

RESEARCH PAPER

Modulation of PAR₁ signalling by benzimidazole compounds

S Asteriti¹*, S Daniele¹*, F Porchia¹, MT Dell' Anno¹, A Fazzini¹, I Pugliesi², ML Trincavelli¹, S Taliani², C Martini¹, MR Mazzoni¹ and A Gilchrist³

¹Department of Psychiatry, Neurobiology, Pharmacology and Biotechnology, University of Pisa, Italy, ²Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Pisa, Italy, and ³Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Midwestern University, IL, USA

Correspondence

Dr Annette Gilchrist, Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Midwestern University, 555 31st Street, Downers Grove, IL 60515, USA. E-mail: agilch@midwestern.edu

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

Keywords

allosteric; benzimidazole scaffold; biased signalling; endothelial cells; functional selectivity; $G\alpha$; GPCR; HMEC-1; PAR₁; positive/negative modulation; protease-activated receptor; Q94; thrombin; thrombin receptor

Received

26 January 2011 Revised 14 February 2012 Accepted 19 March 2012

BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

Recently, a small molecule (Q94) was reported to selectively block $PAR_1/G\alpha_q$ interaction and signalling. Here, we describe the pharmacological properties of Q94 and two analogues that share its benzimidazole scaffold (Q109, Q89). Q109 presents a modest variation from Q94 in the substituent group at the 2-position, while Q89 has quite different groups at the 1- and 2-positions.

EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH

Using human microvascular endothelial cells, we examined intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate accumulation as well as isoprenaline- or forskolin-stimulated cAMP production in response to thrombin.

KEY RESULTS

Q89 (10 μ M) produced a leftward shift in the thrombin-mediated intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization concentration–response curve while having no effect on the E_{max} . Both Q94 (10 μ M) and Q109 (10 μ M) reduced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization, leading to a decrease in E_{max} and an increase in EC₅₀ values. Experiments utilizing receptor-specific activating peptides confirmed that Q94 and Q109 were selective for PAR₁ as they did not alter the Ca²⁺ response mediated by a PAR₂ activating peptide. Consistent with our Ca²⁺ results, micromolar concentrations of either Q94 or Q109 significantly reduced thrombin-induced inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate production. Neither Q94 nor Q109 diminished the inhibitory effects of thrombin on cAMP production, indicating they inhibit signalling selectively through the G_q pathway. Our results also suggest the 1,2-disubstituted benzimidazole derivatives act as 'allosteric agonists' of PAR₁.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The Q94 and Q109 benzimidazole derivatives represent a novel scaffold for the development of new PAR₁ inhibitors and provide a starting point to develop dual signalling pathway-selective positive/negative modulators of PAR₁.

Abbreviations

AP, activating peptide; DAG, diacylglycerol; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; E_{max} , maximal effect; Fluo 3-AM, 1-[2-amino-5-(2,7-dichloro-6-hydroxy-3-oxo-9-xanthenyl)phenoxy]-2-(2-amino-5-methylphenoxy)ethane-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid, pentaacetoxymethyl ester; FSK, forskolin; G α , the α subunit of heterotrimeric G-proteins; HMEC-1, human dermal microvascular endothelial cell line; IP₃, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; PAR, protease-activated receptor; PTX, pertussis toxin; Ro 20–1724, 4-(3-butoxy-4-methoxyphenyl)methyl-2-imidazolidone; ROC, receptor-operated Ca²⁺ channels; SCH 79797, N3-cyclopropyl-7-[[4-(1-methylethyl)phenyl]methyl]-7h-pyrrolo[3,2-f]quinazoline-1,3-diamine dihydrochloride; SOC, store-operated Ca²⁺ channels; TL, tethered ligand



Introduction

Protease-activated receptors (PARs) are a family of four GPCRs (PAR₁, PAR₂, PAR₃, and PAR₄; receptor nomenclature follows Alexander et al., 2011) characterized by a unique mechanism of activation. PARs are activated enzymatically through proteolysis of the receptor by enzymes of the serine protease family (Macfarlane et al., 2001). The proteolytic cleavage occurs at specific sites within their N-terminal region, thereby exposing novel N-termini, and the 'tethered ligand' then folds back onto the extracellular loop II of the receptor, resulting in activation. PAR₁, PAR₃, and PAR₄ are preferentially cleaved by thrombin; whereas PAR2 is mainly a substrate for trypsin, and mast cell tryptase (Coughlin, 2001; Macfarlane et al., 2001; Hollenberg and Compton, 2002). In addition to proteolytic cleavage, most PARs can be activated by synthetic peptides corresponding to the tethered ligand (TL) sequence (Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008).

PARs are expressed in many cell types and different organ systems. For example, PAR₁, PAR₂, PAR₃ and PAR₄ are all expressed on human endothelial cells (Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008); although PAR4 expression may be localized to the endothelium of specific vascular areas (O'Brien et al., 2000; Fujiwara et al., 2005; Hirano et al., 2007). Upon activation, PAR₁ exerts its effects on endothelium by activating multiple G-proteins, including $G_{i/o}$, $G_{q/11}$ and $G_{12/13}$, leading to modulation of numerous downstream signalling pathways (Barr et al., 1997; Vanhauwe et al., 2002; Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008). While PAR₁ expression is widely distributed among cells and tissues, PAR2 expression is more limited, and studies indicate that signalling occurs via G_{q/11}, G_{i/o} (Nystedt et al., 1995; Macfarlane et al., 2001) and perhaps G_{12/13} (Ramachandran et al., 2009).

PAR activation plays a key role in many physiological and pathophysiological events involving different organ systems (Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008). For example, in the cardiovascular and circulatory systems, activation of PAR₁ and to a lesser extent PAR4 on human platelets is sufficient to trigger aggregation (Kahn et al., 1999), while activation of human endothelial PAR₁ and PAR₂ causes vascular relaxation (Hamilton et al., 2001; 2002; Robin et al., 2003). Indeed, PAR antagonists might prove useful therapeutically for the treatment of several diseases, including thrombosis and atherosclerosis.

Several peptide, peptidomimetic and non-peptide PAR₁ antagonists are currently available for experimental studies; and a number of synthetic small molecules are being evaluated for pharmaceutical use in humans (reviewed by Chackalamannil, 2006). In addition, alternative approaches to inhibit PAR₁ signalling, such as transfection of endothelial cells with minigene vectors expressing Ga carboxyl (C)terminal peptides (Gilchrist et al., 2001), or the use of membrane-permeable peptides termed 'pepducins' derived from the sequence of the third intracellular loop of PAR₁ (Covic et al., 2002a,b), have been presented. Deng et al. (2008) reported the use of a small molecule, Q94, which selectively blocks the interaction between PAR₁ and $G\alpha_q$, to investigate thrombin mediated signalling in mouse lung fibroblasts. Q94 was originally identified during an ELISA screen for competition of a high-affinity peptide mimicking the C-terminus of $G\alpha_q$ using a compound library (Deng et al.,

2008), and the compound may act as a negative allosteric modulator of PAR₁ rather than an orthosteric antagonist. Although Q94 has not been extensively investigated, it represents the first compound to show selective modulation of PAR₁/G-protein interactions and thus serve as a biased inhibitor of thrombin-mediated G_q pathway signalling events.

In the present study, we examined the pharmacological properties of Q94 and two analogues, Q109 and Q89, using human microvascular endothelial cells. The three small molecules (Q94, Q109, Q89) all share a benzimidazole scaffold and present either a modest variation in the substituent group at the 2-position (Q109 vs. Q94) or quite different groups at the 1- and 2-positions (Q89 vs. Q94). Whereas micromolar concentrations of Q94 or Q109 resulted in a 30–50% reduction of thrombin's maximal effect (E_{max}) on intracellular Ca2+ mobilization in combination with a two- to threefold increase of thrombin's EC50 value, a micromolar concentration of Q89 produced a shift to the left in thrombin's concentration-response curve and had no effect on thrombin E_{max} . Similar to the Ca²⁺ mobilization studies, experiments assessing inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) accumulation indicated that the presence of micromolar concentrations of either Q94 or Q109 resulted in a significant decrease in thrombin's maximal stimulation (E_{max}). The antagonistic properties of Q94 and Q109 appear selective as they affected the concentration-response curve of a selective PAR₁ activating peptide (AP) while not altering that of a selective PAR2-AP. In addition, these benzimidazole derivatives did not reverse the inhibitory effect of thrombin on isoprenaline- or forskolin-stimulated cAMP production, suggesting they can selectively inhibit the Gq pathway. Importantly, our studies reveal that although the benzimidazole derivatives Q94 and Q109 behave as selective modulators of PAR₁ signalling and represent a novel scaffold for the development of new PAR₁ inhibitors, their effect on PAR₁ signalling is more complex than simple inhibition of G_q activation.

