

Themed Section: Molecular Pharmacology of GPCRs

## **REVIEW**

The orexin receptor OX<sub>1</sub>R in colon cancer: a promising therapeutic target and a new paradigm in G protein-coupled receptor signalling through ITIMs

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An exciting aspect of the heptahelical orexin receptor 1 (OX<sub>1</sub>R) has emerged recently, when it was shown that it drives apoptosis in human colon cancer cell lines. Here we review recent findings related to the role of OX<sub>1</sub>R in colorectal cancers and the unexpected mechanism whereby this G protein-coupled receptor works. The OX<sub>1</sub>R is aberrantly expressed at all steps of primary colorectal tumour progression and after local (lymph node) or distant (liver, lung) metastasis. No OX<sub>1</sub>R is detected in normal colonic epithelial cells. Treatment of human colon cancer cells in culture with orexins promotes robust apoptosis and subsequent reduction of growth including in cells that are resistant to 5-fluorouracil, the most commonly used drug in chemotherapy. When human colon cancer cells are xenografted in nude mice, treatment with orexins dramatically slows tumour growth and even reverses the development of established tumours. Thus, OX<sub>1</sub>R agonists might be novel candidates for colon cancer therapy. Activation of OX<sub>1</sub>R drives apoptosis through G<sub>q</sub> protein but independently of classical Gα<sub>q</sub> activation of phospholipase C. In fact, it is the freed βγ dimer of G<sub>q</sub> that plays a pivotal role by stimulating Src-tyrosine kinase. This results in phosphorylation of two immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motifs (ITIM) in OX<sub>1</sub>R and subsequent recruitment by OX<sub>1</sub>R of the phosphotyrosine phosphatase SHP-2, which is activated thereby. Downstream events include release of cytochrome c from mitochondria and activation of caspase-3 and caspase-7. The role of ITIMs in OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis represents a new paradigm of G protein-coupled receptor signalling.

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### Abbreviations

5-FU, 5-fluorouracil; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; InsP<sub>3</sub>, inositol triphosphate; ITIM, immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motif; ITSM, immunoreceptor tyrosine-based switch motif;  $OX_1R$ , orexin receptor 1;  $OX_2R$ , orexin receptor 2; SHP-2, Src homology domain 2-containing protein tyrosine phosphatase 2

## Introduction

Colon cancer is a common malignancy worldwide and causes considerable morbidity and mortality (Segal and Saltz, 2009).

Molecular genetics has identified key genes, including tumour-suppressor genes and oncogenes, whose mutations or altered expression are associated with colorectal cancer (Markowitz and Bertagnolli, 2009). Colon cancer initiation and progression are dependent on these genes but are also under the control of many growth factors or hormones present in primary tumour environment and acting at tyrosine kinase receptors or G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). Colon cancers do express a variety of GPCRs that fall into three categories. Many receptors are already present at similar levels in normal colon epithelial cells, others are simply overexpressed and some of them are aberrantly expressed in cancer cells, which means that they are not present in normal colonic epithelium (Laburthe et al., 1978; Maoret et al., 1994; Singh et al., 2000; Darmoul et al., 2003; Gratio et al., 2009). The growth-promoting effects of peptide hormones such as gastrin (Singh et al., 2000) or neurotensin (Maoret et al., 1999), serine proteases such as thrombin (Darmoul et al., 2003) or trypsin (Darmoul et al., 2004) or lipids such as lysophosphatidic acid (Yang et al., 2005) or prostaglandin E2 (Chell et al., 2006) are mediated by GPCRs. Activation of these GPCRs promotes tumour cell growth through G protein transduction pathways and/or by transactivating the tyrosine kinase epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) for epidermal growth factor (Darmoul et al., 2004; Lappano and Maggiolini, 2011). Due to its autoactivity and because it can be transactivated by GPCRs, EGFR is prominent in the growth of colon cancer and is already a therapeutic target for antibodies directed against its extracellular domain (Segal and Saltz, 2009).

While a large body of evidence shows that the environment of primary colon tumours is rich in growth factors (see earlier discussion), almost nothing was known until recently regarding the existence of growth inhibitory factors for colon cancer. In order to try to identify such inhibitory factors, we developed a very simple strategy consisting of screening the ability of a large series of peptide hormones and neuropeptides to inhibit colon cancer growth (Rouet-Benzineb *et al.*, 2004). We found that the neuropeptides orexins acting at the seven-transmembrane domain receptor orexin receptor 1 (OX<sub>1</sub>R) are robust stimulants of apoptosis in colon cancer cells (Rouet-Benzineb *et al.*, 2004).

