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3	New insights in the IP ₃ receptor and its regulation		
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44 ABSTRACT

45

The inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) receptor (IP₃R) is a Ca^{2+} -release channel mainly 46 located in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Three IP₃R isoforms are responsible for the 47 generation of intracellular Ca²⁺ signals that may spread across the entire cell or occur locally 48 in so-called microdomains. Because of their ubiquitous expression, these channels are 49 involved in the regulation of a plethora of cellular processes, including cell survival and cell 50 51 death. To exert their proper function a fine regulation of their activity is of paramount importance. In this review, we will highlight the recent advances in the structural analysis of 52 the IP₃R and try to link these data with the newest information concerning IP₃R activation and 53 regulation. A special focus of this review will be directed towards the regulation of the IP_3R by 54 protein-protein interaction. Especially the protein family formed by calmodulin and related 55 Ca²⁺-binding proteins and the pro- and anti-apoptotic/autophagic Bcl-2-family members will 56 be highlighted. Finally, recently identified and novel IP3R regulatory proteins will be 57 discussed. A number of these interactions are involved in cancer development, illustrating 58 the potential importance of modulating IP₃R-mediated Ca²⁺ signaling in cancer treatment. 59

- 61 KEYWORDS
- 62
- 63 IP₃R
- 64 Ca²⁺ signaling
- 65 IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release
- 66 Calmodulin
- 67 Bcl-2
- 68 IRBIT
- 69 TESPA1
- 70 PKM2
- 71 BAP1
- 72 Cancer
- 73
- 74

75 ABBREVIATIONS

76		
77	a.a.	amino acids
78	BAP1	BRCA-associated protein 1
79	Bcl	B-cell lymphoma
80	BH	Bcl-2 homology
81	CaBP	neuronal Ca ²⁺ -binding protein
82	CaM	calmodulin
83	CaM1234	calmodulin fully deficient in Ca2+ binding
84	cryo-EM	cryo-electron microscopy
85	DARPP-32	dopamine- and cAMP-regulated phosphoprotein of 32 kDa
86	ER	endoplasmic reticulum
87	IBC	IP ₃ -binding core
88	IICR	IP ₃ -induced Ca ²⁺ release
89	IP ₃	inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate
90	IP₃R	IP ₃ receptor
91	IRBIT	IP_3R -binding protein released by IP_3
92	MLCK	myosin light chain kinase
93	NCS-1	neuronal Ca ²⁺ sensor-1
94	РК	pyruvate kinase
95	РКА	cAMP-dependent protein kinase
96	РКВ	protein kinase B/Akt
97	PLC	phospholipase C
98	PTEN	phosphatase and tensin homolog
99	RyR	ryanodine receptor
100	TCR	T-cell receptor
101	TESPA1	thymocyte-expressed, positive selection-associated 1
102	TIRF	total internal reflection fluorescence

103 TKO triple-knockout

105 **1 Introduction**

The inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) receptor (IP₃R) is a ubiquitously expressed Ca²⁺-106 107 release channel mainly located in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (1). The IP₃R is activated 108 by IP₃, produced by phospholipase C (PLC), following cell stimulation by for instance extracellular agonists, hormones, growth factors or neurotransmitters. The IP₃R is 109 responsible for the initiation and propagation of complex spatio-temporal Ca²⁺ signals that 110 control a multitude of cellular processes (2, 3). Moreover, dysfunction of the IP₃R and 111 deregulation of the subsequent Ca²⁺ signals is involved in many pathological situations (4-112 10). 113

There are at least three main reasons for the central role of the IP₃R in cellular signaling. 114 First, IP₃R signaling is not only dependent on the production of IP₃, but is also heavily 115 116 modulated by its local cellular environment, integrating multiple signaling pathways. Indeed, IP₃R activity is controlled by the cytosolic and the intraluminal Ca²⁺ concentrations, pH, ATP, 117 Mg²⁺ and redox state, as well as by its phosphorylation state at multiple sites. Furthermore, a 118 plethora of associated proteins can modulate localization and activity of the IP₃R (11-15). 119 120 Second, in higher organisms, three genes (ITPR1, ITPR2 and ITPR3) encode three isoforms (IP₃R1, IP₃R2, and IP₃R3). These isoforms have a homology of about 75% at the a.a. level, 121 allowing for differences in sensitivity towards IP_3 ($IP_3R2 > IP_3R1 > IP_3R3$) as well as towards 122 the various regulatory factors and proteins (12, 16-19). Splice isoforms and the possibility to 123 124 form both homo- and heterotetramers further increase IP₃R diversity. Third, the intracellular 125 localization of the IP₃Rs determines their local effect (1). Recently, an increased appreciation for the existence and functional importance of intracellular Ca²⁺ microdomains was obtained. 126 e.g. between ER and mitochondria, lysosomes or plasma membrane where IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ 127 release (IICR) occurs, allowing Ca²⁺ to control very local processes (20-24). 128 As a number of excellent reviews on various aspects of IP₃R structure and function have 129 130 recently appeared (25-32), we will in present review highlight the most recent advances

131 concerning the understanding of IP_3R structure and regulation, with special focus on recent

132 insights obtained in relation to IP₃R modulation by associated proteins.

133

134 2 New structural information on the IP₃R

The IP₃Rs form large Ca²⁺-release channels consisting of 4 subunits, each about 2700 a.a. long, that assemble to functional tetramers with a molecular mass of about 1.2 MDa. Each subunit consists of five distinct domains (**Figure 1 A**): the N-terminal coupling domain or suppressor domain (for IP₃R1: a.a. 1–225), the IP₃-binding core (IBC, a.a. 226–578), the central coupling domain or modulatory and transducing domain (a.a. 579–2275), the channel domain with 6 trans-membrane helices (a.a. 2276–2589) and the C-terminal tail or

141 gatekeeper domain (a.a. 2590–2749) (33).

The crystal structure of the two N-terminal domains of the IP₃R1 were first resolved 142 separately at a resolution of 2.2 Å (IBC with bound IP₃, (34)) and 1.8 Å (suppressor domain, 143 144 (35)). Subsequent studies analyzed the crystal structure of the full ligand-binding domain, i.e. the suppressor domain and the IBC together, resolved in the presence and absence of 145 bound IP3 at a resolution between 3.0 and 3.8 Å (36, 37). These studies indicated that the N-146 terminus of IP₃R1 consisted of two successive β-trefoil domains (β-TF) followed by an α-147 148 helical armadillo repeat domain. IP₃ binds in a cleft between the second β -trefoil domain and the α -helical armadillo repeat leading to a closure of the IP₃-binding pocket and a 149 conformational change of the domains involved (36-38). Recently, Mikoshiba and co-workers 150 succeeded to perform X-ray crystallography on the complete cytosolic part of the IP₃R (39). 151 This study was performed using truncated IP₃R1 proteins (IP₃R²²¹⁷ and IP₃R¹⁵⁸⁵) in which 152 additional point mutations (resp. R937G and R922G) were incorporated in order to increase the 153 quality of the obtained crystals. In addition to the three domains mentioned above (the two ß-154 trefoil domains and the α -helical armadillo repeat domain), three large α -helical domains 155 were described, i.e. HD1 (a.a. 605-1009), HD2 (a.a. 1026-1493) and HD3 (1593-2217) 156 (Figure 1 B). Binding of IP₃ induces a conformation change that is transmitted from the IBC 157 through HD1 and HD3, whereby a short, 21 a.a.-long domain (a.a. 2195-2215) called the 158 leaflet domain is essential for IP₃R function. 159

