

Mini-review

Inhibition of HIV entry by carbohydrate-binding proteins

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Dedicated to Prof. Erik De Clercq on the occasion of reaching the status of Emeritus Professor at the Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Belgium.

Abstract

Carbohydrate-binding proteins (CBP) can be isolated from a variety of species, including procaryotes (i.e. cyanobacteria), sea corals, algae, plants, invertebrates and vertebrates. A number of them, in particular those CBP that show specific recognition for mannose (Man) and *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) are endowed with a remarkable anti-HIV activity in cell culture. The smallest CBP occur as monomeric peptides with a molecular weight of ~8.5 kDa. Many others are functionally dimers, trimers or tetramers, and their molecular weight can sometimes largely exceed 50 kDa. CBP qualify as potential anti-HIV microbicide drugs because they not only inhibit infection of cells by cell-free virus (in some cases in the lower nano- or even subnanomolar range) but they can also efficiently prevent virus transmission from virus-infected cells to uninfected T-lymphocytes. Their most likely mechanism of antiviral action is the interruption of virus entry (i.e. fusion) into its target cell. CBP presumably act by direct binding to the glycans that are abundantly present on the HIV-1 gp120 envelope. They may cross-link several glycans during virus/cell interaction and/or freeze the conformation of gp120 consequently preventing further interaction with the coreceptor. Several CBP were shown to have a high genetic barrier since multiple (≥ 5) glycan deletions in the HIV envelope are necessary to provoke a moderate level of drug resistance. CBP are the prototypes of conceptionally novel chemotherapeutics with a unique mechanism of antiviral action, drug resistance profile and an intrinsic capacity to trigger a specific immune response against HIV strains after glycan deletions on their envelope occur in an attempt to escape CBP drug pressure.

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1. Introduction

The entry of the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) into its target cells is mediated by the glycoproteins gp120 and gp41 that are present on the viral envelope. They sequentially bind to the cellular receptor protein CD4 and a co-receptor, mainly CXCR4 and/or CCR5. Both gp120 and gp41 are heavily glycosylated (Leonard et al., 1990; Gallaher et al., 1995; Wyatt et al., 1998; Kwong et al., 1998). It is estimated that gp120 consists of glycans for almost 50% of its molecular weight. The carbohydrates are probably exclusively N-linked. Whereas all glycans share a common pentasaccharide $\text{Man}_3\text{GlcNAc}_2$ bound to the amide nitrogen of asparagines that are part of a glycosylation motif (i.e. NXT/S), the glycans of HIV-1 gp120 consist for ~33% of the high-mannose type, 4% of the hybrid type and 63% of the complex type, the latter being predominantly glucosylated and/or sialylated (Mizuochi et al., 1988a,b). Obviously, agents that interact with the glycans on the viral envelope may disturb the efficient interaction between gp120 (or gp41) and its (co)receptors through steric hindrance, prevention of necessary conformational changes of the *env* and/or cross-linking of several glycans present on the *env* and/or the target cell. There exist several types of carbohydrate-binding agents (CBA) for which anti-HIV activity has been reported. They are virtually exclusively of protein nature and can be divided in at least seven distinct groups of molecules depending their origin (i.e. procaryotes, sea corals, algae, fungi higher plants, invertebrates, vertebrates (i.e. mammals)). They may have different carbohydrate (i.e. mannose (Man), *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc), galactose (Gal) oligomers) specificities. Similar to other entry inhibitors, these agents are not only able to inhibit infection of cells by cell-free virus particles, but they are also able to prevent syncytium formation (virus transmission) between virus-infected and uninfected cells. Keeping in mind that virus transmission *in vivo* occurs both through cell-free virus and virus-infected cells, the capacity to inhibit both modes of infection by a single drug is one of the reasons why carbohydrate-binding proteins (CBP) have recently been suggested as potential candidate microbicide drugs for prevention of HIV infection. Interestingly, carbohydrate-binding agents may also have the potential to block the binding of HIV to disseminating cells (e.g. DC-SIGN-expressing dendritic cells) (Geijtenbeek et al., 2000) preventing both localized infection and HIV dissemination pathways, or to macrophages through their mannose receptor (Nguyen and Hildreth, 2003). This property may make CBA

superior over other entry inhibitors as microbicide drugs. In this review, an overview is given of different types and origins of carbohydrate-binding proteins for which anti-HIV activity has been demonstrated and the carbohydrate specificity determined. An excellent extended overview of the structural and biological properties of a number of CBP described in this mini-review has been recently published by Botos and Wlodawer (2005).

2. CBA from procaryotic origin

2.1. Scytovirin (SVN)

SVN is a 9.7 kDa lectin (95 amino acids) isolated from aqueous extracts of the cyanobacterium *Scytonema varium* (Bokesch et al., 2003) (Table 1). It was shown to bind to HIV-1 gp120, gp160 and gp41 but not CD4, and to inhibit laboratory strains and primary HIV-1 isolates at low nanomolar concentrations. The inhibition involves a selective interaction between SVN and high-mannose oligosaccharide-bearing glycoproteins. In particular, interaction with $\alpha(1-2),\alpha(1-6)$ -trisaccharide units was demonstrated (Adams et al., 2004). Recently, recombinant SVN was produced at 5–10 mg/l yield for structural (crystallographic) studies and for further preclinical investigations as a potential topical microbicide drug for HIV prophylaxis (Xiong et al., *in press*).

