

Helminth pathogen cathepsin proteases: it's a family affair

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Helminth pathogens express papain-like cysteine peptidases, termed cathepsins, which have important roles in virulence, including host entry, tissue migration and the suppression of host immune responses. The liver fluke *Fasciola hepatica*, an emerging human pathogen, expresses the largest cathepsin L cysteine protease family yet described. Recent phylogenetic, biochemical and structural studies indicate that this family contains five separate clades, which exhibit overlapping but distinct substrate specificities created by a process of gene duplication followed by subtle residue divergence within the protease active site. The developmentally regulated expression of these proteases correlates with the passage of the parasite through host tissues and its encounters with different host macromolecules.

Papain-like cysteine proteases

Papain-like lysosomal cysteine proteases of the clan CA are expressed by all organisms from bacteria to mammals [1]. Humans express 11 different functional papain-like cysteine proteases (cathepsins L, S, K, F, W, V, O, B, C, H and X) that share a high degree of homology and substrate specificity because they arose from a common ancestor [2]. Some, including cathepsins B, L and S, are ubiquitously expressed in tissues and perform general household functions in protein turnover, although in immune cells they participate in antigen or major histocompatibility complex (MHC) II invariant chain processing [3]. Others display more restricted expression patterns and perform more specialized functions; for example, in osteoblasts, cathepsin K participates in bone re-modelling [4]. The papain-like cysteine proteases are of particular importance in medicine because their uncontrolled activities have been associated with diverse pathological disease states in humans including cancer metastasis, Alzheimer's disease, muscular dystrophy, osteoporosis, rheumatoid arthritis

and osteoarthritis [5]. Therefore, several research programs aim to develop selective inhibitors of these proteases; some, such as cathepsin K inhibitors for osteoporosis treatment, have reached clinical testing [6].

Papain-like cysteine proteases are also used by helminth, or worm, parasites in many aspects of their relationship with their animal and/or human hosts; for example, cathepsins facilitate skin and intestine infection, tissue migration, feeding and suppression of host immune effector cell functions [7]. Helminths are complex multicellular organisms that include parasitic roundworms (nematodes) and flatworms (trematodes and cestodes). Human diseases caused by helminth parasites are among the most prevalent on earth, with >1 billion people infected worldwide, predominantly in poverty-stricken regions in developing countries. Despite the enormous amount of disease they cause and the burden they place on the global economy, the armoury of chemotherapeutic drugs available to combat these parasites is limited, consisting predominantly of praziquantel, ivermectin, albendazole and oxfamiquine (for a review, see Ref. [8]). As with many other forms of pathogens, drug-resistant helminths have emerged and, therefore, there is an urgent need to identify additional strategies and target molecules for the development of new anti-parasitic drugs.

Owing to the roles of papain-like cysteine proteases in fundamental aspects of the parasitic way of life, cathepsins are lead targets for the development of new chemotherapeutic interventions. Recent studies justify this approach; cysteine protease inhibitors impair the growth and fecundity of the liver fluke *Fasciola hepatica* in infected sheep [9] and the vinyl sulfone cysteine protease inhibitor K11777 causes considerable reductions of worm burden and parasite egg output in mice infected with the blood fluke *Schistosoma mansoni* [10]. K11777 also exhibits potent activity against

1 some non-helminth parasites including
2 *Trypanosoma cruzi* (the causative agent of
3 Chagas' disease) [11] and *Entamoeba*
4 *histolytica* [12], thereby indicating that it
5 might be possible to develop broad-spectrum
6 anti-parasitics that could be employed in the
7 treatment of individuals co-infected with
8 pathogenic helminths and protozoans.
9 However, whereas the development of anti-
10 parasitic drugs that target cysteine proteases
11 might seem tangible, the fact that a large
12 number of homologous proteases with
13 overlapping specificity, as mentioned earlier,
14 also have crucial functions in human tissues
15 and are associated with various disease
16 conditions presents a major challenge in
17 identifying and developing parasite-specific
18 inhibitors. Accordingly, it is imperative that
19 we learn more about the biochemistry,
20 structure and function of the parasitic
21 proteases to enable comparisons to the
22 human enzymes; these comparisons should
23 facilitate the discovery of compounds that
24 selectively inhibit the parasite enzymes.

25 Much of our biochemical knowledge of the
26 papain-like cathepsin cysteine proteases of
27 helminth parasites comes from studies of
28 trematodes, or flukes, of medical and
29 veterinary significance. These include the
30 blood flukes of the genus *Schistosoma* that
31 cause bilharzia, or schistosomiasis, a disease
32 afflicting >200 million people in >70 tropical
33 countries and resulting in >280 000 deaths
34 annually in sub-Saharan Africa alone [13].
35 Also included are several fish-borne
36 infections caused by liver flukes of the
37 genera *Clonorchis*, *Paragonimus* and
38 *Opisthorchis*, which put >600 million people
39 at risk of infection across Asia [14,15], and
40 liver flukes of the genus *Fasciola* that cause
41 fasciolosis in animals such as sheep, cattle
42 and water buffalo. Although fasciolosis was
43 traditionally regarded as a world-wide
44 disease of livestock, the disease has recently
45 emerged as an important human zoonosis in
46 South America, Egypt, Iran and Vietnam.
47 Estimates indicate that 2.4–17.0 million
48 people are infected worldwide, with a further
49 91.1 million people currently living at risk of
50 infection [14,16,17].

