repeats eight times and constitute the core of the TEP family proteins (Janssen *et al.*, 2005). Most functional sites of human C3 are present in the ANA, TED and C345C domains (see Fig.1 for the abbreviation and location of the domains) inserted within or between these eight MG domains. Further analysis of the 3-dimensional structure of C3b indicated that the dramatic conformational change actually occurs when C3 is proteolytically activated into C3b as predicted from biochemical analyses (Janssen *et al.*, 2006).

This review provides an overview of our current knowledge on the C3 genes or proteins of invertebrates, and will try to reconstitute the evolution of the complement system. Although there is no logical basis of an argument whether the common ancestral gene for *C3*, *C4* and *C5* should be called *C3*, *C4* or *C5*, here I refer it as *C3* since the role of *C3* in the mammalian complement system is so pivotal that it is difficult to imagine a complement system without C3.

Animal phylogeny

Figure 2 shows the phylogenetic tree of the animal phyla relevant to this review based mainly on the recent multigene molecular phylogenetic analyses (Philippe et al., 2005; Dunn et al., 2008). Multi-cellular animals are divided into Porifera (sponges) without typical germ layers and Eumetazoa with typical germ layers. Eumetazoa is further divided into Cnidaria (sea anemone, hydra etc) possessing two germ layers and Bilateria possessing three germ layers as well as left-right symmetric body. Bilateria has two major groups, Protostomia and Deuterostomia. Protostomia is further divided into Ecdysozoa and Lophotrochozoa, each containing several phyla. Deuterostomia has Xenoturbellida. four phyla, Hemichordata.

Echinodermata and Chordata. Vertebrata is one of the three subphyla of Chordata. Invertebrate, all animals except for vertebrates, is thus not a proper taxonomic group. From the viewpoint of the complement evolution also, it is difficult to classify the invertebrate and vertebrate complement systems. Rather, the complement system of cyclostomes (Agnatha), the most basal extant vertebrates, shows more similarity to the invertebrate complement system than to the jawed vertebrate complement system. This is also true for the C3 family proteins as will be discussed in the following.

Origin of the TEP family genes

The thioester-containing protein (TEP) family members possess the unique intrachain thioester bond originally found in the human protease inhibitor, alpha-2-macroglobulin (A2M) and complement C3 (Dodds and Law, 1998). Although some members such as complement C5 (Wetsel et al., 1987) and certain insect TEP (Lagueux et al., 2000) secondary lost the thioester bond, they are identified as members of this family based on an overall sequence homology. Seven members of this family are encoded in the human genome: C3, C4, C5, A2M (Sottrup-Jensen et al., 1985), pregnancy zone protein (PZP) (Sottrup-Jensen et al., 1984), CD109 (Lin et al. 2002) and the complement 3 and PZP-like A2M domain-containing 8 (CPAMD8) (Li et al., 2004). C3, C4 and C5 are complement components derived from a C3-like common ancestor by gene duplications in the early stage of jawed vertebrate evolution (Nonaka and Takahashi, 1992; Terado et al., 2003). Thus, whereas all C3, C4 and C5 are present in sharks (Terado et al., 2003; Graham et al., 2009) and higher vertebrates, only C3 has been identified from lamprey (Nonaka and Takahashi, 1992) and hagfish (Ishiguro et al., 1992). Although C4 shows a close structural and functional similarity to C3, C5 lacks the thioester bond and plays a function that has diverged markedly from those of C3