2.2. Microcystis viridis lectin (MVL)

MVL is a protein with a 13 kDa (monomer) size isolated from a unicellular freshwater bloom-forming cyanobacterium (*Microcystis viridis* NIES-102 strain), and shown to bind mannan (Yamaguchi et al., 1999) (Table 1). It consists of 113 amino acid residues and is composed of 2 tandemly repeated homologous domains of 54 amino acids separated by a 5 amino acid linker. Interestingly, no sequence homology of MVL to any other lectin or proteins was found. Recently, this carbohydrate-binding protein was revisited and found to bind oligomannosides such as $\text{Man}_6\text{GlcNAc}_2$ at sub-micromolar affinity (Williams et al., 2005). The $\text{Man } \beta(1-4)\text{GlcNAc}$ conformation in the context of a larger oligomannoside proved important for efficient recognition by MVL. Interestingly, it was demonstrated that its minimal target comprises of the $\text{Man } \alpha(1-6)\text{Man } \beta(1-4)\text{GlcNAc } \beta(1-4)\text{GlcNAc}$ tetrasaccharide core of oligomannosides. Evidently, in contrast with Cyanovirin N (see below), it does not bind to the terminal $[\alpha(1-2)\text{mannose oligomer}]$ branching area of high-

Table 1
General properties of anti-HIV carbohydrate-binding proteins from non-mammalian origin

Species	Lectin name	Abbreviation	Carbohydrate specificity	Oligomerization state	MW monomer (kDa)
Cyanobacteria					
<i>Nostoc ellipsosporum</i>	Cyanovirin-N	CV-N	$\alpha(1-2)\text{Man}$	Dimer	11
<i>Scytonema varium</i>	Scytovirin	SVN	$\alpha(1-2), \alpha(1-6)\text{Man}$?	9.7
<i>Microcystis viridis</i>	–	MVL	$\text{Man}\beta(1,4)\text{GlcNAc}$	Dimer	13
Sea corals					
<i>Gerardia savaglia</i>	–	GSL	D-Man	Dimer	14.8
Algae					
<i>Griffithsia</i> sp.	Griffithsin	GRFT	Man, Glc, GlcNAc	Dimer	13
Fungae					
<i>Longispora albida</i>	Actinohivin	AHA	Man	?	12.5
Annelida					
<i>Chaetopterus variopedatus</i>	–	CVL	$\beta\text{-Gal}$?	30
<i>Laxus oneistus</i>	Mermaid	–	Man	Dimer?	16.4
Plant monocotyledoneae					
<i>Orchidaceae</i>					
<i>Listera ovata</i>	Twayblade lectin	LOA	$\alpha(1,3)\text{Man}$	Dimer	12.5
<i>Epipactis helleborine</i>	Broad-leaved helleborine lectin	EHA	Man	Dimer	12.5
<i>Cymbidium hybrid</i>	–	CHA	Man	Dimer	12.5
<i>Amaryllidaceae</i>					
<i>Galanthus nivalis</i>	Snowdrop lectin	GNA	$\alpha(1,3)\text{Man}$	Tetramer	12.5
<i>Hippeastrum hybrid</i>	Amaryllis lectin	HHA	$\alpha(1,3); \alpha(1,6)\text{Man}$	Tetramer	12.5
<i>Narcissus pseudonarcissus</i>	Daffodil lectin	NPA	$\alpha(1,6)\text{Man}$	Dimer/trimer/tetramer	12.5
<i>Alliaceae</i>					
<i>Allium porrum</i>	Leek lectin	APA	Man	Tetramer	13
<i>Allium ursinum</i>	Ramsons lectin	AUA	Man	Dimer	12 or $11.5\alpha + 12.5\beta$
Plant dicotyledoneae					
<i>Moraceae</i>					
<i>Artocarpus integrifolia</i>	Jacalin, jack fruit lectin	Jacalin	$\text{Gal}\alpha(1,6)/\text{Gal}\beta(1,3)\text{GalNAc}$	Dimer/tetramer	$14.7\alpha + 2\beta$
<i>Fabaceae</i>					
<i>Canavalia enformis</i>	Jack bean lectin	ConA	$\text{Man} > \text{Glc} > \text{GlcNAc}$	Tetramer	26.5
<i>Pisum sativum</i>	Garden pea lectin	PSA	$\text{Man} > \text{Glc}/\text{GlcNAc}$	Tetramer	$17\alpha + 6\beta$
<i>Lens culinaris</i>	Lentil lectin	LCA	$\text{Man} > \text{Glc} > \text{GlcNAc}$	Tetramer	$17.5\alpha + 5.7\beta$
<i>Vicia faba</i>	Broad bean, faba bean lectin	VFA	$\text{Man} > \text{Glc}/\text{GlcNAc}$	Tetramer	$5.6\alpha + 20.7\beta$
<i>Lathyrus odoratus</i>	Sweet pea lectin	–	$\text{Man} > \text{Glc} > \text{GlcNAc}$	Tetramer	$6\alpha + 20\beta$
<i>Urticaceae</i>					
<i>Urtica dioica</i>	Stinging nettle lectin	UDA	GlcNAc oligomers	Monomer	8.5
<i>Cecropiaceae</i>					
<i>Myrianthus holstii</i>	Myrianthin	MHA	GlcNAc	?	9.2
<i>Euphorbiaceae</i>					
<i>Hevea brasiliensis</i>	Rubber tree lectin, hevein	HBA	GlcNAc	Monomer	~8.5

