

Topical Review

Specific Inhibitors of Intracellular Ca^{2+} Transport ATPases

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Introduction

In addition to intracellular Ca^{2+} entry through the plasmamembrane, intracellular Ca^{2+} stores play an important role in regulation of the cytosolic Ca^{2+} concentration by releasing stored Ca^{2+} and rendering possible its function of second messenger (Carafoli, 1987). In turn, the intracellular stores are filled by active transport of cytosolic Ca^{2+} through the intervention of membrane bound ATPases. The first of these enzymes to be discovered was the Ca^{2+} transport ATPase of sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) (Hasselbach & Makinose, 1961; Ebashi & Lippman, 1962). Subsequently, cloning of cDNAs encoding homologous ATPases (MacLennan et al., 1985; Brandl et al., 1986; Genteski-Hamblin, Green & Shull, 1988; Burk et al., 1989; Lytton et al., 1989; Campbell et al., 1991) demonstrated the presence of several isoforms not only in SR, but also in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) of a wide variety of cells. Owing to their association with Sarco- and Endoplasmic Reticulum, and their Ca^{2+} dependence, these enzymes are referred to as SERCA ATPases. The SERCA isoforms display quite similar functional behaviors, although some differences have been noted in their functional regulation, turnover number and Ca^{2+} concentration dependence (Lytton et al., 1992).

It has been recently reported that various chemical compounds inhibit specifically the SERCA ATPases. The most specific and potent of these inhibitors is thapsigargin (TG), a sesquiterpene lactone (Fig. 1A) extracted from the root of the umbelliferous plant *Thap-*

sia garganica (Rasmussen et al., 1978; Christensen, Larsen & Rasmussen, 1982; Christensen, 1988). It was found that TG produces elevation of cytosolic Ca^{2+} (Thastrup et al., 1987a,b) and depletes intracellular Ca^{2+} stores (Jackson et al., 1988). It was then established that TG is a specific inhibitor of all tested SERCA ATPases (Campbell et al., 1991; Kijima, Ogunbunmi & Fleischer, 1991; Lytton et al., 1991; Sagara & Inesi, 1991), and not of other cation ATPases including the plasma membrane Na^+ , K^+ and Ca^{2+} ATPases (Lytton et al., 1991). Its chemical analogue thapsigargin (TGC; Fig. 1B), also extracted from the same plant, appears to produce similar effects.

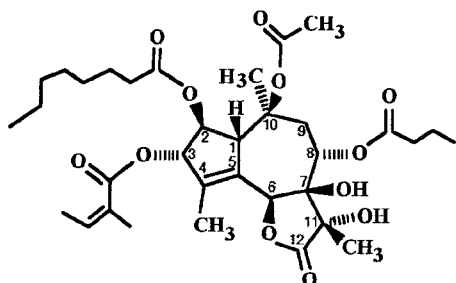
Another SERCA inhibitor is cyclopiazonic acid (CPA; Fig. 1C) which is one of the toxic metabolites produced by the molds *Penicillium cyclopium* and *Aspergillus flavus* (Holzapfel, 1968). Goeger, Riley and Dorner (1988) found that CPA is a potent inhibitor of Ca^{2+} sequestration and ATPase activity in SR of rat skeletal muscle, and suggested that this inhibition accounts for CPA toxicity. Yet another compound of interest is 2,5-di(t-butyl) hydroquinone (DBHQ; Fig. 1D). Hydroquinones are important industrial chemicals which are used as antioxidants, sunscreen components, and intermediates of some dyes (Murphy et al., 1992). DBHQ was found to inhibit ATP-dependent Ca^{2+} by liver microsomes, while it was ineffective on Ca^{2+} transport by mitochondria or plasma membrane (Moore et al., 1987).

The inhibitors of intracellular Ca^{2+} ATPases constitute a quite interesting and useful group of chemical compounds inasmuch as they provide important means of probing the catalytic and transport mechanism of these transport enzymes, their expression and regulation in cells, and the role of cytosolic Ca^{2+} stores in cell biology.

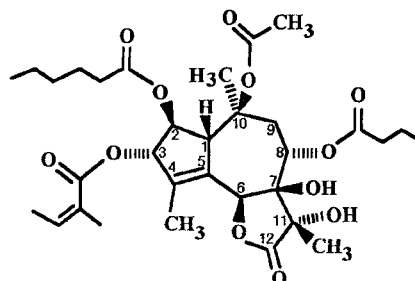
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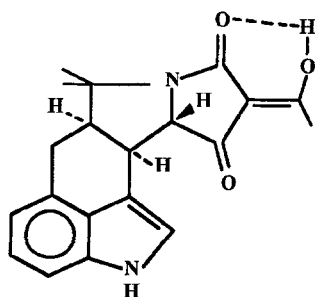
A. Thapsigargin (TG)