In parallel with the analysis of the IP₃R by X-ray crystallography, the structure of full-size 160 IP₃R1 was investigated by several groups by cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM), obtaining 161 increasingly better resolution (40). The structure of the IP₃R1 at the highest resolution 162 163 obtained by this method until now (4.7 Å) was published by Servsheva and co-workers and allowed modelling of the backbone topology of 2327 of the 2750 a.a. (41). As IP₃R1 was 164 purified in the absence of IP₃ and as Ca²⁺ was depleted before vitrification, the obtained 165 structure corresponds to the closed state of the channel (Figure 2). In total, ten domains 166 167 were identified: two contiguous β -trefoil domains (a.a. 1–436), followed by three armadillo solenoid folds (ARM1–ARM3, a.a. 437-2192) with an α -helical domain between ARM1 and 2. 168 an intervening lateral domain (ILD, a.a. 2193-2272), the transmembrane region with six 169 trans-membrane α -helices (TM1-6) (a.a. 2273-2600), a linker domain (LNK, a.a. 2601–2680) 170 171 and the C-terminal domain containing an ~80 Å α -helix (a.a. 2681–2731) (Figure 1 C). The latter domains of the four subunits form together with the four TM6 helices (~55 Å) a central 172 core structure that is not found in other types of Ca²⁺ channels. The four transmembrane 173 TM6 helices thereby line the Ca²⁺ conduction pathway and connect via their respective LNK 174 175 domains with the cytosolic helices.

How binding of IP_3 is coupled to channel opening is still under investigation. An interesting 176 aspect of the IP₃R structure thereby is the fact that either after mild trypsinisation of IP₃R1 177 178 (42) or after heterologous expression of the various IP₃R1 fragments corresponding to the 179 domains obtained by trypsinisation (43), the resulting structure appeared both tetrameric and 180 functional. This indicates that continuity of the polypeptide chain is not per se needed for signal transmission to the channel domain, although the resulting Ca²⁺ signals can differ, 181 depending on the exact cleavage site and the IP_3R isoform under consideration (44, 45). 182 Meanwhile, various models for the transmission of the IP_3 signal to the channel region were 183 proposed for IP₃R1, including a direct coupling between the N-terminus and the C-terminus 184 (41, 46-48) and a long-range coupling mediated by the central coupling domain (48), via intra 185 and/or inter subunit interactions (41). Mechanisms for the latter can involve β -TF1 \rightarrow ARM3 186 187 \rightarrow ILD (41) or IBC \rightarrow HD1 \rightarrow HD3 \rightarrow leaflet (39).

In addition to the structural studies on IP₃R1 described above, the structure of human IP₃R3 188 was recently analyzed at high resolution (between 3.3 and 4.3 Å) under various conditions. 189 Its apo state was compared to the structures obtained at saturating IP₃ and/or Ca²⁺ 190 191 concentrations (49). In the presence of IP₃, five different conformational states were resolved, suggesting a dynamic transition between intermediate states eventually leading to 192 channel opening. Ca²⁺ binding appeared to eliminate the intersubunit interactions present in 193 the apo and the IP₃-bound states and provoke channel inhibition. Two Ca²⁺-binding sites 194 195 were identified, one just upstream of ARM2 and one just upstream of ARM3, though their relative function cannot be inferred from structural data alone. 196 Although IP₃R1 and IP₃R3 are structurally quite similar, they are differentially activated and 197 regulated (see 1.). Additional work, including performing a high-resolution cryo-EM analysis 198

of IP_3 -bound IP_3R1 and the further investigation of the effect of Ca^{2+} and other IP_3R modulators, including associated proteins, on IP_3R structure will therefore be needed to fully

unravel the underlying mechanism of activation and to understand the functional differences
between the various IP₃R isoforms.

203

3 Complexity of IP₃R activation and regulation

Concerning the mechanisms of activation and regulation of the IP₃R, progress has been
 made on several points recently.

207

208 3.1 IP₃ binding stoichiometry

First, a long-standing question in the field concerned the number of IP₃ molecules needed to evoke the opening of the IP₃R/Ca²⁺-release channel. Some studies demonstrated a high cooperativity of IP₃ binding to its receptor, and suggested that minimally 3 IP₃ molecules should be bound to the IP₃R to evoke Ca²⁺ release (50, 51). In contrast herewith, coexpression of an IP₃R apparently defective in IP₃ binding (R²⁶⁵Q) and of a channel-dead IP₃R mutant (D²⁵⁵⁰A) resulted in a partial IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release, suggesting that one IP₃R subunit can gate another and that therefore not all subunits need to bind IP₃ to form an active

channel (52). Moreover, these results fit with the most recent cryo-EM data discussed above
(see 2.; (41)).

Recently, a comprehensive study by Yule and co-workers demonstrated in triple-knockout 218 219 (TKO) cells, devoid of endogenous IP₃R expression (DT-40 TKO and HEK TKO), that the activity of recomplemented IP₃Rs depends on the occupation of the 4 IP₃-binding sites by 220 their ligand (53). The strongest evidence for this was obtained by the expression of a 221 concatenated IP₃R1 containing 3 wild-type subunits and 1 mutant subunit. The mutant 222 subunit contained a triple mutation (R²⁶⁵Q/K⁵⁰⁸Q/R⁵¹¹Q) in the ligand-binding domain 223 precluding any IP₃ binding, as previously demonstrated (54), while the R²⁶⁵Q single mutant 224 still retained ~10% binding activity. Interestingly, the tetrameric IP₃R containing only 1 225 defective IP₃-binding site and expressed in cells fully devoid of endogenous IP₃Rs was 226 completely inactive in Ca²⁺ imaging experiments, unidirectional Ca²⁺ flux experiments and in 227 patch-clamp electrophysiological experiments (53). Similar experiments were performed for 228 IP₃R2, making use of its existing short splice isoform that lacks 33 a.a. in the suppressor 229 domain rendering it non-functional (55). These data strongly suggest that no opening of the 230 231 IP₃R can occur, unless each subunit has bound IP₃. This characteristic would strongly limit the number of active IP₃Rs and protect the cell against unwanted Ca²⁺ release in conditions 232 in which the IP₃ concentration is only slightly increased (53, 56). However, in the case of IP₃R 233 mutations affecting IP₃ binding / IP₃R activity it may explain why they are detrimental, even in 234 235 heterozygous conditions (10).

