

INTRODUCTION

THE EVER EXPANDING SAGA OF THE PROPROTEIN CONVERTASES: FROM BENCH TO BEDSIDE

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The number of protein/peptide products that result from a given genome depends on multiple factors that generate both diversity and specificity. Prominent among these are processes that regulate post-translational modifications of the primary product of mRNA translation, the precursor protein. The primary events governing the modification of the amino acid chain of secretory proteins include the N-glycosylation and signal peptide cleavage by signal peptide peptidase. This is then followed by trimming of the glycosylation chain and remodeling up until it reaches its final form in the Trans Golgi Network (TGN). Since the early/mid 1960s it was realized that most secretory proteins undergo at least one peptide bond cleavage along their trafficking pathway, e.g., by signal peptide peptidase in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and/or by one or more proteinase in the Golgi apparatus to release the final form of the protein and/or its processing products. Proteolysis is essentially an irreversible process, because no known enzyme can repair broken peptide bonds under normal physiological conditions. The primary event of peptide bond cleavage induces conformational changes in the resulting product, thereby generating productive biological activity. The repertoire of the secretory protein precursors that undergo limited proteolysis is large and varied. It includes many proteins that are translocated across membranes such as polypeptide endocrine and neural hormones, growth factors and their receptors, membrane bound transcription factors, adhesion molecules, extracellular matrix proteins, proteases and other types of enzymes, as well as a number of surface glycoproteins of opportunistic pathogenic viruses and bacteria.

While it is predicted that the mammalian genome codes for 460 human and 525 mouse functional proteases [1], only a handful of these are implicated in the intracellular limited proteolysis of precursor proteins.

Prominent amongst the proprotein processing enzymes are the members of the family of subtilisin/kexin-like proprotein convertases (PCs). It took more than 15 years to identify these serine proteinases that can be subdivided into three sub-families: **[A]** The basic amino acid specific kexin-like PCs include seven members: PC1/3, PC2, Furin, PC4, PC5/6, PACE4 and PC7 [2]; **[B]** The pyrolysin-like subtilisin-kexin isoform SKI-1/S1P, also known as site 1 protease S1P [3]; and **[C]** The proteinase K-like neural apoptosis regulated convertase NARC-1/PCSK9 [4]. The last two convertases cleave at non-basic residues and process precursors that are distinct from those of the basic amino acid-specific convertases [3–6].

The discovery of these convertases from 1989–2003, elicited a wide interest in the scientific community as it was realized that these enzymes play key roles in various homeostatic as well as pathogenic events [2, 5–10]. The most evident role came from studies of the tumorigenic potential of these convertases, where it was shown that overexpression of one or more of the basic amino acid specific PCs leads to increased cell proliferation and enhanced metastasis, while their inhibition reverses this effect [11–14]. However, this is not universally the case, as a decreased expression of the Cys-rich domain containing PC5 [15, 16] and PACE4 [17] has been observed in various cancers including breast and ovarian cancers, as well as the increased metastatic potential of the human colon carcinoma HT-29 cells overexpressing α 1-PDX, a potent inhibitor of the constitutively secreted convertases [18].

On another front, the implication of the PCs in viral infections became apparent from the processing sites of the surface glycoproteins of infectious viruses and of bacterial toxins [19]. In fact, data on various infectious viruses and bacterial toxins showed that cleavage of surface/spike glycoprotein precursors of these pathogens by one or more member of the PC-family, including the basic amino acid-specific Furin, PC7, PACE4 and/or PC5 (2) and the pyrolysin-like SKI-1/S1P (20) is a required step for the acquisition of fusigenic potential and thus for their infectious and/or cell-cell spreading capacity [19, 21].

Recently, some of the convertases such as PC5/6, SKI-1/S1P and NARC-1/PCSK9, were implicated in cardiovascular complications. Examples include the vital role of SKI-1/S1P in the regulation of the synthesis of cholesterol and fatty acids via the cleavage within the Golgi of the two master switches of sterol, and fatty acid metabolism, the sterol regulatory element binding proteins [SREBP-1 and SREBP-2] [22, 23]. The convertase PC5/6 has also been implicated in vascular remodeling and the development of atherosclerosis [24, 25], as well as in the phenomenon known as restenosis that occurs following balloon angioplasty or stent implantation [26]. In addition, PC5/6, which is highly expressed in endothelial cells [27, 28] has been implicated in the activation of endothelial lipase, and hence could positively regulate the level of high density lipoproteins (HDL) [29].

Finally, the last member of the family NARC-1/PCSK9 has clearly been associated with the development of dyslipidemias, as specific mutations in its coding sequence are directly responsible for the development of a dominant form of either familial hyper-cholesterolemia [5] or hypo-cholesterolemia [30]. This is

the first case of a dominant disease associated with mutations in one of the PCs. It seems that these mutations [6] result in either a gain/enhancement of an existing function, for those causing hyper-cholesterolemia [5], or in a loss of function in hypo-cholesterolemia patients [30]. The mechanism behind these pathologies is essentially related to one of the major roles of NARC-1/PCSK9 which is to enhance the degradation of the low density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) [31] through a mechanism requiring entry into low pH endocytotic vesicles [32]. This exciting development opens the way to the development of anti-cholesterogenic drugs that could supplement the widely prescribed HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors, known as “statins” that themselves upregulate the expression of NARC-1/PCSK9 [33]. Indeed, supplementation of statins to the diet of mice lacking the expression of *PCSK9*, resulted in a marked additional decrease in the level of circulating total cholesterol [34].

