

Reviews

Adhesion molecules and animal development

H. Anderson

Department of Zoology, University of California, Davis (California 95616, USA)

Summary. In recent years considerable progress has been made in the identification and characterization of molecules that mediate cell adhesion during animal development. This review attempts to pick out from the vast amount of information in this rapidly expanding field some of the key features of adhesion molecules, to present ideas about their role in development, and to indicate the directions in which the field is now moving.

Key words. Adhesion molecule; animal development; morphogenesis; embryogenesis.

Introduction

Adhesive interactions between cells are important throughout the life of a multicellular organism. It is adhesive interactions that bind sperm to egg at the moment of conception, and that hold cells together in the differentiated tissues and organs of the adult. But it is also adhesive interactions that mediate many of the mysterious developmental processes that convert a fertilized egg into an adult: the movement of cells and the arrangement of cells into tissues and organs.

The first experimental evidence that embryonic cells differed in their adhesion to one another, and that this correlated with their developmental fate, was provided in 1955 by Townes and Holtfreter¹⁴⁴ in their classic experiments on amphibian embryos. They dissociated ectodermal, mesodermal, and endodermal cells from gastrulae and packed them together randomly in aggregates. The cells within the aggregates, identified by differences in size and pigmentation, sorted out into distinct homogeneous layers whose stratification corresponded to the normal germ layer arrangement in the intact embryo: the endodermal cells formed a compact ball, the ectodermal cells formed a surface epithelium, and between them the mesodermal cells formed a mass of loose mesenchyme. As embryogenesis proceeds, many additional cell layers are formed and cells rearrange themselves into more complex patterns within them. But do such changes result from a change in the number or in the type of adhesion molecules on the cell surface? How many types of adhesion molecule are there? What properties do adhesion molecules have? These questions could not begin to be answered until the late 1970s when techniques were developed that permitted the isolation and characterization of individual adhesion molecules.

Most adhesion molecules have been identified using immunological methods: the cell types of interest are placed into a culture system in which adhesion can be quantified – by monitoring aggregation of cells in suspension or attachment of cells to a substratum for example. Antibodies are made against membrane fractions of these cells or against the substratum, added to the culture system, and tested for their ability to block cell adhesion.

The antigens involved in adhesion are then identified by extracting components from solubilized cell membranes or the substratum and testing them for their ability to bind the antibodies. Since inhibition of adhesion by antibodies against a particular molecule is not direct proof of the adhesive function of that molecule, independent evidence of adhesive function has been sought by binding studies using the molecule as a tissue culture substratum^{3, 16, 79, 90, 117, 136, 146}, or conjugated to polystyrene beads^{62, 132}, or inserted into liposomes^{5, 107, 119}. Other tests have included the demonstration of acquired adhesive properties in normally non-adhesive cells transfected with cDNA that encodes adhesion molecules^{45, 58, 91, 94}, a reduction in adhesive properties of cells transfected with antisense constructs of cDNA that encodes adhesion molecules³⁶, and the loss of adhesive properties in mutants defective in the adhesion molecule^{98, 136}. Many of these tests are open to several interpretations and a combination is really required for conclusive proof of function.

It is now clear that there are many different adhesion molecules expressed during development. Tables 1 and 2 list those identified to date; there are certainly more to be discovered. The extent to which they have been studied varies considerably. Some, such as NCAM and fibronectin, have been subject to intensive investigation for more than a decade while others are barely more than new protein sequences. Many of the adhesion molecules were discovered and named independently in different laboratories, some working with different species. Tables 1 and 2 list both the most commonly used name and other names used in the literature.

It is also clear that no single class of molecule is responsible for cell adhesion; glycoproteins, proteoglycans, and glycolipids may all act as adhesion molecules, binding by different mechanisms and with widely differing strengths. The complexity of animal development is certainly reflected in the diversity of adhesion molecules and mechanisms.

This review aims to extract from this diversity some of the key features of adhesion molecules involved in animal

Table 1. Cell adhesion molecules

Name and ref.	$M_r \times 10^3$	Name and ref.	$M_r \times 10^3$
+ NCAM ^{37,10}	180, 140, 120	+ csA ⁹⁷	80
BSP-2 ⁵³		+ F11 ²⁰	170, 130
+ E-cadherin ⁹⁴	124	+ contactin ¹⁰⁹	130
uvomorulin ¹¹³		neurofascin ¹¹¹	185, 160
L-CAM ⁵¹		R-cognin ⁵⁹	50
Cell CAM 120/80 ³⁹		+ MAG ^{80,107}	100
Arc-1 ¹²		astrotactin ⁴⁶	100
+ P-cadherin ⁹⁹	118	+ fasciclin I ¹⁵²	70, 37
+ N-cadherin	127	+ fasciclin II ⁵⁷	95
N-cal CAM ³⁵		+ fasciclin III ¹⁰²	80, 66, 59, 54
A-CAM ¹⁴⁸		+ <i>I(2)gl</i> ⁷⁰	30
+ L1 ⁹³	180, 135, 80	+ neuroglian ¹⁵³	180, 167
NILE ¹¹			
NgCAM ⁵⁵		+ primary sequence known	
8D9 ⁸⁶			
G4 ¹¹²			
69A1 ¹⁰⁶			
ASCS4 ¹³⁷			