236

237 **3.2** Physiological relevance of IP₃R heterotetramer formation

As already indicated above (see 1.), the high level of homology between the various IP₃R
isoforms allows not only for the formation of homotetramers but also for that of
heterotetramers (57-59). The frequency of heterotetramer occurrence is however not
completely clear. A study in COS-7 cells indicated that kinetic constrains affect the formation
of heterotetramers and that therefore the level of heterotetramers composed of
overexpressed IP₃R1 and of either endogenously expressed or overexpressed IP₃R3 was

lower than what could be expected from a purely binomial distribution (60). In contrast 244 herewith, by using isoform-specific IP₃R antibodies for sequential depletion of the IP₃Rs, it 245 was shown that in pancreas, over 90% of IP₃R3 is present in heterotetrameric complexes, 246 generally with IP₃R2 (61). This is significant as pancreas is a tissue in which IP₃R2 and IP₃R3 247 together constitute over 80% of the total amount of IP_3R (62, 63). It is therefore meaningful to 248 investigate whether the presence of IP_3R heterotetramers will contribute in increasing the 249 diversity of the IP₃R Ca²⁺-release channels, as is generally assumed. However, due to the 250 251 fact that most cells express or can express various types of homo- and heterotetrameric IP₃Rs in unknown proportions, addressing this question is in most cell types not 252 straightforward. 253

Overexpressing mutated IP₃R1 and IP₃R3 in COS-7 cells at least indicated that
heterotetramers are functional (52). The expression of concatenated dimeric IP₃R1-IP₃R2
(and IP₃R2-IP₃R1) in DT-40 TKO cells led to the formation of IP₃R heterotetramers with a
defined composition (2:2) that could be compared with homotetrameric IP₃R1 or

homotetrameric IP₃R2 that were similarly expressed (61). Investigation of their

259 electrophysiological properties via nuclear patch-clamp recordings indicated that in the IP₃R1-IP₃R2 2:2 heterotetramers the properties of the IP₃R2 dominated with respect to the 260 induction of Ca²⁺ oscillations and their regulation by ATP (61). A more recent study based on 261 262 the same approach but now including combinations of all three IP₃R isoforms, demonstrated 263 that 2:2 heterotetrameric IP₃Rs display an IP₃ sensitivity that is intermediate to that of their 264 respective homotetramers (64) indicating that heterotetramerization successfully increases IP₃R diversity. In addition, the obtained results also demonstrate that IP₃R2 properties with 265 respect to both the induction of Ca²⁺ oscillations and the regulation by ATP also dominated in 266 IP₃R2-IP₃R3 2:2 heterotetramers. In contrast, when a tetrameric IP₃R containing 3 IP₃R1 and 267 1 IP₃R2 subunit was expressed, its properties were similar to that of a homotetrameric IP₃R1 268 (64). Taken together, these experiments indicate that IP₃R heterotetramers increase the 269 diversity of the IP₃Rs with respect to Ca²⁺ release and that further studies are needed to fully 270

understand how IP₃R heterotetramers are regulated by other factors, including associatedproteins.

273

274 3.3 Novel crosstalk mechanism between cAMP and IICR

cAMP and Ca²⁺, the two most important intracellular messengers, have numerous crosstalks
between them (65). At the level of the IP₃R, the most evident crosstalk is the sensitization of
IP₃R1 by cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) (66), while a similar regulatory role is highly
probable for IP₃R2 but less likely for IP₃R3 (15, 65).

A novel line of regulation was discovered some time ago when it was shown that cAMP can. 279 independently from PKA or cAMP-activated exchange proteins, potentiate the IP₃R (67-69). 280 In particular, it was shown in HEK cells that adenylate cyclase 6, which in those cells 281 282 accounts for only a minor portion of the adenylate cyclase isoforms, is responsible for providing cAMP to a microdomain surrounding IP₃R2, increasing its activity (69). Such 283 mechanism would form a specific signaling complex in which locally a very high 284 concentration of cAMP could be reached, without affecting its global concentration (65). 285 286 Recent work provided further evidence concerning the importance of cAMP for IP₃R functioning, showing that the presence of cAMP can uncover IP₃Rs that were insensitive to 287 IP₃ alone (56). Indeed, in HEK cells heterologously expressing the parathyroid hormone 288 (PTH) receptor, it appears that PTH, via production of cAMP, can evoke Ca²⁺ release after 289 full depletion of the carbachol-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores. Although the identity of the Ca²⁺ stores 290 291 could not yet be established, the obtained results are indicative that cAMP unmasks IP₃Rs 292 with a high affinity for IP₃. This fits with the previous observation that IP₃R2, the IP₃R with the 293 highest affinity for IP₃ (reviewed in (19)), is regulated by cAMP (69). The molecular 294 mechanism on how cAMP interacts with the IP₃R remains to be determined. At this moment no discrimination can be made between a low-affinity cAMP-binding site on the IP₃R itself or 295 a similar binding site on an associated protein (65). The possibility that the IP₃R-binding 296 297 protein released by IP₃ (IRBIT)-related protein S-adenosylhomocysteine-hydrolase, known to

bind cAMP, is involved was however already excluded by knockdown and overexpression
experiments (56).

300

301 4 Complexity of protein-protein interactions affecting the IP₃R

In a comprehensive review published a few years ago, over 100 proteins that interact with the IP₃R have been listed (14). For that reason, we will limit ourselves in the present review to either newly discovered interacting proteins or proteins for which new information about their interaction recently became available.

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307 <u>4.1 Calmodulin (CaM) and related Ca²⁺-binding proteins</u>

CaM is the most ubiquitously expressed intracellular Ca²⁺ sensor. It is a relatively small 308 protein (148 a.a.) with a typical dumbbell structure. A central, flexible linker region connects 309 the globular N-terminal and C-terminal domains, each containing two Ca²⁺-binding EF-hand 310 motifs with a classical helix-loop-helix structure. The Kd of CaM for Ca²⁺ ranges between 311 $5x10^{-7}$ and $5x10^{-6}$ M, with the C-terminal Ca²⁺-binding sites having a 3- to 5-fold higher affinity 312 than the N-terminal ones (70). CaM therefore displays the correct Ca²⁺ affinity to sense 313 changes in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations and serve as Ca²⁺ sensor. While apo-CaM has a 314 rather compact structure, Ca²⁺-CaM exposes in each domain a hydrophobic groove with 315 acidic residues at its extremities that will allow interaction with their target (71). A plethora of 316 target proteins that are modulated by CaM exists, including various Ca²⁺-transporting 317 318 proteins (72). These various proteins contain CaM-binding sites that can be categorized into various types of motifs (73). 319

Although the interaction of CaM with the IP₃R was already observed soon after the identification of the IP₃R as IP₃-sensitive Ca²⁺-release channel (74) its exact mechanism of action is still not completely elucidated. Moreover, there are a number of interesting features related to the binding of CaM to the IP₃R: (i) the existence of multiple binding sites, (ii) the possibility for both Ca²⁺-CaM and apo-CaM to affect IP₃R function and (iii) the use of some of

the CaM-binding sites by other Ca²⁺-binding proteins. The aim of this paragraph therefore is

to present a comprehensive view on the relation between CaM (and some related Ca^{2+} binding proteins) and the IP₃R.

