

# SHIP2 Multiple Functions: A Balance Between a Negative Control of PtdIns(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> Level, a Positive Control of PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> Production, and Intrinsic Docking Properties

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## ABSTRACT

The SH2 domain containing inositol 5-phosphatase 2 (SHIP2) belongs to the family of the mammalian inositol polyphosphate 5-phosphatases. The two closely related isoenzymes SHIP1 (or SHIP) and SHIP2 contain a N-terminal SH2 domain, a catalytic domain, potential PTB domainbinding sites (NPXY), and C-terminal proline-rich regions with consensus sites for SH3 domain interactions. In addition, SHIP2 contains a unique sterile alpha motif (SAM) domain that could be involved in SAM–SAM domain interactions with other proteins or receptors. SHIP2 also shows the presence of an ubiquitin interacting motif at the C-terminal end. SHIP2 is essentially a  $PI(3,4,5)P_3$  5-phosphatase that negatively controls  $PI(3,4,5)P_3$  levels in intact cells and produce  $PI(3,4)P_2$ . Depending on the cells and stimuli,  $PI(3,4)P_2$  could accumulate at important levels and be a "second messenger" by its own. It could interact with a very large number of target proteins such as PKB or TAPP1 and 2 that control insulin sensitivity. In addition to its catalytic activity, SHIP2 is also a docking protein for a large number of proteins: Cytoskeletal, focal adhesion proteins, scaffold proteins, adaptors, protein phosphatases, and tyrosine kinase associated receptors. These interactions could play a role in the control of cell adhesion, migration, or endocytosis of some receptors. SHIP2 could be acting independently of its phosphatase activity being part of a protein network of some receptors, e.g., the EGF receptor or BCR/ABL. These non-catalytic properties associated to a PI phosphatase have also been reported for other enzymes of the metabolism of myo-inositol such as Ins(1,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> 3-kinases, inositol phosphate multikinase (IPMK), or PTEN. J. Cell. Biochem. 112: 2203–2209, 2011. © 2011 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

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**P** hosphatidylinositol, a membrane phospholipid, can be reversibly phosphorylated at the 3, 4, and 5 positions of myo-inositol to generate phosphoinositides (PIs). Seven are currently known in mammalian cells. Phosphoinositides play a fundamental role in cell physiology, signaling, and physiopathology [Blero et al., 2007; McCrea and De Camilli, 2009; Ooms et al., 2009]. Actually, the seven phosphoinositides display independent specific second messenger functions and therefore their production via PI kinases and removal via PI phosphatases are fundamental issues in cell signaling. PI phosphatases can act at the 3-, 4-, and 5-position of the inositol ring and a large number of enzymes, spliced and truncated isoforms that catalyze these reaction(s) have been reported in mammalian cells.

The most characterized product of PI 3-kinases is  $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ , a product of class I subclass of PI 3-kinases. It is a critical lipid second messenger that recruits key enzymes such as PDK1 or PKB which are

directly involved in the control of growth, proliferation, and cell survival [Wong et al., 2010]. PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> is also critical in oncogenic transformation. Two dephosphorylation pathways of PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> occur in mammalian cells: Dephosphorylation at the 3-position of the inositol ring catalyzed by PTEN and at the 5-position catalyzed by the inositol polyphosphate 5-phosphatases. The role of PTEN as a tumor suppressor gene is well established [Chalhoub and Baker, 2009]. The inositol polyphosphate 5-phosphatases (10 isoenzymes in human cells) are also implicated in numerous human diseases (discussed in McCrea and De Camilli [2009]). PTEN and inositol 5phosphatases are therefore attractive targets for therapeutic interventions.

