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Review Article

Biochemistry, pharmacology and in vivo function of arginases

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Abstract

Arginase catalyzes the hydrolysis of L-arginine into L-ornithine and urea. The two existing isoforms Arg1 and Arg2 show different cellular localizations and metabolic functions. Arginase activity is crucial for nitrogen detoxification in the urea cycle, synthesis of polyamines, and control of L-arginine bioavailability and nitric oxide (NO) production. Despite significant progress in the understanding of the biochemistry and function of arginases, several open questions remain. Recent studies have revealed that the regulation and function of Arg1 and Arg2 are cell-type-specific, species-specific, and profoundly different in mice and humans. The main differences were found in the distribution and function of Arg1 and Arg2 in immune and erythroid cells. Contrary to what was previously thought, Arg1 activity appears to be only partially related to vascular NO signaling under homeostatic conditions in the vascular wall, but its expression is increased under disease conditions and may be targeted by treatment with arginase inhibitors. Arg2 appears to be mainly a catabolic enzyme involved in the synthesis of L-ornithine, polyamine, and L-proline but may play a putative role in blood pressure control, at least in mice. The immunosuppressive role of arginase-mediated arginine depletion is a promising target for cancer treatment. This review critically revises and discusses the biochemistry, pharmacology, and in vivo function of arginases, focusing on the insights gained from the analysis of cell-specific Arg1 and Arg2 knockout mice and human studies using arginase inhibitors or pegylated recombinant arginase.

Significance statement. The review emphasizes the need for further research to deepen our understanding of the regulation of Arg1 and Arg 2 in different cell types under consideration of their localization, species-specificity, and multiple biochemical and physiological roles. This will lead to better pharmacological strategies to target arginase activity in liver, cardiovascular, hematological, immune/infection diseases and cancer.

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Abbreviations

2-(S)-amino-5-boronohexanic acid, ABH; Arginase 1, Arg1; Arginase 2, Arg2; asymmetric dimethylarginine, ADMA; coronary artery disease, CAD; cardiovascular disease, CVD; endothelial cells, ECs; endothelial nitric oxide synthase, eNOS; endothelium-dependent vasodilation, EDV; global L-arginine bioavailability ratio, GABR; hepatic stellate cells, HSC; inducible nitric oxide synthase, iNOS; interleukin, IL; ischemia reperfusion, I/R; isonitrosopropiophenone ISPF;; maximum reaction rate, V_{max}; Michaelis constant, K_m; mitogen activated protein kinase, MAPK; mass spectrometry, MS; Myeloid-derived suppressor cells, MDSC; myocardial infarction, MI; nitric oxide synthase, NOS; nitric oxide, NO; Nω-hydroxy-nor-arginine, nor-NOHA; red blood cells, RBCs; polymorphonuclear neutrophils, PMN; sickle cell disease, SCD; signal transducer and activator of transcription, STAT; solute carrier family 25 member 29, SLC25A29; streptozotocin, STZ; type 2 diabetes mellitus,T2DM; T cell receptor

I. Introduction

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The enzyme arginase (L-arginine-urea hydrolase; EC 3.5.3.1) catalyzes the hydrolysis of Larginine to L-ornithine and urea and thereby participates in the final step of the urea cycle (Fig. 1). In mammals there are two isoforms of arginase, defined as arginase 1 (Arg1) and arginase 2 (Arg2), which are codified by independent genes (Arg1 6q23; Arg2 14q24.1-24.3) (Sparkes et al., 1986, Gotoh et al., 1997). The two isoenzymes differ substantially in subcellular localization and function. Arg1 is mainly localized in the cytoplasm and is highly expressed in hepatocytes in the liver and participates in the urea cycle. Instead, Arg2 is a mitochondrial enzyme that was first identified in the kidney (Kaysen and Strecker, 1973), but its function in the kidney and elsewhere has been unclear for many years. Arg1 was found to regulate L-arginine bioavailability and nitric oxide (NO) synthesis from nitric oxide synthases (NOSs) in the immune system and the cardiovascular system (Durante et al., 2007); therefore, Arg1 was proposed to modulate macrophage M1/M2 polarization, suppress T-cell responses and regulate vascular endothelial function and NOmediated cardioprotection. However, There is accumulating evidence from cell-specific mice and multiomics studies demonstrating that some of these mechanisms are instead modulated by Arg2, depend on the cell type or health/disease conditions, are speciesspecific and, in many cases, profoundly different in mouse and man. Moreover, by synthesizing L-ornithine, arginases are also crucial for the generation and intracellular availability of polyamines, such as putrescine, spermidine, and spermine (Fig. 2) Notably, polyamines have been shown to be involved in the promotion of stem cell selfrenewal (James et al., 2018), the induction of autophagy (Hofer et al., 2022), the protection against neurological disorders (Ghosh et al., 2020), immune cell functions, and immune suppression in the tumor microenvironment (Hayes et al., 2014). This review will summarize the current state of knowledge on the biochemistry, pharmacology, and in vivo function of arginases, focusing on in vivo data obtained from the

analysis of cell-specific Arg1 knockout (Arg1^{-/-}) and Arg2 knockout (Arg2^{-/-}) mice, and from human studies. Specifically, we will summarize the biochemistry, genetics, and cellular biology of arginases; their cell-specific and species-specific role in the liver, vasculature, bone marrow, blood (immune cells, red blood cells (RBCs)), and kidney; and summarize the current pharmacological strategies, and the results of human studies using recombinant arginase and arginase inhibitors.

The careful characterization of the cell-specific role of Arg1 and Arg2 in mouse models, human cells/organoids, and human cohorts with single-cell and multiomics approaches will allow a deeper understanding of the role of arginase in specific cells and tissues, thus proving better diagnostic, prognostic, and therapeutic strategies to address cardiovascular, hematological, inflammatory, and genetic diseases related to L-arginine metabolism and cancer.

II. Biochemistry and regulation of arginase expression and activity

A. Genetic characteristics and regulation

- 41 The enzyme arginase catalyzes the hydrolysis of L-arginine to L-ornithine and urea (**Fig. 1**).
- 42 In mammals, there are two isoforms of arginase, defined as arginase 1 (Arg1) and arginase
- 43 2 (Arg2), which are codified by independent genes. In humans, Arg1 and Arg2 show 58%
- 44 sequence homology (Morris et al., 1997, Perozich et al., 1998). Human ARG1 gene was
- 45 cloned by independently by the groups of Cederbaum and Mori in the 1980s and mapped to
- 46 chromosome 6q23 (Dizikes et al., 1986, Sparkes et al., 1986, Haraguchi et al., 1987).
- 47 Human ARG2 was cloned by the same groups 10 years later and mapped on chromosome
- 48 14g24.1-24.3 (Gotoh et al., 1996, Vockley et al., 1996, Gotoh et al., 1997). The gene
- 49 sequence presents highly conserved residues among species (Jenkinson et al., 1996) (Tab.
- 50 1). Structural studies identified high similarity (50%) and sequence homology in encoded
- 51 genes of arginase of different species (Jenkinson et al., 1996, Perozich et al., 1998) (Tab.
- 52 **1**).

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- 53 Evolutionary, it is most likely that the two paralogues ARG1 and ARG2 genes originated by
- 54 gene duplication before amphibians and mammals diverged (Patterton and Shi, 1994, Morris
- 55 et al., 1997). Among all species, arginase and other ureohydrolases share multiple
- 56 conserved residues, which play crucial roles in protein folding, binding of manganese-ions,
- and substrate interaction (Kanyo et al., 1996, Perozich et al., 1998). The sequence around
- 58 the catalytic site of both Arg1 and Arg2 is highly conserved, which makes it difficult to
- 59 synthesize isoform-specific arginase inhibitors. Current arginase inhibitors resemble its
- substrate L-arginine, are mostly unselective, and display similar K_i or IC₅₀ values (Adams et
- al., 2017). However, there is currently an effort for synthetizing isoform-specific drugs (Gzik
- et al., 2024) (see also Chapter VI B).
- 63 The human Arg1 protein exists in three isoforms obtained by alternative splicing (**Tab.1**; **Fig.**
- 64 **3**). The canonical isoform 1 (P05089-1) comprises 8 exons that encode 322 amino acids.

65 The isoform 2 (P05089-2) includes an 8 amino acids insertion and therefore consists of 330 amino acids (Fig. 3). The isoform 3 (P05089-3) lacks exons 4 and 5, which encode for the 66 amino acids 204-289 and therefore make a total of 236 amino acids. Only one sequence is 67 68 known for Arg2, which is built up of 8 exons as well and comprises 354 amino acids (Sayers 69 et al., 2022). 70 Apart from several similarities between Arg1 and Arg2, the localization, cellular function, and 71 tissue- or cell-specific expression are rather diverse. In humans and rodents, Arg1 is found 72 constitutively expressed at high levels in the liver, particularly in the cytosol of hepatocytes, 73 where it is responsible for catalyzing the last step of the urea cycle. This is also the reason 74 why it was called "liver arginase" (Morris et al., 1997). The functions of Arg1, besides its role 75 in the urea cycle, are less characterized and profoundly different in mice and man. In human, 76 Arg1 is also expressed to a lower extent in the bone marrow, the blood, and the skin (Morris 77 et al., 1997, Kim et al., 2002, Bruch-Gerharz et al., 2003, Munder et al., 2005). In rodents, Arg1 is constitutively expressed in multiple tissues, mainly in the liver and gastrointestinal 78 79 tract, but also in the uterus and the skin (Yu et al., 2003, Choi et al., 2012). 80 At the cellular level, Arg1 is constitutively expressed in hepatocytes and inflammatory cells 81 (M2 macrophages) in all species; in other cell types including vascular endothelial cells. 82 smooth muscle cells, cardiomyocytes is expressed constitutively is species-specific way and 83 in general at very low level; but its expression is induced in disease conditions (Morris et al., 1997, Teupser et al., 2006, Gonon et al., 2012, Caldwell et al., 2015), as described in detail 84 in the next chapters. In humans, polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMN) constitutively 85 86 express Arg1, which is localized in granules and can be released under pro-inflammatory conditions (Rotondo et al., 2011). Interestingly, 87 human and primate erythrocytes 88 constitutively express higher levels of Arg1 and display increased arginase activity, while 89 rodent erythrocytes express very low levels (Spector et al., 1985).

The regulation of the expression either isozyme is cell type-specific and can be influenced by

health/disease conditions and by the presence of pro-inflammatory (Th1) or antiinflammatory (Th2) cytokines. In the mouse, Arg1 expression was shown to be induced upon Th2 cytokines like interleukin (IL)-4 and -6 stimulation in M2 macrophages via signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) 6 signaling, by mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) - activating transcription factor-2 (ATF-2) signaling pathway. CCAAT/enhancer binding protein (C/EBP) β , and by the transcription factor forkhead box O4 (FoxO4) (Gray et al., 2005, Sheldon et al., 2013, Shatanawi et al., 2015, Zhu et al., 2015, Schmok et al., 2017, Caldwell et al., 2018) In contrast, Arg2 is mainly localized in the mitochondria and is constitutively expressed at higher levels in the kidney, the urinary bladder, the prostate but also in human skeletal muscle (Vockley et al., 1996, Morris et al., 1997, Rath et al., 2014), but a lower constitutive expression of Arg2 was found in almost all cells of the body. The expression of Arg2 can be upregulated in inflammatory or disease conditions in different cell types and in a speciesspecific way. For example it was shown to be up-regulated by interferon regulatory factor 3 in Jurkat cells (Grandvaux et al., 2005), by the hypoxia-inducible factor-2 in HUVECs (Krotova et al., 2010), by activation of the ERK5 (extracellular signal-regulated kinase 5)-CREB (cyclic AMP-responsive element-binding protein) pathway in human Jurkat cells and mouse monocytes, (Barra et al., 2011) and by IL-10 stimulation likely via signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 activation in the mouse. It is therefore generally different from the regulation of Arg1 (Grandvaux et al., 2005, Krotova et al., 2010, Barra et al., 2011,

B. Protein structure and catalysis

Dowling et al., 2021).

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Human Arg1 and Arg2 show a similar trimeric structure and catalytical mechanisms (Cama et al., 2003, Di Costanzo et al., 2005). Each monomer of arginase exhibits a typical Rossman-fold structure, where β -sheets are wrapped by α -helices (Li et al., 2022a). The molecular weight of each monomer varies among isoforms and species ranging from 30 to

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40 kDa (Tab. 1) (Li et al., 2022a). The crystal structure of human Arg1 was characterized by Di Costanzo et al. (Di Costanzo et al., 2005). The catalytic center of each arginase monomer contains a Mn2+ coordinated to one His and 3 Asp (Fig. 4). The spin-coupled Mn2+-Mn2+ structure is formed in the catalytic center and activates arginase (Fig. 4) (Li et al., 2022a). Mn²⁺ is required as a cofactor for converting L-arginine to L-ornithine and urea. Interestingly, if Mn²⁺ is replaced with Co²⁺ the catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/k_M) of Arg1 is increased (Stone et al., 2010). Interestingly, the kinetics of the hydrolysis of L-arginine to L-ornithine and urea catalyzed by isolated/recombinant arginase is dramatically different when compared to the enzyme expressed in cellular compartments. Purified rat liver arginase is characterized by a Michaelis constant (K_m) of 1 mM and a maximum rate (V_{max}) of 4380 µmol/min/mg in the presence of 10 mM MnCl₂ at pH of 7.5 (Reczkowski and Ash, 1994). In contrast, recombinant human Arg1 and Arg2 expressed in HEK293T cells are characterized by a K_m of 3.3 mM and V_{max} of 34 nmol/min/mg and a K_m of 1.9 mM and V_{max} of 883 pmol/min/mg respectively at physiological pH value of 7.4 (Tommasi et al., 2018). These differences need to be taken into consideration for pharmaceutical preparations containing recombinant arginase, like the pegylated-arginases, which was recently approved for treating hyperarginemia in patients with genetic deficiency of arginase (see chapter VI). Interestingly, it was proposed that arginase kinetics in cells is modified by the presence of binding partners that regulates the catalytical activity of the enzyme. Examples of binding partners regulating arginase activity are human flotillin, which was proposed to bind Arg1 in human RBCs (Jiang et al., 2006) or the embryonic stem cell-expressed Ras, which was found to interact with Arg1 in hepatic stellate cells (HSC) (Pudewell et al., 2022). Also, the concentration and availability of L-arginine may contribute to regulate the kinetic activity of arginase enzymes. For example, in cultured RAW 264.7 cells and primary murine alveolar macrophages, Arg2 or Arg1, respectively, were described to compete for L-arginine bioavailability with the inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), which catalyzes the oxidation of L-arginine to L-citrulline and leads to high-output nitric oxide (NO) synthesis (Wang et al., 1995, Hey et al., 1997, Sonoki et al., 1997, Momma and Ottaviani, 2022). Therefore, Arg1 was proposed to control L-arginine bioavailability and NO production by iNOS in murine alveolar macrophages and other cell types co-expressing iNOS during pro-inflammatory conditions (Sonoki et al., 1997, Rath et al., 2014), which also include for example human keratinocytes (Bruch-Gerharz et al., 2003). However, the intracellular L-arginine

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Arg1 was also proposed to compete with eNOS for the common substrate L-arginine in ECs.

concentrations (approx. 100 μ M) and the K_m of iNOS (2.8 μ M) are much lower than the K_m

The intracellular concentration of L-arginine in ECs is ca. 100 µM, which should saturate

eNOS; however, paradoxically, NO production by eNOS in ECs can be still increased by

increasing extracellular L-arginine concentration. It remains unclear how excess extracellular

L-arginine can increase eNOS activity. The ability of extracellular L-arginine to increase NO

production in the presence of arginase was defined as "the L-arginine paradox" and it is still

partially unresolved (Girerd et al., 1990, Lundberg and Weitzberg, 2022).

for Arg1 (2 mM) (Garganta and Bond, 1986, Stuehr et al., 1991)

C. Summary

To summarize, the two isoenzymes Arg1 and Arg2 catalyze the same reaction and their tertiary and quaternary structure are similar. The kinetics of the reaction are affected by the cell type, sub-localization in the cells (cytoplasm, granula, mitochondria), the presence of a binding partner (flotillin), and the availability of L-arginine for the reaction.