On IP₃R1, three CaM-binding sites were described (Figure 1). A high-affinity CaM-binding 328 329 site (a.a. 1564-1585; Figure 2 A-B, indicated by the yellow arrows) was described in the central coupling domain (75), while a low-affinity one was found in the suppressor domain 330 (76). The latter site is discontinuous (a.a. 49-81 and a.a. 106-128; Figure 2, indicated in 331 yellow) and can bind both apo-CaM and Ca²⁺-CaM (77). Finally, a third site was described on 332 333 the S2(-) IP₃R1 splice isoform in which a.a. 1693-1732 are removed (78, 79). CaM binding to this newly formed site is inhibited by PKA-mediated phosphorylation, probably on Ser1589 334 (79). 335

CaM interaction with the two other IP₃R isoforms was studied in less detail, but an IP₃R2
construct overlapping with the CaM-binding site in the central coupling domain interacted
with CaM, supporting the conservation of this site (75). However, no direct interaction
between CaM and IP₃R3 could be measured (75, 80) though CaM can bind to IP₃R1-IP₃R3
heterotetramers (79).

Functional effects on the IP₃R have been described for both apo-CaM and Ca²⁺-CaM. In fact, apo-CaM is equally potent in inhibiting IP₃ binding to full-length IP₃R1 as Ca²⁺-CaM (81). In agreement with the absence of CaM binding to IP₃R3, full-length IP₃R3 remained insensitive to regulation by CaM (80). In contrast, a Ca²⁺-independent inhibition of IP₃ binding was observed for the isolated ligand-binding domain of IP₃R1 (82) as well as for that of IP₃R2 and IP₃R3 (83).

Concerning IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release, the situation is somewhat more complex. Ca²⁺ release by IP₃R1 is inhibited by CaM in a Ca²⁺-dependent way (84, 85) while similar results were subsequently found for IP₃R2 and IP₃R3 (76, 86). However, linking these functional effects molecularly to a CaM-binding site appeared more difficult, not only because of the apparent absence of a Ca²⁺-dependent CaM-binding site on IP₃R3 but also because the mutation W^{1577} A that abolishes CaM binding to IP₃R1 (75), does not abolish the CaM-mediated inhibition of IICR (87).

Furthermore, other results suggested that the relation between CaM and the IP₃R was more 354 complex than originally thought. A detailed analysis of the CaM-binding site located in the 355 central coupling domain of IP₃R1 provided evidence that it consisted of a high-affinity Ca²⁺-356 CaM and a lower affinity apo-CaM site (88). Moreover, in the same study it was 357 demonstrated that a CaM mutant deficient in Ca²⁺ binding (CaM1234) could inhibit IICR in a 358 Ca²⁺-dependent way with the same potency as CaM. In a separate study, it was 359 demonstrated that a myosin light chain kinase (MLCK)-derived peptide, which binds to CaM 360 361 with high affinity, fully inhibited the IP_3R (89). This inhibition could be reversed by the addition of CaM but not of CaM1234 and the results were interpreted as evidence that endogenously 362 bound CaM is needed for IP₃R activity. A follow-up study by another group (90) however 363 proposed that the MLCK peptide is not removing endogenous CaM but is interacting with an 364 365 endogenous CaM-like domain on IP₃R, thereby disrupting its interaction with a so-called 1-8-14 CaM-binding motif (a.a. 51-66) essential for IP₃R activity (91). 366

Meanwhile, the interaction of apo-CaM with the suppressor domain was studied via NMR 367 analysis (92). This study brought forward two main pieces of evidence. First, it was shown 368 369 that the binding of apo-CaM to the suppressor domain induced an important, general conformational change to the latter. These changes further increased in the presence of 370 Ca²⁺. Secondly, analysis of the conformational change of CaM indicated that apo-CaM 371 already binds with its C-lobe to the IP₃R1 suppressor domain, and that only after addition of 372 373 Ca^{2+} also the N-lobe interacts with the suppressor domain. These results can therefore 374 explain the importance of the CaM-binding sites in the suppressor domain in spite of their difficult accessibility ((92); Figure 2). 375

Finally, some Ca²⁺-binding proteins related to CaM (e.g. neuronal Ca²⁺-binding protein
(CaBP) 1, calmyrin, also known as ClB1, and neuronal Ca²⁺ sensor-1 (NCS-1)) also regulate
the IP₃R. Similarly to CaM, these proteins contain 4 EF-hand motifs but in contrast with CaM,

not all of them bind Ca²⁺. In CaBP1 and NCS-1 only 3 EF hands are functional (EF1, EF3,

EF4 and EF2, EF3, EF4 resp.) and in calmyrin only 2 (EF3 and EF4). Moreover, some of the

381 EF hands bind Mg^{2+} rather than Ca^{2+} . Furthermore, those proteins are myristoylated.

Although early results suggested that CaBP1 and calmyrin could, in the absence of IP_3 , activate the IP_3R under some circumstances (93, 94), there is presently a large consensus that they, similarly to CaM, generally inhibit the IP_3R (93, 95, 96).

385 CaBP1 was proposed to interact with the IP_3R1 with a higher affinity than CaM itself (94, 96). while in contrast to CaM it does not affect the ryanodine receptor (RyR), another family of 386 intracellular Ca²⁺-release channels. Additionally, the interaction with the IP₃R would be 387 subject to regulation by caseine kinase 2, an enzyme that can phosphorylate CaBP1 on S¹²⁰ 388 (96). Similarly to CaM, CaBP1 binds in a Ca²⁺-independent way to the IP₃R1 suppressor 389 domain, but in contrast to CaM, only to the first of the two non-contiguous binding sites 390 described for CaM (Figure 1). However, CaM and CaBP1 similarly antagonized the 391 392 thimerosal-stimulated interaction between the suppressor domain and the IBC of IP₃R1. suggesting a common mechanism of action whereby they disrupt intramolecular interactions 393 394 needed for channel activation (97). More recent work confirmed the inhibitory effect of CaBP1 on IP₃R1, while expanding the knowledge concerning the CaBP1 binding site. In 395 396 particular, NMR analysis indicated that CaBP1 interacts with its C lobe with the suppressor domain of the IP₃R and that even at saturating Ca²⁺ concentrations EF1 is bound to Mg²⁺. 397 precluding a conformational change of the N lobe (98). The same study demonstrated that 398 Ca²⁺-bound CaBP1 bound with an ~10-fold higher affinity than Mg²⁺-bound CaBP1 and an at 399 least 100-fold higher affinity than CaM itself. Functional analysis performed in DT-40 cells 400 401 solely expressing IP₃R1 demonstrated that CaBP1 stabilized the closed conformation of the 402 channel, probably by clamping inter-subunit interactions (99). The interaction of specific hydrophobic a.a. in the C lobe of CaBP1 (V¹⁰¹, L¹⁰⁴, V¹⁶²) that become more exposed in the 403 presence of Ca²⁺ with hydrophobic a.a. in the IBC (L³⁰², I³⁶⁴, L³⁹³) appeared hereby essential. 404 405 The action of NCS-1 on the IP₃R forms a slightly different story. It co-immunoprecipitates with IP₃R1 and IP₃R2 in neuronal cells and in heart thereby stimulating IICR in a Ca²⁺-dependent 406 way (100, 101). Interestingly, paclitaxel by binding to NCS-1 increases its interaction with 407 IP₃R1 and so induces Ca²⁺ oscillations in various cell types (102, 103). This Ca²⁺ signaling 408 pathway was proposed to lead to calpain activation and to underlie the origin of paclitaxel-409

410 induced peripheral neuropathy (104). However, the interaction site of NCS-1 on the IP₃R,
411 either direct or indirect, has not yet been identified.

