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Identification of multiple integrin $\beta 1$ homologs in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*)

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Abstract

Background: Integrins comprise a large family of α, β heterodimeric, transmembrane cell adhesion receptors that mediate diverse essential biological functions. Higher vertebrates possess a single $\beta 1$ gene, and the $\beta 1$ subunit associates with a large number of α subunits to form the major class of extracellular matrix (ECM) receptors. Despite the fact that the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) is a rapidly emerging model organism of choice for developmental biology and for models of human disease, little is currently known about $\beta 1$ integrin sequences and functions in this organism.

Results: Using RT-PCR, complete coding sequences of zebrafish $\beta 1$ paralogs were obtained from zebrafish embryos or adult tissues. The results show that zebrafish possess two $\beta 1$ paralogs ($\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$) that have a high degree of identity to other vertebrate $\beta 1$ subunits. In addition, a third, more divergent, $\beta 1$ paralog is present ($\beta 1-3$), which may have altered ligand-binding properties. Zebrafish also have other divergent $\beta 1$ -like transcripts, which are C-terminally truncated forms lacking the transmembrane and cytoplasmic domains. Together with $\beta 1-3$ these truncated forms comprise a novel group of $\beta 1$ paralogs, all of which have a mutation in the ADMIDAS cation-binding site. Phylogenetic and genomic analyses indicate that the duplication that gave rise to $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ occurred after the divergence of the tetrapod and fish lineages, while a subsequent duplication of the ancestor of $\beta 1-2$ may have given rise to $\beta 1-3$ and an ancestral truncated paralog. A very recent tandem duplication of the truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs appears to have taken place. The different zebrafish $\beta 1$ paralogs have varied patterns of temporal expression during development. $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ are ubiquitously expressed in adult tissues, whereas the other $\beta 1$ paralogs generally show more restricted patterns of expression.

Conclusion: Zebrafish have a large set of integrin $\beta 1$ paralogs. $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ may share the roles of the solitary $\beta 1$ subunit found in other vertebrates, whereas $\beta 1-3$ and the truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs may have acquired novel functions.

Background

Integrins are a family of metazoan cell surface receptors that play critical roles in cell adhesion, migration, differentiation and survival [1]. Integrins are heterodimeric glycoproteins containing non-covalently associated α and β subunits, and are grouped into sub-families according to the identity of the β subunit. In humans, eight different β subunits combine with 18 different α subunits to form 24 functionally distinct heterodimers. Integrins have a large extracellular domain responsible for interacting with extracellular ligands, and a small intracellular domain that binds to cytoskeletal and signaling proteins. Integrins assimilate information from the extracellular and intracellular environments by acting as bi-directional transducers of signals across the cell membrane. Hence, the binding of an extracellular ligand can elicit activation of intracellular signaling pathways and reorganisation of the cytoskeleton [2,3]. Conversely, changes in intracellular signaling can result in the stimulation or inhibition of ligand binding due to conformational changes in the extracellular domains of an integrin [4-6].

Integrin ligands include the major ECM components laminins, fibronectin and collagens. The $\beta 1$ integrin sub-family contains 12 different heterodimers in mammals, which form the major group of cell-ECM receptors. An ECM-binding β chain is probably the most ancient, in evolutionary terms, of all the integrin β chains [7,8]. $\beta 1$ integrins have widespread essential functions both during development and in the adult organism [9-12].

Sequence analysis and X-ray crystal structures [13-15] have demonstrated that all integrin β subunits have an identical domain structure (shown schematically in Fig. 1). At the N-terminus there is a PSI (plexin/semaphorin/integrin) domain, into which is inserted an immunoglobulin fold known as the hybrid domain. A von Willebrand factor type A domain (known as the A or I-like domain) is in turn inserted within the hybrid domain. The PSI domain also links directly to the C-terminal portion of the β subunit, which contains four epidermal growth factor (EGF)-type repeats (EGF-1 to EGF-4), a cystatin-like fold known as the β -terminal domain (β TD), a transmembrane domain and a cytoplasmic tail.

The A domain is the portion of the β subunit that is involved in extracellular ligand binding; this domain also is critical for the interactions with the α subunit that lead to heterodimerisation. The A domain consists of a central β -sheet encircled by seven α helices, and has two large sequence insertions compared to other A domains [16]. These insertions, which are critical for ligand binding and for association with the α subunit, lie in the loops between β -strands B and C and between β -strand D and α helix 5 [13,14]. The β C- β D loop (otherwise known the

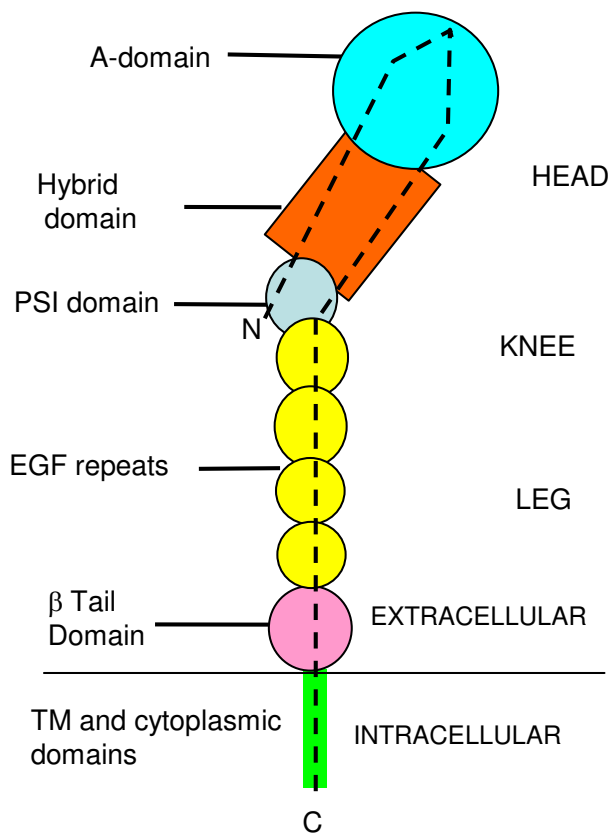


Figure 1
Schematic diagram of the domain structure of integrin β subunits. Domain arrangement is based on crystal structures of the extracellular regions of $\alpha V\beta 3$ [13], $\alpha IIb\beta 3$ [14] and $\beta 2$ [15]. PSI, plexin/semaphorin/integrin; EGF, epidermal growth factor; TM, transmembrane. N-, amino terminus; C-, carboxyl terminus. Dotted line indicates the overall path of the polypeptide chain.

'specificity-determining loop') contains a small disulfide-bonded segment that contributes to the differences in ligand-binding specificity between different integrin heterodimers [17-19]. The A domain also contains three cation-binding sites: MIDAS (metal-ion dependent adhesion site), ADMIDAS (adjacent to MIDAS) and LIMBS (ligand-associated metal binding site) [13,14]. The MIDAS site is critical for ligand recognition, whereas the ADMIDAS and LIMBS sites appear to have regulatory roles [20,21].

X-ray crystal structures [13-15] of the extracellular domains have revealed that the overall shape of the β subunit is that of a 'head' connected to a long 'leg' with an intervening 'genu' or 'knee' (Fig. 1). The A domain and hybrid domain form part of the integrin head region, whereas the PSI and EGF-1 and EGF-2 lie in the knee

region; the remaining EGF repeats and β TD domain contribute to the leg region. The conversion of an integrin from an inactive to an active state is proposed to involve an unbending of the knee region, and a key hinge point in the knee region has recently been proposed to lie in EGF-2 [15]. A critical feature of this unbending is the release of the hybrid domain from interactions with other integrin domains, thereby allowing the hybrid to undergo an outward pivoting. In turn, this movement causes conformational changes in the A domain that promote ligand recognition [14,22]. The β subunit cytoplasmic tail contains a HDRRE motif for interaction with the α subunit cytoplasmic domain [23], and NPXY sequences that are involved in binding to cytoskeletal proteins such as talin and filamin [24].