51 Here, we discuss how the biochemical and
52 structural properties of papain-like cathepsin
53 cysteine proteases of helminth parasites have
54 evolved and adapted to perform their
55 particular function in host–parasite
56 interaction. We focus primarily on the
57 cathepsin L proteases of *F. hepatica* because
58 we have a better understanding of their
59 phylogeny, biochemistry and function. We
60 describe how subtle changes that occurred in

61 the residues constituting the active site of the
62 enzymes resulted in dramatic functional
63 adaptations that enable the proteases to deal
64 with the host macromolecules they encounter
65 during migration and development of the
66 parasite.

67 Trematode (fluke) cysteine proteases

68 Phylogenetic studies indicate that, at the
69 time of helminth worm emergence, 480–540
70 million years ago (MYA) [18] several
71 cathepsin classes had evolved: (i) two with
72 endopeptidase activity (cathepsin L and F);
73 (ii) one with both exo- and endopeptidase
74 activity (cathepsin B); and (iii) one with
75 dipeptidylpeptidase activity (cathepsin C)
76 [19–21] (Figure 1). This comparatively small
77 array of papain-like cysteine proteases had a
78 major role in the evolution and success of
79 parasitism. Indeed, further expansion of
80 these protease classes into families took place
81 within individual parasitic lineages, thus,
82 reflecting an adaptation to a new way of life
83 in which nutrients were readily available but,
84 at the same time, in which more energy was
85 required to protect against host responses
86 and to produce large numbers of offspring
87 [20]. Interestingly, however, a clear
88 divergence in the type of cathepsins
89 expressed by different trematode species is
90 observed: *Fasciola* spp. and *Schistosoma* spp.
91 predominantly express cathepsin L-like
92 proteases [22,23], whereas cathepsin F-like
93 proteases are the major proteases expressed
94 by *Clonorchis* spp., *Paragonimus* spp. and
95 *Opisthorchis* spp. [24,25]. The reason(s) for
96 this difference is unclear at present but,
97 unlike *Fasciola* spp. and *Schistosoma* spp.,
98 the species of the other three parasitic
99 genera use fish as a second intermediate
100 host, which could expose these pathogens to
101 unique selective pressures that resulted in
102 the evolution of cathepsin F-like protease
103 families rather than cathepsin L-like
104 enzymes.

105 Cysteine proteases make up a large
106 proportion of the total transcriptome of each
107 of these trematode parasites, further
108 emphasizing their importance in parasitism.
109 For example, nearly 15% of the transcripts
110 derived from adult *F. hepatica* [7]
111 (<http://www.sanger.ac.uk/Projects/Helminths/>
112), 10% from adult *C. sinensis* [26,27] and 18%
113 and 27% from adult diploid and triploid
114 *Paragonimus westermani*, respectively [28],
115 encode cysteine proteases.
116 Immunocytochemical studies show that
117 helminth cysteine proteases are
118 predominantly associated with the cells
119 lining the gut lumen (gastrodermis), the
120 reproductive structures (vitellaria) and the

1 surface layers (tegument) of parasites, sites
2 at which rapid protein degradation and
3 synthesis takes place [29]. Cathepsin L, F
4 and B proteases are also commonly found
5 among the profile of molecules secreted by
6 helminths, termed their secretome, which
7 enables them to perform their functions in
8 parasite–host interactions, for example,
9 facilitating tissue penetration and disarming
10 the soluble and cellular arms of the host
11 immune system [23,30]. Cathepsin C, by
12 contrast, functions in the hydrolysis of
13 peptide products of host tissues and
14 macromolecules that are degraded in the gut
15 lumen and absorbed into the gastrodermis
16 [7,31]. Further hydrolysis by
17 aminopeptidases within the same cells leads
18 to the release of free amino acids that are
19 then distributed throughout the tissues of the
20 parasite and used for growth and
21 development [7].

22 *Fasciola hepatica* *papain-like cysteine proteases*
23 *F. hepatica* expresses and secretes cathepsin
24 L and B proteases, but not cathepsin F.
25 Cysteine protease production is highly
26 regulated during the development of the
27 parasite in its hosts and correlates with its
28 migration and maturation. Dormant larvae
29 emerge from cysts in the duodenum and
30 infect their mammalian hosts by penetrating
31 the intestinal wall (Figure 2). Recently,
32 McGonigle *et al.* [32] showed that RNA
33 interference-mediated knock-down of either
34 cathepsin B or cathepsin L transcripts in
35 these infective juveniles blocked their ability
36 to penetrate the host intestinal wall, thus,
37 demonstrating that both enzyme types are
38 required for host entry. Studies on the
39 infective larvae of other trematodes,
40 including those of *Schistosoma* spp.,
41 *Trichobilharzia* spp., *Paragonimus* spp. and
42 *Clonorchis* spp., point to a universal use of
43 cysteine proteases in host infection
44 [19,33,34].

45 As the *F. hepatica* parasites enter the liver
46 parenchyma and begin feeding on the tissue,
47 cathepsin B expression diminishes and
48 expression of cathepsin L proteases is
49 upregulated. Biochemical and immunological
50 studies indicate that, by the time the
51 parasites have moved into the
52 immunologically safe environment of the bile
53 ducts, they become reliant solely on cathepsin
54 L proteases [23]. Within the bile ducts, the
55 parasite is an obligate blood-feeder and,
56 hence, its nutrients are acquired
57 predominantly from host haemoglobin and
58 serum proteins.