In this review, we aim to summarize current knowledge and recent findings on orexin receptors in colon cancer. Specifically, we will discuss two aspects: (i) the expression and pro-apoptotic role of  $OX_1R$  in primary colorectal tumours and metastases and in colon tumour cell lines. The recent data support the view that  $OX_1R$  represents an Achilles heel of colon cancer and is a new promising therapeutic target; (ii) the entirely novel mechanism by which the seven-pass transmembrane GPCR  $OX_1R$  triggers apoptosis. It involves phosphorylation of two immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motifs (ITIMs) in  $OX_1R$  resulting in the recruitment of the phosphotyrosine phosphatase SHP-2, the activation of which is responsible for mitochondrial apoptosis. This mechanism clearly represents a new paradigm in GPCR signalling.

# Orexins and orexin receptors: a short survey of general features

The two orexin neuropeptides were discovered in 1998 by two independent laboratories using subtractive cDNA



cloning (de Lecea *et al.*, 1998) or as endogenous ligands for two orphan GPCRs (Sakurai *et al.*, 1998). They were referred to as orexin-A and orexin-B (Sakurai *et al.*, 1998) or hypocretin-1 and hypocretin-2 (de Lecea *et al.*, 1998). Similarly, the receptors were named  $OX_1R$  and  $OX_2R$  (Sakurai *et al.*, 1998) or Hctr1 and Hctr2 (de Lecea *et al.*, 1998). Both names are problematic because the regulation of feeding and appetite is probably not the major action of the neuropeptides, and they have no clear sequence homology with secretin. In the absence of recommendation by the International Union of Pharmacology and for the sake of clarity, we have used the names orexin and orexin receptor OXR in this review.

Several reviews on central or peripheral actions of orexins as well as on orexin receptors have been published during the last decade (Voisin et al., 2003; Heinonen et al., 2008; de Lecea, 2010; Kodadek and Cai, 2010; Laburthe et al., 2010; Sakurai et al., 2010; Scammell and Winrow, 2011). The main features are summarized in the following discussion. Orexin-A and orexin-B are encoded by the same gene and originate from a single precursor synthesized by hypothalamic neurons that project throughout the brain. They regulate sleep, wakefulness, breathing, reward system and drug addiction. Their strong impact on sleep-wakefulness is emphasized in human pathology, because orexin deficiency results in narcolepsy and cataplexy (Nishino et al., 2000). Functions of orexins have been also described in peripheral tissues including digestive tract, pancreas, gonads and adrenal glands. The expression of orexins at the periphery (Johren et al., 2001) needs to be clarified, and their presence in blood is still debatable (Voisin et al., 2003; Heinonen et al., 2008). The actions of orexins are mediated by two seven-pass transmembrane GPCRs OX1R and OX<sub>2</sub>R that recognize with poor selectivity the two closely related orexins that share 46% amino acid identity in humans. Classically, the activation of both orexin receptors induces cellular calcium transients through increase of intracellular inositol triphosphate (InsP<sub>3</sub>), and the OX<sub>1</sub>R has been also shown to be linked to calcium influx through transient receptor potential cation 3 channel (Peltonen et al., 2009). Orexin receptors belong to the class A of GPCRs.

# Discovery of orexins as pro-apoptotic peptides in colon cancer

The discovery of orexins as pro-apototic peptides came from the screening of peptide receptor agonists for their ability to inhibit colon cancer cell growth. We tested 26 peptide hormones and neuropeptides claimed to be expressed in the gut, and the screen was performed with the human colon cancer cell line Human tumour (HT)-29 grown in standard conditions in the presence of the robust growth-promoting effect of 10% fetal calf serum. Only two closely related peptides orexin-A and orexin-B were shown to inhibit HT29 cell growth (Rouet-Benzineb *et al.*, 2004). Orexins do not alter cell cycle and cell proliferation but promote cell apoptosis with typical externalization of plasma membrane phosphatidylserine, chromatin condensation and DNA fragmentation of nuclei (Rouet-Benzineb *et al.*, 2004; Voisin *et al.*, 2008). It appeared shortly that: (i) among the two orexin receptors





### Figure 1

Expression of the orexin receptor  $OX_1R$  during colon cancer progression and metastasis.  $OX_1R$  (blue circles) is aberrantly expressed in primary tumours and metastases. The expression of  $OX_1R$  was detected very early during carcinogenesis and whatever the Dukes' stage of the primary tumours. After metastasis in the colon (lymph node) and in distant organs (liver, lung),  $OX_1R$  is still expressed. No  $OX_1R$  is present in normal colonic epithelial cells from which cancer cells derive. Adapted with permission from © 2005 Terese Winslow, US Government has certain rights.