Table 2. Matrix adhesion molecules

ECM Molecules Name and ref.	$M_r \times 10^3$	ECM Receptors Name and ref.	$M_r \times 10^3$
Glycoproteins		Glycoproteins	
+ fibronectin ^{75,133}	2 subunits, 250 each	+ fibronectin-integrin ⁸	2 subunits 140 each
+ laminin ^{43,123,124,125}	3 subunits 440, 230, 220	laminin-integrin ^{52,143}	2 subunits 150, 120
+ tenascin ¹⁰³	2 subunits 220 each	tenascin-integrin ¹⁶	2 subunits 145, 125
cytotactin ⁶⁷		fibronectin receptor ⁶	47
hexabrachion ⁴⁷		# laminin receptor ^{54,87,88,110,149}	2 subunits 67 each
myotendinous antigen ⁴⁷		laminin receptor ^{74,135}	120 & 180
brachionectin ⁴⁷		laminin receptor ¹¹⁶	
J1 ⁴⁷		discoidin I receptor ⁵⁰	67
GMEM ⁴⁷		Proteoglycans	
+ thrombospondin ⁸⁵	3 subunits 180 each	fibronectin receptor ⁸⁴	
+ nidogen/entactin ^{44,89}	150	adheron/purpurin receptor ¹²⁶	
+ discoidin I ¹⁰⁸	4 subunits 28 each	NCAM receptor ^{31,33}	
AMOG ⁵	45–50	tenascin receptor ^{147,62}	
echinonectin ²	2 subunits 230 each	Glycolipids	
+ purpurin ¹³	20	fibronectin ganglioside receptor ^{24,25}	
+ amalgam ¹²⁸	333 amino acids	laminin sulphatide receptor ¹¹⁵	
Complexes (from conditioned medium)		laminin ganglioside receptor ⁶⁸	
adheron ¹²⁷	15–20 nm particle		
neuronectin ³⁴	350	+ primary sequence known	
laminin/heparan sulphate		# partial sequence known	
proteoglycan complexes ^{40,81–83}			

development, and to indicate progress that is now being made with a new and more difficult set of questions: how do the adhesive properties of cells influence the initiation, execution, and regulation of developmental processes?

Functional categories of adhesion molecule

Adhesion molecules are generally placed into one of two categories according to their function. Molecules in one category mediate the adhesion of cells to one another and are commonly called cell adhesion molecules (or CAMs). Cell adhesion molecules are integral components of the cell membrane. They are anchored in place either through a stretch of hydrophobic amino acids or through a covalently bound hydrophobic phosphatidylinositol-containing glycolipid e.g.⁶⁰.

Molecules in the second category mediate the adhesion of cells to the extracellular matrix (ECM) and may be called

matrix adhesion molecules or substratum adhesion molecules (or SAMs). They are likely to be of particular importance in the migration of cells over or through the ECM during development. ECM refers to the acellular material filling the spaces between mesenchymal cells and also to the specialized sheet of material called the basal lamina which is attached to the basal surface of epithelia, separating them from subjacent mesenchyme. ECM contains various components secreted by the surrounding cells including collagens, glycoproteins, and proteoglycans, some of which are adhesive to cells. The category of matrix adhesion molecules includes both adhesive ECM components and their receptors on the cell surface.

In practice, the distinction between the two categories of adhesion molecule is not always clear-cut. For example, in tissue culture many cell adhesion molecules, especially those associated with the cell surface via a phosphatidylinositol linkage, may be released into the medium and

bind to the tissue culture surface^{59,60,137}. At this point a molecule formerly involved in cell-cell adhesion may participate in cell-substratum adhesion. For example, although NCAM is generally considered to be a cell adhesion molecule, some forms of NCAM are secreted and deposited in the ECM in vivo²⁹ and can act as matrix adhesion molecules through binding to cell surface NCAM and heparan sulphate proteoglycan³³.

Common structural features

Amino acid sequences

The properties of adhesion molecules have been studied in a variety of ways using the techniques of molecular biology, biochemistry, cell biology, and developmental biology. With each approach different properties are revealed. The most fundamental – the primary amino acid sequence – will be considered first.

Deduced amino acid sequences are now available for many of the adhesion molecules. Examination of the sequences shows that many contain internally repeating sequences, and a number of motifs or stretches of primary sequence are found in several different adhesion molecules. These observations support the view that the majority of proteins have evolved from a limited number of archetypal polypeptides through duplications, rearrangements, and divergence⁴². Figure 1 summarizes in simple form the arrangement of some of these motifs in those adhesion molecules for which a primary structure is now available. Study of these motifs may help in understanding the function of adhesion molecules.

The cadherin family. The cadherins are Ca^{2+} -dependent cell adhesion molecules. The E-, P-, and N-cadherins each consist of four domains which are homologous both within each molecule and between the three species identified so far. These adhesion molecules are considered to be members of a larger family with additional members remaining to be identified. The product of the *l(2)gl* gene of *Drosophila* is a homophilic cell adhesion molecule and its cDNA sequence has several regions of homology with the cadherins⁷⁰.

