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Nucleotide sequence of complementary DNA and derived amino acid sequence of murine complement protein C3

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The nucleotide sequences coding for murine complement component C3 have been determined from a cloned genomic DNA fragment and several overlapping cloned complementary DNA fragments. The amino acid sequence of the protein was deduced. The mature β and α subunits contain 642 and 993 amino acids respectively. Including a 24 amino acid signal peptide and four arginines in the β - α transition region, which are probably not contained in the mature protein, the unglycosylated single chain precursor protein preproC3 would have a molecular mass of 186484 Da and consist of 1663 amino acid residues. The C3 messenger RNA would be composed of a 56±2 nucleotide long 5' non-translated region, 4992 nucleotides of coding sequence, and a 3' non-translated region of 39 nucleotides, excluding the poly A tail. The β chain contains only three cysteine residues, the α chain 24, ten of which are clustered in the carboxy terminal stretch of 175 amino acids. Two potential carbohydrate attachment sites are predicted for the α chain, none for the β chain. From a comparison with human C3 cDNA sequence (of which over 80% has been determined) an extensive overall sequence homology was observed. Human and murine preproC3 would be of very similar length and share several noteworthy properties: the same order of the subunits in the precursor, the same basic residue multiplet in the β - α transition region, and a glutamine residue in the thioester region. The equivalent position of the known factor I cleavage sites in human C3α could be located in the murine C3 a chain and the size and sequence of the resulting peptide were deduced. A comparison of the amino acid sequences of murine C3 and human alpha,-macroglobulin is given. Several areas of strong sequence homology are observed, and we conclude that the two genes must have evolved from a common ancestor.

Introduction

Among the complement components C3 has received particular attention for several reasons: (i) it is the most abundant complement protein in mammalian serum and therefore, as the evolutionary argument goes, probably the one which is needed in highest amounts; (ii) it plays a crucial role in both the classical and the alternative pathways of complement activation (total C3 deficiencies in humans are frequently fatal); (iii) it is one of the members of the complement family about which the most detailed functional knowledge has been accumulated (Müller-Eberhard et al. 1980; Reid et al. 1981). This polypeptide is of interest because of its multiple functions. After cleavage by the classical and the alternative pathway C3 convertases it gives rise to the small peptide C3a and the large fragment C3b. C3b binds to some of the earlier acting complement components and to microbial particle surfaces. This happens mostly in the presence of specific antibodies, but can also occur in their absence. C3b participates in the

formation of the C5 convertases of the classical and alternative pathways by specific interactions with other constituents of these enzyme complexes. A very important function of C3b, separate from its participation in the events leading to bacteriolysis, is its opsonizing capacity. It can be covalently attached to the surfaces of invading microorganisms and lead to their enhanced uptake and clearance by phagocytic cells. Other peptide fragments generated from C3 by specific proteolytic cleavage also exhibit distinct functions. Anaphylatoxin C3a binds to receptors on mast cells and leads to release of histamine and other components stored in granules (Hugli 1981). It is also a regulator of the humoral immune response (Weigle et al. 1982). Fragment C3d-K, generated by the concerted actions of the proteases factor I, cofactor H and kallikrein, acts as an inhibitor of lymphocyte mitogenesis and as a leukocyte-mobilizing substance (Meuth et al. 1983). Fragment C3d-g, generated by the combined action of factors I and H, is entirely contained within C3d-K (Ross et al. 1982; Lachmann et al. 1982; Davis et al. 1983). Trypsin and plasmin further cleave C3d-g into C3g and C3d, which lack the leucocyte-mobilizing activity (Ross et al. 1982; Meuth et al. 1983). C3d and other C3 derived peptide fragments can bind to specific cell surface receptors on distinct and functionally differentiated cell types, and thereby mediate their effects (Schreiber 1984; Fearon 1983). To understand further the functions of these active peptides and in particular their interactions with receptors, it should be helpful to know their primary amino acid sequences as well as the primary structure of the C3 polypeptide. It would allow investigators to synthesize these peptides and variants thereof and to study their actions in greater detail.

