



Collagen fibril formation in vitro and in vivo

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1 **Fell Muir Review**

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Collagen fibril formation *in vitro* and *in vivo*

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16 **Abstract**

17 It is a great honour to be awarded the Fell Muir Prize for 2016 by the British Society of
18 Matrix Biology. As recipient of the prize I am taking the opportunity to write a mini-review
19 on collagen fibrillogenesis, which has been the focus of my research for 33 years. This is the
20 process by which triple helical collagen molecules assemble into centimetre-long fibrils in
21 the extracellular matrix of animals. The fibrils appeared a billion years ago at the dawn of
22 multicellular animal life as the primary scaffold for tissue morphogenesis. The fibrils occur in
23 exquisite three-dimensional architectures that match the physical demands of tissues; for
24 example orthogonal lattices in cornea, basket-weaves in skin and blood vessels, and parallel
25 bundles in tendon, ligament, and nerves. The question of how collagen fibrils are formed
26 was posed at the end of the nineteenth century. Since then we have learned about the
27 structure of DNA and the peptide bond, understood how plants capture the sun's energy,
28 cloned animals, discovered antibiotics, and found ways of editing our genome in the pursuit
29 of new cures for diseases. However, how cells generate tissues from collagen fibrils remains
30 one of the big unsolved mysteries in biology. In this review I will give a personal account of
31 the topic and highlight some of the approaches that my research group are taking to find
32 new insights.

33

34 **A brief introduction to collagen**

35 There are several excellent reviews on the collagen family and collagen structure (two such
36 examples are (Bella, 2016, Mienaltowski and Birk, 2014)) and therefore only a brief account
37 will be given here.

38 Collagens are a large family of proteins that have three left-handed polyproline II-
39 like helices wound into a right-handed supercoiled triple helix. The chains have a repeating
40 Gly-X-Y triplet in which glycine is located at every third residue position and X and Y are
41 frequently occupied by the imino acids proline and hydroxyproline (see (Bella, *et al.*, 1994,
42 Brodsky and Persikov, 2005, Brodsky and Ramshaw, 1997) and reviewed by (Bella, 2016)).
43 The first 20-or-so collagens were identified in animal tissues at the protein level and were
44 assigned Roman numerals (reviewed by (Myllyharju and Kivirikko, 2004)). However, with
45 the advent of genome sequencing it became apparent that many more collagens exist. We
46 now know that there are 28 distinct collagens in vertebrates ((Huxley-Jones, *et al.*, 2007) and
47 reviewed by (Kadler, *et al.*, 2007, Mienaltowski and Birk, 2014)), almost 200 in *C. elegans*
48 (reviewed by (Johnstone, 2000)), and further collagens in marine invertebrates (Exposito, *et*
49 *al.*, 2010, Thurmond and Trotter, 1994, Trotter and Koob, 1989), bacteria (see (Ghosh, *et al.*,

50 2012) and references therein) and viruses (e.g. see (Legendre, *et al.*, 2011, Rasmussen, *et al.*,
51 2003)). It has become clear that the triple helix is an important motif that is not restricted to
52 collagens (Brodsky and Shah, 1995) but which occurs in a wide range of proteins including
53 asymmetric acetylcholinesterase (Johnson, *et al.*, 1977), macrophage scavenging receptors
54 (Kodama, *et al.*, 1990), complement component C1q (Reid and Day, 1990), ectodysplasin
55 (Ezer, *et al.*, 1999), and the mannose-binding lectin, collectins, and ficolins in the lectin
56 pathway (Garred, *et al.*, 2016) that are involved in mediating host-pathogen interactions
57 (Berisio and Vitagliano, 2012).

58 The polypeptide chains in collagens are termed α -chains. Because there are numerous
59 collagen genes and their protein products trimerise in a specific combination to produce a
60 collagen 'type', a nomenclature has evolved to specify a particular α -chain based on the
61 collagen type in which it is found. The nomenclature involves the α symbol followed by an
62 Arabic number followed by a Roman numeral, in brackets (parentheses). The α symbol,
63 Arabic number and Roman numeral are read together to indicate the gene that encodes that
64 particular α -chain. Thus, $\alpha 1(I)$ and $\alpha 2(I)$ denotes that these chains are found in type I
65 collagen, and are encoded by the genes COL1A1 and COL1A2.

66 Collagens can be homotrimers and heterotrimers. Moreover, some collagens of the
67 same type can be homotrimeric or heterotrimer (e.g. type I collagen can exist as a
68 homotrimer of three $\alpha 1(I)$ chains (i.e. $[\alpha 1(I)]_3$) chains or a heterotrimer of two $\alpha 1(I)$ chains
69 and a single $\alpha 2(I)$ chain (i.e. $[\alpha 1(I)]_2, \alpha 2(I)$). Furthermore, heterotrimeric collagens can have
70 3 different α -chains (e.g. $\alpha 1(IX)$, $\alpha 2(IX)$, $\alpha 3(IX)$) that are encoded by three different genes
71 (i.e. COL9A1, COL9A2 and COL9A3, respectively), and some collagen types contain specific
72 combinations of a family of 6 chains (e.g. $\alpha 1(IV)]_2, \alpha 2(IV)$ and $\alpha 3(IV), \alpha 4(IV), \alpha 5(IV)$ and
73 $\alpha 5(IV), \alpha 5(IV), \alpha 6(IV)$ (see (Hudson, *et al.*, 2003) for review)). There is chain selection
74 specificity such that of the 45 different collagen α -chains in vertebrates, only 28 different
75 types occur (see Table 1). For fibrillar collagens (Figure 1) the chain selection mechanism
76 resides in the non-collagenous sequences at the C-terminal end of each pro- α -chain
77 (Bourhis, *et al.*, 2012, Lees, *et al.*, 1997). The chain selection mechanism in other collagens is
78 less well understood.

79

80 **Fibrillar collagens**

81 The 28 collagen types that occur in vertebrates can be classified according to domain
82 structure, function, and supramolecular assembly (for review see (Mienaltowski and Birk,
83 2014)). The most abundant are the fibrillar collagens that form the basis of the fibrils in

84 bony, cartilaginous, fibrous, and tubular structures, and will be the focus of the remainder of
85 this review. The fibril-forming collagens are types I, II, III, V, XI, XXIV and XXVII. They have
86 uninterrupted triple helices of ~300 nm in length and have globular domains (propeptides)
87 at each terminus of each α -chain. Types XXIV and XXVII were identified by genome
88 sequencing and were added to this group on the basis of protein domain structure (Koch, *et*
89 *al.*, 2003) and the presence of type XXVII collagen in thin fibrils (Plumb, *et al.*, 2007).

90 Collagen fibrils are complex macromolecular assemblies that comprise different fibrillar
91 collagen types (Hansen and Bruckner, 2003). The fibrils are either 'predominately type I
92 collagen' or 'predominately type II collagen'. Predominately type I collagen fibrils occur in
93 bony, tubular, and fibrous tissues whereas cartilaginous tissues contain predominately type
94 II collagen fibrils. Collagen fibrils range in length from a few microns to centimetres (Craig, *et*
95 *al.*, 1989) and therefore have molecular weights in the tera Dalton range (based on
96 calculations described by (Chapman, 1989)). The fibrils provide attachment sites for a broad
97 range of macromolecules including fibronectin, proteoglycans, and cell surface receptors
98 such as integrins, discoidin domain-containing receptors (DDRs) and mannose receptors (Di
99 Lullo, *et al.*, 2002, Jokinen, *et al.*, 2004, Orgel, *et al.*, 2011, Sweeney, *et al.*, 2008).