Methods

Cell culture

Human dermal microvascular endothelial cells (HMEC-1), a generous gift of Dr E Ades (Centers for Disease Control, Atlanta, GA) were grown in MCDB 131 medium supplemented with 5% FBS, penicillin/streptomycin (100 U·mL⁻¹; 100 μ g·mL⁻¹), hydrocortisone (1 μ g·mL⁻¹), EGF (0.01 μ g·mL⁻¹) and L-glutamine (2 mM) in an atmosphere of 95% air, 5% CO₂ at 37°C. Cells were seeded at 1 × 10⁵ cells⋅mL⁻¹ in 75 mL cell culture flasks coated with 1% gelatin and subcultured after detachment with 0.05% trypsin, 0.5 mM EDTA. For all of the experiments described, cells were used at passages 17-22.

$[Ca^{2+}]_i$ measurement

Variations in [Ca²⁺]_i were measured using a Wallac 1420 multilabel counter microplate reader (PerkinElmer, Inc., Waltham, MA) on HMECs-1 loaded with the Fluo 3-AM. HMECs-1 were seeded in black/clear-bottomed 96-well assay plates coated with 1% gelatin at a density of 3×10^4 cells per well and after attachment (6-8 h) were deprived of serum

(serum-starved) for 3 h. Before the start of the assay, cells were washed twice with loading buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 130 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgSO₄, 0.83 mM Na₂HPO₄, 0.17 mM NaH₂PO₄) containing 25 mM mannose, 1 mg·mL⁻¹ BSA and 2.5 mM probenecid and then incubated in 100 µL of the same buffer containing 6 µM Fluo 3-AM/0.024% pluronic acid. After 1 h at 37°C, cells were washed twice with loading buffer and incubated in 100 µL of the same buffer for an additional 1 h at 37°C to remove any excess dye. Fluorescence measurements, reflecting the increase of [Ca²⁺]_i, were carried out at 37°C with an excitation wavelength of 480 nm and emission recorded at 530 nm. Fluorescence was first recorded at baseline and within 20 s of agonist (thrombin, trypsin, PAR₁- or PAR₂-AP) addition. In time course experiments, fluorescence was recorded at baseline and then every 3 s after thrombin (50 nM) addition for another 120 s. The basal intracellular Ca2+ concentration was calculated using the following equation based on fluorescence intensity (F):

$$[Ca^{2+}]_{i} = K_{D}(F - F_{min})/(F_{max} - F)$$

using $K_D = 390$ nM for Fluo 3. F_{max} was the maximal Ca²⁺ response obtained after cell permeabilization with $20\,\mu\text{M}$ ionomycin for 10 min, while F_{\min} was the minimal Ca²⁺ response measured 10 min after addition of 2 mM MnCl₂.

Unless otherwise noted, for experiments directed at testing the effects of Q94, Q109 or Q89, the compounds were added 15 min before the addition of agonists. For a series of Ca²⁺ experiments, we added the agonist immediately following the addition of the compounds. Thrombin and trypsin concentration-response curves were performed using up to seven different concentrations of the enzymes (0.01 nM to 1 μM) in the presence and absence of fixed concentrations of PAR₁ modulators (Q94, Q109 or Q89). PAR-AP concentrationresponse curves were obtained using up to seven different concentrations of activating peptides (0.1-300 µM) in the presence and absence of fixed concentrations of PAR₁ modulators (Q94 or Q109). The concentration-response curves of Q94, Q109 or SCH 79797 were carried out using six different concentrations of the PAR₁ modulators (0.1 nM to 10 µM) at a thrombin concentration of 50 nM. Stock solutions (10 mM) of the compounds were prepared in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and then diluted in loading buffer. In each well, the concentration of DMSO never exceeded 0.1%, a level at which assay measurements were not affected, as demonstrated by control experiments carried out in the presence of this same concentration of compound vehicle (data not shown). Before the stock solutions were prepared, the structural identity of each compound was verified by routine NMR spectra recorded in d_6 -DMSO solution on a Gemini 200 spectrometer (Varian Inc, Santa Clara, CA) operating at 200 MHz (data not shown).

*Measurement of intracellular IP*₃ *levels*

Intracellular IP3 levels were measured using a competitive protein binding method, as previously reported (Gerwins, 1993). Thrombin concentration-response curves were obtained by incubating cells at 37°C for 15 min with different agonist concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 100 nM. To evaluate the effect of compound Q94 and Q109 on IP3 production, cells were exposed to compound concentrations of 1 or 10 μM in the presence of different thrombin concentrations (15 min at 37°C). Compounds and thrombin were added at the same time. The reaction was terminated by the removal of the medium and the addition of 1 N HCl. After 30 min, lysates were neutralized with 2 N KOH, 1 M Tris and 60 mM EGTA; and the suspension centrifuged at $3000 \times g$ for 10 min.

The binding assay was performed in a 96-well microtitre plate format using a binding protein purified from bovine adrenal gland according to the method published by Gerwins (1993). In this protocol, each well contains 25 µL of assay buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 9, 4 mM EDTA, 4 mM EGTA, 4 mg·mL⁻¹ BSA), 25 μL of [³H]-IP₃ (3000–3500 cpm), 25 μL of binding protein (~0.5 mg) and 25 μL of standard IP₃ (0.02– 6.25 pmol) or sample. After 1 h incubation at 4°C, bound [3H]-IP₃ is separated by rapid filtration through GF/C glass fibre filters using a cell harvester. The radioactivity is then measured by liquid scintillation spectrometry.

Measurement of intracellular cAMP

Intracellular cAMP levels were measured using a competitive protein binding method, as previously described (Nordstedt and Fredholm, 1990; Colotta et al., 2009). Cells $(4 \times 10^4 \text{ per})$ well) were plated in 24-well plates in 0.5 mL of medium. After 24 h, the medium was removed; and 0.5 mL of serum free medium with PDE inhibitor, Ro 20-1724 (20 µM), was added and the cells incubated at 37°C for 15 min. Cells were then exposed to different compound concentrations ranging from 100 nM to 10 µM in the presence and absence of 50 nM thrombin (15 min at 37°C). Assays were initiated by the addition of 0.5 µM FSK or 1 µM isoprenaline. The reaction was terminated by the removal of the medium and the addition of 0.4 N HCl. After 30 min, lysates were neutralized with 4 N KOH, and the suspension centrifuged at $800 \times g$ for 5 min. To measure cAMP production, bovine adrenal cAMP binding protein was incubated with [3H]-cAMP (2 nM) and 50 µL of cell lysate or cAMP standard (0-16 pmol) at 0°C for 150 min in a total volume of 300 µL. Bound radioactivity was separated by rapid filtration through GF/C glass fibre filters, and then the filters were washed twice with 4 mL of 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4. The radioactivity was measured by liquid scintillation spectrometry.

For studies involving pertussis toxin (PTX) (to ADPribosylate G_i-proteins), HMEC-1 cells were incubated overnight in serum-free culture medium in the presence or absence of 200 ng⋅mL⁻¹ PTX. These cells were then used to measure FSK-stimulated cAMP production and inhibition by thrombin as described above.

Immunoblot detection of PAR_1 on cell membranes

HMECs-1 were incubated in the presence and absence (control) of 10 µM Q94 or Q109 for 15 min at 37°C. After incubation, cells were rinsed with Dulbecco's PBS (8.1 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄, pH 7.4, 137 mM NaCl and 2.7 mM KCl) and lysed in hypotonic buffer (5 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 2 mM EDTA and 1 μL·mL⁻¹ protease inhibitor cocktail). Cell lysates were centrifuged at 48 $000 \times g$ for 30 min at 4°C. Membrane fraction was re-suspended in solubilizing buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM EGTA, 1% Triton and $1 \mu L \cdot mL^{-1}$ protease inhibitor cocktail).



Solubilized proteins were treated with Laemmli solution, boiled for 5 min and then resolved by SDS-PAGE (10% gel). Proteins were then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. blocked and then probed overnight at 4°C with a rabbit anti-PAR₁ polyclonal antibody (1:200). Following three 5 min washes, the membranes were incubated with an anti-rabbit peroxidase-labelled secondary antibody (1:10 000). The proteins were visualized using enhanced chemiluminescence substrate (Western Lightning® Plus-ECL). If noted, membranes were stripped and re-probed with a mouse anti-β-actin monoclonal antibody (1:2000) for 2 h at room temperature followed by an anti-mouse peroxidase-labelled secondary antibody (1:2000).

Data analysis

Data from concentration-response curves were analysed using GraphPad Prism (version 4.00) for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA), to yield EC₅₀, IC₅₀ and E_{max} values. Values represent the means ± SEM of at least three independent experiment (n = number of experiments). The statistical analysis was performed by Student's unpaired t-test or oneway ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparison test using GraphPad Prism.