In this paper we report the sequence of murine C3 determined by nucleotide sequence analysis of cloned genomic and cloned cDNA fragments. Additionally, we have compared murine C3 with available human C3 cDNA data and with the recently published amino acid sequence of human alpha₂-macroglobulin (Sottrup-Jensen *et al.* 1984*a*).

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Recombinant plasmids pMLC3/4 and pMLC3/7 contain inserts of murine liver C3 cDNA in the vector pBR322 and were isolated and characterized as described (Domdey et al. 1982). The origin and properties of the recombinant phage λ MC3/KW4 carrying the 5'-half of the murine C3 gene have previously been reported (Wiebauer et al. 1982). Plasmid and phage DNA were prepared from large scale cultures by standard methods (Maniatis et al. 1982). Restriction enzyme fragments were recovered after electrophoresis in low melting temperature agarose gels. The fragments chosen for sequencing were: the 1956 base pair HindIII-HindIII fragment, carrying the first three exons of the gene, from λ MC3/KW4; the 1665 base pair EcoRI-PstI and 242 base pair StuI-StuI fragments from pMLC3/7 for the β chain coding sequences, and the 1990 base pair BglII-PvuI, 1239 base pair PstI-PstI and 393 base pair SalI-HindIII fragments from pMLC3/4 for the α chain coding sequences. The respective map locations of these fragments are given elsewhere (Wetsel et al. 1984; Lundwall et al. 1984). Sequencing was according to standard protocols (Bankier et al. 1983; Biggin et al. 1983). Briefly, these fragments were self-ligated to oligomerize them and then sonicated. Subfragment ends were repaired with T4 DNA polymerase and size selected by agarose gel electrophoresis. The size fraction of 300-600 base pairs was ligated randomly into the SmaI site of the phage vector M13mp8. The recombinant DNA was used to transfect Escherichia coli JM101-TG1 cells (T. Gibson, unpublished). Single-stranded phage DNA ('template DNA') was prepared from plaque-

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isolated small scale cultures and sequenced using the dideoxynucleotide chain termination method (Sanger et al. 1977; Messing et al. 1982). The sequence data were analysed with the computer programs of Staden (1982a, b).

Approximately 44000 characters of primary sequence data were generated with the dideoxy-technique in addition to the partial sequence data generated with the Maxam and Gilbert technique which have previously been published (Domdey et al. 1982; Wiebauer et al. 1982; Fey et al. 1983). Each nucleotide of the cDNA sequence given in figure 1 was sequenced on the average over six times with the dideoxy-technique, and over 95% of the sequence have been covered by two or more independent gel readings on both of the DNA strands.

RESULTS

Murine C3 coding sequences

A genomic DNA fragment from clone λ MC3/KW4, carrying the 5'-end of the mouse C3 gene and the C3 cDNA inserts of the recombinant plasmids pMLC3/4 and pMLC3/7 comprised all the sequences that are retained in the mature C3 mRNA. Suitable subfragments of these clones were prepared and sequenced as described in the experimental methods section. The resulting sequence is given in figure 1 is a composite.

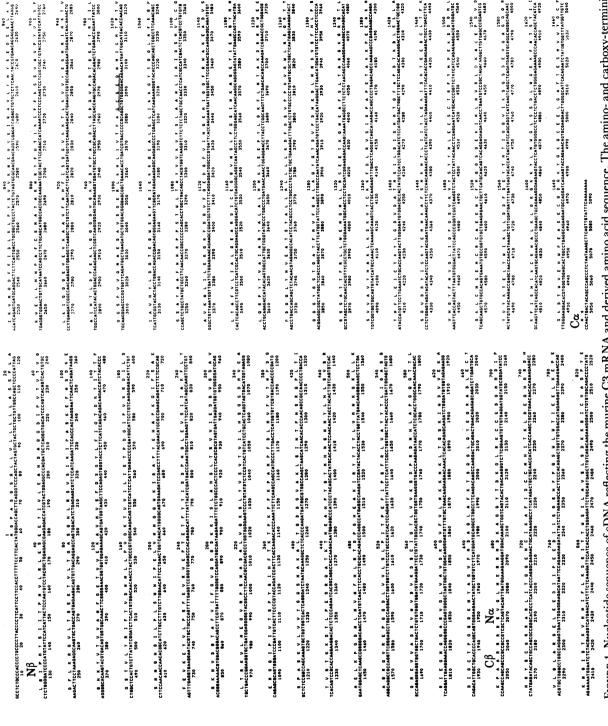
The cDNA sequence given here reflects all the nucleotides of the mature C3 mRNA, and was derived from a combination of genomic DNA and cDNA and cDNA sequences together with other experimental data reported previously (Wiebauer et al. 1982; Domdey et al. 1982). According to these data the C3 mRNA would be composed of a 56 ± 2 nucleotide 5' non-translated region, a 4992 nucleotide coding sequence (including the termination codon) and a 39 nucleotide 3' non-translated region. Altogether the mRNA would be 5087 nucleotides long, excluding the poly A tail.