III. Biochemical assays for the determination of arginase activity

and L-arginine metabolomics

Biochemical assays for determination of arginase activity and the new metabolomics approaches have been playing a crucial role in understanding arginase function and its involvement in different cellular processes. This chapter will discuss the various biochemical assays used to determine arginase activity and arginine bioavailability, and their applications for studying its role in systemic L-arginine metabolism in humans.

A. The urea assay: colorimetric determination of urea formation in cells and tissues

The first method to determine arginase activity was developed in 1945. The arginase activity in liver or RBCs was quantified colorimetrically as formation of urea by derivatization with α -isonitrosopropiophenone (ISPF) (Archibald, 1945, Van Slyke and Archibald, 1946). Later on, it was modified by others for fitting a 96-well plate format and applied for determination of arginase activity in leucocytes with a detection limit of 0.02 μ mol urea (Corraliza et al., 1994). Then the method was further improved and adapted by other groups for other sample types (Romero et al., 2008, Yang et al., 2013, Bhatta et al., 2017, Heuser et al., 2022, Pudewell et al., 2022).

In this assay, the samples (cells or tissue lysates) are pre-incubated at 58-60 °C with 7-10 mM MnCl₂ as cofactor for the activation of arginase. Afterwards, a millimolar concentration of L-arginine (500 mM) is added into the mixture incubated for 1 min - 1 hour or more at 37 °C according to specific arginase activity (i.e. activity/mg protein) expected in the specific cell/tissue of interest. The enzymatic reaction is terminated by adding an acidic mix composed of H₂SO₄, H₃PO₄, and H₂O, in v/v/v, 1:3:7 to denaturate the proteins in the sample and to allow the derivatization reaction, which requires acidic conditions. Then a solution of ISPF (9% in ethanol) is added to the samples and incubated at least 30 - 45 min at 100 °C. Urea concentration in the samples is then determined colorimetrically by measuring the absorbance of the pink ISPF-adduct with urea at 540 nm and quantified by comparing the

absorbance of a standard curve prepared by using standard concentrations of urea. Based on this method, the arginase-dependent urea production in different cells and tissues including kidney, liver, and brain was determined and compared among health and disease conditions as well as different species (Iwata et al., 2002, Romero et al., 2008, Bagnost et al., 2009, Bhatta et al., 2017, Heuser et al., 2022, Pudewell et al., 2022).

The main disadvantage of the urea assay for analysis of arginase activity in cells and tissues is the lower sensitivity and signal-to-noise ratio due to the presence of urea and other colored contaminants (like heme) in biological samples. For example, in plasma urea concentration is very high and can be removed by size exclusion centrifugation filters. This procedure is however not always applicable to tissues or cell lysates, thus limiting the accuracy of the assay for samples with very low specific activity. An example of cells with low specific activity of arginase are rodent RBCs or platelets (see below paragraph II.C.).

B. Colorimetric determination of L-ornithine

In 1952 Chinard et al. described a single cuvette assay based on the colorimetric reaction of ninhydrin reagent with L-ornithine at very low pH (Chinard, 1952). Later on, the method was optimized for microplates for the detection of arginase activity by analyzing the production of L-ornithine in human hemolysates and cultured erythroleukemic cells (K562 cells) (Iyamu et al., 2008). If applied for determination of arginase activity in cells and tissues, this method has some major disadvantages including the interference of endogenous L-ornithine found in sample at the steady state, as well as its complex trafficking and metabolism, which also includes the formation of downstream products like polyamine.

C. The radioactive assay: Conversion of ¹⁴C-L-arginine into L-ornithine and ¹⁴C-urea

Rüegg and Russell first proposed the determination of arginase activity in bovine liver, calf serum, and murine macrophage extract by applying L-[guanido-¹⁴C]-arginine (Ruegg and Russell, 1980). Before application into the assay the substrate, L-[¹⁴C]-arginine was purified by using an ion exchange column prepared by using a Dowex 50W X8 (hydrogen form)

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resin, which removes potential contaminants (including spontaneously hydrolyzed arginine) and leads to a very low background. According to their method, 1 volume of glycine buffer containing 75 mM glycine, 2 mM MnCl₂ and 0.02% thymol blue at pH 9.7 was premixed with 7 volumes of 1 M L-arginine solution containing L-[14C]-arginine and water (v/v, 1:6) and 10 mM MnCl₂, and then incubated at 56 °C, pH 7.5. The reaction was terminated by adding acetic acid with 7 M urea, 10 mM L-arginine, and 0.001% methyl red at pH 4.5 in each sample. The time-dependent formation of ¹⁴C-urea was measured by scintillation counting at different time points from 2 to 120 min (Ruegg and Russell, 1980). By using L-[guanido-¹⁴C]-arginine Spector et al. established a similar assay for the detection of arginase activity in erythrocyte lysate (Spector et al., 1980). The produced ¹⁴C-urea was converted into ammonia and ¹⁴CO₂ by Jackbean urease, which was trapped by filter paper soaked with NaOH as Na₂¹⁴CO₃ followed by scintillation counting. By using this method, the authors compared arginase activity in RBCs of different species, including humans and primates, rats, rabbits, cats, and dogs; the arginase activity was normalized as µmol Larginine hydrolyzed per gram hemoglobin per hour (Spector et al., 1985). They found less than 1 µmol urea/g hemoglobin/h of RBCs from Blab/c mouse, rat, rabbit, cat, and dog; in contrast to more than 900 µmol urea/g hemoglobin/h of that in humans. A further optimization of this method was carried out by Morris Jr. et al. later on (Morris et al., 1998). This assay was applied by many authors to analyze arginase activity in cells, tissues, and blood, and it is still one of the most sensitive and accurate assays. By applying this assay, they found that the arginase activity in the plasma and RBCs of individuals with sickle cell disease (SCD) were significantly higher than those in healthy controls (humans with SCD vs healthy controls, 37.7 ± 2.9 vs 23.5 ± 1.7 nmol/mg/min in plasma and 2.1 ± 2.1 vs $0.4 \pm 0.2 \,\mu$ mol/mL/h in RBCs) (Morris et al., 2005a).

D. Systemic analysis of L-arginine bioavailability and L-arginine metabolism.

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With the discovery that upregulation of arginase activity may play an important role in disease conditions, there has been a growing interest in the analysis of arginase activity and L-arginine bioavailability in human cohorts and in pre-clinical studies in experimental animals. As mentioned above, L-arginine is the common substrate for arginase and the NOS enzymes; therefore, systemic L-arginine bioavailability is thought to be dependent on the relative activity of both enzyme classes, their expression, and the compartmentalization of Larginine (Elms et al., 2013). For the analysis of L-arginine bioavailability, the "global Larginine bioavailability ratio" (GABR) was proposed. GABR is calculated as the ratio between L-arginine level and the levels of L-ornithine and L-citrulline (GABR = L-arginine/(Lornithine + L-citrulline), which are metabolic products respectively of arginase and NOS activity (Tang et al., 2009), Further studies have investigated the levels of L-arginine, Lornithine, and L-citrulline in plasma of human cohorts (Kovamees et al., 2016b, De Santo et al., 2018, Burrage et al., 2019, Fan et al., 2021). Alternatively, for determination of serum levels of L-arginine, L-ornithine, L-citrulline, asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA), and symmetric dimethylarginine (SDMA), some authors applied an HPLC method based on fluorescent derivatization with 6-aminoquinolyl-N-hydroxysuccinimidyl carbamate (AccQ-Fluor™) (Heresztyn et al., 2004, Miyazaki et al., 2018). L-arginine, L-ornithine and L-citrulline, and the derived GABR were also measured directly in plasma of subjects with coronary artery disease (CAD) by electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry (LC/ESI/MS/MS) online with an API 365 triple quadruple mass spectrometer using ¹³C₆-arginine as the internal standard for the quantitation (Tang et al., 2009). Metabolomics approaches were also established to investigate the L-arginine metabolism and its corresponding regulation in vivo by using LC-qTOF-MS. One example is a method for

the determination of 16 amino acids, amino acid derivatives, and related compounds in plasma to identify potential biomarkers in pediatric chronic kidney disease (Benito et al., 2016). The metabolites comprised L-homoarginine, L-homocysteine, L-arginine, symmetric dimethylarginine (SDMA), ADMA, dimethylglycine, S-adenosylhomocysteine, S-adenosylmethionine, L-citrulline, betaine, creatine, creatinine, glutathione, methionine, glycine, and cysteine (Benito et al., 2016). Another example is the quantitative analysis of L-arginine metabolites, polyamines, and acetylated polyamines in various biological matrices such as liver, muscle, adrenal glands, and brain in mice (Langner et al., 2022). Further examples of applications of the analysis of arginase metabolites in human cohorts are discussed in Chapter IV and summarized in the related **Tab. 4**.

E. Summary

To summarize, the arginase activity in cells and tissues was analyzed by measuring the production of urea by derivatization and colorimetric assay, which has limitations due to interference with endogenous urea (e.g. in plasma) or heme-containing proteins (hemoglobin in RBCs). A more accurate method is the detection of the conversion of isotope-labeled (¹³C or ¹⁴C) L-arginine into their enzymatic products ¹³C or ¹⁴C -L-ornithine/urea from arginases or ¹³C or ¹⁴C-L-citrulline from NOS by scintillation or for nonradioactive isotopes by MS. MS has the advantage that can be applied for metabolic analysis of L-arginine metabolites on a larger scale and does not require the use of radioactive compounds.

IV. The biological role of arginase in cells and tissues

In this section, we aim to review and discuss the cell-specific role of arginase in the liver, immune cells, vasculature, RBCs, and the kidney and to highlight their significance in health and disease. Specifically, we will explore the diverse function of Arg1 and Arg2 in the tissues and point on the species-specific differences, their function, and regulation in rodents and humans. These differences are particularly important when pharmacological therapies are tested in pre-clinical models. The available cell-specific mice models and their phenotypes are summarized in **Tab. 2**.

A. Role of arginase in the liver

The liver is built up out of four major cell types: hepatocytes (~70%), HSCs (~13%), sinusoidal endothelial cells (~10%), and liver resident macrophages named Kupffer cells (~7%), (Racanelli and Rehermann, 2006, Chen and Tian, 2021). Interestingly, all of these cells express Arg1 and are of major importance to maintain liver homeostasis (MacParland et al., 2018).

Arg1, the so-called liver-type arginase, is predominantly and constitutively expressed in the liver, especially in hepatocytes (MacParland et al., 2018). The main role of arginase in the liver is the detoxification of the body from ammonia, which is produced as a result of the catabolism of amino acids and is potentially neurotoxic. Ammonia is detoxified in the urea cycle by forming urea, which can be then excreted by the kidney (Krebs and Henseleit, 1932, Strong et al., 2021) (**Fig. 5**).

The urea cycle can be divided into five enzymatic steps. The first two steps are located in the mitochondria, the last three in the cytoplasm of hepatocytes: (1) Ammonium, carbon dioxide, and two ATP are converted into carbamoylphosphate by the carbamoylphosphate synthetase I; (2) carbamoylphosphate is combined with L-ornithine to L-citrulline; (3) L-citrulline and aspartate are condensed to argininosuccinate by the argininosuccinate synthetase using one ATP; (4) argininosuccinate is cleaved into L-arginine and fumarate by

311 the argininosuccinase; and finally (5) Arg1 hydrolyzes L-arginine into L-ornithine and urea 312 (Pelley, 2012, Barmore et al., 2024). Urea is exported from the hepatocytes towards the 313 kidney where it is excreted in the urine. 314 The transport of L-ornithine and L-citrulline in and outside of the mitochondria is carried out 315 by L-ornithine carrier 1 and 2 and the solute carrier family 25 member A29 (SLC25A29) 316 (Fiermonte et al., 2003, Porcelli et al., 2014). However, the expression of SLC25A29 is lower 317 as compared to the other transporters. Therefore, the role of SLC25A29 in the urea cycle is 318 likely limited (Camacho and Rioseco-Camacho, 2009). 319 Besides the urea cycle, L-arginine can also be consumed by eNOS or iNOS to produce L-320 citrulline and NO in liver ECs (Poisson et al., 2017), but also in hepatocytes, HSC, and 321 Kupfer cells macrophages (Cunningham and Porat-Shliom, 2021, Pudewell et al., 2022). 322 Furthermore, in the liver L-arginine can be converted into agmatine or creatine, whereas L-323 ornithine can be further catabolized into polyamines, L-proline, or glutamate. The urea cycle 324 and its intermediates are tightly regulated (Wu and Morris, 1998). In individuals carrying a 325 genetic mutation of liver Arg1 the levels of L-arginine in plasma are elevated (Diez-326 Fernandez et al., 2018), indicating that the higher arginase activity in the liver limits the export of L-arginine in plasma. In line with those findings, global constitutive Arg1-/- mice 327 328 display hyperarginemia and die between day 10 and 14 after birth because of 329 hyperammonemia (lyer et al., 2002). Conditional mouse models of Arg1 deficiency (Arg1 flox/flox mice) were generated by targeting 330 331 exons 7-8 (El Kasmi et al., 2008) or exon 4 (Van den Bossche et al., 2012). Late-onset global Arg1-1- mice or hepatocyte-specific Arg1-1- mice showed a similar phenotype 332 333 characterized by hyperarginemia, hyperammonemia, and dysregulation of amino acid 334 metabolism, but without any increase in L-ornithine (Kasten et al., 2013, Sin et al., 2013). 335 Interestingly, the same phenotype was found in another study in hepatocyte-specific Arg1-/-336 mice (Ballantyne et al., 2016), demonstrating that Arg1 in hepatocytes plays a major role in

regulating the systemic levels of ammonia and L-arginine. Other pathways that metabolize L-arginine, like NO production by eNOS or iNOS, are mainly influenced by the extracellular L-arginine concentration (MacKenzie and Wadsworth, 2003, Shin et al., 2011).