and C4 in the human complement system (Lambris et al., 1998). A2M is a serum protease inhibitor, inhibiting the diverse array of proteases by trapping proteases inside of the molecule rather than binding to the active site (Armstrong, 2010). The domain structure of A2M is essentially the same with that of C3 except that A2M has a bait domain instead of the ANA domain and lacks the C345C domain (Janssen et al., 2005). PZP is a major pregnancy-associated plasma protein, with similar structure and function to A2M (Sottrup-Jensen et al., 1984). CD109, unlike other members of the TEP family, is a GPI-linked glycoprotein originally found on endothelial cells, platelets and activated T-cells (Lin et al., 2002). CD109 suppresses transforming growth factor (TGF)-β signaling in human keratinocytes by binding to TGF-β receptor I (Finnson et al., 2006), and a high level of CD109 expression is detected in squamous cell carcinomas of the esophagus, lung, uterus and oral cavity (Hagiwara et al., 2008). However, biochemical details of the CD109 function are still unknown except that the involvement of furin in processing is reported recently (Hagiwara et al., 2010). CPAMD8, also termed KIAA1283, has a Kazal-type serine proteinase inhibitor-like domain at the C-terminus and is expressed mainly in the kidney, brain and testis, although its function is poorly characterized (Li et al., 2004).

No TEP gene is present in the published genome information of a sponge, Amphimedon queenslandica and a choanoflagellate, Monosiga brevicollis (King et al., 2008; Kimura et al., 2009; Srivastava et al., 2010). Thus, it is suggested that the TEP gene arose in the Eumetazoa lineage. Comprehensive cloning of TEP genes of a Cnidarian, a sea anemone, Haliplanella lineate resulted in identification of four TEP genes (Fujito et al., 2010). The genome analysis performed in another sea anemone species, Nematostella vectensis, also identified the same set of TEP genes (Kimura et al., 2009), indicating that Anthozoan Cnidaria has these four TEP genes. Phylogenetic analysis of the four identified Cnidarian TEP genes and various TEP genes of many Eumetazoa resulted in a NJ tree shown in Fig. 3. Although this is an unrooted tree, the root most probably resides at the branch marked by the black triangle, since genes of various animals from Cnidaria to Vertebrata are present on both sides of this branch indicating that this branch represents an ancient diversifying event, and the ANA and C345C domains are present in all members on one side of this branch but none of the members on the other side. Thus, the TEP gene family is divided by this branch into two subfamilies: the A2M subfamily including A2M, CD109, CPAMD8 and insect TEPs, and the C3 subfamily including complement C3, C4 and C5 (Fig. 3).

Insect TEPs were originally found in *Drosophila melanogaster*, and six members, TEP1-TEP6, have been identified in this species (Lagueux *et al.*, 2000). Drosophila TEPs contain a hypervariable region at the position corresponding to the bait region of A2M and the ANA domain of C3. TEP2, TEP3 and TEP6 bind to *Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus* and *Candida albicans*, respectively, and promote their phagocytosis by cultured S2 cells (Stroschein-Stevenson *et al.*, 2006). In a mosquito, Anopheles gambiaeare, the TEP1 gene was shown to promote phagocytosis of some Gram-negative bacteria (Levashina *et al.*, 2001), and to bind to the surface of *Plasmodium* ookinetes and promote their lysis and melanization (Blandin *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, the insect TEP genes were referred to as complement-like genes. However, the phylogenetic analysis clearly indicates that they belong to the A2M subfamily (Fig. 3), suggesting that the reported functional similarity of these insect TEPs and mammalian C3 was caused by convergent molecular evolution.

Two of the four Cnidarian TEP genes belonged to the A2M subfamily, showing a close similarity to human A2M and CD109, respectively, and thus were termed HaliA2M and HaliCD109 (Fujito et al., 2010). The other two genes belonged to the C3 subfamily, and were termed HaliC3-1 and HaliC3-2 (Fujito et al., 2010). Cnidarian TEPs retained the basic domain structure and functionally important residues for each molecule, and their mRNA were detected at different parts of the sea anemone body. Thus a strong signal for HaliC3-1 was detected in the endoderm of tentacles, HaliA2M was detected in endoderm of the mesentery as strong granular signals, and HaliCD109 showed strong granular expressions in ectoderm of tentacles and in endoderm of the mesentery (Fujito et al., 2010). Different expression pattern implies functional differentiation among these three genes. Therefore it is suggested that gene duplication and subsequent functional differentiation among C3, A2M and CD109 were very ancient events predating the divergence of the Cnidaria and Bilateria more than 600 MYA. In contrast, the genome of Hydra magnipapillata, belonging to Hydrozoa, contained only A2M subfamily member (Miller et al., 2007). These results indicate that the creation of the TEP genes and subsequent gene duplication and functional differentiation into C3. A2M and CD109 have occurred in a relatively short evolutionary period after the divergence of sponges and before the divergence of Cnidaria from the Bilateria lineage, and that the C3 subfamily was lost by some Cnidaria lineages.