The present monogram deals with multiple aspects of the proprotein convertases, from their discovery, to their analysis and to the projected pharmacological and clinical applications that may result from the inhibition of these enzymes. Thus, this is one example of “bench to bedside” directly applicable to the convertases. It is hoped that the use of modern day multiplexing technologies including various RNA and protein/peptide arrays should result in the development of specific convertase inhibitors that should find applications to control a wide variety of pathologies, including cancer and associated metastasis as well as dyslipidemias such as atherosclerosis and hypercholesterolemia. The importance of the PCs in the self renewal and maintenance of cancer stem cells [35] is a future area that begs extensive investigation, as it may opens the door towards stem cell-specific targeting of convertase inhibition. It took more than 30 years to unravel some of the mysteries of the proprotein convertases. It is hoped that the next decade will consolidate and expand the genetic, cellular and molecular knowledge of the PCs, including their 3D structures [36], in order to rationally design potent drugs that regulate their levels and/or activities *in vivo*.

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CHAPTER 1

DISCOVERY OF THE PROPROTEIN CONVERTASES AND THEIR INHIBITORS

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Abstract: The members of the convertase family play a central role in the processing of various protein precursors ranging from hormones and growth factors to viral envelope proteins and bacterial toxins. The proteolysis of these precursors that occurs at basic residues is mediated by the proprotein convertases (PCs), namely: PC1, PC2, Furin, PACE4, PC4, PC5 and PC7. The proteolysis at non-basic residues is performed by subtilisin/kexin-like isozyme-1 (S1P/SKI-1) and the newly identified neural apoptosis-regulated convertase-1 (NARC-1/PCSK9). These proteases have key roles in many physiological processes and various pathologies including cancer, obesity, diabetes, neurodegenerative diseases and autosomal dominant hypercholesterolemia. Here we summarize the discovery of the proprotein convertases and their inhibitors, discuss their properties, roles, resemblance and differences

Keywords: Proprotein convertases, SKI-1/S1P, NARC-1/PCSK9, Prosegments, α 1-PDX, 7B2, ProSAAS

1. PROPROTEIN CONVERTASES (PCs)

To date, seven mammalian members of subtilisin-related PCs that process substrates at basic residues have been identified. These include Furin/PACE, PC1/PC3, PC2, PC4, PACE4, PC5/PC6, and PC7/LPC/PC8/SPC7 (Figure 1).

This somewhat confusing nomenclature arose from the simultaneous discovery of some of these enzymes by different groups. PCs are multi-domain serine proteinases