mannose structures, but rather to tetra- or penta-oligosaccharides located in the internal core of gp120. The MVL monomer has two carbohydrate recognition domains making numerous intermolecular contacts with their carbohydrate ligands (including seven to eight intermolecular hydrogen bonds). Since crystallographic analysis revealed that MVL is a monodisperse homodimer in solution with a symmetrical three-dimensional structure (MW 25.4 kDa), it contains a total of four independent carbohydrate recognition sites (Fig. 1A). It inhibits HIV-1 *env*-mediated cell fusion at an IC_{50} as low as $\sim 30\text{--}37\text{ nM}$ as measured in a

quantitative vaccinia virus reporter gene assay that reproduces the events that lead to membrane fusion (Bewley et al., 2004). Both X4 and R5 HIV strains are equally inhibited. Additional in-depth antiviral studies are still awaited to fully enable estimation of the antiretroviral potential of MVL.

2.3. Cyanovirin N (CV-N)

Cyanovirin N, an 11-kDa protein originally purified from extracts of the cultured cyanobacterium *Nostoc ellipsosporum*

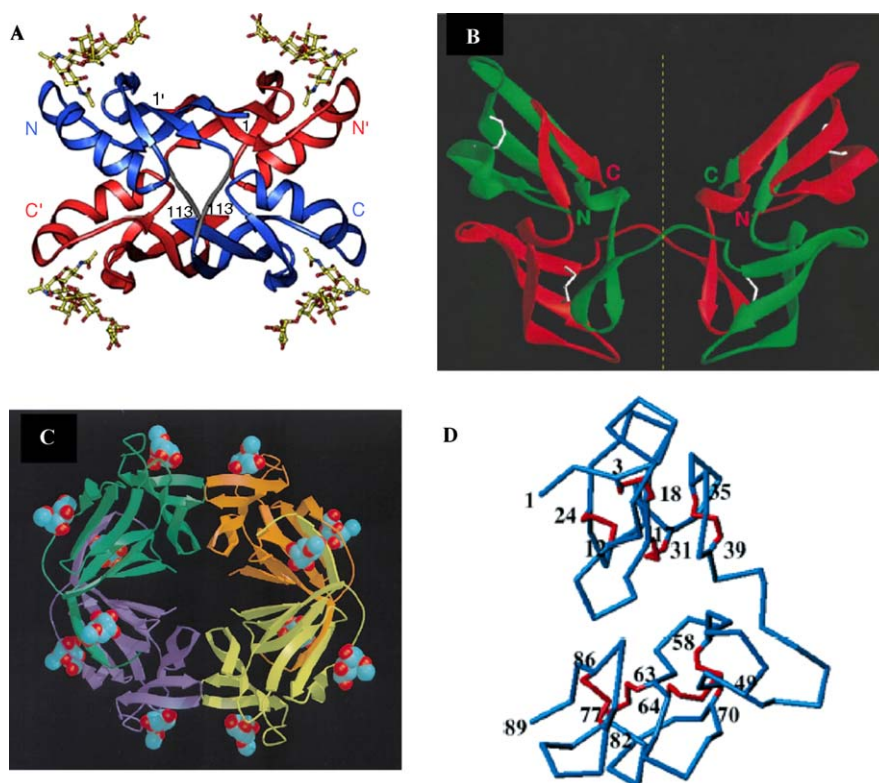


Fig. 1. Panel A: Ribbon diagram of the MVL-Man₃GlcNAc₂ complex with the bound carbohydrate depicted as ball-and-sticks (carbon, yellow; nitrogen, blue; oxygen, red) (Williams et al., 2005). Panel B: The domain-swapped CV-N structure. The crystallographic two-fold symmetry is shown as a yellow broken line (Yang et al., 1999). Panel C: GNA tetramer substituted by MeMan at all 12 binding sites. The crystallographically independent monomers are distinguished by color (Hester and Wright, 1996). Panel D: Backbone structure of the UDA-1 isolectin. The eight disulfide bridges are indicated in red (Harata et al., 2001). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure caption, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