The derived amino acid sequence shows a single chain preproC3 precursor polypeptide of 1663 amino acids, molecular mass 186484 Da (non-glycosylated). The signal peptide is 24 amino acids long (molecular mass 2322 Da), the mature β chain 642 amino acids (molecular mass 70641 Da non-glycosylated) and the mature α chain 993 amino acids (molecular mass 112933 non-glycosylated). Two potential carbohydrate attachment sites were located in the α chain coding sequences: amino acid residues 939 (Asn-Lys-Thr) and 1617 (Asn-Thr-Ser) in figure 1, none were found in the β chain coding sequences. The triplets (Asn-Lys-Thr) and (Asn-Thr-Ser) are known as the attachment sites for the most common carbohydrate chains in human glycoproteins (Marshall 1972). The β chain contains only three cysteine residues, the α chain 24. At the carboxy terminal end, ten of these are clustered in a noticeably ordered pattern (figure 2).

Comparison of murine and human C3 cDNA sequences

A subclone of a human C3 genomic DNA clone has previously been prepared and was reported to contain no repetitive sequences (Whitehead et al. 1982). This clone was used as a probe to screen a human liver cDNA library which was prepared by Ms T. Belt and Dr M. C. Carroll under conditions optimized for long cDNA inserts. One of the clones found contains a cDNA insert of approximately 4300 base pairs, covering the coding portion for the carboxy terminal part of human preproC3, but lacking about 600 nucleotides from the 5' end of human C3 mRNA. This insert has been sequenced with the dideoxy chain-termination

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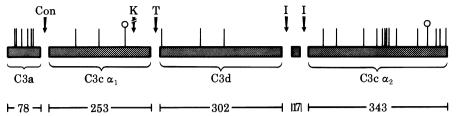


Figure 2. A proposed model for the murine C3 α chain, illustrating the position of cystein residues (vertical bars) and possible carbohydrate attachment sites $(\mathring{1})$. The cleavage sites for C3 convertase (Con), and the proposed cleavage sites for trypsin (T) and factor I (I) are indicated by arrows. The site of kallikrein cleavage (K) which occurs in human C3, but may not occur in murine C3 is shown by a slashed arrow. The number of amino acids contained in the various α chain fragments are noted under the respective fragments. C3c is composed of both C3c α chain fragments C3c α_1 , and C3c α_2 linked covalently to the β chain.

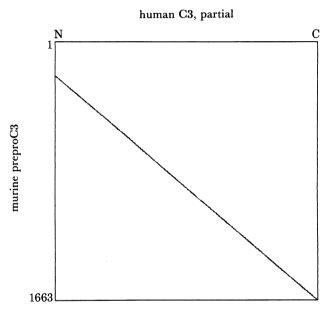


FIGURE 3. Diagonal matrix comparison of murine C3 amino acid sequence and that part of the human C3 amino acid sequence that is currently known. Horizontal axis: partial human C3 sequence, left-to-right corresponds to N-to-C orientation. Vertical axis: murine C3 amino acid sequence (preproC3). Top-to-bottom corresponds to N-to-C orientation. The correspondence line is not a diagonal, because the murine preproC3 sequence is complete and the human sequence is not. Sliding window was 25 amino acids, percentage score parameter was 280. The analysis was performed with the program diagon (Staden 1982b).

technique (M. H. L. de Bruijn, unpublished data). The nucleotide sequence and derived amino acid sequence were compared with the corresponding murine C3 sequences using the diagonal matrix computer program diagon (Staden 1982b). The result (figure 3) illustrates, that a significant sequence homology was observed on the amino acid level, evenly distributed along the whole sequence so far available. Human and murine C3 share the following properties: the order of the subunits is the same for both (N- β - α -C), the precursor proC3 contains four arginine residues in the β - α transition region (figure 4) and a glutamine residue is found in the thioester region of both molecules (figure 5).