100 Furthermore, the fibrils vary in diameter depending on species, tissue, stage of
101 development, (Craig, Birtles, Conway and Parry, 1989, Parry, *et al.*, 1978) and in response to
102 injury and repair (Pingel, *et al.*, 2014). Collagen fibrils are arranged in exquisite three-
103 dimensional architectures *in vivo* including parallel bundles in tendon and ligament,
104 orthogonal lattices in cornea, concentric weaves in bone and blood vessels, and basket-
105 weaves in skin. How the fibrils assemble, how length and diameter are regulated, how
106 molecules attach to fibril surfaces, and how the multi-scale organisation is achieved are
107 questions for which answers are either sketchy or not available. The extreme size and
108 compositional heterogeneity of collagen fibrils mean that they are extremely difficult to
109 study by conventional molecular, genetic and biochemical approaches. Collagen molecules
110 are also hydroxylated at specific prolyl residues (by prolyl hydroxylases), lysyl residues (by
111 lysyl hydroxylases or PLODs, procollagen-lysine 5-dioxygenases) and are non-reducibly cross-
112 linked (by lysyl oxidase (LOX) enzymes), (Eyre, *et al.*, 1984, Gistelinc, *et al.*, 2016), which
113 adds to the difficulty of studying the fibrils.

114 Collagen fibrils in tendon (Heinemeier, *et al.*, 2013) and cartilage (Heinemeier, *et al.*,
115 2016) are extremely long lived with estimates exceeding hundreds of years. Therefore the
116 collagen in the fibrils is particularly prone to modification by advanced glycation end
117 products (Thorpe, *et al.*, 2010, Verzijl, *et al.*, 2000). Thus, the two major experimental

118 approaches used in the study of collagen fibril assembly have been electron microscopy of
119 tissues to describe the organisation of the fibrils *in vivo* (explained below) and reconstitution
120 of fibrils *in vitro* using collagen extracted from tissues (explained below) or recombinant
121 collagens (e.g. (Fertala, *et al.*, 1996)).

122

123 **Collagen fibril assembly *in vitro***

124 Studies by Gross (Gross and Kirk, 1958), Wood & Keech (Wood and Keech, 1960), Hodge
125 & Petruska (Hodge, 1989), Silver (Silver and Trelstad, 1980), and Chapman (Bard and
126 Chapman, 1968), to name a few, showed that exposure of animal tissues (typically skin and
127 tendon) to weak acidic solutions (typically acetic acid) or neutral salt buffers yielded a
128 solution of collagen molecules that when neutralised and warmed to ~30°C, produced
129 elongated fibrils that had the same alternating light and dark transmission electron
130 microscope banding appearance as fibrils occurring *in vivo* (Holmes and Chapman, 1979)
131 (Figure 2). The characteristic banding pattern of the fibrils arises from *D*-staggering of triple
132 helical collagen molecules that are $4.4 \times D$ in length (where *D* is 67 nm, to a close
133 approximation). The electron-dense stain used at neutral pH penetrates more readily into
134 regions of least protein packing (the 'gaps') between the N- and C-termini of collagen
135 molecules that are aligned head-to-tail along the long axis of the fibril. The fact that fibrils
136 with *D*-periodic banding could be formed *in vitro* from purified collagen showed that all the
137 information required to form a collagen fibril was contained within the amino acid sequence
138 and triple helical structure of the collagen molecule (Hulmes, *et al.*, 1973).

139 Subsequent studies showed that collagen fibrils from embryonic tendon (which are
140 predominantly type I collagen) exist in two isoforms: unipolar and bipolar (Holmes, *et al.*,
141 1994) (Figure 3). Unipolar fibrils have all collagen molecules in the fibril oriented in one
142 direction, which gives the fibril a carboxyl and an amino tip. Bipolar fibrils (more precisely,
143 N, N-bipolar fibrils) have two amino terminal ends and a molecular polarity switch region (or
144 transition zone) in which the orientation of collagen molecules switches e.g. from N-to-C to
145 C-to-N (Holmes, Lowe and Chapman, 1994). The switch in orientation occurs over an 8 *D*-
146 period range in chick tendon collagen fibrils (Holmes, Lowe and Chapman, 1994). Notably,
147 sea cucumbers (*Actinopyga echinites*) lack unipolar fibrils and all their bipolar fibrils have the
148 molecular switch region located precisely mid-way from each fibril tip; also, the switch varies
149 in extent from 14 to 41 *D*-periods in invertebrate fibrils (Trotter, *et al.*, 1998, Trotter, *et al.*,
150 2000). Earlier studies had shown that collagen fibrils formed by cleavage of procollagen to
151 collagen (explained below) grow from pointed tips (i.e. the pointed ends of fibrils) and the

152 collagen molecules were oriented in one direction along the long axis of the fibril (Kadler, *et*
153 *al.*, 1990). Moreover, the C-tip of a unipolar fibril is required for end-to-end fusion of either
154 two unipolar fibrils (to generate a new N, N-bipolar fibril) or to one end of an N, N-bipolar to
155 generate a longer N, N-bipolar fibril (Graham, *et al.*, 2000, Kadler, *et al.*, 2000). Notably, C,
156 C-bipolar collagen fibrils have not been described. Presumably, the structure of C-tips
157 exposes binding sites to promote carboxyl-to-amino fusion of fibril tips.

158 Two schools of thought developed about how collagen molecules assemble into fibrils:
159 (1) precipitation from a solution of 'bulk' collagen by liquid crystalline ordering of molecules
160 (e.g. see (Martin, *et al.*, 2000)), or (2) 'nucleation and propagation' in which a finite number
161 of collagen molecules form a nucleus that then grows in length and diameter to become the
162 mature fibril (Gross, *et al.*, 1954). This latter mechanism is analogous to the formation of
163 inorganic crystals. The existence of fibrils of different lengths supports the notion that the
164 fibrils grow in size (which supports the nucleation and propagation model) but collagen and
165 procollagen (see below) molecules can form a liquid-like structure when packed in high
166 concentration (which supports the liquid crystalline model). In reality, these two hypotheses
167 might not be mutually exclusive; work by Hulmes and Bruns showed that procollagen
168 molecules can align in zero-D register in secretory vacuoles of fibroblasts (analogous to
169 liquid crystalline packing) (Brunns, *et al.*, 1979, Hulmes, *et al.*, 1983), which might increase the
170 rate of conversion of procollagen to collagen to nucleate fibrils. Therefore it is possible that
171 elements of both assembly mechanisms exist *in vivo*.

172

173 **A system for generating collagen fibrils *in vitro* starting with procollagen**

174 In 1984 I joined Darwin Prockop's laboratory at UMDNJ, Piscataway, NJ, USA to develop a
175 system of studying collagen fibril formation by cleavage of procollagen with its physiological
176 convertases, the procollagen N- and C-proteinases (Figure 4). Procollagen had previously
177 been shown to be the biosynthetic precursor of collagen (Bellamy and Bornstein, 1971)) and
178 there had been initial success in purifying the N- and C-proteinases that convert procollagen
179 to collagen (Njieha, *et al.*, 1982, Tuderman and Prockop, 1982). With the collaboration of
180 Yoshio Hojima who purified the procollagen N- and C-proteinases from chick tendon
181 (Hojima, *et al.*, 1989, Hojima, *et al.*, 1985), we developed a method of purifying type I
182 procollagen and cleaving it with N-proteinase to generate pCollagen, and then cleaving the
183 re-purified pCollagen with the C-proteinase in a bicarbonate buffer. pCollagen is a
184 cleavage intermediate of procollagen that retains the C-propeptide but lacks the N-
185 propeptide. This system allowed us to study collagen fibril formation in the absence of lysyl