59 *F. hepatica* cathepsins are synthesized
60 within the gastrodermal epithelial cells of the

61 parasite and are stored in specialized
62 secretory vesicles as inactive zymogens [35].
63 Recently, a 1.4 Å atomic structure of the
64 major *F. hepatica* cathepsin L1 (FhCL1)
65 zymogen was determined [36]; it is almost
66 identical in tertiary structure to human
67 cathepsin L1, although their primary
68 structures exhibit only 35% identity [37]. The
69 mature domains of the enzymes are arranged
70 in two lobes: the left-hand lobe is
71 predominantly composed of α -helices,
72 whereas the right-hand lobe contains several
73 elements of β -sheet. The substrate-binding
74 cleft, containing the catalytic machinery of
75 the enzyme, runs between the two lobes
76 (Figure 3). Similarly to their mammalian
77 counterparts, the *Fasciola* spp. zymogens
78 contain an N-terminal extension, or
79 prosegment, that binds the substrate cleft
80 and prevents uncontrolled proteolysis during
81 trafficking and storage [35–37] (Figures 3,4).
82 Removal of the prosegment occurs by specific
83 autocatalytic processing events and is
84 facilitated by a low pH environment. In
85 mammalian cells, this environment is
86 provided by the acidic lysosome but, in
87 helminth parasites, activation occurs within
88 the slightly acidic milieu of the parasite gut
89 lumen [20,35]. In the case of *F. hepatica*
90 cathepsin L, we have shown that auto-
91 activation from a pro-enzyme to a mature
92 active enzyme occurs over a broad pH range
93 (4.0–7.3), but is ~40-fold faster at pH 4.5
94 than at pH 7.0 [38]. Thus, the acidic gut of
95 the parasite provides a perfect environment
96 to facilitate denaturing of ingested host
97 macromolecules and activation of the
98 digestive enzymes (not dissimilar to the
99 mammalian gut). A remarkable feature of
100 FhCL1 is its broad pH range for activity (pH
101 3.0–9.0) coupled with high stability at
102 neutral pH (up to 10 days at 37°C); by
103 contrast, the human cathepsin L homologue
104 is most active at pH 4.5 and inactivates
105 within minutes at pH 7.0 [39]. These
106 properties enable the parasite enzyme to
107 function for long periods within the parasite
108 gut (pH 5.5), in which 1.5×10^8 red blood cells
109 are degraded $\text{hour}^{-1} \text{worm}^{-1}$, and in the host
110 tissue (pH 7.3), which is degraded to
111 facilitate their migration.

112 *Phylogenetic studies reveal a large family of F.* 113 *hepatica cathepsin L proteases*

114 The cathepsin L proteases have undergone a
115 great expansion within the *Fasciola* spp. A
116 phylogenetic analysis of *F. hepatica* genes
117 deposited in public databases revealed that
118 this parasite expresses the largest
119 monophyletic cysteine protease family
120 described to date [23,40]. The family can be

grouped into five distinct phylogenetic clades; complementary DNAs (cDNAs) for two of these are found only in the early infective larvae (clades FhCL3 and FhCL4), whereas the remaining three clades (clades FhCL1, FhCL2 and FhCL5) were derived from adult parasites taken from bile ducts [23,40] (Figure 5). This cathepsin L family is estimated to have expanded within the genus *Fasciola* by a series of gene duplications followed by divergence beginning 135 MYA. Irving *et al.* [40] estimated that most of the expansion took place ~25 MYA, which was coincident with climatic conditions that favoured the development of grasslands and the expansion of common *F. hepatica* mammalian hosts (e.g. cattle and sheep). Accordingly, the divergence of the cathepsin L protease family seems to have been important in the evolution and adaptation of the parasite to a wider host range [23,40].

Proteomics studies of the cysteine proteases secreted by mature liver flukes in culture and *in situ* within the bile duct support the earlier phylogenetic analysis and highlight several important observations [23,41] (Figure 5). First, FhCL3 and FhCL4 cathepsin L proteases were not detected in the adult stage secretory proteins, supporting a specific role for these proteases in the early-stage juvenile flukes that initiate infection through the intestinal wall [32]. Second, adult parasites secreted protease members of all remaining clades (i.e. FhCL1, FhCL2 and FhCL5); however, the clade FhCL1 and FhCL2 proteases were, by far, the most predominantly expressed proteins (accounting for 67.39% and 27.63% of total secreted cathepsin Ls, respectively). This finding indicates that clades FhCL1 and FhCL2 are most crucial for parasite survival and adaptation. Third, proteases of a FhCL1 sub-clade, FgCL1C, were not present in the *F. hepatica* secretome, consistent with our findings [23] that genes in this sub-clade are present in the related tropical liver fluke, *Fasciola gigantica*, but not in the *F. hepatica* nucleotide databases. It seems that the FgCL1C sub-clade expanded most recently and was important in *F. hepatica* and *F. gigantica* speciation ~17 MYA and their subsequent adaptation to their specific hosts [40].

Mature *F. hepatica* did not secrete any proteases other than cathepsin L cysteine proteases, confirming that adult parasites living in the bile duct rely only on these enzymes for feeding on host blood [23,41,42]. The parasite draws blood through punctures it makes in the duct wall and the nutrients

obtained from this process are used to produce an enormous number of progeny (30–50 000 eggs day⁻¹worm⁻¹) [7]. Accordingly, FhCL1, FhCL2 and FhCL5 cathepsin L proteases must collectively possess hydrolytic machinery capable of digesting the macromolecules in the bloodmeal to peptides that are sufficiently small to be absorbed into the parasite gastrodermis. Recently, we showed that one of these enzymes, FhCL1, can degrade haemoglobin to peptides of between 3–14 amino acids; these presumably are absorbed into the gastrodermis for further catabolism to amino acids by intracellular cathepsin C and aminopeptidases [7,21,38].