B. Thapsigargin (TGC)



C. Cyclopiazonic Acid (CPA)



D. 2,5-Di(tert-butyl)hydroquinone (DBHQ)

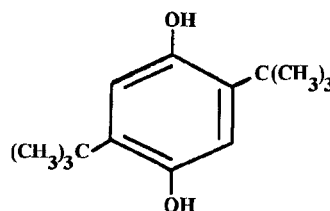


Fig. 1. Structures of Ca^{2+} ATPase inhibitors. (A) Thapsigargin (TG); (B) thapsigargin (TGC); (C) cyclopiazonic acid (CPA); (D) 2,5-di-(tert-butyl)-hydroquinone (DBHQ).

Formation of a Dead-End Enzyme-Inhibitor Complex

The inhibitory effect of TG is obtained by stoichiometric titration of the ATPase at concentrations as low as nanomolar or lower, and the resulting inhibition affects both Ca^{2+} transport and ATPase activity (Sagara & Inesi, 1991). It is of interest that if TG is added to enzyme preincubated with a Ca^{2+} chelator (e.g., EGTA), and then Ca^{2+} and ATP are added to start the reaction, the enzyme appears fully inhibited and no activity is observed. On the other hand, if TG is added to enzyme preincubated with Ca^{2+} , and then ATP is added to start the reaction, a single cycle of ATP utilization is observed before the inhibitory effect of TG takes place (Sagara et al., 1992a). This behavior is due to a requirement for Ca^{2+} dissociation, either by equilibration with EGTA or by utilization of ATP, in order to obtain the TG sensitive state of the enzyme. This can be viewed diagrammatically in Fig. 2 where it is shown that the enzyme (*E*) is activated by high affinity binding of cytosolic Ca^{2+} in exchange for H^+ . ATP is then utilized

by formation of a phosphorylated enzyme intermediate, which is followed by vectorial dissociation of the bound Ca^{2+} in exchange for H^+ . Finally, hydrolytic cleavage of the intermediate takes place. TG interacts only with the Ca^{2+} free enzyme state, thereby forming a dead-end inhibitory complex. If the enzyme resides in the $\text{E} \cdot \text{Ca}_2$ state when TG is added, a full cycle of ATP utilization must occur before the $\text{H}_2 \cdot \text{E}$ state is obtained, to render the enzyme sensitive to TG.

Another interesting feature of the TG inhibition is its global character, involving the entire ATPase molecule. In fact, it is possible to study separately the Ca^{2+} binding reaction and the phosphorylation reaction of the ATPase cycle: the former reaction is studied by equilibrating the enzyme with Ca^{2+} in the absence of ATP; the latter reaction is studied by equilibrating the enzyme with P_i in the absence of Ca^{2+} and ATP. Under these conditions, either reaction occurs independently of the other and in the absence of enzyme turnover. It is then possible to demonstrate that both Ca^{2+} binding and the phosphorylation reaction are inhibited by TG (Sagara et al., 1992a) with a competitive behavior with respect to

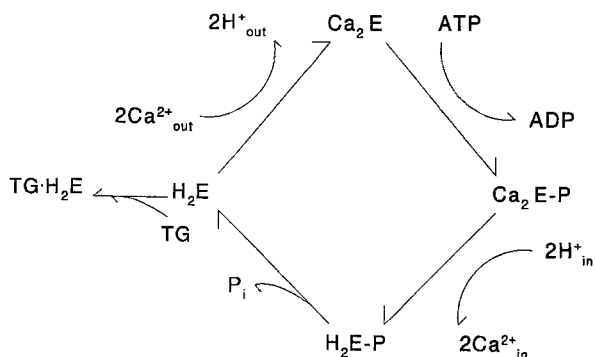


Fig. 2. Diagram of the Ca^{2+} ATPase cycle and TG interaction. The enzyme (E) is activated by high affinity binding of cytosolic Ca^{2+} in exchange for H^+ . ATP utilization is followed by formation of a phosphorylated enzyme intermediate, and then by vectorial translocation of bound Ca^{2+} . TG reacts specifically with the Ca^{2+} free enzyme ($H_2 \cdot E$) and forms a dead-end complex.

Ca^{2+} and P_i . Since these two reactions occur in enzyme domains which are distant from each other (Inesi, Sumbilla & Kirtley, 1990), it is apparent that the effect of a single bound TG extends over the entire ATPase molecule. The global effect of TG on the ATPase protein is also demonstrated by its induction of ordered enzyme arrays (Sagara, Wade & Inesi, 1992b and Fig. 3).