The SH2 domain containing inositol 5-phosphatase SHIP1 (or SHIP) and SHIP2 contain a N-terminal SH2 domain, a catalytic domain, potential PTB domain-binding sites (NPXY), and C-terminal proline-rich regions with consensus sites for SH3 domain

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interactions as well as N-terminal proline rich sequences (Fig. 1) [Backers et al., 2003]. The catalytic domain of each enzyme is relatively well conserved with the other isoforms of the inositol 5phosphatase family. In addition, SHIP2 also contains a unique sterile alpha motif (SAM) domain that could be involved in SAM-SAM domain interactions particularly with the SAM domain of Arf-GAP, Rho-GAP, Ankyrin repeat and PH domain 3 (ARAP3), a GTPase activating protein [Raaijmakers et al., 2007], or that of the Ephrin A2 receptor [Zhuang et al., 2006]. Finally, an ubiquitin interacting motif at the C-terminal end of SHIP2 has been reported that confers ubiquitin binding capacity of the protein [De Schutter et al., 2009]. Both SHIP1/2 also show the presence of sequence areas with unusually high concentrations of proline, glutamic/aspartic acid, serine, and threonine, i.e., PEST sequences that might be target for calpain cleavage [Damen et al., 1998] or direct SHIPs to proteosomal degradation [Schnupf et al., 2006]. The substrate of SHIP2 is PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> and the reaction product is PI(3,4)P<sub>2</sub>. Purified enzyme can also use Ins(1,3,4,5)P<sub>4</sub> (the product of Ins(1,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> 3-kinases and inositol phosphate multikinase (IPMK)) as substrate but with a very much reduced specific activity as compared to the ubiquitous type I Ins(1,4,5)P<sub>3</sub>/Ins(1,3,4,5)P<sub>4</sub> 5-phosphatase. PI(4,5)P<sub>2</sub> was also identified as a substrate of SHIP2 and in one study, SHIP2 negatively regulates PI(4,5)P<sub>2</sub> levels in intact COS-7 cells [Nakatsu et al., 2010]. Based on many data in different models [Taylor et al., 2000], we and others have proposed that SHIPs are essentially PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> 5phosphatases that negatively control PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> levels in intact cells and produce PI(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> [Blero et al., 2007].

SHIP1/2 are very much studied due to their implication in immune response, myeloid cell survival for SHIP1 and insulin signaling and the control of obesity for SHIP2 [Huber et al., 1999; Liu et al., 1999; Clement et al., 2001]. This was concluded from in vivo studies of knockout mice for the two genes. Recent studies also provided evidence suggesting that SHIP1 may act as a tumor suppressor during leukemogenesis and lymphomagenesis [Hamilton et al., 2011]. The SHIP2 function in insulin signaling in mice is probably not unique. SHIP2-null mice showed a distinctive truncated facial profile resulting from an abnormality in skeletal growth in that region [Sleeman et al., 2005]. Loss of *SHIP2* in zebrafish leads to an increased and expanded expression of outputs of FGF-mediated signaling [Jurynec and Grunwald, 2010]. A series of proteomic studies provided evidence of a role of SHIP2 in the signaling pathways of growth factors such as EGF or FGF [Olsen et al., 2006]. Together these three last reports suggest that SHIP2 is involved in many aspects of cell signaling in different cell models and human diseases such as diabetes, cancer, and artherosclerosis (for a review see Suwa et al. [2010]).

How do cells exert specific control of  $PI(3,4,5)P_3$  levels via SHIP2 as compared to PTEN? Knowing that a large number of SHIP2 phospho sites have been identified, what is the role of SHIP2 phosphorylation, particularly on tyrosine? Is SHIP2 used as a mechanism to produce  $PI(3,4)P_2$  (and related target proteins and associated second messenger function(s))? Is SHIP2 used as a docking protein at the vicinity of receptors, phosphatases or cytoskeletal proteins? Does this imply a role of SHIP2 unrelated to its phosphatase activity? Those questions will be discussed here.

