MEMBERS OF THE LOW DENSITY LIPOPROTEIN RECEPTOR FAMILY CONTROL DIVERSE PHYSIOLOGICAL PROCESSES

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1. ABSTRACT

The low density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) family is a group of receptors that mediate endocytosis leading to lysosomal degradation of an enormous repertoire of ligands. To date, over 50 distinct macromolecules have been shown to bind members of the family. This wide spectrum of ligand recognition is the basis for an immense diversity in physiological processes in which these receptors participate. In this article, the physiological roles of the LDLR family members are briefly reviewed and a comprehensive list of the ligands with which the receptors interact is presented.

2. INTRODUCTION

The low density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) family presently contains at least eight mammalian members: LDLR, LDLR-related protein (LRP), megalin (LRP-2), VLDLR, SORLA-1, LRP-3, ApoER2 and LR3 (Table 1). Various orthologs of these receptors have also been identified in the round worm, fruit fly, frog and chicken. Members of the LDLR family have modular structures similar to that of the prototypic family member, LDLR (for review see (1, 2)). The modular elements of these receptors include cysteine-rich complement-type repeats, EGF precursor-like repeats separated by YWTD tetrapeptide-containing spacer regions, a hydrophobic transmembrane domain, and a cytoplasmic domain containing at least one coated-pit internalization signal (FXNPXY). Members of this family function as receptors that mediate endocytosis and lysosomal targeting of a diverse array of macromolecules including lipoproteins (e.g., chylomicrons, LDL, Lp(a) and high density lipoproteins (HDL)), proteinases (e.g., urinary-type plasminogen activator (uPA)), complexes of proteinases

and proteinase inhibitors (e.g., uPA-plasminogen activator inhibitor-1), hormones (e.g., parathyroid hormone, insulin, prolactin and thyroglobulin), vitamins (e.g., B₁₂, D, retinol and riboflavin) and extracellular matrix proteins (e.g., thrombospondin-1 and 2 and reelin) (Table 2) (1-3). The function of these receptors in catabolism makes them essential to homeostatic regulation of the level and activity of macromolecules in biological fluids and interstitial spaces. As a result, receptors of this family impact directly or indirectly most, if not all, physiological processes including reproduction, development and nutrition and processes pathophysiological atherosclerosis, cytotoxicity and infection. This article is a brief review of the current knowledge pertaining to physiological functions of the LDLR family.

3. CURRENT KNOWLEDGE

3.1. LDLR family members cooperate with other cell surface proteins to mediate ligand endocytosis

While LDLR family members can function independently to mediate binding and endocytosis of various ligands, it is also evident that LDLR family members function in concert with other cell surface proteins. Prototypic of this phenomenon is the process by which the glycolipid-anchored urokinase receptor (uPAR) and LRP function together to mediate endocytosis of prourokinase (pro-uPA) or complexes of uPA and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1) or complexes of uPA and protease nexin-1 (4-6). In these cases, the ligands first interact with uPAR and are then internalized by the action of LRP. VLDLR and megalin have also been shown to mediate uptake of pro-uPA and uPA-PAI-1 complex by such a two-step process involving initial binding to uPAR

Table 1. Mammalian Members of the LDLR Family

| | LDLR | LRP | Megalin | VLDLR | SORLA-1 | LRP-3 | ApoER2 | LR3 |
|--------------------------------|--|--|---|---|---|--|------------------------|----------|
| Synonymous names | Classical LDLR | Low density lipoprotein receptor - related protein (LRP), LRP-1 | LRP-2, gp330, gp600, brushin | LR8 | Sortilin-related receptor, L(DLR class) A repeat- containing, mosaic protein LR11 | LDL receptor related protein 105 | LR7, LR8B, LRP-8 | LRP-5 |
| Human chromosome location | 19p13.3 | 12q13-q14 | 2q24-q31 | 9p24 | 11q23.2-q24.4 | 19q12-q13 | 1p34 | 11q13.4 |
| Database accession no. (Human) | P01130 | X13916 | U33837 | 159603 | CAA69325 | AB009462 | BAA09328 | AF064548 |
| Phenotype of knockout mouse | Increased total plasma cholesterol due to increased IDL and LDL levels (64) | Death at embryonic day 10 (45) | Perinatal death within 2-3 h of birth, craniofacial defects, holo- prosencephalic syndrome, lung and kidney abnormalities (46) | Grossly normal, slight decrease in whole body and adipose tissue mass (41) | | | Grossly normal (44) | |