Since both C3 and A2M subfamily members of the TEP family are present in Cnidaria and Bilateria, it is not clear which subfamily arose first. The recent genome analysis in Placozoa (Srivastava et al., 2008) identified at least two TEP genes, and both of them belong to the A2M subfamily, one at the basal position of A2M cluster and the other in the CD109 cluster (Fig. 3). Although the phylogenetic relationship among Porifera, Placozoa, Cnidaria and Bilateria is not conclusively resolved (Philippe et al., 2009; Schierwater et al., 2009), if Placozoa diverged prior to the divergence between Cnidaria and Bilateria, it is suggested that the A2M subfamilv is more ancient than the C3 subfamily. Structural features of the common ancestor of the C3 and A2M subfamilies can be deduced from the comparison of the human and sea anemone TEP structures (Fig. 4). Comparison of four human TEPs and three sea anemone TEPs showed that the signal peptide and the thioester domain are present in all members, suggesting that these features were present in the common ancestor of the C3 and A2M subfamilies. In addition, the α - β processing site and the His residue



Fig. 3 Phylogenetic tree of TEP genes. The tree was constructed based on the alignment of the full length amino acid sequences of the TEP family genes, using the Neighbor-joining method. Gaps were not excluded. Bootstrap percentages of more than 50 with 1000 replicates are given. Accession numbers of the used sequences and scientific names of animals are; human (Homo sapiens) C3, C4, C5, A2M, CD109, CPAMD8, and PZP (NP 000055, P0C0L4, AAA51925, P01023, NP_598000, NP_056507 and CAA38255), squid (Euprymna scolope) C3 (ACF04700), sea urchin (Strongylocentrotus purpuratus) C3 and CPAMD8 (NP 999686 and XP 785018), sea squirt (Ciona intestinalis) C3-1, C3-2, CD109, and CPAMD8 (NP_001027684, CAC85958, NP_001027688 and XP_002124325), lamprey (Lethenteron japonicum) C3 and A2M (Q00685 and BAA02762), hagfish (Eptatretus burgeri) C3 and CD109 (P98094 and BAD12264), horseshoe crab 1 (Cainoscorpius rotundicauda) C3 (AAQ08323), horseshoe crab 2 (Tachypleus tridentatus) C3 and A2M (BAH02276 and BAA19844), amphioxus (Branchiostoma floridae) C3-1, C3-2, CD109 and CPAMD8 (AAM18874, XP_002612866, XP_002586872 and XP_002612485), coral 1 (Swiftia exserta) C3 (AAN86548), coral 2 (Acropora millepora) C3 (ABK78771), sea anemone (Haliplanella lineate) C3-1, C3-2, A2M, and CD109 (AB481383, AB481384, AB481385 and AB481386), fruit fly (Drosophila melanogaster) TEP1 (NP_523578), mosquito (Anopheles gambiae) TEP (AAG00600), nematode (Caenorhabditis elegans) CD109 (NP 493614), clam (Hyriopsis cumingii) A2M (ABJ89824), clam (Venerupis decussatus) C3 (FJ392025), ticks (Ornithodoros moubata) A2M (AAN10129), snail (Euphaedusa tau) CD109 (BAE44110), sea cucumber (Apostichopus japonicus) C3 (ADN97000), acorn worm (Saccoglossus kowalevskii) C3 (XP 002732077), placozoa (Trichoplax adhaerens) CD109 and TEP (XP 002111588 and XP 002111589).