Materials

Penicillin, streptomycin, trypsin, hydrocortisone, ionomycin, FSK, cAMP, Ro 20-1724, probenecid, protease inhibitor cocktail and secondary antibodies were products from Sigma-Aldrich Inc. (St. Louis, MO); while [3H]-cAMP (specific activity, 31.0 Ci mmol⁻¹), [³H]-IP₃ (specific activity, 21.5 Ci mmol⁻¹) and enhanced chemiluminescence substrate (Western lightning® Plus-ECL) were from PerkinElmer Inc. (Waltham, MA). MCDB 131 medium, FBS, EGF, L-glutamine, Fluo 3 acetoxy methylester (Fluo 3-AM), pluronic acid and nitrocellulose membrane were purchased from Invitrogen Corporation (Carlsbad, CA). Isoprenaline was from Research Biochemical International (Natick, MA). Human α-thrombin (specific activity, ≥2800 NIH U mg⁻¹ protein), PTX and IP₃ were from Calbiochem-Novabiochem Corp. (San Diego, CA). PAR₁-AP, TFLLR-NH₂ and PAR₂-AP, SLIGRL-NH₂, were synthesized by Espikem s.r.l. (Florence, Italy). Q89, Q94 and Q109 were synthesized on site but can be ordered from ChemDiv (San Diego, CA) as compound numbers 1774-0089, 5786-1094 and C147-0109, respectively. SCH 79797 was purchased from Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, UK). Primary antibodies were from Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc (Santa Cruz, CA). Other agents and reagents were from standard commercial sources and were of the highest grade available.

Results

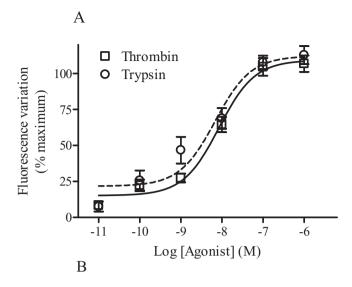
Effects of PAR agonists on intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization

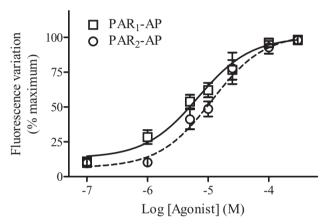
Human endothelial cells express all four PARs (Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008), although PAR4 expression may be restricted to the endothelium of specific vascular areas (O'Brien et al., 2000; Fujiwara et al., 2005; Hirano et al., 2007). HMEC-1, a dermal microvascular cell line established in 1992 (Ades et al., 1992) has proven to be a useful tool for endothelial cell studies. McLaughlin et al. (2005) reported that PAR₄ is not expressed in this cell line. In order to test the ability of the benzimidazole compounds to selectivity modulate PAR₁ versus PAR2 signalling in HMEC-1, we measured receptorinduced G_q activation and subsequent intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization using PAR-APs and compared results with those obtained following thrombin or trypsin stimulation. Two agonist peptides, TFLLR-NH2 and SLIGRL-NH2, were used to selectively activate PAR₁ and PAR₂, respectively (Luo et al., 2007; Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008).

To measure Ca2+ transients, we utilized Fluo 3-AM and a Wallac 1420 multilabel counter microplate reader, as described under Methods. Thrombin, trypsin and selective PAR-APs induced rapid and transient increases in [Ca²⁺]_i in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 1A and B). Saturating amounts of either thrombin or trypsin produced an approximately twofold increase of [Ca²⁺]_i. Thrombin mobilized intracellular Ca²⁺ with an EC₅₀ of 8.4 \pm 0.8 nM (n = 4), while the EC₅₀ for trypsin was 6.8 ± 0.7 nM (n = 6)(Figure 1A). The EC₅₀ value for thrombin-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was approximately fivefold higher than that reported by McLaughlin et al. (2005) in the same endothelial cell line. However, we must point out that our assay conditions and fluorescence detection system were quite different from those previously described. PAR₁-AP and PAR₂-AP induced similar, substantial elevations in [Ca²⁺]_i in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 1B). Saturating concentrations (300 µM) of each agonist peptide caused an approximately two- to threefold increase in [Ca²⁺]_i, with EC₅₀ values of 6.7 \pm 0.8 μ M (n = 6) for PAR₁-AP and 11.4 \pm 0.8 μ M (n = 6) for PAR₂-AP. Thus, thrombin, trypsin, PAR₁-AP and PAR₂-AP were all found to induce Ca²⁺ mobilization responses.

Modulation of PAR-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization by benzimidazole derivatives

Here, we examined the pharmacological properties of Q94 as well as two other compounds, Q89 and Q109, which share the Q94 benzimidazole scaffold. Q89 and Q109, like Q94, compete with a high-affinity peptide mimic of the $G\alpha_q$ C-terminus (Supplementary Data S1; Figure S1). Both Q94 and Q109 bear a p-chlorobenzyl moiety at the 1-position of the benzimidazole scaffold, but at the 2-position, they differ in the flexibility of the side chains ending with a benzyl group (Figure 4). On the other hand, Q89 bears quite different groups at the 1- and 2-positions as compared with those of Q94 and Q109 (Figure 4). In our initial experiments, we tested the effect of either 1 µM Q94 or Q109 on Ca2+ transient induced by HMEC-1 stimulated with 50 nM thrombin, a concentration that provides maximal Ca2+ mobilization. The resulting traces (Figure 2A and B) indicate that in the first 15 s, both compounds significantly reduced the [Ca²⁺]_i increase irrespective of the time of their addition. Furthermore, pre-incubation of HMECs-1 in the presence of either Q94 or Q109 did not modify PAR₁ amounts on the cell membrane, as shown using immunoblot analysis followed by densitometric scanning (Figure 2C). Next, we varied the concentration of thrombin and looked at the effect of fixed concentrations of the benzimidazole compounds on thrombin-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization.





Concentration-dependent intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization by PAR₁ and PAR₂ agonists (A, activating proteases; B, PAR-APs). Intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was measured using Fluo 3-AM-loaded HMECs-1 as described in Methods. Basal [Ca²⁺]_i, calculated as described in Methods, was 255.7 \pm 39.3 nM (n = 8). Data are reported as % of maximal relative fluorescence (RF) (RF = $(F_s - F_0) / F_0$, where F_0 is basal fluorescence, and F_s is fluorescence recorded after cell stimulation with the agonist) and are the means \pm SEM of four (A) and six (B) independent experiments, each performed in triplicate.

Q94 altered the concentration-response curve of thrombin. Specifically, at low thrombin concentrations (10 pM to 1 nM), 100 nM Q94 produced a conspicuous increase in the fluorescent signal, indicating an increase in [Ca²⁺]_i, while at higher enzyme concentrations the same amount of Q94 (100 nM) resulted in a decrease in thrombin E_{max} when compared to a control concentration-response curve with an E_{max} value of 71.9 \pm 4.8% (n = 3) (Figure 3A; Table 1). Under these conditions, Q94 caused an approximately fourfold decrease in thrombin EC₅₀ value. However, when Q94 was used at higher concentrations (1 and 10 μM), no increase in [Ca²⁺]_i was observed at low thrombin concentrations. Rather, rightward shifts in the thrombin concentration-response curve with an approximately twofold increase in EC50 value and ~30% decrease in the maximal response (Figure 3A; Table 1) were observed.

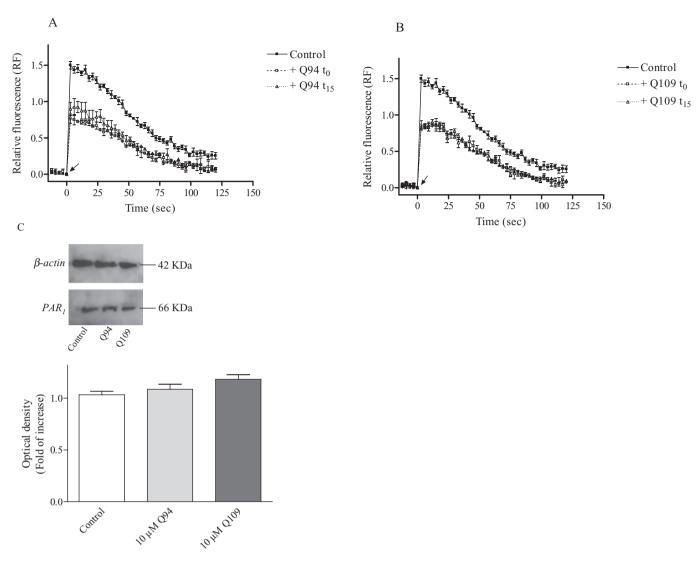
An increase in [Ca²⁺]_i was also demonstrated with 100 nM Q109, but unlike Q94, the thrombin concentration–response curve was not altered, although the calculated EC50 value was modestly increased (Figure 3B). As seen with Q94, when used at 1 or 10 µM concentrations, Q109 resulted in shifts to the right of the curve with a two- to threefold increase in thrombin EC₅₀ values (Figure 3B; Table 1). In addition, as was observed with Q94, Q109 also decreased thrombin's maximal response, with $E_{\rm max}$ values of $84.2 \pm 7.4\%$ (n = 4) and $62.0 \pm 2.6\%$ (n = 4) in the presence of 1 and 10 μ M, respectively. The rightward shift in thrombin's response curve along with the decreased E_{max} values support the hypothesis that the benzimidazole derivatives Q94 and Q109 behave as allosteric modulators of PAR₁.