Taken together these results confirm that Ca²⁺-binding proteins interact in a complex way 412 with the IP₃R and that the various Ca²⁺-binding proteins have distinct, though sometimes 413 overlapping, roles. The functional effect or CaM has been studied in detail and it appeared to 414 inhibit the IP₃R. The results described above support a view that the main action of CaM on 415 the IP₃R is at the level of the suppressor domain. Indeed, apo-CaM can via its C lobe bind to 416 417 the suppressor domain of all three IP₃R isoforms while a subsequent binding of the N lobe will depend on the Ca²⁺ concentration. The binding of CaM in that domain can disturb an 418 intra-IP₃R interaction needed for IP₃R function and therefore inhibits IICR. This behavior can 419 420 be particularly important in cells having high CaM expression levels, as for example Purkinje 421 neurons that also demonstrate high levels of IP₃R1. In that case, CaM was proposed to be responsible for suppressing basal IP₃R activity (81). Moreover, as the intracellular distribution 422 of CaM can depend on intracellular Ca²⁺ dynamics, it was also hypothesized that it allows 423 IP₃R regulation is a non-uniform way (84). Additionally, it should be emphasized that CaM 424 can act on other Ca²⁺-transporting proteins in the cell, like the RyR (105), the plasma 425 membrane Ca²⁺ ATPase (106) and various plasma membrane Ca²⁺ channels including 426 voltage-operated Ca²⁺ channels and transient receptor potential channels (107, 108). In all 427 these cases CaM tends to inhibit Ca²⁺ influx into the cytosol (inhibition of IP₃Rs, RyRs and 428 plasma membrane Ca²⁺ channels) while promoting Ca²⁺ efflux out of the cell (stimulation of 429 plasma membrane Ca²⁺ ATPase). 430

An IP₃R-inhibiting behavior can similarly be expected for CaM-related Ca²⁺-binding proteins,
though their interaction sites are not strictly identical to that of CaM. The binding site for
NCS-1, which rather stimulates the IP₃R, is even still unknown. In comparison to CaM,
CaBP1 demonstrates a much higher affinity for the IP₃R (99) and a higher specificity, as it
does not affect the RyR (96). In cells expressing CaBP1, the major control of IICR will
therefore depend on the interaction of the IP₃R with CaBP1, while RyR activity will depend on
the presence and activation of CaM. Further work will be needed to completely unravel the

exact role of these various proteins in the control of intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling. From the
present results, it can already be expected that the relative role of the various Ca²⁺-binding
proteins in the control of IICR will strongly depend on the exact cell type in consideration.

441

442 4.2 The Bcl-2-protein family

The B-cell lymphoma (Bcl)-2 protein family has been extensively studied as critical regulator 443 of apoptosis (109). This family consists of both anti- and pro-apoptotic members. The anti-444 apoptotic family members inhibit apoptosis in at least two different manners. First, at the 445 mitochondria anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins such as Bcl-2, Bcl-XL and Mcl-1, bind to the pro-446 apoptotic Bcl-2-family members thereby inhibiting the permeabilization of the outer 447 mitochondrial membrane by Bax and Bak and subsequent release of cytochrome C (110, 111). 448 Second, the anti-apoptotic Bcl-2-family members also affect intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling. On 449 the one hand they promote pro-survival Ca²⁺ oscillations while on the other hand they inhibit 450 pro-apoptotic Ca2+ release from the ER that otherwise could lead to mitochondrial Ca2+ 451 452 overload (112). These combined actions mean that anti apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins can, by modulating several protein families involved in intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling, both fine tune 453 mitochondrial bio-energetics and inhibit Ca²⁺-mediated mitochondrial outer membrane 454 permeabilization (113-116). Both the interaction between Bcl-2-family members and their 455 ability to regulate intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling is critically dependent on the presence of so-456 457 called Bcl-2 homology (BH) domains. Anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins contain four of these 458 domains (BH1, 2, 3 and 4) (111). The BH1-3 domains together form a hydrophobic cleft that inactivates the pro-apoptotic Bcl-2-family members via interaction with their BH3 domain. For 459 regulating intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling events, anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins rely to a great 460 461 extent, however not exclusively, on their BH4 domain. In this review we will focus on how IP₃Rs are regulated by Bcl-2 proteins. For a more extensive revision of how Bcl-2-family members 462 regulate the various members of the intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling machinery we would like to 463 refer to our recent review on the subject (112). 464

The various IP₃R isoforms are important targets for several anti-apoptotic Bcl-2-family 465 members (112). To complicate matters, multiple binding sites on the IP₃R have been described 466 467 for anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins (117). First, Bcl-2, Bcl-XL and Mcl-1 were shown to target the C-terminal part (a.a. 2512-2749) of IP₃R1 (Figure 2, indicated in green) thereby stimulating 468 pro-survival Ca²⁺ oscillations (114, 115, 118). Additionally, Bcl-2, and with lesser affinity also 469 Bcl-XL, also target the central coupling domain (a.a. 1389-1408 of IP₃R1; Figures 1 and 2, 470 471 indicated in blue) of the IP₃R where binding of these proteins inhibits pro-apoptotic Ca²⁺-472 release events (116, 118-120). Finally, the zebrafish protein Nrz (121) and its mammalian homolog Bcl-2-like 10 (122) were shown to interact with the IBC and to inhibit IICR. 473