186 oxidase and crosslink precursors (Eyre, *et al.*, 2008). The presence of crosslink precursors in
187 extracted collagen can affect collagen fibril formation *in vitro* (Herchenhan, *et al.*, 2015).
188 Using this new system of forming fibrils by cleavage of procollagen, we defined the
189 thermodynamic parameters of the assembly process (Kadler, *et al.*, 1987), the temperature
190 dependence of collagen fibril assembly (Kadler, *et al.*, 1988), and showed that the fibrils
191 form as a nucleus that grows at its pointed tips (Kadler, Hojima and Prockop, 1990). These
192 observations indicated that collagen fibrils (in the absence of lysyl oxidase-derived
193 crosslinks) exhibit a critical concentration of assembly, analogous to the self-formation of
194 inorganic crystals. Our ability to purify procollagen from cells paved the way to study how
195 mutations in collagen genes that cause osteogenesis imperfecta affect procollagen structure
196 and fibril assembly. These studies showed that mutations in type I collagen genes can
197 produce procollagen molecules that are 'kinked' (Vogel, *et al.*, 1988), slow the rate of
198 conversion of procollagen to collagen (Lightfoot, *et al.*, 1992), lead to the formation of
199 abnormal collagen fibrils (Kadler, *et al.*, 1991), and impair the ability of collagen fibrils to be
200 mineralised during the formation of bone (Culbert, *et al.*, 1995). These studies led to a
201 better understanding of how mutations in collagen genes can change the structure and
202 processing of collagen molecules and how the resultant collagen fibrils are poorer scaffolds
203 for mineralisation, as occurs in osteogenesis imperfecta *in vivo* (Culbert, *et al.*, 1996). In
204 parallel studies we also showed that the tips are the sites of diameter regulation (Holmes, *et*
205 *al.*, 1998), that fibrils formed at low C-proteinase/pCollagen ratios bore the closest
206 resemblance to fibrils *in vivo* (Holmes, *et al.*, 1996), and that the tips of fibrils are
207 paraboloidal in shape (Holmes, *et al.*, 1992).

208

209 **Collagen fibril formation *in vivo***

210 Although collagen molecules can spontaneously self assemble into fibrils *in vitro*, additional
211 factors must exist *in vivo* to explain the exquisite three-dimensional supramolecular
212 organisation of fibrils, as well as the regulation of diameter, length and composition, that
213 depend on tissue, stage of development, state of tissue ageing and repair, and which vary in
214 disease. The *in vivo* regulation of collagen fibril formation has been studied for over a
215 century, and although enormous progress has been made, the cellular mechanisms of fibril
216 assembly and organisation *in vivo* remain elusive.

217 Some of the earliest reports on the existence of collagen fibrils date back to the end
218 of the 19th century and beginning of the 20th century. For example, Mallory described a
219 'fibrillar substance' produced by connective tissue cells (i.e. fibroblasts) (Mallory, 1903).

220 Studies of collagen fibrils continued during the 1920s and 1930s during which time several
221 groups attempted to develop methods to observe the assembly of the fibrils *in vivo*. A
222 breakthrough came in 1940 when Mary Stearns published her first observations of
223 fibroblasts secreting and assembling collagen fibres (Stearns, 1940). Her paper is a ‘must
224 read’ for students of collagen fibril formation; the 46 hand-drawn plates are exquisite.
225 Stearns used the camera lucida to visualise and draw details of cytoplasmic connections
226 between cells, striations within cells, ‘vacuoles de secretion’, and fibres growing at the cell
227 surface. In so doing, she produced the first evidence that fibroblasts are instrumental in
228 assembling collagen fibrils in tissues. Almost 40 years later, Trelstad and Hayashi used
229 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to show that collagen fibrils occurred in
230 invaginations of the plasma membrane of embryonic fibroblasts (Trelstad and Hayashi,
231 1979). A decade later this observation was extended using high-voltage TEM to study
232 collagen fibrillogenesis in cornea as well as embryonic chick tendon (Birk and Trelstad, 1984,
233 Birk and Trelstad, 1985, Birk and Trelstad, 1986, Trelstad and Birk, 1985). In 2006, we used
234 serial section TEM and immunoEM of embryonic tendon to describe a variety of structures
235 at the plasma membrane that contained collagen fibrils, and which we collectively called
236 ‘fibripositors’ (Canty, *et al.*, 2004). Collectively, these studies demonstrate the exquisite
237 control the cell exerts over the self assembly of collagen fibrils to generate tissues with
238 highly organised collagen matrices.

239

240 **Fibripositors**

241 In 1989 I returned to the UK as a Wellcome Trust Senior Research Fellow in Basic
242 Biomedical Science, and joined Michael Grant’s Department of Medical Biochemistry. During
243 the next 10 years we extended our knowledge of how mutations in collagen genes affect
244 procollagen structure and fibril formation. In collaboration with Peter Byers and Gillian
245 Wallis, these studies focussed on the Ehlers-Danlos syndrome (type VII) that is caused by
246 mutations in COL1A1 and COL1A2 genes that encode the chains of type I procollagen. PhD
247 students Rod Watson, Samantha Lightfoot and Ainsley Culbert, and a postdoc David Holmes,
248 joined my lab and together we showed how mutations in COL1A1 and COL1A2 that cause
249 EDS VII disrupt the structure of procollagen, slow the cleavage of procollagen by N-
250 proteinase, and lead to the ‘cauliflower’ appearance of collagen fibrils in affected individuals
251 (Culbert, Wallis and Kadler, 1996, Holmes, *et al.*, 1993, Wallis, *et al.*, 1992, Watson, *et al.*,
252 1998, Watson, *et al.*, 1992). We also studied the function of the CUB domains in bone
253 morphogenetic protein-1, which is a potent procollagen C-proteinase (Canty, *et al.*, 2006,

254 Garrigue-Antar, *et al.*, 2001, Garrigue-Antar, *et al.*, 2004, Garrigue-Antar, *et al.*, 2002,
255 Hartigan, *et al.*, 2003, Petropoulou, *et al.*, 2005). Here, CUB is an evolutionary conserved
256 protein domain named after its discovery in complement components (C1r/C1s), the sea
257 urchin protein Uegf, and in BMP-1 (for review see (Bork and Beckmann, 1993)).

258 However, it was during a staff meeting in 2002 that I heard good advice that scientists
259 should change their experimental approach every 10 years. Up until this time, I had used
260 cells as a factory for procollagen production and had overlooked the importance of the cell
261 in fibril assembly. A new postdoc in the lab, Elizabeth Canty, took up the challenge of taking
262 our lab into new, *in vivo*, directions. We were inspired by the work of Hayashi, Trelstad and
263 Birk, and decided to ask questions about how cells regulate fibril assembly and fibril number.
264 With the assistance of David Holmes, Tobias Starborg and Yinhui Lu in the lab, Liz Canty
265 embarked on studying collagen fibril formation in embryonic chick tendon using serial
266 section electron microscopy and 3D reconstruction. Our first paper, in 2004, showed 3D
267 reconstructions from 50 x 100 nm serial sections of embryonic chick tendon, cut
268 perpendicular to the tissue long axis. These were the deepest and most detailed 3D
269 reconstructions at the time and showed finger-like projections of the plasma membrane
270 containing thin collagen fibrils (Figure 5). The 3D reconstructions showed that the
271 projections were part of an invagination of the plasma membrane, and, that the fibril within
272 the invagination and the projection were co-aligned to the long axis of the tendon (Canty,
273 Lu, Meadows, Shaw, Holmes and Kadler, 2004) (Figure 6). We called these structures
274 ‘fibripositors’ (a portmanteau of ‘fibril’ and ‘depositors’). We also showed that fibripositors
275 are actin-dependent structures (Canty, *et al.*, 2006) that projected into intercellular channels
276 stabilised by cadherin-11 containing junctions (Richardson, *et al.*, 2007).