Polyamines play an important role in liver regeneration and homeostasis and are regulated by arginase levels, import and export of polyamines and amino acids, as well as the expression of the rate-limiting enzyme L-ornithine decarboxylase that converts L-ornithine to putrescine (Luk, 1986, Dayoub et al., 2006, Uemura and Gerner, 2011, Okumura et al., 2016, Sagar et al., 2021). Recently, it was shown that in HSC, Arg1 plays a major role in the maintenance of quiescence, suggesting an effect of downstream polyamine synthesis (Pudewell et al., 2022). The detailed role of arginase in sinusoidal liver endothelial cells is less known. The consequence of EC-Arg1 knockout in mice was not specifically studied for the liver in detail. However, mice lacking EC Arg1 did not show specific liver phenotype (at least in our hands) (Heuser et al., 2022) and other authors did not mention any liver phenotype in similar models (**Tab 2**) (Bhatta et al., 2017). Arg1 is also expressed in resident liver macrophages (or Kupfer cells) in mouse liver. Although the canonical role of arginase in mouse bone marrow and alveolar macrophages has been well studied (see paragraph IV. B), cell-specific analysis of the effects of arginase in Kupfer cells on liver pathophysiology is still lacking.

B. Role of arginase in the immune system

Arginases are crucially involved in various aspects of inflammation and immunomodulation both in health and disease conditions. Increased arginase activity has been involved in inflammation-triggered immune dysfunction, tumor immune escape, fibrosis, immunosuppression, and immunopathology of infectious diseases (Bronte and Zanovello, 2005, Munder, 2009, Murray, 2016, Martí and Reith, 2021). The regulatory role of Arg1 and Arg2 in the immune response profoundly differs between mice and humans.

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According to a classical view, mouse macrophages can be classified as belonging to two subtypes named M1 and M2 based on their role in inflammatory response and their expression of iNOS (M1) or Arg1 (M2) (Fig. 6) (Thomas and Mattila, 2014, Murray, 2017). In this model, the balance between arginase and iNOS activity in macrophages dictates the outcome of immune responses. M1 macrophages preferentially metabolize L-arginine via iNOS into NO and L-citrulline and orchestrate the first pro-inflammatory phase of the immune response; instead, M2 macrophages metabolize L-arginine via Arg1 into L-ornithine and urea and are mainly involved in anti-inflammatory responses (Thomas and Mattila, 2014, Murray, 2017). The underlying mechanism involves the activation of iNOS expression in M1 macrophages by T helper 1 -derived cytokines (IL-1 β , TNF α) and IFN-y induces iNOS expression via activation of transcription factors like NFκB, AP1 and drives the classical M1 activation pathway. T helper 2 cytokines like IL-4, IL-10, and IL-13 suppress iNOS activity and promote Arg1 expression (Bronte and Zanovello, 2005, Thomas and Mattila, 2014, Martí and Reith, 2021). Recently it was shown that Arg2 is present in the mitochondria of proinflammatory M1 macrophages and is essential for IL-10 metabolic downregulations to resolve the cell inflammatory status (Dowling et al., 2021). According to this view of M1 macrophages expressing iNOS and M2 macrophages expressing Arg1, it is tempting to speculate that control of L-arginine bioavailability via these enzymes may also involve Larginine transporters like CAT1 and CAT2 and act via inter-cellular communication In humans, the M1/M2 dichotomy is not well defined and controversially discussed in the literature (Munder, 2009, Thomas and Mattila, 2014). In human blood circulating monocytes do not express Arg1; instead, human Arg1 is constitutively expressed in PMN granules, is released in response to pro-inflammatory stimuli and regulates immune T-cell responses (Munder et al., 2005, Munder et al., 2006, Oberlies et al., 2009). Less is known about the role of Arg1 in human tissue macrophages, and in general about the role of Arg2, which is constitutively expressed in mitochondria and contributes to L-arginine metabolism (Martí and Reith, 2021).

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T lymphocytes play a central role in the adaptive immune response. It is well known that Larginine starvation impairs T cell functions by multiple mechanisms (Geiger et al., 2016, Martí and Reith, 2021). T cell proliferation is dose-dependent on L-arginine, with maximal proliferation occurring at plasma concentrations (~100 µmol/L) (Ochoa et al., 2001). CD8⁺ T cells show a more pronounced dependency on L-arginine availability than CD4⁺ T cells. Moreover, dietary L-arginine supplementation improves thymic weight and T-cell reactivity in both rats and humans (Martí and Reith, 2021). Mechanistically, L-arginine starvation impairs T cell function through the downregulation of the CD3ζ subunit of the T cell receptor (TCR) complex, crucial for TCR assembly and activation signaling (Munder et al., 2006, Munder, 2009). Additionally, L-arginine deprivation disrupts TCR signaling, reduces IL-2 production, and affects cell cycle regulators, causing T cell arrest in the G0-G1 phase (Martí and Reith, 2021). L-arginine starvation also inhibits glycolysis in T cells without affecting mitochondrial function, although high L-arginine levels can enhance CD8⁺ T cell anti-tumor activity in vivo (Grzywa et al., 2020). Human T cells constitutively express mitochondrial Arg2(Lowe et al., 2019, Martí i Líndez et al., 2019), while the constitutive expression of Arg1 is under debate(Martí and Reith, 2021) (Murray, 2016). Therefore Arg2 regulates T-cell intracellular L-arginine metabolism and plays a critical role in T cell function (Martí and Reith, 2021). Inhibition or deletion of Arg2 enhances T-cell activation and anti-tumor responses, independent of extracellular L-arginine levels (Grzywa et al., 2020, Martí and Reith, 2021). Arg2 also supports regulatory T cell (Treg) function and survival, indicating its potential as a therapeutic target in autoimmune and neoplastic diseases (Grzywa et al., 2020). Based on the mechanism of arginase inhibiting T cell function in the tumor microenvironment to promote cancer growth, novel immunotherapy vaccines targeting Arg1 or Arg2 are developed and are now under clinical trials (Martinenaite et al., 2019, Weis-Banke et al., 2020, Lorentzen et al., 2022, Niu et al.,

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Human granulocytes subpopulations and especially polymorphonucleated neutrophiles express both isoforms of arginase. In these cells, Arg1 is not found in the cytoplasm, but rather in the cytoplasmic granules and, as briefly mentioned before, Arg1 release in the extracellulare space exerts immunosuppressive functions by depletion of L-arginine and inhibition of T effector cell responses (Munder et al., 2005, Munder et al., 2006, Oberlies et al., 2009). Surprisingly the expression of Arg1 is not regulated by Th2-cytokines and other stimuli in these cells (Munder, 2009, Murray, 2016). Similar T-cell immunosuppressive activity of arginases is found in myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs). MDSCs are a heterogeneous population of immature myeloid cells at different stages of myelopoiesis exerting immunosuppressive function through their ability to metabolize and deplete Larginine, which is needed for T-cells-mediated responses (Bronte et al., 2016, Ostrand-Rosenberg and Fenselau, 2018), Indeed MDSCs express high levels of both Arg1 and iNOS (Gabrilovich and Nagaraj, 2009), and were described to inhibit T cells by high-output NO production (Jia et al., 2010), and by inducing L-arginine starvation of T cells (Raber et al., 2014). Arg1 is also crucial for the inhibition of allo-stimulated T cell inhibition by MDSCs (Bronte et al., 2003). Hence, arginases and in general L-arginine metabolic enzymes in MDSCs are considered as excellent molecular targets of immunoregulatory compounds in infectious diseases and cancer (Tab. 3). In the tumor microenvironment, abundant arginase activity is mainly related to the presence of MDSCs and L-arginine metabolism is one of the metabolic pathways responsible for tumor progression (Kim et al., 2018). Moreover, upregulation of either Arg1 or Arg2 expression/activity has been reported in several cancer types (Graboń et al., 2009, de Boniface et al., 2012, Bedoya et al., 2014). Accumulating research indicates that inhibiting the potent immunosuppressive mechanisms of MDSCs can be a therapeutic target to restore T-cell activity and immunotherapy success in antifungal therapy (Law et al., 2020). Indeed, pharmacological inhibition of MDSC-derived Arg1 expression by either SB202190, which is a

specific inhibitor of p38, or vandetanib, an orally available receptor tyrosine kinase inhibitor,

significantly enhanced T-cell-mediated antifungal responses against C. neoformans infection (Li et al., 2022b). It has also been reported recently that by using the arginase inhibitor OAT-1746, the negative effects of Arg1 in ovarian carcinoma can be mitigated (Czystowska-Kuzmicz et al., 2019). Please refer also to Chapter IV and Table 3 and 4.

In conclusion, arginases significantly influence immune responses and inflammation, with elevated activity linked to various pathological conditions such as immune dysfunction, tumor progression, and immunosuppression. The roles of Arg1 and Arg2 differ between mice and humans, in particular regarding their modulation of macrophage and T cell functions. The use of pharmacological inhibitors to improve immunotherapy outcomes or recombinant arginase to induce cancer cell L-arginine starvation is showing a great potential in cancer therapy.

C. Role of arginase in red blood cells

It has long been known that Arg1 is present in circulating RBCs and that its protein level differs considerably among species (Azizi et al., 1970, Spector et al., 1983). Humans and primates have a high level/activity of arginase, while rodents, cats, and dogs have a rather low arginase activity (which results often under the detection limits of common methods) (Azizi et al., 1970, Spector et al., 1983).

In general, the proteome of circulating RBCs is made of proteins, which were synthesized during their maturation from proerythroblasts to reticulocytes in the bone marrow. Human erythroid cells express both Arg1 and Arg2 (Kim et al., 2002, Grzywa et al., 2021a). In human erythroid cells, the expression of arginases starts during the late phase of erythropoiesis, when the hematopoietic stem cell differentiates into proerythroblasts, while the highest protein level is found in circulating human RBCs (Grzywa et al., 2021a, Grzywa et al., 2021b). Importantly, Arg2 was found to be upregulated by 12-fold during erythroid differentiation and remained elevated in late-stage erythroblasts, whereas Arg1 was upregulated at very late-stage terminal differentiation (Grzywa et al., 2021a, Grzywa et al.,

468 2021b). Likely, Arg2 is lost when the mitochondria and the nucleus are extruded (Grzywa et 469 al., 2021a, Grzywa et al., 2021b). In human erythroid cells, there is also an alternatively 470 spliced variant of Arg1 with preserved activity (Kim et al., 2002). 471 The strong induction of Arg1 and Arg2 in human proerythroblasts was associated with a 472 continuous requirement for extracellular L-arginine throughout the erythroid differentiation 473 process. Notably, L-arginine in this context was not required for the synthesis of creatine or 474 NO, but rather for polyamine biosynthesis and the hypusination of the eIF5A transcription 475 factor (Shima et al., 2006, Gonzalez-Menendez et al., 2023). Interestingly, mouse 476 proerythroblasts express Arg1 at lower levels as compared to humans (Grzywa et al., 2021b, 477 Shahbaz et al., 2021). 478 There is compelling evidence that Arg1 levels in human RBCs are increased in people with 479 SCD (Iyamu et al., 2005, Morris et al., 2005a). SCD is caused by different mutations in the 480 β-globin chain of hemoglobin. Hypoxia induces sickling of RBCs due to polymerization of 481 abnormal hemoglobin (Pauling et al., 1949). Sickle cells are stiffer, more fragile, more prone 482 to rupture, and show an increased arginase activity (Iyamu et al., 2005). Specifically, it was 483 proposed that the release of RBC protein content due to cell rupture/damage induces an 484 increase of free hemoglobin and Arg1 in plasma. The increase in free hemoglobin in plasma 485 leads to systemic oxidative stress and NO scavenging, while the increased arginase activity 486 in plasma leads to reduced L-arginine bioavailability. Therefore, both free hemoglobin and 487 arginase in plasma may contribute to the pathophysiology of SCD by promoting endothelial 488 dysfunction and pulmonary hypertension. (Morris et al., 2005a). A similar pathophysiology 489 was also observed in the hemolytic uremic syndrome (Friberg et al., 2024). 490 Interestingly, other authors proposed that liberation of arginase from human RBCs into the 491 plasma may also exert immunosuppressive effects by L-arginine depletion (Bernard et al., 492 2008, Munder, 2009). This immunosuppressive effect of arginase released from RBCs could

also be a possible explanation for the increased risk of invasive bacterial infection in humans with SCD.

Another role attributed to Arg1 in RBCs is the control of systemic NO bioavailability and NO release from RBCs (Yang et al., 2013). We and others have shown that eNOS is present in RBCs (Kleinbongard et al., 2006, Cortese-Krott et al., 2012). In line with this finding, Yang et al. showed that the inhibition of Arg1 in human RBCs regulates eNOS-dependent export of NO-metabolites and contributes to cardioprotection in a Langendorff bioassay (Yang et al., 2013). By comparing the cardiovascular hemodynamics and the outcome of acute myocardial infarction in RBC- and EC-specific eNOS^{-/-} mice, we recently demonstrated that eNOS present in RBCs regulates blood pressure, the levels of circulating NO metabolites and is cardioprotective (Leo et al., 2021, Cortese-Krott et al., 2022). Recently, an erythroid cell targeted Arg1^{-/-} mouse was generated by using mice expressing a Cre-recombinase under the control of the promoter for erythropoietin receptor, and crossed on an apoE^{-/-} background. These mice showed increased vascular calcification on high-fat diet and increased S-nitrosoglutathione reductase activity in the vessels (Gogiraju et al., 2022).

It is important to point out that mice and rats are unlikely to be good models for studying the role of Arg1 in RBCs *in vivo*. According to all studies investigating arginase activity monitoring the conversion of isotopically labeled L-arginine into L-ornithine and urea, the arginase activity in mouse and rat RBCs is very low or even undetectable under some conditions (Azizi et al., 1970, Spector et al., 1983). Moreover, the expression and activity of arginase in mouse monocytes is very high (Munder et al., 2005), which may contaminate RBC samples. In addition, when considering the results of mouse studies obtained with the loxP/Cre system, the specificity of the promoter and its regulation often also determine the quality of the results. As pointed out before the Tie2 promoter drives gene expression in both, ECs and cells of the myeloid cell lineage (leukocytes) (Payne et al., 2018), and the phenotype may derive from vascular or immune cell dysfunction.

There is no doubt however that an increase in arginase activity in human RBCs has an important pathophysiological role. Independent human studies found that the levels of L-arginine in human RBCs correlated to the levels of Arg1 expression and activity in RBCs (Spector et al., 1985, Morris et al., 2000, Morris et al., 2005a). As pointed out before, RBC arginase activity was found to be elevated in hematological diseases (especially in mutations of hemoglobin like SCD) and also in cardiovascular disease (CVD) (Azizi et al., 1970, Iyamu et al., 2005, Morris et al., 2005b).

In the late '80s Cederbaum et al. proposed the absence of arginase in RBCs from lower animals and its presence in RBCs from primates may be the results of an evolutionary adaptation, rather than the "vestigial presence of an arcane function" (Spector et al., 1985). It is unclear whether the presence of arginase expression in the RBCs confers any obvious advantage or disadvantage on the animal who carries it. This interesting perspective was sadly not followed further.

To summarize, while human RBCs carry high levels of Arg1, mice, and rats express Arg1 at a very low level. An increase in RBC arginase activity plays a major role in SCD pathophysiology and was proposed to be also immunomodulatory. More studies with human erythroid precursor cells and human cohorts are required to understand the pathophysiological role of arginase in RBCs and how its levels and activity may be modulated under disease conditions.