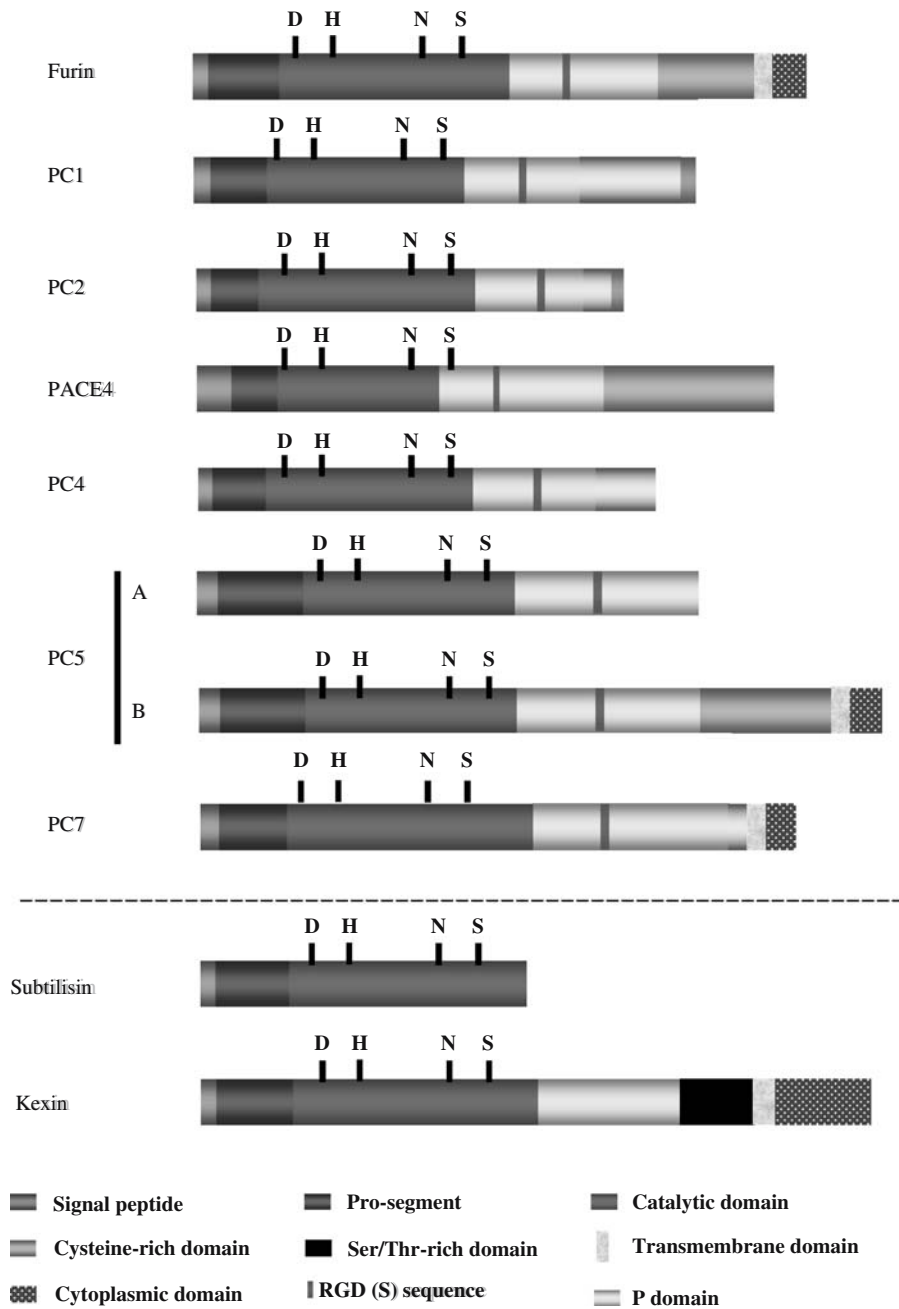


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the prohormone convertases PC1, PC2, Furin, PACE4, PC4, PC5 (A and B isoforms) and PC7. These PCs are multi-domain serine proteinases consisting of a signal peptide followed by prosegment, catalytic, middle, and cytoplasmic domains. Homology is highest in the catalytic domains and lowest in the carboxyl-terminal domains. The schematic representation for Kexin and subtilisin are given for comparison

Convertases	Amino acid number	Autocatalytic site	Accession number
Furin	794	¹⁰¹ A-K-R-R-T-K-R-D	NP_002560
PC1	751	¹⁰⁵ K-E-R-S-K-R-S-V	P21662
PC2	638	¹⁰³ G-F-D-R-K-K-R-G	P16519
PACE4	969	¹⁴¹ Q-E-V-K-R-R-V-K	P29122
PC4	654	¹⁰⁵ R-R-R-V-K-R-S-L	A54306
PC5	1870	¹⁰⁹ V-K-K-R-T-K-R-D	Q04592
PC7	785	¹³⁴ R-L-L-R-R-A-K-R	NP_004707
SKI-1	1052	¹³¹ K-V-F-R-S-L-K-Y	NP_003782
NARC-1	692	¹⁴⁵ E-D-S-S-V-F-A-Q	NM_174936

Figure 2. Amino acid sequences of the autocatalytic sites of the PCs. Like their substrates, the pro-segments of the PCs are removed at sites cleaved by the PCs. Indicated are the number of amino acid and accession number for every PC

consisting of a signal peptide followed by prosegment, catalytic, middle, and cytoplasmic domains (Figure 1). Homology is highest in the catalytic domains and lowest in the carboxyl-terminal domains.

These enzymes cleave precursor proteins at basic residues within the general motif $(K/R)-(X)_n-(K/R)\downarrow$, where $n = 0, 2, 4$ or 6 and X any amino acid except Cys [1–4]. Usually most of the PCs cleave their substrates at pairs of basic amino acids, but several of them, with monobasic sites are also cleaved [1–4]. Some PCs, such as PC1, PC2 and PC5A, are sorted and activated in the regulated secretory pathway and thus process protein precursors whose secretion is regulated. In contrast, the trans-membrane proteins Furin, PACE4, PC5B and PC7 (Figure 1), cycle between the cell surface and the *trans* Golgi Network (TGN) and are involved in the processing of precursor proteins in the constitutive secretory pathway [1–4]. Like their substrates, the pro-segments of the PCs are also removed at a cleavage site containing a basic–amino acid PC motif (Figure 2), befitting their autoactivation [1–4].

1.1 Furin

Furin was the first convertase identified. Its discovery was made just after the availability of the Kex2 cDNA sequence. Kex2 is a cellular processing endoprotease that is required for cleavage at dibasic sites within the killer toxin and the mating pheromone, α -factor precursors [5, 6]. In 1989, in an effort to find other

Convertases/ Inhibitors	Human		Mouse	
	Chromosomes	Cytogenetic	Chromosomes	Cytogenetic
Furin	15	15q26.1	7	7 D1-E2
PC1	5	5q15-q21	13	13C2
PC2	20	20p11.2	2	2G1
PACE4	15	15q26	7	7B5
PC4	19	19p13.3	10	10C1
PC5	9	9q21.3	19	19B
PC7	11	11q23.3	9	9A5.2
SKI-1	16	16q24	8	8E1
NARC-1	1	1p32.3	4	4C7
7B2	15	15q13-q14	2	2E5
Prosaas	X	Xp11.23	X	XA1.1

Figure 3. Chromosome localisation of mouse and human PCs and the inhibitors Prosaas and 7B2. Note the approximate position of PACE4 gene to fur gene on the human chromosome 15 and mouse chromosome 7 suggesting their probable common ancestry by gene duplication

related Kex2 enzymes, Fuller et al., identified the first mammalian homologue of Kex2 [7], *fur* gene. This gene is located on the human chromosome 15 and on mouse chromosome 7 (Figure 3). The *Furin* gene (*PCSK3*) was unexpectedly discovered by Roebroek et al., a few years earlier due to its proximity to the *c-fes/fps* protooncogene (*fur* being: *c-fes/fps* upstream region) [8]. At that time the product of the *fur* gene was believed to be a growth factor receptor because of the presence of a cysteine-rich domain and a putative trans-membrane domain in its sequence (Figure 1, [9]). Subsequently, the cloning of full-length Furin cDNA revealed that Furin was structurally analogous to Kex2, although the Ser/Thr-rich domain in Kex2 was replaced by a cysteine-rich domain (Figure 1, [10]). Furin is a membrane protein, initially produced as a 104 kDa pro-furin precursor which is rapidly converted into a 98 kDa form by an autocatalytic process (Figure 2, [11, 12].) This autocatalytic cleavage of the pro-Furin occurs in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and is a prerequisite for the exit of the mature Furin molecule out of the ER to reach the cell surface [13, 14]. Unlike most other convertases, Furin has a widespread distribution being present in all tissues and cells examined so far.