From the standpoint of the TG chemical structure, the inhibitory activity of TG is strongly configuration dependent, with a major contribution from the ester groups at C_3 , C_8 and C_{10} , and an apparently minor contribution from the lactose ring substituents (Christensen et al., 1993). It is most interesting that simple epimerization of the ester bound at C_8 produces a three order of magnitude reduction of inhibitory potency. With regard to the location of TG binding within the ATPase molecule, it was found that chimeric enzymes in which the large cytosolic domain of the Ca^{2+} ATPase (containing the catalytic domain) was replaced by the corresponding domain of the Na^+, K^+ ATPase, retain TG sensitivity (Sumbilla et al., 1993). Since the Na^+, K^+ ATPase is not sensitive to TG, it appears that TG sensitivity must be conferred to the chimeric proteins by either one of the segments derived from the Ca^{2+} ATPase, i.e., the transmembrane region and a small cytosolic loop near the amino terminal. Definitive identification of the TG binding domain must wait for the availability of chemically reactive TG analogues to be used in direct labeling experiments.

As for the mechanism of the other inhibitors, it can be argued that TGC must act quite similarly to TG, owing to its analogous chemical structure. On the other hand, CPA and DHBQ appear to have a lower affinity than TG, as they are effective in the micromolar range compared to the nanomolar range of TG. It was

reported that CPA is a stoichiometric inhibitor, whose interaction with the SR ATPase is favored by low ATP concentrations (Seidler et al., 1989). DHBQ was shown to inhibit SERCA ATPases (Kass et al., 1989) by a mechanism quite similar to that of TG (Wictome et al., 1992).

Intracellular Ca^{2+} ATPase Inhibitors Interfere with Cell Proliferation and Several Specific Cell Functions

Numerous cell functions triggered by signals originating from the plasma membrane, through stimulation of G protein or tyrosine kinase linked receptors, are activated through signaling pathways involving intracellular ryanodine or inositol triphosphate receptors and leading to Ca^{2+} release from intracellular stores (Berridge, 1993). The consequent elevation of cytosolic Ca^{2+} occurs with specific spatiotemporal patterns which are involved in control and/or regulation of functions such as contractility, sensory perception, neuromodulation, fertility, development, growth and transformation. In turn, the availability of intracellular Ca^{2+} is dependent on the function of Ca^{2+} transport ATPases, which are bound to sarco- and endoplasmic reticulum membranes and operate active transport of cytosolic Ca^{2+} into intracellular compartments.

It was observed in early experiments that TG and TGC produce histamine release in various cell types (Rasmussen, Christensen & Sandburg, 1978; Ali et al., 1985), activate platelets (Thastrup et al., 1987a,b), and affect proliferation of lymphocytes (Scharff et al., 1988). It was reported that these effects were mediated by transient elevation of cytosolic Ca^{2+} (Jackson et al., 1988; Scharff et al., 1988) which was not due to activation of specific Ca^{2+} release mechanisms, but rather to inhibition of transport ATPases which are responsible for steady-state filling of intracellular stores (Thastrup et al., 1990). A clear case of specific functional interference produced by the emptying of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores by TG was observed with regards to contractile activation of cardiac myocytes (Kirby et al., 1992). Furthermore, TG has been reported to affect EGF receptor phosphorylation (Takishima et al., 1988), and *c-fos* and *c-jun* proto-oncogene expression (Schönthal et al., 1991). More generally, exposure of cells to TG and DHBQ results in depletion of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores and inhibition of cell proliferation (Ghosh et al., 1991; Short et al., 1993; see Fig. 4). Reports on the use of TG for experimental perturbation of the cytosolic Ca^{2+} homeostasis are quite numerous, and beyond the scope of this brief review. It is of interest that emptying of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores by TG or DHBQ appears to stimulate entry of extracellular Ca^{2+} into the cytoplasm through plasmalemmal channels (Takemura et al.,