All cathepsin L proteases detected in the secretions of adult *F. hepatica* were fully processed to mature enzymes, indicating that the events that lead to prosegment removal is completed within the parasite gut lumen [23]. A comparison of the primary structures of the prosegments of the various phylogenetic clades shows that they are highly conserved, except within a 21 amino acid stretch before the junction between the prosegment and mature enzyme [23,37,43] (Figure 4). The FhCL1 atomic structure shows that the final 12 residues in this prosegment C-terminal region do not make contacts with the main body of the enzyme but, rather, move freely in space, creating a ‘protease-accessible’ region that facilitates prosegment removal [43]. We have proposed that the cleavage events leading to prosegment removal take place in two steps [23]. Initially, in a bimolecular process, a small number of inactive cathepsin L zymogens are *trans*-activated by another enzyme located in the gastrodermal cells, an asparaginyl endopeptidase [44], that cleaves peptide bonds involving Asn residues close to the junction of the prosegment and mature domain. Cathepsin Ls activated by this process are then free to remove prosegments from other cathepsin Ls through specific cleavage at the Leu-Ser↓His motif and, thus, the process increases exponentially [36]. Mutations that alter this motif to a Pro-Ser↓His motif prevent cathepsin L activation [43]. This proposal for enzyme activation is supported by sequence alignments of the five *F. hepatica* cathepsin L clades (Figure 5); despite the lack of conservation at the prosegment C terminus, the cleavage site for asparaginyl endopeptidase and the autocatalytic cleavage Leu-Ser↓His motif are preserved in all phylogenetic clades.

***Fasciola* cathepsins have varying but overlapping substrate specificities**

1 Gene duplication followed by divergence is
2 one of the primary means by which
3 organisms generate proteins with new
4 functions [45]. The tight regulation of the
5 expression of the various *F. hepatica*
6 cathepsin L clades as the parasite develops
7 implies that the specific biochemical activity
8 of certain clades are required at different
9 stages of development as the parasite moves
10 to new environments and encounters
11 different macromolecular substrates
12 (Figure 2). Understanding the functional
13 diversity of the various members of the gene
14 family, therefore, is important for
15 understanding pathogen virulence and
16 adaptation.

17 The active site of papain-like cysteine
18 proteases is short; although it comprises four
19 subsites (S2–S1–S1'–S2') that interact with
20 the corresponding P2–P1–P1'–P2' residues of
21 the protein substrate, the scissile bond being
22 between P1–P1' [1,46]. Substrate binding
23 specificity is predominantly governed by the
24 residues that form a deep S2 subsite pocket
25 capable of holding the substrate P2 amino
26 acid and positioning the scissile bond P1–P1'
27 into the S1 subsite for cleavage [1,46]. Within
28 the 3D structures of FhCL1, human
29 cathepsin L and cathepsin K, the S2 subsite
30 is composed of residues occupying positions
31 67, 68, 133, 157, 160 and 205, which exhibit
32 variation among members of the papain
33 superfamily. An analysis of these residues in
34 the various *Fasciola* spp. cathepsin L clades
35 reveals divergence within the S2 subsite, in
36 particular at the three positions that have
37 the greatest influence on P2 binding (i.e. at
38 residues 67, 157 and 205) [36] (Figure 3). Our
39 biochemical data using recombinant versions
40 of FhCL1 and FhCL2 proteases show how
41 important changes in these positions can be;
42 for example, FhCL1 (Leu67, Val157 and
43 Leu205) cleaves substrates with hydrophobic
44 residues (Phe and Leu) in the P2 position
45 with catalytic rates (k_{cat}/K_m) that are 25- and
46 eightfold greater, respectively, than FhCL2
47 (Tyr67, Leu157 and Leu205). Furthermore,
48 in comparison to human cathepsin L (Leu67,
49 Met157, Ala205), which can accommodate a
50 wide range of amino acids in the S2 subsite,
51 the S2 subsite of FhCL1 is restricted. Using
52 mass spectrometry, we found that those
53 residues in host haemoglobin that were most
54 susceptible to cleavage by FhCL1 were
55 invariably hydrophobic residues and in the
56 order Leu>Val>Ala>Phe. Together, these four
57 residues make up ~42% of the haemoglobin
58 molecule and, therefore, it seems that FhCL1
59 has been specifically adapted to degrade the

60 host substrate, which it exploits as nutrient
61 [38].

62 A comparison with the parasite and
63 human cysteine protease homologues shows
64 that the FhCL2 S2 subsite is identical to that
65 of human cathepsin K (Figure 3).
66 Biochemical studies indicate that, like
67 cathepsin K, FhCL2 readily accommodates
68 substrates with a bulky proline residue in the
69 P2 position; by contrast, these substrates are
70 poorly cleaved by FhCL1 and not at all by
71 human cathepsin L [43]. Both cathepsin K
72 and FhCL2 also possess the unique ability to
73 cleave native collagen, which contains a
74 repeat motif of Gly-Pro-Xaa (in which Xaa is
75 any amino acid). Comparison of the atomic
76 structures of the two enzymes show that this
77 unique collagenase-like activity is, in part,
78 due to the presence of Tyr67 (not found at
79 this position in any other cathepsin
80 proteases) at the entrance of the S2 pocket;
81 this site can form stabilizing ring–ring
82 interactions between the five-membered
83 proline ring of the substrate [36]. This is an
84 example of convergent evolution, whereby
85 positive selection acting on the residues
86 within the active site of two vastly distant
87 enzymes has endowed them with similar
88 biochemical and functional properties. In
89 humans, cathepsin-K-mediated collagen
90 cleavage is essential to its function in bone
91 remodelling [47]; by contrast, in *Fasciola*
92 spp., which must penetrate and migrate
93 through large host organs including the liver,
94 this FhCL2 activity is crucial for degrading
95 collagen-rich interstitial matrices.

