

IP₃ receptors and their intimate liaisons

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Highlights

- IP₃Rs mediate rapid transfer of Ca²⁺ from the ER to the cytosol or other organelles
- Loss of Ca²⁺ from the ER activates store-operated Ca²⁺ entry
- Contacts between IP₃Rs and lysosomes allow bidirectional Ca²⁺ exchanges
- IP₃Rs that are licensed to respond may locally regulate store-operated Ca²⁺ entry

Abbreviations

[Ca²⁺]_c, cytosolic free Ca²⁺ concentration; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; IP₃R, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor; MCS, membrane contact site; PM, plasma membrane; SOCE, store-operated Ca²⁺ entry; STIM, stromal interaction molecule.

Abstract

Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors (IP₃Rs) are intracellular Ca²⁺ channels. They allow cell-surface receptors that stimulate IP₃ formation to evoke rapid Ca²⁺ release from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). IP₃Rs initiate local and global cytosolic Ca²⁺ signals, they deliver Ca²⁺ selectively to other organelles including mitochondria and lysosomes, and, by depleting the ER of Ca²⁺, they control store-operated Ca²⁺ entry (SOCE). We consider two areas where recent work highlights the importance of liaisons between IP₃Rs and other intracellular membranes. Interactions between IP₃Rs and lysosomes illustrate striking parallels with the relationships between IP₃Rs and mitochondria. In each case, the ER concentrates Ca²⁺ from the cytosol and then delivers it through IP₃Rs to a low-affinity Ca²⁺-uptake system in a juxtaposed organelle. Evidence that only immobile IP₃Rs parked alongside the sites where SOCE occurs suggests a mechanism whereby local depletion of the ER may activate SOCE without compromising other Ca²⁺-dependent ER functions.

Keywords

Ca²⁺ signal, IP₃ receptor, lysosome, membrane contact site, mitochondrion, store-operated Ca²⁺ entry

Introduction

Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors (IP₃Rs) are intracellular Ca²⁺ channels that are almost ubiquitously expressed in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) of animal cells [1]. The discovery, in 1983, that IP₃ stimulates Ca²⁺ release from the ER [2] prompted analyses of both the mechanisms linking IP₃ binding to channel opening, and of the organization and functional significance of the resulting Ca²⁺ signals. The former established that IP₃Rs are large-conductance Ca²⁺-permeable channels [3], opening of which allows Ca²⁺ to flow rapidly from the ER. The opening requires binding of IP₃ to all four subunits of an IP₃R [4•], which then primes the IP₃R to bind the Ca²⁺ that triggers channel opening [3,5]. Structural studies of IP₃R fragments [6-9] and, more recently, of the complete tetrameric IP₃R [10,11••,12,13•] revealed the initial conformational changes evoked by IP₃ and they are beginning to suggest mechanisms by which they are transduced into re-arranged Ca²⁺-binding sites and thence channel opening.

In addressing the functional consequences of IP₃R activation, most attention focussed on the increase in cytosolic free Ca²⁺ concentration ([Ca²⁺]_c). A recurrent theme has been that as stimulus intensities increase, IP₃-evoked cytosolic signals progress from local events, ‘Ca²⁺ puffs’ that report the coordinated opening of a few IP₃Rs within a cluster [14], to global increases in [Ca²⁺]_c that invade the entire cell [15]. It is assumed that co-regulation of IP₃Rs by IP₃ and Ca²⁺ allows this hierarchical recruitment, with the concentration of IP₃ and spacing of IP₃Rs tuning the sensitivity of an amplification mechanism (Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release, CICR) [15]. Evidence that all three mammalian IP₃R subtypes can elicit rather similar Ca²⁺ puffs [16,17] has further fuelled speculation that the small clusters of IP₃Rs from which Ca²⁺ puffs originate may be the building blocks of all IP₃-evoked cytosolic Ca²⁺ signals. But that consensus was recently challenged by evidence that global Ca²⁺ signals appear not to be built from underlying Ca²⁺ puffs [18••]. Another puzzle is that while most IP₃Rs appear to be mobile [19-21], Ca²⁺ puffs occur repeatedly at relatively few fixed subcellular locations [22,23]. We address this enigma in the first part of this short review.