(Boyd et al., 1997) (Table 1), comprises a unique sequence of 101 amino acids consisting of two sequence repeats (residues 1–50 and 51–101) with a unique unprecedented tertiary structure that reveals two symmetrically-related domains formed by strand exchange between the two repeats (Fig. 1B). The overall fold of CV-N is dependent on numerous contacts between both repeats (Bewley et al., 1998). Indeed, crystal structures revealed the existence of a domain-swapped dimer with two primary carbohydrate-binding sites and two secondary carbohydrate-binding sites on the opposite ends of the dimer (Yang et al., 1999; Botos et al., 2002). It clearly has a binding geometry of high-mannose sugars, in particular $\alpha(1-2)$ -linked mannose rings (Bewley, 2001). Cell culture experiments performed by Bolmstedt et al. (2001) reached similar conclusions. Recently, CV-N was shown to inhibit HIV infections in a vaginal transmission model (i.e. female *Macaca fascicularis* infected with a pathogenic recombinant chimeric SIV/HIV-1 (SHIV 89.6P) strain), suggesting that CV-N is a good candidate for testing in humans as a potential anti-HIV topical microbicide (Tsai et al., 2004). Interestingly, recombinant CV-N could be expressed in commensal *Streptococcus gordonii* and was attached to the bacterial surface or secreted in soluble form in the supernatant of liquid bacterial cultures (Giomarelli et al., 2002). It was shown that the secreted form of CV-N could tightly bind to HIV-1 gp120, whereas CV-N displayed on the bacterial cell wall surface was able to efficiently capture HIV

virions. Very recently, Lagenaur et al. (2005) have managed to engineer CV-N expression in the commensal *Lactobacillus jensenii* 1153 at high yield (4–5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and shown that *L. jensenii*-derived CV-N markedly inhibits HIV-1 (BaL and III_B) infection in cell culture. These findings represent an important first step in the development of a system to efficiently deliver and maintain an antivirally active protein in the vaginal mucosa.

3. A CBP from the sea coral *Gerardia savaglia* (GSA)

The carbohydrate-binding protein derived from the sea coral *G. savaglia* was one of the very first lectins shown to be endowed with anti-HIV activity in cell culture (Kljajic et al., 1987). The agglutinin is composed of two polypeptide chains with a MW of 14.8 kDa for each monomer (Table 1). Ca²⁺ was required to preserve full activity. GSA shows specificity for D-mannose, but proved to be mitogenic and agglutinates human red blood cells. GSA was later shown to prevent infection of H9 cells by HIV-1 at 0.2 μM (complete protection). Also, it inhibits syncytia formation in co-cultures of virus-infected H9/HIV-1 and uninfected T-cells. At that time, it was already shown that GSA reacts with glycans of HIV-1 gp120 (Muller et al., 1988). Unfortunately, no further studies on GSA with regard to its anti-HIV potential have been performed.

4. Griffithsin derived from a red alga

Griffithsin (GRFT) is isolated from an aqueous extract of the red alga *Griffithsia* sp. as a 13 kDa protein (Table 1) consisting of 121 amino acids one of which [amino acid 31 (molecular mass 151.05)] did not correspond with any of the 20 known common amino acids. Most likely, it occurs as a dimer in solution (Mori et al., 2005). Both native and recombinant GRFT potently inhibit X4 and R5 HIV replication and HIV transmission at unusual low concentrations (0.04–0.6 nM). It binds to gp120 in a glycosylation-dependent but Ca^{2+} -independent manner, and prevents gp120 binding to 2G12 mAb which interacts with terminal $\alpha(1-2)$ mannose oligomers. It also prevents gp120 binding to 48d mAb which binds to the CD4-induced epitope on gp120. Interestingly, in contrast with the above-described cyanobacterial lectins, soluble gp120 binding to GRFT was inhibited by the monosaccharides glucose, mannose and GlcNAc but not by galactose, xylose, fucose, GalNAc or sialic acid-containing glycoproteins. Also, GRFT is believed to contain four carbohydrate-binding domains, separated by three linker sequences Gly-Gly-Ser-Gly-Gly (Mori et al., 2005). Such an organization could explain its unusual potent activity due to the possibility of the formation of multivalent bonds between GRFT and oligosaccharides on gp120. No homology of GRFT to any other primary amino acid sequence could be found so far. It is clear that GRFT may qualify as a potential candidate microbicide to prevent the sexual transmission of HIV and AIDS.

5. Actinohivin derived from an actinomycete

Actinohivin is derived from the actinomycete *Longisporum albida*, and found to be endowed with anti-HIV activity in cell culture. This compound is a 114 amino acid protein (~12.5 Da), with an IC_{50} of 60–700 nM against HIV. It binds to high mannose-type glycans of HIV gp120 (Takahashi et al., 2005; Inokoshi et al., 2001; Chiba et al., 2001, 2004). Given its unusual origin and potent anti-HIV activity in cell culture, it is worth further investigating for its antiviral (i.e. microbicidal) activity.

6. Plant lectins

Plant lectins probably are the most diverse group of CBP with a wide variety of carbohydrate-binding properties depending the plant species and even the anatomic site of isolation (i.e. bulbs, leaves, roots, etc.). Strikingly, the vast majority of plant lectins that are active against HIV are endowed with a carbohydrate specificity directed against mannose oligomers. So far, only one plant lectin that shows specificity for GlcNAc found in the rhizomes of the stinging nettle *Urtica dioica* (UDA) has shown pronounced anti-HIV activity. Jacalin, derived from the jack fruit, was also reported to show activity against HIV and recognizes, besides mannose, also other monosaccharides such as galactose. Most HIV-inhibitory plant lectins are derived from the monocot families *Amaryllidaceae*, *Orchidaceae* and *Alliaceae* or the dicot families *Fabaceae*, *Moraceae*, *Urticaceae* and *Cecropiaceae* (Table 1).