The integrin family. The integrins⁶⁵ are also a family of molecules with considerable sequence homology. They are all noncovalently-linked heterodimers with distinct alpha and beta subunits; there are at least 3 different beta subunits and more than 10 different alpha subunits, homologies existing within each group but not between alpha and beta subunits. Some alpha subunits are cleaved posttranslationally to give a heavy chain and a light chain linked by disulphide bonding. The integrins are cell surface receptors. Many are involved in adult physiological processes involving adhesive events, but several act as matrix adhesion molecules during development and are included in this review. These are the receptors for the ECM molecules fibronectin, laminin, and tenascin.

Immunoglobulin-like domains. Many of the cell adhesion molecules have several repeats of a sequence about 100 amino acids long containing two conserved cysteine residues which form a disulphide bond. This bond stabilizes the interaction between other conserved amino acids within the sequence to form two beta sheets folded together around a hydrophobic interior. This motif was first identified in immunoglobulin molecules and is called an immunoglobulin or Ig-domain and has been found in a variety of molecules involved in adhesive or binding functions¹⁵⁰. Binding between Ig-domains can be homophilic, and may provide a form of weak interaction between cell surfaces. The domain has also been considered as providing a stable platform for the display of specific determinants for recognition reactions on the faces of beta sheets or at the bends between the beta strands. These determinants could be protein or carbohydrate in nature.

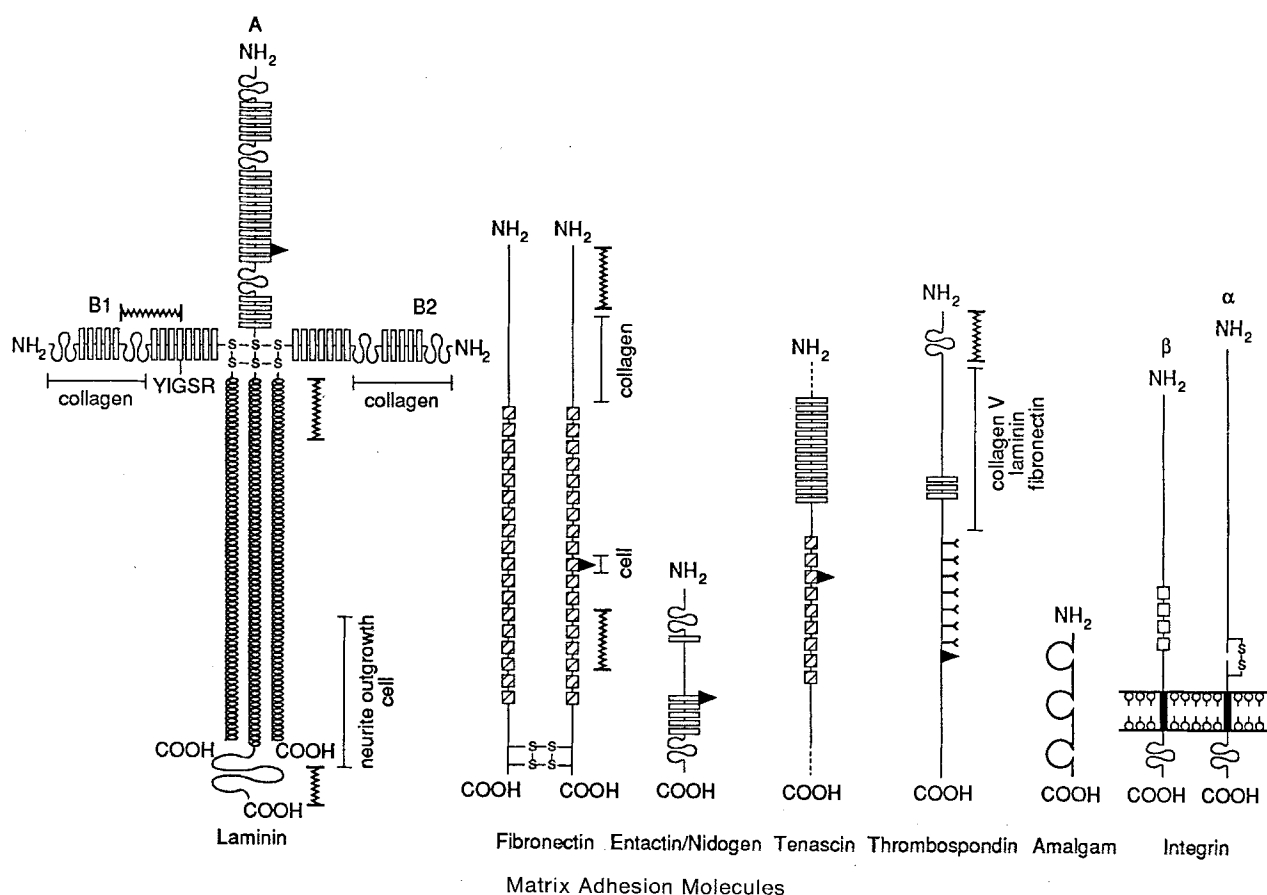
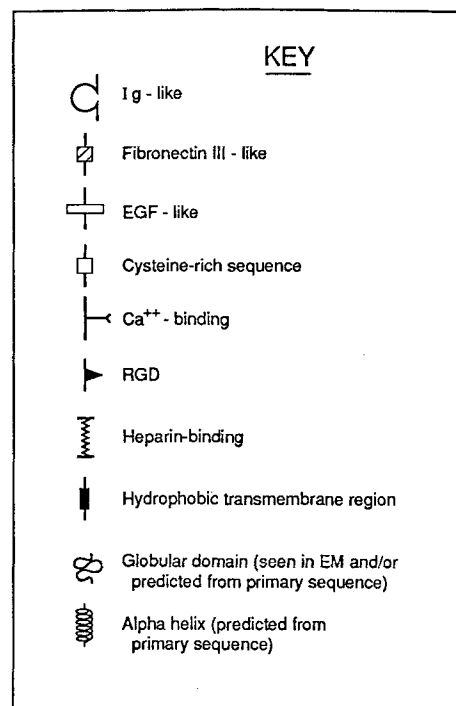
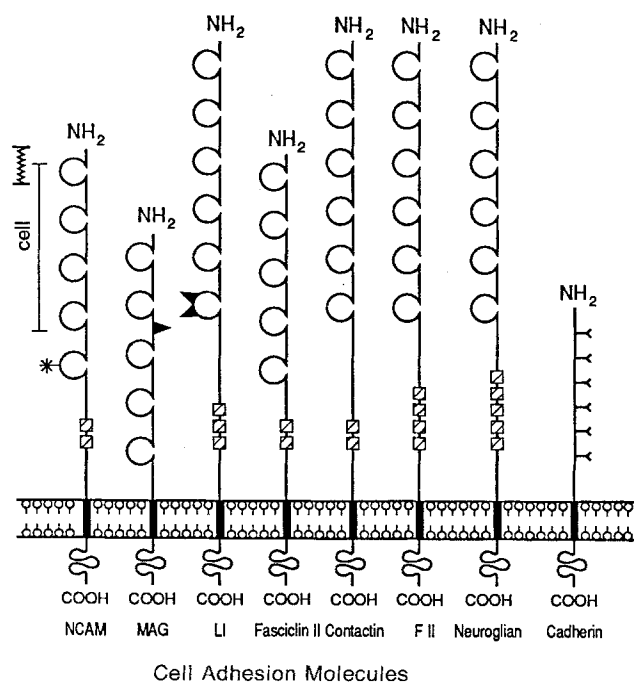
Fibronectin type III domains. This motif, which is about 100 amino acids long, was first identified in the ECM molecule fibronectin where it appears at least 15 times. It is present in several cell adhesion molecules (NCAM, L1, fasciclin II and contactin) and matrix adhesion molecules (fibronectin, tenascin). Little is known about its function.