Two further observations establish the importance of IP₃Rs as Ca²⁺-regulating hubs beyond their ability to evoke increases in [Ca²⁺]_c (**Figure 1a**). Firstly, IP₃Rs are the usual route through which physiological stimuli evoke the substantial decrease in ER luminal [Ca²⁺] that activates store-operated Ca²⁺ entry (SOCE) [24-28]. The core mechanisms are now clear, with store depletion causing stromal interaction molecule 1 (STIM1) to unfurl cytosolic

domains that reach across a narrow gap between the ER and plasma membrane (PM) to capture Orai channels and trigger their opening [29]. It is not, however, clear how the substantial loss of ER Ca^{2+} needed to activate STIM1 occurs without compromising other Ca^{2+} -dependent ER functions. We speculate on a possible mechanism in light of recent evidence that the IP_3Rs that evoke Ca^{2+} puffs sit alongside the sites where SOCE occurs [30,31••]. Secondly, IP_3Rs can selectively deliver Ca^{2+} at high concentrations to the mitochondrial surface [32]. This can both regulate mitochondrial mobility [33] and allow Ca^{2+} uptake by the low-affinity mitochondrial Ca^{2+} uniporter (MCU) [34], with many functional consequences including stimulation of oxidative phosphorylation [35]. The intimate contact is maintained by tether proteins that hold the ER and the outer mitochondrial membrane less than 25 nm apart [36••], scarcely any further than the cytosolic dimensions of an IP_3R [10]. Among the fifty or so proteins associated with these membrane contact sites (MCS) [35], the relative importance of candidate tethers is unclear, perhaps reflecting some redundancy (**Figure 1b**). But a key observation is that IP_3Rs may themselves form tethers independent of their ability to release Ca^{2+} [36••]. There is a parallel between SOCE and these synapse-like contacts between ER and mitochondria, in that Ca^{2+} channels (Orai or IP_3R) contribute not only to the Ca^{2+} flux within the MCS, but also to its assembly (**Figure 1b**). Many reviews describe the architecture and function of ER-mitochondrial contacts [34,35,37]. Here, we consider evidence that there may be a similar association of lysosomes with IP_3Rs in the ER.

Licensed IP_3Rs liaise with SOCE

Ca^{2+} puffs repeatedly initiate at rather few fixed sites within a cell [22,23], yet most IP_3Rs are mobile, at least when over-expressed for live-cell imaging of tagged proteins [19-21]. In cells with endogenous IP_3R tagged with EGFP using gene editing, most IP_3Rs form loose clusters, typically comprising about eight IP_3Rs [31••]. Most of these clusters (~70%) are mobile, but Ca^{2+} puffs, whether evoked by IP_3 provided by endogenous pathways or uniformly throughout the cytosol by photolysis of caged- IP_3 , invariably occur at immobile clusters and only those located within ER immediately beneath the PM. Hence, only a tiny fraction of the several thousand IP_3Rs within a cell are ‘licensed’ to evoke Ca^{2+} puffs. The licensing mechanism has yet to be defined. It is, however, noteworthy that the licensed IP_3Rs are parked immediately alongside the MCS where SOCE occurs, although IP_3Rs are not themselves required to assemble the SOCE MCS [31••]. This additional level of IP_3R regulation, licensing, suggests possible explanations for the enigmas described earlier.

Firstly, ‘licensing’ suggests a regulatory mechanism that both immobilizes some IP₃Rs and permits them to evoke Ca²⁺ puffs. Mobile IP₃Rs do not evoke Ca²⁺ puffs. Since the mobile and immobile pools of IP₃Rs do not freely mix, at least over tens of minutes [31••], the function of most IP₃Rs, the mobile ones and those remote from the PM, remains mysterious. They may provide a pool from which IP₃Rs can be drawn for licensing; they may have different roles in Ca²⁺ signalling, for example in selectively delivering of Ca²⁺ to mitochondria or lysosomes (many of which do not lie immediately beneath the PM); or they may have roles unrelated to Ca²⁺ signalling. The latter would be consistent with many different proteins, not all obviously related to Ca²⁺ signalling, associating with IP₃Rs [38].