 Table 2. Ligand Specificity of LDLR Family Members

| Ligand | Ligand Function | Physiological Category | LDLR | LRP (LRP-1) | Megalin (LRP-2, gp330) | VLDLR (LR8) | SORLA-1 (mosaic protein LR11) | ApoER2 (LR7, LR8B, LRP-8) |
|--|---|---------------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------------------------|----------------|--|---------------------------------|
| RAP | Biosynthetic Chaperon | Receptor Biosynthesis | yes (65) | yes (66) | yes (67-69) | yes (70, 71) | yes (31, 72) | |
| Apolipoprotein E | Uptake of triglyceride-rich lipoproteins | Lipoprotein Metabolism | yes (73, 74) | yes (75) | yes (76) | yes (77) | yes (72) | yes (30) |
| Apolipoprotein B | Structural component of chylomicrons, VLDL, IDL and LDL | Lipoprotein Metabolism | yes (73, 74) | | yes (78) | | | |
| Apolipoprotein J/clusterin | Adaptor | Lipoprotein Metabolism | | no (79) | yes (79) | yes (37) | | |
| Apolipoprotein J- amyloid beta | | | | | yes (61) | | | |
| Lipoprotein(a) | Atherogenic lipoprotein | Lipoprotein Metabolism | | | yes (80) | yes (81) | | |
| Lipoprotein Lipase | Hydrolysis of lipoprotein phospholipids and triglycerides | Lipoprotein Metabolism | yes (82) | yes (12) | yes (13) | yes (8) | | yes (83) |
| Hepatic Lipase | Hydrolysis of lipoprotein phospholipids and triglycerides | Lipoprotein Metabolism | | yes (14) | | | | |
| Cubilin | Receptor for intrinsic factor-B12 and HDL | Lipoprotein Metabolism | | | yes (10) | | | |
| alpha ₂ -Macroglobulin- Protease Complexes | Regulation of extracellular proteinase activity | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (84, 85) | no (13) | | | |
| Pro-Urokinase | Thrombolysis | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (5) | yes (7) | yes (8) | | |
| Two-chain active uPA (tc-uPA) | Thrombolysis and cell motility | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (5) | | | | |
| Plasminogen Activator Inhibitor-1 (PAI-1) | Serine Proteinase inhibitor | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (86) | yes (7, 76, 87) | | | |
| uPA-PAI-1 | Regulation of cell surface plasminogen activator activity | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (4, 45) | yes (7) | yes (8, 9) | | |
| uPA-Protease Nexin-1 | Regulation of cell surface plasminogen activator activity | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (6) | | yes (88) | | |
| Tissue-Type Urokinase (tPA) | Thrombolysis | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (89) | | | | |
| tPA-PAI-1 | Thrombolysis | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (90) | yes (76) | | | |