D. Role of arginase in the vasculature

In the vasculature, L-arginine is mainly converted into NO by the eNOS (EC:1.14.13.39) expressed in the ECs. NO is involved in the modulation of endothelial function, vascular tone, organ perfusion, and blood pressure (Moncada et al., 1991, Farah et al., 2018, Ostrand-Rosenberg and Fenselau, 2018, Lundberg and Weitzberg, 2022). Reduced bioavailability of NO results in endothelial dysfunction and promote hypertension, atherosclerosis, and myocardial infarction.

In the vascular wall ECs and vascular smooth muscle cells may express both isoforms of arginase (although there are some species-specific patterns for Arg1 or Agr2, as carotid porcine EC for example express Arg2 and not Arg1 (Thacher et al., 2010)) (**Fig. 7**). Nevertheless, multiple papers describe arginase as a counterpart of eNOS in vascular ECs for modulating endothelial function (Kim et al., 2009, Chung et al., 2014, Krause et al., 2015). Thus, increased arginase activity in the vessel wall was proposed to limit the bioavailability of L-arginine for eNOS and therefore decrease NO production resulting in endothelial dysfunction and hypertension (Zhang et al., 2001, Toque et al., 2013, Caldwell et al., 2018, Mahdi et al., 2020a, Li et al., 2022c).

Multiple pre-clinical studies in rodents showed that the oral administration of arginase inhibitors, such as 2(S)-Amino-6-BoronoHexanoic acid (ABH) and N-hydroxy-nor-arginine (nor-NOHA) improved eNOS dependent vasorelaxation, endothelial function, and decreased blood pressure in spontaneously hypertensive rat, old rats or rats fed with high-fat diet (Kim et al., 2009, Bagnost et al., 2010, Chung et al., 2014).

A similar phenotype was observed in EC-specific Arg1 * mice generated by using Cadherin-5 (Cdh5)-promoter Cre-recombinase mice and put on a high-fat and high-sucrose diet. In these mice, the deletion of Arg1 in ECs protected mice from vascular dysfunction (Bhatta et al., 2017, Yao et al., 2017). Interestingly, EC/myeloid cell-specific Arg1* mice generated by using Tie2-Cre-recombinase mice did not improve vasomotor function in diabetic mice (Chennupati et al., 2018). It is important to point out, the Tie2-promoter drives Cre-recombinase expression in all subtypes of ECs but Cre-expression was also found in the hematopoietic cell lineage or, depending on the gene construct, also in the heart valves (Payne et al., 2018). The Cdh5-promoter drives the expression of Cre-recombinase specifically in ECs and it is generally considered as the most specific promoter, in particular when the activity of the Cre-recombinase is also inducible by tamoxifen (Cdh5ET2-Cre mice); however, in some models where Chd5-Cre recombinase expression is constitutive,

the expression of Cre-recombinase was also observed in hematopoietic cells and the cardiac valve.

Work from our own laboratory demonstrated that under homeostatic conditions EC Arg1^{-/-} mice (tamoxifen-inducible Cdh5ET2-Cre) show a downregulation of eNOS in the aorta and a fully preserved vascular function and NO-metabolites under basal conditions (Heuser et al., 2022). We also observed a compensatory upregulation of Arg1 in the aorta, which points to an upregulation of Arg1 in vascular smooth muscle cells (Heuser et al., 2022). Therefore, the relationship between eNOS and Arg1 in ECs *in vivo* is far more complex than a competition for their common substrate. Accordingly, a recent study provided quantitative evidence that in murine macrophages and human umbilical artery ECs, there was no direct competition between Arg1 and the NOS enzymes if a constant flux of L-arginine is provided (Momma and Ottaviani, 2022).

The role of Arg2 in vessels is less known. Arg2 expression in the mitochondria of ECs and smooth muscle cellss is lower as compared to Arg1, and their functions are difficult to discern without genetic manipulation. There are few studies investigating the role of mitochondrial Arg2 in the endothelium in mice. One animal study showed that Arg2 in aged mice is the key isoform responsible for the total arginase activity in the aorta of aging mice leading to eNOS uncoupling and endothelial dysfunction (Shin et al., 2012). This finding is supported by another study showing that mice overexpressing Arg2 in the endothelium showed endothelial dysfunction, hypertension, and enhanced atherosclerosis (Vaisman et al., 2012). In addition, Arg2 is reported to promote a pro-inflammatory effect, contributing to insulin resistance and atherogenesis (Ming et al., 2012, Yang and Ming, 2014). (Ming et al., 2012, Yang and Ming, 2014). In addition, Arg2 is reported to promote inflammation, contributing to insulin resistance and atherogenesis (Ming et al., 2012, Yang and Ming, 2014). Interestingly, in porcine carotid endothelial cell Arg2 was upregulated by oscillatory shear stress; as a result, porcine carotid arteries subjected to oscillatory shear stress showed a decreased bradykinin-induced vasorelaxation, which could be recovered by

treatment with the arginase inhibitor NorNOHA (Thacher et al., 2010). Interesting porcine carotid arteries and their cellular components (ECs and SMCs) express Arg2, but not Arg1, showing a further species-specificity feature of arginases in the vasculature.

Overall, these results indicate that Arg1 does not appear to be involved in the regulation of NO-dependent vasorelaxation in homeostatic conditions and that increase in arginase activity is correlated to regulation of vascular remodeling and stiffens probably via L-arginine depletion and synthesis of polyamines.

Further studies are needed to understand whether and how arginase expression or activity in the vascular endothelium is regulated by pathophysiological stimuli like shear stress or turbulent flow and how this regulation is coordinated with eNOS activity.

E. Role of arginase in the heart

In the heart, Arg1 is expressed in coronary ECs and cardiomyocytes in a species-specific way. The expression of Arg1 has been found to be upregulated in coronary arterioles in humans with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and in homogenate of the right atrial appendage samples collected during cardiac surgery (Chen et al., 2006, Beleznai et al., 2011). Arg1 is constitutively expressed in cardiomyocytes of felines and affects cardiomyocyte NO signaling, whereas Arg2 is not constitutively expressed in feline cardiomyocytes (Jung et al., 2006). Rat heart lysate shows expression of both Arg1 and Arg2 but cardiomyocytes from rats express only Arg2 (Steppan et al., 2006).

Nor-NOHA-mediated arginase inhibition during ischemia-reperfusion (I/R)-injury in rats resulted in reduced infarct size and elevated plasma nitrite levels *in vivo* (Jung et al., 2010, Tratsiakovich et al., 2013). Furthermore, Arg1 expression was significantly increased in the ischemic myocardium of rats (Jung et al., 2010). Whether these effects are due to the expression of Arg1 in the myocardial cells (cardiomyocytes, vascular cells) or from infiltrated neutrophiles or other blood cells was not further investigated. Indeed infiltrated neutrophiles are known to contribute to the infarct size at least in rat (Williams et al., 1994). It has also

been shown that in pigs, Arg1 expressed in coronary arterioles modulates NO-mediated vasorelaxation (Zhang et al., 2001). Furthermore, it has been proposed that coronary endothelial cell dysfunction plays a role in the microvascular injury occurring after I/R injury. This hypothesis is supported by the finding that mice overexpressing TNF- α show an increase in arginase activity and the expression of Arg1 in ECs at basal conditions and after I/R-injury as well (Gao et al., 2007). In addition, these mice show a significant reduction in maximal vasodilation after I/R injury as well as a decrease in eNOS expression in coronary arterioles.

To summarize, also in the heart, arginases show a species-specific and cell-specific expression. It appears that Arg1 plays a role in the pathophysiology of myocardial infarction whereas Arg2 plays an immunosuppressive and protective role, at least in rodents. The data on the expression/activity and function of arginases in human heart tissue is still too sparse to be able to make a clear conclusion about its role in the heart. More research is needed in this direction, perhaps by using novel single cell sequencing and mapping in heart biopsies.

F. L-Arginine metabolism and role of arginase in the kidney

The kidney plays an essential role in the endogenous synthesis of L-arginine. L-Arginine is synthesized by arginosuccinate synthetase and arginosuccinate lyase out of L-citrulline (Szepesi et al., 1970, Morris et al., 1989). As mentioned in paragraph IV.A, there is a high turnover of L-arginine through the urea cycle in the liver; however, the urea cycle is tightly regulated in a way that L-arginine is promptly metabolized further, and thereby does not contribute to the circulating levels of L-arginine under homeostatic conditions. In contrast, in the kidney only a small part of the synthesized L-arginine is used for the production of polyamines and creatine from L-ornithine, while most of it is released into the circulation, making it available for other tissues (Rogers et al., 1972) (**Fig 8**).

L-Arginine is synthesized throughout the whole length of the proximal tubule by ASS and ASL, but in the proximal convoluted tubule synthesis is the highest, which is consistent to the

650 highest expression of ASS and ASL in the nephron (Levillain et al., 1990, Levillain, 2012). L-651 Arginine synthesis gradually decreases in the terminal part in the outer medulla, i.e. in the 652 proximal convoluted tubule, where a lower but significant synthesis takes place. 653 Notably, approximately 83% of L-citrulline released from the small intestine undergoes renal 654 metabolism. Thus, circulating L-citrulline availability is the limiting factor in renal L-arginine 655 production (Windmueller and Spaeth, 1981, Dhanakoti et al., 1990). At least in rats, 656 endogenous production of L-arginine from L-citrulline is necessary for normal growth and it 657 cannot be completely restored by the diet, demonstrating the importance of renal production 658 of L-arginine for the optimal growth in young animals (Hoogenraad et al., 1985). Surprisingly, 659 in rats, the level of L-arginine in plasma is normally stable even after chronic renal failure 660 due to the increased plasma concentration of L-citrulline and the rise of urea that may inhibit 661 the arginase activity (Moradi et al., 2006). 662 The total arginase activity is low in the kidney, and its function is still not fully understood. 663 The predominant arginase isoform expressed in the kidney is the mitochondrial isoenzyme Arg2, which is also known as "the kidney arginase". It is constitutively expressed in the 664 665 kidneys of humans, rodents, and likely in all mammals, whereas Arg1 is not expressed in the 666 kidney under homeostatic conditions (Spector et al., 1983, Morris et al., 1997, Miyanaka et 667 al., 1998, Morris et al., 2011). In rats, Arg2 is expressed mostly in the proximal straight 668 tubule (Miyanaka et al., 1998). Studies carried out on male and female mice showed that 669 female mice have a 3-fold higher Arg2 expression and activity as compared to male mice 670 (Levillain et al., 2005a). In rats, Arg2 is expressed at higher levels in the inner medullary 671 collecting ducts as compared to the thin descending and ascending limbs of Henle's loop. 672 Accordingly, enzymatic activity of Arg2 is not homogenous in the whole kidney, but it occurs 673 mainly in the outer stripe of the outer medulla and inner medulla (Levillain et al., 1989). 674 Interestingly, there is evidence that all three NOS isoforms are expressed in the inner 675 medullary collecting duct (as summarized previously (LoBue et al., 2023)), which may

indicate a mutual regulation between these two enzyme classes in the metabolism of L-arginine in the kidney (Wu et al., 1999, Levillain et al., 2005b, Hyndman et al., 2013). It has been hypothesized that the renal arginase activity may be important for L-ornithine production and subsequently polyamine metabolism for the maintenance of normal tissue homeostasis and, only in small part, for producing urea, which may contribute to concentrate the urine in the medulla (Levillain et al., 1989, Waddington et al., 1998, Brosnan and Brosnan, 2004).

Interestingly, diabetic Arg2^{-/-} mice chronically treated with streptozotocin (STZ) were protected against diabetic nephropathy. The lack of Arg2 in these mice protected them against STZ-induced albuminuria, macrophage recruitment, and histopathological changes, leading to renal tissue protection and suggesting a role of Arg2 in diabetic nephropathy. Moreover, the lack of Arg2 protected for a decrease in renal modular blood flow, which is consistent with preserved renal NO production (Morris et al., 2011). Accordingly, it was

study indicates that Arg2 plays a role in the circadian clock. In this study, it was shown that the lack of Bmal1 in the nephron led to increased urea levels in the plasma which correlated

shown that a specific lack of Arg2 in ECs reduced renal fibrosis in mice by restoring NO

levels and mitochondrial function in the kidney (Wetzel et al., 2020). Another interesting

with tubular dysfunction (Nikolaeva et al., 2016). The increase in urea could be explained by

an increase in the activity of Arg2 in the kidney.

Differently from Arg2, Arg1 expression in the kidney occurs only in pathological conditions, mainly as a consequence of inflammation or tissue damage. For example, in nephritic glomeruli in rats, arginase activity was found to be six-fold higher as compared to control glomeruli due to the induction of Arg1 expression, while Arg2 was not upregulated (Waddington et al., 1998). The expression of Arg1 is likely due to the presence of infiltrating macrophages in the tissue. In fact, high expression of Arg1 was also found in the macrophages located in the outer medulla after I/R injury in mice (Shin et al., 2022). In this

study, the authors proposed that Arg1 activity may contribute to stimulate the reparative proliferative response to replace the cells in the medullary tubule.

To summarize, the kidney is a key organ involved in the synthesis of L-arginine and the maintenance of L-arginine levels in plasma. Although expression of Arg2 is constitutive in kidney cells, its function is not fully understood. The main role of Arg2 is likely to keep normal tissue structure/homeostasis through the production of L-ornithine and the subsequently metabolism of polyamines; however, this needs to be further investigated. In contrast, the expression of Arg1 is mainly induced during tissue damage and inflammation and contribute to immunomodulation and tissue repair.

G. Summary and outlook

In summary, Arg1 and Arg2 play multiple, often species-specific roles across cells and tissues in the body. In this context, recent studies carried out with cell-specific transgenic mice models are providing new and somehow unexpected information on the biological roles of arginase in specific cells and compartments. Accumulating evidence also indicate that there are important species-specific differences, in particular between rodents and humans, regarding the role of arginases in immune cells and RBCs. These differences need to be taken into account in pharmacological and translational studies, as well as in pre-clinical testing.

In the liver, the cytosolic isoenzyme Arg1 is crucial for detoxifying ammonia via the urea cycle, while the role of mitochondrial Arg2 appears to be mainly the synthesis of L-ornithine as a precursor of L-proline and polyamines.

In the immune system, Arg1 is well known to modulate immune cell function and promote immunosuppression, host protection, and resolution of inflammation, mainly by limiting L-arginine bioavailability for downstream metabolic pathways and iNOS-mediated high-output NO synthesis. In mouse, arginase expression in M2 macrophages drives the anti-inflammatory responses, as well as participates in tissue repair via polyamine and proline

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synthesis. In humans, Arg1 is constitutively expressed in granules of PMN cells and MDSCs, and its L-arginine-depleting activity drives immunosuppression of T-cell responses. The expression and function of Arg1 in monocytes/macrophages in humans is still debated. The immunosuppressive role of arginases is part of the pathophysiology of chronic inflammatory conditions, infections, and cancer; for example, some parasites and tumor cells express their own arginase or induce arginase expression in the cells of the host. Also, Arg2 is emerging as a further important regulator of the immune response and a possible pharmacological target. In the blood, Arg1 is also present at higher levels in human and primate RBCs, but its presence in the RBCs of other mammals including mice and rats is very low. In humans, arginase activity is increased in RBCs of people with SCD, thalassemia, and other hemoglobinopathies, and it was shown to promote endothelial dysfunction and pulmonary hypertension by hemolysis-induced arginase release into the plasma and systemic Larginine depletion. High levels of RBC arginase are also found in people with CVD and diabetes and are proposed to contribute to endothelial dysfunction and cardiovascular events. Interestingly, an immunosuppressive function of arginase release from RBCs has been also proposed. In the vasculature, arginase activity is increased under pathological conditions like diabetes and atherosclerosis and promotes endothelial dysfunction mainly by competing with eNOS for L-arginine and affecting endothelial NO production. The specific role of the cytoplasmic Arg1 or the mitochondrial Arg2 in the vessel wall is not fully understood. Mice lacking EC

In the kidney, Arg2 is likely involved in L-arginine metabolism into L-ornithine and polyamines, it is upregulated and exerts a protective function of the kidney tissue in diabetic nephropathies, at least in the mouse.

