

PI(3,5)P₂ and NAADP: team players or lone warriors? – new insights into TPC activation modes

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Abstract: NAADP (nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate) is a second messenger, releasing Ca^{2+} from acidic calcium stores such as endosomes and lysosomes. $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ (phosphatidylinositol 3,5-bisphosphate) is a phosphoinositide, residing on endolysosomal membranes and likewise releasing Ca^{2+} from endosomes and lysosomes. Both compounds have been shown to activate endolysosomal two-pore channels (TPCs) in mammalian cells. However, their effects on ion permeability as demonstrated specifically for TPC2 differ. While $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ elicits predominantly Na^+ -selective currents, NAADP increases the Ca^{2+} permeability of the channel. What happens when both compounds are applied simultaneously was unclear until recently.

Keywords: TPC1, TPC2, NAADP, $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$, lysosome, endosome

1. TPCs: an introduction

Two pore channels (TPCs) belong to the superfamily of voltage-gated ion channels (VGIC) sharing with their relatives, similarities in basic transmembrane and overall channel structures. TPCs probably originated from a gene-duplication event of single Shaker-like domains typical of bacterial Na_v channels, K_v , TRP, and CatSper, which in turn underwent another round of gene duplication to form channels with four Shaker-like domains such as Ca_v or Na_v (20–30% sequence identity with particular domains) (Fig.1) [1–5]. They are therefore considered key evolutionary intermediates [3].

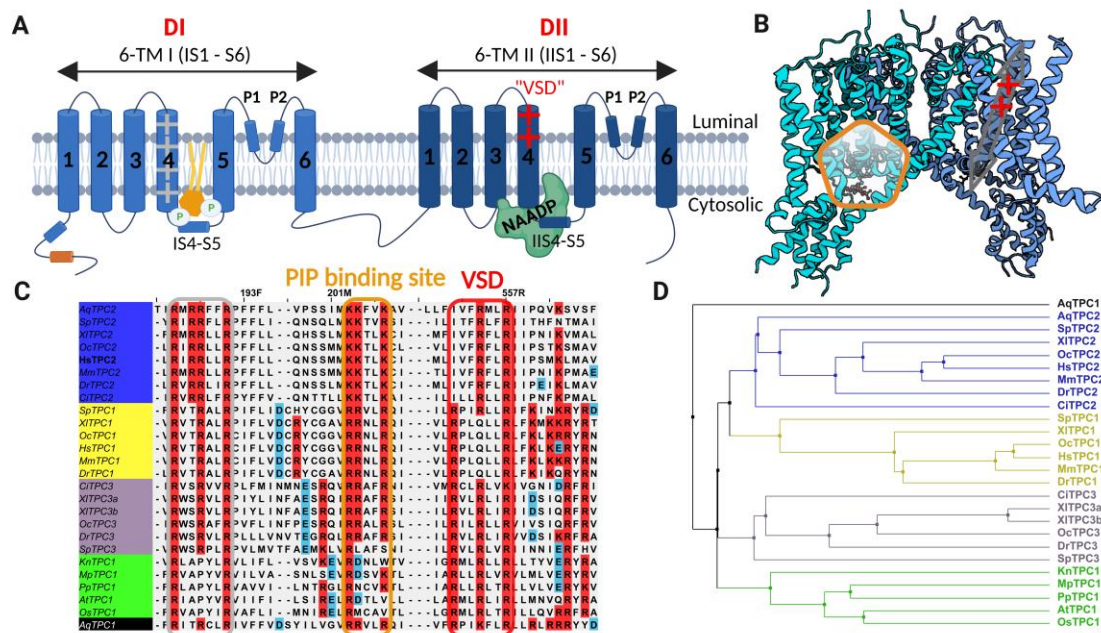


Fig.1 Structure and evolution of TPCs. (A) Illustrative 2D structure of TPCs (TPC2 used as example) depicting Shaker-like domains (DI and DII) spanning through the lipid membrane each consisting of six transmembrane (TM) segments (IS1–S6 and IIS1–S6). Depicted are: voltage sensing domains (VSD) – degenerated IS4, i.e. lacking key features of a canonical voltage sensor (gray crosses) [6–10] and cryptic IIS4, i.e. preserving some key features of a canonical voltage sensor such as formation of a 3₁₀ helix in part of IIS4 and the presence of the conserved gating charge transfer center (red crosses visualize positive charges; arginines) [9–12], ion-conducting pore forming loops (P1 and P2) between segments S5 and S6, PI(3,5)P₂ binding site near IS4-S5 and proposed