Functions of the LDLR Family

Table 2. continued

| Ligand | Ligand Function | Physiological Category | LDLR | LRP (LRP-1) | Megalin (LRP-2, gp330) | VLI (LR | | SORLA-1 (mosaic protein LR11) | ApoER2 (LR7, LR8B, LRP-8) |
|--|--|--|------|----------------|------------------------------|------------|------|--|------------------------------------|
| Γhrombin-PAI-1 | Blood coagulation | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (91) | | | | LKII) | LKI-0) |
| Thrombin-protease | | Proteinase | | yes (92) | | | | | |
| nexin 1 Thrombin- | | Homeostasis Proteinase | | yes (93) | | | | | |
| Antithrombin III | | Homeostasis | | | | | | | |
| Thrombin -Heparin cofactor II | | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (93) | | | | | |
| Trypsin-alpha1- | | Proteinase | | yes (93) | | | | | |
| antitrypsin Coagulation Factor VIII | Blood coagulation | Homeostasis Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (94) | | | | | |
| Coagulation factor Xa- Tissue Factor Pathway Inhibitor Complex | Regulation of blood coagulation | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (95) | | | | | |
| Tissue Factor Pathway Inhibitor | Coagulation factor Xa inhibitor Regulation of TF- initiated blood | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (96) | | | | | |
| Aprotinin | coagulation Antifibrinolytic | Proteinase | | | yes (97) | | | | |
| - | polypeptide | Homeostasis | | (00) | - | | | | |
| Cathepsin G-alpha ₁ antichymotrypsin | | Proteinase Homeostasis | | no (98) | yes (98) | | | | |
| Elastase-alpha ₁ antitrypsin | Regulation of elastin containing ECM degradation | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (98) | yes | | | | |
| Receptor for collagenase-3 (MMP-13) | Extracellular matrix remodeling | Proteinase Homeostasis | | yes (11) | | | | | |
| Thrombospondin-1 | ECM protein effector of vascular cell growth and motility | | | yes (16, 17) | yes (17) | yes (| (99) | | |
| Thrombospondin-2 | ECM protein | | | yes (18) | | | | | |
| Reelin | Extracellular protein that directs neuronal migration | | | | | yes 43) | (42, | | yes (42) |
| Alzheimer's Precursor Protein | neuronal inigration | | | yes (100) | | | | | |
| Beta ₂ -Glycoprotein, apolipoprotein H | Anionic phospholipid- | | | | yes (57) | | | | |
| Transcobalamin- Vitamin B12 | binding protein Vitamin transport | Vitamin Metabolism | | | yes (101) | | | | |
| Vitamin D-Binding | Vitamin transport, | Vitamin | | | yes (56) | | | | |
| Protein | regulation of calcium metabolism | Metabolism | | | | | | | |
| Retinol-Binding Protein | Vitamin transport | Vitamin Metabolism | | | yes (54) | | | | |
| Thyroglobulin | Thyroid hormone precursor | Hormone Metabolism | | | yes (102) | | | | |
| Parathyroid hormone | Regulates blood calcium and | Hormone Metabolism | | | yes (103) | | | | |
| Insulin | phosphate Regulation of blood glucose, lipid | Hormone Metabolism | | | yes (60) | | | | |
| Prolactin | storage Mammary gland development and | Hormone Metabolism | | | yes (60) | | | | |
| Midleina | milk production | | | viao (104) | | | | | |
| Midkine | Growth factor with migration- and survival-promoting | | | yes (104) | | | | | |
| Enidermal growth | activities | | | | vac (60) | | | | |
| Epidermal growth factor | Regulation of cellular differentiation and | | | | yes (60) | | | | |
| Albumin | proliferation Carrier protein (fatty acid), colloid | | | | yes (105) | | | | |
| | osmotic pressure regulation | | | | | | | | |

Table 2. continued

| Ligand | Ligand Function | Physiological Category | LDLR | LRP (LRP-1) | Megalin (LRP-2, gp330) | VLDLR (LR8) | SORLA-1 (mosaic protein LR11) | ApoER2 (LR7, LR8B, LRP-8) |
|--|--|---|------|----------------|------------------------------|----------------|--|------------------------------------|
| Beta(2)-microglobulin | Control of beta2- microglobulin amyloidosis in bone and joint structures | | | | yes (60) | | , | |
| Alpha(1)-microglobulin | Odorant-binding protein | | | | yes (55) | | | |
| Complement component 3 (C3) | Ag-IgG elimination | Innate Immunity | | yes (106) | | | | |
| Lysozyme | Lysis of microorganisms | Innate Immunity | | | yes (60) | | | |
| Lactoferrin | Anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial glycoprotein | Innate Immunity | | yes (76) | yes (76) | | | |
| Pseudomonas Exotoxin A | ADP-ribosylation of translational elongation factor 2, inactivation of protein synthesis | Cytotoxicity | | yes (21) | no (13) | | | |
| Ricin A | Type I ribosome- inactivating protein | Cytotoxicity | | yes (107) | | | | |
| Saporin | Type I ribosome- inactivating protein | Cytotoxicity | | yes (107) | | | | |
| Trichosanthin | Type I ribosome- inactivating protein | Cytotoxicity | | yes (108) | yes (108) | | | |
| Saposin | Activator of degradation of glycosphingolipids by acidic hydrolases | | | yes (20) | | | | |
| Circumsporozoite protein | Major surface protein of the malaria sporozoite | Infection | | yes (15) | | | | |
| Minor Group Rhinovirus | Virus | Infection | | yes (109) | | | | |
| Aminoglycosides, gentamicin and polymyxcin B | Antibiotics | | | yes (97) | yes (97) | | | |
| Seminal Vesicle Secretory Protein II | Seminal coagulum protein involved in fertilization | Reproduction | | | yes (24) | | | |
| Disabled protein 2 (Dab2) | Cytosolic adaptor protein | Intracelluar Signaling | | | yes (110) | | | |
| NHE3 (NHE3 kinase A regulatory protein) | Nayes/Hyes exchanger | Acid-base balance and NaCl homeostasis | | | (19) | | | |
| Cytochrome c | Oxidative phosphorylation | Bioenergetics | | | yes (60) | | | |
| Totals | phosphoryladoli | | 5 | 36 | 36 | 10 | 2 | 2 |