Secondly, the location of licensed IP₃Rs alongside the MCS where STIM1 accumulates after store depletion [31••] suggests a mechanism whereby activation of SOCE by physiological stimuli, namely those that evoke IP₃ formation, might activate STIM1, and thereby SOCE, without substantially depleting the entire ER of Ca²⁺ [30,39]. We speculate that an ER structure with a short neck and flattened head, somewhat reminiscent of a dendritic spine, might allow licensed IP₃Rs to locally and substantially deplete ER within a SOCE MCS of Ca²⁺ (**Figure 2**). Each of these junctions might then function as a ‘digital switch’, such that STIM1 within the depleted ER would be fully active after stimulation of associated IP₃Rs. Graded activation of SOCE within a cell would come from recruitment of each MCS, and without global depletion of ER Ca²⁺ (**Figure 2b**). Additional mechanisms, notably hetero-oligomerization of STIM2 with STIM1, might tune the Ca²⁺ sensitivity of Orai1 activation to respond to less than complete store emptying by combining the greater Ca²⁺ sensitivity of STIM2 [25] and its enhanced affinity for phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PIP₂) [40], with the greater efficacy of STIM1 in activating Orai1 [41••].

IP₃R and lysosomes – more intimate liaisons

Lysosomes, with their luminal cocktail of hydrolytic enzymes and acidic pH, are best known as degradative organelles [42,43], but there is also evidence that they make important contributions to intracellular Ca²⁺ handling [44]. Experimental analyses of the latter are compromised by the hostile luminal environment of the lysosome, which constrains use of protein-based indicators and demands meticulous pH-corrections to the properties of classical Ca²⁺ indicators. An ingenious construct that tethers conventional pH and Ca²⁺ indicators to a DNA backbone may provide the much-needed tool to effectively measure [Ca²⁺] within

lysosomes [45••]. At present, reliable measures of luminal free $[Ca^{2+}]$ for lysosomes are scarce, but they suggest a concentration comparable (350-600 μ M) to that of the ER [45••,46,47], although lysosomes enclose a much smaller intracellular volume (perhaps 500-times less than that of the ER) [48]. There is, however, persuasive evidence that lysosomes express Ca^{2+} -permeable channels, including two-pore channels (TPC1-3), transient receptor potential mucolipin (TRPML1-3) and type 2 purinoceptors (P2X₄) [44,49], and that Ca^{2+} released from lysosomes regulates membrane fission and fusion within the endocytic pathway [42,50-52]. Indeed, Ca^{2+} release through TPCs is required for trafficking of Ebola virus through late stages of the endocytic pathway [53]. In addition to this local Ca^{2+} signalling within the endocytic pathway, lysosomes may also initiate larger cytosolic Ca^{2+} signals when Ca^{2+} released through lysosomal channels, triggers Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release from the ER through IP₃Rs or ryanodine receptors [54,55].

The means by which lysosomes accumulate Ca^{2+} is unknown. Considerable evidence, including an increase in lysosomal pH after addition of Ca^{2+} [56], and loss of lysosomal Ca^{2+} after dissipation of the lysosomal pH gradient [46,47,57,58], suggest an important role for luminal H^+ , but there is no evidence that placental mammals express a lysosomal Ca^{2+} - H^+ exchanger (CAX) [59]. Several reviews consider alternative lysosomal pH-dependent mechanisms for Ca^{2+} uptake [44,45,49], and a recent report suggests a possible role for a P-type ATPase (ATP13A2), distinct from those that mediate Ca^{2+} transport across other biological membranes, in mediating lysosomal Ca^{2+} uptake [45••]. This is intriguing because mutations in ATP13A2 are associated with a juvenile form of Parkinson's disease [60] and defective autophagy [61], but there is presently no direct evidence that ATP13A2 is a Ca^{2+} pump. The limited evidence available suggests that whatever the lysosomal Ca^{2+} uptake mechanism, it probably has relatively low affinity for Ca^{2+} [62]. There is, therefore, a problem similar to that faced by mitochondria and their MCU, namely the organelles acquire Ca^{2+} from the cytosol, where the global $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ is too low to fuel the low-affinity uptake systems. For mitochondria, the solution is provided by having the ER, with its high-affinity Ca^{2+} pump (the SR/ER Ca^{2+} -ATPase, SERCA), concentrate Ca^{2+} from the cytosol and then squirt it back at MCU through large-conductance IP₃Rs (**Figures 1b and 3a**). Recent evidence suggests a similar scheme for lysosomes.