which catalyze the cleavage of the thioester bond are present in most members, although they are missing from human A2M. Thus, the common ancestor molecule likely had these characters, showing a closer similarity to human C3 than to human A2M. For the position for the ANA or bait domains and the C-terminus where C345C, Kazal and GPI attachment domains appear, it is difficult to deduce the ancestral state, since none of them is in majority. Therefore, the common ancestor of the C3 and A2M subfamilies most probably was, secreted protein synthesized with the signal peptide, two subunit (α and β) chain protein, and endowed with the thioester bond with the catalytic histidine.

Cnidarian C3 and complement system

In addition to C3-1 and C3-2 genes identified from sea anemone species, Haliplanella lineate (Fujito et al., 2010) and Nematostella vectensis (Kimura et al., 2009), the C3 genes have been reported from two coral species, Swifta exserta (Dishaw et al., 2005) and Acropora millepora (Miller et al., 2007). The basic domain structure of the C3 family and the signal peptide for secretion were completely conserved in these Cnidarian C3 proteins (Table 1). The conservation of the C3a anaphylatoxin region, the thioester site (GCGEQ), and the catalytic His residue for cleavage of thioester suggest that the Cnidaria C3 proteins retain the inflammatory and opsonic functions. The C345c domain was also identified and five Cys residues characteristic to this domain are perfectly conserved. Since the mammalian C345C domain of C3 is involved in the interaction with the vWA domain of Bf, in the alternative pathway C3 convertase, C3bBb (Rooijakkers et al., 2009; Torreira et al. 2009), presence of this domain in Cnidarian C3 proteins imply that the Cnidarian C3 proteins are capable to form C3 convertase with Bf. The conservation of the α/β chains processing site 'RXXR' suggested that Cnidarian C3 proteins are processed into the two-subunit chain structure. However, both of Cvs residues involved in the disulfide linkage between the α and β chains of mammalian C3 (Dolmer and Sottrup-Jensen, 1993) were substituted into another residue, and there is no other pair of Cvs residues. which is possibly involved in the inter-chain linkage. The most unique feature of Cnidarian C3s is the presence of about 50 residue-long, highly Lys/Arg-rich insertion in the MG8 domain. Although insertion into the MG8 domain was also found in the horshoe crab C3 (Zhu et al., 2005), ascidian C3 (Nonaka et al., 1999; Marino et al., 2002), lamprey C3 (Nonaka and Takahashi, 1992) and vertebrate C4, the Lys/Arg content of Cnidarian C3 is extremely high (~60 %), likely providing a unique, extremely positive charge to this region of Cnidarian C3. The α/γ chain-processing motif 'RXXR' has been reported in the jawed vertebrate C4, lamprey C3, and horseshoe crab C3 at this region. It is possible, therefore, that the Lys/Arg-rich insertion was present in the common ancestor of C3 subfamily proteins, and the α/γ chain-processing motif is its remnant.

In addition to two C3, two Bf and one MASP genes were identified in the draft genome sequence of Nematostella vectensis (Kimura et al., 2009). In

contrast, no C6 and factor I (If) family genes were identified. The deduced primary structures of the cnidarian Bf and MASP shared the unique domain structures and most functionally critical amino acid residues with their mammalian counterparts, suggesting the conservation of basic biochemical functions throughout the metazoan evolution. In situ hybridization analysis indicated that all five Cnidarian complement genes are co-expressed at the tentacles, the pharynx and the mesentery in an endoderm-specific manner (Kimura et al., 2009). These results indicated that the multi-component complement system composed of at least C3, Bf and MASP was established in a common ancestor of Cnidaria and Bilateria more than 600 MYA to protect coelenterons, the primitive gut cavity with putative circulatory functions.

