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3 **An evolutionary history of defensins: a role for copy number variation** 4 **in maximizing host innate and adaptive immune responses.**

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10 Boughton Green Road, Northampton, NN2 7AL, UK. Lee.machado@northampton.ac.uk **Keywords:** **Copy number**
11 **variation, defensins, HIV, psoriasis, Crohn's disease.**

12

13 **Abstract**

14 Defensins represent an evolutionary ancient family of antimicrobial peptides that play diverse roles in
15 human health and disease. Defensins are cationic cysteine-containing multifunctional peptides
16 predominantly expressed by epithelial cells or neutrophils. Defensins play a key role in host innate
17 immune responses to infection and, in addition to their classically described role as antimicrobial
18 peptides, have also been implicated in immune modulation, fertility, development and wound healing.
19 Aberrant expression of defensins is important in a number of inflammatory diseases as well as
20 modulating host immune responses to bacteria, unicellular pathogens and viruses. In parallel with their
21 role in immunity, in other species, defensins have evolved alternative functions, including the control
22 of coat color in dogs. Defensin genes reside in complex genomic regions that are prone to structural
23 variations and some defensin family members exhibit copy number variation (CNV). Structural
24 variations have mediated, and continue to influence, the diversification and expression of defensin
25 family members. This review highlights the work currently being done to better understand the
26 genomic architecture of the β -defensin locus. It evaluates current evidence linking defensin copy
27 number variation to autoimmune disease (i.e. Crohn's disease and psoriasis) as well as the contribution
28 CNV has in influencing immune responses to HIV infection.

29 **Word count: 2298**

30 **1. Introduction**

31 The defensins represent a class of cationic antimicrobial peptides that play pivotal roles in innate and
32 adaptive immunity as well as roles in non-immunological processes. They constitute an ancient and
33 diverse gene family, present in most multicellular organisms ranging, from plants, fungi, insects,
34 molluscs and arachnids to mammals, including humans. During their evolutionary history, defensins
35 have become highly diversified and have acquired novel functions in different species. Defensins have
36 evolved to be highly efficient in their antimicrobial responses to a vast array of pathogens.

37 The term "Defensins" was coined in 1985 after granule rich sediments were purified from human and
38 rabbit neutrophils. This resulted in the characterization of the primary structure of the first six

39 neutrophils defensins (later known as α -defensins) (1–3). These early studies highlighted the structural
40 hallmarks of defensins: That is, despite poor sequence identity across family members, all defensins
41 possess a highly conserved motif of six cysteine residues that is key to their antimicrobial function.
42 Subsequently, peptides with similar structure were discovered in the early 1990s in bovine (4) and
43 mouse airway first (5) and subsequently in the human intestinal epithelium (6), and became known as
44 β -defensins. The recent ability to interrogate genomic and proteomic data from a diverse array of
45 species allowed the discovery and characterization of further members of the defensin gene family,
46 intensifying interest in unveiling the roles of defensins in physiological and pathological processes.

47 This review will primarily focus on the role of β -defensins in innate and adaptive immunity. We will
48 highlight the methods currently employed to study the genomic architecture of this multifunctional
49 gene family and how complex genetic variation has an impact on defensin host inflammatory
50 responses.

51 2. Structure of β -defensins

52 The β -defensin family members have poor sequence similarity, suggesting their antimicrobial activity
53 is independent of their primary structure. Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) data has been used to
54 evaluate the 3D structure of hBD1, hBD2 and hBD3 (7,8). These data confirm a high degree of
55 similarity in their tertiary structures, despite their diverged amino acid sequences. The major element
56 of the mature peptides secondary structure is represented by three β -strands arranged in an antiparallel
57 sheet. The strands are held together by the three intramolecular disulfide bonds, formed between the
58 six cysteines. The order of the disulfide bridges can vary, characterizing each family member. The
59 amino-terminal region contains a short α -helical loop (which is absent in α -defensins). α -helical
60 structures are common for protein regions that are incorporated into cell membranes and it has been
61 proposed that this region of the β -defensin protein may anchor to bacteria cell walls (9). This is
62 supported by the presence of two sites under positive selection located in the N- terminal region that
63 may contribute to β -defensin functional diversity (10).