277

278 **Serial block face-scanning electron microscopy**

279 The fact that fibripositors are too thin to be seen by light microscopy, and that no marker
280 has been identified that can aid in their visualisation by fluorescence light microscopy, has
281 been a severe hurdle to studies of fibripositor structure, function and formation. Also, the
282 effort and time involved in producing serial sections for electron microscopy is a significant
283 hurdle to further progress; sections can be lost or distorted during processing, and the
284 process requires exceptional skills in ultrathin sectioning and handling. A major
285 breakthrough came with the commercialisation of serial block face-scanning electron
286 microscopy (SBF-SEM) (Denk and Horstmann, 2004). Here, images of a block face are
287 recorded using a scanning electron microscope prior to the removal of a section by an in-

288 microscope ultramicrotome. The ability to produce serial images without manual sectioning
289 opened up new opportunities to explore fibripositor function. After optimisation of sample
290 preparation and staining, image acquisition and data analysis, Toby Starborg, Nick Kalson
291 and Yinhui Lu showed that we could use SBF-SEM as a semi-high throughput system to
292 examine fibripositor structure and function at the cell-matrix interface (Starborg, *et al.*,
293 2013) (Figure 7 and Movie). With this new approach we were able to show that fibripositors
294 are the site of fibril assembly in tendon and that non-muscle myosin II is required for fibril
295 transport and formation (Kalson, *et al.*, 2013). We also showed that fibripositor-like
296 structures called keratopodia exist in corneal keratocytes (Young, *et al.*, 2014). SBF-SEM also
297 gave us the opportunity to explore how collagen fibril formation contributes to tendon
298 development. In a *tour de force* of SBF-SEM, Nick Kalson, Yinhui Lu and Susan Taylor
299 outlined a new hypothesis for tendon development in which the number of collagen fibrils is
300 determined by embryonic tendon fibroblasts, and that the growth in lateral size of the
301 tendon is driven by matrix expansion caused by the increase in girth and length of collagen
302 fibrils (Kalson, *et al.*, 2015). SBF-SEM studies have also revealed a new function for
303 membrane type I-matrix metalloproteinase (MT1-MMP or MMP14) in being essential for
304 tendon development (Taylor, *et al.*, 2015). Taylor and colleagues showed that release of
305 collagen fibrils from fibripositors at birth requires MT1-MMP, and that the process does not
306 rely on the cleavage of collagen at the ¾-¼ vertebrate collagenase cleavage site in the
307 molecule.

308

309 **Negative regulation of collagen fibril formation during intracellular protein trafficking**

310 Canty and co-workers also made the observation that procollagen can be cleaved to
311 collagen prior to secretion by tendon fibroblasts *in vivo*. Evidence that procollagen can be
312 cleaved to collagen within the cell without forming fibrils demonstrates active negative
313 control of the self-assembly properties of collagen fibrillogenesis *in vivo* (Humphries, *et al.*,
314 2008). These observations are in contrast to what happens in conventional cell culture, in
315 which procollagen is readily purified from the cell culture medium. Presumably the
316 environment of the cell and matrix influence the trafficking of procollagen. A half-way
317 house between *in vivo* and *in vitro* is the use of 3D cell culture systems; Kapacee and
318 colleagues showed that fibroblasts incubated in fibrin gels under linear tension replace the
319 fibrin with collagen fibrils that are aligned parallel to the lines of stress and exhibit features
320 of embryonic fibroblasts *in vivo*, including fibripositors (Bayer, *et al.*, 2010, Kalson, *et al.*,
321 2011, Kalson, *et al.*, 2010, Kapacee, *et al.*, 2008, Kapacee, *et al.*, 2010). This approach

322 facilitates studies of the role of cells, in a near-physiological environment with tissue-derived
323 mechanical forces, in assembling collagen fibrils.

324

325 **Regulators of collagen fibril assembly *in vivo***

326 The fact that collagen fibrils are comprised of different collagens, that they occur in
327 different numbers and with different diameters and packing densities in different tissues,
328 that the supramolecular organisation of fibrils is different in different tissues, and that
329 collagen molecules provide interaction sites for receptors and a wide range of extracellular
330 matrix molecules, suggests that there are multiple steps in the assembly and organisation of
331 fibrils, and that each step can be error prone. Defective collagen fibrillogenesis can arise
332 from mutations in genes encoding fibrillar collagens (see Table 2), fibril associated collagens
333 with interrupted triple helices that bind to the surfaces of collagens fibrils e.g. type XII and
334 type XIV collagen (Young, *et al.*, 2002), proteoglycans that interact with fibrils e.g. decorin
335 (Danielson, *et al.*, 1997), lumican (Chakravarti, *et al.*, 1998) fibromodulin (Hedlund, *et al.*,
336 1994, Svensson, *et al.*, 1999), osteoglycin (Tasheva, *et al.*, 2002), keratocan (Liu, *et al.*, 2003),
337 and biglycan (Heegaard, *et al.*, 2007) (for review see (Kalamajski and Oldberg, 2010)),
338 enzymes required for posttranslational modification of collagen α -chains e.g. prolyl 4-
339 hydroxylase (Mussini, *et al.*, 1967), lysyl hydroxylases (Takaluoma, *et al.*, 2007), lysyl
340 oxidases (Maki, *et al.*, 2002), proteins involved in transporting collagens through the
341 secretory pathway e.g. HSP47 (Satoh, *et al.*, 1996), sedlin (Venditti, *et al.*, 2012), and
342 TANGO1 (Saito, *et al.*, 2009, Wilson, *et al.*, 2011), and proteinases involved in collagen
343 turnover e.g. MMP14 (Taylor, Yeung, Kalson, Lu, Zigrino, Starborg, Warwood, Holmes, Canty-
344 Laird, Mauch and Kadler, 2015). Loss of the collagen network in cartilage occurs in end stage
345 osteoarthritis (Ehrlich, *et al.*, 1977). Conversely ectopic or excessive accumulation of
346 collagen occurs in fibrosis, which can be stimulated by TGF- β (Roberts, *et al.*, 1986), and can
347 affect any organ often resulting in death. Thus, collagen fibrillogenesis is a precisely
348 regulated process in which the mechanisms that maintain the appropriate number, size, and
349 organisation of collagen fibrils in adult tissues appear to be sensitive to a wide range of
350 genetic mutations and environmental stimuli.

351

352 **A personal perspective on some of the most important unanswered questions in the field** 353 **of collagen fibril homeostasis**

354 We do not have clear line of sight of how the three-dimensional organisation of collagen
355 fibrils is established in tissues. Collagen fibrils first appear part way through vertebrate

356 embryonic development when the mass of matrix begins to exceed the mass of cells. At this
357 pivotal stage of development, the patterning of tissue progenitor cells has, to a close
358 approximation, been established and might be expected to dictate the patterning of the
359 matrix. Perhaps novel insights into organogenesis will come from a better understanding of
360 the interplay between cell positioning, cell-cell communication, cell-matrix interactions, cell
361 polarity, the role of the secretory pathway in directing matrix assembly, and mechanical
362 forces.