location of NAADP binding proteins interacting with TPCs (green spot) (B) 3D visualization of TPC topology (hTPC2 used as example; PDB accession number 6NQ0) with marked bound PI(3,5)P₂ and cryptic VSD. (C) Sequence alignment domains (PI(3,5)P₂ binding site and VSD2) in plant and animal TPCs (sequences taken from available databases (*Amphimedon queenslandica* (Aq), XP_019852734.1, XP_019856673.1; *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* (Sp), NP_001138446.2, NP_001138448.1, NP_001138449.1; *Xenopus laevis* (Xl), XP_018120624.1, XP_018116215.1, XP_018117727.1, XP_018112419.1; *Oryctolagus cuniculus* (Oc), UTN00728.1, NP_001137406.1, UTN00729.1; *Mus musculus* (Mm), NP_665852.1, XP_006508676.1; *Homo sapiens* (Hs), Q9ULQ1, Q8NHX9; *Danio rerio* (Dr), A0JMD4, C4IXV6, A2BHL7; *Ciona intestinalis* (Ci), XP_004226033.2, XP_002122201.1; *Klebsormidium nitens* (Kn), A0A1Y1ICK0; *Marchantia polymorpha* (Mp), A0A176W9B8; *Physcomitrium patens* (Pp), Q05KM6; *Arabidopsis thaliana* (At), Q94KI8; *Oryza sativa* (Os), Q5QM84) were aligned and analyzed using MAFFT). Positively and negatively charged amino acids are marked with red and blue color, respectively. Areas responsible for PI(3,5)P₂ binding and voltage sensing in the different TPC paralogues and orthologues from the same and different species are marked by frames. (D) TPC phylogenetic tree, visualized by cladogram generated based on average distance using percent sequence identity (Jalview v.2.11.2.4). Layout created with BioRender.com

TPC genes are rather common throughout evolution and together with mucolipins (TRPMLs/MCOLNs) represent families of Ca²⁺-permeable channels that localize to acidic organelles. While TPCs are expressed in endolysosomal vesicles in animals, they are found in vacuoles in plants [13–17,5]. TPCs are present throughout animal and plant lineages but not in fungi, whereas TRPMLs diversified greatly in animals, being to some extent present in fungi and green algae but absent from land plants. These two channel families have evolved independently, with the number of mucolipins steadily rising from 1 to 3-5 members during evolution while TPCs had reached a maximum of 6-7 in Apusozoa and sponges with only 2 remaining members in human, some primates and rodents, e.g. mouse while most other mammals still have 3

members [16,18]. In most species both endolysosomal channel families coexist [2,17,5,19].

In this review, we will discuss recent findings on TPC2 and its endogenous activators NAADP (nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate) and PI(3,5)P₂ (phosphatidylinositol 3,5-bisphosphate). NAADP is a Ca²⁺ mobilizing second messenger, which was originally postulated, after local Ca²⁺ release, to initiate Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release through inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors (IP₃Rs) and ryanodine receptors (RyRs) in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), giving rise to more global Ca²⁺ signals [20]. Ten years later, NAADP was demonstrated to mediate Ca²⁺ release from lysosomes via TPCs [10], a finding that was challenged shortly after by two other groups, claiming that not NAADP but PI(3,5)P₂, an endogenous phosphoinositide found predominantly on endolysosomal membranes, activates TPCs to release Na⁺ not Ca²⁺ [21,22]. A further decade on, as a result of high-throughput screenings novel lipophilic small molecule agonists of TPC2 (TPC2-A1-N and TPC2-A1-P), mimicking NAADP and PI(3,5)P₂, respectively, were discovered, revealing that TPCs may not only be changing their ion selectivity in a ligand-dependent manner (more Na⁺ with PI(3,5)P₂ and more Ca²⁺ with NAADP) [23] but also that co-application of both ligands further increases Ca²⁺ but not Na⁺ flux [24].