The third benzimidazole derivative, compound Q89, did not cause either a decrease in thrombin E_{max} or an increase in the EC₅₀ value when given at a concentration of 10 μM. Rather, it steepened the concentration–response curve of the agonist leading to an approximately threefold decrease in the EC₅₀ value (Figure 4, inset; Table 1). Although a steepening of the concentration-response curve is indicative of an interaction that is not simply competitive, this compound was not further tested due to its lack of inhibitory activity on thrombin E_{max} .

Next, we addressed the potency of Q94 and Q109 as inhibitors of thrombin-induced intracellular Ca2+ mobilization by performing concentration-response curves for the compounds at a fixed concentration of thrombin (50 nM). This thrombin concentration was selected as it provided a consistent level of fluorescence signal. We compared the potency of Q94 and Q109 with that of a commercially available PAR₁ antagonist, SCH 79797. All three compounds inhibited thrombin-mediated [Ca²⁺]_i increases in a concentrationdependent fashion (Figure 5). The IC₅₀ values for Q94, Q109 and SCH 79797 inhibitions were $10.3 \pm 0.7 \text{ nM}$ (n = 3), $19.2 \pm 0.6 \text{ nM}$ (n = 3) and $50.6 \pm 0.6 \text{ nM}$ (n = 3), respectively. The IC₅₀ value obtained for SCH 79797 was similar to the IC₅₀ value reported for inhibition of thrombin-induced Ca²⁺ transient in vascular smooth muscle cells (Ahn et al., 2000). Interestingly, whereas SCH 79797 concentrations ranging between 0.1 and 1 nM caused a ~25% inhibition of fluorescence variation, the same concentrations of either Q94 or Q109 induced an increase in fluorescence (Figure 5). In the absence of agonist, the benzimidazole derivatives had no significant effect on basal fluorescence (Figure 5), indicating the observed differences were not the result of intrinsic fluorescence.

To determine whether Q94 and Q109 benzimidazole derivatives were subtype-selective, we investigated their effects on PAR₁-AP- and PAR₂-AP-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization. In the presence of either 1 or 10 µM Q94, the PAR₁-AP concentration-response curves were shifted to the right with an approximately twofold increase in EC50 values being observed when compared with the control EC50 value (Figure 6A; Table 1). Moreover, while 1 μM Q94 did not cause a significant decrease in the PAR₁-AP E_{max} value, 10 μ M Q94 resulted in a 28% reduction in the maximal response. The concentration-response curve for PAR2-AP was not affected by the addition of either 1 or $10\,\mu M$ Q94, indicating the compound is not a modulator of PAR2 signalling to





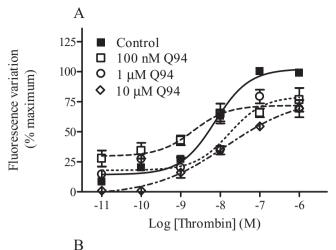
Effect of Q94 and Q109 on [Ca²⁺]_i transients in HMECs-1 in response to thrombin (A and B) and PAR₁ levels on cell membrane (C). (A and B) Intracellular Ca²⁺ was measured using Fluo 3-AM-loaded HMECs-1 as described in Methods. Fluorescence was recorded before and then every 3 s after 50 nM thrombin addition for 120 s. The benzimidazole compounds (1 µM) were added immediately before, or 15 min before, thrombin addition. Values, reported as RF, are the means ± SEM of three independent experiments, each performed in triplicate. In the first 15 s after thrombin addition, RF values in the presence of compounds are significantly different form those obtained in the absence (control) (P < 0.01 and P < 0.001) as determined by ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparison test. The arrows indicate addition of thrombin. (C) Solubilized membrane proteins were subjected to SDS-PAGE and electroblotted. A rabbit anti-PAR₁ polyclonal antibody was used in immunoblots, which were then stripped and re-probed with a mouse anti-β-actin monoclonal antibody. The intensity of the immunoreactive bands was estimated by optical density measurements of scanned images using Image I (NIH, Bethesda, MD), a public domain IAVA image-processing program. Columns are means means ± SEM of three independent experiments, whereas the immunoblot is representative of one of these experiments.

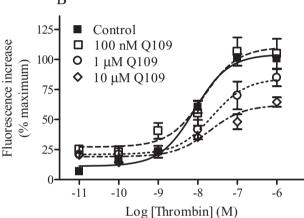
 G_q -proteins (Figure 6B). In the presence of 1 μ M Q109, the PAR₁-AP concentration–response curve was not significantly shifted to the right, but the $E_{\rm max}$ value was reduced $(71.0 \pm 4.9\%; n = 3)$ (Figure 7A; Table 1). The addition of 10 μM Q109 caused a rightward shift in the PAR₁-AP concentration–response curve, resulting in a twofold increase in the EC₅₀ value and a 37% reduction in the agonist maximal response (Table 1). As with Q94, the concentration-response curve for PAR₂-AP-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was not affected by either 1 or 10 µM Q109 (Figure 7B), indicating

that this benzimidazole derivative is a selective negative modulator of PAR₁- but not PAR₂-activated signalling.

*Modulation of thrombin-stimulated IP*₃ production by benzimidazole derivatives

G_q-coupled receptors, including PAR₁, induce an increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ that occurs secondary to IP₃ production. Therefore, the effects of Q94 and Q109 were evaluated using thrombin-induced IP₃ production, a signalling event closer to receptor activation. Thrombin induced an increase in IP3





Modulation of thrombin-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization by Q94 (A) and Q109 (B). Intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was measured using Fluo 3-AM-loaded HMECs-1 as described in Methods. Basal $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was 240.1 \pm 45.3 nM (n = 4). The benzimidazole compounds were added 15 min before the addition of thrombin. The concentration-response curves were performed using seven different concentrations of the enzyme in the presence and absence of fixed concentrations of PAR₁ modulators. Data are reported as % of maximal RF and are the means \pm SEM of three (A) and four (B) independent experiments, each performed in triplicate.

levels in HMECs-1 in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 8), with an EC₅₀ value of 6.6 \pm 1.5 nM (n = 3), while 100 nM thrombin maximally induced IP₃ production. A good correlation was obtained between thrombin-induced [Ca²⁺]_i increase and IP₃ production, as shown by a comparison of the concentration-response curves (Figure 1A and Figure 8). Consistent with our Ca2+ results, micromolar concentrations of either Q94 or Q109 caused a reduction of thrombininduced IP₃ production (Figure 8), as shown by the rightwards shift of the concentration-response curves and significant decrease in E_{max} value (Table 2). These results indicate that the benzimidazole derivatives interfere with PAR₁induced G_q activation and signalling.

Modulation of PAR₁-induced inhibition of FSK- or isoprenaline-stimulated cAMP production by benzimidazole derivatives

As we intended to analyse the effect of the benzimidazole derivatives on PAR₁ signalling through G_{i/o}-proteins in intact cells, various experimental approaches and conditions to measure thrombin-mediated inhibition of cAMP production induced by either FSK or isoprenaline in HMECs-1 were tested. Using the cAMP detection system described in Methods, we were able to measure robust PAR₁-mediated inhibition of cAMP accumulation in HMECs-1 (Figure 9). Cell stimulation with either 0.5 µM FSK or 1 µM isoprenaline provided a consistent increase in cAMP production, while thrombin significantly inhibited such production in a concentration-dependent fashion (Figure 9A and B). Thrombin at a concentration of 5 nM inhibited both FSKand isoprenaline-stimulated cAMP production by ~50%, while at 50 nM thrombin, the inhibitory effect was ~90% of maximal inhibition. Concentrations of the benzimidazole derivatives ranging from 100 nM to 10 µM were unable to reverse the inhibitory effect of either 5 or 50 nM thrombin on stimulated cAMP accumulation (Figure 9A and B).