 $OX_1R$  and  $OX_2R$ , only  $OX_1R$  is expressed by HT29 cells and is responsible for orexin-induced apoptosis; and (ii) orexins induce mitochondrial apoptosis with cytochrome c release from mitochondria to cytosol and activation of caspase-3 and caspase-7 (Rouet-Benzineb *et al.*, 2004).

# Aberrant expression of OX<sub>1</sub>R in colorectal tumours and metastases

In the early report on orexin receptors in colon cancer cells, it was already shown that OX<sub>1</sub>R is expressed in the human colon cancer cell lines HT29, Caco-2, SW480 and LoVo but not in explant cultures of dissected human normal colonic mucosa (Rouet-Benzineb et al., 2004). It is now known that the OX<sub>1</sub>R is present in 100% of primary colorectal tumours tested by reverse transcriptase-quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) and/or immunohistochemistry, including 21 tumours of the proximal colon and 17 tumours of the distal colon whatever their Dukes' stages (Voisin et al., 2011). In sharp contrast, normal colonocytes adjacent to tumours as well as normal proximal and distal mucosae of patients with irritable bowel syndrome, taken as controls, are always negative for OX<sub>1</sub>R expression. Thus, OX<sub>1</sub>R is aberrantly expressed in epithelial cells during colon carcinogenesis (Voisin et al., 2011). The molecular mechanisms whereby OX<sub>1</sub>R is ectopically expressed during colon cancer progression are still unknown. The gene encoding  $OX_1R$  in humans maps to chromosomal region 1p33 (Sakurai *et al.*, 1998) within the 1p32-36 loci, which are known to undergo genetic changes in human colorectal tumourigenesis (Hanash, 1996). These genetic changes may hinder the repression of  $OX_1R$  gene that occurs in a normal colon. However, many other hypotheses could be raised including epigenetic alterations in colon cancer (Grady and Carethers, 2008) of the  $OX_1R$  gene.

The possibility to use OX<sub>1</sub>R-targeted agonists in order to induce apoptosis of colon cancer cells (see further discussion) is more relevant in metastases than in the primary tumour, which can be resected. In this context, it is important to consider the fact that the status of a given receptor may be different in primary tumours and metastases. For example, the EGFR is expressed in most primary colorectal tumours, but a loss of EGFR expression is observed in a significant number of lymph node and liver metastases, an event that has evident implication for the treatment with EGFR-targeted antibodies (Scartozzi et al., 2004; Bralet et al., 2005). A large body of evidence indicates that OX<sub>1</sub>R is present in colon tumour metastases. The receptor is expressed in all hepatic metastases tested as well as in human colon cancer cell lines established from lymph nodes, ascite and lung metastases (Voisin et al., 2011). Figure 1 illustrates the expression of OX<sub>1</sub>R in primary colorectal tumours, local metastases in lymph modes and distant metastases in liver and lung.



## The orexin receptor OX<sub>1</sub>R mediates apoptosis in colon cancer cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*

The expression of OX<sub>1</sub>R by primary colorectal tumours as well as in metastases allows to induce apoptosis of cancer cells upon treatment with orexins. In vitro, the extent of orexininduced apoptosis in various human colon cancer cell lines is clearly correlated to the level of OX1R mRNA expression determined by RT-qPCR (Voisin et al., 2011). Moreover, apoptosis can be induced in cell lines established from primary tumours and metastases as well (Voisin et al., 2011). In view of the fact that failure of tumour cells to undergo apoptosis translates into tumour progression and chemotherapeutic resistance and given apoptosis emerges as a potential target for cancer treatment at various stages of tumour progression (Watson, 2004; 2006; Huerta et al., 2006), the OX1R becomes a new promising therapeutic target in colon cancer. However, two important issues had to be resolved for progress in this direction.