The zebrafish is an emerging model organism with a large number of attractive features for studying the function of genes, such as: (i) the external and rapid development of embryos, (ii) the transparency of embryos, which allows visualisation and tracking of individual cells or groups of cells, (iii) the high degree of conservation between zebrafish and human genes, (iv) the similarities between human and zebrafish embryonic development resulting in a large proportion of tissues and organs being grossly similar between the two species, (v) its genetic tractability, aided by the availability of powerful genetic tools such as gene knock-down by morpholino-modified antisense oligonucleotides (morpholinos) [25] and gene knockout by target-selected mutational inactivation of genes (TILLING)[26], and (vi) the partially complete genome sequence [59]. In addition, zebrafish is finding increasing use as a model organism to study human diseases [27,28]; in many of these disorders integrin-ligand interactions play important roles in the initiation or progression of the disease [29].

To date, our knowledge of the biological roles of integrins in vertebrates has been derived mainly from knockout studies in mice [30,31]. For the reasons described above, zebrafish provide a very attractive alternative model system for studying integrin function during development and disease. Currently, however, very little published information is available concerning the sequences and complement of integrin genes in this organism. Here we have investigated if β 1-like genes and transcripts are found in zebrafish. We found that zebrafish have two β 1 paralogs that are closely related to the single gene found in other vertebrates. Surprisingly, we also found multiple, more divergent, zebrafish β 1 paralogs, many of which are truncated and entirely novel forms.

Results

Zebrafish have two β 1 paralogs (β 1-1 and β 1-2) that are closely related to human β 1

To amplify β 1-like sequences, primers were designed based on partial sequences in the zebrafish genome project or from EST databases (see Methods). Complete coding sequences were amplified by RT-PCR using RNA from 4-day old embryos. Two of the sequences obtained, designated β 1-1 and β 1-2, had a high degree of identity to other vertebrate β 1 sequences, such as human β 1 [Genbank [Q8WUM6](#)] (Fig. 2). These two sequences are >76% identical to human β 1 overall but two regions of the subunits are extremely well conserved (Fig. 3A,B). The first of these regions is the A domain, indicating that the key functional features of this domain are retained in these β subunits. Highly conserved portions of the A domain include the loops important for ligand binding and association with the α subunits (Fig. 2). All residues involved in the coordination of the MIDAS, ADMIDAS and LIMBS cations are also completely conserved (Fig. 2). The second region of very strong conservation is the transmembrane domain and cytoplasmic tail, suggesting that the signaling and intracellular ligand binding properties of these sequences have been highly conserved. The conserved features include the HDRRE α subunit cytoplasmic domain interaction sequence and the two NPXY motifs [23,24]. All 56 cysteine residues in the extracellular domains are also perfectly conserved between β 1-1, β 1-2 and human β 1. The sequences of β 1-1 and β 1-2 are 81% identical to each other; β 1-2 is 84% identical to a published catfish β 1 sequence [32] [Genbank:[Q9AI01](#)].

Zebrafish have a third β 1 paralog (β 1-3), which is more divergent in sequence from human β 1

A third sequence amplified from zebrafish embryos, designated β 1-3, was considerably more divergent in sequence from human β 1 than β 1-1 and β 1-2 (Fig. 3 and Table 1). β 1-3 also has fewer potential N-linked glycosylation sites (five) than β 1-1 and β 1-2 (which both have eight). However, as observed for β 1-1 and β 1-2, all 56 cysteine residues are perfectly conserved. Overall, β 1-3 is more closely related in sequence to β 1-2 than to β 1-1 (Table 1). In comparison to the very high degree of sequence conservation seen for the A domains of β 1-1 and β 1-2, the A domain of β 1-3 is not well conserved (Fig. 3). Although the MIDAS and LIMBS cation-binding sites are conserved in the β 1-3 A domain, two aspartate residues are substituted by Ser/Asn at the ADMIDAS site; these two aspartate residues are present in all other chordate β 1 subunits. Because each aspartate residue provides two carboxylate oxygen atoms for coordination of the AMIDAS cation, the double substitution will probably lead to loss of cation binding at the ADMIDAS. We have previously shown that mutation of these residues in human β 1 causes constitutive inactivation of α 5 β 1 [20].

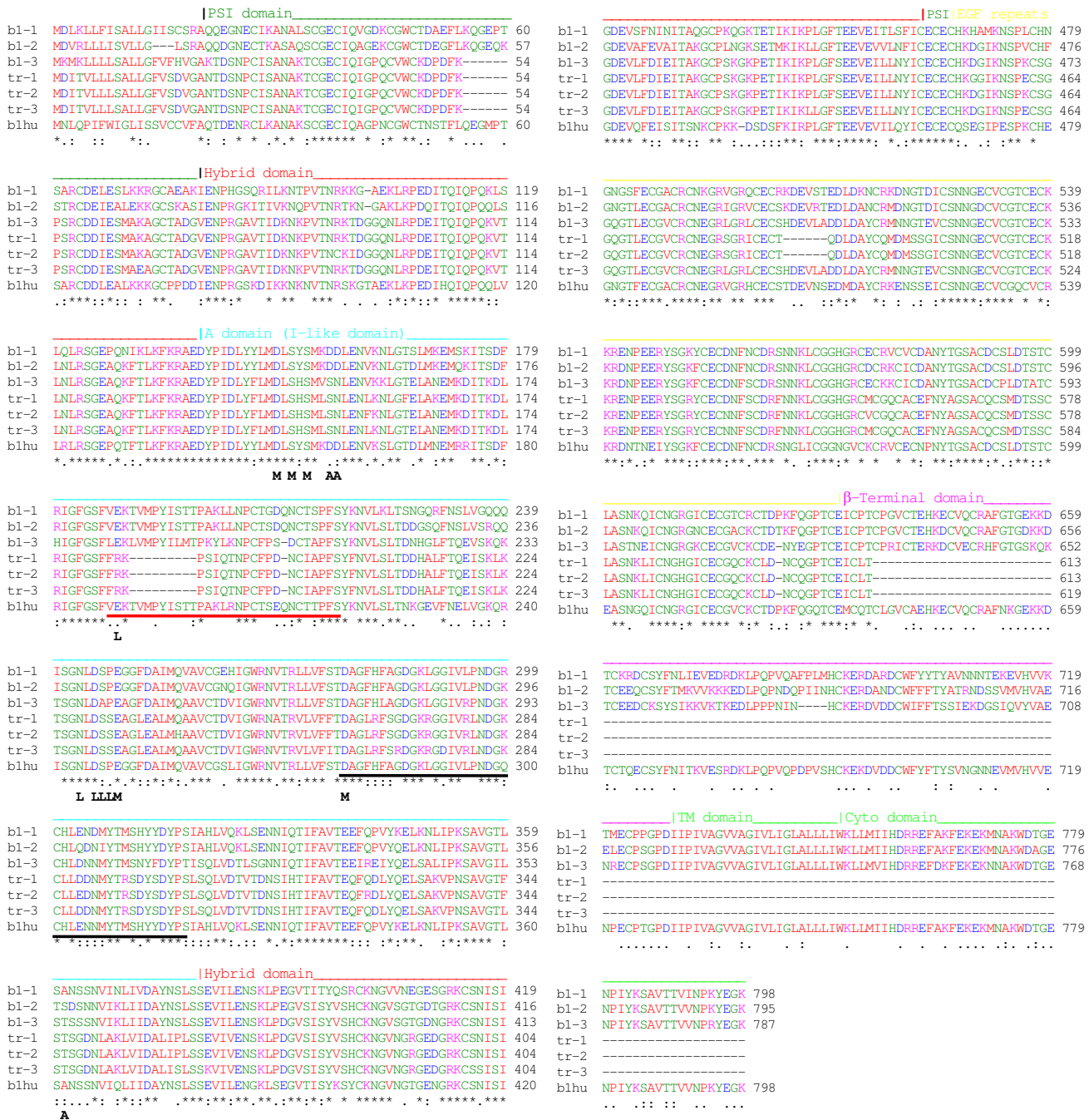


Figure 2
 Alignment of zebrafish $\beta 1$ sequences ($\beta 1-1$, $\beta 1-2$, $\beta 1-3$, $\beta 1tr-1$, $\beta 1tr-2$ and $\beta 1tr-3$) with human $\beta 1$. The alignment was performed using ClustalW. Protein domains are annotated: PSI, plexin/semaphorin/integrin; EGF, epidermal growth factor; β TD, β terminal domain; TM transmembrane; cyto, cytoplasmic domain. MIDAS (M), ADMIDAS (A) and LIMBS (L) cation binding residues in the A domain are shown. Red underline indicates the position of the βB - βC loop, black underline indicates the position of the βD - $\alpha 5$ loop in the A domain. Sequence identities are indicated by *, conservative substitutions by :, semi-conservative substitutions by .