1.2 PC1 and PC2

In an effort to find additional Furin-like enzymes, the polymerase chain reaction was used successfully to detect and amplify conserved sequences within the catalytic domain of Furin and Kex2. In 1990, Seidah et al., identified, in mouse pituitary, the cDNA of two additional PC-related enzymes that were called PC1 and PC2 [15]. At approximately the same time, Smeekens and Steiner identified in human insulinoma a cDNA coding for PC2 [16]. The human and mouse *PC1* genes (*PCSK1*) are localized on chromosomes 5 and 13, respectively, whereas the *PC2* gene (*PCSK2*) is localized on human chromosome 20 and on mouse chromosome 2 (Figure 3). The corresponding protein of the full-length cDNA of PC1 is a 751-residue protein and the cDNA of PC2 encodes a 638-residue protein. Contrary to Kex2 and Furin, both PC1 and PC2 lack a transmembrane domain (Figure 1) [15, 16]. In 1991, using similar approaches, Smeekens et al., identified a PC-related enzyme highly expressed in the mouse AtT20 anterior pituitary cell line that unfortunately was called PC3 [17], since it turned out to be identical to PC1 [18, 19, 20]. Studies in various laboratories revealed that PC1 and PC2 process peptide hormones and neuropeptide precursors within the dense core vesicles of the regulated secretory pathway of the brain and the neuroendocrine system [21, 22]. Although PC1 and PC2 are structurally very similar, each convertase has definite substrate site preferences. Among the major substrates of these enzymes are proopiomelanocortin (POMC), proinsulin and proglucagon [23, 24]. Regulation of the activity of PC1 occurs by both its N- and C-terminal domains. Following its N-terminal autocatalytic cleavage within the endoplasmic reticulum, the 84 kDa form of PC1 is transported to the *trans* Golgi Network (TGN) and secretory granules to undergo two other autocatalytic cleavages, one within the inhibitory prosegment and the other at its carboxy-terminal domain to generate the fully active 66-kDa form [25], the major form found in islets of Langerhans and in secretory granules of AtT20 cells [25]. Although PC2 is also autocatalytically processed prior to activation like PC1 (Figure 2), the removal of its prosegment is less efficient and PC2 slowly exits from the ER as a zymogen (proPC2) and is processed to PC2 only in immature secretory granules. This difference in the time course of activation of PC1 and PC2 was reportedly linked to pH and calcium levels [26]. The cleavage of proPC1 to the 84 kDa PC1 occurs at a neutral pH and is calcium-independent, whereas PC2 is activated much more slowly in the immature secretory granules at pHs 5–6 in a calcium-dependent fashion [26]. As a consequence of the different temporal activation of PC1 and PC2 in cells expressing both enzymes, PC1 will cleave precursors before PC2, leading to an ordered cleavage mechanism that may explain the first cleavage of POMC into β -LPH and then into β -endorphin, peptide products that require the consecutive action of PC1 and PC2, respectively [27, 28].

1.3 PACE4

With a polymerase chain reaction methodology similar to the one used for the identification of Furin, PC1 and PC2, Kiefer et al., identified the convertase PACE4 using specific primers for the paired basic amino acid residue processing motifs of

the available PCs [29]. PACE4 contains distinct features that are not present in the previously identified three convertases. These include an extended signal peptide region and large carboxyl-terminal cysteine-rich region (Figure 1) [29, 30]. PACE4 is expressed in most tissues, with highest levels occurring in the liver [29]. It processes a variety of substrates [30]. Like other PCs, the maturation of proPACE4 occurs via an intramolecular autocatalytic cleavage of its propeptide (Figure 2). This is the rate-limiting step for the secretion of the mature PACE4 [31, 32]. Furthermore, the secretion and the maturation of PACE4 are also controlled by the carboxy terminal sequence of PACE4 [31, 32]. Deletion of the last 25 residues of PACE4 has been shown to induce a marked acceleration in both the maturation and secretion of mature PACE4 [31]. Another property of PACE4 is its ability to bind heparan sulfate proteoglycans in the extracellular matrix (ECM) [33]. The PACE4 heparin-binding region was localized in the cationic region of amino acids between residues 743 and 760. This suggests a spatial role for PACE4 in the regulation of the biological activities of its substrates [33]. Very recently, we have shown that the C-terminal Cys-rich domain of PACE4 anchors the secreted enzyme to the plasma membrane *via* a complex with one or more member of the tissue inhibitor of metalloproteases (TIMPs) through binding of the complex to cell surface heparan sulfate proteoglycans [34]. Localization of the *PACE4* gene (*PCSK6*) revealed its closeness to the *fur* gene on the human chromosome 15 and mouse chromosome 7 (Figure 3), suggesting a probable common ancestry by gene duplication [29].

Despite a likely common origin, the regulation of Furin and PACE4 expression appears quite different. While both are up-regulated by phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) and tumor necrosis factor (TGF), PACE4 is also upregulated by platelet derived growth factor-BB (PDGF-BB), indicating a unique role for PACE4 in platelet production [35, 36]. Recent studies revealed that the expression of PACE4 is down-regulated by the basic helix-loop-helix transcription factors hASH-1 and MASH-1, suggesting co-regulation of PACE4 and its substrates by these transcription factors [37].

1.4 PC4

Like other PCs, identification of PC4 was based on PCR strategies and was simultaneously identified from mouse testis by Nakayama and our group [38, 39]. It is a 654-residue protein, which possesses the same subtilisin-like catalytic domain found in Furin, PC1, PC2, and Kex2 (Figure 1). Distribution analysis in various cell lines and tissues revealed that PC4 appears to be exclusive to testis and ovarian cells [38–41]. Northern blot analysis indicates that PC4 mRNA is detectable only in the testis after the 20th day of postnatal development and was primarily expressed in round spermatids, suggesting that PC4 is involved in the maturation of precursor proteins found in testicular germ cells. Subsequently, the importance of PC4 in these processes was shown by PC4 gene expression during spermatogenesis [38–40]. Although PC4 is able to efficiently process various protein precursors in the testis, a specific substrate for PC4 expressed only in this organ remains unknown.