96 Interestingly, adult clade FhCL5 that
97 diverged from FhCL2 before its divergence
98 from FhCL1 (Figure 5) exhibits an
99 intermediate S2 subsite (Leu67, Leu157 and
100 Leu205). Like clade FhCL1, it does not
101 readily accommodate substrates with a P2
102 proline residue [48]. Thus, separation of the
103 FhCL1 and FhCL5 clades from the FhCL2
104 clade was accompanied by the loss of the
105 ability to cleave substrates, like collagen,
106 with a P2 proline. At the same time, this
107 alteration enabled the S2 pocket of FhCL1 to
108 open up so that it could accommodate
109 hydrophobic residues that were most common
110 in host haemoglobin. No biochemical data are
111 available for the infective larval proteases of
112 clades FhCL3 and FhCL4 but, because these
113 are considered the most ancient of the clades
114 from which the FhCL2 and FhCL5–FhCL1
115 lineages diverged, it is likely that they
116 possess hybrid-like specificities [40].

117 **Concluding remarks**

118 Helminth parasites have exploited papain-
119 like cysteine proteases to perform a wide

range of functions that enable them to reside in their mammalian hosts. Despite the evolutionary distance between helminth parasites and humans, their papain-like cysteine proteases share many biochemical and structural similarities. Given that substrate specificity in these proteases is largely governed by a few interactions between the substrate P2 amino acid and residues within the S2 subsite of the enzyme, it is not surprising that the differences observed between the parasite and human enzymes are minor. Turk and Guncar [1] suggest that it might be difficult to design inhibitors that can distinguish between the human enzymes because they differ only subtly in their substrate specificity. Finding inhibitors that potently inactivate parasite papain-like cysteine proteases without affecting one or more host enzymes will pose an even greater challenge. However, drug design efforts could exploit bioavailability and pharmino-kinetic and -dynamic properties to enhance the probability of inhibitors preferentially reaching their parasite target. Availability of recombinant functional parasite proteases will be invaluable in the search for selective lead-like compounds with these characteristics within synthetic or natural chemical libraries. Additionally, or alternatively, we could take advantage of the exquisite selectivity by which the host immune system can distinguish foreign molecules and epitopes to target the papain-like cathepsin cysteine proteases of helminth parasites as vaccine molecules. Such an approach has been successfully taken in the path towards the development of a first-generation recombinant FhCL1 vaccine that protects domestic animals against infection with the liver fluke *F. hepatica* [49].

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(a)

Infection	Trematode	Abbrev.	Definitive hosts	Intermediate hosts	Distribution
Fasciolosis	<i>Fasciola hepatica</i>	Fh	Herbivores: sheep, cattle, humans	Freshwater snails	World-wide
	<i>Fasciola gigantica</i>	Fg			Africa, Asia
Schistosomiasis	<i>Schistosoma japonicum</i>	Sj	Sheep, cattle, horses, humans	Freshwater snails	Asia-Pacific
	<i>Schistosoma mansoni</i>	Sm			South America, Africa
Clonorchiasis	<i>Clonorchis sinensis</i>	Cs	Dogs, pigs, cats, camels, humans	Freshwater snails, carp	Asia-Pacific
Opisthorchiasis	<i>Opisthorchis viverrini</i>	Ov	Dogs, cats, pigs, humans	Freshwater snails, fish	Eastern Europe, Asia-Pacific
Paragonimiasis	<i>Paragonimus westermani</i>	Pw	Wild and domestic cats, humans	Freshwater snails, crabs	Asia-Pacific