2. TPC diversity – multiple stimuli converging

Ion channel activities heavily depend on the microenvironment provided by their host membranes (lipid bilayer composition, membrane potential and interacting membrane proteins) and the surrounding liquid phase (extracellular, cytosolic, or luminal ion content and soluble interacting proteins). The interactions between the channels and their environment are key for a comprehensive understanding of their function and regulation [25]. TPC activation has been the subject of extensive study, which revealed regulation by e.g., Ca^{2+} , voltage, pH, phosphatidylinositol phosphates (PIPs) and nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NAADP) (Fig. 2) [26,15,14,27,28,21,29–31,8,32–36].

In animals, TPC-mediated cation fluxes are elicited by both $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ and NAADP, while in plants TPCs are insensitive to $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ and NAADP [37]. Other important differences exist between different species. Thus, differences in pH sensitivity of TPC2 activity in response to $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ were demonstrated between rabbit and human variants. While human TPC2 is largely independent in its activity from luminal pH, rabbit TPC2 activity decreases rapidly from pH 6.0 to pH 7.2 (luminal pH), but remains largely unchanged between pH 4.6 and pH 6.0 (luminal pH) [21,38]. In contrast, rabbit TPC3 activity increases with increasing luminal pH, similar to rabbit TPC1. This might be attributed to differences in subcellular localization, with TPC2 being predominantly found in highly acidic lysosomes, while TPC1 and TPC3 are also found in less acidic endosomes [38,39]. In line with this, TPC1 was found to be activated, in addition to $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$, by the $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ precursor PI3P (phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate) which is predominantly found on endocytic membranes, while TPC2 is activated only by

PI(3,5)P₂ [38]. Another example highlighting differences in phosphoinositide sensitivity is *Xenopus tropicalis* TPC3, which is activated by PI(3,4)P₂ and PI(3,5)P₂ [40], while zebrafish TPC3 is insensitive to these PIPs [29,41]. Regarding NAADP action, chicken and rat TPC3 may conduct Ca²⁺ ions in response to NAADP [42], whereas conflicting reports about the NAADP sensitivity of invertebrate TPC3 exist [43,44].

NAADP sensitivity and activation of TPCs, as mentioned above have long been a matter of debate with speculations over possible indirect activation mechanisms via accessory proteins [45]. Indeed, NAADP activation of TPCs and also RyRs gained some momentum recently with the discovery of several NAADP binding proteins, likely explaining why NAADP effects on TPCs were seen less consistently, especially in endolysosomal patch-clamp experiments (i.e., endolysosomes isolated and separated from the cytosol) than direct activation by PI(3,5)P₂ [46]. Two independent groups have described Jupiter microtubule-associated homolog 2 protein (JPT2, also called HNL1) as NAADP binding protein [47,48], activating RyRs and TPC1 but not TPC2 (Fig.2; for review see also: Krogsaeter et al., 2021) [49]. Two other proteins have been suggested to bind NAADP: the Sm-like protein Lsm12 [50,46,51] and aspartate dehydrogenase domain-containing protein (ASPDH) [52]. In the latter work, interaction of NAADP with the two previous putative NAADP receptors, JPT2 and Lsm12 could reportedly not be confirmed, while Zhang et al. (2021) showed evidence of TPC2 being activated by NAADP after Lsm12 binding. It remains enigmatic at this point, why so many different NAADP-binding proteins would be

necessary and whether they indeed are all mediators of NAADP effects on TPCs or whether, perhaps different NAADP binding proteins are necessary to target different channels (RyRs vs. TPCs; Fig.2).