The *PC4* gene (*PCSK4*) is located on chromosome 19 and 10 in human and mouse, respectively (Figure 3).

1.5 PC5 (Isoforms PC5A and PC5B)

The 915 amino acid isoform PC5A was identified and cloned by our group using RT-PCR and oligonucleotide sequences derived from conserved sequences of PC1, PC2, Furin, and PC4, in both mouse and rat tissues [41]. The same year, the group of Nakagawa et al., cloned this convertase and named it PC6 [42]. The *PC5* gene (*PCSK5*) is localized on human chromosome 9 and mouse chromosome 19 (Figure 3). The human *PCSK5* gene encodes two isoforms: the 915 amino acid PC5A and a C-terminally extended 1870-residue protein (PC5B) with multiple Cys-rich domains. Both isoforms contain a subtilisin-like catalytic domain and PC5A exhibits a high similarity to PACE4, especially at the COOH-terminal Cys-rich region (Figure 1) [42]. Northern blot analysis revealed that PC5 mRNA, as with Furin and PACE4 mRNA, was expressed in various tissues and cell lines [42–45]. Its highest expression is in adrenal cortex and small intestine suggesting possible roles in stress response and in processing protein substrates of gastrointestinal peptides [42–45]. Like PACE4, the expression of PC5 is upregulated by PDGF-BB and during cell proliferation [44]. Many substrates have been reported to be efficiently processed by PC5; including growth factors such PDGF-A [45], PDGF-B [46] and VEGF-C [47], receptors such as IGFI-1 receptor (1) and various integrins [48]. While these substrates were also shown to be processed by other PCs, certain precursor proteins are processed effectively mostly by PC5, such as neural adhesion molecule L1 [49] and Lefty protein [50]. Similar to other PCs, the activity and secretion of PC5 is also regulated by its prosegment. The pro-region of PC5 was shown to prevent IGF-1 receptor (1) and VEGF-C processing by PC5, both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [47, 51] suggesting an inhibitory role of the PC5 propeptide.

1.6 PC7

This convertase was identified in 1996 by our group [52], Bruzzaniti et al. [53] and Meerabux et al. [54]. Meerabux identified PC7 through its involvement in a chromosome translocation that occurred in a particular lymphoma [54]. This translocation is the result of a fusion between an intron in the 3'-untranslated region of PC7 with a sequence close to the switch region S gamma 4 of the IGH locus. The product of the *PC7* gene (*PCSK7*) encodes a 785 residue protein with a large homology to all members of the PC family (Figure 1). Using PCR and degenerate primers to conserved amino acid residues in the catalytic region of the PCs, Bruzzanti et al., predicted the product of the gene they identified (called PC8) to be 785 residues [53]. The catalytic region of this protein is more than 50% identical in primary sequence to the other PCs. Using similar technologies, we also isolated a cDNA coding for a gene from the rat anterior pituitary that we named PC7. We found the open reading frame codes for a prepro-PC with a 36-amino

acid signal peptide, a 104-amino acid prosegment, and a 747-amino acid type I membrane-bound glycoprotein, representing the mature form of PC7 [52]. Distinct from Furin (*PCSK3*) and PACE4 (*PCSK6*) genes, both mapping to chromosome 15, *PCSK7* maps to chromosome 11 (Figure 3). Phylogenetic analysis suggested that PC7 is the most ancestral member of the seven basic amino acid-specific proprotein convertases [52]. Northern blot analyses demonstrated significant expression of PC7 mRNA in the colon and lymphoid-associated tissues. *In situ* hybridization and histochemistry analysis in various tissues revealed that PC7 co-localizes with Furin, suggesting widespread proteolytic functions of PC7 and its participation with Furin in the activation of several substrates [52–57].

2. PROPROTEIN CONVERTASES THAT PROCESS SUBSTRATES AT NON-BASIC RESIDUES

2.1 Subtilisin/Kexin-like Isozyme-1 (SK-1)

In 1999, using reverse transcriptase-PCR and degenerate oligonucleotides, derived from the active-site residues of subtilisin/kexin-like serine proteinases, we identified in human, rat, and mouse, a type I membrane-bound proteinase, which we called subtilisin/kexin-isozyme-1 (SKI-1) [58]. It was so named because of the homology of its catalytic domain to the bacterial subtilisin BPN (Figure 4). In contrast to the basic amino acid-specific PCs, this convertase appears to prefer processing precursors at residues within the general motif **RX(V, I, L)(K, F, L)↓**, with the preferred critical basic Arg/Lys and aliphatic (Leu/Ile/Val) residues occupying positions P4 and P2, respectively [58].

Data bank searches revealed that Sakai et al., also identified a few months earlier a similar hamster enzyme from CHO cells, which they named Site-1 protease (S1P). They determined that this enzyme was involved in the control of lipid metabolism by mediating the cleavage of Sterol Regulatory Element-Binding Proteins (SREBPs) in its luminal loop [59]. Previously, SREBPs were described to play a key role in the fundamental feedback mechanism of cellular lipid homeostasis.

The transcriptional activation of genes containing sterol responsive elements (SRE) is known to be regulated by sterols through modulation of the proteolytic maturation of SREBPs [59]. The two known SREBPs (SREBP1 and SREBP2) are inserted into the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum envelope in a wide variety of tissues. In sterol-deficient cells, proteolytic cleavage of SREBPs by SKI-1 and S2-P protease releases their N-terminal mature form from the membrane into the cytosol enabling them to enter the nucleus (Figure 5), where they bind to the SREs and activate genes involved in the biosynthesis of cholesterol, triglycerides, and fatty acids [59]. In the presence of sterols, the proteolytic process is inhibited and the transcription of the genes is reduced [59] (Figure 5).