The first evidence that lysosomes selectively sequester Ca^{2+} released by IP₃Rs came from cells in which cytosolic Ca^{2+} signals evoked by receptors that stimulate IP₃ formation were

potentiated when lysosomes were perturbed. SOCE-evoked signals were unaffected [63,64••]. Furthermore, a low-affinity Ca^{2+} -sensor expressed on the cytosolic surface of lysosomes, reported large Ca^{2+} signals in response to IP_3 -evoked Ca^{2+} release, but not in response to SOCE [64••]. Close contacts (MCS) between ER and lysosomes are well documented [65-67], and recent evidence suggests that these contacts form preferentially at ER populated with IP_3Rs [64••]. Another study, which used cytosolic Ca^{2+} sensors targeted to a lysosomal Ca^{2+} channel to determine lysosomal Ca^{2+} content, concluded that Ca^{2+} released from the ER through IP_3Rs is required to fuel lysosomal Ca^{2+} uptake [68•]. There are, however, some concerns in that the sensor used had an affinity for Ca^{2+} that was too high to selectively report local Ca^{2+} signals, and there was some reliance on glycyl-L-phenylalanine 2-naphthylamide (GPN) to release Ca^{2+} from lysosomes, when recent work shows that GPN evokes Ca^{2+} release from the ER [69•]. The studies concur, however, in suggesting that Ca^{2+} uptake by lysosomes is fuelled by Ca^{2+} release from the ER [63,64••,68•], and in suggesting that the lysosomal pH gradient is not required for that Ca^{2+} uptake [64••,68•], although it is required to maintain the ER-lysosome MCS [64••].

Hence, intimate liaisons between ER and lysosomes allow a two-way traffic of Ca^{2+} between them. Ca^{2+} release through lysosomal Ca^{2+} channels is amplified by CICR from ER channels [54,55]; and the ER, through IP_3Rs [64••,68•] and other leak channels [64••] provides Ca^{2+} for a low-affinity lysosomal Ca^{2+} -uptake system. The latter provides a close analogy with MCU in mitochondria. In both cases, the ER works like a piston, concentrating Ca^{2+} from the cytosol into the ER lumen and then delivering it rapidly through a large-conductance channel, the IP_3R , at sufficient local concentration to allow the organelle to sequester it with a low-affinity uptake system (**Figure 3b**). An unresolved question is whether the mechanisms that license IP_3Rs to evoke cytosolic Ca^{2+} puffs serve also to license the IP_3Rs that deliver Ca^{2+} to lysosomes and mitochondria.

We noted earlier that amongst the many proteins that may contribute to MCS between ER and mitochondria, IP_3R fulfilled a structural role in assembling the junction [36••]. At SOCE MCS too, the Orai Ca^{2+} channel may contribute to assembly of the junction. This ‘hijacking’ of Ca^{2+} channels to assemble the MCS within which they function may extend also to the ER-lysosome MCS, because although IP_3Rs are not required for their assembly, there is evidence that TPC1 regulates assembly of the MCS between ER and endosomes [70].