6.1. Mannose-specific plant lectins from the *Amaryllidaceae* family

A variety of lectins were found in several members of the *Amaryllidaceae* family (Van Damme et al., 1988a). The plant lectins derived from *Galanthus nivalis* (Snowdrop) (GNA), *Hippeastrum* hybrid (Amaryllis) (HHA) and *Narcissus pseudonarcissus* (Daffodil) (NPA) are tetramers of 4×12.5 kDa, and for GNA, it has been shown that each monomer contains two carbohydrate-binding sites, but a third site is created once tetramerization occurs (Hester and Wright, 1996; Sharon and Lis, 2003) (Fig. 1C). Thus, this additional carbohydrate-binding site is composed of peptide strains of 2 neighbouring monomers in the tetrameric structure resulting in a total of 12 carbohydrate recognition sites. For NPA, also dimers of 2×12.5 kDa and trimers of 3×12.5 kDa have been reported (Van Damme and Peumans, 1989; Botos and Wlodawer, 2005). The plant lectins selectively inhibit a wide variety of HIV-1 and HIV-2 strains and clinical isolates in various cell assays (Balzarini et al., 1991, 2004a). They also markedly prevent syncytium formation between persistently HIV-infected cells and uninfected T-lymphocytes. Moreover, it has recently been demonstrated that the plant lectins GNA, HHA and CHA and also UDA (see supra) inhibit dendritic cell HIV-1 infection and dendritic cell-directed HIV-1 transfer albeit at differential potency (Turville et al., 2005). Interestingly, it has been shown that short exposure of GNA and HHA to cell-free virus particles or to persistently HIV-infected cells markedly decreased HIV infectivity and increases the protective (microbicidal) activity of these plant lectins (Balzarini et al., 2004a). It was shown that GNA and HHA interrupt the virus entry process by interfering with the virus envelope glycoprotein. In fact, BIAcore studies revealed that HHA strongly associates but poorly dissociates from recombinant HIV-1 gp120 (Rusnati and Balzarini, unpublished). A beneficial property of these plant lectins to be used as potential microbicides is their resistance to denaturation at low pH (≥ 2) and at high temperatures ($\geq 50^\circ\text{C}$ for prolonged time periods), and their lack of measurable mitogenic activity and human red blood cell agglutinating activity.

6.2. Mannose-specific plant lectins derived from the *Orchidaceae* monocot family

Mannose-specific lectins have been isolated from at least three different orchid species (i.e. *Listera ovata* (LOA), *Epipactis helleborine* (EHA) and *Cymbidium* hybrid (CHA)) (Van Damme et al., 1987, 1994). They are dimers with a MW of 12.5 kDa for the monomer. These lectins were found to be highly inhibitory against HIV-1 and HIV-2, but also SIV in cell culture (Balzarini et al., 1992). Recently, Liu et al. (2005) has isolated a monomeric orchid lectin. They belong to the most antivirally active plant lectins reported so far, and consistently inhibit a broad variety of clinical HIV-1 clade isolates (Balzarini et al., 2005a). They are, in this respect, more consistent and more potent HIV inhibitors than those lectins isolated from the *Amaryllidaceae* family.

6.3. Mannose-specific plant lectins derived from the Alliaceae monocot family

The mannose-specific lectin from *Allium porrum* (a 4×13 kDa tetramer) (APA) proved markedly more inhibitory to HIV than the lectin derived from *Allium ursinum* (a 2×12 kDa or a $11.5 + 12.5$ kDa dimer) (AUA) (Balzarini et al., 1992). Interestingly, whereas the closely related lectins from *Allium sativum* (garlic) bulbs were inactive against HIV, those derived from the leaves and roots of the garlic plants show pronounced anti-HIV activity (Van Damme and Balzarini, unpublished). These findings illustrate that subtle differences in the CBA three-dimensional structure and/or preference for unrecognized carbohydrate oligomer structures may play an important role in the eventual efficient recognition of the HIV-1 gp120 envelope.

6.4. Mannose-specific plant lectins derived from the Fabaceae dicot family

The first reports on the antiviral activity of mannose-specific lectins derived from the Fabaceae family came from Lifson and co-workers (1986) who reported the anti-HIV activity of a variety of bean- and pea-derived lectins. It was soon realized that these CBP inhibited entry of HIV into its target cells and that mannose-specificity was an important prerequisite for antiviral activity of these lectins. Unfortunately, these plant lectins proved mitogenic and/or agglutinated human red blood cells, and are most likely too toxic for an eventual antiviral application *in vivo*.

6.5. Jacalin derived from the Moraceae dicot family

Jacalin, the major protein from jack fruit seeds, is a tetrameric lectin of 65 kDa that recognizes Gal and Gal β (1-3) GalNAc which are often present on O-linked glycans (Bourne et al., 2002). Recent reports suggest also mannose, glucose, N-acetylneuraminic acid and N-acetylmuramic acid as additional carbohydrates recognized by jacalin (Bourne et al., 2002). However, it is believed that this rather unusual lectin exerts its anti-HIV activity by interacting with the CD4-expressing cells rather than with gp120 of the virus particle. Moreover, jacalin is highly mitogenic and has a variety of other biological effects (Kabir, 1998) that may preclude its use as a potential antiviral drug *in vivo*.