The gene of SKI-1/S1P (*PCSK8*) is located on human chromosome 16 and mouse chromosome 8 (Figure 3), and is expressed in most tissues and cells. To date, several viral glycoproteins in addition to SREBPs, as well as the brain-derived

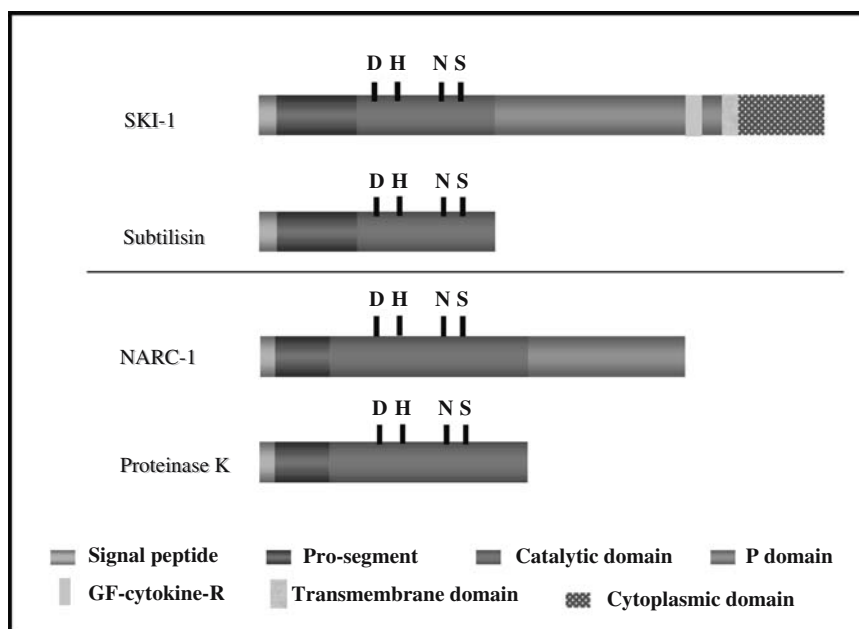


Figure 4. Schematic representation of the prohormone convertases SK-1 and NARC-1. The convertase subtilisin/kexin-isozyme-1 (SKI-1) possesses a catalytic domain with high homology to bacterial subtilisin BPN, whereas the neural apoptosis-regulated convertase-1 (NARC-1) belongs to the proteinase K-like subtilases

neurotrophic factor, ATF-6 and endocrine polypeptide somatostatin were found to be SKI-1 substrates [59–64]. New substrates include CREB-containing precursors, such as CREB-4 were also reported to be cleaved by SKI-1/S1P [65]. As with the PCs, the precursor protein of SKI-1 is also autocatalytically cleaved (Figure 2) and can be further processed into two membrane-bound forms of SKI-1 (120 and 106 kDa), differing by the nature of their N-glycosylation. Some of these SKI-1 forms are shed into the medium as a 98-kDa form.

2.2 Neural Apoptosis-regulated Convertase 1 (NARC-1/PCSK9)

Through a search of patent databases, using as a bait a small sequence of the conserved catalytic domain of SKI-1/S1P, we identified a protein belonging to proteinase K-like subtilases (Figure 4) called neural apoptosis-regulated convertase 1 (NARC-1) or PCSK9. NARC-1/PCSK9 was previously identified by two pharmaceutical companies [66], based on the cloning of up-regulated cDNAs after the induction of apoptosis by serum deprivation in the primary cerebellar neurons and by means of global cloning of secretory proteins [66]. Like other convertases, NARC-1/PCSK9 is also synthesized as a zymogen that undergoes autocatalytic intramolecular processing in the ER (Figure 2). This cleavage occurs within the

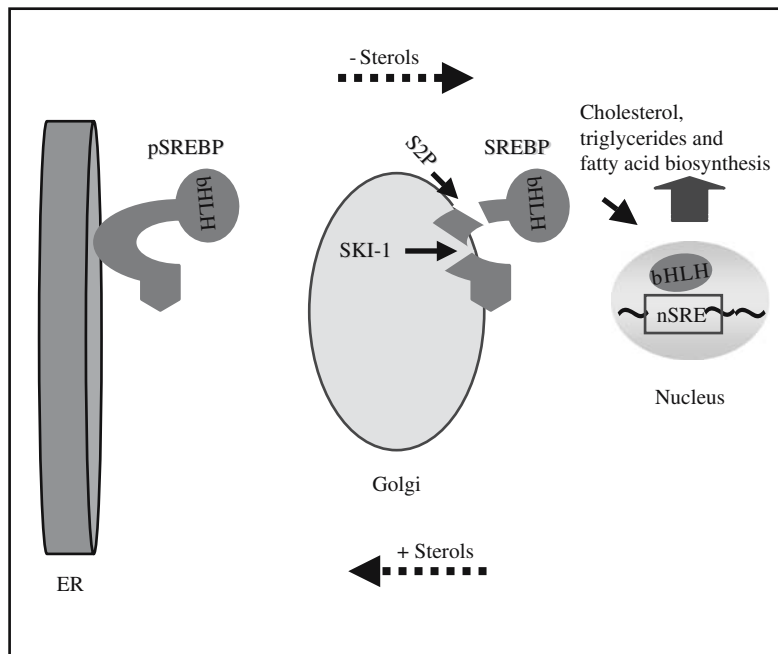


Figure 5. Role of SKI-1/S1P in the processing of SREBP. The sterol regulatory element binding protein precursors (SREBPs) are inserted into the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) envelope in various tissues and the amino-terminal transcription-factor domain (bHLH-zip) is located in the cytoplasmic compartment. Under insufficient amount of sterols, the SREBP precursor protein travels to the Golgi apparatus where SKI-1/S1P cleaves at site-1 in the luminal loop and produce the substrate for the Site-2 protease (S2P), which cleaves at site-2. This second cleavage releases the transcription-factor domain from the membrane that enters the nucleus and induces the increased transcription of target genes. In the presence of sterols, the proteolytic process is inhibited and the transcription of the genes is reduced. bHLH-zip: basic helix-loop-helix leucine-zipper