Unexpectedly, we noted that in the absence of thrombin, the presence of either Q94 or Q109 (10 µM) resulted in a ~20-30% inhibition of FSK- or isoprenaline-stimulated cAMP production. This unanticipated result raises the question of whether the benzimidazole compounds might be acting directly on AC, as this effect was evident on both FSK- and isoprenaline-stimulated cAMP production. In order to better understand the action of Q94 and Q109 with respect to G_{i/o} signalling, HMECs-1 were treated with PTX overnight to induce ADP-ribosylation of Gα_{i/o} subunits and thus block PAR₁ signalling to G_{i/o}-proteins. In PTX-treated cells, 50 nM thrombin caused a ~29% inhibition of FSK-stimulated cAMP production, while in untreated cells, the inhibitory effect reached ~80% (Figure 10). The significant inhibitory effect of Q109 on FSK-stimulated cAMP production in untreated cells was not observed in PTX-treated HMECs-1 (Figure 10), indicating this effect is mediated through G_{i/o}. However, the effects observed with Q94 on cAMP production are more difficult to interpret. Even though the inhibitory effect observed with 10 µM Q94 on FSK-stimulated cAMP production was reduced (~20% in PTX-treated cells as compared with the ~40% obtained in parallel experiments in untreated cells; Figure 10), the inhibition was still significant (P < 0.01).

Discussion

Since the initial identification that multiple PARs exist, many physiological and pathophysiological events have been ascribed to their cellular signalling. The involvement of PARs in various processes and their complex interplay has stimulated researchers to develop receptor antagonists not only as tools for pharmacological characterization but more significantly as therapeutic approaches. Numerous peptide, peptidomimetic and non-peptide PAR₁ antagonists are now available for both experimental studies and pharmaceutical use in humans (Chackalamannil, 2006; Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008). Many non-peptide antagonists appear to



Table 1 Effects of benzimidazole compounds on parameters of agonist-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization

	Thrombin EC ₅₀ (nM)	E _{max} (%)	PAR ₁ -AP EC ₅₀ (μM)	E _{max} (%)	PAR ₂ -AP EC ₅₀ (μM)	E _{max} (%)
Control	$8.4 \pm 0.8 \ (n=4)$	109.3 ± 3.8	$6.8 \pm 0.8 \ (n=6)$	100.1 ± 3.4	$11.4 \pm 0.8 \ (n=6)$	102.5 ± 4.0
+100 nM Q94	$2.1 \pm 0.5 \ (n=3)***$	71.9 ± 4.8**	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
+1 μM Q94	$16.9 \pm 0.5 \ (n=3)***$	79.4 ± 6.8**	$13.3 \pm 0.8 \ (n=3)***$	94.2 ± 4.5	$9.5 \pm 0.8 \ (n=3)$	101.6 ± 4.8
+10 μM Q94	$14.0 \pm 0.8 \ (n = 3)***$	78.8 ± 6.4**	$15.2 \pm 0.7 \ (n=3)***$	72.1 ± 4.7**	$9.3 \pm 0.8 \ (n=3)$	109.4 ± 4.6
+100 nM Q109	$13.8 \pm 0.6 \ (n = 4)***$	110.2 ± 7.5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
+1 μM Q109	$23.1 \pm 0.6 \ (n = 4)***$	84.2 ± 7.4*	$4.3 \pm 0.6 \ (n=3)$	71.0 ± 4.9**	$11.3 \pm 0.8 \ (n=3)$	100.0 ± 3.2
+10 μM Q109	$19.9 \pm 0.7 \ (n = 4)***$	62.0 ± 2.6***	$14.6 \pm 0.5 \ (n=3)***$	62.9 ± 5.8***	$13.9 \pm 0.8 \ (n=3)$	101.8 ± 4.9
+10 μM Q89	$2.5 \pm 0.3 \ (n=3)^{***}$	101.6 ± 3.1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

 EC_{50} and E_{max} values were obtained by fitting concentration–response curves of Figures 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 using the non-linear regression analysis of GraphPad Prism version 4.00 for Windows. E_{max} is expressed as % of maximal RF (RF = $(F_s - F_0) / F_0$, where F_0 is basal fluorescence, and F_s fluorescence recorded after cell stimulation with the agonist). Data are means ± SEM of values from at least three independent experiments performed in triplicate. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001, significantly different from corresponding control by ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparison test. n.d., not determined.

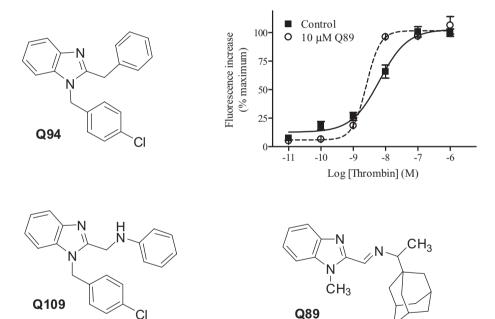


Figure 4

Molecular structures of the benzimidazole derivatives and effect (inset) of an analogue, Q89, on thrombin-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization. Intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was measured using Fluo 3-AM-loaded HMECs-1 as described in Methods. Basal $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was 232.3 \pm 40.2 nM (n = 3). The benzimidazole compound Q89 was added 15 min before the addition of thrombin. The concentration–response curves were performed using seven different concentrations of the enzyme in the presence and absence of 10 μM Q89. Data are reported as % of maximal RF and are the means ± SEM of three experiments, each performed in triplicate.

be effective antithrombotic agents in humans (Chackalamannil et al., 2005; Chackalamannil, 2006), although to date none have received FDA approval (Sugunaraj et al., 2011).

The possibility of modulating PAR₁ activation through allosteric modulation using non-peptide molecules has been poorly explored. Recently, Dowal et al. (2011) identified an analogue of 1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-4-pentyl-9*H*-cyclopenta[b] quinolin-9-imine, JF5, as an allosteric modulator of PAR₁. The use of a benzimidazole derivative, Q94, to specifically block PAR₁ signalling mediated by G_q-proteins was initially reported by Deng et al. (2008) and then later confirmed (Scotton et al., 2009). This compound was originally identified during an

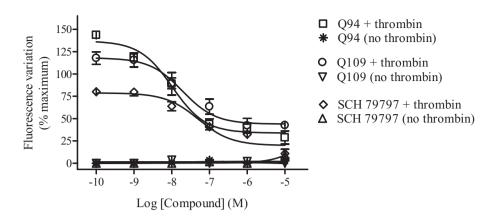


Figure 5

Concentration-dependent inhibition of thrombin-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization by Q94, Q109 and SCH 79797. Intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was measured using Fluo 3-AM-loaded HMECs-1 as described in Methods. Basal $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was 250.1 \pm 32.0 nM (n=3). The concentration-response curves were carried out using 6 different concentrations of the compounds in the presence and absence of 50 nM thrombin. Thrombin was added 15 min after the addition of compounds. Data are reported as % of maximal RF and are the means ± SEM of three experiments, each performed in triplicate.

Table 2 Effect of benzimidazole compounds on thrombin's maximal stimulation of IP₃ production

E _{max} (pmol per well)
242.0 ± 22.1
118.1 ± 7.5***
111.0 ± 6.0***
153.0 ± 11.0*
104.2 ± 6.1***

E_{max} values were obtained by fitting concentration-response curves of three independent using the non-linear regression analysis of GraphPad Prism version 4.00 for Windows Data are means ± SEM of values from three independent experiments performed in triplicate. *P < 0.05; ***P < 0.001, significantly different from corresponding control by ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparison test.

ELISA screen that identified hits based on their ability to compete with a high-affinity peptide mimicking the C-terminus of $G\alpha_q$ (Deng et al., 2008) and probably represents a new class of negative modulators of PAR₁ signalling.

We investigated the pharmacological activity and specificity of three benzimidazole derivatives (Q94, Q109, Q89) utilizing PAR₁ endogenously expressed in HMECs-1 and identified Q94 and Q109 as effective negative modulators of PAR₁activated G_q signalling. Compound Q94 appears to be twofold more potent than Q109 at inhibiting thrombininduced intracellular Ca2+ mobilization, while the analogue Q89 is devoid of any inhibitory activity. From a structural point of view, all three compounds possess the same benzimidazole scaffold, but Q89 substituents are quite different from those of Q94 and Q109, which present some similarities. The benzimidazole nucleus of both Q94 and Q109 bears

substituents of similar characteristic in terms of lipophilicity and steric hindrance at 1- and 2-positions. In contrast, Q89 possesses a small methyl group at the 1-position and a very bulky lipophilic adamantane bonded at the 2-position through a linker of limited flexibility. This bulky moiety with reduced movement ability may interfere with a suitable fitting of Q89 on the receptor interaction site, while the two lipophilic substituents of Q94 and Q109 may contribute to a more efficacious interaction with the receptor. The slight reduction in potency displayed by Q109 on thrombinmediated responses may be due to the length of the linker between the benzimidazole nucleus and the phenyl ring of the substituent at 2-position. A commercially available pyrroloquinazoline compound, SCH 79797 (Ahn et al., 2000), which is considered to be a selective PAR₁-competitive antagonist, also inhibited thrombin-stimulated intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization in our assay system, but it was five- and approximately threefold less potent than Q94 and Q109, respectively.