The group of Kevin Foskett performed a more in-depth study into how the IP₃R is regulated by 474 Bcl-XL and proposed a mechanism unifying the regulation at the C-terminal and at the central 475 coupling domain of the IP₃R (123). Two domains containing BH3-like structures (a.a. 2571-476 2606 and a.a. 2690-2732; Figures 1 and 2, indicated in dark green) were identified in the C-477 terminal part of the IP₃R. When BcI-XL is, via its hydrophobic cleft, bound to both BH3-like 478 domains it sensitizes the IP₃R to low concentrations of IP₃, thereby stimulating Ca²⁺ 479 480 oscillations. If Bcl-XL binds to only one of these BH3 like domains while also binding to the central coupling domain, it will inhibit IICR. Whether Bcl-XL occupies one or the two BH3-like 481 domains at the C-terminus of the IP₃R was proposed to be dependent on BcI-XL levels and on 482 the intensity of IP₃R stimulation. Whether Bcl-2 operates in a similar manner is still unclear. As 483 there is evidence that Bcl-2 shows a greater affinity than Bcl-XL for the inhibitory binding site 484 485 in the central coupling domain it is likely that this site is the preferential target for Bcl-2 (118). In addition, for Bcl-2 not its hydrophobic cleft but rather its transmembrane domain seems to 486 play an important role for targeting and regulating the IP₃R via both its C-terminus and the site 487 located in the central coupling domain (124). Based on the recent cryo-EM structure of IP₃R1 488 489 (29, 41), this central site in the coupling domain resides in a relatively easily accessible area of IP₃R1 (Figure 2, indicated in blue). The C-terminal transmembrane domain of Bcl-2 may 490 491 thus serve to concentrate the protein at the ER near the IP₃R from where its N-terminal BH4

domain can more easily bind to the central coupling domain. In addition, sequestering Bcl-2 492 proteins at the ER membrane via their transmembrane domain may increase their ability to 493 494 interact with the C-terminus of the IP₃R (Figure 2, indicated in green). As this C-terminal 495 binding site seems to be located more at the inside of the IP₃R1 tetramer one can expect a local high concentration of Bcl-2 proteins to be necessary for this interaction. Besides directly 496 modulating IICR, Bcl-2 can serve as an anchor for targeting additional regulatory proteins to 497 the IP₃R. It was shown that Bcl-2 attracts dopamine- and cAMP-regulated phosphoprotein of 498 499 32 kDa (DARPP-32) and calcineurin to the IP₃R thereby regulating the phosphorylation state of the latter and consequently its Ca²⁺-release properties (125). Finally, recent data indicate 500 also for Bcl-2 an additional interaction site in the ligand-binding domain (126) highlighting the 501 502 complexity of the interaction of the anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 family members with the IP₃R. Further 503 research will be needed to unravel the precise function of each of these sites.

504 Another Bcl-2-family member that regulates the IP₃R is the zebrafish protein Nrz. The latter was shown to bind via its BH4 domain to the IBC of zebrafish IP₃R1, whereby E²⁵⁵ appeared 505 essential for interaction (Figure 1). Nrz prevents IP₃ binding to the IP₃R thereby inhibiting IICR 506 507 (121). Interestingly, although the Nrz BH4 domain is sufficient for interaction with the IP₃R, inhibition of IICR required the BH4-BH3-BH1 domains. Furthermore, phosphorylation of Nrz 508 abolished its interaction with the IP₃R. Recently, Bcl-2-like 10, the human orthologue of Nrz, 509 was shown that just like Nrz in zebrafish, it interacts with the IBC, indicating a conserved 510 function for this protein (122). 511

Besides anti-apoptotic Bcl-2-family members, also pro-apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins and other BH3 domain-containing proteins are known to target and regulate IP₃Rs. For instance, Bok, a proapoptotic Bcl-2-family member, interacts with the IP₃R (a.a. 1895–1903 of IP₃R1; **Figures 1 and 2**) (127). This interaction protects IP₃R1 and IP₃R2 from proteolytic cleavage by caspase 3 that results in a Ca²⁺ leak that may contribute to mitochondrial Ca²⁺ overload and thus apoptosis (128, 129). Subsequent work demonstrated that the majority of all cellular Bok is bound to the IP₃R thereby stabilizing the Bok protein (130). Unbound, newly synthesized Bok is rapidly turned over by the proteasome pathway. Both the association of mature Bok with the
IP₃R and the rapid degradation of newly synthesized Bok by the proteasome restrict the proapoptotic functions of Bok thus preventing cell death induction.

522 From the above it is clear that the IP₃R is heavily regulated by both pro- and anti-apoptotic Bcl-2-family members. The occurrence of multiple binding sites for the same Bcl-2-family member 523 further increases the complexity (112). Furthermore, it should be stressed that the regulation 524 of the IP₃R by Bcl-2 proteins is conserved during evolution. This is illustrated by the ability of 525 the zebrafish Nrz protein to regulate IICR via its BH4 domain (121) and is further validated by 526 the observation that the BH4 domains of Bcl-2 derived from different vertebrates are able to 527 inhibit IICR with similar efficiency (131). The large number of both pro-and anti-apoptotic Bcl-528 2 proteins that regulate the IP_3R , targeting it at multiple sites, suggests that throughout 529 evolution regulating IICR became an important functional aspect of the Bcl-2 protein family. 530

531 Mcl-1, Bcl-2 and Bcl-XL all target the C-terminal region of the IP₃R stimulating the occurrence of pro-survival Ca^{2+} oscillations and thus Ca^{2+} transfer to the mitochondria (114, 115, 118). 532 These Ca²⁺ transfers into the mitochondria are important for normal cell functioning (113) but 533 are also involved in cancer development and could potentially form a novel therapeutic target 534 (132). Mitochondrial Ca²⁺ contributes to maintaining proper ATP production. When Ca²⁺ 535 transfer into the mitochondria is inhibited, ATP levels decrease, activating autophagy. At the 536 same time the cell cycle progression is halted (113, 133). In cancer cells, decreased Ca²⁺ 537 transfer into the mitochondria, consecutive loss of ATP and the start of autophagy is not 538 539 accompanied by a stop in the cell cycle. Continuing the cell cycle without sufficient building blocks and ATP results in necrotic cell death (132). Cancer cells are therefore reliant on proper 540 Ca²⁺ transfer to the mitochondria to maintain mitochondrial function, including the production 541 of ATP and metabolites necessary for completing the cell cycle. It is therefore common for 542 cancer cells to upregulate one or several anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins. By interacting with the 543 C-terminus of the IP₃R the Bcl-2 proteins may stimulate Ca²⁺ oscillations assuring proper 544 mitochondrial Ca²⁺ uptake and an adequate mitochondrial metabolism. On the other hand, 545

⁵⁴⁶ upregulation of Bcl-2 and/or Bcl-XL also protects the cells from excessive IP₃R-mediated Ca²⁺ ⁵⁴⁷ release by binding to the central regulatory site (116, 118-120) and prevents apoptosis, even ⁵⁴⁸ in the presence of cell death inducers (109, 134). In healthy cells a similar regulation of IICR ⁵⁴⁹ by Bcl-2 proteins occurs. However, when cell death is induced in the latter, the amount of anti-⁵⁵⁰ apoptotic Bcl-2 proteins declines (134) potentially decreasing the level of their association with ⁵⁵¹ the IP₃R. This alleviates the inhibitory actions on IICR allowing pro-death Ca²⁺ signals while ⁵⁵² also reducing the opportunities for the occurrence of pro-survival Ca²⁺ oscillations.