The first issue is related to colon cancer resistance to chemotherapy (Wolpin and Mayer, 2008; Segal and Saltz, 2009). The most commonly used drug, 5-fluorouracil (5-FU), is able to induce apoptosis in colon cancer, but development of drug resistance is a primary cause of failure of chemotherapy. In this context, whether OX<sub>1</sub>R is expressed and is able to mediate orexin-induced apoptosis in 5-FU-resistant colon cancer cells are crucial questions. They have been addressed using the HT29-FU colon cancer cell line model in which a long-term 5-FU exposure selected cells resistant to the drug (Lesuffleur et al., 1991). The OX<sub>1</sub>R expression is similar in HT-29-FU cells and parental HT-29 cells (Voisin et al., 2011). Moreover, treatment of HT-29-FU cells with orexins induces apoptosis and subsequent growth inhibition. This observation has important implications for colon cancer therapy and suggests that orexins promote apoptosis through a mechanism that is different from that of 5-FU and that persists in 5-FU-resistant cells (Voisin et al., 2011).

The second issue is related to the efficacy of orexin treatment in vivo. This has been addressed using human colon cancer cells xenografted in nude mice. Upon subcutaneous inoculation of LoVo cells established from left supraclavicular metastases of colon cancer, a tumour develops rapidly at the site of inoculation. Daily i.p. injection of orexin-A beginning the day cancer cells are xenografted, dose-dependently reduces tumour volume. After a 15 day treatment, the tumour volume is decreased by ~80% with a dose as low as  $1 \mu mol$ orexin-A/Kg (Voisin et al., 2011). Similar data were reported with xenografts of HT-29 cells established from a primary colon tumour (Voisin et al., 2011). Much more relevant in terms of therapy is the ability of orexins to rapidly and strongly reverse the development of established tumours as demonstrated by treatment of LoVo tumours in nude mice that is initiated 7 days after inoculation of cancer cells (Voisin et al., 2011). It has been shown that orexins inhibit cultured colon cancer cell growth by inducing apoptosis (Rouet-Benzineb et al., 2004). It is likely that orexins also reduce tumour growth in vivo by promoting apoptosis, because activation of caspase-3 occurs in tumours upon orexin treatment (Voisin et al., 2011). The direct action of orexin injected in

nude mice on  $OX_1R$ -bearing cancer cells in the tumour is supported by experiments with the only colon cancer cell line HCT116, which does not express  $OX_1R$ . Indeed, xenografts of HCT116 cells in nude mice result in development of tumours that are insensitive to orexin treatments (Voisin *et al.*, 2011). In conclusion, activation by exogenous orexins results in strong decrease of tumour development in mice xenografted with colon cancer cells *in vivo* without any adverse effect of orexins during treatment. Another interesting point is that long-term treatment of nude mice with orexins does not down-regulate  $OX_1R$  mRNA levels in tumours (Voisin *et al.*, 2011). It is thus unlikely that downregulation of  $OX_1R$  in tumours upon orexin treatment may become a cause of resistance.

# OX<sub>1</sub>R: an Achilles heel of colon cancers?

The widespread expression of  $OX_1R$  in primary colorectal cancers and metastases, as well as the ability of exogenous orexins to promote colon cancer cell apoptosis and inhibition of tumour growth *in vivo*, raise several comments:

• OX<sub>1</sub>R is expressed in primary colon tumours but not in normal colonic epithelial cells. Likewise, OX1R is still expressed after migration of colon cancer cells in their main site of metastasis, for example, the liver, but not in normal liver cells (Voisin et al., 2011). This represents an important feature in view of the possible use of OX<sub>1</sub>R as a therapeutic target. In this context, it is interesting to consider the fact that besides OX<sub>1</sub>R, which induces apoptosis through the intrinsic or mitochondrial pathway (Rouet-Benzineb et al., 2004), colon cancer cells also express Fas receptors (O'Connell et al., 2000), which, as death receptors, induce apoptosis through the extrinsic apoptosis pathway (Watson, 2004; 2006; Huerta et al., 2006). Unfortunately, most colon cancer cell lines are somewhat resistant to Fas ligand-mediated apoptosis even if they are positive to Fas receptors (Huerta et al., 2006). Moreover, normal colonic epithelial cells and hepatocytes are exquisitely sensitive to Fas-mediated apoptosis (Huerta et al., 2006). This strongly limits the potential use of FasR agonists as possible candidates for chemotherapeutic intervention, because patients' cancer cells would remain relatively resistant to apoptosis, whereas normal colon and liver cells would be destined to commit suicide (Huerta et al., 2006). Similarly, tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-related apoptosis ligand (TRAIL)-mediated resistance to apoptosis in colon cancer has been noted at multiple steps in the extrinsic pathway of apoptosis (van Geelen et al., 2004) limiting the potential therapeutic use of TRAIL as an inductor of apoptosis in tumour cells. Attempts to use TNF and Fas ligand have also been thwarted by induction of NFkB-mediated inflammation and fulminant hepatic failure respectively (Watson, 2004). In the present state of our knowledge, OX<sub>1</sub>R clearly does not suffer from any of the limits encountered with death receptors. Another remarkable property of OX<sub>1</sub>R-mediated apoptosis in colon cancer cells is that it works in 5-FU-resistant cells (Voisin et al., 2011) making  $OX_1R$  a potential therapeutic target for  $OX_1R$  agonists that would be able to act in combination with classical chemotherapies in colon cancer (Wolpin and Mayer, 2008; Segal and Saltz, 2009).