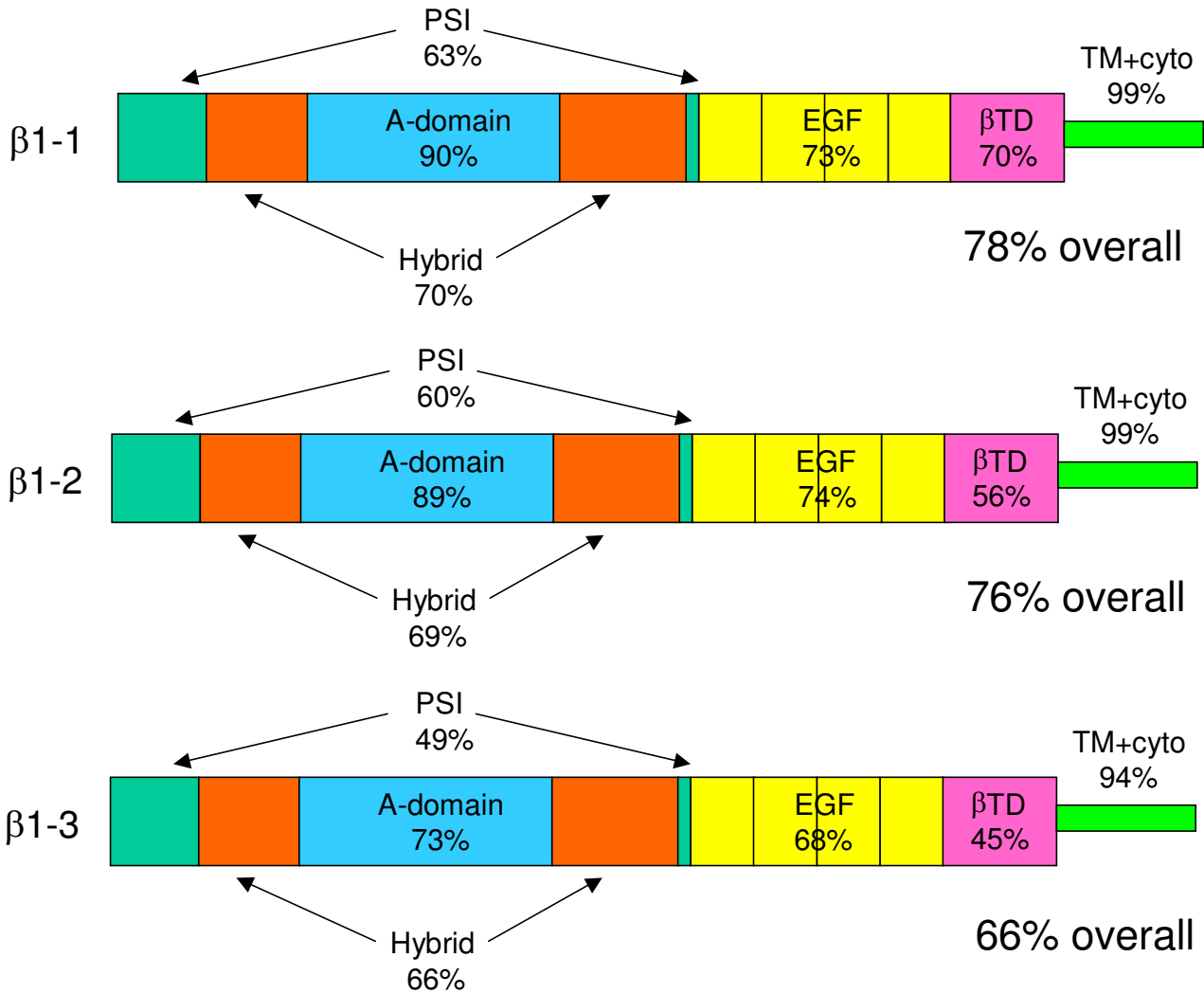


Figure 3

Domain comparison of zebrafish $\beta 1$ paralogs $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ with human $\beta 1$ (% sequence identity). PSI, plexin/semaphorin/integrin; EGF, epidermal growth factor; β TD, β terminal domain; TM+ cyto, transmembrane and cytoplasmic domains.

In addition, the sequence of the 'specificity-determining loop' between β strands B and C differs at several positions to that of the other $\beta 1$ subunits; most notably, the sequence of the disulfide-linked loop [17] in $\beta 1-3$ (CFPSDC) is markedly different to that of $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$, which are both very similar to human $\beta 1$ sequence (CTSE-QNC). Hence, $\beta 1-3$ is likely to have altered ligand-binding and α subunit association properties compared with $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ [17,19]. However, the transmembrane domain and cytoplasmic tail of $\beta 1-3$ is highly conserved, and this region is therefore likely to retain all the signaling characteristics and intracellular ligand binding features of $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$.

Zebrafish have truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs that are closely related to $\beta 1-3$

Several zebrafish database partial EST sequences [60] (Table 2) appeared to be orthologous to human $\beta 1$ but to differ in sequence with $\beta 1-1$, $\beta 1-2$ and $\beta 1-3$. Two of these ESTs, ESTa and ESTb, were selected for complete sequencing. Although the ESTs were found to be full-length cDNA clones extending from the start codon to the polyA tail, the integrin sequence carried a stop codon at the end of the EGF repeats (see Additional file 1). Hence, these transcripts were lacking the β TD, transmembrane and cytoplasmic domains. The coding sequences of the two ESTs were 95% identical to each other at the amino

Table 1: Percentage amino acid identities between zebrafish and human $\beta 1$ sequences

% id	$\beta 1-1$	$\beta 1-2$	$\beta 1-3$	$\beta 1tr-1$	$\beta 1tr-2$	$\beta 1tr-3$	ESTa	ESTb	human
$\beta 1-1$	-	81	69	62	62	62	62	62	78
$\beta 1-2$	81	-	74	65	65	66	65	65	76
$\beta 1-3$	69	74	-	79	79	82	81	80	66
$\beta 1tr-1$	62	65	79	-	98	95	94	98	59
$\beta 1tr-2$	62	65	79	98	-	95	94	98	59
$\beta 1tr-3$	62	66	82	95	95	-	95	95	59
ESTa	62	65	81	94	94	95	-	95	59
ESTb	62	65	80	98	98	95	95	-	59

acid level. The two ESTs had almost identical 5' sequences but were more divergent in the 3' region, including the 3'UTR. In order to examine whether similar sequences could be amplified from zebrafish embryos, we performed RT-PCR using a common forward (5') primer but with different reverse (3') primers, which were specific for either ESTa or ESTb (see Additional file 1). PCR products were subcloned and individual clones were sequenced. The most abundant sequence obtained using the ESTa reverse primer from 4-day-old embryo RNA was designated $\beta 1tr-1$ (truncated $\beta 1$ paralog 1); the predominant sequence obtained using the ESTb reverse primer was designated $\beta 1tr-2$ (truncated $\beta 1$ paralog 2). Since ESTa was obtained from an adult kidney cDNA library, we also used the same primer sets to amplify products from reverse transcribed kidney RNA. The most abundant sequence obtained using the ESTa reverse primer was identical to that of $\beta 1tr-1$; however a distinct sequence, designated $\beta 1tr-3$, was the predominant sequence obtained using the ESTb reverse primer. All three of these paralogs carried a stop codon at the same position as that found in the two ESTs (see Additional file 1), resulting in a truncated translation product terminating four residues after the end of EGF-4. Hence, these data clearly establish that this group