363 A further exciting area of research is matrix homeostasis; it will be fascinating to learn
364 how changes in this process lead to diseases such as osteoarthritis, tendinopathies, fibrosis
365 and cell migration through the matrix. The realisation that the bulk of the collagen in tendon
366 and cartilage is synthesised during adolescence and remains unchanged during the lifetime
367 of a person raises intriguing questions about how the collagen network is maintained during
368 life despite countless cycles of mechanical loading. Advances in genome editing and super-
369 resolution light microscopy are all likely to be brought to bear on this question. These
370 approaches are expected to lead to a better understanding of how matrix homeostasis goes
371 wrong in diseases such as fibrosis, where ectopic and excessive deposition of collagen fibrils
372 can cause death. Recent discoveries show that matrix-rich tissues are peripheral circadian
373 clock tissues and that defects in the rhythm in these tissues lead to pathologies such as
374 calcific tendinopathy (Yeung, *et al.*, 2014), osteoarthritis (Dudek, *et al.*, 2016, Guo, *et al.*,
375 2015) and intervertebral disc disease (Dudek, *et al.*, 2016). Thus, the mechanical
376 environment of the cell, the role of the matrix in modulating cell behaviour, and peripheral
377 circadian clocks are all likely to contribute to matrix homeostasis.

378

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391 research.
392

393
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Table 1. Collagen types and their chain compositions

Type	Gene	α -chain	Molecules
I	COL1A1	$\alpha 1(I)$	$[\alpha 1(I)]_3$
	COL1A2	$\alpha 2(I)$	$[\alpha 1(I)]_2\alpha 2(I)$
II	COL2A1	$\alpha 1(II)$	$[\alpha 1(II)]_3$
III	COL3A1	$\alpha 1(III)$	$[\alpha 1(III)]_3$
IV	COL4A1	$\alpha 1(IV)$	$[\alpha 1(IV)]_2\alpha 2(IV)$ $\alpha 3(IV), \alpha 4(IV), \alpha 5(IV)$ $\alpha 5(IV), \alpha 5(IV), \alpha 6(IV)$
	COL4A2	$\alpha 2(IV)$	
	COL4A3	$\alpha 3(IV)$	
	COL4A4	$\alpha 4(IV)$	
	COL4A5	$\alpha 5(IV)$	
	COL4A6	$\alpha 6(IV)$	
V	COL5A1	$\alpha 1(V)$	$[\alpha 1(V)]_2\alpha 2(V)$ $\alpha 1(V), \alpha 2(V), \alpha 3(V)]_3$ $[\alpha 3(V)]_3$
	COL5A2	$\alpha 2(V)$	
	COL5A3	$\alpha 3(V)$	
VI	COL6A1	$\alpha 1(VI)$	$\alpha 1(VI), \alpha 2(VI)$ and any of $\alpha 3(VI), \alpha 4(VI), \alpha 5(VI)$, and $\alpha 6(VI)$ (see (Maass, <i>et al.</i> , 2016))
	COL6A1	$\alpha 2(VI)$	
	COL6A1	$\alpha 3(VI)$	
	COL6A1	$\alpha 4(VI)$	
	COL6A1	$\alpha 5(VI)$	
	COL6A1	$\alpha 6(VI)$	
VII	COL7A1	$\alpha 1(VII)$	$[\alpha 1(VII)]_3$
VIII	COL8A1	$\alpha 1(VIII)$	$[\alpha 1(VIII)]_3$
	COL8A2	$\alpha 2(VIII)$	$[\alpha 2(VIII)]_3$
IX	COL9A1	$\alpha 1(IX)$	$\alpha 1(IX), \alpha 2(IX), \alpha 3(IX)$
	COL9A2	$\alpha 2(IX)$	
	COL9A3	$\alpha 3(IX)$	
X	COL10A1	$\alpha 1(X)$	$[\alpha 1(X)]_3$
XI	COL11A1	$\alpha 1(XI)$	$[\alpha 1(XI)]_2\alpha 2(XI);$ $\alpha 1(XI), \alpha 2(XI), \alpha 3(XI)^*$ $[\alpha 2(XI)]_3$
	COL11A2	$\alpha 2(XI)$	
XII	COL12A1	$\alpha 1(XII)$	$[\alpha 1(XII)]_3$
XIII	COL13A1	$\alpha 1(XIII)$	$[\alpha 1(XIII)]_3$
XIV	COL14A1	$\alpha 1(XIV)$	$[\alpha 1(XIV)]_3$
XV	COL15A1	$\alpha 1(XV)$	$[\alpha 1(XV)]_3$
XVI	COL16A1	$\alpha 1(XVI)$	
XVII	COL17A1	$\alpha 1(XVII)$	
XVIII	COL18A1	$\alpha 1(XVIII)$	
XIX	COL19A1	$\alpha 1(XIX)$	
XX	COL20A1	$\alpha 1(XX)$	
XXI	COL21A1	$\alpha 1(XXI)$	
XXII	COL22A1	$\alpha 1(XXII)$	
XXIII	COL23A1	$\alpha 1(XXIII)$	
XXIV	COL24A1	$\alpha 1(XXIV)$	
XXV	COL25A1	$\alpha 1(XXV)$	
XXVI	COL26A1	$\alpha 1(XXVI)$	
XXVII	COL27A1	$\alpha 1(XXVII)$	$[\alpha 1(XXVII)]_3$
XXVIII	COL28A1	$\alpha 1(XXVIII)$	$[\alpha 1(XXVIII)]_3$

395 * the $\alpha 3(XI)$ chain is encoded by the COL2A1 gene

396

397 **Table 2. Diseases caused by mutations in genes encoding fibrillar collagens**

Collagen type	Gene	OMIM	Disease	Mouse models
I	COL1A1	120150	Osteogenesis imperfecta (OI);	Mov13 (Bonadio, <i>et al.</i> ,

			Ehlers Danlos syndrome type VII	1990); Col1a1(Jrt/+) OI/EDS mouse (Chen, <i>et al.</i> , 2014)
	COL1A2	120160	Osteogenesis imperfecta (OI); Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type VII	OIM (Chipman, <i>et al.</i> , 1993); Col1a2(+G610C) OI (Amish) mouse (Daley, <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
II	COL2A1	120140	Stickler syndrome; Achondrogenesis; Familial avascular necrosis of the femoral head; Legg-Calves-Perthes disease Kniest dysplasia; Spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia congenital (SEDC); Czech dysplasia; Myopia 2; Marshall syndrome; Epiphyseal dysplasia; Platyspondylic lethal skeletal dysplasia	(Donahue, <i>et al.</i> , 2003, Gaiser, <i>et al.</i> , 2002, Garofalo, <i>et al.</i> , 1991, Li, <i>et al.</i> , 1995, Vandenberg, <i>et al.</i> , 1991);
III	COL3A1	120180	Ehlers Danlos syndrome type IV; Intracranial berry aneurysm	(Liu, <i>et al.</i> , 1997); Tsk2 mouse (Long, <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
V	COL5A1	120215	Nail patella syndrome; Ehlers Danlos syndrome classic type	(Wenstrup, <i>et al.</i> , 2004)
	COL5A2	120190	Ehlers Danlos syndrome type I or type II	(Andrikopoulos, <i>et al.</i> , 1995)
	COL5A3	120216		(Huang, <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
XI	COL11A1	120280	Stickler syndrome; Otospondylomegaepiphyseal dysplasia (OSMED); Marshall syndrome	Cho/cho mouse (Li, <i>et al.</i> , 1995)
	COL11A2	120290	Stickler syndrome; Otospondylomegaepiphyseal dysplasia	(McGuirt, <i>et al.</i> , 1999); (Li, <i>et al.</i> , 2001)
XXIV	COL24A1	610025		
XXVII	COL27A1	608461	Steel syndrome (Gonzaga-Jauregui, <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	(Plumb, <i>et al.</i> , 2011)

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403 **Figure legends**

404

405 Figure 1: Schematic diagram of the chain composition of the fibril-forming collagens

406

407 **Figure 2: Transmission electron microscopy of individual collagen fibrils**

408 A. Single collagen fibril from 18-day chick embryonic metatarsal tendon. The fibril is
409 negatively stained with 2% uranyl acetate to show the characteristic light and dark
410 banding pattern.