3. NAADP and PI(3,5)P₂ – independent or interdependent?

TPCs are highly unusual in changing their selectivity upon ligand binding. This has recently been demonstrated in the context of the discovery of the first lipophilic TPC2 agonists [23]. It was found that the identified agonists resulted in predominant Na⁺ permeability (TPC2-A1-P) or a Na⁺ and Ca²⁺-permeable state (TPC2-A1-N). The two compounds were named TPC2-A1-P and TPC2-A1-N to reflect their functional similarity to PI(3,5)P₂ and NAADP as the former ones essentially mimic the effects of the latter ones despite being structurally different. For TPC2-A1-P it was demonstrated that the K204A mutation in TPC2 (the mutation is located within the PI(3,5)P₂ binding pocket) results in reduced activity, leaving TPC2-A1-N activity unaffected [23]. A binding site for TPC2-A1-N has not been discovered so far (Fig.1A,B). While stimulation with TPC2-A1-N evokes a readily recordable TPC2^{GCaMP}-mediated Ca²⁺ response in intact cells, TPC2-A1-P induces only a minor one, in line with endolysosomal patch-clamp evidence demonstrating larger Na⁺ currents with TPC2-A1-P and higher Ca²⁺ permeability with TPC2-A1-N [23,24]. Surprisingly, co-application of the two agonists evoked a markedly potentiated Ca²⁺ response compared to TPC2-A1-N or TPC2-A1-P alone [24]. Indeed, this was confirmed by both endo-lysosomal and whole-cell patch-clamp recordings under bi-ionic conditions using Ca²⁺ in the pipette

solution and Na^+ in the bath solution. TPC2-A1-N and TPC2-A1-P when co-applied or sequentially applied induced larger inward (into the cytosol from the lysosome) Ca^{2+} currents compared to the compounds applied alone. In marked contrast, the outward Na^+ currents were unchanged. Similar results were obtained when NAADP and $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ were co-applied [24]. TPC2 therefore selectively alters its Ca^{2+} permeability upon co-stimulation.

In response to the application of NAADP/TPC2-A1-N, TPC2 responds with a current characterized by a less negative reversal potential (~ -10 mV) and a higher $P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}$ value (0.6) compared to the current elicited by $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ /TPC2-A1-P (reversal potential of about -60 to -70 mV and $P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}$ of 0.04). The combination of the agonists, on the other hand, shows an intermediate value for the reversal potential of -30 to -40 mV, which corresponds to a $P_{\text{Ca}}/P_{\text{Na}}$ value of 0.2-0.3. Furthermore, by changing the application order of the synthetic and endogenous agonists, a “dominant effect” of TPC2-A1-N on TPC2 ion selectivity was demonstrated, as the subsequent application of TPC2-A1-P resulted in an increase of the Ca^{2+} current but did not affect the reversal potential. Thus, TPC2 activation by the combination of TPC2-A1-N and TPC2-A1-P seems to affect Ca^{2+} permeability independently from ion selectivity [24]. This could be due to a selective increase in Ca^{2+} conductance of the channel by the agonist combination.

Wang and Zhu (2022) corroborated these data recently and concluded that TPCs exhibit different modes of activation when stimulated by NAADP or $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$, respectively. Further, they showed that co-application of NAADP and $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$

synergistically activates TPC2 and proposed that PI(3,5)P₂ may be required for NAADP signaling [53]. These data are reminiscent of early studies showing that manipulation of PI(3,5)P₂ synthesis regulates NAADP-evoked Ca²⁺ signals in intact cells [31]. By contrast, experiments with vacuolin, which has an inhibitory effect on PIKfyve revealed that NAADP-AM activity is largely unaffected by PI(3,5)P₂ depletion, albeit incubation time with vacuolin was fairly short in that case [54].

4. Cytosolic Ca²⁺: a question of life and death?

Proper control of cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels e.g., in neurons is crucial for their development and function [55]. If not carefully controlled, spatially and temporally within cells, Ca²⁺ can cause severe cell dysfunctions and even cell death [56,57]. Ca²⁺ is also a prominent regulator of processes as diverse as gene transcription, cell motility, autophagy, proliferation, neuronal development, or cell growth [58]. By contrast, Ca²⁺ release from the ER and subsequent Ca²⁺ entry via plasma membrane (PM) Ca²⁺ channels and uptake by mitochondria can trigger apoptotic signals. So far, there is convincing evidence that endolysosomal cation channels, i.e., TRPMLs and TPCs play crucial roles in autophagy [59–67]. In neurodegenerative diseases (ND) such as Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's disease (PD), Huntington's disease or ALS (amyotrophic lateral sclerosis), intracellular protein inclusions or extracellular protein aggregates are common features and impairment in autophagy steps can cause or exacerbate the