of paralogs are *bona fide* truncated $\beta 1$ -like subunits. The sequence of the truncated paralogs is shown in Fig. 2, and in alignment with the EST sequences in Fig. 4. The truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs are 95–98% identical to the EST sequences or to each other (Table 1); $\beta 1tr-1$ and $\beta 1tr-2$ are most like ESTb, whereas $\beta 1tr-3$ has a similar degree of identity to both ESTa and ESTb. The sequence differences between the truncated paralogs were not due to PCR or sequencing errors because the sequences were confirmed in multiple independent PCR products. The truncated paralogs are even more divergent from human $\beta 1$ than is $\beta 1-3$ (Table 1, Fig. 5A), and like $\beta 1-3$, these paralogs have relatively few potential glycosylation sites ($\beta 1tr-1$ and $\beta 1tr-2$ both have three sites, $\beta 1tr-3$ has four). However, all cysteine residues remain perfectly conserved, although an additional cysteine residue is present in EGF-4. This extra cysteine residue could form a disulfide bond with the cysteine residue present in the additional four residues at the C-terminus (Fig. 4).

All the truncated paralogs are closely related to $\beta 1-3$ (Fig. 5B), with ~80% sequence identity overall. Hence, together with $\beta 1-3$ they form a novel group of $\beta 1$ paralogs. In a surprising contrast to what is observed regarding sequence

Table 2: Corresponding database entries for zebrafish $\beta 1$ sequences

Paralog	Accession Number	Gene Prediction	Genomic Location	Corresponding (or additional) EST	Source of EST
$\beta 1-1$	DQ149101	GENSCAN00000041635	Chr24	DT075719	whole adult
$\beta 1-2$	DQ149102	GENSCAN00000013230 ³	Chr2 ⁴	CF417014	gastrula stage
$\beta 1-3$	DQ149103	GENSCAN00000013230 ³	Chr2 ⁴	CK711153	<72 h embryos
$\beta 1tr-1$	DQ440587	-	-	-	-
$\beta 1tr-2$	DQ440588	-	-	-	-
$\beta 1tr-3$	DQ440589	-	-	CN328139 ⁵	liver
ESTa	BC067552 ¹	-	-	CN329042 ⁶	liver
ESTb	DQ440590 ²	GENSCAN00000013230 ³	Chr2 ⁴	DN836198	pooled gut

¹ The complete sequence of ESTa was found to be 100% identical to that of [BC067552](#). A partial sequence of this clone can be found under Genbank Accession number [CD285257](#).

² A partial sequence of this clone can be found under Genbank Accession number [CF347594](#).

³ The sequences of $\beta 1-2$, $\beta 1-3$ and ESTb are all contained within a single (inaccurate) gene prediction 2609 residues in length (genome project Zv5).

⁴ Latest version of genome project (Zv6).

⁵ Identical sequence in coding region but 3'UTR sequence appears to differ. Additional EST BG729583 (kidney).

⁶ Other ESTs: CO916860 (olfactory epithelium), CK865233 (testis), CN315944 (liver), CN171841 (kidney), CN320549 (liver).

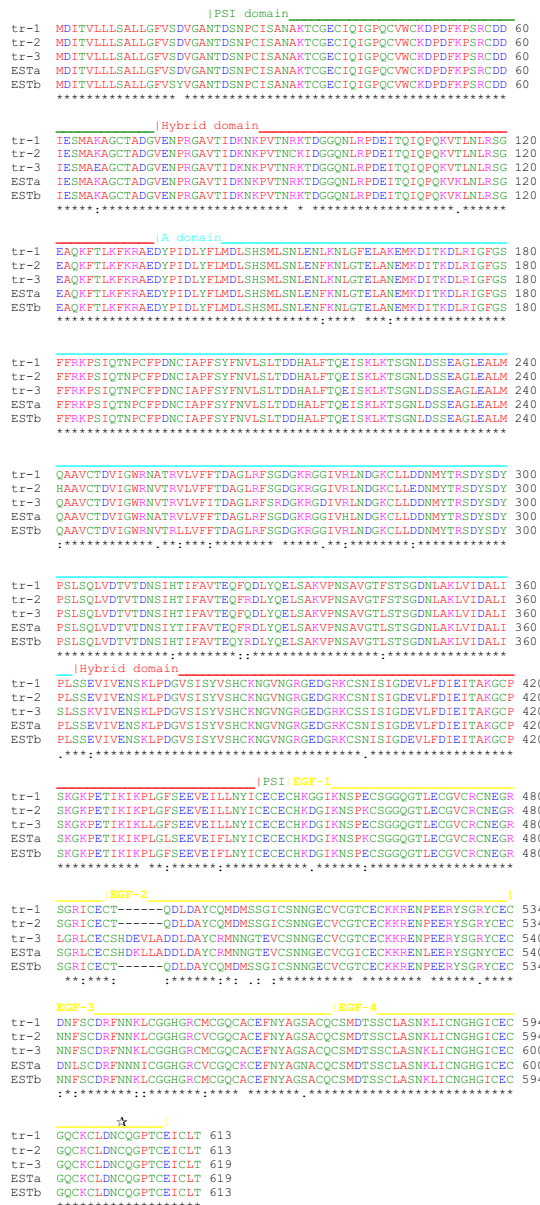


Figure 4
 Alignment of zebrafish truncated $\beta 1$ sequences. The alignment was performed using ClustalW. Protein domains are annotated: PSI, plexin/semaphorin/integrin; EGF, epidermal growth factor. Yellow bar indicates the position of a putative flexible linker region in EGF-2 [15]. Domain boundaries in the EGF repeats are as predicted by Takagi *et al.* [58]. Based on this prediction, the truncated $\beta 1$ sequences contain four additional residues after the end of EGF-4. The position of an additional cysteine residue in EGF-4 (not seen in other β subunits) is indicated by *tial*. Sequence identities are indicated by *, conservative substitutions by :, semi-conservative substitutions by .

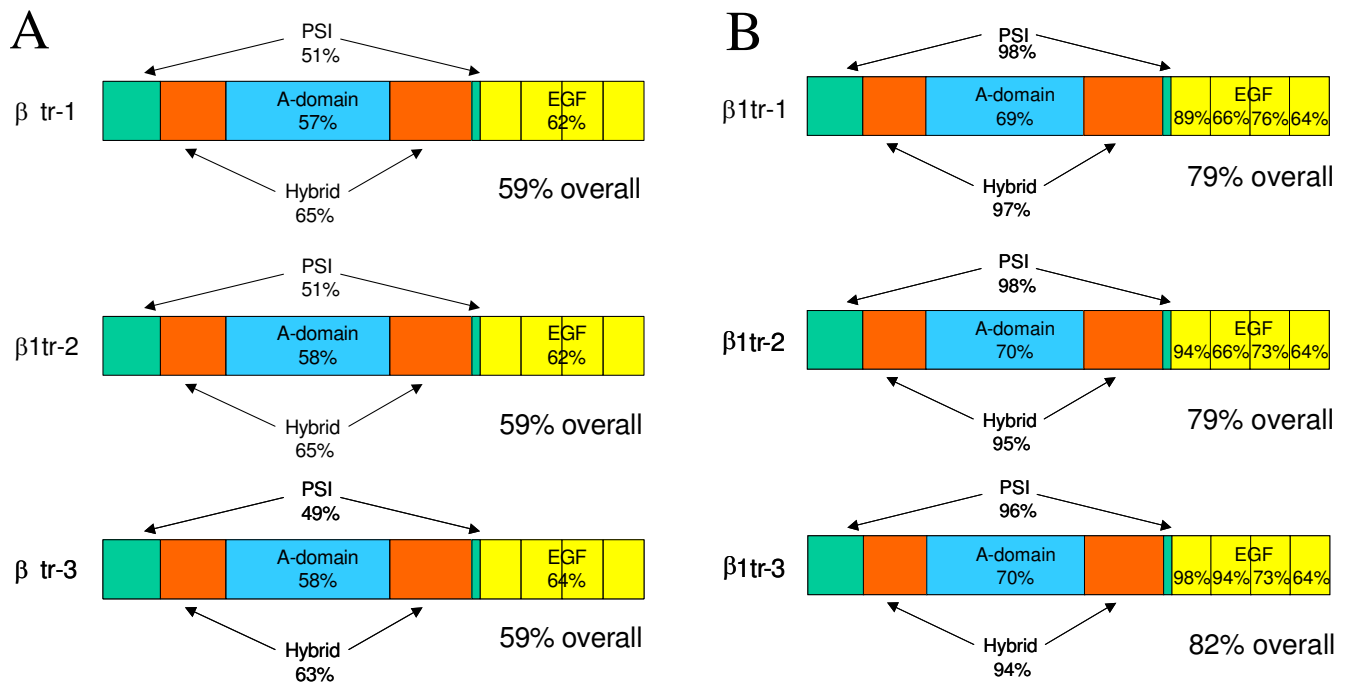
conservation between $\beta 1-1$, $\beta 1-2$ and human $\beta 1$ (Fig. 3), the PSI and hybrid domains are almost perfectly conserved between the truncated paralogs and $\beta 1-3$, whereas the A domains are much less well conserved (Fig. 5B). In addition, the sequence of EGF-1 is highly conserved, and the first two EGF repeats of $\beta 1tr-3$ are almost identical in sequence to those of $\beta 1-3$ (Fig. 5B). The major region of sequence variation between the truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs is the putative linker sequence in EGF repeat 2 [15], with some of the paralogs having a six amino acid deletion in this region (Fig. 4).