Concluding remarks

IP₃Rs provide an essential link between receptors in the PM that transduce extracellular stimuli into an increase in intracellular IP₃ concentration, and the redistribution of Ca²⁺ across biological membranes. By rapidly releasing Ca²⁺ from the ER, IP₃Rs selectively deliver Ca²⁺ to the cytosol or other organelles, and they activate SOCE (**Figure 1**). ‘Licensed’ IP₃Rs parked alongside SOCE-MCS may allow local regulation of SOCE without compromising other ER functions (**Figure 2**). Comparisons of ER contacts with lysosomes and mitochondria suggest a general scheme, wherein the ER behaves like a piston, concentrating Ca²⁺ from the cytosol, where its concentration is very low, and then rapidly releasing it through large-conductance IP₃Rs into enclosed MCS, where the high local [Ca²⁺] is sufficient to fuel Ca²⁺ uptake by the low-affinity Ca²⁺ uptake systems of the organelles (**Figure 3**).

Conflict of interest statement

All authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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by residues contributed by two large cytosolic domains (ARM1 and ARM2). The relationship between these Ca^{2+} -binding sites and the biphasic regulation of IP_3Rs by cytosolic Ca^{2+} remains to be defined, but it is interesting that the sites are formed by residues contributed by different domains that are likely to move during IP_3R activation.

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distributed throughout the cell. Most of these IP₃Rs are mobile, but only immobile clusters tethered close to the PM are 'licensed' to respond to IP₃. These licensed IP₃R clusters are parked adjacent to the ER-PM junctions within which STIM activates Orai, suggesting a close link between their activity and regulation of SOCE.

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presented to support this suggestion. The authors show no evidence, despite their conclusion, that IP₃R and STIM1 are selectively co-immunoprecipitated after activation of PLC-linked receptors. Additional observations, including enhanced SOCE after over-expression of IP₃Rs and faster rates of Ca²⁺ release after stimulation with bradykinin relative to thapsigargin, are predictable consequences of IP₃Rs emptying the ER more quickly than the basal leaks unmasked by thapsigargin. Further work is needed to assess whether IP₃Rs regulate SOCE by locally depleting the ER of Ca²⁺, and whether the contribution of IP₃Rs to SOCE is restricted to their ability to release Ca²⁺ from the ER.

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Figure 1

IP₃Rs regulate different Ca²⁺ signals. **(a)** By controlling release of Ca²⁺ from the ER, IP₃Rs are gateways to different Ca²⁺ signals. They can selectively deliver Ca²⁺ from the ER to the cytosol, mitochondria or lysosomes, and by decreasing the [Ca²⁺] within the ER, they lead to activation of SOCE. Within the cytosol, co-regulation of IP₃Rs by IP₃ and Ca²⁺ allows regenerative recruitment of IP₃R activity by CICR. At low concentrations of IP₃, this CICR is restricted to small clusters of IP₃Rs which evoke Ca²⁺ puffs. At higher IP₃ concentrations, the regenerative activity propagates across the cell to give a global increase in [Ca²⁺]_c.

(b) Some of the candidates proposed to assemble the MCS wherein SOCE occurs, or where Ca²⁺ is selectively transferred from IP₃Rs in the ER to mitochondria or lysosomes. ORP1L, oxysterol-binding-related protein 1L [71]; STARD3, StAR-related lipid transfer domain-3 [72]; P13P, phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate [65]; TPC, two-pore channel [70]; VAP, vesicle-associated membrane protein-associated proteins; PTPIP51, protein tyrosine phosphatase-interacting protein 51; Mfn1/2, mitofusin 1/2 [73,74]; Fis1, fission 1 homologue [75]; VDAC voltage-dependent anion channel [76]; Bap31, an ER integral membrane protein; RyR, ryanodine receptor; JP, junctophilins [77]; E-Syt, extended synaptotagmins [78]; PIP₂, phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate; DHPR, dihydropyridine receptor.