Arg1 show no changes in vascular endothelial function ex vivo or in vivo under homeostatic

These findings underscore the need for further research to reveal the complex roles of Arg1 and Arg2, by considering their cellular and subcellular localization and regulation, their species specificity, and their significance in cellular processes. These differences need to be taken into consideration when pharmacological therapies are tested in pre-clinical models.

V. L-Arginine metabolism and arginase activity in human disease

There are multiple human studies investigating L-arginine metabolism in human cohorts. L-Arginine levels and metabolism in humans have been extensively studied to investigate the role of arginase in the urea cycle and the consequences of genetic defects (like hyperarginemia) in liver homeostasis, as well as in the immune system and cancer cells in relationship to iNOS activity. Moreover, L-arginine bioavailability was studied in the context of arginase as a counterpart of eNOS for endothelial dysfunction in CAD and diabetes. Arginase has shown potential as a therapeutic target for various diseases and conditions, and its inhibition has been explored in clinical trials to evaluate its efficacy and safety. Details about the human studies discussed in the text are summarized in **Tab.5**.

A. Measurements of arginase expression and activity in human disease

The main pathophysiological consequence of autosomal ARG1 mutations in humans is hyperargininemia, which leads to an autosomal inborn error in the urea cycle (Diez-Fernandez et al., 2018). Other symptoms are progressive intellectual impairment and neurological impairment, persistent growth retardation, and spastic paraparesis (Diez-Fernandez et al., 2018). In a study, 66 mutations of the ARG1 gene have been identified in 112 humans with hyperargininemia, 30 of those were missense mutations, 15 deletions, 10 splicing, seven nonsense, one small insertion, and one translation initiation codon mutation. The estimated incidence of this disease is around 1:726,000 (Catsburg et al., 2022). At the beginning of this year, pegzilarginase, a recombinant, cobalt-substituted, and pegylated human ARG1 enzyme therapy, received approval as an orphan drug in the EU for the treatment of Arg1 deficiency (Russo et al., 2024). Interestingly, mutations of the ARG1 gene could also play a role in other diseases. In subjects with erectile dysfunction (n=110), two different polymorphisms in the ARG1 gene were associated with the severity of erectile dysfunction, but there was no correlation with plasma Arg1 levels. (Lacchini et al., 2015).

It was proposed that an upregulation of Arg1 in the lungs leads to an imbalance in L-arginine/NO availability resulting in pulmonary hypertension and/or smooth muscle contraction as well as lung tissue remodeling of lung. In fact, an upregulation of Arg1 has been found in pulmonary diseases, including chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, pulmonary hypertension, pulmonary fibrosis, tuberculosis, and asthma. (North et al., 2009, Henno et al., 2015, Monin et al., 2015, Lucca et al., 2018, Wu et al., 2019).

Increased levels of Arg1 in human RBCs and plasma were proposed to contribute to the pathophysiology of hemoglobinopathies like SCD or thalassemia. It has been shown that arginase activity in plasma is higher and L-arginine plasma level is lower in humans with thalassemia (n=14) or SCD (n=140) (Morris et al., 2005a, Morris et al., 2005b). The authors of these elegant studies proposed that intravascular hemolysis with release of hemoglobin and arginase in plasma causes on one hand a reduction in L-arginine concentration in plasma, and on the other hand scavenging of NO, leading to endothelial dysfunction and pulmonary hypertension. Interestingly, the treatment of humans with SCD with hydroxyurea (n=23) reduced arginase activity in the plasma (Iyamu et al., 2005).

In addition, there are first evidences that Arg1 present in RBCs can modulate endothelial dysfunction and the outcome of I/R injury as tested in bioassays (Yang et al., 2018, Zhou et al., 2018, Mahdi et al., 2020b). RBCs from humans with T2DM (n=20) showed an increased arginase activity and arginase level in RBCs as compared to healthy individuals (n=15) (Zhou et al., 2018). Furthermore, these authors showed in a bioassay that the co-incubation of RBCs from humans with T2DM with rat aortas induces endothelial dysfunction, which can be prevented by the *ex vivo* inhibition of arginase. In addition, RBCs from people with T2DM also induced an increase in arginase activity in co-incubated human carotid arterial ECs. The authors of the study proposed that this upregulation is induced by peroxynitrite (Mahdi et al., 2020b). In another study, the same authors showed that RBCs from people with T2DM (n=13) aggravate myocardial I/R injury (Yang et al., 2018). These studies indicate that Arg1

present in human RBCs play a role in the complex vascular and cardiac pathophysiological consequences of T2DM in humans.

There are multiple studies showing an increased Arg1 activity/protein levels in serum of humans with myocardial infarction (Porembska and Kedra, 1975, Bekpinar et al., 2011), and was linked to endothelial dysfunction via decrease of L-arginine bioavailability.

An interesting hypothesis that should be also taken into consideration is the release of arginase and decrease of endogenous levels of L-arginine may also exert an immunosuppressive effect as hypothesized by Munder et al. (Munder, 2009). The immunosuppression may become pathophysiological in various infections with parasites and viral infections. For example, in HIV-infected humans, a high expression of Arg1 in lymph nodes correlated with an increase in HIV viral load whereas iNOS expression negatively correlates with the HIV viral load (n=52) (Zhang et al., 2016). Such upregulation may contribute to the suppression of antiviral immunity in HIV-infected humans, thus, Arg1 expression can be used as a parameter to predict disease progression.

There are no known genetic defects of Arg2 that cause human disease. However, it was shown that Arg2 expression and activity were increased in pulmonary artery ECs of humans with pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH) ($n=41\pm3$) (Xu et al., 2004). Similar to Arg1, Arg2 expression is increased in humans with asthma caused by chronic airway inflammation (Xu et al., 2017).

In summary, both arginase isoforms play a crucial role in various disease conditions. Mutations in the ARG1 gene lead to a defect of the urea cycle causing hyperargininemia and leading to early death. Since the beginning of 2024, the first therapy using human recombinant pegylated cobalt-substituted arginase enzyme is available. On the other hand, the upregulation of arginase expression and activity seems to be involved in various diseases like T2DM and SCD. In addition, arginase shows immunosuppressive properties which is involved in infections with parasites and viral infection.

B. Measurement of L-arginine bioavailability in human cohorts with cardiometabolic disease

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The majority of the human studies having L-arginine bioavailability or metabolism as a primary outcome measure is based on the hypothesis that arginase activity in the vasculature contributes to the consumption of L-arginine, which contributes to endothelial dysfunction. Consumption of L-arginine and the production of L-ornithine should affect GABR in plasma, as an index of L-arginine bioavailability. Therefore, GABR was measured in the plasma of humans with CAD (humans with no significantly obstructive CAD n=402 vs. significantly obstructive CAD n=608) by monitoring the levels of free L-arginine, L-ornithine, L-citrulline, and ADMA. GABR was lower in humans with obstructive CAD (>50% stenosis), as compared to the humans without obstructive CAD, which implied that decreased GABR is associated with obstructive CAD and subsequent increased incidence of major adverse cardiovascular events (Tang et al., 2009). Similarly, the levels of L-arginine, L-ornithine, and L-citrulline were determined in the serum of humans (n=2236) collected before coronary angiography (Sourij et al., 2011). In this study, they found that GABR was significantly decreased in humans with T2DM and also was inversely correlated with some known biochemical markers of endothelial dysfunction such as the expression of intracellular adhesion molecule-1, vascular adhesion molecule-1, and von Willebrand factor. Furthermore, they also observed that decreased GABR and the arginine-to-ornithine ratio were associated with increased cardiovascular mortality. A further study investigated the changes of GABR in people with T2DM (n=41) after intensifying the therapy according to the quideline for 3 months to reach therapy targets like, HbA_{1c} LDL cholesterol 2.6, or blood pressure (Tripolt et al., 2012). They showed that targeting those risk factors improves GABA and arginine-to-ornithine ratio. It is important to note that this improvement was only found in people with T2DM for less than 5 years.

L-arginine levels and metabolism were also determined in plasma samples from subjects during the acute phase of myocardial infarction collected before percutaneous coronary intervention and again 6 months after myocardial infarction (n=70) (Molek et al., 2021). L-arginine, L-ornithine, and ADMA levels were determined and calculated into indexes of L-citrulline/L-arginine, L-citrulline/L-ornithine, and L-arginine/ADMA. They observed that the index of L-citrulline/L-arginine significantly decreased in the acute phase of MI but the indexes of L-citrulline/L-ornithine and L-arginine/ADMA were unchanged. The authors proposed that this may indicate a shift of L-arginine utilization from NOS towards arginase and/or an increase in the activity of arginase.

The L-arginine and L-ornithine concentrations were also measured in the plasma from lean and obese humans with asthma, obese humans without asthma, and also corresponding healthy controls by using LC-MS/MS (Winnica et al., 2019). In this study they demonstrated that the L-arginine levels in the plasma were decreased in both lean and obese humans with asthma, and also obese humans without asthma as compared to healthy individuals. Moreover, the L-arginine levels in obese humans with asthma were significantly lower than in healthy lean controls.

Recently, L-arginine level, L-arginine-to-L-ornithine ratio, and GABR were analyzed in adult humans diagnosed with COVID-19 (n=32) and pediatric humans with COVID-19/multisystem inflammatory syndrome (n=20). They found that all these parameters were significantly lower in COVID-19-positive adult and COVID-19/MIS-C pediatric groups as compared to the COVID-19-negative controls. The authors proposed that low arginine-to-ornithine ratio in these people might be due to an elevated arginase activity, and that low GABR may contribute to immune dysregulation and endothelial dysfunction in COVID-19 (Rees et al., 2021).

C. Arginase as a pharmacological target

Depending on the pathophysiological role of arginase and the specific type of disease targeting arginase involves two possible strategies including arginase-mediated L-arginine

depletion or inhibition of arginase to restore L-arginine bioavailability. Established and potential therapeutic applications are listed in table 3.

Administration of pegylated recombinant arginase has been recently approved by the EMEA to treat humans with genetic hyperarginemia. Moreover, pegylated arginase has been proposed as an anti-tumor agent (similar to the antileukemia agent L-asparaginase) for tumors susceptible to L-arginine deprivation, like tumors lacking ASS enzymes (Cheng et al., 2021). If properly targeted to the site of inflammation, another possible application of recombinant Arg1 may be immunosuppression in autoimmunity and unwanted inflammatory reactions (Munder, 2009).

Applications of arginase inhibitors were proposed against diseases with pathological upregulation of arginase like specific infection diseases, cancer, or against endothelial dysfunction in T2DM and CAD, and to treat pulmonary hypertension in SCD and hemoglobinopathy. (see chapter IV paragraph B)

There are three generations of arginase inhibitors which are summarized in Tab. 4.

These inhibitors do not show isoform specificity, need to be administrated systemically via i.p. or i.v injection, have a short half-life, and are rapidly eliminated by the kidney. A well-known and often-used arginase inhibitor in cell culture, animal studies but also in human studies is nor-NOHA. Nor-NOHA is a derivate of NOHA, a stable intermediate of NO synthesis by NOS. It is a competitive non-specific inhibitor of arginase and is considered as one of the most potent arginase inhibitors (Colleluori and Ash, 2001, Pudlo et al., 2017). There are already numerous studies investigating the effect of arginase inhibitors in animals (Kim et al., 2009, Jung et al., 2010, El-Bassossy et al., 2013, You et al., 2013, Pera et al., 2014), and lately, in humans (**Tab. 4**).

There are very promising studies showing that arginase inhibition by nor-NOHA improves endothelium-dependent vasodilation (EDV) (Shemyakin et al., 2012, Kövamees et al., 2014, Kovamees et al., 2016a, Mahdi et al., 2018). In human studies, NorNOHA (0.1 mg/min for 2

hours) was administrated by infusion (Shemyakin et al., 2012, Kövamees et al., 2014, Kovamees et al., 2016a, Mahdi et al., 2019). Administration of nor-NOHA improved endothelial function in healthy elderly humans (n=21) as determined by forearm venous-occlusion plethysmography (Mahdi et al., 2019).

Recently, a third generation of arginase inhibitors was developed and tested (**Tab.4**). One notable compound from this generation is INCB001158 (formerly CB1158), an oral arginase inhibitor that exhibits higher specificity for Arg1 (IC_{50} =86 nm) compared to Arg2 (IC_{50} =296 nm). INCB001158 has been evaluated in phase 1/2 clinical trials for the treatment of solid tumors with increased arginase activity in combination with chemotherapy (Steggerda et al., 2017, Kuboki et al., 2024, Naing et al., 2024). The most notable result of these studies is that arginase inhibitors may be effective for therapies of specific tumors with up-regulation of arginase activity as a mechanism for L-arginine depletion and immunosuppression.

In conclusion, pegylated arginase is an approved drug for hyperarginemia and geneticdefect. Potentially for L-arginine auxotrophic tumors suspectable to L-arginine deprivation and for immunosuppression.

Instead, the clinical applications of arginase inhibitors have shown potential to improve endothelial function and vasodilation in individuals with T2DM, enhancing the effects of L-arginine supplementation in individuals with heart failure and coronary artery diseases, and serving as a promising therapeutic target for therapy of specific cancers. Further pharmacological research focused on developing and testing arginase inhibitors will contribute to the development of novel treatments and therapies in the future.

D. L-arginine/L-arginine metabolites supplementation

Oral supplementation of L-arginine was proposed as a way to increase L-arginine bioavailability and to boost production of NOS-derived NO in humans (Girerd et al., 1990). For example, L-arginine supplementation was proposed for alleviate endothelial dysfunction

(Lerman et al., 1998, Bai et al., 2009). However, the results of these studies are controversial.

Oral L-arginine intake was shown to positively affect humans with heart failure and in peripheral artery occlusive disease by increasing the distance in a 6-minute walk test, increasing the forearm blood flow during forearm exercise, or reducing the symptom score significantly (Rector et al., 1996, Lerman et al., 1998). On the other hand, oral administration of L-arginine in healthy human (n=26) did not improve systemic hemodynamics *in vivo* or vascular function of gluteal subcutaneous arteries assessed *in vitro* (Chin-Dusting et al., 1996).