The truncated paralogs, like $\beta 1-3$, have a substitution of two key aspartate residues by Ser/Asn at the ADMIDAS. In addition, these paralogs are also lacking an essential LIMBS residue (E189 in human $\beta 1$ [E169 in the mature sequence]) due to a glutamate to arginine substitution. A similar mutation in human $\beta 1$ (APM and J. Askari, unpublished data) or $\beta 3$ [33] perturbs ligand recognition. Hence, the A domains of the truncated paralogs may not be functional for ligand binding, or may possibly bind to ligands in a different manner to other β subunit A domains. The MIDAS coordinating residues are conserved in the truncated paralogs; hence, it remains possible that they may bind ligands in a manner akin to the A domains found in some α subunits [6].

Overall, the sequences of the A domains in the truncated paralogs are highly divergent from other chordate sequences; indeed, they are only slightly more similar to human $\beta 1$ A domain (57–58% identity) than the Ciona $\beta 1$ A domain (56% identity). The loops important for ligand binding and association with the α subunit are poorly conserved. For example, the truncated paralogs all have a large deletion of nine amino acids in the β B- β C loop. A second part of the α/β subunit interface involves residues in the $\beta D-\alpha 5$ loop, especially those that form a short stretch of 3_{10} helix (DGKL) [13]. This region is highly conserved between the full-length paralogs and human $\beta 1$ (Fig. 2) but has several substitutions in the truncated paralogs. Taken together, these findings suggest that the truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs may have weaker associations with α subunits, associate with different α subunits, or even may not associate with α subunits at all. However, even if the truncated paralogs are able to associate with α subunits, they would form non-signaling receptors, as they lack the transmembrane and cytoplasmic domains.

Genomic and phylogenetic analysis reveals evolutionary relationships between the $\beta 1$ paralogs

Gene sequences corresponding to $\beta 1-1$, $\beta 1-2$ and $\beta 1-3$ can be identified in the zebrafish genome (Table 2) (although there are a number of inaccuracies and gaps in the GENESCAN *ab initio* gene predictions). Currently, the gene for only one truncated paralog can be identified from

**Figure 5**

A. Domain comparison of zebrafish truncated β 1 paralogs with human β 1 (% sequence identity). B. Domain comparison of truncated β 1 paralogs with β 1-3 (% sequence identity). PSI, plexin/semaphorin/integrin; EGF, epidermal growth factor; β TD, β terminal domain; TM+ cyto, transmembrane and cytoplasmic domains. The sequence identities of the individual EGF repeats are shown in B.

the latest genome sequence (Zv6), corresponding almost exactly to ESTb (Table 2). β 1-2, 'ESTb' and β 1-3 sequences lie adjacent to one another in a tandem array on chromosome 2; β 1-1 lies in a separate region of the genome (chromosome 24). The genomic sequences show almost perfect conservation of exon- intron boundaries (data not shown), suggesting that all the β 1 paralogs arose from duplication of a single ancestral β 1 gene.

For phylogenetic analysis, the six zebrafish β 1 sequences and two EST sequences were aligned with human β 1 (see Fig. 2 and Additional file 2). The Ciona β 1 sequence is ancestral to β 1/ β 2/ β 7 [8] and is used as an outgroup for the phylogenetic analysis. The resulting phylogenetic analysis is presented in Fig. 6 in the form of a maximum likelihood (ML) tree with supporting data from 1,000 neighbor-joining bootstrap replicates, 1,000 maximum parsimony bootstrap replicates and Bayesian clade credibility values. The phylogeny suggests that: (i) the zebrafish β 1 paralogs are all derived from a single ancestral β 1 gene present in the last common ancestor of zebrafish and tetrapods, (ii) the duplication that gave rise to β 1-1 and β 1-2 occurred after the divergence of the tetrapod and teleost lineages, (iii) a subsequent duplication gave rise to

the ancestor of the divergent paralogs, (iv) this ancestral divergent paralog then duplicated, giving rise to β 1-3 and the ancestor of the truncated paralogs, (v) a very recent tandem duplication of the ancestral truncated paralog has taken place. The branching order of the truncated paralogs has low statistical support, indicative of the high sequence similarity. However, the statistical analysis suggests that ESTb, β 1tr-1 and β 1tr-2 are more closely related to each other than to ESTa and β 1tr-3, and probably arose more recently.

The ML tree was supported by maximum parsimony and Bayesian analyses. Only neighbor joining analysis (not shown) produced two vertebrate clades where β 1-1, β 1-2 and human β 1 grouped separately to the other sequences. However, the genomic locations of the different paralogs add support to the ML analysis. For example, the position of β 1-2 and β 1-3 in close proximity on the same scaffold suggests that β 1-2 and β 1-3 arose from a tandem duplication of a common ancestor. The presence of a truncated paralog in the same region of the genome adds weight to the proposal (supported by all the phylogenetic analyses) that the ancestor of the truncated paralogs arose from a duplication of the precursor of β 1-3.

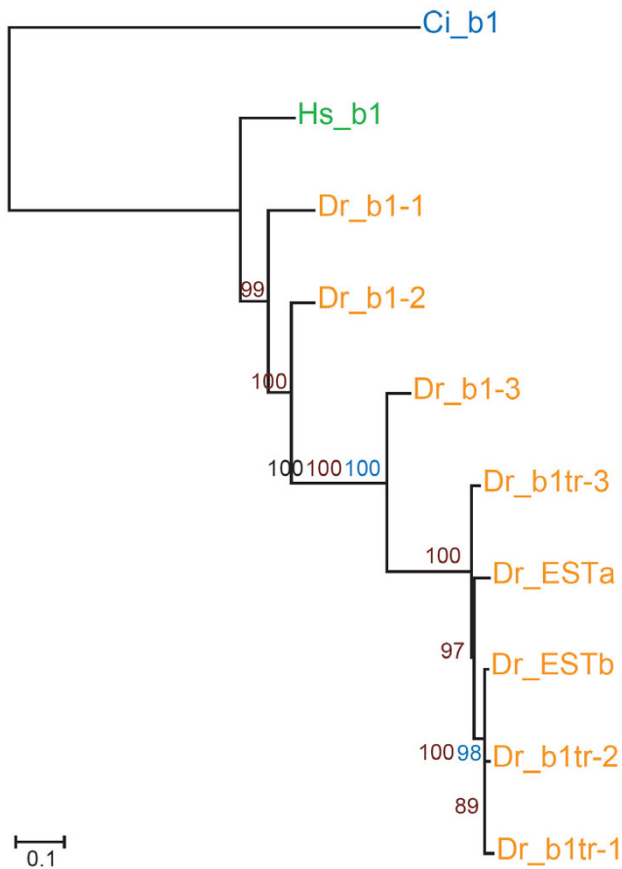


Figure 6
Phylogenetic relationship of zebrafish (Dr) $\beta 1$ integrin chains with representative deuterostome orthologs. Maximum Likelihood tree is shown with supporting Neighbor Joining bootstrap replicates (black), Maximum Parsimony bootstrap replicates (blue) and Bayesian clade credibility values (brown). Horizontal scale is amino acid replacements per site. *Ciona intestinalis* $\beta 1$ (Ci_b1) was used to root the tree; *homo sapiens* $\beta 1$ (Hs_b1) is shown as an example of tetrapod sequence.