411 B. Schematic representation of the axial arrangement of collagen molecules in a
412 collagen fibril. Each collagen molecule is represented with three coiled chains with
413 amino and carboxy termini indicated. Each molecule is $4.4 \times D$ in length, where $D \sim$
414 67 nm. The D-stagger of molecules that are $4.4D$ long leads to the formation of a gap
415 zone in the axial structure.

416 C. The characteristic negative staining pattern of collagen fibrils, as shown by 1%
417 sodium phosphotungstate staining at neutral pH.

418

419 **Figure 3: Unipolar and bipolar collagen fibrils**

420 A. Negatively-stained unipolar collagen fibril isolated from embryonic chick
421 metatarsal tendon. Analysis of the staining pattern shows that the collagen
422 molecules are oriented with their amino terminal to the right hand side (as
423 shown) and the carboxy termini to the left.

424 B. Negatively-stained N, N-bipolar collagen fibril from embryonic chick tendon
425 showing the molecular polarity switch region (box).

426 C. Enlargement of the box in B.

427

428 **Figure 4: Schematic representation of collagen fibril formation by cleavage of procollagen**

429 Sequential cleavage of the N-propeptides (by procollagen N-proteinase, which are ADAM 2,
430 3, 14) and the C-propeptides (by procollagen C-proteinase, which are the BMP-1/Tolloid
431 family) of procollagen generates collagen that self-assembles into unipolar collagen fibrils
432 (Kadler, Hojima and Prockop, 1987).

433

434 **Figure 5. Transmission electron microscopy of embryonic tendon**

435 Embryonic tendon contains bundles of collagen fibrils between adjacent fibroblasts. The
436 image shows profiles of fibripositors.

437

438 **Figure 6: A fibripositor at the plasma membrane of an embryonic fibroblast**

439 Transmission electron microscope image of a collagen fibril contained within a fibripositor at
440 the surface of an embryonic mouse tail-tendon fibroblast.

441

442 **Figure 7: Serial block face-scanning electron microscopy for studies of the cell-matrix**
443 **interface**

444 Three images from the downloadable Movie generated by serial block face-scanning
445 electron microscopy. The coloured circles show fibripositors. Numbers refer to the image
446 sequence.

447

448 **Movie: Step-through movie of consecutive images of embryonic mouse tendon generated**
449 **by serial block face-scanning electron microscopy**

450 E17.5 mouse-tail tendon was prepared for serial block face-scanning electron microscopy as
451 described previously (Starborg, Kalson, Lu, Mironov, Cootes, Holmes and Kadler, 2013).

452 Images were recorded prior to 100 nm-thick sections being removed sequentially from the
453 block face. The movie shows 60 consecutive images covering a z-depth of 6 μm . Fibripositors
454 are highlighted with coloured circles.