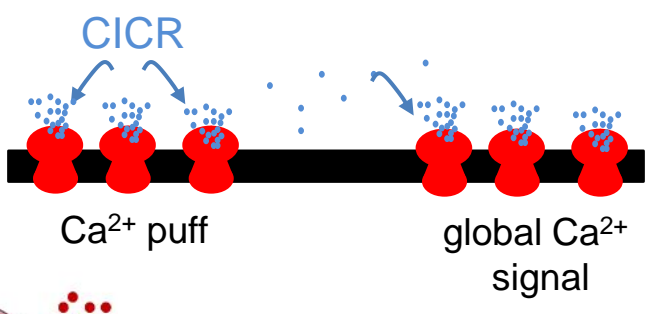
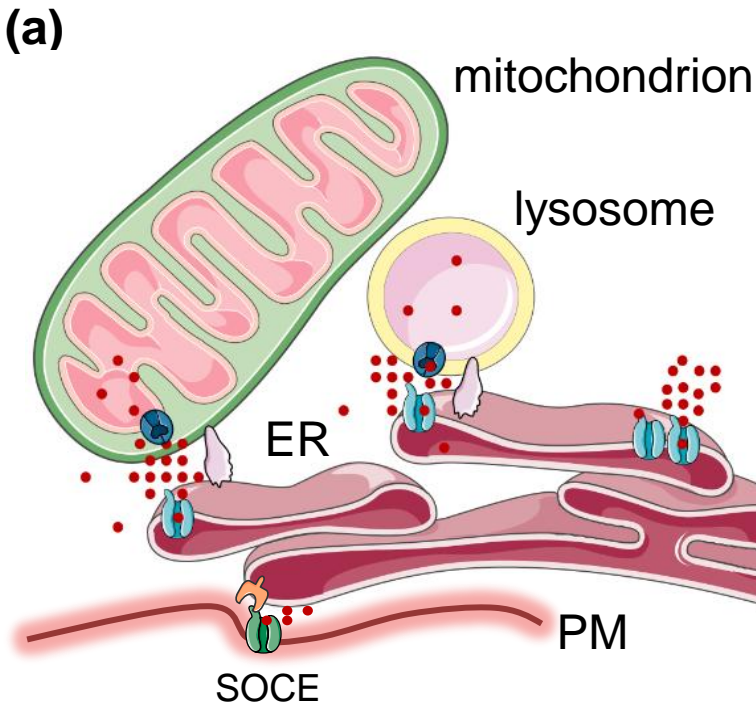
Figure 2

Local regulation of SOCE by licensed IP₃Rs. **(a)** Licensed clusters of IP₃Rs (green) parked alongside SOCE-MCS may allow substantial loss of Ca²⁺ from ER close to the PM, while negligibly affecting the much larger volume of ER deeper in the cell. The large local decrease in ER [Ca²⁺] may then locally activate STIM1, and thereby the Ca²⁺ channel, Orai1, that mediates SOCE. Active and inactive STIM1 dimers are shown in red and pink, respectively.

(b) Digital recruitment of all-or-nothing SOCE-MCS may allow graded activation of SOCE in cells.

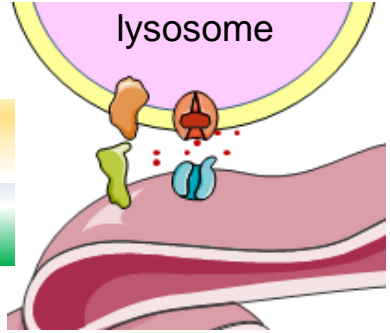
Figure 3

Delivering cytosolic Ca^{2+} to other organelles via the ER. **(a)** High-affinity Ca^{2+} pumps (SERCA) allow the ER to concentrate Ca^{2+} from the cytosol, where its concentration (~100 nM) is too low to allow sequestration by low-affinity uptake systems in mitochondria (MCU) or lysosomes (unknown, ?). When they open, IP_3Rs , with their large single-channel conductances, allow Ca^{2+} to be delivered from the ER to the organellar uptake systems at sufficient concentration to support their activity. **(b)** We can regard the ER as a piston that concentrates Ca^{2+} from the cytosol before squirting it at organelles within enclosed MCS.



(b)

ORP1L	STARD3	Rab7/PI3P	TPC
VAP	VAP	Protrudin	?