The divergent $\beta 1$ paralogs are expressed later in development than $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$

We examined the expression of the different $\beta 1$ paralogs at different times of development using RT-PCR with primers specific for each paralog (Fig. 7). The results showed that both $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ were expressed throughout development. The expression of $\beta 1-2$ appeared to peak at around 14 hours post fertilization (hpf) and declined thereafter. In contrast, the expression of $\beta 1-1$ appeared to be highest at later stages of development (48 hpf onwards). The more divergent $\beta 1$ paralog $\beta 1-3$ was not found to be expressed during early development; $\beta 1-3$ message was first detected at 14 hpf and expression strongly increased at later stages of development. The

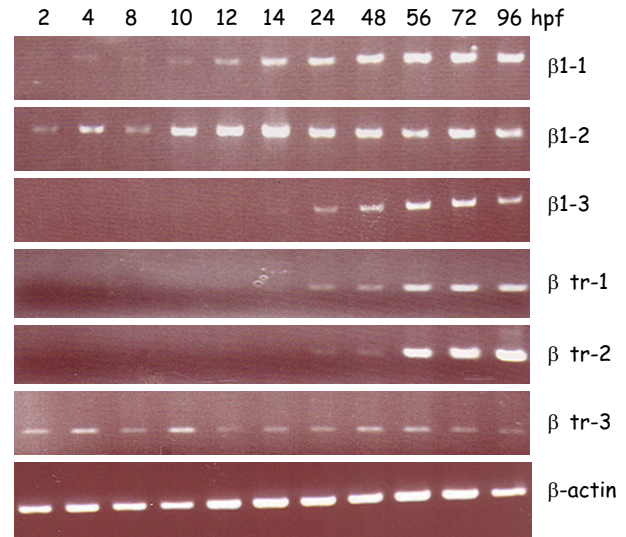


Figure 7
Expression profiling of zebrafish $\beta 1$ paralogs during development. Expression of the different paralogs at 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 14, 24, 48, 56, 72 and 96 hpf (hours post fertilization) was analyzed by semiquantitative RT-PCR using primers designed against a portion of extracellular domains of the different paralogs. The amplification of zebrafish β -actin was monitored as a positive control.

truncated paralogs $\beta 1tr-1$ and $\beta 1tr-2$ were also expressed only at later stages of development, with message first detected at 24 hpf. In contrast, $\beta 1tr-3$ was expressed throughout development.

The divergent $\beta 1$ paralogs are expressed less widely than $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$

The expression of the different $\beta 1$ paralogs in adult tissues was also examined by RT-PCR (Fig. 8). The results showed that $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ were expressed in all tissues, although the expression of $\beta 1-1$ in intestine was low, whereas $\beta 1-2$ was highly expressed in this tissue. Expression of $\beta 1-3$ was widespread, but tissues such as muscle and brain showed only low expression. The truncated paralogs $\beta 1tr-1$ and $\beta 1tr-2$ were only expressed in a limited number of tissues, with expression being particularly strong in liver. In contrast to the tissue-restricted expression of $\beta 1tr-1$ and $\beta 1tr-2$, $\beta 1tr-3$ was found to be expressed in all tissues.

EST sequences corresponding to the different $\beta 1$ paralogs can be identified in the NCBI databases (Table 2). The majority of these EST sequences correspond to those of truncated paralogs. Although no EST sequences that exactly matched $\beta 1tr-1$ or $\beta 1tr-2$ were found, ESTs corresponding to the 5' and 3' ends of $\beta 1tr-3$ could be identified (Table 2). (Conversely, although there are many

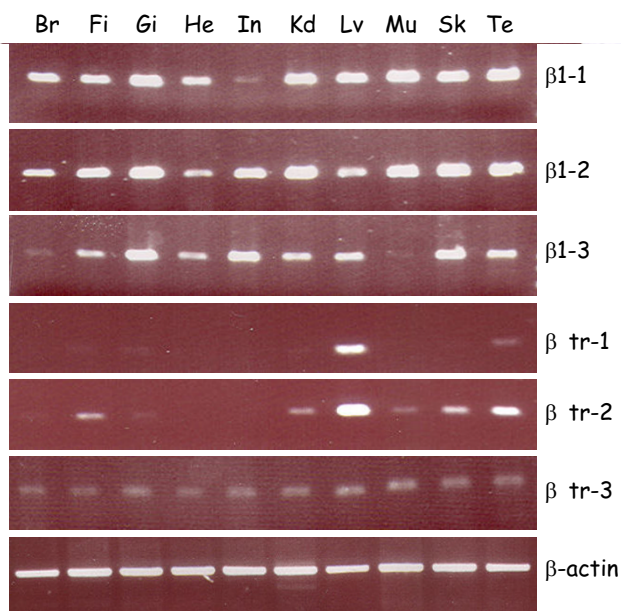


Figure 8

Expression profiling of zebrafish $\beta 1$ paralogs in adult tissues. Expression of the different paralogs was analyzed by semi-quantitative RT-PCR using primers designed against a portion of extracellular domains of the different paralogs. The amplification of zebrafish β -actin was monitored as a positive control. Br, brain; Fi, fin; Gi, gill; He, heart; In, intestine; Kd, kidney; Lv, liver; Mu, muscle; Sk, skin; Te, testis.

additional EST sequences that correspond exactly with ESTa (Table 2), we did not amplify any precisely matching sequences from zebrafish embryos.) EST sequences also provide evidence concerning the expression of the different $\beta 1$ paralogs in different tissues or at different stages of development (Table 2). ESTs for the truncated paralogs (especially ESTs corresponding to ESTa) are found in cDNA from several different tissues, and appear to be particularly abundant in liver and kidney.

Discussion

The novel findings of this report are: (i) Extensive expansion of the $\beta 1$ integrin gene family has taken place in zebrafish, (ii) a group of divergent $\beta 1$ paralogs with regulatory site mutations is present, some of which are novel truncated forms that lack the transmembrane and intracellular domains, (iii) the different $\beta 1$ paralogs exhibit varied patterns of temporal and tissue expression. Our findings raise several important questions. For example: Why do zebrafish have multiple versions of the single $\beta 1$ gene found in higher vertebrates? What is the function of the divergent paralogs? Which α subunits does each paralog pair with?

Gene duplication is an important mechanism for the generation of phenotypic complexity, diversity and innovation. Gene duplication can occur either through tandem duplication of an individual gene, segmental duplication of a portion of a chromosome, or through whole genome duplication. Recent analyses have provided strong support for a whole genome duplication in the lineage of ray-finned fishes approx. 350 million years ago [34-36]. Following this duplication, most of the gene duplicates were rapidly lost. However, a small proportion of these duplicates were retained. Hence, for approximately 20% of single-copy human genes, two corresponding orthologs are found in zebrafish [37]. It is possible that $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ arose from the fish-specific whole genome duplication. Consistent with this possibility, $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ have different chromosomal locations and furthermore, both gene loci show synteny with the p11.22 region of human chromosome 10, which contains the $\beta 1$ (ITGB1) gene (APM, unpublished data). Two co-orthologs of $\beta 1$ are also found in other teleost species such as fugu [38].