• OX<sub>1</sub>R in colon cancer might be considered as a new type of gene in cancer, because it is aberrantly expressed as a functional protein whose function, when activated by an agonist, is to promote apoptosis of the cancer cell. The colon cancer cells unexpectedly provide a new gate to promote their death, which was not present in the normal colonocytes from which they derive. In this context, an important question arises: is OX1R activated in colorectal primary tumours or metastases in vivo by endogenous orexins? The answer is probably no for two main reasons: (i) colon tumours do not express the orexin precursor mRNA (Voisin et al., 2011), ruling out the possibility that OX<sub>1</sub>R in colon cancer cells might be activated by an intracrine pathway or by an autocrine loop; (ii) the major source of orexins is the brain where the orexinergic neurons are restricted to the hypothalamus (see earlier discussion). The sites of synthesis of orexins in the periphery are still debatable. Though early immunohistochemical studies detected orexins in the small intestine, stomach and pancreas in rodents (Kirchgessner and Liu, 1999), further RT-qPCR experiments identified orexin precursor mRNA in rat testis but not in most other peripheral tissues including the gut and liver (Johren et al., 2001). This is in line with the absence of orexin precursor mRNA in normal human colonic mucosa and liver tissues. In this context, the OX<sub>1</sub>R aberrantly expressed in colon cancer cells is most probably not activated by endogenous orexins in patients. On the other hand, there is no evidence suggesting that OX1R exhibits constitutive activity in the absence of ligand, because transfection of OX1R in CHO cells or HEK cells does not enhance basal apoptosis, whereas it confers the ability of orexins to promote apoptosis in those cells (Voisin et al., 2008 and M. Laburthe and T. Voisin, unpubl. data). Therefore, it may be suggested that OX<sub>1</sub>R in colorectal cancer constitutes a gate to apoptosis that probably remains unopened in vivo but could be openable by therapeutic administration of exogenous orexins or OX1R agonists. In that respect, OX<sub>1</sub>R might be considered as an Achilles heel of colon cancer, because targetting OX1R with agonists leads to cancer cell death by apoptosis. The development of long-lived peptide agonists or non-peptide agonists of orexin receptors will represent thereby an important advance not only in neuroscience (Boss et al., 2009) but also in colon cancer research. The OX1R, orexins and forthcoming OX<sub>1</sub>R agonists might be novel candidates for colorectal cancer therapy.

# OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis: a novel mechanism for a GPCR involving ITIMs

At first sight, the OX<sub>1</sub>R appears to be a classical  $G_q$ -coupled receptor the activation of which induces calcium transients (Voisin *et al.*, 2003). This classical  $G_q$ -mediated calcium response is certainly not sufficient to explain the OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis even though calcium participates in the onset of