Protostome C3 and complement system

The presence of C3 in Cnidaria indicated that the C3 gene has been established prior to the divergence of Cnidaria and Bilateria. However, the firstly-elucidated protostome genomes of Drosophila melanogaster (Adams et al., 2000) and Caenorhabditis elegans (Consortium 1998) did not contain the C3 gene. Moreover, our attempt to RT-PCR amplify TEP cDNAs using universal primers compatible with both the C3 and A2M subfamily members in four Lophotrochozoa species, Planocera multitentaculata (Platyhelminthes), Siphonosoma (Sipuncula), cumanense Hesione reticulata (Annelida) and Euphaedusa tau (Mollusca), resulted in isolation of only A2M family cDNA, suggesting the absence of C3 in these species (Kim, Fujito and Nonaka, unpublished data). On the other hand, the C3 subfamily members have been reported from Ecdysozoan horseshoe crab, Carcinoscorpius rotundicauda and Tachvpleus tridentatus (Zhu et al., 2005; Ariki et al., 2008) and Lophotrochozoan squid, Euprymna scolope (Castillo et al., 2009) and clam, Hyriopsis cumingii (Prado-Alvarez et al., 2009). These results indicate that whereas A2M has been retained by all protostomes, C3 has been lost secondarily multiple times during the protostome evolution. The deduced primary structure of these protostome C3 proteins did not show any large insertion or deletion compared to vertebrate C3, and retained all primary structure motifs reported to have functional importance, such as the thioester, anaphylatoxin, and α - β processing regions (Table 1). For squid and clam, the composition of the complement system is still unknown except that the Bf-like gene was identified from clam (Prado-Alvarez et al., 2009). However, the active center Ser is substituted into Ile in this Bf-like molecule, making it unlikely that this molecule functions as the catalytic subunit of a C3 convertase. In contrast, horseshoe crab C3 is the best-analyzed C3 of invertebrates at the biochemical level. Molecular cloning of the C3 has been reported from two distantly-related species. horseshoe crab Carcinoscorpius rotundicauda (Cr) (Zhu et al., 2005) and Tachypleus tridentatus (Tt) (Ariki et al., 2008). Interestingly, the primary structures of CrC3 and TtC3 show quite high degree of identity (Fig. 3), in spite of a remote phylogenetic relationship of these two species. CrC3

Table 1 Structural features of invertebrate C3s

	$\underline{\alpha}-\underline{\beta}$	ANA	Thioester	Catalytic His	$\underline{\alpha} - \underline{\gamma}$
Haliplanella lineate 1	RKKR	CC,C,C,CC ^{#1}	GCGEQ	н	KR-rich
Haliplanella lineate 2	?	?,CC	GCGEQ	н	KR-rich
Swifta exserta	RKRR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	н	KR-rich
Acropora millepora	RKKR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	Н	KR-rich
Euprymna scolopes	RYKR	CC,C,CC	GCGEQ	н	
Venerupis decussatus	RKRR	C,CC,C,C,C	GCGEQ	н	RKKR
Carcinoscorpius rotundicauda	RKKR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	н	LR-rich
Tachypleus tridentatus	RKKR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	н	LR-rich
Apostichopus japonicus	RRRR	C,C,CC	GCGEQ	Н	DR-rich
Strongylocentrotus purpuratus	RRKR	C,C	GCGEQ	Н	
Saccoglossus kowalevskii	#2	CC	GCGEQ	Н	DR-rich
Branchiostoma belcheri 1	#2	C,CC	GCGEQ	н	EDSR-rich
Branchiostoma belcheri 2	#2	C,CC	GCGEQ	н	EDSR-rich
Ciona intestinalis 1	RKKR	C,C	GCGEQ	Н	
Ciona intestinalis 2	RNKR	C,C	GCGEQ	н	
Eptatretus burgeri	RRKR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	н	
Lethenteron japonicum	RKPR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	н	RRRR
Homo sapiens C3	RRRR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	н	
Homo sapiens C4	RKKR	CC,C,C,CC	GCGEQ	Н	RRRR
Homo sapiens C5	RPRR	CC,C,C,C,CC	GSAEA	Р	

^{#1}Distrition of the Cys residues in the ANA domain is shown. "," represents multiple amino acid residues.