E. Summary and outlook

The involvement of arginases in the urea cycle, liver function, immune response, and cancer cell dynamics, particularly in relation to iNOS activity, has been extensively examined. In addition, arginase activity in the vessel wall has been studied in the context of endothelial dysfunction in CAD and diabetes, revealing its potential as a therapeutic target. The GABR is a measure of L-arginine bioavailability, which has been found to be lower in humans with obstructive CAD and T2DM, correlating with major adverse cardiovascular events and endothelial dysfunction markers. Pharmacological interventions that improve risk factors for T2DM have been shown to improve GABR, particularly in humans recently diagnosed with diabetes. Mutations in the ARG1 gene cause hyperargininemia, leading to various health complications. Arginase activity is also increased in several pulmonary diseases and hemolytic anemias, affecting NO availability and contributing to disease pathology. The arginase inhibitor nor-NOHA has demonstrated efficacy in improving endothelial function in people with T2DM and healthy elderly individuals. Supplementation with L-arginine or L-citrulline has been explored to enhance L-arginine bioavailability and NO production, with varying results depending on the health status of individuals.

VI. Conclusion and outlook

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Arginases exhibit diverse functions across various tissues. In the liver, Arg1 is indispensable for ammonia detoxification, while the specific role of mitochondrial Arg2 need further investigation. It is important to point out that there are significant differences in Arg1 and Arg2 expression, cellular localization, and activity in humans and primates as compared to rodents (mice, rats) and other mammals, in particular in the blood and bone marrow, and vascular endothelial cells. In the immune system, the distribution and function of Arg1 are very different in mouse and man. While in mice blood Arg1 is mainly expressed in myeloid cells and it is up-regulated by Th2-cytokines, in humans Arg1 is constitutively expressed in PMN cells and is not regulated by Th2 cytokines. In both species, arginase activity has an anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effect on T cells. In human and primate RBCs and proerythroblasts Arg1 expression and activity are high, while in rats, mice, and other mammals it is very low and/or barely detectable. In humans, elevated arginase activity in RBCs from individuals with SCD or hemoglobinopathies suggests a contributory role in disease pathogenesis, with similar observations in CVD and diabetes, underlining its fundamental importance in human disease. In CVD conditions like diabetes and atherosclerosis, increased arginase activity can lead to endothelial dysfunction by competing with eNOS for the bioavailability L-arginine, thus impairing NO production and leading to endothelial dysfunction. Accordingly, administration of arginase inhibitors in people with T2DM improve vascular function. Surprisingly, EC Arg1-/revealed no changes in endothelial function or CV hemodynamics, and instead global Arg2-/mice show hypertension. Indicating that at least in vivo, the role of vascular Arg1 in maintaining endothelial function under homeostatic conditions in mice is limited. Although the kidney plays a major role in the control of L-arginine synthesis, systemic levels and bioavailability, the role of arginases is the kidney is not fully understood. The main

isoform expressed is Arg2 and appears to be crucial for tissue integrity and repair (at least in rodents).

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Clinical and translational studies have highlighted the therapeutic potential of targeting arginase/L-arginine metabolism in various diseases. Clearly, the described multiple, complex, species, cell-, and isoform-specific roles of arginase make pharmacological targeting difficult. The only approved drug is pegylated recombinant arginase for the treatment of humans with genetic hyperarginemia. However pegylated arginase was proposed as a possible anti-tumor therapy for tumors sensitive to L-arginine deprivation. The control of L-arginine bioavailability by arginases, as a key factor in endothelial dysfunction in CVD, has been extensively studied and arginase is still considered as a promising therapeutic target. The use of arginase inhibitors (e.g., nor-NOHA) was tested in small cohorts of humans with endothelial dysfunction due to CAD or T2DM. Moreover, administration of arginase inhibitors was proposed for blocking circulating arginase in hemoglobinopathies (SCD, thalassemia) and specific infection disease. Arginase inhibition has shown efficacy in improving endothelial function in subjects with T2DM and healthy elderly individuals, while L-arginine and L-citrulline supplementation have demonstrated potential benefits in heart failure and peripheral arterial occlusive disease. A strong limitation of the currently available inhibitors is that they do not show isoform specificity, need to be administrated systemically via i.p. or i.v injection, and have a short half-life, and are rapidly eliminated by the kidney. The third generation of arginase inhibitors can be administrated orally and have better pharmacodynamics and have been tested already in cancer therapy. More studies are needed to understand the complex biological and species-specific roles of

Arg1 and Arg2, their importance in cellular processes, and their potential as therapeutic targets. The new pharmacological cell-specific targeting and the applicability of single-cell analysis for personalized medicine will allow better pharmacological strategies to target Arg1 and Arg2 in humans.

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VII. References

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VIII. Tables

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Table 1: Characteristics of arginases in humans, rats, and mice. Please note that according to NCBI, human proteins are abbreviated with ARG1 and ARG2 (with all capital letters), for all other species abbreviation is Arg1 and Arg2.In the text, we use Arg1 and Arg2 to indicated the Arg1 and Arg2 enzymes from all species.

	Gene Name	Protein Names	Chromo- some	Size	Uni-prot ID	Co- factors	Localization
Human	ARG1	Arginase 1 (ARG1) Arginase I (AI) Liver-Type Arginase Type I Arginase	6q23.2	322 aa (35 kDa)	P05089		Cytosol
		Three identified isoforms by alternative splicing (Isoform 1: 322 aa / Isoform 2: 330 aa / Isoform 3: 236 aa)					
Rat	Arg1	Arg1	1p12	323 aa (35 kDa)	P07824	11)	
Mouse	Arg1	Arg1	10 A4	323 aa (35 kDa)	Q61176	ch Homotrime	
Zebrafish	SI:zC146F4.4	Arg	12	341 aa (37 kDa)	E7F8R4	Two Mn ²⁺ ions each Oligomerization (Homotrimer)	
Human	ARG2	Arginase 2 (ARG2 Arginase II (AII) Kidney-type Arginase Non-hepatic Arginase Type II Arginase	14q.24.1	354 aa (39 kDa)	P78540		Mitochondria
Rat	Arg2	Arg2	6q24	354 aa (39 kDa)	O08701		
Mouse	Arg2	Arg2	12 C3	354 aa (39 kDa)	O08691		
Zebrafish	ARG2	Arg2	13	347 aa (38 kDa)	Q6PH54		

Table 2: Summary of arginase specific knock out models

Mice Model	Targeted isoforms	Gene targeting strategy	Phenotype	Reference
	iooronno	Effect of g	genetic modification on home strain	L
Global Arg1 ^{-/-}	Arg1	The replacement vector consisted of genomic sequences from exon 2 to exon 8, in which exon 4 was replaced by the neomycin resistance cassette (Neo ^R)	Hyperammonaemia Early lethal (between day 10 and 14) Ownload Homozygous Arg2 ^{-/-} mice were viable Places I assisse level A	(lyer et al., 2002)
Global Arg2 ^{-/-}	Arg2	Partly deletion of exons 4 and 5 of the Arg2 gene (by Sin et al.)	Homozygous Arg2 ^{-/-} mice were viable Plasma L-arginine level ↑ Plasma norepinephrine turnover ↑ Hypertension Hypertension	(Shi et al., 2001, Huynh et al., 2009)
Global Arg2 ^{-/-}	Arg2	Arg2 ^{flox/flox} (exon 2+3) FVB/NTgN(ACTB-Cre)2Mrt mice	Arg2 ^{-/-} mice are unable to produce intestinal mucin Arg2 ^{-/-} mice became highly susceptible to experimentally induced colitis	(Park et al., 2009)
Inducible global Arg1 ^{-/-}	Arg1	Arg1 ^{flox/flox} (exons 7 and 8) CreER ^{T2}	Lethal 2 weeks after Tamoxifen treatment L-citrulline and guanidinoacetic acid ↑ L-ornithine levels = other amino acids ↓	(Sin et al., 2013)
Arg1 ^{-/-} Arg2 ^{-/-} mice	Arg1 Arg2	Arg1 ^{-/-} Arg2 ^{-/-} mice were generated by crossing Arg1 ^{+/-} mice (by Lyer et al.) with Arg2 ^{-/-} mice (by Sin et al.)	L-arginine level ↑ L-ornithine levels ↓ Liver L-ornithine levels reduced to 2% with L-arginine very highly elevated. Description:	(Deignan et al., 2006)
			ecific arginase knockout models	<u>.</u>
Liver-specific Arg1 ^{-/-}	Arg1	Deletion of exons 7 and 8 of the Arg1 gene after i.p. injection of Arg1 ^{flox/flox} (exons 7 and 8) mice with AAV-TBG-Cre-Promoter- Cre recombinase vector	Lethal phenotype similar to the inducible Arg1 mice henotype Delivery of Arg1-eGFP AAV vector prolongs lifespanish on Decce	(Ballantyne et al., 2016)
			mber 20, 2024 66	

EC/HC Arg1 ^{-/-}	Arg1	deleter	IL-4-induced polyamine production ↑	(Van den Bossche et al., 2012)
EC Arg1 ^{-/-}	Arg1	Arg1 ^{flox/flox} (exons 7 and 8) Cdh5-Cre/ERT2 ^{pos}	 Expression of eNOS in the aorta ↓ L-arginine & NO bioavailability = Vascular endothelial function in conductance and resistance arteries = Preserved systemic hemodynamic and cardiac performance Increased contractile response to phenylephrine in aorta rings 	(Heuser et al., 2022)
Microglial-specific Ar1 ^{-/-}	Arg1	Arg1 ^{flox/flox} (exons 7 and 8) Cx3cr1 ^{CreER}	No notable morphological differences Impaired cholinergic innervation and dendritic spine maturation in the hippocampus Deficits in long-term memory acquisition in females	
		Effect	of disease conditions (selected)	
			Infectious disease	
Macrophage Arg1 ^{-/-} Toxoplasmid gonid/tuberculosis	Arg1	Arg ^{tlox} tlox: (exon 7 and 8) Tie2Cre ^{tg/-} Promoter LysMCre ^{tg/-} Promoter	Knockout less showed complete Arg1 ablation in all macrophage types, knockout showed less deletion Host survival in Toxoplasma gondii infection ↑ Lung bacterial load in tuberculosis infection ↓	(El Kasmi et al., 2008)
Asthmatic Arg1 deficient BM chimeric mice	Arg1	Transfer Arg1 deficient BM into irradiated recipient mice Asthma model: OVA- induced or Aspergillus fumigatus-induced	M-derived Arg1 is not required for baseline immune dell development and allergen-induced inflammation BM-derived Arg1 is the main source of allergen-induced lung arginase	(Niese et al., 2009)
Global Arg2 ^{-/-} mice Infected with <i>H. pylori</i>	Arg2	Partly deletion of exons 4	Macrophages of Arg2 ^{-/-} mice iNOS-protein levels & Ng levels ↑ Inhibition of arginase in Arg2 ^{-/-} mice did not have additional effects on iNOS or NO levels	(Lewis et al., 2010)
Global Arg2 ^{-/-} mice infected with <i>H.pylori</i>	Arg2	Partly deletion of exons 4 and 5 of the Arg2 gene (by Sin et al.)	Infinition of arginase in Arg2	(Lewis et al., 2011)
EC & HC Arg1 ^{-/-} in endotoxemia	Arg1	Arg1 ^{flox/flox} : Exon 4 Tie2Cre ^{tg/-} Promoter	• Inflammatory response ↑ • NO production by iNOS ↑ • Depressed microcirculatory flow in the jejunal	(Wijnands et al., 2014)
Double Arg2 ^{-/-} Nos2 ^{-/-} mice infected with <i>H. pylori</i>	Arg2	Double Arg2 ^{-/-} Nos2 ^{-/-} obtained by crossing Arg2 ^{-/-} mice (obtained by deletion of exons 4 and 5 of the Arg2 gene) and Nos2 ^{-/-}	• In Arg2 -/-, M1 macrophage activation ↑, NOS2 -/- and Arg2 -/-; Nos2 -/-, M1	(Hardbower et al., 2016)
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		mice obtained by deletion exons 12 and 13 of the NOS2 gene		
		I	Inflammatory disease/asthma	
Asthmatic EC/HC Arg ^{-/-}	Arg1	Arg1 ^{flox/flox} : exon 4 Tie2Cre ^{tg/-} Promoter or LysMCre ^{tg/-} Promoter Asthma model: OVA- induced allergic asthma in female mice	 Arg1 allele was virtually completely deleted in the lungs of knockout nice, but incompletely in knockout mice Improved peripheral lung function in OVA-treated knockout nice Knockout nice did not alter air hyperreactivity and lung inflammation 	(Cloots et al., 2013)
Asthmatic Myeloid cell Arg1 ^{-/-} in female mice	Arg 1	Arg1 ^{†lox/flox} : exon 4 Tie2Cre ^{tg/-} Promoter LysMCre ^{tg/-} Promoter Asthma model: OVA- induced allergic asthma in female mice	 Arg1 positive cells completely absent from the lungs of OVA-treated knockout mice, but only reduced in knockout mice. Compared to male mice, females show more decline of arginine-metabolizing and transporting genes, OVA-specific IgE ↓ methacholine responsiveness and accumulation of inglammatory cells = 	(Cloots et al., 2017)
			Diabetes/CVD	
Diabetic Arg2 ^{-/-}	Arg2	Partly deletion of exons 4 and 5 of the Arg2 gene (by Sin et al.)	Diabetes/CVD Albuminuria ↓ Macrophages recruitment ↓ Renal blood flow ↑ Impairment of EC-dependent vasodilation ↓ Tissue oxidation, vascular stiffness, and coronary fibesis ↓	(Morris et al., 2011)
Diabetic Arg1 ^{+/-} Arg 2 ^{-/-}	Arg1 Arg2	Arg 1 -/- Arg 2 -/- mice were generated by crossing Arg 1 +/- mice (by Lyer et al.) with Arg 2 -/- mice (by Sin et al.) + STZ treatment	Impairment of EC-dependent vasodilation ↓	(Romero et al., 2012)
EC Arg1 ^{-/-} mice fed a high- fat/high-sucrose diet	Arg1	+ STZ treatment Arg ^{tlox/flox} (exon 7&8) Cdh5- Cre ^{pos/neg}	Prevention of endothelial dysfunctions ASPER	(Bhatta et al., 2017)
Diabetic EC/HC Arg1 ^{-/-}	Arg1	Arg1 ^{flox/flox} (exon 4) Tie2Cre ^{tg/-} mice Diabetic model, induced by STZ treatment	L- arginine concentration in plasma † Diabetes-induced alterations in arterial smooth muscle reactivity and endothelium-dependent relaxations =	(Chennupati et al., 2018)
			Renal disease	
			ecember 20, 2024 68	

EC Arg2 ^{-/-} & proximal tubular cell Arg2 ^{-/-} with unilateral ureteral obstruction	Arg2	Arg2 ^{flox/flox} (exon 3) Tie2-Cre ^{pos/neg} Ggt1-Cre ^{pos/neg}	 EC Arg2 knockout, level of renal fibrosis ↓ Proximal tubular epithelial cell Arg2 knockout, level of fibrosis = 	(Wetzel et al., 2020)
Renal tubular cells Arg2 ^{-/-}	Arg2	Arg2 ^{riox/riox} (exons 3, 4, 5 and 6) Pax8-rtTA/LC1 mice	 Urea concentration and os-molality gradients along the corticomedullary axis ↓ Tissue damage after unilateral I/R-injury Albuminuria and aminoaciduria 	(Ansermet et al., 2020)
			Atherosclerosis	
Erythroid Arg1 ^{-/-} on apoE ^{-/-} background + HFD	Arg1	Arg ^{flox/flox} (exon 7&8) apoE ^{-/-} EpoR-Cre ^{pos/neg} mice + Western diet (high cholesterol)	• Atherosclerotic lesion size at the aortic root = • Vascular NO bioactivity, smooth muscle osteoblastic differentiation, and atherosclerotic lesion calcification ↑ • L-Ornithine, proline in vascular smooth muscle cells expression ↑	(Gogiraju et al., 2022)
			ded from pharmrev.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 20, 2024	
			ecember 20, 2024 69	