Yes indicates that binding has been formally demonstrated. No indicates that no binding was observed when tested.

(7-9). Similarly, the endocytosis of HDL/apolipoprotein A-I (apoA-I) involves megalin acting in concert with cubilin, a recently described receptor for HDL, apoA-1 and intrinsic factor-vitamin B_{12} (10). Further, the endocytosis of the matrix metalloproteinase collagenase-3 has been shown to involve primary interaction with a 170-kDa cell surface receptor followed by internalization via LRP (11). It is not yet known whether LRP mediates uptake of the entire collagenase-3-receptor complex or whether the enzyme dissociates from its receptor and binds to LRP. Finally, several proteins are endocytosed by sequential receptor binding involving cell surface proteoglycans and members of the LDLR family. For example, the uptake of lipoprotein lipase (8, 12, 13), hepatic lipase (14), circumsporozoite protein (15) and thrombospondins 1 and 2 (16-18) are dependent on primary binding to cell surface heparan sulfate proteoglycans followed by endocytosis by LRP, megalin or VLDLR. Since the internalization of these ligands is completely inhibited by RAP, the ligand binding proteoglycans are themselves unable to mediate ligand endocytosis. This inability to independently mediate endocytosis also seems to be the case with uPAR and cubilin. Therefore, the endocytic action of members of the LDLR family are essential to the process by which many receptor-bound ligands are internalized by cells.

Recently, megalin has been shown to exist in complex with the renal brush border Na^+/H^+ exchanger NHE3 (19). The significance of megalin's association with NHE3 is not yet known, but megalin-mediated endocytosis may serve to regulate plasma membrane levels of the transporter and thereby control its activity.

3.2. Roles of LDLR family members in mediating biosynthetic processing of other proteins

Several studies have revealed the importance of LRP-mediated endoctyosis to the biosynthetic processing of various proteins. The secreted precursor of sphingolipid activator protein is proteolytically processed following lysosomal delivery via LRP-mediated endocytosis (20). LRP-mediated protein delivery to lysosomal vesicles has also been shown to be the pathway for proteolytic processing of Pseudomonas exotoxin A. Such cleavage of the exotoxin is required to generate the enzymatically active fragment which can translocate to the cytosol and inhibit protein synthesis (21). Similarly, the process of LRP-mediated internalization of beta-amyloid precursor protein (APP) from the cell surface has been implicated in proteolytic processing of APP and production of betaamyloid peptide (22). Finally, megalin has been implicated as having a chaperon-like function in yolk sac endoderm cells, mediating efficient post-translational trafficking of nascent cubilin to the plasma membrane (10).

3.3. LDLR family members function in reproduction

Megalin is highly expressed in the male reproductive tract by epithelial cells of the efferent duct, epididymis and seminal vesicle (23, 24). Indeed, many megalin ligands are found in the epididymis, seminal vesicle (24) and seminal plasma. The ligands include apolipoprotein J/clusterin, apolipoprotein B, apolipoprotein E, tissue type plasminogen activator, uPA and PAI-1 and each has been speculated to be involved in sperm maturation and fertilization (23). It is therefore hypothesized that megalin-mediated catabolism of these proteins may be a contributing factor to spermatozoa maturation (23). Megalin is also expressed in the female reproductive tract by epithelial cells lining the uterus (25) and by oviduct epithelial cells (Dr. Carlos Morales, personal communication).