^{#2}Blank indicates the absence of characteristic residues. However, the absence of the α - β processing signal and some Cys residues in the ANA domain of these three C3s could be due to inaccurate gene prediction.

showed binding activity to Staphylococcus aureus and other bacteria and this binding activity was inhibited by hydroxylamine, suggesting the involvement of the thioester bond of CrC3 in binding. In addition, divalent cation-dependent induction of trypsin-like proteolytic activity in horseshoe crab plasma was observed, although it is still to be demonstrated directly if this activity is due to CrBf, and if CrBf directly activates CrC3 (Zhu et al., 2005). For TtC3, factor C originally identified as an LPS-sensitive initiator of hemolymph coagulation stored within hemocytes was identified as an activating enzyme (Ariki et al., 2008). Thus, upon Gram-negative invasion of bacteria. an LPS-responsive factor C plays the central role in the initiation of the horseshoe crab complement activation. However, factor C seems not to be involved in TtC3 binding to S. aureus, suggesting the presence of other C3 activating enzymes in horseshoe crab, possibly the C3 convertase

comprising Bf. In support of this view, direct binding of factor C and Bf to PRRs was reported in C. rotundicauda (Le Saux et al., 2008). The apparent functional substitution by factor C for MASP suggest a significant deviation of the horseshoe crab complement system from the other complement systems. In this context, the reported primary structure of horseshoe crab Bf shows curious characteristics (Zhu et al., 2005). The serine protease domains of mammalian Bf and C2 are known to be unique in the following points (Volanakis and Arlaud, 1998). Firstly, although they cleave peptide bonds following a positively-charged amino acid residue, they lack Asp189 (chymotrypsinogen numbering) which in trypsin positions the positively charged P1 residue. Instead. Asp226 is responsible for substrate specificity of human Bf (Jing et al., 2000). Secondary, they lack the highly conserved and functionally important N-terminal sequences of serine proteases. Thus, following activation their serine



Fig. 4 Structural features of human and sea anemone TEP molecules. Structural features of human (*H. sapiens*) and sea anemone (*H. lineate*) TEP molecules are compared, and the structure of the common ancestor of the TEP molecules is deduced based on maximum parsimony principle. Question marks in the ancestor molecule indicate that there are multiple candidates with equal probability.

protease domains remain attached to a vWA domain. Comparison of amino acid sequences of the serine protease domain of Bfs from various animals shown in Figure 5 suggests that both structural specializations occurred in a common ancestor of jawed vertebrates (Terado *et al.*, 2001). Thus, both structural specializations seem to have occurred simultaneously leading to a drastic change in structure and activation mechanism of Bf. The horseshoe crab Bf is exceptional in that it retains the original specificity-determining Asp189 without retaining the conserved N-terminal sequence of the serine protease domain. Thus the activation mechanism of the horseshoe crab Bf, and whole complement system also, could be a highly deviated one, although the details are still to be clarified.

Deuterostome C3 and complement system

C3 sequence of invertebrate deuterostome has been reported from sea squirt (Urochordata) (Nonaka et al., 1999; Raftos et al., 2002; Azumi et al., 2003; Pinto et al., 2003), amphioxus (Cephalochordata) (Suzuki et al., 2002; Holland worm and Gibson-Brown. 2003). acorn (Hemichordata) (XP_002732077), sea urchin (Al-Sharif et al., 1998) and sea cucumber (Echinodermata) (ADN97000) thus far. Since gene duplications among C3, C4 and C5, and subsequent functional differentiation among them likely occurred at the early stage of jawed vertebrate evolution (Nonaka and Takahashi, 1992; Nonaka and Kimura, 2006), these C3 genes

together with cyclostome C3 genes are considered to represent the ancestral state before the gene duplications. All these invertebrate deuterostome C3 proteins retain the thioester site, the His residue which catalyzes the cleavage of the thioester bond, and the α - β processing site. In contrast, the Cys residues in the ANA domain and the Leu-X-Arg sequence at the cleavage site of the C3 convertase are poorly conserved by these C3 proteins (Table 1).