EGF-like domains. A sequence about 40 amino acid residues long which has significant homology to Epidermal Growth Factor (EGF) has been found in the rod-like regions of several matrix adhesion molecules – laminin, nidogen/entactin, tenascin and thrombospondin. Its characteristic is the presence of 6 cysteines in highly conserved locations which form 3 disulphide bonds constraining the sequence to fold into several loops⁷. In general there are also several conserved turn-forming residues. The loops are thought to provide the ligand in receptor-ligand interactions, with the recognition sequence or binding site at the end of one of the loops, but with additional sequences contributing to the binding site to confer specificity or else maximizing binding. EGF-like domains could also form a scaffolding structure since they seem to be associated with the rod-like parts of molecules as indicated by EM. It is also possible that these regions confer a growth-stimulating function to the molecule. Both laminin and tenascin have been observed to have such a function under certain in vitro conditions^{9,26}.

The integrin beta subunits also contain four repeats of a 40 amino acid cysteine-rich sequence in their extracellular domain⁸. It does not have the same sequence as the EGF-like domain and its function is not known.

Ca^{2+} -binding sequences. The cadherins, thrombospondin, and the integrins require Ca^{2+} for their function and contain putative Ca^{2+} -binding regions which have clusters of Asp, Asn, Thr, and Ser residues in predicted loops at the surface of the protein^{8,85,113}.

The RGD sequence. The tripeptide Arg-Gly-Asp (RGD in letter code for amino acids) has been identified as the sequence in a number of ECM molecules which is recog-



Schematic diagrams of the primary sequence of cell adhesion molecules and matrix adhesion molecules that contain commonly-occurring motifs. The sequences are derived from information in references listed in tables 1 and 2. The sequences of only one thrombospondin subunit and one tenascin subunit are shown. *Alaglam* was thought to be a cell adhesion

molecule but is now known to be secreted (Hortsch and Seeger, unpublished). The asterisk on NCAM indicates the location of polysialic acid. YIGSR on the laminin B1 subunit is a cell-binding sequence. For additional details, see text.

nized by their corresponding cell surface integrin receptor¹¹⁸. This sequence is present in many adhesion molecules: L1, MAG, laminin A chain, fibronectin, nidogen/entactin, tenascin, discoidin I and integrin. It may be contained within Ig-domains, EGF-like domains, fibronectin type III domains, or in regions that have no obvious homology with other sequences (fig. 1), suggesting an independent evolution of RGD and these motifs. It is unlikely that the RGD sequence serves as an adhesive binding site in most of these cases. Indeed, RGD is present in more than 120 proteins¹⁵¹, most of which have no adhesive function. The RGD sequence has been shown to be a cell-binding site for fibronectin¹¹⁸, discoidin I¹³⁶, nidogen/entactin^{44,89}, and tenascin¹⁶. It does not appear to be active in thrombospondin⁴⁹, nor in the binding of laminin to its integrin⁵². It seems that the presence of other amino acids around the RGD sequence may be important for the presentation of the sequence in the appropriate conformation for recognition by its receptor¹⁰⁵.