#### SHIP2 TYROSINE PHOSPHORYLATION

SHIP2 tyrosine phosphorylation has been reported in response to growth factors (EGF, PDGF), insulin, immunoreceptors, cell attachment, and spreading in HeLa cells [Habib et al., 1998; Pesesse et al., 2001; Prasad et al., 2001]. It occurs essentially at two sites Tyr-986 and Tyr-1162 in human SHIP2 [Olsen et al., 2006]. This event has been associated to four different properties: (i) *Change in inositol phosphatase activity*: It was proposed that SHIP2 tyrosine phosphorylation in response to EGF or to vanadate may further activate SHIP2 phosphatase activity [Batty et al., 2007]. This remains controversed in many reports, e.g., in neuroblastoma cells where no change in activity occurred following SHIP2 tyrosine phosphoryla-

tion [Taylor et al., 2000]. It is possible that change in activity could be linked to a particularly large increase in tyrosine phosphorylated SHIP2 in vanadate treated cells, a situation which is not observed in insulin or EGF stimulated cells (WEE and CE, unpublished data); (ii) change in subcellular localization: In most cells, SHIP2 localization in serum starved cells is perinuclear [Deneubourg et al., 2009]: Short-term cell stimulation by EGF or serum (5 min) often results in the translocation of SHIP2 to the plasma membrane, i.e., at the site of PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> production. This was observed, e.g., in HeLa cells and could be correlated with SHIP2 phosphorylation on tyrosine (Fig. 2). Another possibility is that membrane translocation of SHIP2 is necessary for its tyrosine phosphorylation by Src kinases as shown in transformed myeloid cells. Also in this case, tyrosine phosphorvlation of SHIP2 serves as a correlate of SHIP2 activation; (iii) change in protein-protein interaction: Tyrosine phosphorylation has also been found responsible for the recruitment of adaptors such as Shc to SHIP2 in p210(BCR/ABL)-expressing hematopoietic cells [Wisniewski et al., 1999]. This may not be general while much more cell-specific; (iv) change in SHIP2 mono-ubiquitination: SHIP2 mono-ubiquitination has been reported. In COS-7 cells, it was maximal at 30 min stimulation by EGF and no longer observed after transfection of a mutant of SHIP2 that could not be phosphorylated on Y986. The data suggest that SHIP2 Y986 phosphorylation may trigger a conformational change that promotes SHIP2 monoubiquitination in COS-7 cells [De Schutter et al., 2009].

Finally, it is worth mentioning that SHIP2 serine and threonine phosphorylation have been reported in large scale proteomic studies (see PhosphositePlus). Whether this could have an impact on SHIP2 function is currently not known.

# PtdIns(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> PHOSPHATASE ACTIVITY AND PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> FORMATION

A major impact of SHIP2 in cells is to negatively control the PtdIns(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub>/PKB pathway and therefore to promote cell survival [Yu et al., 2008]. In this context, evidence has been provided in mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) and other cells that SHIP2 acts on agonist-provoked stimulated levels of PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub>, whereas PTEN acts at basal level and is still active after long-term stimulation [Blero et al., 2007]. In addition to this negative control, SHIP2 is also producing PtdIns(3,4)P2 (particularly in response to PDGF, vanadate, or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) [Batty et al., 2007]. SHIP2 is, therefore, an enzymatic pathway for PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> and further metabolism to PI(3)P that function as second messengers [Ivetac et al., 2005]. Inositol polyphosphate 4-phosphatase-II (INPP4B) an enzyme that acts on PtdIns(3,4)P2 as substrate is a tumor suppressor in epithelial carcinomas and is lost in some human basal-like breast cancers [Fedele et al., 2010]. This indicates that PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> is tightly regulated and may accumulate at different levels depending on the cells. This could explain the observation of pro-oncogenic and anticancer effects of SHIP2 in different cell models as PtdIns(3,4)P2 is also an activator of PKB [Suwa et al., 2010]. The importance of PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> and second messenger function is also underscored by the recent genetic evidence of a role of TAPP1 (tandem pleckstrin homology domain containing protein-1) and TAPP2 adaptors binding to PtdIns $(3,4)P_2$  in regulating whole body insulin sensitivity in mice [Wullschleger et al., 2011]. In this case, PtdIns(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> is controlled at two steps: directly via SHIP2 phosphatase activity and indirectly via PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> production and a negative feedback loop



that down-regulates the insulin and PI 3-kinase network. Finally, catalytic activity of SHIP2 is important for efficient lamellipodia formation and cell spreading in HeLa cells [Prasad et al., 2001]. It is possible here that PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub> interacts with specific proteins in this model.