In addition to C3, Bf gene has been identified from sea urchin (Smith et al., 1998), and several complement genes have been identified from sea squirt, mainly from two species, Halocynthia roretzi and Ciona intestinalis. Those genes are; Bf (Azumi et al., 2003; Yoshizaki et al., 2005), MASPs (Ji et al., 1997; Azumi et al., 2003), mannan-binding lectin (MBL) (Bonura et al., 2009), ficolin (Kenjo et al., 2001), complement receptor 3 (CR3) alpha (Miyazawa et al., 2001) and beta (Miyazawa et al., 2001) and glucose binding lectin (GBL) lacking the collagen domain as a possible functional substitute for MBL (Sekine et al., 2001). Thus, the sea squirt complement best-analyzed system is the invertebrate complement system from the viewpoint of the component genes. For the functional aspect, opsonic function of the sea squirt complement system has been demonstrated in H. roretzi, where C3, ficolin and GBL proteins isolated from the body fluid work together as opsonin. Moreover, the C3a fragment was shown to have a chemotactic activity (Pinto et al., 2003; Raftos et al. 2003), indicating that the role of the complement system in inflammation is also conserved between mammals and urochordates.

	656	#	746
Human Trypsin	CLDAPVLSQAKCEASYPGKITSNMFCV0	FLEGGKDSCGGDSGGPVVCNGQL	Q-GVVSWGDGCAQKNKPGVYTKVYNYVK
Human Bf	CERDAQYAP-GYDKVKDISEVVTPRFLCTC	GVSPYADPNTCRGDSGGPLIVHKRSRFI	QVGVISWGVVDVCKNQKRQKQVPAHARDFHINLF
Xenopus Bf	CLEAAKKAP-ELKNVTNIEDAVTDQFLCTC	GIVPVADPPVCKGDSGGPLLIQVKRRYV	QVGIISWGTVDHCDKGTRIKQTQKNARDFYQDIF
Oryzias Bf	CIKKALKAKGITTTDPKVPVTDNFLCTO	GDRDHIACTGDSGGAVFKNYESRTI	QIALVSWGTQEICTGGGMRETTPESRDFHINLF
Shark Bf	CEANALQAP-EYKNMSHVHLVVTDRFLCTC	GHEPVVEKVSCKGDSGGALFIQKKRRYI	QVGVLSWGVINSCDNVALKEKYARDFHINLF
Human C2	CAEVVSQEKTMFPNLTDVREVVTDQFLCSC	TQEDESPCKGESGGAVFLERRFRFF	QVGLVSWGLYNPCLGSADKNSRKRAPRSKVPPPRDFHINLF
Lamprey Bf	CLKDIMARFNVTEEKAEKHITENMLCAV	NATRWI	OVGIVAGGVAQHCGKNIKSSFYTNVA
Sea Squirt Bf	CQDAIKYINEKQRIKYSYNTTLFCCI	DPH-DNGVDTCQGDSGGPVVREVLNQTSGVSCWV	QIGLVSFGWGCGALRDDVHAYVP
Sea Urchin Bf	CSIAMSAHGIAVDTTTELCAG	SIERKDSCQGDSGGPLVVQRNNKYR	QIGIVSYGIGCGVTYGVYTRVP
Horseshoe crab Bf	CVQSLENTKDPMTDFMICAC	DGRGVADTCQGDSGGPLAQSLLDE-SGMNYW	IQVGIISWGRG-CKNRGQYGFYTHVAKLRP
Sea anemone Bf	CQVNHTNAITKRMRCAC	DVMGERDACKGDSGSPIVVKRTDGSWS/	AVGLSSWGEGCAQKGKFGVYADLL
	470	105	
11	4/8	193	
Human BI	CGMVWEHRKGTDYHK]Fw	
Xenopus Bf	CGLSKYHSVELDPKKKATVM	/PW	
Oryzias Bf	CGLHRDYELTADKDGKRRRY	(PW	
Shark Bf	CGFANKSLIESDQSSY	(PW	
Human C2	CGVGNMSANASDQER7	/PW	
Lamprey Bf	CGTSGTFRIPRARIAGGDPTKIELW	1PW	
Sea Squirt Bf	CGOAGEVGLKHMALKRVVGGEESVENAW	9PW	