455

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457

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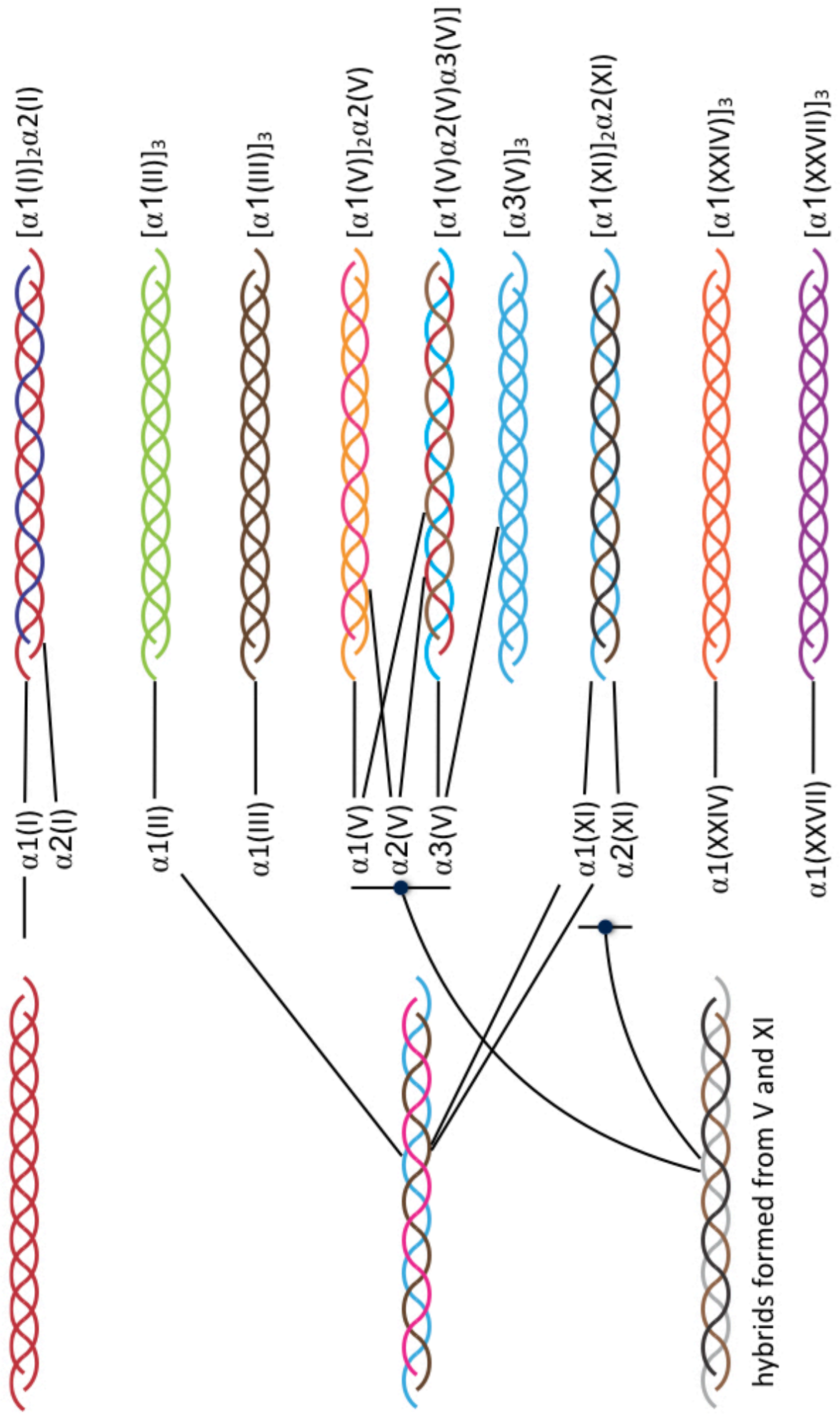
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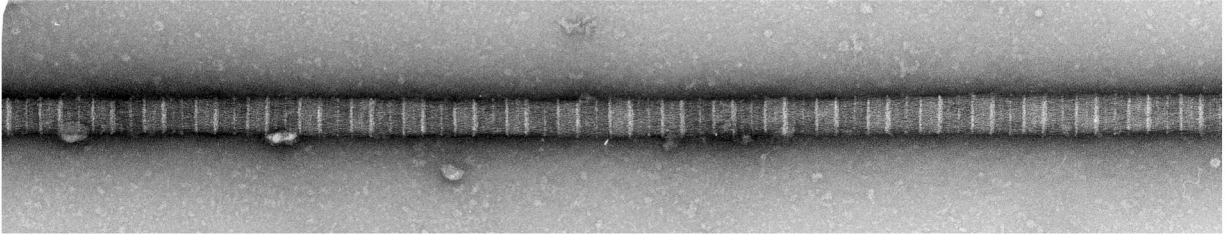
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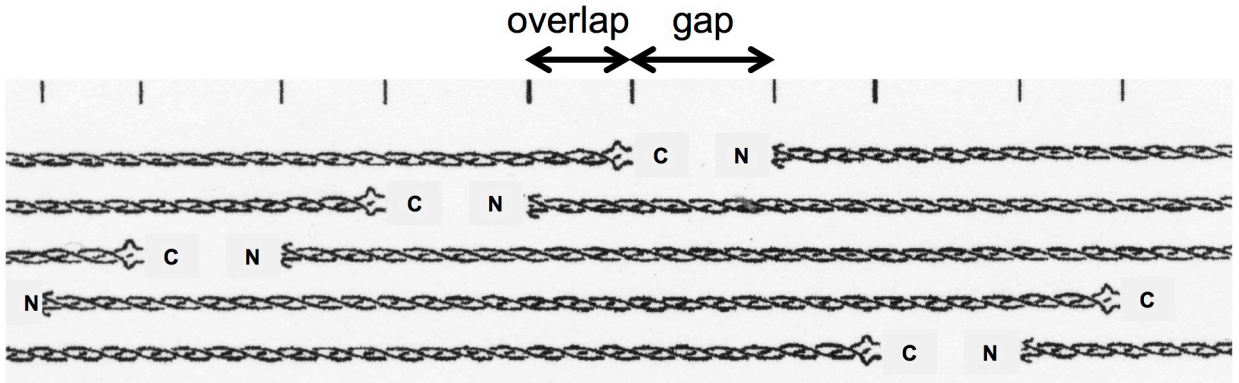
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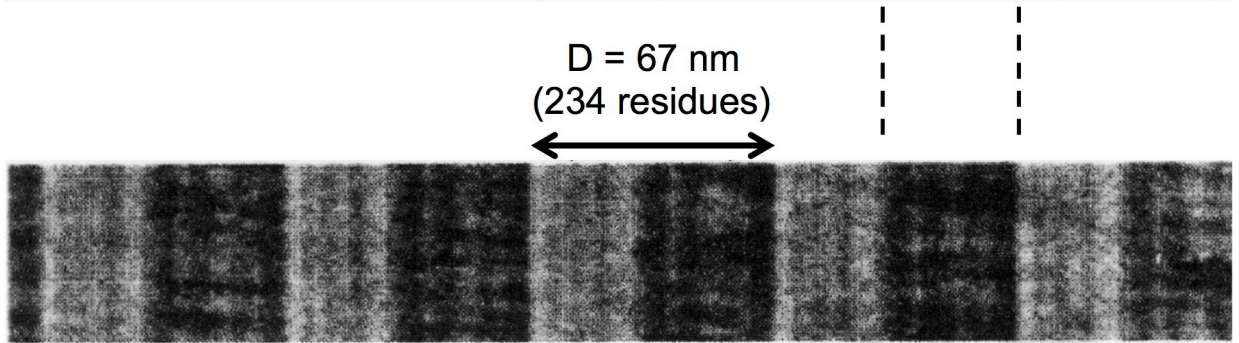
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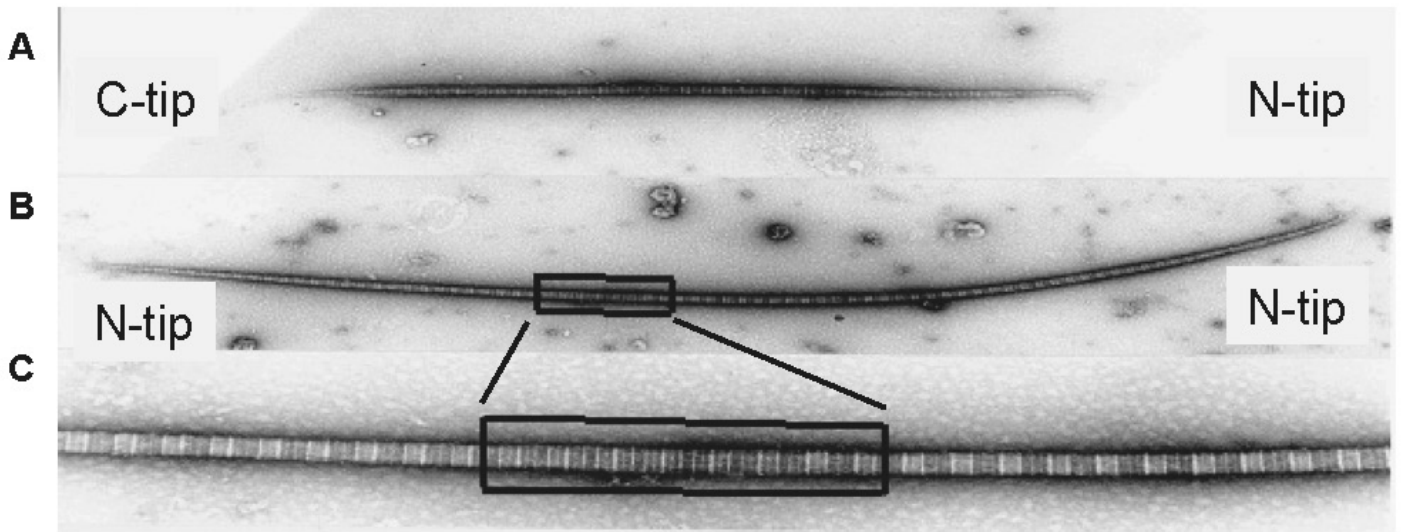