Heparin-binding regions. Heparin is a highly sulphated (and highly negatively charged) glycosaminoglycan, covalently bound to protein to form proteoglycan. Macromolecules that bear heparin chains and other glycosaminoglycans are widely distributed in the ECM and on cell surfaces and are likely participants in adhesive interactions. Indeed, several proteoglycans on the cell surface have now been identified as ligands for adhesion molecules (table 2).

Protein sequences which bind heparin (or other negatively charged glycosaminoglycans) tend to have a relatively low (negative) value of hydropathy index and a relatively high number of the strongly positively charged amino acid residues lysine and arginine. But these are not absolute prerequisites; there is no consensus sequence established for heparin-binding. Biochemical studies have located heparin-binding regions on several ECM and cell adhesion molecules. Laminin has at least three heparin-binding sites¹³⁴, one of which has been sequenced²². Fibronectin, thrombospondin and NCAM also contain heparin-binding regions^{30,49,85,117}.

Transmembrane and cytoplasmic sequences. Many of the adhesion molecules are integral membrane proteins with a hydrophobic transmembrane region. The structure of the cytoplasmic domains has aroused a great deal of interest because it is through these domains that adhesion molecules could serve functions other than their adhesive function; an adhesive event could induce a change in the cytoplasmic domain which in turn could provide a signal to the cell to evoke a particular response. However, examination of the sequences of the cytoplasmic domains offers few clues about how or where these signalling interactions might occur. The avian fibronectin integrin cytoplasmic sequence has a sequence for tyrosine phosphorylation⁸, which is in a region that binds the cytoskeletal component talin; phosphorylation in this cytoplasmic region inhibits talin binding to inte-

grin²¹. The link between integrin and the cytoskeleton could provide the signalling mechanism for the change in cell shape observed when cells adhere to fibronectin and the abnormality of this response when cells are transformed by oncogenes which phosphorylate this region²¹.

Unique protein sequences. The sequences of other adhesion molecules not depicted – csA, fasciclin I, fasciclin III, discoidin I, and purpurin – have no obvious homologies either with each other or with other proteins.

Carbohydrate moieties

All of the adhesion molecules contain carbohydrate, but in very few cases has the nature of the carbohydrate and its role in adhesion been determined. However, two carbohydrates have been found to be present on several adhesion molecules. A 3' sulphated glucuronic acid (recognized by L2 and HNK-1 antibodies) is present on some species of NCAM, L1, tenascin, MAG, the proteoglycan ligand for tenascin, and the fibronectin integrin^{32,62,77,104}. An N-glycosidically linked carbohydrate epitope (exact identity unknown, but recognized by the L3 antibody) is found on some molecules of L1, MAG, AMOG, and the fibronectin integrin⁷⁸.

Diversity and complexity

Although examination of the primary sequence of many of the adhesion molecules reveals several interesting common features, biochemical and cell biological studies emphasize the diversity and complexity of their properties.

Multifunctional molecules. Electron microscopy of rotary-shadowed preparations has shown that many adhesion molecules are rather complex in structure and possess several different domains appearing as globular regions, stiff rods, and flexible threads. The different structural domains have different functions. Particular functions have been assigned to these domains through studies using peptide fragments generated after protease digestion, domain-specific antibodies, and synthetic peptides made to match the primary sequence of parts of domains. In addition to determining the location of binding sites for adhesion, these studies show that many adhesion molecules have domains that serve additional functions. Some of these regions are indicated in the schematic diagrams of adhesion molecules in figure 1.

Laminin serves as a good example to illustrate this point. It possesses domains that bind to other ECM components such as collagen, entactin/nidogen, and heparin and has at least two cell-binding domains. In addition to promoting cell adhesion, different regions of the molecules can stimulate cell migration, promote neurite outgrowth, stimulate differentiation of glial cells⁹⁰, and exert growth factor activity⁹.

Adhesion molecules may also exert their effects as part of a complex. A complex containing laminin and heparan sulphate proteoglycan has been identified in vivo²⁷ and

its role in neurite regeneration studied¹²¹. Laminin is adhesive to neurons and promotes neurite outgrowth but the proteoglycan alone has no effect; the complex however is much more effective than laminin alone. Adhesive complexes are also known to be released by cells in tissue culture. Some, such as adherons¹²⁷, contain adhesion molecules such as fibronectin, NCAM, and purpurin as well as collagen, glycosaminoglycans, and other unidentified components. They exert their effects only on certain cell types. Whether adherons occur in vivo has not been demonstrated.

Multiple ligands. All of the cell adhesion molecules are membrane glycoproteins. Many show homophilic binding, i.e. like molecules on adjacent cell surfaces bind one another, and this appears to be mediated by the protein regions of the molecules. NCAM and the cadherins are well-documented cases of molecules showing homophilic binding^{119,138}. For those that have been demonstrated to not bind in this manner, i.e. that show heterophilic binding such as L1 and cognin^{55,145}, the ligands have not yet been identified. NCAM also binds cell surface heparin. This binding may be modulatory in function, inducing a conformational change in the NCAM and permitting homophilic binding between NCAMs^{31,33}. The heparin and homophilic sites are on different parts of the amino terminus³⁰.