64 Defensins do not appear to present a distinct hydrophobic core or a common pattern of charged or
65 hydrophobic residues on the protein surface. This suggests peptide folding is driven and stabilized by
66 disulfide bond formation alone. Moreover, the characteristic β -defensin 3D structure can be preserved
67 and accommodates residues with different properties at most other positions. The first five amino acids
68 of the mature peptide sequence is vital for correct protein folding under oxidative conditions. This
69 favors the formation of the correct disulfide bonded pattern through the creation of a

70 key intermediate (11).

71 3. The evolution and divergent roles of β -defensins

72 The evolutionary relationship between vertebrate and non-vertebrate defensins is still unclear, however
73 phylogeny indicates that a primordial β -defensin is the common ancestor of all vertebrate defensins
74 and this gene family expanded throughout vertebrate evolution (12). This hypothesis is supported by
75 the discovery of β -defensin-like genes in phylogenetically distant vertebrates, including reptiles (13),
76 birds (14) and teleost fishes (15). α -defensins are mammalian specific genes, and in humans α -defensin
77 genes and different β -defensin genes are present on adjacent loci on chromosome 8p22-p23. The
78 organization of this cluster is consistent with a model of multiple rounds of duplication and divergence
79 under positive selection from a common ancestral gene that produced a cluster of diversified paralogous
80 (16,17). This expansion occurred before the divergence of baboons and humans approximately 23-63
81 million years ago (18,19). The present-day β -defensins probably evolved before mammals diverged
82 from birds generating α -defensins in rodents, lagomorphs and primates after their divergence from
83 other mammals (20). Recent evidence suggests convergent evolution of β -defensin copy number (CN)
84 in primates, where independent origins have been sponsored by non-allelic homologous recombination
85 between repeat units. For rhesus macaques this resulted in only a 20kb CNV region containing the
86 human orthologue of human β -defensin 2 gene. In humans, recent work suggest a repeat unit of 322kb
87 containing a number of β -defensin genes (21).

88 Defensin family members possess a plethora of non-immune activities and it is instructive to provide
89 some examples of the diverged nature of defensins function. Some members of the β -defensin family
90 have an important role in mammalian reproduction (reviewed in (22)). For example, there are five
91 human defensin genes (*DEFB125-DEFB129*) clustered on chromosome 20, which are highly expressed
92 in the epithelial cell layer of the epididymal duct, which secretes factors responsible for sperm
93 maturation (23). Moreover, human *DEFB118* was shown to be a potent antimicrobial peptide able to
94 bind to sperm, probably providing protection from microorganisms present in the sperm ducts
95 (24). It is noticeable how in long tailed macaque (*Macaca fascicularis*) and in rhesus macaque
96 (*Macaca mulatta*) there is a similar β -defensin, called *DEFB126*, which is the principal protein that
97 coats sperm (25); this coating is lost in the oviduct allowing fertilization to occur. In support of this,
98 the deletion of a cluster of nine beta defensin genes in a mouse model, resulted in male sterility (26).
99 In human studies, a common mutation in *DEFB126* has been shown to impair sperm function and
100 fertility (27).

101 In a second example, recent studies have suggested that some β -defensin gene products including hBD1
102 and hBD3, can interact with a family of melanocortin receptors, modulating pigment expression in
103 dogs and possibly in humans (28). Typically, there are two genes that control the switching of pigment
104 types: the melanocortin receptor 1 (*Mclr*) and *Agouti*, encoding a ligand for the *Mclr* which inhibits
105 *Mclr* signaling. *Mclr* activation determines production of the dark pigment eumelanin exclusively,
106 whereas *Mclr* inhibition causes production of the lighter pigment pheomelanin. In dogs it was
107 discovered that a mutation in the canine *DEFB103* is responsible for the dominant inheritance of black
108 coat color, which does not signal directly through *Mclr*; this insight revealed a previously
109 uncharacterized role of β -defensins in controlling skin pigmentation. Further studies have been
110 conducted on human melanocytes, discovering a novel role of hBD3 as an antagonist of the α -
111 melanocyte-stimulating hormone (α -MSH, a known agonist of *Mclr*, which stimulates cAMP signaling

112 to induce eumelanin production). As hBD3 is produced by keratinocytes, it can act as a paracrine factor
113 on melanocytes modulating α -MSH effects on human pigmentation and consequently responses to UV
114 (29). Moreover, it is known that melanocortin receptors are also involved in inflammatory and immune
115 response modulation (30).