Limited amino acid sequence data have been published for certain peptide fragments derived from human C3 (Tack et al. 1979; Tack et al. 1982; Thomas et al. 1982; Goldberger et al. 1981;

Meuth et al. 1983). By comparing those data with the human and murine C3 cDNA sequences, it was possible to locate the equivalent positions on the murine C3 sequence. For example the amino termini of two human α chain fragments generated by the action of factors I and H have been reported (Davis et al. 1983). Both of these cleavage events would occur between an arginine and a serine residue in the murine C3 α chain, after residues 1303 and 1320 in figure 1. Although no corresponding data have been reported for the murine C3 protein, it appears

(a) mouse C3 $\beta-\alpha$	P	Α	A		R	R	R	R		S	V	Q
(b) human C3 β - α	P	Α	A	+	R	R	R	R	+	s	V	Q
(c) human C4 α - γ	• • • •	R	N	+	R	R	R	R	+	E	A	P
(d) mouse C4 α - γ	R	R	s		R	R	R	R		E	A	P
(e) human corn	:		.G		R	R	R	R				

FIGURE 4. Basic residue multiplets as recognition or processing sites, or both, for enzymes involved in the maturation of mature C3 and C4 from their respective precursors. (a) Murine cDNA sequence from Domdey et al. 1982; (b) human cDNA sequence from de Bruijn, this symposium (c) human C4 cDNA sequence from Whitehead et al. (1983); (d) murine C4 cDNA sequence from Ogata et al. (1983); (e) human calcitonin gene-related peptide (c.g.r.p.) from Rosenfeld et al. (1983). Sequence between arrows known from protein sequence data not to be present in the mature polypeptide.

FIGURE 5. The internal thioester region in C3, C4 and alpha₂-macroglobulin. Asterisks indicate identical residues, an asterisk in parentheses indicates identity after hydrolysis of the thioester bond. (a) From Thomas et al. (1982); (b) from de Bruijn, this symposium (c) from Domdey et al. (1982); (d) from Campbell et al. (1981); (e) from Swenson & Howard (1980).

plausible that these positions would also qualify for cleavage of murine C3 by factor I, and that factor I may therefore be a trypsin-like protease. These positions are indicated in figure 2. Similarly, Thomas et al. (1982) have located a trypsin cleavage site eight residues upstream of the thioester site in human C3, which was used to define the amino terminus of C3d. Amino acid residue 1001 in murine preproC3 (figure 1), located at an equivalent position, is a lysine. It is considered very probable, that murine C3 would also be cleaved by trypsin at this position, and this site is therefore indicated in figure 2. An elastase cleavage site is present 13 residues upstream from this trypsin site in human C3 (Tack et al. 1982). The cleavage occurs between a valine and an alanine residue. The equivalent two murine residues (987 and 988 in figure 1) are both valines, and it is therefore not clear whether elastase would also cleave murine C3 at this position. Finally, a kallikrein cleavage site has been reported upstream of this elastase site for human C3 (Meuth et al. 1983). Together with factors I and H, kallikrein produces the C3d-K peptide, a C3d-related peptide, but larger (reported molecular masses 25000–34000 Da for C3d, 41000 Da for C3d-K, Tack et al. (1982); Meuth et al. (1983)). The C3d-K, peptide

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has two apparently independent functions: suppression of T cell proliferation and leucocyte mobilization; C3d possesses only the T cell proliferation-suppressing activity, but is unable to mobilize leucocytes. Partial amino acid sequence data for the amino termini of both peptides have been obtained, and they were found not to overlap. On this basis C3d-K was proposed to be larger than C3d by an amino terminal extension peptide of molecular mass 8000–10000 Da, that would most likely carry the leucocyte-mobilizing activity (Meuth et al. 1983). The