Table 3 Established and potential therapeutic applications

Therapeutic intervention	Indication	Status	Reference
Pegylated arginase1	 Arg1 deficiency Arginase auxotrophic tumors Immunosuppression 	 Approved as orphan drug by the EMEA open-label Phase II trial Not tested 	1.(Russo et al., 2024) 2.(Cheng et al., 2021) 3. (Munder, 2009)
L-Arginine/L-Citrulline supplementation	 Chest Pain T2DM Endothelia dysfunction 	 Clinical trial Clinical trial Clinical trial 	1.(Lerman et al., 1998) 2.(Statanawi et al., 2020) 3.(Chin-Dusting et al., 1996)
Arginase inhibitor	T2DM (+CVD) Advanced/metastatic solid tumors with upregulation of Arg1 Infection with parasites Pulmonary hypertension in SCD	 clinical tests/ Phase I clinical trial phase I clinical trial Mice studies 4. Mice studies	1. (Shemyakin et al., 2012, Kövamees et al., 2012) 2. (Steggerda et al., 2017, Kuboki et al., 2023, Naing et al., 2024) 3. (El et al., 2022b) 4. (Porris et al., 2005a, Steppan et al., 2016)

Table 4 arginase inhibitors used in human-based in vitro/ex vivo studies

Name	Structure	Test	U.S. National Clinical Trial number	Administration ournals.	application	Reference
			First generation	org		
ABH (2-(S)-amino-6- boronohexanoic acid)	HO NH ₂ B OH	In vitro	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	(Van Zandt et al., 2019)
BEC (S-(2-boronoethyl)-L- cysteine)	OH S OH	In vitro/ex vivo/clinical trial	n.a.	Intradermal microdialysis in combination with finor-NOHA	CVD	(Busnel et al., 2005, Holowatz et al., 2006)

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nor-NOHA (Nω-hydroxy-nor-arginine)	HONNH NH2	In vitro/ex vivo/clinical trial	NCT 02009527 NCT 05536934 NCT 02687152 NCT 05806502	Intrabrachial infusion/ sublingual perfusion/ intradermal microdialysis/ intra-arterial infusion	CVD, D2TM, Obese	(Kövamees et al., 2014, Van Zandt et al., 2019)
. =		ı	econd generation		T	
ABH analogues (synthesized based on Ugi reaction)	CI N NH2 NH2 NH2 OH	In vitro/in vivo	n.a.	n.a.	n.a	(Golebiowski et al., 2013)
	CI NH2 HO ₂ C BOOM			Down		
		T	hird generation	ոլլու		
NED 3238	Ph HO ₂ C NH ₂ B(OH) ₂	In vitro	n.a.	ded from pharmn	n.a	(Van Zandt et al., 2019)
INCB001158 (formerly named as CB- 1158)	$\begin{array}{c} NH_2 \\ O \\ NH_2 \\ HO_2 C \\ NH_2 \\ \end{array} \\ B(OH)_2$	Clinical trial phase 1/phase 2/in vitro	NCT 03314935 NCT 02903914 NCT 03910530 NCT 03361228 NCT 03837509	Oral application ev.aspetjournals.	Solid tumours	(Steggerda et al., 2017, Kuboki et al., 2024, Naing et al., 2024)

Table 5. Summary of human studies on arginases and its substrates and products

Study subjects Cohort (number of subjects)	Parameters	intervention	Main findings	Reference
	Mea	surement of L-argir	nine bioavailability in human cohorts	
Subjects without significantly obstructive CAD (402) vs subjects with significantly obstructive CAD (608)	GABR in plasma	N.A.	GABR ↓ and L-citrulline level ↑ associated with the development of significantly obstructive atherosclerotic CAD and raise the risk of MACE	(Tang et al., 2009)
CAD (2236)	GABR, L-arginine-to-L- ornithine ratio in serum	N.A.	 GABR inversely correlated with endothe all markers such as ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 GABR ↓ and arginine-to-ornithine ratio are associated with a significant increase in cardiovascular mortality GABR ↓ in subjects with T2DM than subjects without diabetes 	(Sourij et al., 2011)
T2DM (41)	GABR In plasma	Intensified risk factor intervention	• GABR and L-arginine-to-L-ornithine ration of after 3 months with intensified risk factor invention such as glucose-lowering treatment, anti-hypertensive treatment, and lipid-lowering treatment	(Tripolt et al., 2012)
adults with COVID-19 (32) and children with COVID-19/MIS-C (20) vs adult controls (28)	GABR, L-arginine-to-L-ornithine ratio in plasma	N.A.	L-arginine ↓ , L-arginine-to-L-ornithine ratio ↓ , and GABR ↓ in the COVID-19-positive adult and COVID-19/MIS-C pediatric group Low GABR might contribute to immune dysregulation and endothelial dysfunction in COVID-19 Low L-arginine-to-L-ornithine ratio might be due to the elevated arginase activity	(Rees et al., 2021)
subjects with STEMI (70)	L-arginine metabolite levels in plasma	NOS inhibitor, L-NAME	myocardial infarction > 6-month follow-up measurements correlated with ischemia risk area and infarct size • Median L-citrulline/L-arginine ↓ , L-citrulline/L-ornithine and arginine/ADMA = indicating a shift of L-arginine metabolism from NOS towards arginase • Low L-arginine concentration associated with worse long-term outcomes	(Molek et al., 2021)
			72 72	

		Arginase expressio	n and activity in human disease	T
Early phase of myocardial infarction (100)	Arginase activity in serum after myocardial infarction (measured from a few hours after the first attack of coronary pain until 5 days)		 Arginase activity ↑ in the10-30 hours after the attack Normal values after 3-5 days No changes in individuals with angina pectoris, acute coronary insufficiency, left cardiac failure, right cardiac failure, or cardiac insufficiency 	(Porembska and Kedra, 1975)
PAH (41) vs controls (37)	L-arginine metabolites, arginase activity in pulmonary artery ECs	none	Arginase activity ↓ and Arg2 expression ↓ in the pulmonary artery ECs from the lung of individuals with PAH □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □	(Xu et al., 2004)
Sickle cell disease (228) vs controls (36)	Amino acid levels (Arg, Orn, Cit, and Pro) and arginase activity in plasma, pulmonary hypertension, Mortality	N.A.	Plasma arginase activity ↑ Correlation between arginase activity and L-arginine-to-L-ornithine ratio Correlation between arginase activity and increased intravascular hemolytic rate Low L-arginine-to-L-ornithine ratio associated with greater severity of pulmonary hypertension and mortality	(Morris et al., 2005a)
Thalassemia (14) vs controls (36)	Amino acid levels (Arg, Orn, Cit, and Pro) and arginase activity in plasma	N.A.	L-arginine levels ↓ , L-ornithine levels ↑	(Morris et al., 2005b)
Sickle cell disease (35) vs controls (10)	Arginase and NOS activity in plasma and RBCs, Fetal hemoglobin levels blood count	23 humans with SCD with hydroxyurea- therapy, 12 humans with SCD without HU-therapy	• Arginase activity ↓ in individuals with hydroxyurea-therapy, a treatment with ribonucleotide reductase inhibitor • Fetal hemoglobin levels ↑ NOS activity ↑in subjects with hydroxyureal Therapy	(Iyamu et al., 2005) (Iyamu et al., 2005)
Asthma (6) vs controls (7)	Arg1 expression in lung tissues	N.A.	Arg1 expression ↑ in subjects with asth PET T T T T T T T T T T T T	(North et al., 2009)
MI (43) vs controls (33)	Arg1 activity and expression in serum, L-arginine, and ADMA concentrations in plasma	N.A.	Arginase activity ↓ and arginase expression ↑ in blood serum from people with MI Arginase expression negatively associated with left ventricular ejection fraction Low L-arginine/ADMA ratio in plasma Mippeople	(Bekpinar et al., 2011)
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Endothelial dysfunction (110) vs controls (106)	Arg1 and Arg2 in plasma (levels and activities)	N.A.	Arg1 genetic variations affect ED severity Arg2 concentrations ↑ in plasma of people with ED	(Lacchini et al., 2015)
HIV-asymptomatic (19), AIDS (33) vs controls lymph nodes (13), controls peripheral blood (20)	Arg1 expression in lymph nodes and peripheral blood	N.A.	Arg1 expression ↑ in the lymph nodes from HIV-infected people	(Zhang et al., 2016)
Asthmatics (52) vs controls (51)	Arginase activity in serum, expression of Arg2 in airway epithelium	none	Arg2 expression † in the airway of asthmatic human	(Xu et al., 2017)
T2DM (46) vs controls (34)	Arginase activity in RBCs forearm blood flow, RBC (human)-aorta (rat) coincubation	Incubation of RBC with ABH	Arginase activity in RBCs from subjects with T2DM ↑ RBC from subjects with T2DM-induced endothelial dysfunction Inhibition of ROS and arginase prevented endothelial dysfunction in ex vivo bioassay	(Zhou et al., 2018)
T2DM (27) vs controls (23)	Arginase expression and activity in RBCs, effect of glucose on RBC arginase ex vivo, I/R on Langendorff heart		RBC arginase activity ↑ and production ogROS ↑ in RBCs RBCs from people with T2DM aggravate myocardial I/R injury in Langendorff heart Inhibition of arginase in RBCs improves post-ischemic myocardial recovery	(Yang et al., 2018)
T2DM (18) vs controls (20)	RBC (individuals)-aorta (rat) co-incubation, arginase activity in aortic rings		Peroxynitrite scavenging with FeTTPS in RBCs reversed endothelial dysfunction in bioassay ex vivo Upregulation of arginase in T2D-RBCs and vasculature is peroxynitrite-dependent	(Mahdi et al., 2020b)
		Administrati	on of arginase inhibitors 👸	
CAD (16), CAD and T2DM (16) vs controls (16)	Arginase expression in the arteries, EDV	nor-NOHA	 Inhibition of arginase significantly inforoves endothelial function in humans with CAD and T2DM₀₀ Upregulation of arginase activity is a critical factor in endothelial dysfunction 	(Shemyakin et al., 2012)
CAD (12) vs CAD and T2DM (12)	EDV	nor-NOHA	Inhibition arginase provides protection against I/R-induced endothelial dysfunction in humans with CAD	(Kövamees et al., 2014)
CAD (16), CAD and T2DM (16) vs controls (16)	EDV	arginase inhibitor nor- NOHA	Inhibition of arginase improves microvascular endothelial function in humans with T2DM and microvascular dysfunction Inhibition of arginase protects against I/R-induced endothelial dysfunction in humans with CAD	(Kovamees et al., 2016a, Mahdi et al., 2018)
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Controls (21)	EDV	Arginase inhibitor nor- NOHA	 Baseline EDV inversely associated with the age of the participants Inhibition of arginase improves EDV, associated with the age of the participants Inhibition of arginase improves endothelial function in elderly healthy subjects, age-dependent. 	(Mahdi et al., 2019)
		Supplementation	on of L-arginine/L-citrulline	
Subjects referred to tertiary treatment for heart failure	Forearm blood flow, 6-minute walk test, symptom scores	supplementation of L-arginine	Supplementation of L-arginine significantly increased the forearm blood flow during forearm exercises, the distance in 6-minute walk test, and lowered symptom scores	(Rector et al., 1996)
Healthy individuals (26)	Forearm resistance arteries, major amino acids in plasma	28-day supplementation of L-arginine	L-arginine led to no effect on endothelia function in healthy adults and changes in the total amino acid profile but not Larginine concentration in plasma.	(Chin-Dusting et al., 1996)
Subjects with chest pain and coronary endothelial dysfunction	Coronary blood flow	6-month supplementation of L-arginine	Long-term supplementation of L-arginine increased the coronary blood flow, associated with improved symptom scores and a decrease in plasma endother concentrations	(Lerman et al., 1998)
T2DM (25)	Arginase activity in plasma; levels of nitrite and nitrate in plasma	supplementation of L-citrulline	Supplementation of L-citrulline reduced arginase activity and plasma NO levels in individuals of T2DM ct. Output Description:	(Shatanawi et al., 2020)
			t with PEG-Arginase	
Arginase auxotrophic tumor (23)	L-arginine level in plasma, PEG-BCT-100 level in plasma, change in tumor size	Intravenous PEG-BCT-100	 Median L-arginine maintained at 2.5 μM after the second PEG-BCT-100 injection Therapeutic L-arginine depletion found in 1.7 and 2.7 mg/kg/week cohorts with anti-tumor activities 	(Cheng et al., 2021)
Arg1 deficiency (32)	L-arginine level in plasma, functional mobility (Gross Motor Function Measure part E and 2-min walk test)	Intravenously/su bcutaneously, one-weekly pegzilarginase treatment	 Pegzilarginase treatment lowered mean Harginine in plasma from 354.0 μM to 86.4 μM as compared to patients treated with placebo from 464.7 μM to 426.6 μM σ Patients treated with pegzilarginase boserved clinically relevant functional mobility improvements 	(Russo et al., 2024)
			on December 20, 2024	

IX. Footnotes 958 959 **Authorship contribution** 960 All authors contributed with manuscript writing, drafting of figures and editing the manuscript. 961 **Acknowledgements** 962 This research was funded by research grants from the German Research Council (DFG) (to 963 M.M.C.-K. and Dr. Johannes Stegbauer), grant number 263779315; and from DFG (to 964 M.M.C.-K.), grant number 521638178; from the Research Commission, Medical Faculty of 965 the Heinrich Heine University Duesseldorf (to M.C. K. and J.L.); 966 **Data Availability Statement** 967 This review article contains no datasets generated or analyzed during the current study 968 **Conflict-of-interest statement**

No author has an actual or perceived conflict of interest with the contents of this article.

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X. Legend of figures

Graphical Abstract: Biochemistry, pharmacology, and in vivo function of arginases revisited: lessons from cell-specific Arg1 and Arg2-/- mice and human studies. Arginase converts L-arginine to L-ornithine and urea and plays important roles in various biological processes, including the urea cycle in the liver, the synthesis of polyamine and L-proline, and the control of L-arginine local bioavailability for NO production in the vessel wall and inflammatory cells. Recent studies performed in cell-specific transgenic mice and in human specimens indicate that the regulation and function of Arg1 and Arg2 appear to be cell type-specific, species-specific and profoundly different in mouse and human. Specificity and availability of arginase inhibitors in human are still limited by their lack of isoform specificity and for their poor pharmacodynamic properties, which means that they have to be administrated i.v., or i.p. The only approved drug is so far a pegylated-arginase for the treatment of hyperarginemia related to genetic defects of the ARG1 gene. Understanding the regulation of Arg1 and Arg2 in different cell types under consideration of their localization, species-specificity, and multiple biochemical and physiological roles could lead to better pharmacological strategies to target arginase in liver, cardiovascular, hematological, immune/infection diseases and cancer.

