



## Review

Regulation of IP<sub>3</sub> receptors by cyclic AMP

Colin W. Taylor

Department of Pharmacology, University of Cambridge, Tennis Court Road, Cambridge CB2 1PD, UK



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## ABSTRACT

Ca<sup>2+</sup> and cAMP are ubiquitous intracellular messengers and interactions between them are commonplace. Here the effects of cAMP on inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors (IP<sub>3</sub>Rs) are briefly reviewed. All three subtypes of IP<sub>3</sub>R are phosphorylated by cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA). This potentiates IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> release through IP<sub>3</sub>R1 and IP<sub>3</sub>R2, but probably has little effect on IP<sub>3</sub>R3. In addition, cAMP can directly sensitize all three IP<sub>3</sub>R subtypes to IP<sub>3</sub>. The high concentrations of cAMP required for this PKA-independent modulation of IP<sub>3</sub>Rs is delivered to them within signalling junctions that include type 6 adenylyl cyclase and IP<sub>3</sub>R2.

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## 1. Introduction

Cyclic AMP and Ca<sup>2+</sup> are ubiquitous intracellular messengers used by all eukaryotic cells from plants and animals to coordinate their behaviours in response to both extracellular signals and intracellular activity [1–3]. These messengers create a signalling ‘bottleneck’ through which many extracellular signals funnel to regulate diverse cellular responses. The capacity of a rather limited repertoire of intracellular messengers to selectively regulate cellular activities depends in large part on the spatial organization of the messengers within the cell, the time frames over which they are delivered, and interactions between messengers. The latter often

endows signalling pathways with capacities to function as coincidence detectors: conveying signals onward only when several conditions are met [4]. As might be expected of the prototypical intracellular messengers, analyses of the interactions between cAMP and Ca<sup>2+</sup> have a long history [5,6] that has revealed interactions at many levels. Ca<sup>2+</sup>, for example, regulates formation and degradation of cAMP [2,7], and cAMP can regulate both the channels that allow Ca<sup>2+</sup> to flow into the cytosol and the Ca<sup>2+</sup> pumps that extrude it [8,9].

A ubiquitous pathway from extracellular stimuli to cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals is provided by receptors that stimulate phospholipase C (PLC), production of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP<sub>3</sub>) and thereby Ca<sup>2+</sup> release through IP<sub>3</sub> receptors (IP<sub>3</sub>R) [10]. Cyclic AMP also modulates this pathway by, for example, regulating PLC [11] and the coupling of receptors to PLC [12]. However, in this short review, I focus on just one level of interaction, that between cAMP and IP<sub>3</sub>Rs [13,14]. IP<sub>3</sub>R subunits are encoded by three genes in vertebrates. The three large, closely related subunits assemble into homo- and hetero-tetrameric structures, which form large-conductance Ca<sup>2+</sup>-permeable channels within

**Abbreviations:** AC, adenylyl cyclase; EPAC, exchange protein activated by cAMP; IP<sub>3</sub>, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; IP<sub>3</sub>R, IP<sub>3</sub> receptor; IRAG, IP<sub>3</sub>R-associated cGMP kinase substrate; IRBIT, IP<sub>3</sub>R-binding protein released by IP<sub>3</sub>; PKA, protein kinase A (cAMP-dependent protein kinase); PKG, protein kinase G (cGMP-dependent protein kinase); PLC, phospholipase C; P<sub>o</sub>, single-channel open probability; PTH, parathyroid hormone.

E-mail address: [cwt1000@cam.ac.uk](mailto:cwt1000@cam.ac.uk)

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intracellular membranes, primarily those of the endoplasmic reticulum [10]. Opening of the central pore is initiated by binding of IP<sub>3</sub> to all four IP<sub>3</sub>R subunits [15], which evokes conformational changes within the N-terminal domains of the IP<sub>3</sub>R [16]. These conformational changes are proposed to facilitate binding of Ca<sup>2+</sup>, which then triggers opening of the pore. Hence, the IP<sub>3</sub>R is itself a coincidence detector, responding only when provided with both cytosolic IP<sub>3</sub> and Ca<sup>2+</sup>. High-resolution structures of the N-terminal region of an IP<sub>3</sub>R with and without IP<sub>3</sub> bound [16], and cryo-electron microscopy reconstructions of the entire IP<sub>3</sub>R in a closed state [17] have begun to reveal the workings of the IP<sub>3</sub>R machinery. However, the mechanisms linking IP<sub>3</sub> binding to channel gating are not yet fully resolved. While IP<sub>3</sub> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> are the essential regulators of IP<sub>3</sub>R gating, many additional signals modulate IP<sub>3</sub>R behaviour [18]. My focus on cAMP therefore provides only a rather restricted view of the capacity of IP<sub>3</sub>Rs to integrate information provided by different signalling pathways.