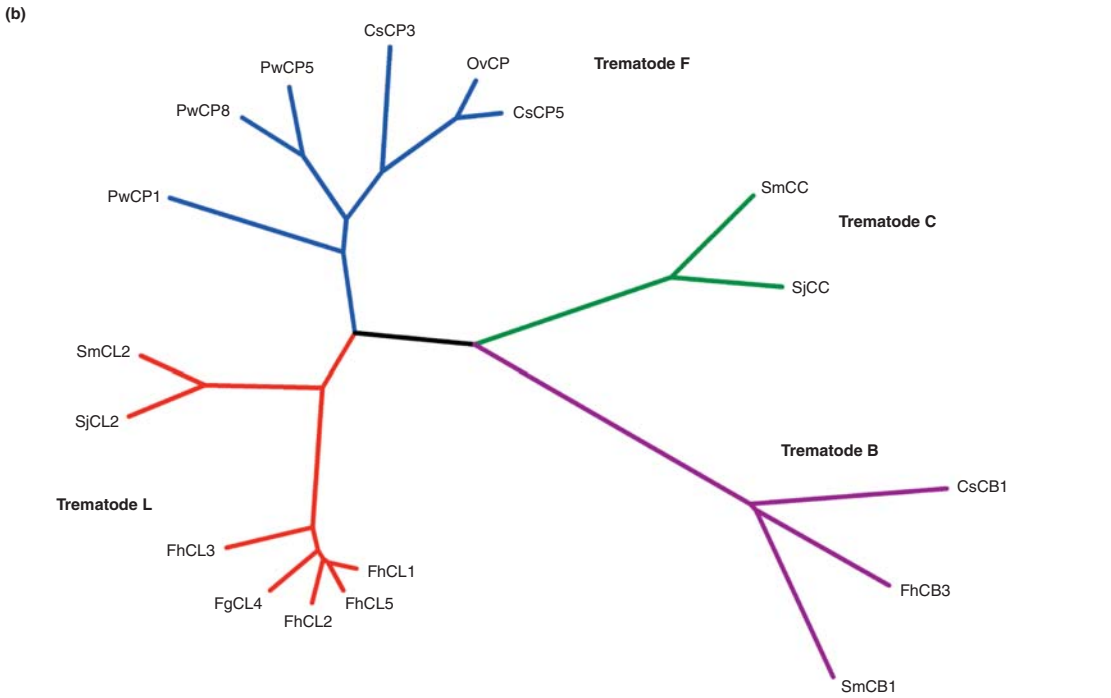


Figure 1. Papain-like cysteine proteases of trematode pathogens. Human diseases caused by trematode (flatworm) parasites are among the most prevalent on earth and predominantly occur in developing countries. Trematode pathogens express four major classes of cathepsin proteases (L, B, F and C) that have functions in parasite virulence including tissue invasion and feeding. **(a)** The major trematode pathogens of humans and animals. **(b)** Bootstrapped (1000 trials) neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree showing the evolutionary relationship of the trematode cathepsin superfamily. The tree was constructed using trematode cDNA sequences (including the prosegment region). The branches are coloured according to the four major enzyme classes. Abbreviations: CB, cathepsin B; CC, cathepsin C; CL, cathepsin L; CP, cysteine protease; Cs, *Clonorchis sinensis*; Fg, *Fasciola gigantica*; Fh, *Fasciola hepatica*; Ov, *Opisthorchis viverrini*; Pw, *Paragonimus westermani*; Sj, *Schistosoma japonicum*; Sm, *Schistosoma mansoni*. Part (b) adapted from Refs [7,19].

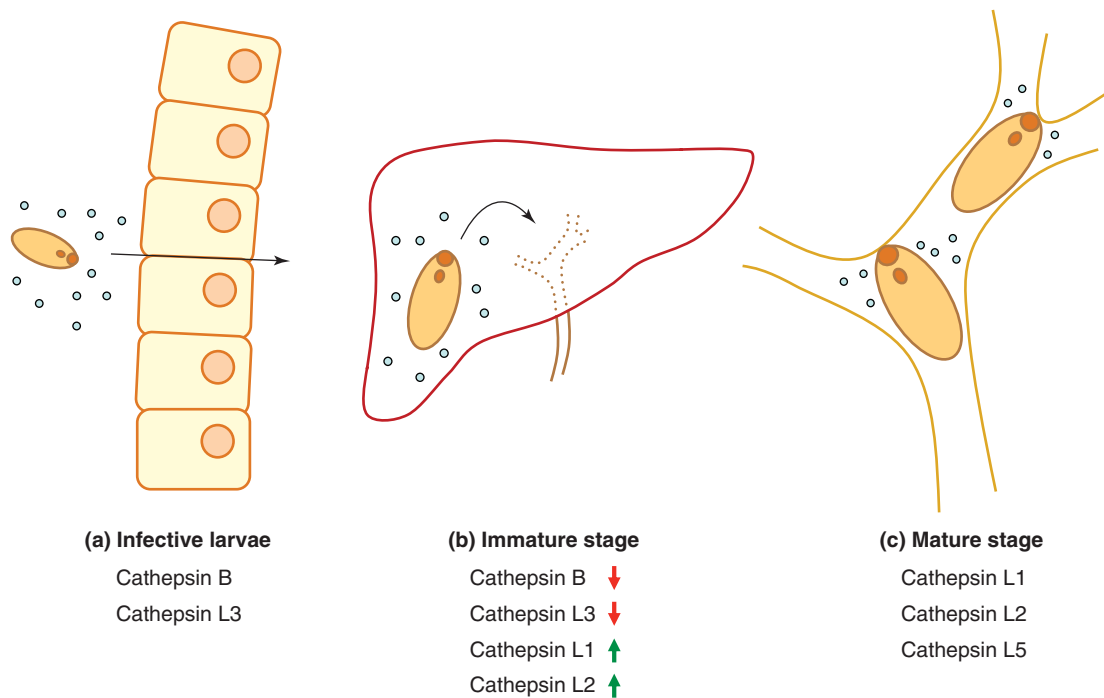
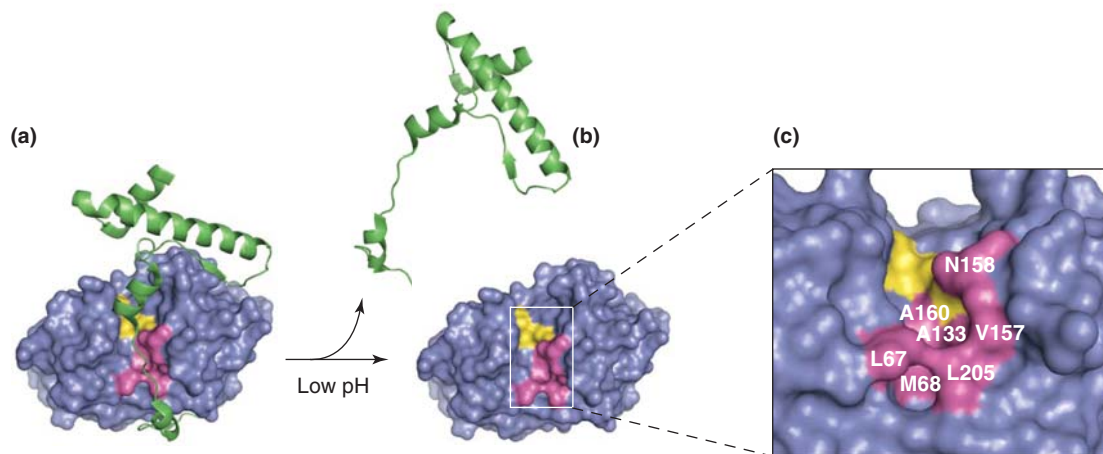