116 4. Expression of β -defensins

117
118 Different β -defensins are present in different epithelial and mucosal tissues and can be constitutively
119 expressed or induced in response to various stimuli (Table 2). Their anatomical distribution clearly
120 reflects their ability to neutralize different pathogens and they are more abundant at sites prone to the
121 microbial infections they are specific for. For example, hBD2 is strongly expressed in lung (31); hBD4
122 is highly expressed in the stomach and testes (32), and hBD3 in the skin and tonsillar tissue (33). hBD1-
123 hBD4 are expressed in the respiratory tract, with constitutive expression of hBD1 (34) and inducible
124 expression of hBD2-hBD4 in response to inflammation or infection (35). In keratinocytes there is
125 constitutive mRNA expression of hBD1; conversely hBD2 expression is induced by
126 lipopolysaccharides (LPS) or other bacterial epitopes in combination with interleukin-1 β , released by
127 resident monocyte-derived cells. hBD3 and hBD4 are inducible by stimulation with tumor necrosis
128 factor (TNF), Toll-like receptor ligands, interferon (IFN)- γ or phorbolmyristate acetates [15]. hBD3 is
129 also induced in response to local release of surface-bound EGFR (epidermal growth factor receptor)
130 ligands via activation of metalloproteinases [46 47].

131

132 5. Antimicrobial activity of β -defensins

133

134 The most studied function for β -defensins is their direct antimicrobial activity, through
135 permeabilization of the pathogen membrane. Their exact mechanism of action is incompletely
136 understood and two different models have been proposed. The first is a carpet model, where several
137 antimicrobial peptides opsonize the pathogen surface bringing about necrosis, possibly disrupting the
138 electrostatic charge across the membrane (36). The latter is a pore model, with several peptides
139 oligomerizing and forming pore-like membrane defects that allow efflux of essential ions and nutrients
140 (33).

141

142 Defensins *in vitro* are active against gram negative and positive bacteria, unicellular parasites, viruses
143 and yeast. Cationic peptides including β -defensins are attracted to the overall net negative charge
144 generated by the outer envelope of Gram negative bacteria by phospholipids and phosphate groups on
145 lipopolysaccharides and to the teichoic acid present on the surface of Gram positive bacteria.

146

147 β -defensins also possess antiviral activity, interacting directly with the virus and indirectly with its
148 target cells. Noticeably, in mammals β -defensins are also produced by the oral mucosa and they are
149 active against HIV-1 virus: in particular hBD1 is constitutively expressed whereas the presence of a
150 low HIV-1 viral load can stimulate the expression of hBD2 and hBD3 gene products through direct
151 interaction with the virus. More specifically, hBD2 has been shown to down-regulate the HIV
152 transcription of early reverse-transcribed DNA products (37) and hBD2 and hBD3 can mediate CXCR4
153 down-regulation (but not CCR5) and internalization in immuno-stimulated peripheral blood
154 mononuclear cells (38). This mechanism diminishes the chances of infection (39) and with other
155 salivary gland components, could help to explain the oral mucosal natural resistance to HIV infection.

156 hBD3 also possesses an inhibitory effect on the influenza virus blocking the fusion of the viral
157 membrane with the endosome of the host cell, through cross linking of the viral glycoproteins (40).

158 Defensins have evolved to maximize their protective role, showing an extraordinary adaptation to
159 different environmental challenges: for instance plant defensins are particularly active against fungal
160 infections (Reviewed in (41), slowing down hyphal elongation, and some of them also evolved to gain
161 an α -amylase inhibitory activity that can confer protection against herbivores (42,43).