PTPIP51	IP ₃ R	Mfn2	Fis1
VAP	VDAC	Mfn1/ Mfn2	Bap31



STIM1	RyR	Junctophilins	E-syt1-3
Orai1/PIP ₂	DHPR	Lipids	PIP ₂

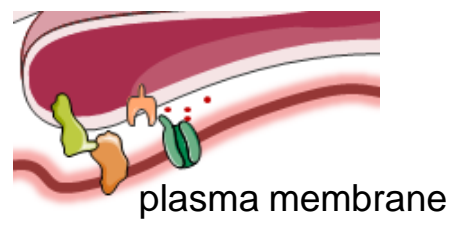


Figure 1

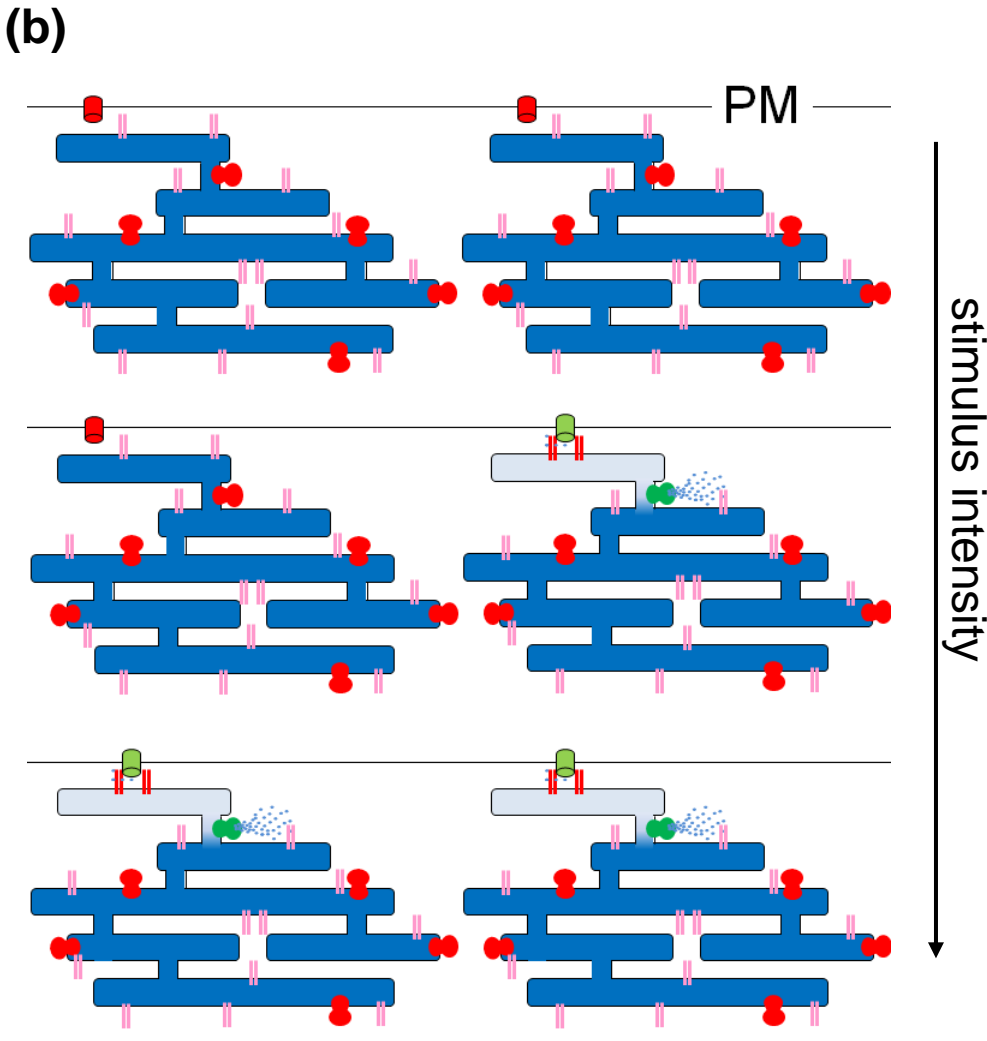
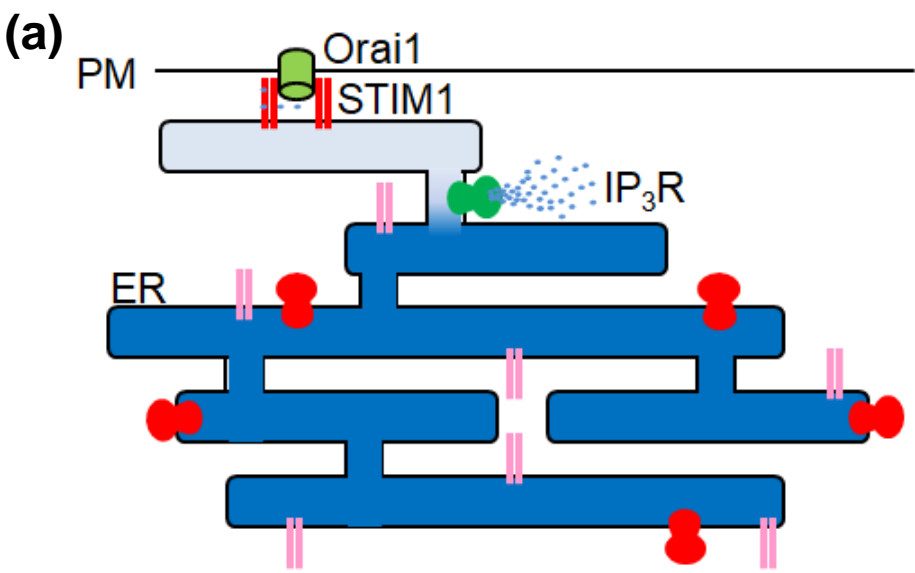