6.6. The N-acetylglucosamine-specific lectin from the dicot plant *U. dioica*

The lectin from the stinging nettle (*U. dioica*) rhizomes (UDA) is one of the few plant lectins that are thought to exist as a monomer in solution. It has been isolated for the first time in 1984 by Peumans et al. (1984) and found to be a complex mixture of isolectins (Shibuya et al., 1986; Van Damme et al., 1988b). The molecular weight of UDA is 8.5 kDa (~89 amino acids). It has two carbohydrate-binding sites with different affinities, and, together with hevein (derived from the rubber tree *Hevea brasiliensis*), is one of the smallest plant lectins ever reported

(Harata and Muraki, 2000; Saul et al., 2000; Harata et al., 2001) (Fig. 1D). Both UDA and hevein are N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) specific. In the crystal structure of UDA in complex with a (GlcNAc)₃ trimer, extensive interactions of two UDA molecules and one carbohydrate oligomer is found, and predominantly consists of aromatic stacking of tyrosine, tryptophan and histidine from UDA with the sugar rings of the carbohydrate, as well as a variety of (five) hydrogen bonds, and various van der Waals interactions. UDA prevents HIV entry and transmission upon co-cultivation of persistently HIV-infected cells and uninfected cells in the lower $\mu\text{g/ml}$ range (higher nanomolar range) (Balzarini et al., 1992, 2005b). It strongly binds to HIV-1 gp120 (Rusnati and Balzarini, unpublished) and its molecular interaction with the (GlcNAc)₂Man part of a glycan on gp120 could be modelled without steric hindrance with the remaining glycan part and the gp120 peptide (Balzarini et al., 2005b). A striking property of UDA is its consistent suppression of a broad variety of HIV-1 clade isolates in PBMC (Balzarini et al., 2005b). These properties may make UDA a promising candidate for further (pre)clinical development as an anti-HIV microbicide. Surprisingly, whereas crystallographic analysis revealed that UDA has a typical hevein structure, the hevein lectin from the rubber tree is completely devoid of antiviral activity as also observed for the GlcNAc-specific wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) (Balzarini and Van Damme, unpublished). This observation may suggest that the lectin from the stinging nettle roots may have additional properties that differ from those of the closely related hevein lectin, and/or that UDA might recognize GlcNAc oligomers or GlcNAc-Man oligomers in a different conformational manner than hevein or WGA.

6.7. Myrianthin derived from the Cecropiaceae dicot family

MHL was purified from the African plant *Myrianthus holstii* by Charan et al. (2000). It belongs to the Cecropiaceae family which is closely related to the Urticaceae family. It is a small cysteine-rich lectin (MW 9.2 kDa) with presumed GlcNAc affinity. Pure MHL has anti-HIV activity at an EC₅₀ of 150 nM, that is at a concentration that is quite comparable with that of UDA. MHL has been shown to bind to HIV gp120 and likely to inhibit the virus infection process after CD4 binding occurred. No structural (crystallographic) data are available. Unfortunately, no further investigations on this lectin have been reported, which makes it impossible to speculate on its potential as anti-HIV (microbicidal) compound.

7. CBP from invertebrate origin

From the sea worm *Chaetopterus variopedatus* a 30 kDa lectin was isolated and designated as CVL (Table 1). The protein was recently defined to have β -galactose specificity (Wang et al., in press). However, it is unclear whether it also recognizes other mono- or oligosaccharides. If not, this is the very first lectin with exclusive β -galactose specificity that has such a pronounced anti-HIV activity in cell culture. The lectin is active against HIV-1 infection in the nanomolar range (4–60 nM) and prevents virus infection at an early stage of the HIV replica-

tion cycle, presumably the entry process. Cell-to-cell fusion of HIV-infected (C8166/HIV-1) and uninfected (H9) cells is also blocked at equally low CVL concentrations (70 nM). Although this novel type of lectin looks an interesting addition to the current armamentarium of predominantly mannose- and GlcNAc-specific lectins, further in-depth studies are required to reveal the molecular basis of its unique position in the anti-HIV CBA families and its potential as an anti-HIV microbicide drug.

Another mannose-specific lectin has been identified from *Laxus oneistus*. The Ca^{++} dependent mannose-specific lectin has a molecular weight of 16.4 kDa with some evidence of dimerisation (Bulgheresi et al., 2006). Interestingly, the lectin proved structurally and functionally similar to the human dendritic cell-specific DC-SIGN receptor molecule. Given this similarity, it would be of particular interest to further investigate the lectin for its potential to inhibit HIV replication and transmission in cell culture.