553 4.3 Beclin 1

554 Beclin 1 is a pro-autophagic BH3 domain-containing protein (135). It interacts with various 555 proteins involved in the regulation of autophagy, including Bcl-2 (136, 137). The latter protein, by sequestering Beclin 1, prevents its pro-autophagic action. A first study presenting evidence 556 that Beclin 1 also interacted with the IP₃R showed an interaction between Beclin 1 and the 557 IP₃R that depended on Bcl-2 and which was disrupted by the IP₃R inhibitor xestospongin B 558 (138). The release of Beclin 1 from the Bcl-2/IP₃R complex resulted in the stimulation of 559 autophagy which could be counteracted by overexpressing the IBC. This suggested that the 560 IBC was able to sequester the xestospongin B-released Beclin 1 thus halting its pro-autophagic 561 function. From subsequent work, it appeared that the role of Beclin 1 with respect to the IP₃R 562 was more complex (139). Indeed, the binding of Beclin 1 to the ligand-binding domain was 563 confirmed, though it appeared that in IP₃R1 and to a lesser degree in IP₃R3 the suppressor 564 domain (a.a. 1-225) played a more prominent role in the interaction than the IBC. Interestingly, 565 during starvation-induced autophagy Beclin 1 binding to the IP₃R sensitized IICR that was 566 shown to be essential for the autophagy process (139). Using the F¹²³A Beclin 1 mutant that 567 does not interact with Bcl-2, it was shown that the sensitization of the IP₃R by Beclin 1 was not 568 due to counteracting the inhibitory effect of Bcl-2, although, in agreement with the previous 569 study (138) it appeared that Beclin 1 binding to Bcl-2 may be needed to target the protein in 570 proximity of the IP₃R. 571

573 **<u>4.4 IRBIT</u>**

IRBIT regulates IICR by targeting the IP₃R ligand-binding domain thereby competing with IP₃. 574 575 Moreover, this interaction is promoted by IRBIT phosphorylation (140). Besides the IP₃R, 576 IRBIT binds to several other targets regulating a wide range of cellular processes (141). How IRBIT determines which target to interact with and modulate was recently described (142). 577 First, various forms of IRBIT exist, IRBIT, the long-IRBIT homologue and its splice variants, 578 which were shown to have distinct expression patterns. Besides this, the N-terminal region of 579 580 the various members of the IRBIT-protein family showed distinct differences. These differences, obtained by N-terminal splicing, are important in maintaining protein stability and 581 in determining which target to interact with. 582

Recently, it was shown that Bcl-2-like 10, which binds to a distinct site in the ligand-binding 583 584 domain (see 4.2), functionally and structurally interacts with the action of IRBIT on the IP₃R 585 (122). When both proteins are present, Bcl-2-like 10, via its BH4 domain, interacts with IRBIT, thereby mutually strengthening their interaction with the IP₃R and decreasing IICR in 586 587 an additive way. Upon dephosphorylation of IRBIT, both IRBIT and Bcl-2-like 10 are released from the IP₃R, increasing pro-apoptotic Ca²⁺ transfer from the ER to the mitochondria. 588 Interestingly, this study also showed that IRBIT is involved in regulating ER-mitochondrial 589 contact sites as IRBIT knockout reduced the number of these contact sites (122). 590

591

592 <u>4.5 Thymocyte-expressed, positive selection-associated 1 (TESPA1)</u>

593 T-cell receptor (TCR) stimulation triggers a signaling cascade ultimately leading to the activation of PLC, production of IP₃ and IICR important for T-cell maturation (143). TESPA1, 594 595 a protein involved in the development/selection of T cells (144), has been shown to regulate these Ca²⁺ signals. TESPA1 has a significant homology with KRAS-induced actin-interacting 596 protein (147), a protein that was already shown to interact and control the IP₃R (145, 146). 597 598 TESPA1 similarly interacts with the various IP₃R isoforms and it appeared that the full ligand-599 binding domain was needed for this interaction. However, at first no functional effect was 600 described for this interaction (147). Recently this topic was revisited and it was shown that

TESPA1 recruits IP₃R1 to the TCR where PLC signaling is initiated and IP₃ produced (143). 601 In this way, TESPA1 promotes IP₃R1 phosphorylation on Y³⁵³ by the tyrosine kinase Fyn, 602 603 increasing the affinity of the IP₃R for IP₃. The combination of both these effects increases the efficiency by which Ca²⁺ signaling occurs after TCR stimulation, which is beneficial for T-cell 604 selection and maturation (148). Furthermore, in Jurkat cells TESPA1 interacts at the ER-605 mitochondria contact sites with GRP75 (149), a linker protein coupling IP₃R with the 606 mitochondrial VDAC1 channel favoring Ca²⁺ transfer from ER to mitochondria (150). 607 Consequently, TESPA1 knockout diminished the TCR-evoked Ca²⁺ transfers to both 608 mitochondria and cytosol and confirm the important role for TESPA1 in these processes. 609

610

611 4.6 Pyruvate kinase (PK) M2

612 PKs catalyze the last step of glycolysis and convert phosphoenolpyruvate to pyruvate 613 resulting in the production of ATP. Many cancer cells preferentially upregulate glycolysis over oxidative phosphorylation suggesting a potential role for the PK family in cancer 614 development. Four distinct PK isoforms exists, having each a distinct tissue expression 615 616 pattern but PKM2 has the peculiarity to be expressed at an elevated level in most tumoral cells where it has a growth-promoting function. Moreover, although PKM1 and PKM2 are 617 nearly identical, differing in only 22 a.a., they are regulated differently and have non-618 619 redundant functions (151). Besides its metabolic functions, PKM2 is also involved in several 620 non-metabolic functions. The latter encompass a nuclear role in transcriptional regulation, 621 protein kinase activity towards various proteins in different cellular organelles, and even an extracellular function as PKM2 is also present in exosomes (152, 153). It is therefore 622 623 interesting that also a role for PKM2 at the ER was described since a direct interaction was 624 found between PKM2 and the central coupling domain of the IP₃R, inhibiting IICR in various cell types (154, 155). Moreover, a recent study links the switch from oxidative 625 phosphorylation to glycolysis in breast cancer cells with PKM2 methylation (156). Methylated 626 627 PKM2 promoted proliferation, migration and growth of various breast cancer cell lines. 628 Strikingly, PKM2 methylation did not seem to alter its enzymatic activity but did however alter

mitochondrial Ca²⁺ homeostasis by decreasing IP₃R levels. Finally, co-immunoprecipitation experiments showed an interaction between methylated PKM2 and IP₃R1 and IP₃R3, though in this study it was not investigated whether the interaction was direct or indirect (156). As PKM2 is in a variety of cancers considered as a good prognostic marker with a strong potential as therapeutic target (152) these new data, linking directly a metabolic enzyme with an intracellular Ca²⁺-release channel and ER mitochondria Ca²⁺ transfer, provide new possibilities for therapeutic intervention.