A series of benzimidazole derivatives have been previously reported to be high-affinity PAR₁ antagonists with the ability to potently inhibit thrombin-induced platelet aggregation (Chackalamannil et al., 2001). However, the compounds were 1,3-disubstituted benzimidazole derivatives, while our compounds are 1,2-disubstituted benzimidazole derivatives. Nevertheless, both types of compound require at least a benzyl group as a substituent at N to exert the optimal inhibitory activity. Chackalamannil et al. (2005) showed that the 1,3-disubstituted benzimidazole derivatives were competitive inhibitors of [125I]-TRAP binding to PAR₁. However, as allosteric modulators can mimic orthosteric antagonists and alter ligand binding (Christopoulos and Kenakin, 2002), without the benefit of dissociation rate kinetics, we can only speculate that the 1,3-disubstituted bezimidazole derivatives may indeed be negative allosteric modulators.

The present study provides the first characterization of two 1,2-disubstituted bezimidazole derivatives, Q94 and Q109, as possible negative allosteric modulators of PAR₁ G_q



-3

-4

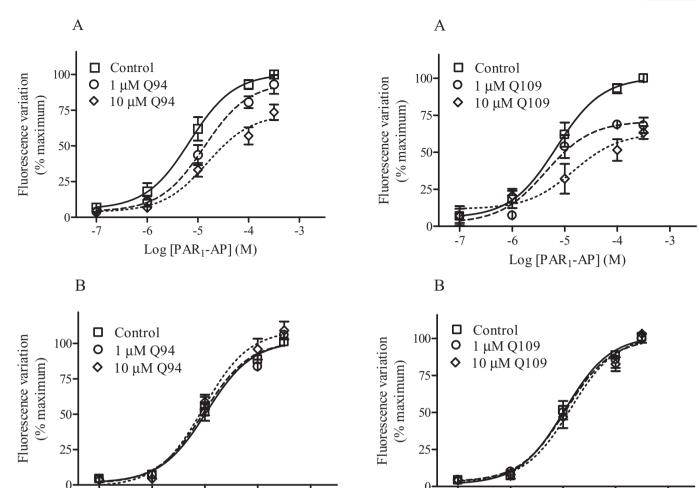


Figure 6

Modulation of (A) PAR₁-AP- and (B) PAR₂-AP-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization by Q94. Intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was measured using Fluo 3-AM-loaded HMECs-1 as described in Methods. Basal $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was 210.5 \pm 35.8 nM (n = 3). The concentration response curves were performed using five different concentrations of the agonist peptides in the presence and absence of two fixed concentrations of Q94 added 15 min before the addition of PAR₁-AP (A) or PAR₂-AP (B). Data are reported as % of maximal RF and are the means \pm SEM of three experiments, each performed in triplicate.

-6

-5

 $Log[PAR_2-AP](M)$

-4

-3

signalling. When tested in biochemical functional assays (Ca²⁺, IP₃), which are indirect measures of PAR₁-induced activation of G_q-proteins, increasing concentrations of the benzimidazole derivatives caused a progressive shift to the right and a decrease in the maximal response of agonist (thrombin or PAR₁-AP) concentration-response curves. These findings are in agreement with proposed simulations of allosterism in functional assays (Ehlert, 2005; Kenakin and Miller, 2010) and indicate that there is little receptor reserve. However, at a concentration of 100 nM, both compounds caused an additive effect on intracellular Ca2+ mobilization induced by 1 pM to 1 nM thrombin. Interestingly, the positive modulation of Q94 at 100 nM concentrations was accompanied by a reduction in Ca²⁺ mobilization at higher levels

Figure 7

Modulation of (A) PAR₁-AP- and (B) PAR₂-AP-induced intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization by Q109. Intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization was measured using Fluo 3-AM-loaded HMECs-1 as described in Methods. Basal $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was 290.1 \pm 51.2 nM (n=3). The concentration–response curves were performed using five different concentrations of the agonist peptides in the presence and absence of two fixed concentrations of Q109 added 15 min before the addition of PAR₁-AP (A) or PAR2-AP (B). Data are reported as % of maximal RF and are the means \pm SEM of three experiments, each performed in triplicate.

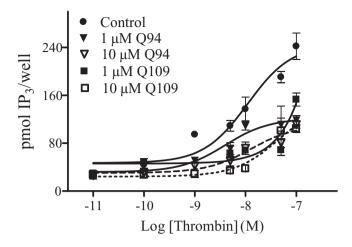
-6

-5

 $Log[PAR_2-AP](M)$

of thrombin, and a marked decrease in the $E_{\rm max}$ response. As Q94 and Q109 did not affect basal probe fluorescence (Figure 4), we conclude that Q94 behaves differently depending on its concentration, as well as that of thrombin.

Is this hypothesis in agreement with the theoretical basis of allosteric modulator effects? We must consider that PAR₁ couples to multiple G-proteins, G_{q/11}, G_{i/o} and G_{12/13} (Ramachandran and Hollenberg, 2008; Russo et al., 2009) and the existence of distinct active receptor conformations is supported by the demonstration of ligand-induced biased signalling by thrombin versus PAR₁-AP, with thrombin favouring G_{12/13} signalling, while PAR₁-AP primarily initiates G_q signalling (McLaughlin et al., 2005; Russo et al., 2009). Moreover,



Effect of Q94 and Q109 on thrombin-induced IP₃ production. Accumulation of IP3 in HMECs-1 was measured using a competitive protein binding method as described in Methods. Cells were stimulated with different concentrations of thrombin in the presence and absence of two different concentrations (1 or 10 µM) of Q94 or Q109 as described in Methods. In the absence of thrombin, compounds did not cause any change in IP3 production. Values are the means ± SEM of triplicate results from one experiment performed two additional times with similar results.

there is a recent report of an allosteric PAR₁ inhibitor, JF5, that can selectively modulate PAR₁ signalling through G₁₂ but not G_q (Dowal et al., 2011). Thus, binding of Q94 to its allosteric site may stabilize a receptor conformation, which is not favourable to G_q activation but rather favours G_i interaction and activation. If this were the case, the effect on PAR₁ signalling would result in (a) disruption of $G\alpha_q$ signalling to PLC_β and therefore decrease in intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization and (b) preferential activation of G_i-proteins, which activate PLC_β through Gβy. The balance between these contrasting effects may be responsible for the observed shape of the thrombin concentration-response curve in the presence of 100 nM Q94. It is worth mentioning that Vanhauwe et al., (2002) reported that in HMECs-1 Go-proteins play a role in thrombin signalling, specifically Ca2+ mobilization, through their Gβγ subunits. Contrary to this, McLaughlin et al., (2005) presented results that seem to exclude the involvement of Giand G_o-proteins (PTX-inhibited G-proteins) in thrombininduced Ca²⁺ mobilization in HMECs-1. These differences may arise from the use of different techniques to measure intracellular Ca2+ response, namely single cell fluorescence recording (Vanhauwe et al., 2002) and cell layer fluorescence measurement (McLaughlin et al., 2005).

We demonstrated that both Q94 and Q109 are PAR₁ subtype selective as neither compound altered PAR2 signalling, as measured by Ca2+ mobilization, in HMECs-1. However, while both Q94 and Q109 affected the PAR₁-AP concentration-response curve, their modulatory effects were not identical to those observed with thrombin. Specifically, $1\,\mu M$ Q94 resulted in a significant increase in EC_{50} and no change to the E_{max} with PAR₁-AP, while 1 μ M Q109 resulted in a small reduction in the EC₅₀ and a significant reduction in E_{max} . Studies by Ayoub et al. (2010), using bioluminescence resonance energy transfer and time-resolved fluorescence resonance energy transfer, revealed PAR₁ forms pre-assembled complexes with G_i independent of thrombin stimulation. Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the differences between the effects of Q109 and Q94 on PAR₁-AP-induced Ca²⁺ mobilization reflect distinct receptor conformations that allow pre-coupling to different G-proteins (G_i, G_q, G₁₂).

Since PAR₁-induced variations in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ result as a consequence of intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization from the endoplasmic reticulum and Ca2+ entry from the extracellular milieu into endothelial cells (Vandenbroucke et al., 2008; Dietrich et al., 2010), we also analysed the ability of Q94 and Q109 to inhibit thrombin-induced IP₃ production. Indeed, micromolar concentrations of the compounds displayed an inhibitory effect on thrombin-mediated IP3 accumulation, indicating that they act by disrupting PAR₁ G_a activation and downstream signalling events. Both compounds caused significant decreases in the thrombin E_{max} value, suggesting they act as negative allosteric modulators of PAR₁ rather than competitive antagonists.