In the classical model of gene duplication [39], new gene duplicates face one of two fates: either one copy mutates to a pseudogene (called nonfunctionalization), or one copy preserves the original function, and the other copy mutates freely until by chance it obtains a sequence that confers a new, beneficial, positively selected function (called neofunctionalization). In a third possibility, called subfunctionalization or subfunction partitioning, the complementary partitioning of ancestral subfunctions is the mechanism that preserves gene duplicates [37]. Two classic examples of subfunction partitioning in zebrafish are the pair of *sox9* genes, *sox9a* and *sox9b* [40], and the two *mitf* genes, *mitfa* and *mitfb* [41]. It is possible that ancestral $\beta 1$ integrin functions have been partitioned between $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$. Subfunction partitioning can occur through tissue-specific expression of gene duplicates and/or expression at different times of development. We found that there are differences in temporal expression of $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$, with the expression of $\beta 1-2$ peaking in early development, whereas expression of $\beta 1-1$ was highest during later development. Also some differences in the tissue expression between these two paralogs were noted, with low expression of $\beta 1-1$ in adult intestine. It is also possible that partitioning could take place if each β chain associates with a distinct subset of α chain partners. The possible subfunction partitioning of $\beta 1$ roles by $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ may provide distinct advantages for functional genetic analyses in zebrafish. Whereas knockout of the single $\beta 1$ gene in mice is very early embryonic lethal [9,10], knockout (or knockdown) of only one of these genes in zebrafish may have a much less severe phenotype, making it possible to study the roles of $\beta 1$ integrins during the later stages of development.

In contrast to $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$, it seems likely that the divergent $\beta 1$ paralogs arose through tandem duplications. Taking the genomic, phylogenetic and sequence identity data together, the most likely scenario is that the precursor of $\beta 1-2$ underwent a tandem duplication that gave rise to the ancestor of $\beta 1-3$; a subsequent duplication of this paralog gave rise to the progenitor of the truncated paralogs. It seems likely that the divergent paralogs have acquired novel functions. With the exception of $\beta 1tr-3$, these paralogs are expressed at later times of development and in a more tissue-restricted manner than $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$. It therefore appears that the divergent paralogs may be involved in tissue differentiation, maintenance or remodelling, rather than in development/organogenesis. The expression of many of these paralogs in tissues such as liver and kidney supports this view.

One clue to the function of the divergent paralogs is that they possess a double substitution (DD to SN) in the regulatory ADMIDAS cation-binding site in the A-domain. Preliminary results suggest that engineering an identical substitution in human $\beta 1$ (in a heterodimer with $\alpha 5$ subunit) produces a constitutively inactive integrin, i.e., an integrin with very low affinity for ligand (J. Askari and A.P. Mould, unpublished data). It is therefore possible that $\beta 1-3$ could act as a dominant-negative $\beta 1$ subunit by competing with $\beta 1-1$ and $\beta 1-2$ for α subunit partners or intracellular binding factors. It is also proposed that expression of high levels of unoccupied integrins can trigger apoptosis [42]; hence, expression of $\beta 1-3$ could also regulate cell survival. If the truncated paralogs are unable to associate with α subunits they could be secreted into the extracellular environment. There are now many examples of cell surface receptors that also have a secreted antagonistic counterpart, e.g. VEGFR, FGFR-1 and IL-1R [43-45]. It is therefore intriguing to speculate that truncated integrin paralogs could have a similar mode of action.

It is also possible that the divergent paralogs could have acquired new binding partners. The very high degree of sequence conservation of the PSI, hybrid domain and EGF-1 between the divergent paralogs suggest that these domains form a key functional region of these polypeptides, and furthermore that the function of these domains is common to all the divergent $\beta 1$ paralogs. Such a degree of conservation suggests that these domains interact with protein ligands (even though there is currently no evidence in other integrins that these domains have extracellular ligands). The PSI, hybrid, and EGF-1 domains lie adjacent to each other at, or close to, the knee region of the integrin [15]. Proteins that bind to these domains could therefore alter function, either by constraining the integrin in a bent (low affinity) form or by perturbing the interactions between PSI/hybrid/EGF-1 domains and

other integrin domains, thereby favouring the unbent (high affinity) form. A key hinge point in the β subunit knee region is thought to be the near the start of EGF-2 [15]. Interestingly, some of the truncated paralogs have a six amino acid deletion in this linker region (Fig. 4), which is likely to change the conformational state of the protein, and may therefore modify function. Intriguingly, the second EGF repeat in $\beta 1tr-3$ is essentially identical to that of $\beta 1-3$, implying that this repeat may also have a conserved role between these two paralogs.

It is currently unclear how many separate genes are represented by the truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs and ESTs. Although the sequences $\beta 1tr-1$ and $\beta 1tr-2$ are 98% identical to each other they are probably distinct gene products because they have different 3'UTRs. In addition, although $\beta 1tr-2$ and $\beta 1tr-3$ may have identical 3'UTR sequences, it appears unlikely that $\beta 1tr-3$ is an alternatively spliced form of $\beta 1tr-2$ because the differences between the two coding sequences are spread throughout the primary structures (Fig. 4 and Additional file 1). Additionally, the truncated paralogs cannot simply represent different alleles of the same gene because at least three of these paralogs could be amplified from RNA derived from a single fish (APM and Paul Walker, unpublished results). Furthermore, the genomic sequence that corresponds to ESTb (which is 98% identical in coding sequence to $\beta 1tr-2$) does not contain sequences that would allow the generation of different transcripts by alternative splicing (data not shown). In summary, the currently available evidence suggests that the truncated paralogs originate from separate (yet to be characterised) genes. Since the genomic scaffold is assembled from shotgun sequences it is possible that, due to the almost identical sequences of the truncated paralogs, the scaffold is incorrectly assembled and additional genes of truncated paralogs may be present in the same region. In the future, the availability of finished clones in the region of the genome that contains 'ESTb' for detailed analysis should help to clarify the precise number of truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs in the zebrafish genome. A further puzzle is why none of the truncated $\beta 1$ sequences we amplified from zebrafish RNA exactly matched the ESTa or ESTb sequences. A possible explanation is that the $\beta 1tr-1$, $\beta 1tr-2$ and $\beta 1tr-3$ sequences were only the predominant sequences obtained by subcloning of the RT-PCR products. Other clones obtained have not yet been fully sequenced, some of these may match the EST sequences more precisely.

Truncated forms of β subunits have previously been reported in sponge and man [7,46]. However, these polypeptides represent alternatively spliced forms of full-length β subunits that are truncated within the hybrid domain, and therefore probably result in non-functional proteins [47]. In contrast, the truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs

reported here appear to be unique gene products, and the position of the truncation would preserve the structure and function of all of the extracellular domains with the exception of the β TD.

A key subject of future investigations will be to identify the α subunit partners of the different paralogs. All twelve α chains that pair with β 1 in higher vertebrates have orthologs in the zebrafish genome, and at least two of these α chains have two co-orthologs (APM, unpublished results). It seems very unlikely that all of the β 1 paralogs identified here are able to associate with all of the >14 potential α chain partners. For example, if each of the six β 1 paralogs has retained the ability to pair with all of the α chains then a minimum of 84 different heterodimers could form. This would present a huge increase in complexity over the twelve heterodimers found in higher vertebrates. It is likely, therefore that in this process of multimeric protein evolution, previously termed 'molecular incest' [48], that only a limited number of possible combinations was retained based on function.

It is not yet clear if divergent β 1 paralogs are found in other teleosts. Currently only limited gene information is available on other fish species, with the exception of the pufferfish *Takifugu rubripes* and *Tetraodon nigroviridis*. Analysis of the pufferfish genomes suggests that only two β 1 paralogs are present in fugu and tetraodon; these paralogs are closely related to zebrafish β 1-1 and β 1-2 (AP Mould, unpublished results). However, since β 1-3 probably arose from an ancient duplication of the ancestor of β 1-2 it would be surprising if the former paralog was retained only in the zebrafish lineage. Furthermore, although the divergent β 1 paralogs have not been detected in pufferfish genomes, pufferfish may have retained fewer gene duplicates than zebrafish [49].