## 2. Regulation of IP<sub>3</sub>Rs by PKA

Cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase (protein kinase A, PKA), exchange proteins activated by cAMP (EPACs), cyclic nucleotide-activated cation channels (CNGs), and some cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterases (PDEs) are the major targets of cAMP in mammals. At least some of these targets regulate IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> signalling. PKA, for example, stimulates Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake into the sarcoplasmic reticulum, and EPACs through the small G protein rap2B stimulate PLC $\epsilon$  [11]. However, only PKA has been convincingly shown to interact directly with IP<sub>3</sub>Rs. The three IP<sub>3</sub>R subtypes are closely related, but each has a distinctive distribution of PKA phosphorylation sites. The many effects of cAMP within Ca<sup>2+</sup> signalling pathways were sources of some confusion in the pioneering studies of IP<sub>3</sub>R phosphorylation [19], but the consensus now is that PKA-mediated phosphorylation of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 and IP<sub>3</sub>R2 enhances their activity, while the functional significance of such phosphorylation for IP<sub>3</sub>R3 is less clear [14,20].

Two residues (S<sup>1589</sup> and S<sup>1755</sup>) within the central cytosolic domain of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 are phosphorylated by PKA, and their replacement by non-phosphorylatable alanine residues confirms that they are the only sites [21]. Phosphorylation of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 by PKA or introduction of phosphomimetic residues (S<sup>1589</sup>E/S<sup>1755</sup>E) do not themselves open the channel, but they increase the open probability ( $P_o$ ) of channels activated by IP<sub>3</sub>. The increased  $P_o$  results from shortening of the gaps between bursts of channel openings and an increase in the duration of the bursts, with no obvious effect on IP<sub>3</sub> binding or the sensitivity to Ca<sup>2+</sup> regulation [22]. Hence, phosphorylation of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 by PKA improves the coupling of IP<sub>3</sub> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> binding to channel gating by both stabilizing the bursting state of the IP<sub>3</sub>R and destabilizing a prolonged closed state. An alternative splice site (S2, residues 1693–1732), which encodes 40 residues and is removed from non-neuronal IP<sub>3</sub>R1, abuts the second phosphorylation site (S<sup>1755</sup>). For the neuronal S2<sup>+</sup> form of IP<sub>3</sub>R1, S<sup>1755</sup> entirely mediates the effects of PKA, while in the peripheral S2<sup>−</sup> form both residues (S<sup>1589</sup> and S<sup>1755</sup>) must be phosphorylated for PKA to enhance IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> release [23]. Effective phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 are facilitated by tethering of PKA to IP<sub>3</sub>R1 by AKAP9 (A-kinase-anchoring protein 9) [24] and of the protein phosphatase, PP1 $\alpha$ , by IRBIT [25], AKAP9 or directly to the C-terminal tail of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 [26].

The consensus sequences for PKA and cGMP-dependent protein kinase (PKG) are similar, such that some residues (e.g. S<sup>1755</sup> in IP<sub>3</sub>R1S2<sup>+</sup>) are phosphorylated by either kinase. Yet in native tissues PKG and PKA often exert opposing effects on IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> release. The difference may, at least in part, be due to expression of IRAG (IP<sub>3</sub>R-associated cGMP kinase substrate), which

blocks phosphorylation of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 by PKA, and IRAG phosphorylated by PKG inhibits IP<sub>3</sub>R [27]. Hence, IRAG diverts PKG from the PKA-phosphorylation sites and imposes its own inhibition. PKA also modulates the interaction of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 with its endogenous antagonist, IRBIT (IP<sub>3</sub>R-binding protein released by IP<sub>3</sub>), apparently decreasing the affinity for IRBIT so that IP<sub>3</sub> more effectively competes for occupancy of their shared binding site on the IP<sub>3</sub>R [28]. Hence in secretory epithelia, receptors that stimulate formation of cAMP and IP<sub>3</sub> synergistically stimulate release of IRBIT from IP<sub>3</sub>Rs, and IRBIT then directly stimulates two of the ion transporters that sustain fluid transport [28].