Figure 2. Developmental regulation of *F. hepatica* cathepsin proteases. Trematode pathogens such as *F. hepatica* undergo complex life-cycles involving transitions between host organ systems and tissues. Movement from one site to another, as the life-cycle progresses, is associated with the differential expression of cathepsin enzymes. **(a)** Penetration of the host intestinal wall by newly excysted juvenile (NEJ) *F. hepatica* is facilitated by the secretion of proteolytic enzymes. This process involves cathepsin B and clade 3 cathepsin Ls. **(b)** The migration of immature flukes through host liver tissue corresponds to a period of rapid growth and development of the parasite. At this stage, host protein degradation is achieved primarily by *Fasciola* clade 1 and 2 cathepsin Ls, although some cathepsin B and clade 3 and 4 cathepsin L activity could remain. **(c)** Adult *F. hepatica* resides within the bile ducts where it feeds on host red blood cells. Proteomics analyses have shown that clade 1, 2 and 5 cathepsin Ls are the only proteases secreted by adult flukes, thus, indicating crucial roles for these enzymes in penetrating the bile duct wall and digesting host haemoglobin.



(d)

	Residues						
	67	68	133	157	158	160	205
Human cathepsin L	Leu	Met	Ala	Met	Asp	Gly	Ala
Human cathepsin K	Tyr	Met	Ala	Leu	Asn	Ala	Leu
Adult: FhCL 1A	Leu	Met	Ala	Val	Asn	Ala	Leu
FhCL 1B	Leu	Met	Ala	Leu	Asn	Ala	Leu
FhCL 2	Tyr	Met	Ala	Leu	Thr	Ala	Leu
FhCL 5	Leu	Met	Ala	Leu	Asn	Gly	Leu
Juvenile: FhCL 3	Trp	Met	Ala	Val	Thr	Ala	Val
FhCL 4	Phe	Met	Ala	Leu	Asn	Ala	Phe

Figure 3. A structural analysis of *F. hepatica* cathepsin L proteases. *Fasciola* spp. cathepsin Ls are stored in specialized secretory vesicles within the gut epithelial cells of the parasite as inactive zymogens, which consist of a prosegment and mature enzyme domain. The prosegment is removed by catalytic cleavage after secretion into the parasite intestine to reveal an active mature protease. **(a)** Surface representation of the major *F. hepatica* secreted cathepsin L protease (FhCL1) (Protein Data Bank [PDB] ID: 2O6X). The prosegment is shown as a green ribbon and the catalytic machinery is shown in yellow (P1 residues) and magenta (P2 residues). **(b)** At low pH (4.0–4.5), the prosegment is auto-catalytically removed to produce the mature active enzyme. **(c)** Detail from the active site of the enzyme. S2 residues that determine substrate-binding specificity are labelled. Figures were created using Pymol (<http://www.pymol.org>). **(d)** Comparison of the residues from the S2 active site that contribute to differential substrate-binding in *F. hepatica* cathepsin Ls (clades FhCL1–FhCL5) and human cathepsins L and K. The S2 residues that confer substrate specificity are in red. Residues were identified using primary sequence alignments and analyses of the FhCL1 atomic structure (PDB ID: 2O6X) [36].