8. Mammalian mannose-binding lectins

8.1. Mannose-binding lectin (MBL)

MBL is a Ca^{2+} -dependent mannose-specific serum lectin and binds pathogens as the initiating step of the lectin pathway of the innate immune system to opsonize the pathogen (Ji et al., 2005; Klein, 2005). It is found as multimers in serum (reviewed in Hansen and Holunskov, 1998). The MBL subunit molecular weight is ~ 31 kDa. Its carbohydrate recognizing domain exists of 115 amino acids, and strongly binds to D-mannose, GlcNAc and fucose (Ji et al., 2005; Hansen and Holunskov, 1998). However, its carbohydrate-binding site has a rather low affinity for the carbohydrates, but oligomerization of the MBL molecules show much lower carbohydrate dissociation rates. It has been shown that MBL efficiently binds to HIV in cell culture, although primary HIV strains are less efficiently bound. Interestingly, MBL may also block efficient binding of HIV to DC-SIGN (dendritic cell-specific intercellular adhesion molecule 3-grabbing non-integrin) that functions as a mannose-specific lectin in dendritic cell recognition and uptake of pathogens (i.e. HIV) leading to antigen presentation to T-cells. Such interaction of DC-SIGN with gp120 involves trisaccharide residues of high-mannose oligosaccharides of gp120 but not the terminal $\text{Man}\alpha(1-2)\text{Man}$ residues (Feinberg et al., 2001). However, the eventual role of MBL in the *in vivo* setting is unclear and still a considerable matter of debate in terms of its role in preventing HIV infection and transmission and in the evolution and speed of HIV-induced pathology (Ji et al., 2005; Klein, 2005). A recent study of Heggelund et al. (2005) suggests a modulatory role of MBL on cytokine responses and HIV replication after stimulation with microbial products. These effects of MBL on inflammatory responses and viral replication may be clinically relevant for the HIV infection. Further studies are needed to define the *in vivo* contribution of MBL to clearance and destruction of HIV and the reasons for the rather low neutralization capacity by MBL against primary HIV-1 strains.

8.2. Other carbohydrate-binding lectins from the innate immune system

A variety of carbohydrate-binding proteins, other than MBL or DC-SIGN are part of the innate and/or adaptive immune system. In this respect, mammalian defensins are probably the best studied peptides. They consist of small cationic antimicrobial peptides predominantly found in leukocytes and epithelial cells and were shown to possess anti-HIV activity. One discriminates between α -, β - and the cyclic θ -defensins (Chang and Klotman, 2004). It is, however, not very clear how these agents exert their eventual anti-HIV activity. Although binding to the glycosylated gp120 has been demonstrated, for several of the β - and θ -defensins, their antiviral action may be predominantly at the level of direct virus inactivation or even at a stage in the virus replication cycle that occurs after the entry and reverse transcription process (Chang and Klotman, 2004; Sun et al., 2005; Chang et al., 2005).

9. The 2G12 monoclonal antibody

The mAb 2G12 belongs to one of the very few broad neutralizing anti-HIV antibodies directed against an epitope at gp120 that lies around the C4/V4 region. A wide spectrum of HIV-1 clade isolates except clade E is efficiently neutralized in cell culture in the lower $\mu\text{g/ml}$ range of the mAb. Interestingly, the recognized epitope on gp120 contains high-mannose glycans at several N-glycosylation sites (Scanlan et al., 2002; Calarese et al., 2003, 2005). This is very unusual: glycosylated peptide epitopes often contain microheterogenic carbohydrates (broad range of glycoforms) causing dilution of a single antigenic response; the glycans may easily cover potential immunogenic epitopes; and since they are synthesized by the cellular glycosylation machinery, glycans are often well tolerated by the host organism. Though, the 2G12 mAb interacts with very specific, highly conserved glycosylation sites on gp120 (i.e. N-295, N-332 and N-392), and its binding to HIV-1 gp120 is further influenced by the presence of the N-339 and N-386 glycans (Zhu et al., 2000; Scanlan et al., 2002). Moreover, strong evidence is provided that the terminal $\alpha(1-2)\text{mannose}$ oligomers on the high-mannose glycans are the predominant interaction sites of 2G12. The 2G12 mAb is unique among the studied antibodies in that it appears like a tightly packed dimer formed by an unprecedented V_H domain swapping (Calarese et al., 2005). This results in the creation of multiple distinct carbohydrate-binding sites: two for the normal antibody site and two novel sites within the new $\text{V}_\text{H}/\text{V}_\text{H}'$ interface, which may contribute to the multivalent binding of 2G12 to HIV-1 gp120. Whether antibodies such as 2G12 may eventually play a role as an anti-HIV agent (drug) still needs to be demonstrated. However, a recent report of Trkola et al. (2005) demonstrated that a delay of HIV-1 rebound could be obtained after cessation of antiretroviral therapy through passive transfer of human neutralizing antibodies such as 2G12, 2FS and 4E10. Therefore, the *in vivo* activity of neutralizing antibodies should be further explored.