apoptosis (Rizzuto et al., 2003). Indeed, several GPCRs in colon cancer cells do promote an increase in intracellular calcium but not only do not trigger apoptosis and rather stimulate cell proliferation, that is, muscarinic receptors (Medina and Rivera, 2010), neurotensin NT1 receptor (Maoret et al., 1999), protease-activated receptor-2 (Darmoul et al., 2001) or protease-activated receptor-1 (Darmoul et al., 2004). Moreover, inhibition of intracellular InsP<sub>3</sub> increase abolishes OX<sub>1</sub>R-mediated calcium transients but does nothing to OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis (Voisin et al., 2008). Finally, promotion of apoptosis by orexins is an intrinsic property of OX1R, because transfection of the receptor cDNA in cells devoid of endogenous OX<sub>1</sub>R is sufficient to confer the ability of orexins to promote apoptosis as shown in Chinese hamster ovary CHO cells (Rouet-Benzineb et al., 2004; Ammoun et al., 2006; Voisin et al., 2008; El Firar et al., 2009) and mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) cells (Voisin et al., 2008). Altogether, these observations prompted us to analyse the sequence of OX<sub>1</sub>R for identification of new motifs that might be associated with its ability to trigger apoptosis. We identified two tyrosine-based motifs in OX1R and demonstrated their crucial role in OX1R-driven apoptosis (Voisin et al., 2008; El Firar et al., 2009). The first motif to be characterized (Voisin et al., 2008) is a canonical ITIM present in the intracellular domain connecting the seventh transmembrane helix to the C-terminal tail of the OX<sub>1</sub>R (Figure 2). The consensus ITIM sequence (Ile/Val/Leu/Ser)-X-Tyr-X-X-(Ile-Leu-Val) is not considered to be a signature of GPCRs but represents a hallmark of immune inhibitory receptors on lymphoid and myeloid cells, the immunoglobulin G Fc-receptor FcyRIIB being prototypical of such receptors (Ravetch and Lanier, 2000; Daeron et al., 2008). The second motif to be characterized (El Firar et al., 2009) is an immunoreceptor tyrosine-based switch motif (ITSM) present in the intracellular domain connecting the first intracellular loop to the second transmembrane helix of the OX<sub>1</sub>R (Figure 2). The consensus sequence of ITSM, Thr-X-Tyr-X-X-(Val,Ile) had never been identified previously in any GPCRs but was previously characterized in the signalling lymphocyte-activating molecule family of immunoreceptors (Ostrakhovitch and Li, 2006). This sequence is ITIM-like, and it may be suggested that ITIM and ITSM are very similar with a common permissive sequence (Ile/Leu/Val/Ser/thr)-X-Tyr-X-X-(Ile,Leu,Val). Indeed, ITIMs and ITSMs appear to function following the same paradigm because both motifs contain tyrosine residues that can be phosphorylated on activation of the corresponding immunoreceptors (see Sidorenko and Clark, 2003; Daeron et al., 2008 for reviews).

The mechanism of OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis is schematized in Figure 2 and is the following. On activation of OX<sub>1</sub>R by orexins, the tyrosine-based motifs ITIM and ITSM are tyrosine phosphorylated (Voisin *et al.*, 2008; El Firar *et al.*, 2009). This is a G<sub>q</sub>-mediated event even though classical activation of phospholipase C is not involved (see earlier discussion). Indeed, transfection of OX<sub>1</sub>R cDNA in G<sub>q</sub>-deficient MEF cells does not confer the ability of orexins to promote apoptosis, whereas it does in G<sub>q</sub>-bearing MEF cells (Voisin *et al.*, 2008). The activation of OX<sub>1</sub>R allows the dissociation of the G<sub>q</sub> protein into  $\alpha_q$  and  $\beta\gamma$  dimers. The freed  $\beta\gamma$  dimers are known to activate Src-like tyrosine kinases (Gentili *et al.*, 2006), and experimental sequestration of  $\beta\gamma$  dimers in cells (Koch *et al.*,





### Figure 2

Mechanism of  $OX_1R$ -driven apoptosis. Activation of  $OX_1R$  by orexins promotes the dissociation of  $G_q$  protein into  $\alpha_q$  and  $\beta\gamma$  dimers. The classical pathway resulting in phospholipase C activation by  $\alpha_q$  is not involved in  $OX_1R$ -mediated apoptosis and is shown in grey. Freed  $\beta\gamma$  dimers stimulate the Src-tyrosine kinase resulting in the phosphorylation of the two ITIMs of  $OX_1R$ . The phosphotyrosine phosphatase SHP-2 is then recruited by  $OX_1R$  and activated thereby. Activated SHP-2 is mandatory for subsequent cytochrome c-mediated mitochondrial apoptosis. PLC, phospholipase C; Cyt c, cytochrome c; DAG, diacylglycerol; SHP-2, SH2 domain-containing phosphotyrosine phosphatase-2. See text for details.