Fig. 5 Evolution of Bf primary structure. The primary structures of Bf and C2 of various animals were compared at two regions of the serine protease domain. The upper panel: the region around the active center Ser corresponding to 656th-746th residues of human Bf. The active center Ser is marked by #. The Asp residue at the S1 pocket essential for the trypsin-like specificity is shown in red. The lower panel: the N-terminal region of the serine protease domain orresponding to 478 th - 495 th residues of human Bf. The possible proteolytic activation site is shown in red.

In contrast, the third activity of the mammalian complement system, cytolytic activity, has not been recognized in the urochordate complement system.

CGES-----KHPSATSRIVGGSESHSGDWPW CGYG----MDEVVEEVNKPGGTRAEKPWPW

CGVAGDTOLRDSSDKRFRIVGGREAKAGAWPW

Evolution of the complement system

Sea Urchin Bf Horseshoe crab Bf Sea anemone Bf

Figure 1 summarize the distribution of the complement genes with the characteristic domain structure in the representative species of Cnidaria (N. vectensis). Protostomia (*C*. rotundicauda). Invertebrate Deuterostomia (C. intestinalis) and Vertebrata (Homo sapiens). C3 arose in a common ancestor of Cnidaria and Bilateria more than 600 MYA from an ancestral TEP gene with unknown function. Bf and MASP seem to be generated at the same time, establishing a primitive complement system consisting of C3, Bf and MASP. Conservation of the C3 C345C domain and the Bf vWA domain suggests that they are able to assemble to form the alternative pathway C3 convertase, C3bBb. MASP is likely an initiating enzyme to induce C3bBb formation, and covalent binding of C3b to the surface of foreign molecules most probably enhanced phagocytosis. In addition to this opsonic function, the conservation of the ANA domain between Cnidaria and Vertebrata C3 suggests that the primitive complement system also had another function to induce inflammation.

By unknown reason, the complement system has been lost multiple times in the protostome lineages. Even in some protostome species which retains C3, MASP has not been identified, and Bfs has highly deviated structure, either proteolitically inactive or lacking the conserved N-terminal sequence of the serine protease domain. Thus, the activation mechanism of protostome complement system should be very different from that of Cnidaria or Vertebrata. Interestingly, some insect species lacking the C3 gene have TEP molecules functioning as opsonin like vertebrate C3. However, molecular phylogenetic analyses indicate that these insect TEPs belong to the A2M subfamily, suggesting that the similar functions were attained by convergent evolution.

In contrast, the complement system of invertebrate deuterostome represented by С. intestinalis shows much closer similarity to the mammalian complement system. However it lacks If, the main component of the regulatory mechanism. In addition, although there are several C6-like genes with the membrane attack complex/perforin (MACP) domain in the C. intestinalis genome, all of them lack the C-terminal short consensus repeat (SCR) and factor I/membrane attack complex (FIM) domains reported to be essential for interaction with other complement components. Thus, it is unlikely that these C6-like molecules are integrated in the urochordate complement system. These results indicate that the lytic activity and regulatory mechanism of mammalian complement system arose in the vertebrate lineage, probably after the divergence of cyclostomes since lamprey also lacks the lytic activity. In addition to the regulatory and lytic pathways, the jawed vertebrates seem to have gained the classical pathway by the C3/C4/C5 and Bf/C2 gene duplications. The modern complement system equipped with all these pathways was most probably established in a common ancestor of the iawed vertebrates.

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