162 6. Immune modulatory activity of β -defensins

163 A role for defensins in proinflammatory responses and more recently immunosuppression (reviewed
164 in (44) has been delineated over the last two decades. An initial important observation was that
165 β defensins can recruit immature dendritic cells and memory T cells to sites of infection and/or
166 inflammation providing a link between the innate and adaptive arms of the immune system. A
167 mechanism for this was provided by Oppenheim's group where they demonstrated that natural and
168 recombinant hBD2 could chemoattract human immature dendritic cells and memory T cells *in vitro* in
169 a dose-dependent manner. This response was inhibited with the G α i inhibitor pertussis toxin and
170 suggested the possible involvement of a chemokine receptor(s) which was confirmed using antiCCR6
171 blocking antibodies.

172 T_H17 cells express CCR6 and respond to β -defensins chemoattractant action. Furthermore, T_H17
173 cytokines (i.e. IL-17 and IL-22) induce expression of defensins from relevant cell types including
174 primary keratinocytes potentially resulting in an amplification of T_H17 responses (45). Increased T_H17
175 levels have been reported in different autoimmune diseases, such as multiple sclerosis (46), rheumatoid
176 arthritis (47) and psoriasis (48), implicating β -defensin expression in autoimmunity. Given the role of
177 defensins in chemoattracting monocytes and macrophages and the lack of CCR6 on these cell types
178 other receptors were investigated that might mediate this chemoattractant activity. This resulted in the
179 identification of CCR2 as a receptor for hBD2, hBD3 and their mouse orthologs (mBD4 and mBD14)
180 (49)

181 In addition to signaling through chemokine receptors, defensins have been shown to function through
182 Toll like receptors (50,51). hBD2 has been shown to be a natural ligand for the Toll-like-receptor-4
183 (TLR-4), present on immature DCs, up-regulating co-stimulatory molecules and leading to DC
184 maturation, and on CD4⁺ T cells, possibly stimulating their proliferation and survival (52). On bone
185 marrow derived macrophages pre-treated with a recently identified mBD14 (53), TLR restimulation of
186 these cells resulted in enhanced expression of pro-inflammatory mediators that was G α i protein
187 dependent but independent of CCR2 or CCR6 signaling pathways (54).

188 7. β -defensin copy number variation and disease association studies

189 In humans, β -defensins genes are organized into three main clusters at 8p23.1, 20p13 and 20q11.1,
190 with another likely small cluster on chromosome 6p12 (55). At 8p23.1 a number of β -defensins are
191 found on a repeat unit that is typically present at 2-8 copies in the population, with a modal copy
192 number of 4. Each chromosome 8 copy can contain 1-8 copies of the repeat unit. The mutation rate at
193 this locus is extremely fast (\sim 0.7% per gamete) (56), indicative of the high level of plasticity in this
194 genomic region. One-copy individuals are extremely rare (57,58), and suggest that the presence of a

195 null allele might be deleterious and selected against. At the other end of the *DEFB* copy number
196 spectrum lies a proportion of high copies individuals (9-12 copies) with a cytogenetically visible CN
197 amplification at 8p23.1 that has no phenotypic effect (59). These first experimental observations ignited
198 further interest into the chromosome 8 *DEFB* cluster. Within the repeat unit there is *DEFB4*, *DEFB103*,
199 *DEFB104*, *DEFB105*, *DEFB106*, *DEFB107*, *SPAG11* and *PRR23D1* (21,60) (Figure 1). The variation
200 in the number of repeat units between individuals in the population and likely sequence variation
201 between copies suggests that CNV of defensins may play a role in modulating defensin expression
202 (61,62) and function. The consequences of copy number variation have been explored for a number of
203 years and may include increased gene product, the production of fusion genes, the formation of extra
204 coding domains or a position effect that alters expression of the gene product (63). This extensive
205 structural genome variation in humans is particularly pertinent to diseases where defensins may be
206 implicated in their pathology. This includes a number of autoimmune and infectious diseases (Table
207 1).