The presence of expanded gene families is hypothesized to have made a major contribution to the extraordinary diversity and evolutionary success of teleosts, which make up half of all vertebrate species. It is known that fish genomes are more 'plastic' than other vertebrate genomes, partly due to higher rates of gene duplication [50]. Fish-specific novel members of gene families may contribute to a large extent to the distinct physiology of fishes and mammals, while differential retention of duplicate genes may have facilitated the isolation of emerging species during the vast radiation of teleosts [51,52]. Our findings show that integrins are a dynamic family of genes that have evolved in multiple ways after the divergence of the common ancestors of the mammalian and fish lineages. Expansion of the integrin family may also correlate with expansion of extracellular matrix gene families, e.g. collagens, in teleosts [34].

Conclusion

At least six paralogs of the integrin β 1 gene have been identified in zebrafish, demonstrating that this species has a greatly expanded integrin repertoire. Two of these paralogs may share the functions of the single β 1 subunit found in higher vertebrates, whereas the remaining paralogs may have acquired novel roles. This is the first description of truncated β 1 chains, which we speculate could be secreted proteins that act as regulators of integrin functions.

Methods

Sequencing of zebrafish integrin β 1 paralogs

The complete amino acid sequence of human β 1 [Swiss-Prot: P05556] was used to probe the *Danio rerio* genome ([59,61]) using TBLASTN [53] to identify genes with highest sequence identity to human β 1. To amplify complete β 1 sequences, primers were designed using putative 5' and 3' sequences (identified as described above) or from EST sequences on the NCBI database [60]. The following primers were used: β 1-1, 5'-ATGGACCTGAAGCTACTTTTCATATC-3' and 5'-CTGATGGCCATTATTTGCCITTCG-3', β 1-2, 5'-ATGGACGTAAGGCTGCTCCTG-3' and 5'-CACGTCGTCCATTATTTGCCCTC-3', β 1-3, 5'-ATGAAAATGAAGCTGCTGTTATTATC-3' and 5'-CACTT-TCCCTCATATCTGGGATTC-3' β 1tr-1, 5'-ATGGA-TATAACAGTTTTGTTATTATCAG-3' and 5'-ATGTATAACATGAGGTCATGATGTAC-3' β 1tr-2 5'-ATGGATATAACAGTTTTGTTATTATCAG-3' and 5'-GTATAACATGTGCTCAATATATGATG-3'

Total RNA was prepared from 4-day old embryos using TRI reagent (Sigma), and reverse transcription was performed using Superscript II (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. PCR reactions were performed using Phusion (New England Biolabs). Cycling parameters were 98°C for 30 s, followed by 40 cycles of 98°C for 10 s, 60°C for 20 s and 72°C for 60 s. An additional sequence, β 1tr-3, was amplified from reverse transcribed RNA from adult kidney (prepared as described below) using the same primers as for β 1tr-2. The PCR reactions generated products of ~2.4 kB for β 1-1, β 1-2 and β 1-3, and ~1.9 kB for β 1tr-1, β 1tr-2 and β 1tr-3. EST clones ESTa and ESTb were obtained from RZPD German Resource Center for Genome Research, product numbers IRAKp961B08165Q [IMAGE:6525557] from adult kidney cDNA library and IMAGp998I1214695Q3 [IMAGE:7001749] from whole adult body cDNA library, respectively.

PCR products were analysed on 1.5% agarose gels. Sequencing of PCR products or EST clones was performed using the BigDye cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems). PCR products from reactions using the 5'-ATGGA-TATAACAGTTTTGTTATTATCAG-3' forward primer

contained a mixture of sequences and therefore these products were subcloned into the Zero Blunt TOPO cloning kit (Invitrogen). Sequencing of individual clones revealed a single most abundant sequence ($\beta 1\text{tr-1}$, $\beta 1\text{tr-2}$ or $\beta 1\text{tr-3}$). Alignment of zebrafish and human sequences was performed using CLUSTAL W [62].

Phylogenetic analysis

The $\beta 1$ integrin sequences identified in *Danio rerio* were aligned with the human $\beta 1$ sequence [Swiss-Prot: P05556] and the ancestral $\beta 1$ -like gene previously identified in *Ciona intestinalis* (JGI *Ciona* v1.0 ci0100141446) [8] using CLUSTAL X [54]. Gap-containing sites were removed from each alignment and Maximum Likelihood trees were inferred using PROML from the PHYLIP package [55]. The JTT model of amino acid substitutions was used with and without global rearrangements and correction for rate heterogeneity (α value obtained from TREEP-UZZLE [56]). The topologies of the trees were tested using three independent methods. Neighbor-Joining and Maximum Parsimony bootstrap replicates were obtained using the PHYLIP package [55]. Bayesian tree inference values were produced from the MrBayes programme [57].

RT-PCR analysis

Embryos were harvested at different times post fertilization. Tissues from adult fish (~ 9 months old) were removed by dissection and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Total RNA was prepared using Trizol (QIAGEN). Reverse transcription was performed using M-MLV reverse transcriptase or Omniscript (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. PCR reactions were performed using recombinant Taq (a gift from P. Walker, University of Manchester, UK) or Advantage 2 polymerase (BD Biosciences). For the truncated $\beta 1$ sequences, primers were designed to give a single product of approx. 600 bp that is unique to $\beta 1\text{tr-1}$, $\beta 1\text{tr-2}$ or $\beta 1\text{tr-3}$. The following primers were used:

$\beta 1-1$ 5'-ATGGACCTGAAGCTACTTTTCATATC-3' and 5'-GTGACGTTTCTCCAGCCAATGTG $\beta 1-2$ 5'-GATGGTAATGAATGCACCAAGGC-3' and 5'-GGAGTCGGAGGTAAGCGTTCC-3' $\beta 1-3$ 5'-GTGTTGTTTGTATATAGAAATCACGGCT-3' and 5'-CGTATCCCACTTGGCATTATTTTCTC-3' $\beta 1\text{tr-1}$ 5'-CCAGGATCTGGATGCATACTG-3' and 5'-ATGTATAACATGAGGTCATGATGTAC-3' $\beta 1\text{tr-2}$ 5'-CCAGGATCTGGATGCATACTG-3' and 5'-GTATAACATGTGTCTCAATATATGATG-3' $\beta 1\text{tr-3}$ 5'-CATGATGAGGTGCTGGCGGATG-3' and 5'-GTATAACATGTCTCAATATATGATG-3'

Cycling parameters were 95°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 60°C for 20 s and 72°C for 60 s. PCR products were analysed on 1.5% agarose gels. The

identity of selected products was confirmed by DNA sequencing. As a control, a fragment of β -actin was amplified using the primers 5'-CCACGAGACCACCTTCAACT-3' and 5'-CATTGTGAGGAGGGCAAAGT-3' for 28 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 55°C for 40 s and 72°C for 60 s. Negative controls consisted of no cDNA template reactions.

Authors' contributions

APM and MJH conceived of the study. APM and JAM carried out the database searching, PCR reactions and sequence analysis, JHJ performed the phylogenetic analyses and ACG prepared RNA for RT-PCR analysis, APM and ACG carried out the RT-PCR analysis. All authors participated in the interpretation of data and/or in the writing of the manuscript.

Additional material

Additional File 1

DNA sequence alignment of truncated $\beta 1$ paralogs. TGA stop codon is shown in bold font. The portion of the 3'UTR used to design reverse primers is shown boxed. PolyA tail region is shown underlined. Sequence identities are indicated by *.

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Additional File 2

Protein sequence alignment of zebrafish $\beta 1$ sequences with human and *Ciona* $\beta 1$ orthologs. Alignment was performed using Clustal X and is displayed using Boxshader. Levels of sequence conservation are indicated (>50% identical, red; conservative substitutions, blue). Note that the refined *Ciona* $\beta 1$ sequence [8] is missing the signal peptide, the PSI domain and part of the hybrid domain.

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