accumulation of protein aggregates and ultimately lead to cell death. Promoting TRPML/TPC dependent autophagy and lysosomal exocytosis has consequently been postulated to ameliorate ND and neurodegenerative lysosomal storage disease (LSD) phenotypes [68–72,66], albeit for ND some works claim the opposite (discussed extensively in [67,73]). Regarding TPC2, beneficial effects on LSD phenotypes have been shown so far indeed only for TPC2-A1-P (PI(3,5)P₂ mode of activation). NAADP-like TPC2 activation may have a different outcome, which could be explained by the synergistic effect discussed above between NAADP and PI(3,5)P₂ leading to more Ca²⁺ release with the eventual possibility of triggering a global Ca²⁺ signal. That sustained high cytosolic Ca²⁺ can negatively impact LSDs has been indeed shown before, e.g., for Gaucher disease neurons [74] or in a mouse model of Sandhoff disease [75], emphasizing once again the necessary fine balance between too much and too little Ca²⁺, i.e. taking into account the spatial and temporal factor.

5. Final remarks and conclusions

The results by Gerndt et al. (2020) and Yuan et al. (2022) suggest that activation of TPC2 with TPC2-A1-P or PI(3,5)P₂ result only in very small, essentially local Ca²⁺ signals, which may be sufficient for e.g., triggering lysosomal exocytosis or endolysosomal fusion events or stimulating autophagy. By contrast, the production of NAADP as a consequence of upstream signalling would likely act on top of PI(3,5)P₂ as a complete lack of PI(3,5)P₂ in the endolysosomal membrane would be an unlikely scenario (the phenotype of a complete depletion

of PI(3,5)P₂ is lethal in the mouse model) [76]. Thus, NAADP addition would likely either enhance PI(3,5)P₂ mediated effects or result in globalized Ca²⁺ signalling, perhaps by enhancing interaction between lysosomes and ER [77]. As a consequence of the synergism, the Ca²⁺ released from TPC2 might lead to Ca²⁺ induced Ca²⁺ release by IP₃Rs and RyRs, expressed on the ER membrane [77–80] as claimed previously [20]. The release of Ca²⁺ from the ER in turn triggers Ca²⁺ influx from the extracellular space via PM Ca²⁺ channels [81–83].

In addition, lysosomal Ca²⁺ release has also been shown to promote Ca²⁺ transfer to mitochondria via the lysosomal Ca²⁺ channel TRPML1, which is defective in the lysosomal storage disorder mucopolipidosis type IV (MLIV; caused by TRPML1 mutations), adding to the MLIV pathophysiology. Whether such a crosstalk also exists between TPC-mediated Ca²⁺ release and mitochondria remain to be investigated [84].

In sum, we suggest that by lysosomal motility upon PI(3,5)P₂/NAADP co-application [23,24], ER-lysosome contacts may be facilitated and prolonged. Local Ca²⁺ signals from the lysosome may then propagate into a global Ca²⁺ response by stimulating Ca²⁺ release from the ER and subsequent Ca²⁺ influx across the PM. Local or global Ca²⁺ signals mediated through TPCs would therefore depend on the relative levels of PI(3,5)P₂ and NAADP, the presence of regulatory and auxiliary proteins such as NAADP-binding proteins and additional interacting proteins controlling TPC2 activity, e.g. mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) or Rab7, and the number and duration of contacts between ER and lysosomes [22,85]. TPC2 thus emerges as a channel tightly regulated by multiple

parameters, in a time- and space-dependent manner (Fig.2), which depending on the mode of activation might differentially affect physiological and pathophysiological states.