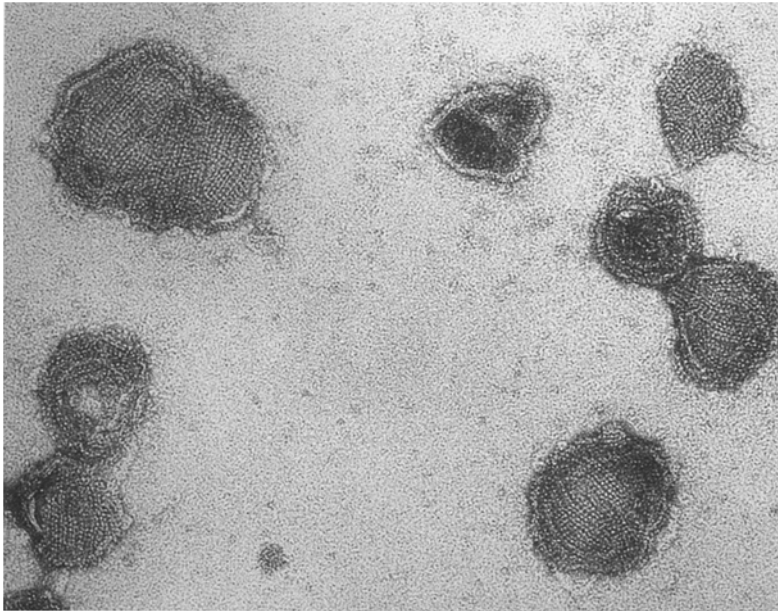


Fig. 3. The global effect of TG is reflected by facilitation of ATPase bidimensional ordering. SR vesicles were suspended in 20 mM MOPS buffer, pH 7.0, 80 mM KCl, 5 mM Mg Cl_2 , 0.20 mM EGTA, 0.25 mM Ca Cl_2 , 0.1 μM TG, and 5 mM decavanadate. A control in the absence of TG did not form ordered arrays. The samples were stained with uranyl acetate and examined by electron microscopy (Sagara et al., 1992b). 155,000 \times magnification.

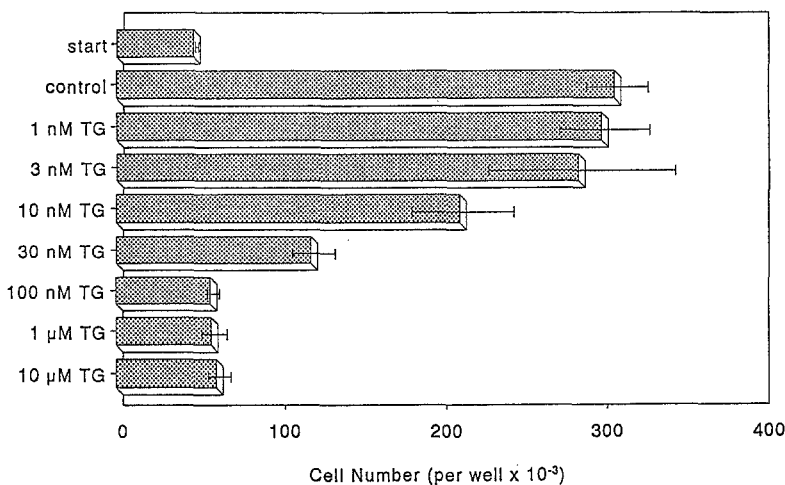


Fig. 4. Inhibition of cultured DDT, MF-2 cells proliferation by thapsigargin. The number of cells per well is shown as a function of the TG concentration in the culture medium (Ghosh et al., 1991).

1989; Bird et al., 1991; Clementi et al., 1992; Hoth & Penner, 1992; Robinson et al., 1992). Such a mechanism, referred to as "capacitative calcium entry" (Putney, 1993), has been related to the intervention of a cytosolic messenger (Randriamampita & Tsien, 1993; Parekh, Terlau & Stühmer, 1993).

Caution on the interpretation of TG effects on whole cells is dictated by the possibility that the intracellular Ca^{2+} stores are heterogeneous and not equally affected by TG (Rossier & Putney, 1991; Gill et al., 1992). Furthermore, development of cell lines acquiring resistance to TG either by overexpression of Ca^{2+} transport ATPase, or by intervention of scavenging proteins such as the multidrug resistance p-glycoprotein has been reported (Gutheil et al., 1994). Given a demonstrated effect on the whole cell, it is then necessary to exclude that another system in addition to the Ca^{2+}

transport ATPases is involved, especially when relatively high concentrations of inhibitors are used. For instance, in addition to a major effect on the dense tubular Ca^{2+} transport ATPase, TG has also minor effects on the plasmamembrane Ca^{2+} transport ATPase and plasmamembrane Ca^{2+} leak of platelets (Tao & Haynes, 1992).

Conclusive Remarks

It has been recently discovered that the intracellular Ca^{2+} transport (SERCA) ATPases can be inhibited by a number of compounds among which the plant extract TG appears to be the most potent and specific. TG interacts stoichiometrically with the state acquired by the enzyme in the absence of Ca^{2+} , and forms a dead-end

complex. The consequent conformational effect is reflected by facilitation of the enzyme's ability to form bidimensional crystals. The ATPase inhibitors interfere with the function of SR and ER Ca²⁺ stores, and with cytosolic Ca²⁺ signaling pathways. Consequently, a variety of cell functions linked to Ca²⁺ signaling are also interfered with. The inhibitors of intracellular Ca²⁺ ATPases promise to be very useful agents in molecular studies of ATPase mechanisms, as well as in studies of cell functions which are regulated by cytosolic Ca²⁺.

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