#### SHIP2 INTERACTION IN A NETWORK OF CYTOSKELETAL PROTEINS, PROTEIN PHOSPHATASES, AND TYROSINE KINASE RECEPTORS (Table I)

An interaction between SHIP1 and the actin cytoskeleton was initially observed in human platelets stimulated by thrombin: Tyrosine phosphorylated SHIP1 was relocated to the cytoskeleton upon activation in an aggregation and integrin engagementdependent manner. The same relocation event was observed with SHIP2, except that SHIP2 exhibited a higher affinity for the cytoskeleton network, even in resting platelets [Giuriato et al., 2003]. The interaction between SHIP2 cytoskeletal and focal adhesion proteins has been widely reported in many different cells: Filamin, the c-Cbl-associated protein (CAP), p130<sup>Cas</sup>, c-Cbl, vinexin, or ARAP3 [Dyson et al., 2001; Prasad et al., 2001; Vandenbroere et al., 2003; Paternotte et al., 2005; Raaijmakers et al., 2007]. Other interactors involve adaptors (DOK1), APS, immunoreceptors, and some growth factor receptors particularly the EGF receptor (Table I). Finally, two reports have pointed out an interaction between SHIP2 and protein phosphatases either directly or indirectly: (i) In vitro substrate trapping identified eight proteins bound to the active site of protein-tyrosine phosphatase 1B (PTP1B): SHIP2 was one of the identified substrate [Mertins et al., 2008] and (ii) mass spec analysis

TABLE I. Identified SHIP2 Interacting Proteins

SHIP2 protein	Method used
interactors	for identification
Receptors	
EĜF	co-immunoprecipitation [Pesesse et al., 2001]
PDGF	co-immunoprecipitation [Taylor et al., 2000]
FcγRIIb (ITIM)	co-immunoprecipitation [Muraille et al., 2000]
FcyRIIA (ITAM)	co-immunoprecipitation [Pengal et al., 2003]
CSF	mass spec [Wisniewski et al., 1999]
cMET	yeast two hybrid [Koch et al., 2005]
Abl	mass spec [Brehme et al., 2009]
Ephrin A2	yeast two hybrid [Zhuang et al., 2006]
Adaptors/regulators	
Shc	co-immunoprecipitation [Habib et al., 1998]
p130 <sup>Cas</sup>	co-immunoprecipitation [Prasad et al., 2001]
p85α	mass spec [Brehme et al., 2009]
APS	yeast two hybrid [Onnockx et al., 2008]
DOK1	mass spec [Cunningham et al., 2010]
JIP1	yeast two hybrid [Xie et al., 2008a]
Cytoskeletal proteins and/or regulators of endocytosis	
c-Cbl	yeast two hybrid [Vandenbroere et al., 2003]
vinexin	yeast two hybrid [Paternotte et al., 2005]
filamin	yeast two hybrid [Dyson et al., 2001]
intersectin 1	yeast two hybrid [Xie et al., 2008b]
ARAP-3	yeast two hybrid [Raaijmakers et al., 2007]
CIN-85	mass spec [Havrylov et al., 2009]
Protein phosphatases and subun	lits
PTP1B	mass spec [Mertins et al., 2008]
PR130	mass spec [Zwaenepoel et al., 2010]

The identification of interactors is largely depending on the cell model and may not be general. It also refers to specific methods for identification as indicated. identified PR130/B" $\alpha$  (PR130) regulatory B-type subunit of protein phosphatase 2A (PP2A) as another interaction partner of SHIP2 [Zwaenepoel et al., 2010]. Together, the data suggest possible regulation of Tyr, Ser, or Thr phosphorylation of SHIP2 particularly in response to EGF.