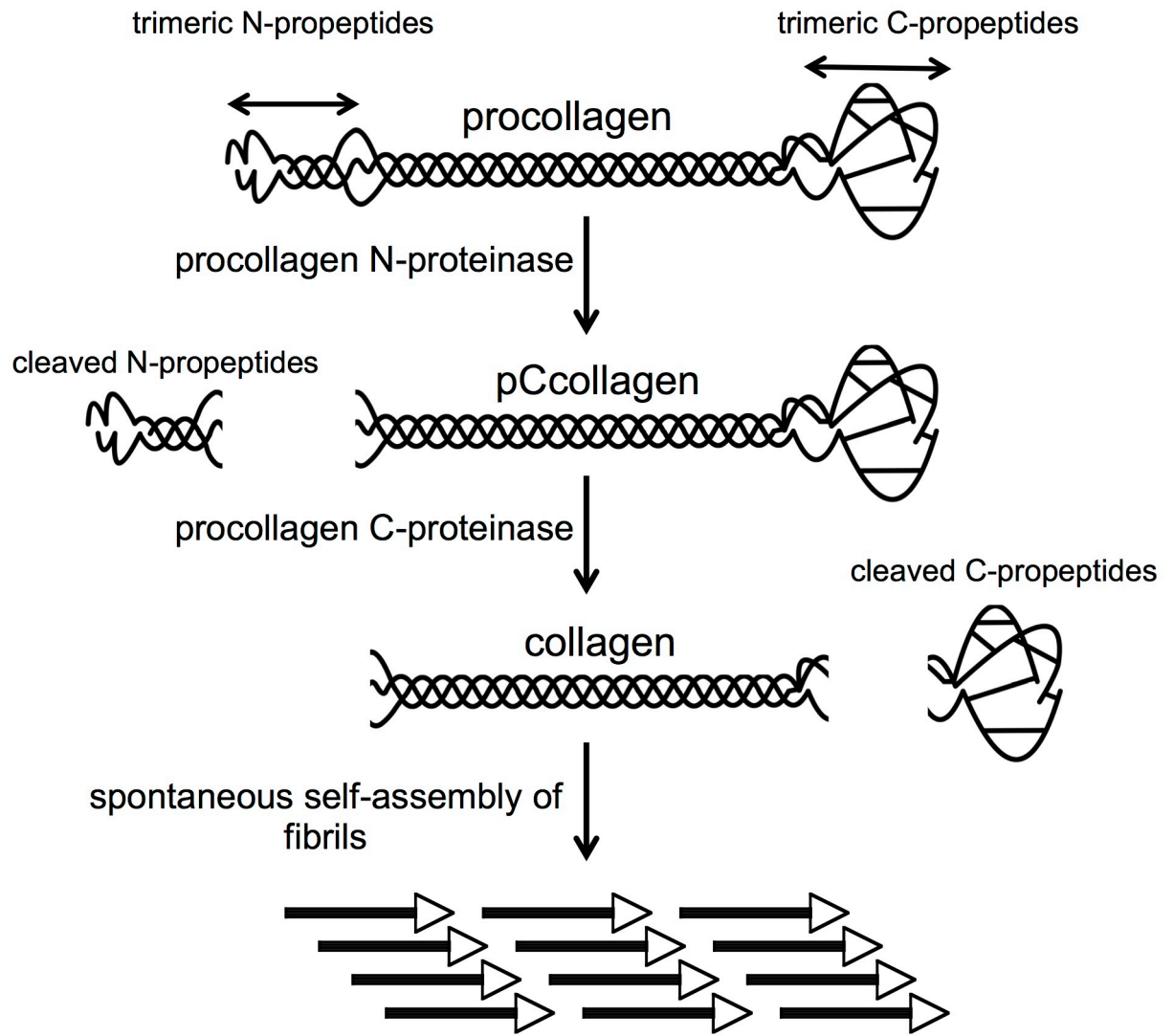
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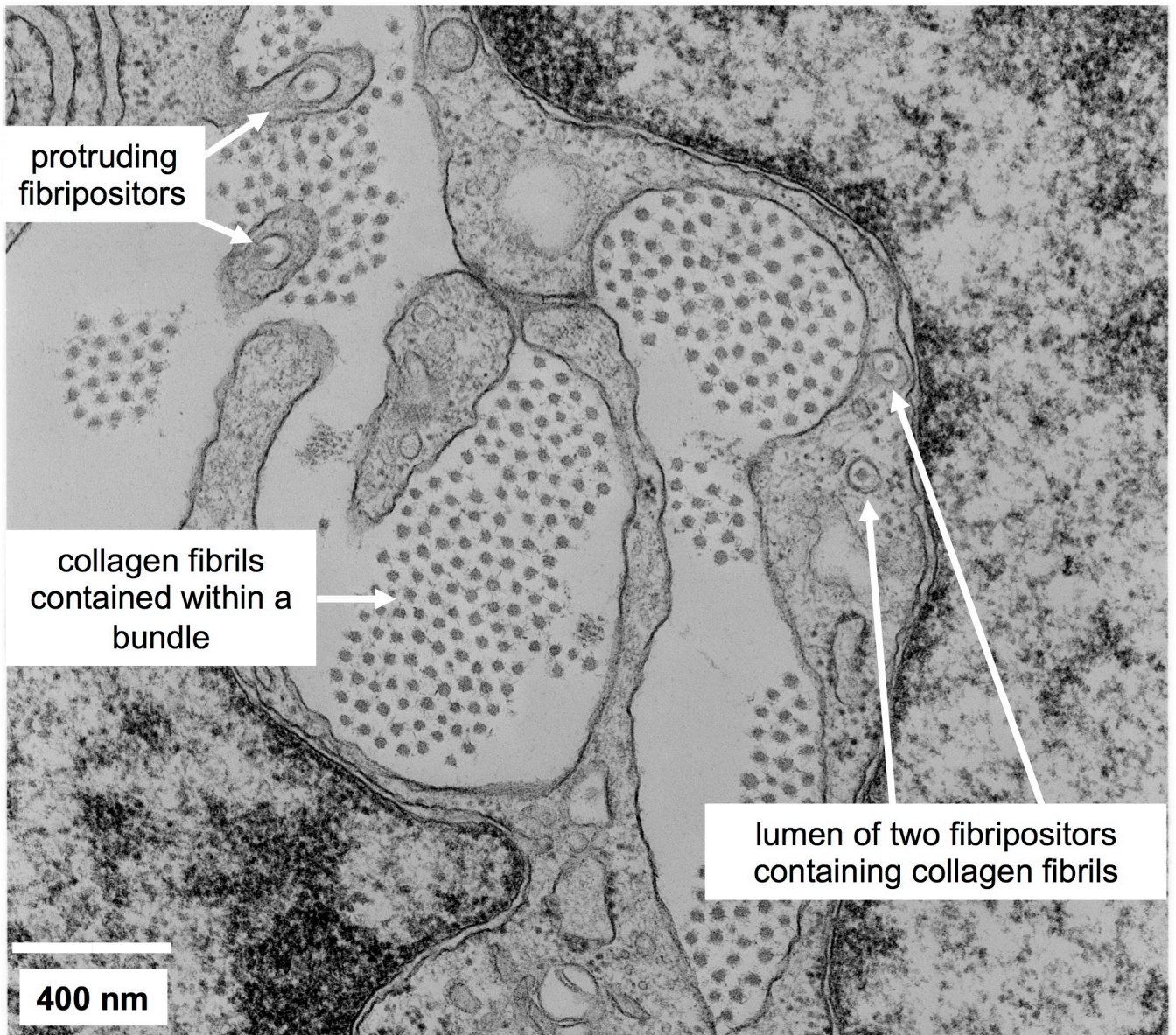


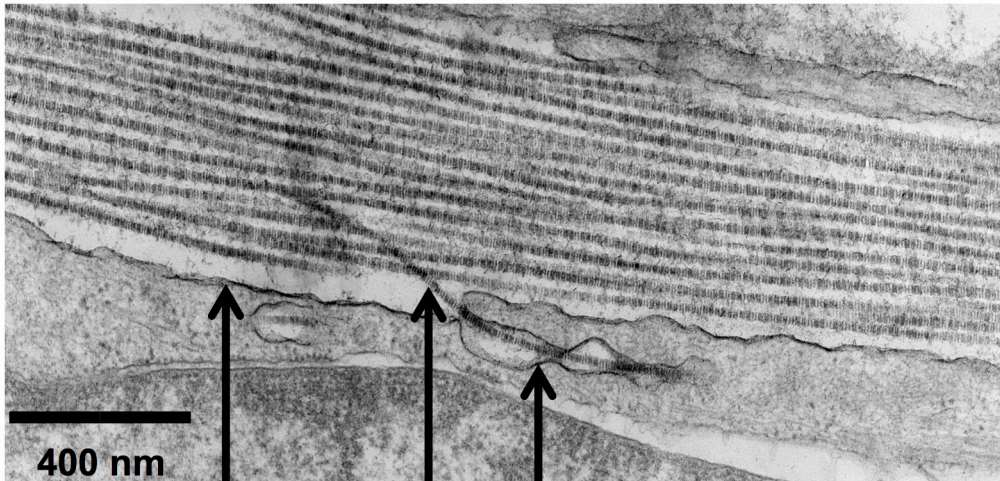
C











400 nm

plasma
membrane

fibripositor

collagen fibril