Figure 2

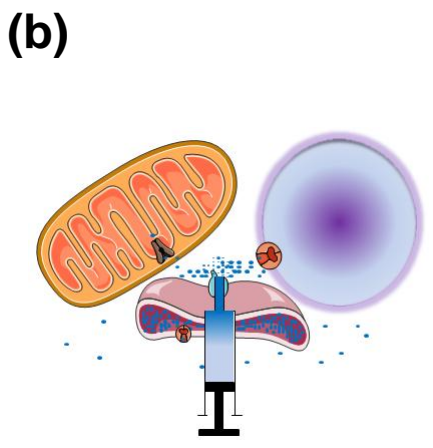
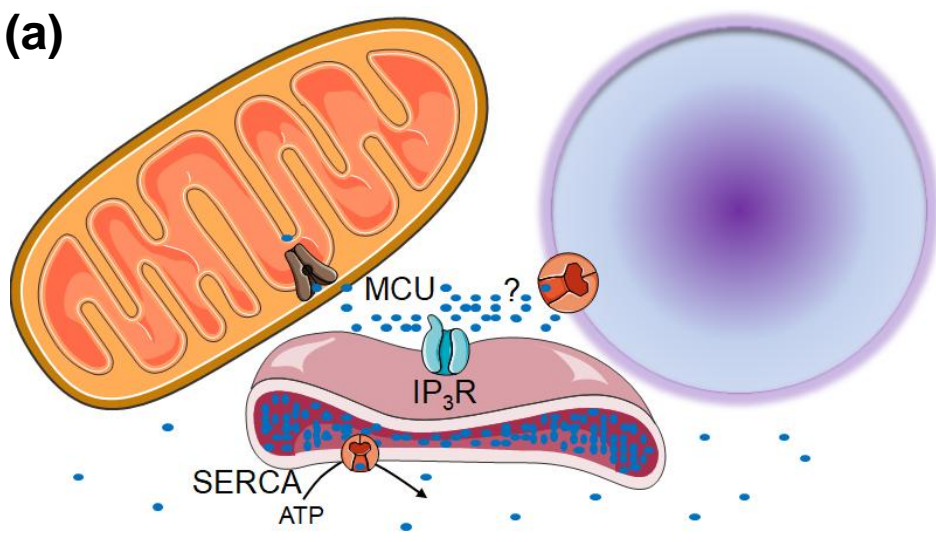


Figure 3