motif *SSVFAQ SIP* [67]. Northern blots and *in situ* hybridization analyses revealed that in the adult NARC-1/PCSK9 mRNA expression is restricted to the liver, kidney and small intestine. Unlike PC7 and SKI-1, but similar to Furin, PC5 and PACE4, the mRNA of NARC-1/PCSK9 was up-regulated during liver regeneration following partial hepatectomy [68]. Overexpression of NARC-1/PCSK9 in primary culture of embryonic telencephalon cells at day 13.5 induced differentiation of neuronal progenitors, suggesting a role for NARC-1/PCSK9 in enhancing the differentiation/proliferation of cortical neurons [66]. Recently, we have shown that point mutations in human PCSK9 are associated with the development of severe hypercholesterolemia phenotypes [69], likely through a gain of function [70]. Conversely, other mutations resulting in early termination of the coding region (non-sense mutations) resulted in a loss of function and hence familial hypocholesterolemia [71]. Thus, mutations in PCSK9 results in a dominant form of either hypo- or hyper-cholesterolemia, suggesting that inhibitors of these enzymes may

lead to novel pharmaceutical drugs to further lower circulating cholesterol levels as a supplement to the conventional HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors known as “statins”.

3. PROPROTEIN CONVERTASE INHIBITORS

To date, the propeptides or prosegments of the PCs constitute the only naturally occurring intracellular PC inhibitor found in the mammalian constitutive secretory pathway [1–4] and, in the case of PC1, its C-terminal domain [72]. Aside from the prosegment inhibitors, the activities of the regulated secretory pathway convertases PC1 and PC2 are also regulated by their selective and specific inhibitors/binding partners, known as proSAAS [73, 74] and 7B2 [75] respectively.

3.1 Naturally Occurring PC2 Inhibitor 7B2

In 1982, during the purification of the POMC N-terminal glyco-segment from pig anterior pituitaries, we discovered the protein 7B2 [75]. Subsequently, the homologues of this peptide were cloned in tissues and organs of other species, including human, and showed high homology between mammals [75–78]. Studies on the tissue distribution and secretion of 7B2 revealed its predominance in endocrine and neural tissues, including the brain and adrenal medulla, as well as the pituitary, thyroid and pancreas [75].

The gene for 7B2 is located on human chromosome 15 and mouse chromosome 2 (Figure 3). It is produced as an intracellular precursor of 25–29 kDa. This 7B2 precursor is converted into a secreted form of 18–21 kDa by PC cleavage after the RRRRR¹⁵⁵ motif, followed by carboxypeptidase E (CPE) removal of the 5 basic residues. After processing, 7B2 proteins are packaged into dense-core vesicles and are secreted upon exocytotic stimulation [75]. Pulse–chase studies showed that proPC2 is bound to pro7B2 in the early compartments of the secretory pathway dissociates from it in later ones and serves as an intracellular proPC2 chaperone that prevents the premature activation of the zymogen during its transit in the regulated secretory pathway [75]. Attachment of pro7B2 to proPC2 in the ER generates an inactive complex that is transported to the TGN where pro7B2 is cleaved into an N-terminal protein and an inhibitory C-terminal 31 aa peptide (CT-7B2). ProPC2 is then autocatalytically cleaved after the prodomain as the complex is transported into the immature secretory granules [75]. In the acidic environment of these organelles, the prodomain and 7B2 dissociate from the enzyme, which then cleaves the PC2-specific inhibitory CT-7B2 resulting in fully active PC2.

3.2 Naturally Occurring PC1 Inhibitor ProSAAS

ProSAAS was identified by Fricker et al. during an analysis of peptides not properly processed in *Cpe^{fat}/Cpe^{fat}* mice lacking carboxypeptidase E activity due to a point mutation in the carboxypeptidase E gene [79, 80]. These mice accumulate peptides

with C-terminal Lys and/or Arg extensions. Using an affinity column, peptides with C-terminal basic residues from *Cpe^{fat}/Cpe^{fat}* tissues were isolated and analyzed. Five of these peptides were found to be encoded by proSAAS [81]. Subsequent overexpression of proSAAS in endocrine cells revealed its selective inhibitory effect on PC1 [81]. The proSAAS gene is located on the human and mouse chromosome X (Figure 3) and, similarly to 7B2, proSAAS is largely expressed in neuroendocrine cells and its inhibitory domains are located at the C terminus. In contrast to 7B2, which is required for the expression and secretion of active convertase PC2 [82–84], active PC1 can be expressed in cells lacking proSAAS [82–84]. Despite the absence of data on proSAAS null mice, taking together with its inhibitory role on PC1, and similarities to 7B2, proSAAS may be assumed to have other functions such as the control of the body mass blood glucose levels as recently revealed by analysis of transgenic mice expressing proSAAS [85].