208 Mapping of the β -defensin CNV region has been challenging but recent data fixes the minimal length
209 of the CNV at 157 kb (64) and a recent study using high density array comparative genomic
210 hybridization combined with Paralogue Ratio Test (PRT) assays suggests it may be as large as 322kb
211 (21). Because of the extensive copy number variation of defensins, robust methods are required to
212 accurately interrogate copy number states in disease cohorts. Various locus specific techniques for CN
213 determination have been utilized including Multiplex Amplifiable Probe Hybridization (MAPH) (65),
214 Multiple Ligation Probe Amplification (MLPA) (66) and PRT (67). The advantage of such techniques
215 is the ability to obtain data that clusters around integer copy numbers providing a high degree of
216 concordance between the methods and confidence in the copy number obtained. Association studies
217 investigating some CNVs (i.e. *CCL3L1/CCL4L2* in HIV) have provided conflicting results as the
218 methods used did not generate data that clustered around integer copy number values (68,69). In some
219 cases initial findings have been replicated in subsequent studies that have utilized more robust methods
220 (70).

221 In early association studies of multi-allelic CNV and disease, copy number variation of defensins was
222 implicated in psoriasis. Individuals with more than five β -defensin copies presented a five-fold
223 increased risk of developing psoriasis when compared to two copy individuals. In addition, there was
224 a direct correlation between the number of copies and relative risk (odds ratio of 1.32) (71) This
225 association was replicated (although with reduced odds ratio) in a subsequent study (72). In the case of
226 an autoimmune condition, such as psoriasis, high copy number may contribute to the strong induction
227 of hBD2 and hBD3, conferring protection from bacterial infections of the psoriatic lesions (73).

228 Another disease strongly linked with defensin expression is Crohn's disease (CD) where it has been
229 demonstrated that reduced Paneth cell expression of defensins in the ileum results in ileal CD.
230 Therefore defensin expression at this site may be important in maintaining the mucosal microbiota.
231 *NOD2* has been strongly implicated in the pathogenesis of CD from GWAS (74) giving a 17.1-fold
232 increased risk for CD in homozygous or compound heterozygous individuals. *NOD2* is a Nod like
233 family receptor (NLR) member that controls expression of defensins in CD. Polymorphisms in *NOD2*
234 result in reduced α -defensin expression and exacerbated disease. Polymorphism of the *DEFBI* (non
235 CNV gene) promoter has been associated with CD (75). So is there a role for copy number variation in
236 CD? Previous studies indicated that α -defensin copy number may be important (76). However, recent
237 work that accurately measured copy number using PRTs to determine copy number of *DEFA1A3*

238 determined that a SNP (rs4300027) is associated with *DEFB1A3* CN in Europeans (77). This SNP was
239 then used to indirectly interrogate GWAS data and suggested that α -defensins CNV may not be
240 important in CD. A similar outcome was obtained with β -defensin copy number whereupon accurate
241 measurement, there was no association with the CD (57) in contrast to previous reports (78,79). These
242 results however do not exclude the role of α and β -defensin expression in the pathogenesis of CD but
243 suggest that the individuals copy number state may not be important in this context.

244 Given the suspected anti-viral role of defensins, it was suggested that defensin CNV may be important
245 in host responses to HIV infection. There are a number of conflicting reports of the association between
246 defensin copy number and HIV infection (80–82). A surprising finding from a cohort study that
247 evaluated two sub-Saharan populations with HIV-1 or HIV-1/tuberculosis coinfection was that high
248 copy number of β -defensins did not result in the predicted low viral load and did not improve immune
249 reconstitution in patients (83). The converse was found suggesting that the immune modulatory
250 properties of defensins may be subverted during HIV-1 infection. A model suggested to explain this
251 apparently paradoxical result was that high copy number may promote increased recruitment of CCR6
252 expressing cell types that are highly permissive for HIV-1 infection thus amplifying the foci of HIV-1
253 infection.

254 **Conclusions**

255 Defensins play a key role in pathogen host interactions and are at the interface of innate and adaptive
256 immunity. The complex genetic variation that underlies the evolutionary history of defensins and their
257 biology is gradually being elucidated, suggesting defensin copy number variation is an important
258 contributor to maximizing the host innate and adaptive response. The history of the defensin gene
259 family is particularly paradigmatic given that many CNV loci in the human genome host immunity
260 genes. Further studies should be conducted to better understand the genomic architecture of multi-
261 allelic CNVs. This will aid the development of robust assays that evaluate the overall impact that CNV
262 has on and both physiological and pathological mechanisms of immunity.