	K
human mouse	A V R T L D P E R L G R E G V Q K E D I P P A D A I H T L D P E K L G Q G G V Q K V D V P A A D 955
	E +
human	L S D Q V A Q M L S D Q V P D T D S E T R I I L Q G S P V V Q M
mouse	L S D Q V P D T D S E T R I I L Q G S P V Q M

FIGURE 6. Structure of a potential leucocyte-mobilizing peptide from murine C3 α. The partial sequence data of human C3d-K of Meuth et al. (1983) and of C3d (Thomas et al. 1982) were compared with the murine cDNA-derived sequence data to produce this alignment. K: kallikrein cleavage site; E: elastase cleavage site.

corresponding sequences could be located on the murine and human C3 sequences presented here. The model proposed by Meuth et al. (1983) was found to be correct. Our data suggest that the kallikrein cleavage site is indeed located on the amino terminal side of the elastase site (figures 2 and 6). However, the difference between C3d-K and C3d (generated by elastase) for the murine peptide would be only 42 amino acids.

The difference peptide, possibly the equivalent of the previously described C3e fragment (Ghebrehiwet et al. 1979), would then have a molecular mass only half as big as the value previously estimated for the human fragment (Meuth et al. 1983). Although C3d-K may be an important breakdown fragment of human C3, because it occurs under natural conditions in sterile serum (Lachmann et al. 1982), it may not have a functional analogue derived from murine C3. Kallikrein cleavage of human C3 would be predicted from the data of Meuth et al. (1983) and us to occur after an arginine residue (figure 6), whereas the corresponding residue in murine C3 (amino acid 945 in figure 1 and figure 6) is a histidine. It is therefore not clear, whether a kallikrein-like protease would cleave murine C3 at this position (figure 2).

Comparison of murine C3 and human alpha₂-macroglobulin

The complete amino acid sequence of human alpha₂-macroglobulin has recently been published (Sottrup-Jensen *et al.* 1983). We have performed a detailed comparison with the murine C3 sequence and the full account of this will be published separately (Sottrup-Jensen *et al.* 1984). Figure 7 gives the result of a comparison using the diagonal matrix computer program DIAGON (Staden 1982b).

There are approximately 15 regions of significant homology (amino acid conservation of about 25%). The thioester region and one region in the amino terminal part of the C3 β chain (amino acid residues 110–120 in figure 1) show the highest degree of amino acid conservation (30–50%). Three selected areas of high homology are printed in a residue by residue comparison in figure 8.

From these data it must be concluded that the genes for C3-and alpha₂-macroglobulin were

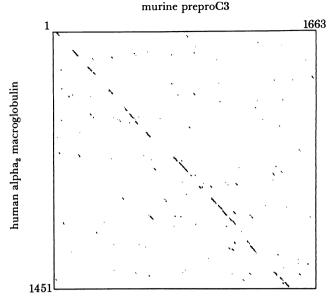


FIGURE 7. Diagonal matrix comparison of murine C3 and human alpha₂-macroglobulin amino acid sequences. Horizontal axis: murine preproC3, 1693 amino acid residues, left-to-right orientation corresponds to N-to-C orientation. Vertical axis: human alpha₂-macroglobulin, 1451 amino acids (Sottrup-Jensen et al. 1983); top-to-bottom orientation corresponds to N-to-C orientation. Sliding window was 25 amino acids, percentage score parameter setting was 280. The comparison was performed with the program diagon (Staden 1982b).