The ECM adhesion molecules are also glycoproteins or glycoprotein-proteoglycan complexes (table 2). It is striking that each ECM molecule may bind (with different affinities) to many different molecules on the cell surface. Furthermore, these cell surface molecules may be of a wide range of types – glycoproteins such as the integrins, proteoglycans, or glycolipids. For example, laminin binds to a glycoprotein integrin^{52,143}, to a 67 kD glycoprotein through the YIGSR amino acid sequence on its B1 chain⁵⁴, to 110 and 180 kD glycoproteins^{74,135}, to a sialic acid-bearing glycolipid, i.e. a ganglioside⁶⁸, to a sulphated glycolipid, i.e. a sulphatide¹¹⁵, and to a galactosyl transferase¹¹⁶. In this latter case the binding is between the transferase and N-linked oligosaccharides attached predominantly to the A chain of laminin¹¹⁶. Fibronectin binds to a glycoprotein integrin through its RGD sequence⁸, a 47 kD glycoprotein⁶, heparan sulphate proteoglycans⁸⁴, and to gangliosides^{24,25}. Tenascin binds to an integrin through its RGD sequence¹⁶ and to a chondroitin sulphate proteoglycan^{62,147}.

It is possible that some of the cell surface ligands act not as receptors directly but as modulators of binding to other receptors. The gangliosides may serve this function. Exogenous addition of gangliosides inhibits attachment of cells to various matrix proteins in culture⁷³, disialogangliosides are present in adhesive contacts of cells in tissue culture²³ and antibodies to the gangliosides disrupt this adhesion²⁴. However, these are all indirect tests of an adhesive function for gangliosides. Conflicting results have been obtained from more direct tests; fluo-

rescence polarization has indicated that fibronectin possesses a strong ganglioside-binding site which is localized in the amino terminal heparin-binding domain, separate from the integrin-binding region¹⁴², and that the gangliosides do bind the ECM protein. However, fibronectin failed to bind to the gangliosides after their separation on thin-layer chromatography plates²⁴, suggesting that the gangliosides are not fibronectin receptors. The latter authors have suggested that the gangliosides, because of their known calcium-binding ability¹, instead play a modulatory role for Ca²⁺-dependent adhesion molecules, such as the integrins, by chelating Ca²⁺ through their highly negatively-charged sialic acid component. The electrostatic environment created by the ganglioside-Ca²⁺ complex then stabilizes the interaction of the integrin with the ECM protein.

Heparan sulphate also acts as a modulator of fibronectin-mediated adhesion; when heparan sulphate binds to fibronectin it induces a configurational change in the fibronectin¹⁰¹ which then binds to the cell surface with higher affinity⁶⁶. It also appears that a second adhesive recognition site cooperates with the RGD site on fibronectin to produce full adhesive activity¹⁰⁰.

Multiple gene products. For several of the adhesion molecules the structure of the gene is now known and it has been shown that a single gene may produce a variety of different transcripts which produce different protein products. The best studied examples of this are the cell adhesion molecule NCAM and the ECM molecule fibronectin. Three major polypeptides are produced from the NCAM gene³⁷. They have similar extracellular domains but one form lacks a transmembrane region and cytoplasmic domains and may be attached to the cell surface through phosphatidylinositol binding to lipid moieties, or may be a secreted molecule deposited in the ECM. The two other forms have transmembrane regions but differ in their cytoplasmic domains. These differences in cytoplasmic domains might reflect different linkages with the cytoskeleton or different phosphorylation capabilities, and might mediate profoundly different responses of the cell to a binding event at the extracellular domain of the molecule. In addition other variants are formed through alternative splicing in the extracellular region^{41,122}. The significance of these differences in sequence for function is not yet known.

The fibronectin gene has three regions of alternative splicing and may generate at least 10 different polypeptides¹¹⁷. Two of the alternatively spliced segments lie next to a heparin-binding domain. One possible consequence of the alternative splicings may therefore be a change in the heparin-binding properties of fibronectin. The alternatively expressed segments also contain additional glycosylation sites which may affect function (see below).

Alternative splicing has also been demonstrated in tenascin⁵⁶, and in fasciclin I¹⁵² and fasciclin III¹⁰² and is probably widespread among the adhesion molecules.

An additional source of diversity is in the composition of adhesion molecules that are composed of subunits. Laminin, for example, is generally found as a complex of B1, B2 and A chains, but forms lacking the A chain are also present during kidney morphogenesis^{64, 71, 72}.

Differential glycosylation. The carbohydrate content of particular adhesion molecules can vary considerably. For example, NCAM bears the unusual carbohydrate polysialic acid (indicated with an asterisk on fig. 1³⁸), and the amount present on the molecule is known to vary. Variation in the sialic acid content has been demonstrated to affect the strength of binding between NCAM molecules^{61, 120}. The L2/HNK-1 and L3 carbohydrate epitopes are found only on some examples within a population of adhesion molecules (see section Carbohydrate moieties). These carbohydrates may also modulate the adhesive properties of the molecules on which they are found, although there is some evidence that the L2/HNK-1 carbohydrate has adhesive properties in its own right¹¹⁴.