1994) abolishes OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis (M. Laburthe and T. Voisin, unpubl. data). Next, activated Src kinases phosphorylate tyrosine within ITIM and ITSM of OX1R as demonstrated using inhibitors of Src (Voisin et al., 2008) and transfection of a dominant negative mutant of Src (M. Laburthe and T. Voisin, unpubl. data). The phosphorylation of the two motifs ITIM and ITSM is crucial, because mutation of tyrosine in either motif totally abolishes OX1R-driven apoptosis (El Firar et al., 2009). On tyrosine phosphorylation of ITIM and ITSM, the receptor recruits the phosphotyrosine phosphatase SHP-2 and thereby activates it (Voisin et al., 2008; El Firar et al., 2009). The activation of SHP-2 represents an early event in the initiation of apoptosis, and SHP-2 activation is mandatory in the process of orexin-induced apoptosis. This mechanism accounts for the dual participation of G<sub>a</sub> and ITIMs in OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis and explains why the classical G<sub>q</sub>-mediated pathway resulting in the activation of phospholipase C is not involved in the apoptotic response (Figure 2). This mechanism is novel in GPCRs, although it follows the general paradigm for ITIM function in immunoreceptors (Ravetch and Lanier, 2000; Daeron et al., 2008). In that respect, it is interesting to consider the fact that ITIMs function in tandem in immunoreceptors, and the phosphoprotein phosphatases require their two SH2 domains to bind to adjacent ITIMs separated by a short connecting peptide within the receptor (Bruhns et al., 1999). In OX<sub>1</sub>R, the two sites ITIM and ITSM are far from each other in the primary sequence of the protein (Figure 2). A structural model of the human OX<sub>1</sub>R has been developed showing that the distance between the two phosphorus atoms of phosphotyrosines in ITSM and ITIM compares well with the phosphopeptide binding sites in the SH2 domain of the protein phosphatase

SHP-2 (El Firar *et al.*, 2009). It is thus suggested that ITIMs function in a spatial tandem in  $OX_1R$  (Laburthe *et al.*, 2010) contrasting with the linear tandems of two adjacent sites described in immunoreceptors (Daeron *et al.*, 2008).

The mechanism of OX<sub>1</sub>R-driven apoptosis schematized in Figure 2 implies that the  $\beta\gamma$  dimers of  $G_q$  are freed upon receptor activation and stimulate Src-tyrosine kinase, which in turn phosphorylates ITIMs initiating the apoptotic response thereby. Quite evidently, free  $\beta\gamma$  dimers are also released during the activation of all GPCRs, and nevertheless, this does not result in apoptosis. The mechanisms that create selectivity in tyrosine phosphorylation of OX1R ITIMs by Src are currently unknown. Two nonexclusive mechanisms can be suggested: (i) compartmentalization of the signalling complex may occur. Indeed, the GBy dimer, which is membrane associated due to the isoprenylation of the Gy subunit (Marrari et al., 2007), is likely to remain tethered to the activated receptor. Because Src can associate to the plasma membrane owing to its myristoylation and the presence of six basic residues at its amino terminus (Bjorge et al., 2000), it could be activated at the vicinity of the activated OX<sub>1</sub>R by the Gβγ dimer (Figure 3); (ii) a multi-step mechanism of activation of OX<sub>1</sub>R may also occur (Figure 3). Binding of orexins to OX<sub>1</sub>R leads to the G<sub>a</sub> protein dissociation from the receptor to yield a  $G\alpha_q$ -GTP monomer (see Figure 2) and a  $G\beta\gamma$  dimer, which activates Src-tyrosine kinase. A speculative further step of OX<sub>1</sub>R activation would lead to another change in receptor conformation allowing exposure of tyrosine in ITIM and ITSM of OX<sub>1</sub>R. This step would be necessary for phosphorylation of ITIM and ITSM in the receptor. We synthesized orexin analogs, which are able to promote intracellular calcium transients but are totally unable to promote apopto-



### Figure 3

Proposed multi-step mechanisms of activation of  $OX_1R$  to account for the high specificity of the  $OX_1R$ -driven apoptosis. In step 1,  $OX_1R$  is not activated by orexins and the tyrosine residues of ITIMs are not phosphorylated (resting step). During step 2, binding of orexins to  $OX_1R$  leads to the  $G_q$  protein dissociation from the receptor to yield a  $G\alpha_q$ -GTP monomer and a  $G\beta\gamma$  dimer, which are now free to modulate the activity of other intracellular protein. The  $G\alpha_q$ -GTP monomer activates phospholipase C leading to an increase in intracellular Ca<sup>++</sup>, a process that is not involved in the apoptotic response. In Step 3a, the mechanism that could create selectivity in tyrosine phosphorylation of ITIMs by Src is compartmentalization of the signalling complex in which the  $G\beta\gamma$  dimer activates Src at the vicinity of the activated OX<sub>1</sub>R. Alternatively or additionally, a speculative Step 3b would lead to another ligand-induced change in receptor. This scheme including Steps 3a and/or 3b would explain why all other GPCRs that are also able to free  $G\beta\gamma$  dimers are not able to phosphorylate ITIMs in OX<sub>1</sub>R and to promote apoptosis. After tyrosine phosphorylation of ITIMs, the OX<sub>1</sub>R processes to further steps by recruiting SHP-2 resulting in the activation of the tyrosine phosphatase and the apoptotic response (see Figure 2).