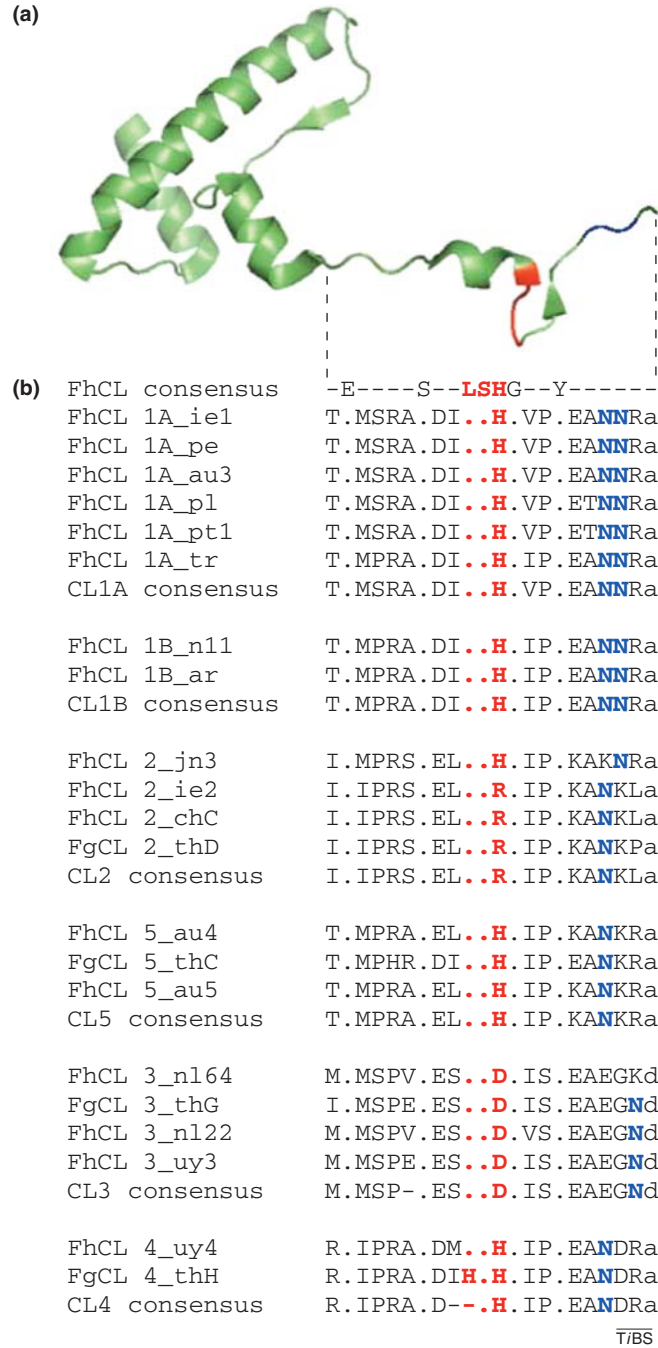


Figure 4. A structural and sequence analysis of *Fasciola* cathepsin L prosegments. Cathepsin L prosegments regulate enzyme activity by binding to the substrate cleft and act as molecular chaperones to ensure correct folding of the enzyme. Prosegment removal is mediated by cleavage at two conserved motifs towards the C-terminal end of the molecule. **(a)** The atomic structure of the *F. hepatica* major secreted cathepsin L protease prosegment region (PDB ID: 2O6X). The conserved Leu-Ser↓His motif required for zymogen auto-catalytic processing is shown in red and the asparagine residues required for *trans*-activation by asparaginyl endopeptidases are shown in blue. The region containing the Leu-Ser↓His motif and asparagine residues in the atomic structure of the molecule is disordered; however, they have been drawn for illustrative purposes only. The figure was created using Pymol (<http://www.pymol.org>). **(b)** Primary sequence alignment of the non-conserved *Fasciola* cathepsin L protease prosegment C-terminal regions. A consensus sequence for all *Fasciola* cathepsin Ls (FhCL consensus) is shown at the top of the alignment as are consensus sequences for individual clades (e.g. CL1A consensus, CL1B consensus, etc.). Gaps in the alignment are represented by a dash (-) and amino acids that are conserved in all sequences are indicated by a dot (.). Prosegment residues

are in capital letters, whereas the first amino acids of the mature enzymes are in lower case letters. The colouring of residues follows that of part (a).

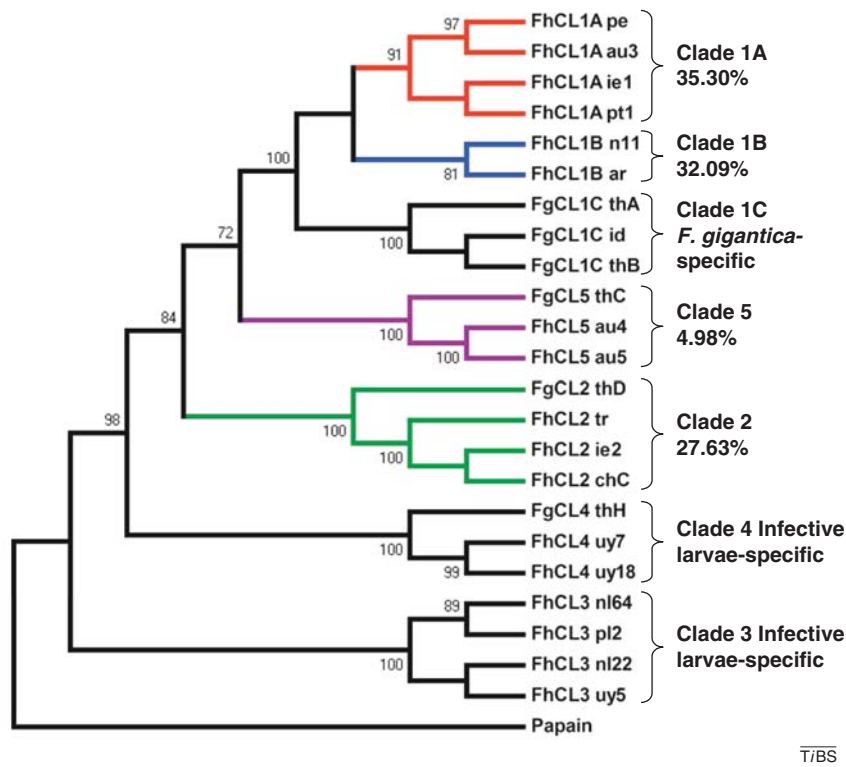


Figure 5. A phylogenetic analysis of the *Fasciola* cathepsin L gene family. The *Fasciola* cathepsin L gene family expanded by a series of gene duplications, followed by divergence of residues in the active site, which gave rise to three clades associated with mature adult worms and two clades specific to infective juvenile stages. These changes resulted in a repertoire of cathepsin L proteases with overlapping and complementary substrate specificities. Bootstrapped (1000 trials) neighbour-joining tree constructed using *F. hepatica* and *F. gigantica* cathepsin L cDNA sequences. The tree is rooted to *Carica papaya* papain. The cathepsin L proteases expressed and secreted by adult flukes are coloured and the brackets and figures represent their expression levels. Figure adapted from Ref. [23].