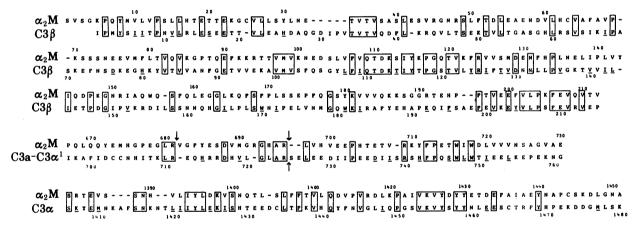


Figure 8. Homology regions between murine C3 and human alpha₂-macroglobulin (Sottrup-Jensen et al. 1984). After the strong homology regions had been located with the help of the diagon program (figure 7), visual inspection was used to optimize the alignment. Gaps or deletions were only introduced, if for each gap or deletion the overall alignment improved by at least two amino acid residues. Identical residues are boxed, chemical equivalent residues underlined. Numbering in the C3 sequence is different from figure 1 and starts with the first residue of the mature β chain. Arrows in the alpha₂-macroglobulin sequence indicate activation cleavage site (681) and possibly deleted activation site (residue 696) at the C-terminus of the remnants of an anaphylatoxin-like sequence. Arrow in the C3 sequence at this position indicates activation cleavage site for the C3 convertases.

derived from a common ancestral gene. It is striking to note, that C3 is longer than alpha₂-macroglobulin by 158 amino acid residues at its carboxy terminus, that the locations of the cysteine residues are entirely different, and that about half of the equivalent coding sequences for the C3a anaphylatoxin peptide are missing in alpha₂-macroglobulin. The arginine quartet at the C3 β - α junction would also be absent in alpha₂-macroglobulin. If this

basic residue multiplet in the transition region constitutes an essential recognition or cleavage sequence for processing, or both, as we propose, then this would explain why alpha₂-macroglobulin is a single-chain polypeptide.

A region equivalent to part of the C3 convertase cleavage site in C3 is preserved in alpha₂-macroglobulin: an alanine-arginine doublet is present in both proteins at this site (residues 695 and 696 in alpha₂-macroglobulin, 723 and 724 in prepro C3, figure 8, which corresponds to residues 747 and 748 in figure 1). However, the following two amino acids of C3 (serine and glutamic acid) have no equivalent in alpha,-macroglobulin. From the pattern of sequence conservation between both molecules that is resumed downstream of this area in alpha₂-macroglobulin (figure 8) it is likely that the corresponding two amino acids have been deleted from the alpha, sequence during evolution. This observation would explain why alpha, is not a substrate for C3 convertase-like proteases which have absolute sequence specificity for activation cleavage at this unique site (Müller-Eberhard & Schreiber 1980). It is known that several different activation cleavages of alpha₂-macroglobulin can occur in the neighbourhood of this site (around positions 680 and 708 in the alpha₂-macroglobulin sequence, figure 8, Sottrup-Jensen et al. 1984a), at a spectrum of possible sites. Although alpha₂-macroglobulin would not give rise to an exact equivalent of the C3a anaphylatoxin, it is worthwhile to note that it contains a sequence homologous to the active carboxy terminus of C3a (LGLAR) (Hugli 1981).

Discussion

Generally, it is not possible to deduce mRNA sequence from an analysis of genomic DNA sequence data only without further independently generated experimental information, because of the potential use of different transcription initiation sites and of alternative mRNA maturation pathways. Therefore, the determination of the murine C3 mRNA sequence reported here has relied not only on a combination of genomic and cDNA nucleotide sequence data, but also on two other sources of information: (i) on sequence generated by primer extension experiments, using specific cloned fragments as primer, as previously described (Domdey et al. 1982; Wiebauer et al. 1982) and (ii) on the knowledge of partial amino acid sequence data of peptide fragments from the amino terminal portion of the human and guinea-pig C3 \(\beta\) chains (see below). cDNA sequence data were derived here for the major part of the mRNA sequence, extending up to the EcoRI site (nucleotide 342 in figure 1). The EcoRI-HindIII fragment (nucleotides 342-428 in figure 1) was used, labelled at the HindIII end, for a first primer-extension experiment with murine liver mRNA as a template. The sequence analysis of the product resulted in another 100 nucleotides of sequence data. In addition to genomic sequence data, amino acid sequences for the amino termini of human and guinea-pig C3 β had been published (Goldberger et al. 1981; Thomas et al. 1982). Also, Lundwall et al. (1983) have determined partial sequences for 11 cyanogen bromide fragments of the human C3 \u03b3 chain. Two of these, CN7a and CN3 matched very well with the mouse data derived from 2 of the gene, starting with YSIITPN ... (amino acid 28 in figure 1) and VLEAHDAQGD ... (amino acid 45 in figure 1). Therefore, the sequence could be considered correct until the amino terminus of the mature β chain. The fact that the sequence of the first exon overlapped by three amino acids with the amino terminus of the \beta chain (IPM amino acid 25 in figure 1) would probably be sufficient to determine the reading frame, and therefore the translation initiation codon of the signal peptide. However, to determine the cap site of