Finally, our experiments provide evidence that the 1,2disubstituted benzimidazole derivatives positively modulate PAR₁ G₁ coupling. Whereas Q94 and Q109 do not modify thrombin-induced inhibition of either FSK- or isoprenalinestimulated cAMP production in HMECs-1, in the absence of thrombin, they both inhibited cAMP accumulation. This unexpected observation suggests that Q94 and Q109 may stabilize a PAR₁ conformation favouring G_i activation. Cell treatment with PTX served to demonstrate that Q109 inhibition of FSK-stimulated cAMP production was mediated through G_i activation. The interaction of Q109 with PAR₁ probably induces a receptor conformation that favours coupling and activation of G_i-proteins, even in the absence of the agonist. This hypothesis seems to be supported by recent work that revealed PAR₁ forms pre-assembled complexes with $G\alpha_{i1}$ rather than $G\alpha_{12}$ (Ayoub et al., 2010). Thus, it appears that Q109 can be considered an 'allosteric agonist' of PAR₁ G_i signalling (Wang et al., 2009). Allosteric agonists have been described for several GPCRs including the glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor (Christopoulos and Kenakin, 2002; Knudsen et al., 2007). However, unlike typical 'allosteric agonists', Q109 also seems to behave as a negative allosteric modulator of PAR₁ G₀ signalling. The pharmacology underlying Q94 is complicated, as in PTX-treated cells, although the inhibition of FSK-stimulated cAMP production was reduced, it was still detectable. As a result, we cannot exclude an off-target effect of Q94, produced via an interaction with AC. Indeed, there are many examples of allosteric modulating agents that possess other significant pharmacological functions (Wang et al., 2009).

In conclusion, we demonstrated that both Q94 and Q109 act as selective negative modulators of PAR₁ G_q signalling. Our investigation suggests that in addition to their negative modulation of PAR₁ G_q signalling, these 1,2-disubstituted benzimidazole derivatives also act as positive allosteric agonists of PAR₁ G_i signalling. The recently identified allosteric modulator of PAR₁, JF5 (Dowal et al., 2011), also shows selectivity for $G\alpha$ subunits, blocking signalling through G_q but not G₁₂. Allosteric ligands possess specific advantages over classical orthosteric ligands and may help in the development of



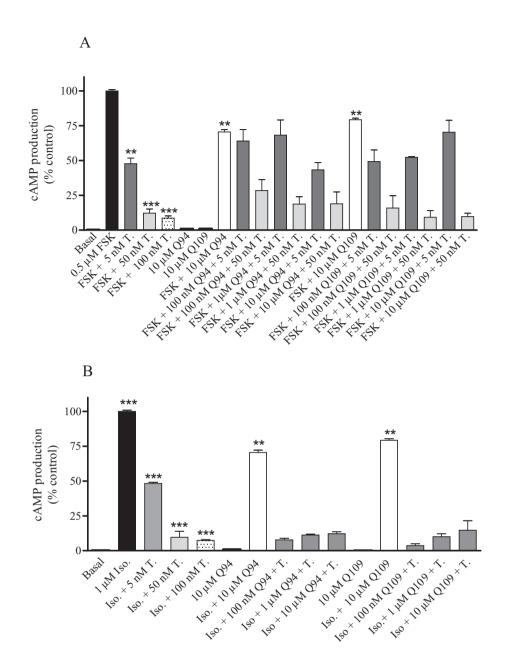


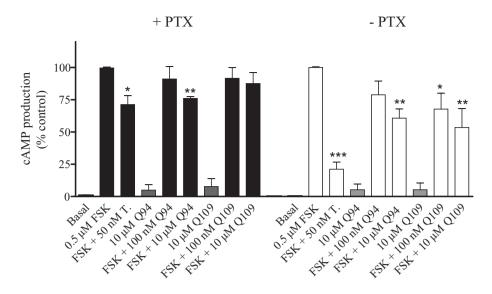
Figure 9

Effect of Q94 and Q109 on thrombin (T)-induced inhibition of (A) FSK- and (B) isoprenaline (Iso)-stimulated cAMP accumulation. Production of cAMP in HMECs-1 was measured using a competition binding assay that includes the bovine adrenal cAMP binding protein and [3H]-cAMP as described in Methods. Cells, exposed for 15 min to Q94 or Q109, in the presence or absence of 5 or 50 nM thrombin were treated with 0.5 µM FSK (A) or 1 μM (B) isoprenaline. Basal value was 1.0 ± 0.1 pmol per well, while FSK and isoprenaline stimulation induced cAMP accumulation of 66.0 ± 5.9 and 189.0 ± 10.5 pmol per well, respectively. Values are the means ± SEM of three experiments, each performed in duplicate. **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001 indicates values that are significantly different from FSK- or isoprenaline-stimulated value, as determined by Student's unpaired t test.

therapeutic agents that are not only receptor-subtype selective but also signalling pathway selective (Christopoulos and Kenakin, 2002). Our studies, while not resulting in the definition of either Q94 or Q109 as potent drug-like structures, do represent a starting point for development of dual signalling pathway-selective positive/negative modulators of PAR₁.

Acknowledgements

We thank Drs HE Hamm (Department of Pharmacology, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN) and F Da Settimo (Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Pisa, Pisa, Italy) for their helpful discussions. We are grateful to Dr M Luconi (Department of Clinical Physiopathology, University



Effect of O94 and O109 on thrombin-induced inhibition of FSK-stimulated cAMP accumulation in PTX-treated (A) and untreated (B) HMECs-1. Production of cAMP was measured using a competition binding assay that includes the bovine adrenal cAMP binding protein and [3H]-cAMP as described in Methods. PTX-treated (A) and control (B) HMECs-1 were exposed for 15 min to Q94 or Q109 in the presence and absence of 50 nM thrombin and then stimulated with 0.5 μ M FSK. Basal values for treated and control cells were 1.3 \pm 0.1 and 1.1 \pm 0.1 pmol per well, respectively. FSK stimulation of treated and control cells induced cAMP accumulation of 75.6 ± 1.2 and 69.5 ± 8.9 pmol per well, respectively. Values are the means ± SEM of four experiments, each performed in duplicate. Values that are significantly different (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001) from FSK-stimulated value as determined by unpaired Student's t test are indicated.

of Florence, Italy) for expert advice and support on HMEC-1 culture conditions. This work was supported by grants from 'Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca' (MIUR) and University of Pisa to MRM.

Conflicts of interest

AG has previously received honoraria for both consultation and speaking at meetings from PerkinElmer, Promega and ThermoFisher.

References

Ades EW, Candal FJ, Swerlick RA, George VG, Summers S, Bosse DC et al. (1992). HMEC-1: establishment of an immortalized human microvascular endothelial cell line. J Invest Dermatol 99: 683-690.

Ahn HS, Foster C, Boykow G, Stamford A, Manna M, Graziano M (2000). Inhibition of cellular action of thrombin by N3-cyclopropyl-7-[[4-(1-methylethyl)phenyl]methyl]-7H-pyrrolo[3, 2-f]quinazoline-1,3-diamine (SCH 79797), a nonpeptide thrombin receptor antagonist. Biochem Pharmacol 60: 1425-1434.

Alexander SPH, Mathie A, Peters JA (2011). Guide to Receptors and Channels (GRAC), 5th edn. Br J Pharmacol 164 (Suppl. 1): S1-S324.

Ayoub MA, Trinquet E, Pfleger KD, Pin JP (2010). Differential association modes of the thrombin receptor PAR₁ with $G\alpha_{i1}$, $G\alpha_{12}$, and β-arrestin 1. FASEB J 24: 3522-3535.

Barr AJ, Brass LF, Manning DR (1997). Reconstitution of receptors and GTP-binding regulatory proteins (G proteins) in Sf9 cells. A direct evaluation of selectivity in receptor.G protein coupling. J Biol Chem 272: 2223-2229.

Chackalamannil S (2006). Thrombin receptor (protease activated receptor-1) antagonists as potent antithrombotic agents with strong antiplatelet effects. J Med Chem 49: 5389-5403.

Chackalamannil S, Doller D, Eagen K, Czarniecki M, Ahn HS, Foster CJ et al. (2001). Potent, low molecular weight thrombin receptor antagonists. Bioorg Med Chem Lett 11: 2851-2853.

Chackalamannil S, Xia Y, Greenlee WJ, Clasby M, Doller D, Tsai H et al. (2005). Discovery of potent orally active thrombin receptor (protease activated receptor 1) antagonists as novel antithrombotic agents. J Med Chem 48: 5884-5887.

Christopoulos A, Kenakin T (2002). G protein-coupled receptor allosterism and complexing. Pharmacol Rev 54: 323-374.

Colotta V, Lenzi O, Catarzi D, Varano F, Filacchioni G, Martini C et al. (2009). Pyrido[2,3-e]-1,2,4-triazolo[4,3-a]pyrazin-1-one as a new scaffold to develop potent and selective human A₃ adenosine receptor antagonists. Synthesis, pharmacological evaluation, and ligand-receptor modeling studies. J Med Chem 52: 2407-2419.

Coughlin SR (2001). Protease-activated receptors in vascular biology. Thromb Haemost 86: 298-307.