LRP is expressed in Sertoli cells of the testis and has been shown to be present in the endocytic compartment of these cells (26). This subcellular localization is consistent with the receptor functioning in the clearance of proteinase/proteinease-inhibitor complexes involved in seminiferous tubule remodeling and/or the uptake of cholesterol-containing lipoproteins necessary for the biosynthesis of testosterone (26). Furthermore, LRP on the surface of spermatozoa is thought to bind to complexes of alpha₂-macroglobulin and prostate-specific antigen (PSA), a member of the kallikrein family and the major proteinase in seminal fluid (27). In the female reproductive tract, LRP is expressed in the stroma of secretory and proliferative endometrium, perhaps indicating a role in endometrial remodeling (28). LRP is also expressed by follicular cells of the ovary (25).

In mammals, very little is known about the role of other members of the LDLR family in the male and female reproductive tracts. VLDLR expression has been detected in testis, ovary and uterus (29). ApoER2 is highly expressed in the testis and to a lesser extent in ovary (30). SORLA-1 has also been shown to be expressed in testis (31).

The accumulation of vitellogenins (yolk proteins that function as lipid-, phosphate-, ion- and vitamincarriers) into membrane-bound vesicles in oocytes of worms, insects and vertebrates is mediated by receptors of the LDLR family. Structurally related vitellogenin receptors have been described in the fruit fly, frog and chicken (32-34). The chicken vitellogenin receptor has been shown to import VLDL, riboflavin-binding protein, and alpha₂-macroglobulin into growing oocytes (35, 36). Indeed, mutations that abrogate expression of the chicken vitellogenin receptor result in non-egg laying hens. Megalin and two oocyte-specific members of the LDLR gene family, LR8 and LDLR-related protein (LRP-380) also mediate oocyte uptake and volk deposition of granulosa cell-derived clusterin (37). In *Drosophila melanogaster*, the vitellogenin receptor is encoded by the gene yolkless (yl) (38). Female sterility occurs in insects having genetic deficiency of yl gene expression (38). Analysis of oocytes produced by yt^{-1} females shows drastic reduction in the numbers of coated pits and coated vesicles and very little proteinaceous yolk (39). In Caenorhabditis elegans, RME-2 is a recently described vitellogenin receptor also structurally related to the LDLR (40).

3.4. Roles of LDLR family members in development

While mutations that abrogate expression of functional LDLR in mice and humans have adverse adult physiology consequences on hypercholesterolemia and coronary heart disease), such mutations do not appear to affect the process of embryonic development. Similarly, mutations that abolish the expression of the VLDLR in transgenic mice do not affect development (41). However, transgenic mice that lack both VLDLR and apolipoprotein E receptor 2 (ApoER2) have cortical and cerebellar morphological abnormalities that mimic the phenotype of mice lacking reelin, a common ligand for both receptors (42-44). Murine models of deficiency of LRP and megalin expression reveal the vital roles that each of these receptors also play in embryonic development. For example, mice deficient in the ability to express functional LRP die at embryonic day 10, although the mechanisms underlying lethality are not understood (45). Megalin gene knockout mice display abnormal morphogenesis of tissues of the central nervous system as well as lung and kidney abnormalities (46). While the basis for the developmental effects observed in the megalin-/mice is not yet known, embryonic insufficiency in maternally-derived nutrients (e.g., lipids and vitamins) that associate with megalin ligands is speculated to be a contributing factor (47, 48). Consistent with the essential role of megalin in mouse development, null mutations in the Caenorhabditis elegans ortholog of megalin reveal that this receptor is also essential for nematode growth and development (49).

Megalin is expressed on the apical surfaces of the visceral yolk sac endoderm, where it presumably mediates uptake of maternal lipoprotein particles (e.g., HDL and LDL) carrying cholesterol, lipid-soluble vitamins, phospholipids and triglycerides. While the importance of maternally derived lipoprotein-associated cholesterol to embryogenesis is uncertain, maternal lipid-soluble vitamins

such as vitamin A (retinol) are critical to embryogenesis. Evidence for this comes from the consequences of maternal vitamin A deficiency on embryogenesis (50). For example, vitamin A-deficient quail embryos have brain and cardiovascular abnormalities (51). Vitamin A-deficient mammalian embryos have a similar spectrum of malformations that include brain, cardiovascular, ocular, lung, limb and urogenital defects (52). Mouse embryos accumulate maternally-derived vitamin A in the visceral yolk sac endoderm, the major site of embryonic retinolbinding protein (RBP) synthesis. Inhibition of yolk-sac RBP synthesis by antisense oligonucleotide treatment results in developmental abnormalities that include neural tube, ocular and vitelline vessel malformations (53). These RBP-antisense oligonucleotide-induced malformations could be prevented by addition of exogenous retinoic acid (53). The spectrum of observed retinol/RBP deficiencyrelated developmental abnormalities are consistent with those seen in the megalin knockout mouse embryos and with the role of megalin as an endocytic receptor for retinol-RBP complexes (54). As of yet, natural or engineered monogenic mutations of the other LDLR family members have not been shown to impact mammalian embryogenesis.