Glycosylation may have other more indirect effects on cell adhesion. For example, one carbohydrate moiety on the cell adhesion molecule csA of *Dictyostelium* is added as a posttranslational modification and this is blocked in *modB* mutants which show impaired adhesion. However, the requirement for this carbohydrate is not for adhesion itself, but for proper transport of the glycoprotein to the cell surface and for protection of the exposed glycoprotein against proteolytic cleavage⁶³. Glycosylation of fibronectin also protects it against proteolysis¹⁴.

In other cases glycosylation appears to be unnecessary for cell binding. For example, culturing cells in tunicamycin which blocks glycosylation does not affect E-cadherin activity¹³⁰.

Embryonic distribution

The immunocytochemical localization of adhesion molecules during embryogenesis has been an important first step in evaluating their possible roles in developmental processes. Surprisingly, most adhesion molecules are found on many different cell types and are present at many different stages of development, although it is possible that the variant forms discussed above have a more restricted distribution. For example, NCAM is expressed, sometimes transiently, on almost every cell type: notochord, neural crest, somites, placodes, epidermis, mesenchyme, mesonephros, neurons, glia, and muscle cells¹⁴¹. N-cadherin also has a broad tissue distribution at many stages of development¹³⁸. The ECM molecules laminin and entactin/nidogen are ubiquitous basal lamina components and fibronectin is widespread. ECM receptors such as the avian fibronectin integrin are also widely distributed⁷⁶. Other adhesion molecules may have a more limited distribution; E-cadherin is expressed only on nonneural epithelia¹³⁸, tenascin is present in only some regions of basal lamina⁴⁷, and some adhesion

molecules associated with the nervous system are present on subpopulations of neurons^{57, 102, 152}. But none of these adhesion molecules is exclusive to a particular cell type.

Rather it seems that the presence of particular adhesion molecules correlates with the occurrence of particular developmental events, such as the segregation of cells, the migration of cells, and the aggregation of cells. For example, after neural induction neuroepithelial cells switch from E-cadherin expression to N-cadherin expression at the time they segregate from surrounding E-cadherin-positive epithelial tissues¹³⁸. Later, when neural crest cells separate from their N-cadherin-positive neighbors and migrate out of the neuroepithelium they lose N-cadherin expression, but when they aggregate to form sensory ganglia they reexpress it¹³⁸. However, experimental studies are required to test the causal relationships suggested by these correlations.

These observations must also be considered in the light of another important point arising from immunocytochemical studies: cells usually have many different adhesion molecules on their surface. For example, ganglion cell axons from the retina bear on their surfaces the cell adhesion molecules NCAM, L1, neurofascin, F11, contactin, and N-cadherin as well as integrin matrix adhesion molecules^{28, 92, 109, 111, 139, 140}. In their immediate environment are ECM molecules, and the surface molecules of other ganglion cell axons, glia, and epithelial cells. The specificity of ganglion cell axon behavior (their precise navigation from particular regions of the retina to particular regions of the tectum) may arise not from the activity of a single type of adhesion molecule but from the expression of specific combinations of adhesion molecules, which can be regulated in number and modulated in activity, and which may interact cooperatively or competitively. Again, experimental studies are essential to elucidate the relative contributions of different adhesion molecules.

Testing roles in development

A number of experimental approaches have been developed to test the role of particular adhesion molecules in developmental events. Antibodies that block binding sites and peptides that compete for binding sites have been developed. Mutants that lack adhesion molecules or parts of them have been generated. Adhesion molecules have been expressed in cells that normally would not express them by the introduction of appropriate mRNA or by transfecting cells with cDNA that encodes the adhesion molecule.

Systems have also been developed in which to use these new probes and techniques. Tissue culture models have been favored because they are far more accessible to many procedures than are embryos, and because subsets of the participants in any developmental event may be studied in isolation, avoiding the sometimes overwhelm-

ing complexity of interactions in the embryo. To use an earlier example, retinal ganglion cell axons as they navigate to the tectum not only express many different adhesion molecules but also are in contact with different cell types, such as glial cells and other ganglion cells, and with the ECM. Tissue culture studies have permitted the study of these many possible interactions in isolation. Antibodies against NCAM, N-cadherin and integrins inhibit the outgrowth of retinal ganglion cell axons over glial cells⁹⁶ and retinal axons preferentially grow over cells expressing N-cadherin compared with the same cells not expressing it⁹¹. Antibodies against integrins inhibit their growth over laminin²⁸, and antibodies against G4, F11, and neurofascin inhibit their growth over one another^{111,112} whereas those against N-cadherin do not inhibit fasciculation⁹¹. In order to establish a hierarchy of importance of these molecules which can each influence axon outgrowth when tested in isolation, more complex tissue culture systems or embryonic studies are required.