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267

271 **Figure 1. Genome assembly of β -defensin repeat unit at 8p23.1**

| <i>DEFB</i> cluster CN calls per diploid genome | Sample size | Methods used for CN calling | Association study? | Findings | Reference |
|--|--|---|---|--|---|
| 2-12 | 90 controls 12 related individuals from 3 families with chr8p23 euchromatic variant (EV) | MAPH SQ-FISH | No | Average CN distribution of 2-7 for controls. Average CN distribution of 2-7 for EV carriers | (Hollox <i>et al.</i> , 2003)(84) |
| 2-8 | 27 unrelated samples | qPCR | No | Concordant CN for <i>DEFB4</i> and <i>DEFB103</i> | (Linzmeier & Ganz, 2005) (85) |
| 2-10 | 355 patients with cystic fibrosis 167 UK controls | MAPH | Cystic fibrosis | <i>DEFB</i> CN is not associated with cystic fibrosis | (Hollox <i>et al.</i> , 2005) (86) |
| 2-7 for <i>DEFB4</i> | 44 samples | qPCR | No | Discordant CN for <i>DEFB4</i> , <i>DEFB103</i> and <i>DEFB104</i> . | (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2006) (87) |
| 2-10 | 250 CD patients 252 controls | Array-CGH qPCR | Crohn's disease | <3 copies associated with CD (OR=3.06) | (Fellermann <i>et al.</i> , 2006) (79) |
| 2-12 | 498 cases 305 controls | MAPH PRT | Psoriasis | Higher CN associated with psoriasis RR=1.69 >6 copies. | (Hollox <i>et al.</i> , 2007) (71) |
| 2-8 | >800 samples | MAPH/REDVR, MLPA and array-CGH. All validated through PRT | No | PRT is a reliable method for CNV analysis | (Armour <i>et al.</i> , 2007) (67) |
| 2-9 | 42 samples | MLPA | No | Strict copy number concordance for all genes in the chr8p23.1 <i>DEFB</i> cluster | (Groth <i>et al.</i> , 2008) (88) |
| 1-12 | 208 offspring from 26 CEPH families | PRT Microsatellite analysis | No | Fast germline copy number recombination of <i>DEFB</i> cluster (~0.7% per gamete) | (Abu Bakar <i>et al.</i> , 2009) (56) |
| 1-12 in CD patients 2-9 in controls | 466 CD patients 329 controls | qPCR | Crohn's disease | >4 copies associated with CD (OR=1.54) | (Bentley <i>et al.</i> , 2009) (78) |
| 1-10 | 1000 Crohn's disease (CD) patients 500 controls | PRT on all samples qPCR on 625 samples | Crohn's disease | <i>DEFB</i> copy number is not associated with CD (Higher accuracy in CN calling and a larger cohort compared with previous studies on CD) | (Aldhous <i>et al.</i> , 2010) (57) |
| 1-9 | 1,056 individuals from the HGDP-CEPH panel | PRT | No | Recent selection of high-expressing <i>DEFB103</i> gene copy in East Asia | (Hardwick <i>et al.</i> , 2011) (89) |
| 1-9 | 1002 Ethiopian and Tanzanian HIV and HIV/TB patients | PRT | HIV viral load in HIV only and HIV/TB patients | Increased HIV load prior to HAART ($P = 0.005$) and poor immune reconstitution following initiation of HAART ($P = 0.003$) | (Hardwick <i>et al.</i> , 2012) (90) |
| 2-7 | 543 SLE patients 112 AASV patients 523 controls | PRT 515 samples validated with REDVR | Systemic lupus erythematosus ANCA associated small vasculitis (AASV) | Higher CN associated with SLE and AASV. (SLE OR=1.2; AASV OR=1.5) | (Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2012) (91) |
| 2-8 | 70 PDAC patients 60 CP patients 392 controls | MLPA | Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) Chronic pancreatitis (CP) | Protective effect of high <i>DEFB</i> CN against PDAC (Fisher's exact test $p=0.027$) | (Taudien <i>et al.</i> , 2012) (92) |
| 1-9 | 2343 samples (689 children and 1149 adults) | PRT | Asthma Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) | <i>DEFB</i> CN is not associated with lung function in the general population (OR=0.89) | (Wain <i>et al.</i> , 2014) (93) |
| 2-9 | 113 otitis media prone children 259 controls | PRT | Susceptibility to otitis media | <i>DEFB</i> CN associated with nasopharyngeal microbiota composition (with respect to the three predominant pathogens for otitis media: <i>S.pneumoniae</i> , <i>M. catarrhalis</i> and <i>H. influenzae</i>). | (Jones <i>et al.</i> , 2014) (94) |