the mRNA in a formally correct manner, another primer-extension experiment has been performed (Wiebauer et al. 1982). Here a BamHI-HaeIII subfragment of the first exon was used as a primer on murine liver mRNA, and the resulting cDNA copy was subjected to size analysis on a sequencing gel, containing the corresponding genomic DNA sequence ladder as a size marker. This experiment allowed location of the cap site with a precision of ± 2 nucleotides at the position of nucleotide 1 in figure 1. From all of these different data together it can be concluded that the sequence reported here for the mature mRNA is probably correct. The size of the mRNA determined here agrees well with the previously reported value of 5100 ± 200 base pairs, determined using different techniques (Domdey et al. 1982).

One of the main practical uses of the C3 amino acid sequence will be to determine the sequence of certain peptide fragments. Often, only partial amino terminal and carboxy terminal sequence data can be generated for such peptides on the protein level. Once these can be located on the primary structure of the whole C3 molecule, the entire sequence of the peptides can be deduced. An example of this was shown here: the murine equivalent of the small fragment generated by factor I cleavage of the human C3 α chain could be deduced. It was found to consist of only 17 amino acid residues (figure 2). Also, the sequence of the murine equivalent of the human peptide fragment, which is located between a kallikrein and an elastase site in C3d-K, was derived. This peptide could now be synthesized and the question of whether this murine fragment or further subfragments of it also contain a leucocyte-mobilizing activity similar to that of the human peptide reported by Meuth *et al.* (1983), could be experimentally answered. The synthesis of peptides involved in the interaction of C3 with the various cell surface receptors will be another important objective, whose solution may benefit from the sequence information now available.

It can be expected that functionally essential areas of the C3 molecule will have a more strictly conserved amino acid sequence between the murine and human protein than others. Therefore, from studying strictly and less strictly conserved amino acid sequences in both proteins, we may be able to generate additional predictions for the mapping of functional domains on the molecule. This expectation was already borne out in two instances reported here: the $\beta-\alpha$ transition region and the thioester region, including the glutamine residue, was found to be strictly identical. Similarly, a comparison of C3, C4, C5 and alpha₂-macroglobulin sequences would help to delineate common functional domains. Consequently, from an analysis of non-conserved regions, one might obtain indications for the location of functional domains specific for each one of these molecules. For example, the carboxy terminal 158 amino acid residues of C3 have no equivalent in alpha₂-macroglobulin, yet they contain a cluster of cysteine residues. They may therefore constitute a functional domain specific for C3. To test ultimately the idea that a certain region of a sequence constitutes an independently functioning domain, it would be necessary to synthesize a peptide reflecting this region and to demonstrate that it mediates the function in question; this may only be possible in a minority of cases. However, as pointed out above, alpha₂-macroglobulin shares some of the sequences of the functionally very important carboxy terminus of the C3a anaphylatoxin. It would be interesting to synthesize the peptide VGFYESDVMGRGHAR, located between the two arginine residues at amino acid residues 681 and 696 in figure 8, and to ask whether it mediates some form of anaphylatoxin function. This might lead to a better understanding of anaphylatoxins and possibly to the discovery of corresponding active peptides derived physiologically from alpha₂-macroglobulin.

Finally, the observed relatedness of the genes for C3 and alpha₂-macroglobulin raises one point of importance to researchers interested in the control of gene expression. It should now be possible to isolate the corresponding genes, to compare the DNA sequences involved in the control of their expression and to ask the question, why C3 is an acute phase reagent in human inflammation, and why alpha₂-macroglobulin is not.

The sequence data reported here and the comparison of C3 with other related proteins have led us to design experiments aimed at understanding the inflammatory regulation of these genes. Also, these data may become helpful in the analysis of the wild-type human C3 gene and its defective alleles, which are responsible for inherited C3 deficiencies in humans.

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