Figure 1 Hydrolysis of L-arginine to L-ornithine and urea catalyzed by arginase

986 Figure 2 Synthesis of polyamines from L-ornithine

Figure 3 Domain organization of Arg1 and Arg2 in homo sapiens – Arg1 comprises 322 aa and exists as the canonical protein (isoform 1), a longer variant that includes the sequence VTQNFLIL following Q43 (isoform 2) and an aa 204-289 depletion variant (isoform 3). Two substrate-binding regions (dark blue) were identified as well as Mn2+ interacting aa that are not marked here. Arg2 sequence starts with a mitochondrial transit peptide (Marselli et al., 2021) followed by the main body of the enzyme (blue) and closes of with a disordered region (yellow). The substrate binding regions are marked in dark blue

Figure 4 Active site of a monomer of Arg1 showing a binuclear manganese center coordinated with 2 His and 4

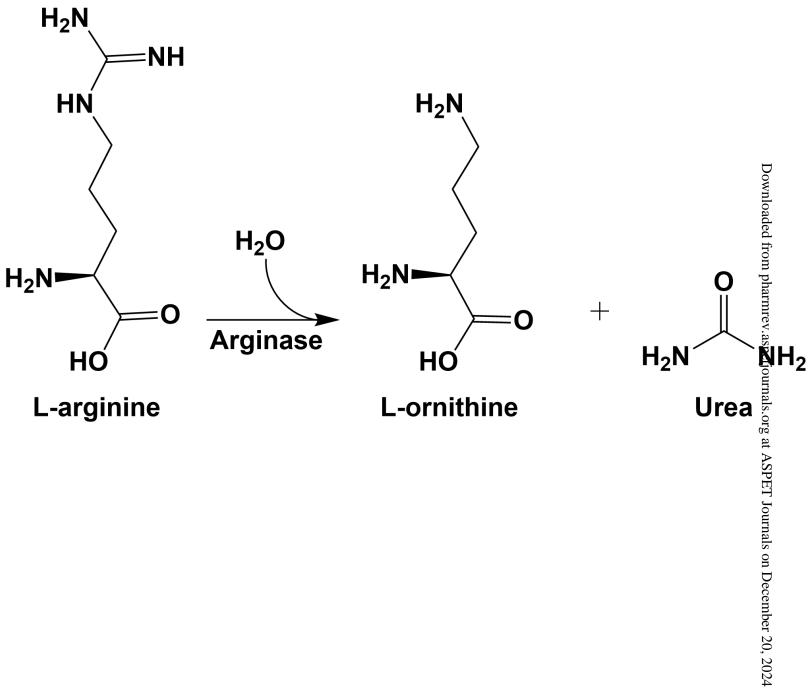
Figure 5 Urea cycle in the liver. The urea cycle is divided into five steps. The first two steps consist in the generation of carbamoylphosphate from ammonia and synthesis of L-citrulline which takes place in the mitochondria. L-Citrulline is transported to the cytosol and undergoes conversion into argininosuccinate by arginosuccinate synthetase. Arginosuccinate is then cleaved into L-arginine and fumarate by the arginosuccinase, and then Arg1 in the cytosol hydrolyzes L-arginine to L-ornithine and urea in a final step. L-Ornithine is transported back into the mitochondria, where is transformed again into L-citrulline. Instead, urea is exported into the blood and is excreted in the urine via the kidney.

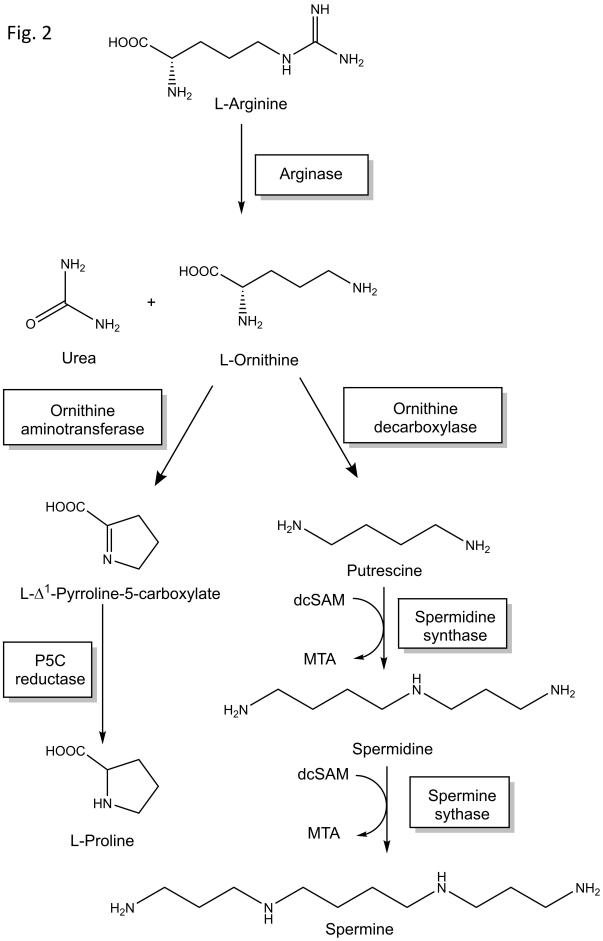
Figure 6 Arginase/iNOS pathway in mouse macrophages (figure created with biorender.com)

Figure 7 L-arginine metabolism in endothelial cells. In endothelial cells, L-arginine serves as a key substrate for both nitric oxide (NO) synthesis by endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) and catabolism by arginases 1 (Arg1) and arginase 2 (Arg2). eNOS is well-known to produce NO, which diffuses to vascular smooth muscle cells where it activates soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC), leading to vasorelaxation. Given the co-expression of both arginase isoforms within the endothelium, it is proposed that they act as functional counterparts to eNOS, indirectly regulating its activity. Data from cell-specific mice models reveal that this competition becomes only relevant in disease conditions leading to an increase in arginase activity, and instead is less relevant under homeostatic conditions. Abbreviations: cGMP, cyclic guanosine monophosphate; GTP, guanosine triphosphate; (figure created with biorender.com)

Figure 8 Synthesis of L-arginine in the kidney. L-Arginine is endogenously synthesized in the kidney in a reaction catalyzed by argininosuccinate synthetase and argininosuccinate lyase by using circulating L-citrulline produced in the intestine. Synthesis occurs throughout the whole length of the proximal tubule, but is particularly high in the early part closest to the glomerulus, the proximal convoluted tubule (PCT), and gradually decreases in the terminal part in the outer medulla, the proximal straight tubule (PST). Only a small part of the L-arginine synthesized in the kidney is used for the production of polyamines and creatine from L-ornithine, while most of it is released into the circulation, making it available for other tissues (figure created with biorender.com).

Fig. 1





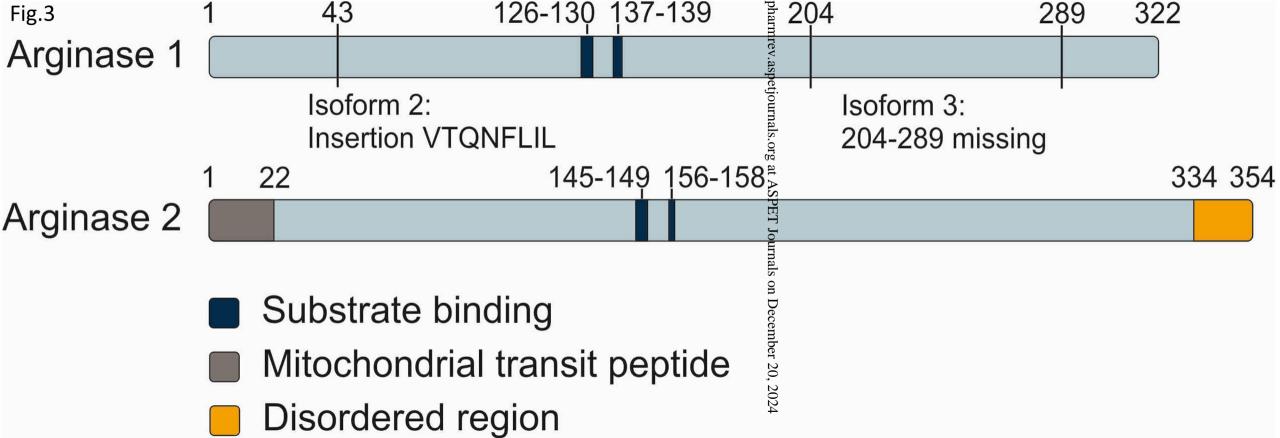
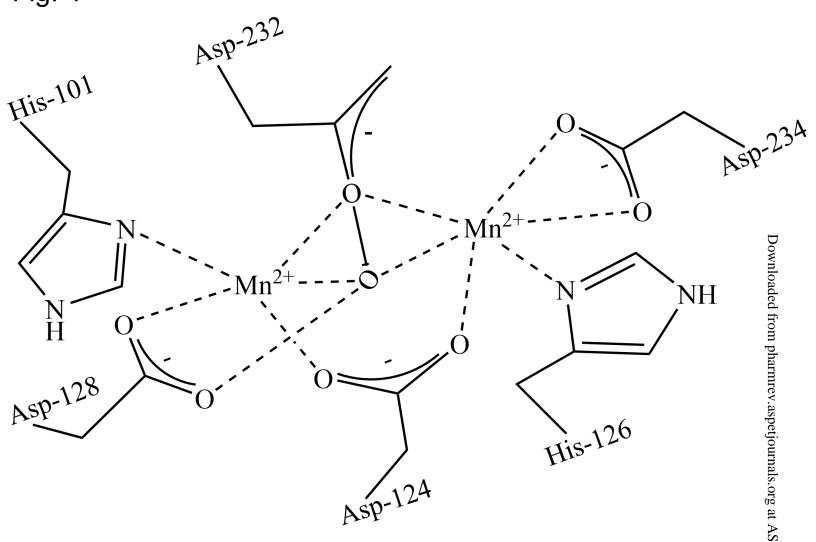
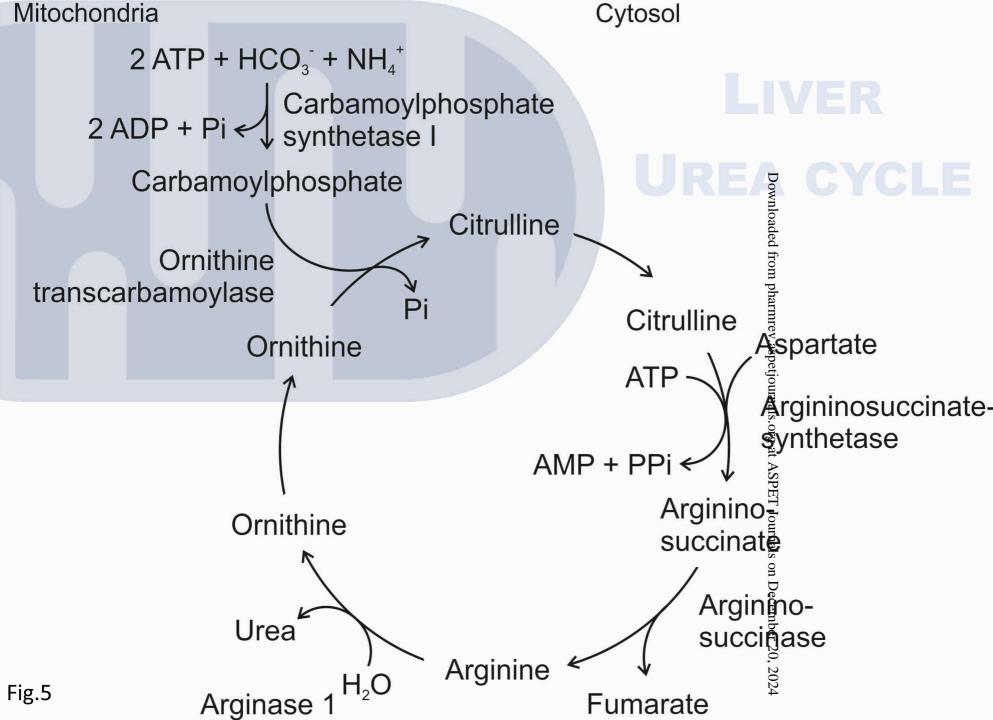


Fig. 4



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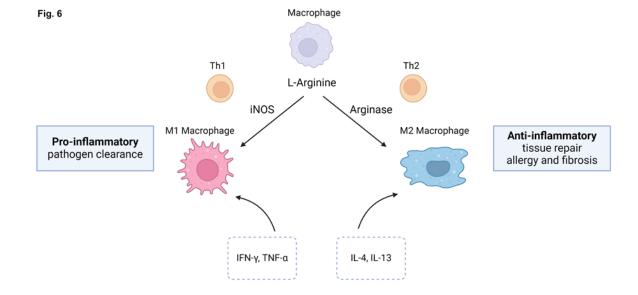


Fig.7

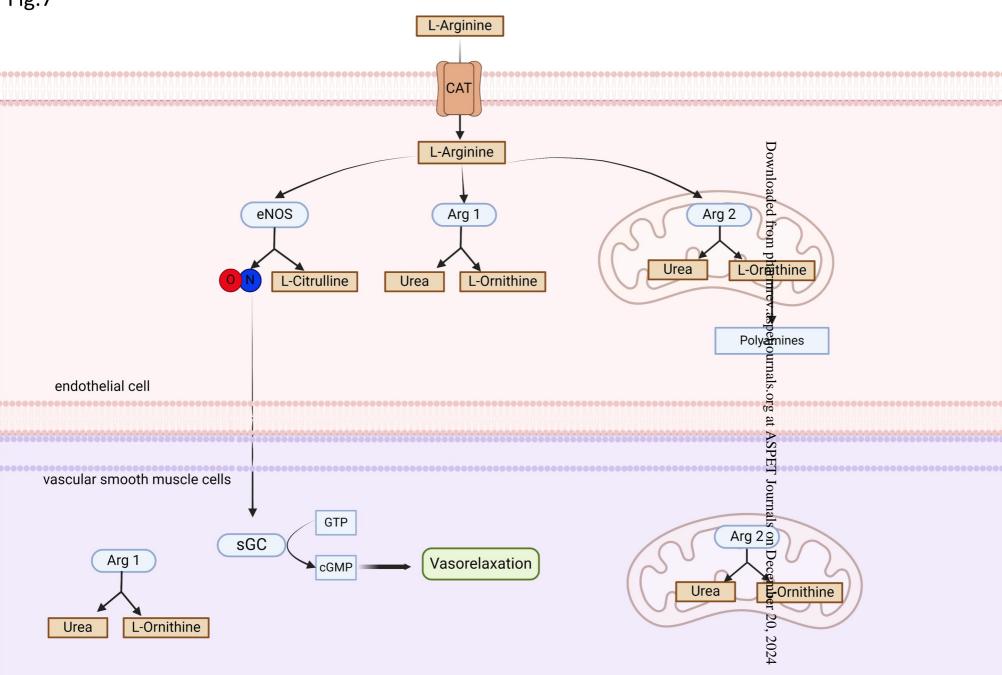


Fig. 8