An interesting concept was recently proposed in the study of the SHIP2 interactor intersectin 1. This scaffold protein was initially identified by yeast two hybrid-based study and at endogenous level (e.g., in C2C12 cells) by reciprocal co-immunoprecipitation between SHIP2 and intersectin [Xie et al., 2008b]. It was subsequently confirmed in rat brain in pull down experiments using a construct of the proline rich region of SHIP2 stretching from amino acid 1022-1078 [Nakatsu et al., 2010]. SHIP2 was localized at endocytic clathrin coated pits an effect which is, at least in part, due to the interaction of intersectin and specific amino acids at SHIP2 Cterminal proline rich sequences (amino acids 1050-1054). Mutation of this motif in SHIP2 prevented the interaction and this SHIP2 mutant shows a diffuse localization with some accumulation at focal adhesions [Nakatsu et al., 2010]. This result is interesting as it illustrates the impact of SHIP2 protein partner(s) to specific cell localization. The presence or absence of an established protein partner (e.g., filamin, vinexin, or intersectin) may explain some specificity of SHIP2 localization in a given cell. In the same context, data have been reported that the identity of SHIP2 interactors, identified by co-immunoprecipitation, does vary according to the cell context: e.g., SHIP2 does not associate with Shc in IgE-activated RBL mast cells but it does in A20 B cells [Leung and Bolland, 2007]. If generalized to the SHIP2 interactome, this would provide specificity in SHIP2 localization and function depending on the cell model.

# SHIP2 IN A NETWORK OF NON-CATALYTIC MECHANISMS

SHIP2 silencing in HeLa cells leads to enhanced EGF receptor degradation, ubiquitination, and increased association of the EGF receptor with c-Cbl [Prasad and Decker, 2005]. In another cell model, in MDA-231 breast cancer cells, lowering endogenous SHIP2 expression decreases ligand-induced endocytosis of the Ephrin A2 receptor [Prasad, 2009]. In this model, SHIP2 promotes cell migration and this effect is associated to sustain EGF receptor-PKB signaling. Cytoskeletal abnormalities were also seen in SHIP2 knock down of HeLa cells. The correct localization of SHIP2 could lead to the generation of local pools of PtdIns(3,4)P<sub>2</sub>, thereby regulating the activity of guanine nucleotide exchange factors specific for Rho family of proteins [Raftopoulou and Hall, 2004]. Another possibility is that SHIP2 is acting as a scaffold for its interaction to cytoskeletal proteins. To give two examples, in macrophages incubated with IgG-coated SRBCs, SHIP2 can be recruited to the site of phagocytosis (the phagocytic cup) and colocalize with F-actin [Ai et al., 2006]. In K562 cells, an interaction proteome screen of BCR/ABL revealed only seven major core components including SHIP2. SHIP2 association to BCR/ABL may thereby provide a pathway for actin remodeling [Brehme et al., 2009].

The c-Jun NH2-terminal kinase (JNK)-interacting protein 1 (JIP1) was identified as a protein partner of SHIP2 in a yeast two hybrid screening [Xie et al., 2008a]. In transfection studies in COS-7 cells, it was shown that SHIP2 could modulate JIP-1 mediated JNK pathway, particularly JIP-1 tyrosine phosphorylation. The effect was still observed by the use of a catalytic mutant of SHIP2 instead of wild type SHIP2. These data are consistent with a role of SHIP2 docking properties independently of its catalytic activity provided that the levels of PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> are sufficient to be recognized (and used) as substrate for SHIP2. Finally, SHIP2 is a negative regulator of clathrin coated pits growth [Nakatsu et al., 2010]. Again, although local pools of phosphoinositides could participate in the mechanism, it is possible that docking properties of SHIP2 are also involved here, particularly with the scaffold protein intersectin.

It is of interest that the same concepts also apply for SHIP1: SHIP1 appeared to be required for platelet contractility and thrombus organization. In this model, SHIP1 may act on the actin cytoskeleton organization both via its docking properties and via its PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> 5-phosphatase activity [Severin et al., 2007].