3.5. LDLR family members in renal absorption and homeostatic regulation

Mice genetically deficient in the ability to express megalin exhibit urinary wastage of a number of macromolecules including vitamin D-binding protein, retinol-binding protein (and their associated lipophilic vitamins), beta2-glycoprotein-I, alpha(1)-microglobulin and albumin (54-58). Since megalin is expressed on the apical surfaces of proximal convoluted tubule cells, the proteinuria observed in the megalin-/- mice indicates the role of megalin in the absorption of the aforementioned proteins from the glomerular filtrate. Another protein that is thought to be absorbed by renal proximal tubule cells via the action of megalin is apoA-I (10). Although verification of apoA-I wastage in megalin^{-/-} mice has not yet been reported, urinary wastage of apoA-I has been described in humans and dogs deficient in the expression of cubilin, the apoA-I-binding cell surface protein that mediates renal uptake of apoA-I in conjunction with megalin (59). A number of other low molecular weight, megalin-binding serum proteins including insulin, prolactin and beta2microglobulin are also presumed to be absorbed from the glomerular filtrate through the action of megalin (60).

The physiological significance of megalin-mediated uptake of macromolecules from the glomerular filtrate is not completely understood at the present time. However, at least one known consequence of the impairment of this uptake process is that the megalin develop vitamin D deficiency and defective bone mineralization (56). This process is also expected to impact calcium homeostasis since megalin endocytosis of retinol is required to provide the renal cells with the steroid precursor for generation of 1,25-(OH)2 vitamin D3, a regulator of calcium metabolism (56). Analysis of megalin mice has also revealed an absence of retinol-binding protein in proximal tubules of these mice as compared to normal

mice, thus indicating a critical role for this receptor in vitamin A homeostasis (54). The renal action of megalin may also be protective against pathological accumulation of certain macromolecules. For example, beta2-microglobulin-associated amyloidosis in joints and bones is a major complication in patients on nontransplant modes of renal therapy. The fact that this amyloidosis does not occur in patients with a functioning renal transplant or, if already present, does not progress any further, suggests that normal renal clearance of beta2-microglobulin might function to prevent the pathological accumulation of beta2-microglobulin fibrils. Such a role is similar to that ascribed to megalin in preventing pathological accumulation in the central nervous system of another fibril forming protein, beta-amyloid peptide (61).

The recent discovery that megalin associates with the $\mathrm{Na}^+/\mathrm{H}^+$ exchanger NHE3 (19) suggests that megalin might play a role in exchange of Na^+ and H^+ across renal proximal tubule plasma membranes and contribute to the maintenance of acid-base balance and NaCl homeostasis. Similarly, megalin has been demonstrated to function as a calcium-sensing receptor on parathyroid cells (62). Megalin binding of external calcium inversely regulates release of parathyroid hormone (PTH) (63). In this way, megalin participates in the regulation of systemic calcium homeostasis by the parathyroid gland.

4. PERSPECTIVE

In slightly more than a decade of research, the LDLR family has been revealed and great progress made in our understanding of the functions of several of its prominent members. Based on what we have learned, receptors of this family represent specialized scavengers whose catabolic functions are central to the homeostasis of many macromolecules of diverse function. The large size of the LDLR family combined with the sheer number and functional diversity of its ligands creates major challenges for understanding the full impact that these receptors have on physiological and pathological processes. To meet this challenge, systematic development of animal models of genetic deficiencies of each LDLR family member using both non-conditional and conditional gene inactivation strategies will need to be pursued. As for additional avenues of discovery in the field of LDLR family biology, recent findings that LRP and megalin interact with cytoplasmic adaptors highlight receptor-mediated signal transduction as an exciting new frontier for future research.

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