636

637 4.7 BRCA-associated protein 1 (BAP1) and the F-box protein FBXL2

Prolonged stimulation of the IP₃Rs leads to a downregulation of the IP₃R levels (157-159). 638 This downregulation is mainly due to IP₃R ubiquitination followed by their degradation via the 639 640 proteasomal pathway (31, 160). Ubiquitination is therefore an important IP₃R modification that may severely impact IICR signaling to for instance the mitochondria, thereby greatly 641 affecting cell death and cell survival decisions. Recently a number of proto-oncogenes and 642 tumor suppressors have been identified that critically control IP₃R3 ubiquitination. 643 644 BAP1 is a tumor suppressor with deubiguitinase activity that is known to have important roles in regulating gene expression, DNA stability, replication, and repair and in maintaining 645 chromosome stability (161-164). Besides this, BAP1 was also shown to influence cellular 646 metabolism, suggesting potential roles for BAP1 outside the nucleus (165, 166). 647 648 Heterozygous loss of BAP1 results in decreased mitochondrial respiration while increasing 649 glycolysis (167, 168). These cells produced a distinct metabolite signature, indicative for the occurrence of the Warburg effect that is supporting cells towards malignant transformation. 650 Heterozygous loss of BAP1 leads to a decreased ER-mitochondria Ca²⁺ transfer and altered 651 mitochondrial metabolism (167). BAP1 regulates this Ca²⁺ transfer by interacting with the N-652 terminal part (a.a. 1-800) of IP₃R3, a region which contains the complete ligand-binding 653 domain and a small part of the central coupling domain. The deubiquitinase activity of BAP1 654 prevents degradation of IP₃R3 by the proteasome. Loss of BAP1 consequently results in 655 excessive reduction of IP₃R3 levels thereby lowering mitochondrial Ca²⁺ uptake. This not only 656

reduces the cell its responsiveness to Ca²⁺-induced cell death but also promotes glycolysis 657 over oxidative phosphorylation, both important aspects of malignant cell transformation. The 658 659 nuclear function of BAP1 with respect to maintaining DNA integrity (161-164) together with its extra-nuclear role in regulating cell metabolism and sensitivity to Ca²⁺-induced cell death 660 (165-168) suggests that this protein may be an excellent target for cancer drug development. 661 F-box protein FBXL2 that forms a subunit of a ubiquitin ligase complex has the opposite 662 effect of BAP1 on IP₃R3. FBXL2 interacts with a.a. 545-566 of IP₃R3, promoting its 663 664 ubiquitination and its subsequent degradation. Reduced IP₃R3 leads to a decreased transfer of Ca²⁺ to the mitochondria and a reduced sensitivity towards apoptosis, thus promoting 665 tumor growth (169). The phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) tumor suppressor could 666 inhibit this pro-tumorigenic effect of FBXL2. PTEN not only promotes apoptosis by inhibiting 667 668 protein kinase B/Akt (PKB) (170-172) thereby counteracting PKB-mediated IP₃R3 phosphorylation (173, 174) but also by directly binding to IP_3R3 (169). Binding of PTEN to 669 IP₃R3 displaces FBXL2 from its binding site, reducing IP₃R3 ubiquitination, stabilizing IP₃R3 670 671 levels, and thus increasing pro-apoptotic Ca²⁺ signaling to the mitochondria (169). In 672 accordance with the fact that the FBXL2-binding site is only partially conserved in IP₃R1 and IP₃R2, the stability of the two latter isoforms appeared to be affected neither by FBXL2 nor by 673 PTEN. 674 In several tumors, PTEN function is impaired which results in accelerated IP₃R3 degradation 675

and impaired apoptosis induction. Treatment with drugs that stabilize IP₃R levels may

therefore also be of interest for cancer therapy in cases where PTEN is affected.

679 5 Conclusions

Intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling is involved in a plethora of cellular processes. The ubiquitously 680 expressed IP₃R Ca²⁺-release channels play an important role in the generation of these 681 682 signals and serve as signaling hubs for several regulatory factors and proteins/protein complexes. Since the first identification of the IP₃R (175), IP₃R-interacting proteins and their 683 modulating roles on Ca²⁺ signaling and (patho)physiological processes have been the 684 685 subject of many studies and well over 100 interaction partners were reported (14), though for 686 many of them it is unclear how they exactly interact with the IP₃R and how they affect IP₃R function. Moreover, for many regulatory proteins, multiple binding sites were described of 687 which the importance is not directly apparent. The recent (and future) advances in the 688 689 elucidation of the IP₃R structure will pave the way for a better understanding how IP₃R gating 690 exactly occurs and how different cellular factors and regulatory proteins influence IICR. As 691 several of these proteins affect life and death decisions and/or play important roles in tumor 692 development, the exact knowledge of their interaction site and their action of the IP₃R may 693 lead to the development of new therapies for e.g. cancer treatment.

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697

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703 LEGENDS TO THE FIGURES

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705

706 **Figure 1. Alignment of proposed IP**₃**R1 structures.** (a) Linear representation of IP₃R1 (33). (b) Linear representation of the IP_3R1 domains identified by X-ray crystallography (39). (c) 707 Linear representation of the IP₃R1 domains identified by cryo-EM (41). For the various 708 709 domains, the original nomenclature was used. Additionally, the interaction sites for 710 calmodulin (CaM) and for the various Bcl-2 family members (Bcl-2, Bcl-XL, Nrz and Bok) are 711 indicated with colored arrows at the bottom of the figure. Please note that the name of the interacting protein indicated at each arrow represents the protein for which binding was 712 initially described. As discussed in the text, related proteins share in some cases common 713 714 binding sites. The striped arrow indicates that this binding site is only present in a specific 715 IP₃R1splice isoform. For further explanations, please see text.

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718 Figure 2. Cryo-EM structure of IP₃R1. Structure of IP₃R1 fitted to the cryo-EM map (PDB 719 3JAV, (41)) showing (A) a cytosolic and (B) a luminal view of an IP₃R1 tetramer. (C, D) Side views of two neighboring IP₃R1 subunits as seen from the (C) inside or the (D) outside of the 720 721 tetramer. The discontinuous CaM-binding site in the suppressor domain is indicated in yellow 722 (a.a. 49-81 and a.a. 106–128). The yellow arrows in panels A and B indicate where the CaM-723 binding site in the central coupling domain should be located (a.a. 1564-1585). This could not be indicated on the structure itself because the part between a.a. 1488 and 1588 of the IP₃R 724 725 is not resolved. The binding site for Bcl-2 and, to a lesser extent, Bcl-XL located in the central 726 coupling domain is indicated in blue (a.a. 1389-1408). The C-terminal binding site for Bcl-2, Bcl-XL and Mcl-1 is shown in green (a.a. 2512-2749). The domains indicated in dark green 727 (a.a. 2571-2606 and a.a. 2690-2732) thereby represent the BH3-like structures that were 728 729 identified to bind Bcl-XL. The region where Bok interacts with IP₃R1 (a.a. 1895-1903) was not 730 resolved in this cryo-EM structure. The two orange spheres (a.a. 1883 and 1945) however

- show the boundaries of this non-characterized IP_3R1 region to which Bok binds. These
- images were obtained using PyMOL. For further explanations, please see text.

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