10. HIV resistance to carbohydrate-binding proteins

Any antiviral drug that is frequently or persistently administered to HIV will soon or later select for mutant virus strains that may display several degrees of resistance to the particular drug. Understanding the molecular basis of drug resistance is important for every new agent that may enter clinical trials irrespective whether it will be applied for systemic use or as a topical microbicide. Only a few resistance selection studies have been recently performed for the mannose-specific lectins HHA, GNA, Concanavalin A and CV-N, for the GlcNAc-specific UDA and for the mAb 2G12. Interestingly, these agents invariably seem to select for virus strains that contain mutations in HIV gp120, predominantly at *N*-glycosylation sites. Indeed, up to eight to nine glycosylation sites could be annihilated in gp120 upon prolonged exposure of HIV-1 to HHA, GNA or UDA (Balzarini et al., 2004b, 2005a,b). This phenomenon was later also confirmed for CV-N (Witvrouw et al., 2005) and 2G12 (Pashov et al., 2005; Nakowitsch et al., 2005). This drug resistance profile is unique in several aspects: (i) no other anti-HIV drugs that are currently under (pre)clinical investigation, including the different entry inhibitors, select for such a targeted deletion of glycans of HIV gp120; (ii) no cross-resistance of CBP-resistant mutant virus strains to other HIV-1 drugs has been observed; (iii) CBP such as HHA, GNA and in particular UDA and CV-N are endowed with a high genetic barrier because multiple mutations (at least four to five) need to be present in gp120 to exert a (still) moderate drug resistance profile; and (iv) last but not least, it may be speculated that HIV-1 strains that develop glycan deletions in their gp120 envelope upon prolonged CBP exposure, may expose previously hidden immunogenic epitopes to the immune system, making the mutant virus now vulnerable to inactivation by an extensive neutralizing antibody (Nab) response (Balzarini, 2005). Although this concept has yet to be proven for CBP, it may represent an attractive property of CBP to be endowed with a potential dual mechanism of antiviral action: either a direct inhibitory effect at the level of entry (by binding to the gp120 glycans) and an indirect effect by triggering Nab production upon the selection of mutant virus strains. It seems now imperative to prioritarily test this hypothesis in the *in vivo* setting.

11. CBP versus other entry inhibitors as potential microbicide drugs

Beside CBP, a variety of other microbicide candidate drugs exists, and many are currently subject of (pre)clinical evaluation. They range from non-specific (i.e. detergents, buffering agents) and more specific (i.e. anionic polymers) to highly specific anti-HIV microbicides (such as soluble CD4, CXCR4 or CCR5 antagonists, reverse transcriptase (NtRTI and NNRTI) inhibitors, etc.) (for an overview, see Balzarini and Van Damme, 2005).

NNRTIs have the advantage of a high therapeutic window but they are solely inhibitory to HIV-1 strains. The presence of a lipophilic tight-binding NNRTI at the site of virus infection or transmission may result in a virtual direct inactivation of RT in the virus particle. Because of its lipophilic nature, it can easily be

incorporated into the drug-exposed target cell membrane, which exerts a local protective barrier if the virus tries to enter the cells. However, systemic absorption of such microbicide drugs may result in systemic side effects or viral drug resistance or both.

Although anionic substances that target adsorption of the virus are efficient in preventing contact between cell-free virus and its target cell, they are generally less efficient in preventing transmission of the cell-associated virus to uninfected cells. Also, antiviral activity of polyanions sometimes markedly varies depending the nature of the HIV strain. Although they may have a rather limited general toxicity (compared with detergents or surfactants), several polyanions have shown to be endowed with an anticoagulant effect.

CBP may have the advantage of tight binding to the HIV envelope and a number of them have broad-spectrum HIV clade inhibitory potential. Moreover, they are colorless, odorless and tasteless, resistant to higher temperatures and low (vaginal) pH. These are favorable properties for a microbicide drug. However, due to their protein nature, CBP may be expensive to produce and to scale-up. A commensal bacterial (i.e. *Lactobacillus*) expression system may be an interesting alternative approach to deliver the microbicide in the vaginal environment. The choice of the nature of the CBP to be used as microbicide drug candidate should be carefully made. Some lectins can indeed be endowed with unfavorable properties such as hemagglutination of human erythrocytes, mitogenic stimulation of human peripheral lymphocyte cells, inflammatory activity, cellular toxicity, interference with protein synthesis, etc. (Van Damme et al., 1998; Sharon and Lis, 2003). CBP may of course also interact with cellular glycoproteins, and it has recently been demonstrated that galectin-1, a dimeric β -galactoside-binding protein, rather promotes infection with R5 and X4 HIV-1 variants by facilitating attachment of HIV-1 to the cell surface. Obviously, galectin-1 can cross-link HIV-1 to its target cells and promotes a firmer adhesion of the virus to the cell surface (Ouellet et al., 2005). All these above mentioned potential unfavorable interactions should be taken into account before making the choice of the type of CBP for clinical investigations.

12. Conclusion

Carbohydrate-binding proteins consist of a wide range of different structures, sizes and carbohydrate oligomeric specificities. They are found in a variety of different species, ranging from procaryotes to corals, algae, fungi, plants, invertebrates and vertebrates (i.e. mammals). For several of them, details on the crystal structure of the CBP in complex with specific carbohydrate oligomers are available. This should allow to understand the interaction of these proteins with their target carbohydrates and to eventually design novel CBA (including peptidomimetics and small-size CBA) that are further optimized to prevent or inhibit HIV infection and transmission. The potential microbicidal activity of at least one CBP has already been demonstrated in virus-exposed monkeys, and efficient engineered expression of this CBP in commensal bacteria has also been shown. The above described efforts, achievements and insights will eventually pay-off to transform these drug leads into affordable, useful and

efficient drugs for antiviral (i.e. HIV) therapy, either as microbicide or to be applied for systemic use.

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