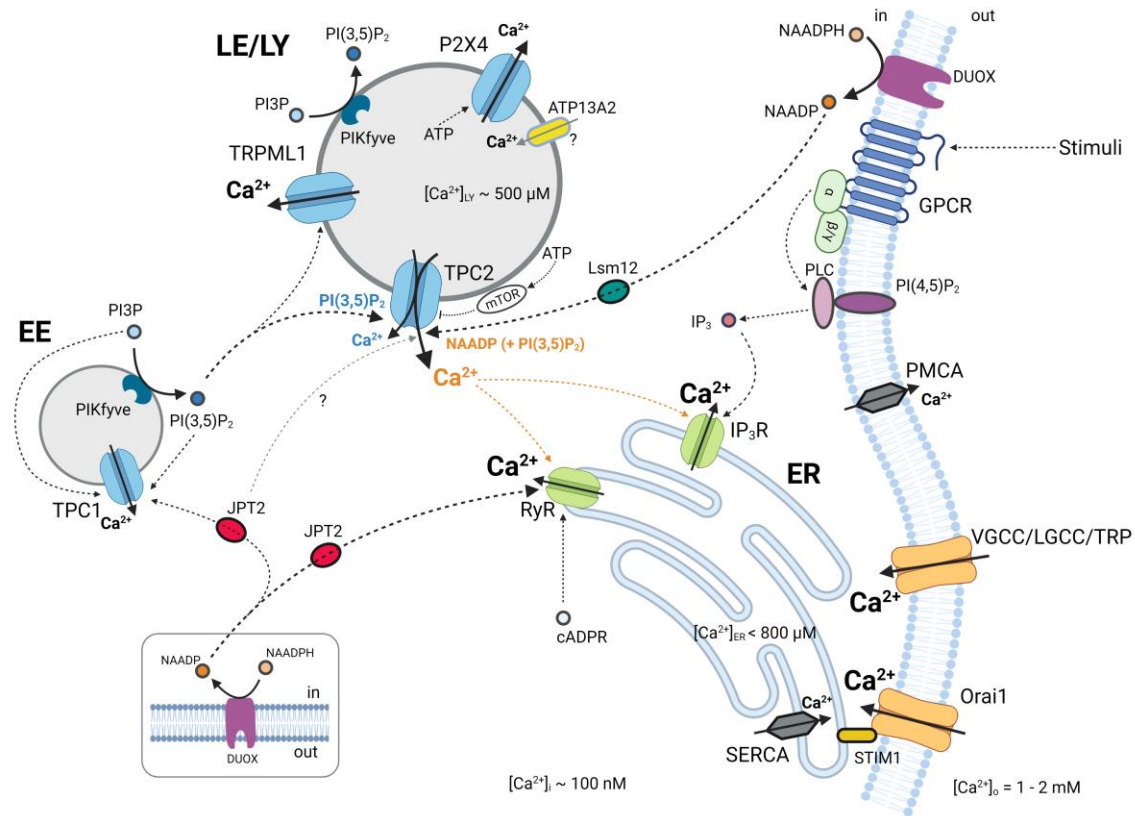


Fig.2 Intracellular Ca^{2+} signaling – an update. (A) Ca^{2+} signals are generated either from Ca^{2+} entering across the plasma membrane (through voltage- or ligand-gated Ca^{2+} channels (VGCC or LGCC), store-operated Orai channels and TRP channels) or Ca^{2+} release from intracellular Ca^{2+} stores (ER, lysosomes (LY), early and late endosomes (EE and LE)). The intracellular Ca^{2+} release is mediated by resident Ca^{2+} channels, such as IP₃Rs, RyRs, TPCs and P2X4, that open in response to the Ca^{2+} messengers (IP₃, cyclic ADP ribose (cADPR) and NAADP) and ATP. High levels of ATP enable mTOR to inhibit TPC2. NAADP may be produced via DUOX (challenging the hitherto prevailing, albeit debated view that it may be produced by CD38 [86–94]; a further postulated alternative would be SARM1) and binds to accessory proteins: Lsm12 to act on TPC2; and JPT2 to act on TPC1 as well as RyRs. PI(3,5)P₂ is produced by PIKfyve and activates TPCs and TRPMLs. The co-application of NAADP and PI(3,5)P₂ leads to a strong Ca^{2+} release by TPC2, which might induce Ca^{2+} induced Ca^{2+} release by IP₃R and RyRs, further stimulating Ca^{2+} influx across the PM by Orai. Sarcoendoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} ATPase (SERCA) and stromal interaction molecule (STIM) contribute to the Ca^{2+} homeostasis in the ER. Plasma

membrane Ca²⁺ ATPase (PMCA) modulates Ca²⁺ levels in the cytosol. ATP13A2 was claimed to transport Ca²⁺ to lysosomes. Note: organelles are not to scale [95–98,47,48,50,99,24,100]. Layout created with BioRender.com.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported, in part, by funding of the German Research Foundation DFG (SFB/TRR152 project P04, GR-4315/4-1, GR-4315/2-1, SFB1328 project A21 to C.G.), the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BB/T015853/1 and BB/W01551X/1) and by the NCL Stiftung, Hamburg, Germany.

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