Covic L, Gresser AL, Talavera J, Swift S, Kuliopulos A (2002a). Activation and inhibition of G protein-coupled receptors by cell-penetrating membrane-tethered peptides. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 99: 643-648.

Covic L, Misra M, Badar J, Singh C, Kuliopulos A (2002b). Pepducin-based intervention of thrombin-receptor signaling and systemic platelet activation. Nat Med 8: 1161–1165.



Deng X, Mercer PF, Scotton CJ, Gilchrist A, Chambers RC (2008). Thrombin induces fibroblast CCL2/JE production and release via coupling of PAR1 to $G\alpha_q$ and cooperation between ERK1/2 and Rho kinase signaling pathways. Mol Biol Cell 19: 2520–2533.

Dietrich A, Kalwa H, Gudermann T (2010). TRPC channels in vascular cell function. Thromb Haemost 103: 262-270.

Dowal L, Sim DS, Dilks JR, Blair P, Beaudry S, Denker BM et al. (2011). Identification of an antithrombotic allosteric modulator that acts through helix 8 of PAR₁. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 108: 2951-2956.

Ehlert FJ (2005). Analysis of allosterism in functional assays. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 315: 740-754.

Fujiwara M, Jin E, Ghazizadeh M, Kawanami O (2005). Activation of PAR4 induces a distinct actin fiber formation via p38 MAPK in human lung endothelial cells. J Histochem Cytochem 53: 1121-1129.

Gerwins P (1993). Modification of a competitive protein binding assay for determination of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate. Anal Biochem 210: 45-49

Gilchrist A, Vanhauwe JF, Li A, Thomas TO, Voyno-Yasenetskaya T, Hamm HE (2001). Gα minigenes expressing C-terminal peptides serve as specific inhibitor s of thrombin-mediated endothelial activation. J Biol Chem 276: 25672-25679.

Hamilton JR, Moffatt JD, Frauman AG, Cocks TM (2001). Protease-activated receptor (PAR) 1 but not PAR₂ or PAR₄ mediates endothelium-dependent relaxation to thrombin and trypsin in human pulmonary arteries. J Cardiovasc Pharmacol 38: 108-119.

Hamilton JR, Moffatt JD, Tatoulis J, Cocks TM (2002). Enzymatic activation of endothelial protease-activated receptors is dependent on artery diameter in human and porcine isolated coronary arteries. Br J Pharmacol 136: 492-501.

Hirano K, Nomoto N, Hirano M, Momota F, Hanada A, Kanaide H (2007). Distinct Ca²⁺ requirement for NO production between proteinase-activated receptor 1 and 4 (PAR₁ and PAR₄) in vascular endothelial cells. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 322: 668-677.

Hollenberg MD, Compton SJ (2002). International Union of Pharmacology. XXVIII. Proteinase-activated receptors. Pharmacol Rev 54: 203-217.

Kahn ML, Nakanishi-Matsui M, Shapiro MJ, Ishihara H, Coughlin SR (1999). Protease-activated receptors 1 and 4 mediate activation of human platelets by thrombin. J Clin Invest 103: 879-887.

Kenakin T, Miller LJ (2010). Seven transmembrane receptors as shapeshifting proteins: the impact of allosteric modulation and functional selectivity on new drug discovery. Pharmacol Rev 62:

Knudsen LB, Kiel D, Teng M, Behrens C, Bhumralkar D, Kodra JT et al. (2007). Small-molecule agonists for the glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 104: 937-942.

Luo W, Wang Y, Reiser G (2007). Protease-activated receptors in the brain; receptor expression, activation, and functions in neurodegeneration and neuroprotection. Brain Res Rev 56: 331-345.

Macfarlane SR, Seatter MJ, Kanke T, Hunter GD, Plevin R (2001). Proteinase-activated receptors. Pharmacol Rev 53: 245-282.

McLaughlin JN, Shen L, Holinstat M, Brooks JD, Dibenedetto E, Hamm HE (2005). Functional selectivity of G protein signaling by agonist peptides and thrombin for the protease-activated receptor-1. J Biol Chem 280: 25048-25059.

Nordstedt C, Fredholm BB (1990). A modification of a protein-binding method for rapid quantification of cAMP in cell-culture supernatants and body fluid. Anal Biochem 189: 231-234.

Nystedt S, Emilsson K, Larsson AK, Strömbeck B, Sundelin J (1995). Molecular cloning and functional expression of the gene encoding the human proteinase-activated receptor 2. Eur J Biochem 232: 84-89.

O'Brien PJ, Prevost N, Molino M, Hollinger MK, Woolkalis MJ, Woulfe DS et al. (2000). Thrombin responses in human endothelial cells. Contributions from receptors other than PAR₁ include the transactivation of PAR₂ by thrombin-cleaved PAR₁. J Biol Chem 275: 13502-13509.

Ramachandran R, Hollenberg MD (2008). Proteinases and signaling: pathophysiological and therapeutic implications via PARs and more. Br J Pharmacol 153: S263-S282.

Ramachandran R, Mihara K, Mathur M, Rochdi MD, Bouvier M, Defea K et al. (2009). Agonist-biased signaling via proteinase activated receptor-2: differential activation of calcium and mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways. Mol Pharmacol 76: 791-801.

Robin J, Kharbanda R, Mclean P, Campbell R, Vallance P (2003). Protease-activated receptor 2-mediated vasodilatation in humans in vivo: role of nitric oxide and prostanoids. Circulation 107: 954-959.

Russo A, Soh UJ, Trejo J (2009). Proteases display biased agonism at protease-activated receptors: location matters! Mol Interv 9: 87-96.

Scotton CJ, Krupiczojc MA, Königshoff M, Mercer PF, Lee YC, Kaminski N et al. (2009). Increased local expression of coagulation factor X contributes to the fibrotic response in human and murine lung injury. J Clin Invest 119: 2550-2563.

Sugunaraj JP, Mehta V, Kalra A, Sukhija R, Palaniswamy C (2011). Protease-Activated Receptor-1 Antagonists: focus on SCH 530348. Am J Ther Jan 18. DOI: 10.1097/MJT.0b013e3181ff7c16 [Epub ahead of print].

Vandenbroucke E, Mehta D, Minshall E, Malik AB (2008). Regulation of endothelial junctional permeability. Ann NY Acad Sci 1123: 134-145.

Vanhauwe JF, Thomas TO, Minshall RD, Tiruppathi C, Li A, Gilchrist A et al. (2002). Thrombin receptors activate Go proteins in endothelial cells to regulate intracellular calcium and cell shape changes. J Biol Chem 277: 34143-34149.

Wang L, Martin B, Brenneman R, Luttrell LM, Maudsley S (2009). Allosteric modulators of G protein-coupled receptors: future therapeutics for complex physiological disorders. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 331: 340-348.

Supporting information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

Data S1 Initially, we screened a library of ~10 000 compound obtained from ChemDiv for their ability to compete for binding at PAR₁ with a high-affinity receptor binding peptide probe (HABP) designed around the C-terminus of $G\alpha_0$ (LQLNLKEYNLV). The HABP probe T2-14 (LQLNLKKYNRV)

S Asteriti et al.

was identified using a peptide on plasmids approach as previously described (Gilchrist, A, Li, A, Hamm, HE. Meth. Enzym. 2000 315:388-404). Briefly, a library of peptides was constructed by sequential substitution of the 11 native C-terminal $G\alpha_0$ amino acids with each of the 20 known amino acids. This peptide library was fused with Escherichia coli maltose-binding protein (MBP), to enable recognition by using ELISA. IC₅₀ values for binding of MBP_G_q or MBP_T2-14 to activated PAR₁ indicated MBP_T2-14 (106 nM) had a higher binding affinity than did MBP_G_a (320 nM). Initial screening for all compounds was done at 10 µM, followed up by dose-response curves on select compounds. Using this methodology, we found that Q89 was found to compete with MBP_T2-14 for binding to activated PAR₁ receptors with an IC₅₀ of 310 nM (Supplementary Figure S1). We identified several commercially available analogs for Q89, including Q94 and Q109, that when tested by ELISA were also found to

inhibit binding of MBP_T2-14 to activated PAR₁ receptors with IC₅₀ values of 923 and 817 nM respectively.

Figure S1 PAR₁ receptors expressed in membranes of SF9 cells were treated with 100 nM TRAP (thrombin receptor activating peptide). Purified T2-14 fused with E. coli maltosebinding protein (MBP-T2-14) at a concentration of 100 nM was added to wells and allowed to bind to the receptor. Increasing amounts of each compound were added to wells in triplicate, and binding of MBP-T2-14 was measured using an ELISA for MBP. Data presented are the mean of individual wells from three separate experiments. A non-linear regression analysis was generated using GraphPad Prism, version 5.0.

Please note: Wiley-Blackwell are not responsible for the content or functionality of any supporting materials supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material) should be directed to the corresponding author for the article.