sis (M. Laburthe and T. Voisin, unpubl. data). These data may fit with the sequential conformational changes of OX<sub>1</sub>R suggested in Figure 3, although selection of distinct conformers consistent with ligand-directed signalling may also contribute. Whatever the mechanism(s), after tyrosine phosphorylation of ITIM and ITSM, the OX<sub>1</sub>R recruits SHP-2 initiating the apoptotic response (see Figure 2).

Recruitment and activation of SHP-2 by  $OX_1R$  is such a proximal point of apoptosis regulation that many subsequent apoptosis-related events ending in release of cytochrome c from mitochondria (Rouet-Benzineb *et al.*, 2004) are currently under investigation in our group. At this stage, the key targets of SHP-2 leading to apoptosis remain elusive, as well as the targets of the tyrosine phosphatases SHPs in general (Neel *et al.*, 2003).

## **Conclusions and perspectives**

The characterization of orexins as pro-apoptotic peptides in colon cancers and the entirely novel mechanism whereby the  $OX_1$  receptor triggers apoptosis through phosphorylation of ITIMs open many questions or speculations and pave the way for promising perspectives. We would like to discuss four points:

- There is considerable interest in the development of smallmolecule orexin receptor antagonists as a novel therapy for the treatment of insomnia and more generally of those medical and psychiatric conditions associated with disturbed vigilance (Boss *et al.*, 2009; Coleman and Renger, 2010; Kodadek and Cai, 2010; Scammell and Winrow, 2011). It is to be hoped that all these studies may also lead to the discovery of small-molecule agonists of orexin receptors, which may prove therapeutically useful in the treatment of colon cancer. This should be possible because orexin receptors are peptide receptors belonging to class A or rhodopsin-like GPCRs for which many nonpeptide agonists are now available. In this context, we do encourage pharmaceutical companies to screen chemical libraries not only for orexin receptor antagonist but also for agonists.
- The possibility of the expression of orexin receptors by other solid tumours in humans is an important issue and is currently under investigation. We have already shown that OX<sub>1</sub>R is expressed in a neuroblastoma cell line that undergoes apoptosis upon orexin treatment (Rouet-Benzineb *et al.*, 2004). The OX<sub>2</sub>R is present in a pancreatic carcinoma cell line in which orexin-induced apoptosis has been characterized (Voisin *et al.*, 2006). Orexin receptors have been also characterized in adrenocortical adenomas (Spinazzi *et al.*, 2005) but relation to apoptosis is not documented.



- Orexin neurons originating from the hypothalamus project throughout the brain where orexin receptors are widespread (see earlier discussion). The question thus arises of whether brain orexin receptors drive apoptosis in health and diseases. Normal adult brain neurons, which express orexin receptors and are stimulated by endogenous orexins, do not undergo apoptosis. This may be related to the high resistance of differentiated neurons to apoptosis induced by cytochrome c (Wright et al., 2004), the mechanism whereby orexins induce apoptosis. In fact, mature neurons do not express detectable levels of Apaf-1 to which cytochrome c binds leading to the formation of the apoptosome (Johnson et al., 2007). Because aberrant neuronal cell death is an outstanding feature of neurodegenerative diseases (Bredesen et al., 2006), we previously made the hypothesis that orexin receptors may participate in the onset of apoptosis during neurodegeneration (Laburthe et al., 2010). In this context, it is interesting to notice that a dual orexin receptor antagonist decreases amyloid-β plaque formation in a transgenic mice model suggesting that orexins may play a role in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease (Kang et al., 2009).
- A functional role of ITIMs in GPCRs has been described in very rare cases (see El Firar *et al.*, 2009). It is estimated that the human genome contains # 1000 genes that code for proteins of the GPCR structure with seven-transmembrane spanning domains. We previously carried out a non-exhaustive manual search for the presence of the permissive ITIM sequence, which revealed that ITIMs are much more frequent in GPCRs than initially thought (Laburthe *et al.*, 2010). We are currently mining automatically the GPCR databases with a new algorithm that is suitable to identify the small and degenerate sequence of permissive ITIM. These studies should provide new insights into the presence of ITIMs in all classes of GPCRs and during phylogenesis.

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## **Conflict of interest**

There is no conflict of interest.

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