3.3 Prosegments and Exogenous Inhibitors

Since the discovery of Furin, many attempts have been made to develop inhibitors to control the activity of the PCs. Initially, taking advantage of the fact that PCs are synthesized as inactive zymogens autocatalytically activated, Anderson et al., demonstrated that the prosegment of Furin, when used as a fusion protein to glutathione S-transferase, exhibits a potent *in vitro* inhibitory activity on Furin [86]. Previously, we found that purified prosegments and synthetic peptides derived from the prosegments of PC1, PC7 and Furin are potent inhibitors of their corresponding enzymes [87–91]. Using these inhibitors, we were able to intracellularly inhibit the processing of various PC substrates, including PDGF-A [45], PDGF-B [46] VEGF-C [47] and IGF-1 receptor (1.)

In addition to these naturally occurring inhibitors, many exogenous inhibitors were proposed to control the activity of the convertases. Of these molecules, the trypsin inhibitor and the third domain of turkey ovomucoid have been reported to be inhibitors for furin [92]. Subsequently, Garten et al. [93] have shown that acylated peptidyl chloromethane, containing a consensus furin cleavage sequence, decanoyl-Arg-Glu-Lys-Arg-COCH₂Cl, that inhibits Furin activity *in vitro* at low micromolar concentrations to block the cleavage of influenza-virus HA. While these inhibitors were useful for study of the processing of various proteins by Furin, they appear to be unstable and unable to completely block the processing of various PC substrates *in vivo* due to their inefficiencies and/or decreased capability in entering cells. In 1988, Bathurst et al., and Brennan et al., proposed the use of protein-based inhibitors to control the activity of PCs [94]. They demonstrated that the variant of α 1-antitrypsin, called α 1-anti-trypsin Pittsburgh (α 1-PIT), which has a replacement of the reactive-site Met residue by Arg, inhibits, *in vitro*, the processing of proalbumin by Kex2p [94]. Subsequently, the group of G. Thomas developed another variant of α ₁-antitrypsin, called α ₁-anti-trypsin Portland (α ₁-PDX), in which the reactive-site Ala-Ile-Pro-Met has been replaced by Arg-Ile-Pro-Arg. This serpin inhibits Furin in the subnanomolar range, three times lower than that α ₁-PIT.

Kinetic analysis showed that a portion of bound α_1 -PDX operates as a suicide inhibitor [94–97]. Once bound to Furin's active site, α_1 -PDX can either undergo proteolysis by Furin or form a kinetically trapped SDS-stable complex with the enzyme. Furthermore, when expressed in cells, α_1 -PDX, was shown to be a potent inhibitor of Furin-mediated cleavage of HIV gp160 [97], and subsequently demonstrated to inhibit all PCs involved in processing within the constitutive secretory pathway [1, 97–101]. Inhibition of PCs by α_1 -PDX has been shown to reduce the production of the APP α [102] and block the activation of the pore-forming toxin proaerolysin [103], the maturation of infectious pathogens glycoproteins [97], the proteolytic activation of BMP4 [104] and the cleavage of IGF-1R [1, 105], PDGF-A [45], PDGF-B [46] and VEGF-C [47].

In an attempt to produce other PC inhibitors, researchers mutated the bait region of the general protease inhibitor α_2 -macroglobulin (RVGFYESDVM⁶⁹⁰ into RVRSKRSLVM⁶⁹⁰) [106]. This variant was reported to inhibit processing of several Furin substrates including HIV type 1 glycoprotein gp160, von Willebrand factor and TGF- β 1 [106]. Other inhibitors were suggested, such as the ovalbumin-type serpin human proteinase inhibitor-8, which contains two instances of the minimal Furin recognition sequence (VVRNSRCSRM³⁴³). Although this inhibitor was shown to inhibit Furin in a rapid and tight binding manner, it required the addition of a signal peptide before it could inhibit Furin *in vivo* [107]. Additionally, the hexa-D-arginine was reported to be a potent and relatively specific Furin inhibitor; however, it showed reduced ability to cross the cell membrane [108].

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

Since the discovery of Furin, the first mammalian convertase identified, cumulative knowledge has been acquired regarding the physiological and physiopathological role of these enzymes. The data obtained on the functional role of these enzymes by the use of null mice provided exceptional information, not only on the precursor proteins that are processed by one or more PCs, but also precious information on the importance of these enzymes in normal physiological situations. To date, based on the available PC-null mice, only the absence or dysfunction of Furin [109], PC5 [110] and SKI-1/S1P [111] are lethal at the embryonic stage. Mice with disrupted PC1 or PC2 are viable despite their hormonal and/or neuro-endocrinal deficiency [112, 113]. PACE4 deficient animals show bone defects [114] and PC4 null mice are infertile or subfertile [115]. These varieties in the PC knockout phenotypes reveal the complexity and wide array of the protein precursors that are processed by these enzymes. Protein precursors may be processed by one specific convertase, a limited set or multiple convertases. The determination of the knockout phenotype observed in the PC-null mice seems to be more likely due to a defect in the processing of specific protein precursors by specific PCs.

While the PC null mice studies confirm the critical role of these enzymes in the activation of proteins involved in physiological processes, there is also growing evidence of their role in various pathological processes and diseases. Some PCs

have been reported to be involved in Alzheimer's disease, rheumatoid arthritis, cancer and other pathologies. In this chapter, we have described the progress made in establishing potent and specific inhibitors to control PC activity. Some of these inhibitors, particularly α_1 -PDX, were shown to dramatically reduce tumor growth and the malignant phenotype of various cancer cells [1, 105]. α_1 -PDX was also shown to inhibit the processing of the HIV-1 GP 160 protein and other viral glycoproteins and, in turn, the production of infectious viruses. Recently, inhibition of Furin by the inhibitor Dec-RVKR-CH(2)Cl was revealed to prevent cartilage degradation induced by cytokines, suggesting the inhibition of PCs as a potential therapeutic intervention in arthritic diseases [116].

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