Table 1. Summary of β -defensin CNV studies. AASV: ANCA Associated Small Vasculitis; array-CGH: array Comparative Genomic Hybridization; CD: Crohn's disease; CEPH: Centre d'Etude du Polymorphisme Humain DNA panel; COPD: Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. CP: Chronic Pancreatitis; HAART: Highly Active Anti-Retroviral Therapy; HGDP: Human Genome Diversity cell line Panel; MAPH: Multiplex Amplifiable Probe

- 3 Hybridization; **MLPA**: Multiplex Ligation-Dependent Probe Amplification; **PDAC**: Pancreatic Ductal Adenocarcinoma;
4 **PRT**: Parologue Ratio Test; **REDVR**: Restriction Enzyme Digest Variant Ratio; **SLE**: Systemic Lupus Erythematosus;
5 **SQ-FISH**: Semi-Quantitative Fluorescence *in Situ* Hybridization; **TB**: tuberculosis

| Gene | Peptide | Tissue distribution | Synthesis and regulation | Date |
|----------------|----------------------------------|---|--|------|
| <i>DEFB4</i> | Human β -defensin 2 (HBD2) | Oral (95) and nasal mucosa (96), lungs (31), plasma (97), salivary glands (95), small and large bowel (98), stomach (99), eyes (100), skin (101), and kidney with chronic infections (102). | Inducible in response to viruses (103), bacteria (98), lipopolysaccharide (95,104), peptidoglycan (105), lipoproteins (106), cytokines (IL1 α (98), IL-1 β (107), TNF (108)), PMA (109), IFN- γ (HBD3 only, and growth factors. TLR2-mediated expression of HBD2 (110). | |
| <i>DEFB103</i> | Human β -defensin 3 (HBD3) | Leukocytes, placenta, testis, heart, skeletal muscle (112), urinary tract (113) | Constitutive expression on ocular surface (HBD3) (100). HBD3 CSE inducible (111). | |
| <i>DEFB104</i> | Human β -defensin 4 (HBD4) | Gastric antrum, oral mucosa (114) and testis | Constitutive or inducible in response to PMA (109), TNF- α (109) and bacteria. Constitutive mRNA expression in gingival keratinocytes (114). | |
| <i>DEFB105</i> | Human β -defensin 5 (HBD5) | Testis | <i>In vitro</i> antimicrobial activity against <i>E.coli</i> but not <i>S.aureus</i> (115). Constitutive mRNA expression in testis (116). HBD5 CSE inducible (111). | |
| <i>DEFB106</i> | Human β -defensin 6 (HBD6) | Testis , lung (117) | | |
| <i>DEFB107</i> | Human β -defensin 7 (HBD7) | Oral mucosa (114), testis | Constitutive mRNA expression in gingival keratinocytes (114). Constitutive mRNA expression in testis (116). | |
| <i>DEFB108</i> | Human β -defensin 8 (HBD8) | Lung, oral mucosa (114) | Inducible by IL-1 β (7) and <i>Candida spp</i> (114). Constitutive mRNA expression in testis (116). | |
| <i>DEFB109</i> | Human β -defensin 9 (HBD9) | Oral mucosa (114), lung, ocular surface (100) | Constitutive mRNA expression in gingival keratinocytes (114). Constitutive expression on ocular surface (100). mRNA almost ubiquitously expressed (117). CSE inducible (111). | |

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Figure 1.TIF