A considerable amount of effort has been put into developing in vivo systems. Synthetic transcripts for NCAM have been introduced into amphibian embryos to study the effect of its expression in cells that do not normally express it⁶⁹. The use of insect embryos or larvae, especially *Drosophila*, in which the behavior of individually identified cells may be studied and in which sophisticated genetic techniques may be used^{4,129}, holds a lot of promise. Chick embryos have proved to be surprisingly accessible to perturbation by antibodies and peptides^{15,17-19}. Injection of antibodies against NCAM in the developing visual system of the chick where NCAM is observed on the outgrowing retinal ganglion cells and on adjacent radial glial cells, results in the displacement of axons from the glial surface, a reduction of fasciculation of axons with one another, an overall distortion in the optic pathway, and, ultimately, the failure of axons to achieve their appropriate target locations^{48,131,139}. Other antibodies, such as those used in the tissue culture experiments described earlier, have not yet been used in this in vivo system. There is also a caveat to be borne in mind when using antibodies: the binding of antibodies to the cell surface may sterically block access to molecules other than the specific antigen or may affect adhesion indirectly by perturbing a molecule that leads to other changes in the cell. Similar studies using genetically altered cells will provide useful corroborating evidence.

Adhesion molecules and differentiation

Adhesion molecules have generally been considered as acting in singular events that simply keep cells together or permit them to move apart. In the light of the many studies described above, it appears that adhesion molecules might be more appropriately viewed as participating in a sequence of events that lead to cell differentiation, and as participating in this process not only as adhesion molecules, but also as signalling molecules. For

example, cells in culture initially bind to the substratum, change their morphology and spread out over the substratum, and then form focal contacts. Focal contacts are discrete specialized regions of the cell surface where cell surface adhesion molecules and the intracellular actin cytoskeleton and other cytoplasmic proteins are co-localized. Subsequently the cells, according to their type, might migrate over the substratum or remain stationary and form specialized cell junctions such as adherens junctions with one another. Each of these events might involve the participation of different adhesion molecules. For example, the galactosyl transferase receptor for laminin is required for cells to spread on laminin but not for their initial attachment¹¹⁶, and N-cadherin and E-cadherin are associated with adherens junctions^{113,148}. How is the appropriate sequence of expression of adhesion molecules coordinated for each pathway of differentiation?

It seems very likely that the cytoplasmic domains of the adhesion proteins themselves act as signalling sites for the expression of other surface adhesion molecules or for the clustering of existing surface molecules to sites where their combined activity is required. In addition, the cytoplasmic domains might act as receptors for intracellular signals and in turn regulate the function of the adhesion molecule. Truncation of the cytoplasmic domain of E-cadherin in cultured cells indeed blocks the binding ability of the extracellular domain and adherens junctions are not established between the cells⁹⁵. Whether this results from an inability of the mutant molecules to interact with the cytoskeleton and a consequent failure of adhesion molecules to aggregate into focal contacts, or whether the functional state of the mutant molecules is impaired has yet to be resolved. What is clear is that adhesion molecules may have important intracellular functions and that research on adhesion molecules now needs to examine events taking place not only at the cell surface but also inside the cell.

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Steroid hormones and the cardiovascular system: Direct actions of estradiol, progesterone, testosterone, gluco- and mineralcorticoids, and solatriol [vitamin D] on central nervous regulatory and peripheral tissues

W. E. Stumpf

Departments of Cell Biology and Anatomy, and Pharmacology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill (North Carolina 27599, USA)

Summary. Knowledge of steroid hormone sites of action and related effects in cardiovascular and neural regulatory tissues is reviewed. Evidence for nuclear receptor sites is derived mainly from autoradiographic studies with relatively intact tissues and some biochemical studies with tissue homogenates.

In the heart and in the walls of blood vessels, estradiol, dihydrotestosterone, corticosterone, aldosterone, dexamethasone, and solatriol (vitamin D) show nuclear binding. In the brain and spinal cord, neuronal regions associated with cardiovascular regulation contain nuclear receptors in specific patterns for each steroid hormones, including progesterone and solatriol. These data indicate that all steroid hormones exert direct actions on the cardiovascular system at its different levels of organization, thus enabling adjustment to the changing demands during reproduction (gonadal steroids), stress (adrenal steroids), and solar seasons (vitamin D-solatriol).

Key words. Estradiol; progesterone; dihydrotestosterone; adrenal steroids; solatriol; vitamin D; cardiovascular system; brain; spinal cord.

Introduction

Blood flow varies with the needs of the organism and its individual tissues. Changes in blood flow can be accomplished by adjusting the functions of cardiovascular tissues through peripheral messengers and neural factors, 'regulated according to certain pre-programmed priorities'¹⁶ for different physiological conditions of procreation and survival. Such vital conditions include procurement of food, competition for partner, nest building and territorial defense, estrus and mating, pregnancy, lactation, and maternal care. Induction and control of these conditions require actions of sex steroid hormones, adrenal steroid hormones, and the seasonal steroid hormone solatriol⁹⁷.

Steroid hormone regulation of cardiovascular functions is exerted at different levels of organization. Receptors

for steroid hormones can be demonstrated in neural regions of the brainstem and spinal cord, and in the heart and in walls of blood vessels including capillaries. In addition to direct effects, indirect effects on cardiovascular functions may be exerted through steroid hormone actions on endocrine and metabolism controlling organs, such as pituitary, adrenal, liver and kidney. Effects of steroid hormones on the cardiovascular system, thus, appear to be extensive and complex, and to affect all phases of life. Such conclusions can be supported through existing information, albeit incomplete, on steroid hormone receptor distribution, steroid hormone effects on glucose, protein, and lipid metabolism, on monoamine and peptide messenger related receptor production, on liver, kidney and pituitary-endocrine func-