Long before the discovery IP<sub>3</sub>Rs, synergistic stimulation of a Ca<sup>2+</sup>-sensitive K<sup>+</sup> channel by  $\alpha_1$ -adrenoceptors (which stimulate PLC) and  $\beta$ -adrenoceptors (which stimulate formation of cAMP) in hepatocytes suggested that cAMP might enhance receptor-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from intracellular stores [29]. Subsequent studies confirmed that PKA stimulates phosphorylation of hepatic IP<sub>3</sub>Rs [30] and potentiates IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> release [31,32]. IP<sub>3</sub>R2, the major IP<sub>3</sub>R subtype in hepatocytes, is phosphorylated by PKA at a single residue (Ser<sup>937</sup>), although others suggest that IP<sub>3</sub>R2 is a rather poor substrate for PKA [20]. Ser<sup>937</sup> is unique to IP<sub>3</sub>R2, but the functional consequences of the phosphorylation appear similar to those seen with IP<sub>3</sub>R1, namely enhanced bursts of IP<sub>3</sub>R gating [33]. Additional effects of PKA, including an increase in IP<sub>3</sub> binding affinity [30] and recruitment of IP<sub>3</sub>Rs into functional Ca<sup>2+</sup> stores [32], may also contribute to the effects of PKA on IP<sub>3</sub>R2 in intact cells.

The effects of PKA on IP<sub>3</sub>R3 have been least explored. In intact cells, IP<sub>3</sub>R3 is phosphorylated by PKA at three sites (S<sup>916</sup>, S<sup>934</sup>, S<sup>1832</sup>) that are unique to IP<sub>3</sub>R3, with S<sup>934</sup> being the most extensively phosphorylated [34]. But, at least in cells expressing only IP<sub>3</sub>R3, PKA has no effect on IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> release triggered by cell-surface receptors [34]. Whether the phosphorylation affects other aspects of IP<sub>3</sub>R3 behaviour remain to be determined.

## 3. Direct regulation of IP<sub>3</sub>Rs by cAMP

In HEK-293 cells stably expressing human type 1 receptors for parathyroid hormone (PTH), PTH stimulates formation of cAMP, but it does not alone evoke an increase in cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration ([Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>c</sub>). However, PTH potentiates the increase in [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>c</sub> evoked by receptors that stimulate PLC, the endogenous muscarinic M<sub>3</sub> receptors of HEK-293 cells, for example, which can be activated by carbachol (Fig. 1A). This effect of PTH is mimicked by stimulation of endogenous prostanoid receptors or  $\beta$ -adrenoceptors, by direct activation of adenylyl cyclase with forskolin or by addition of a membrane-permeant analog of cAMP, 8-Br-cAMP. The non-additive effects of maximally effective concentrations of PTH and 8-Br-cAMP confirm that the effect of PTH on carbachol-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals is entirely mediated by cAMP (Fig. 1B) [35,36]. Responses to other PLC-coupled receptors are also potentiated by PTH, and the enhanced responses are not associated with increased production of IP<sub>3</sub> [35,37]. Furthermore, cAMP also potentiates the Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals evoked by a membrane-permeant form of IP<sub>3</sub> (IP<sub>3</sub>-BM) [38]. These results, demonstrating that cAMP acts downstream of IP<sub>3</sub>, are important because cAMP can, through EPACs, stimulate PLC $\epsilon$  [11]. However, the effects of PTH are neither mimicked by EPAC-selective analogs of cAMP [36] nor blocked by an EPAC antagonist [39]. The enhanced IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked increases in [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>c</sub> are not due to inhibition of Ca<sup>2+</sup> extrusion from the cytosol by cAMP [38]. Furthermore, cAMP potentiates IP<sub>3</sub>-evoked Ca<sup>2+</sup> release in permeabilized cells [40], and it enhances IP<sub>3</sub>-gated channel activity in nuclear patch-clamp recordings of IP<sub>3</sub>R [40]. These results, where cAMP potentiates the activation of IP<sub>3</sub>R by IP<sub>3</sub>, seem consistent with the many reports suggesting that phosphorylation of IP<sub>3</sub>R1 and IP<sub>3</sub>R2 by PKA enhances responses to IP<sub>3</sub> (see preceding section). However,

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