### GENERALIZATION TO OTHER SIGNALLING ENZYMES ACTING ON INOSITOL PHOSPHATES OR PI

Inositol phosphate kinases are involved at multiple steps of the myoinositol cycle to phosphorylate inositol phosphates starting from Ins(1,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> up to InsP5, InsP6, InsP7, and InsP8. Inositol trisphosphate 3-kinase A (Itpka), one of the isoenzyme in the inositol trisphosphate 3-kinase family (specific for the 3-position), acts on  $Ins(1,4,5)P_3$  as substrate and catalyzes the production of Ins(1,3,4,5)P<sub>4</sub>. This enzyme shows a high affinity for F-actin at its N-terminal end and is very much enriched in dendritic spines in the hippocampus. Overexpression of Itpka in the lung carcinoma cell line H1299 induces the formation of actin-based cell protrusions and increases migration. This indicates that the cells lose their ability to form actin stress fibers and show increased invasive migration properties [Windhorst et al., 2008]. These effects are mediated by non-enzymatic activities of Itpka. Inositol phosphate multikinase (IPMK) can also act on Ins(1,4,5)P<sub>3</sub> as substrate to form Ins(1,4,5,6)P<sub>4</sub> and subsequently Ins(1,3,4,5,6)P<sub>5</sub>. IPMK appears to be a physiological mTOR cofactor, by controlling mTORC1 stability and amino acid-induced mTOR signaling. IPMK stabilizes mTOR-raptor binding in the mTORC1 complex. Data obtained in IPMK-depleted MEFs indicated that the action of IPMK on mTOR is independent of its catalytic activity [Kim et al., 2011]. SHIP1 inhibits CD95/APO-1/ Fas-induced apoptosis in T lymphocytes unexpectedly, by promoting CD95 N-glycosylation independently of its phosphatase activity [Charlier et al., 2010]. Finally, phosphatase-independent activity of nuclear PTEN regulates the anaphase-promoting complex (APC)-CDH1 also known as a tumor-suppressive complex. This observation provides an explanation for the tumor-suppressive activity that can be seen with catalytically inactive PTEN [Song et al., 2011]. Together, these four examples provide evidence that both inositol phosphatases and kinases of the metabolism of PI have additional important roles unrelated to their enzymatic activities but in relation to docking properties to particular domains of the protein.

### CONCLUSIONS

Considering the important role of tyrosine phosphorylation in cell signaling, we have discussed the consequences of SHIP2 tyrosine phosphorylation. It is often assumed (not always demonstrated) that SHIP1 and SHIP2 tyrosine phosphorylation could be an index of phosphatase activation [Batty et al., 2007]. Alternatively, two major mechanisms could be triggered by tyrosine phosphorylation: Firstly, the interaction between the phosphatase and a protein interactor that could be modulated by phosphorylation. This was already proposed for the PI 5-phosphatase OCRL and the Rab5 effector APPL1 phosphorylated by cAMP dependent protein kinase [Erdmann et al., 2007]. Secondly, tyrosine phosphorylation could serve as a signal for adjusting SHIP2 level. SHIP1 tyrosine phosphorylation promotes its polyubiquitination thereby adjusting SHIP1 level. The same mechanism may apply for SHIP2: in macrophages, IL-4 triggers the tyrosine phosphorylation and proteasomal degradation of both SHIP1 and SHIP2 [Ruschmann et al., 2010].

We have shown that, as a result of its structure, SHIP2 is clearly more complex and integrates multiple activities. SHIP2 function in intact cells recapitulates at least two major control mechanisms: Post-translational modifications (e.g., phosphorylation or ubiquitination) and interaction with specific protein interactors. Those identified interactors are cytoskeletal proteins, regulators of endocytosis, tyrosine kinase receptors, adaptors, and protein phosphatases therefore providing a link between a PI phosphatase and many aspects of cell signaling.

A possible structural model of SHIP2 involves three conformational states: a silent perinuclear state, an active state due to the presence of protein interactors, phosphorylation events, ubiquitination or enzyme-phospholipid interactions, and a third state that includes SHIP2 docking properties only (Fig. 3). Those properties of SHIP2 could influence localization of the enzyme as well as the ratio between individual phosphoinositides ( $PI(3,4,5)P_3$  and  $PI(3,4)P_2$ ) that cooperate in PKB activation. We have stressed the importance of potential SHIP2 non-catalytical mechanisms, their implication in





cell migration and spreading. Those non-catalytic mechanisms of SHIP2 could be generalized to other enzymes of the inositol cycle such as the IPMK, SHIP1, and PTEN. It could be speculated that more examples of such activities will be reported in the future. These noncatalytic functions may prove to be fundamental in cell signaling.

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