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What You Did Not Know About Cardiac Ca²⁺ Handling

Lysosomes and Oxidized PKA

Article, see p 449

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Although the treatment of myocardial infarction (MI) has improved markedly in recent years, MI-associated morbidity and mortality remain substantial. One of the remaining challenges in the treatment of MI is that myocardial reperfusion, although essential to salvage myocardial tissue, also causes damage to the myocardium through a process called ischemia/reperfusion (I/R) injury.¹ Despite decades of intense research and numerous randomized, controlled trials, there are no therapies that prevent I/R injury. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are major determinants of tissue damage during I/R and, given its central role, efforts to ameliorate I/R injury are often centered around balancing ROS activity. ROS balance, however, is complex, and antioxidants themselves can paradoxically increase the degree of myocardial I/R injury.² The mechanism responsible for this partial protective effect of ROS during I/R is thought to reflect the fact that ROS can serve as second messengers.³

PKA (protein kinase A) is a critical signaling molecule in cardiomyocytes, involved in calcium (Ca²⁺) handling, gene transcription, and metabolism.⁴ PKA is a heterotetrameric protein composed of 2 catalytic subunits and a dimeric regulatory subunit, the latter of which exists as an RI or RII isoform. PKA is activated by binding of cAMP to the regulatory subunits, triggering a conformational change that releases the catalytic subunits and activates downstream substrate phosphorylation. The spatiotemporal regulation of PKA within the cell is governed by AKAPs (A-kinase anchoring proteins) that restrict PKA into a specific microdomain in close proximity to its activators and downstream targets.^{4,5} Recently, the RI α isoform of PKA (PKAR1 α) was found to be sensitive to oxidation at 2 cysteine (Cys) residues (Cys17 and Cys37), resulting in a disulfide bond between 2 RI α subunits.^{4,6} The conformational change in PKAR1 α promotes AKAP binding and is thought to activate PKA in a cAMP-independent fashion.¹⁻⁶ It has been suggested that PKA promotes adaptive angiogenesis and increases cardiac contractility, yet the exact role in I/R injury remains to be established.^{6,7}

In this issue of *Circulation*, Simon et al⁸ present compelling new evidence that oxidation of PKAR1 α affords endogenous cardioprotection during myocardial I/R injury that may be amenable to therapeutic interventions. First, the authors set out to determine whether PKAR1 α oxidation occurs during I/R. Using human atrial tissue obtained before and after cardioplegic arrest, as well as murine heart samples after I/R, the authors discovered that I/R injury significantly increased PKAR1 α oxidation and disulfide formation. Similar degrees of PKAR1 α disulfide formation were observed in adult mouse cardiomyocytes exposed to H₂O₂, under normal culture conditions, indicating that this posttranslational modification is common, sensitive, and physiologically relevant.⁸

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Next, the authors evaluated the consequences of disulfide formation on catalytic activity and intracellular localization of PKAR1 α using a redox-dead knock-in (KI) mouse model in which Cys17 in R1 α was replaced by serine (KI; R1 α Cys17Ser mutation).⁶ In contrast to previous reports, the authors were unable to detect a clear difference in the catalytic activity of PKAR1 α between wild-type (WT) and KI mice. Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching experiments in embryonic fibroblasts and neonatal cardiomyocytes confirmed previous findings that oxidation of PKAR1 α promotes AKAP binding.⁸

Then, confocal microscopy was used to determine the subcellular compartment to which oxidized PKAR1 α translocated. Whereas localization to the mitochondrial and nuclear compartments was not affected, oxidized PKAR1 α appeared to localize to the lysosome. This observation posed somewhat of a challenge, because lysosomes are too small to be visualized by conventional confocal microscopy. The authors therefore reverted to super-resolution stimulation emission depletion microscopy, which allows fluorescent detection at nanometer resolution. Using this technique in adult and neonatal cardiomyocytes, it was demonstrated that oxidized PKAR1 α clusters within 70 nm of lysosomes in an AKAP-dependent fashion. Another important discovery made with stimulation emission depletion imaging was that a large proportion of lysosomes were found to be in close proximity of the ryanodine receptor (RyR), both in WT and KI cardiomyocytes.⁸

Lysosomes are multifunctional organelles that are primarily involved in the degradation of macromolecules, yet recent evidence suggests that they participate in cellular Ca²⁺ handling as well.⁹ Lysosomes release Ca²⁺ through their 2-pore channels (TPCs) and trigger diastolic Ca²⁺ release from the RyR.⁹ In the context of heart disease, lysosomes generate oscillating Ca²⁺ currents that trigger arrhythmias and can cause mitochondrial depolarization and irreversible cell death.¹⁰ Simon et al⁸ therefore hypothesized that PKAR1 α oxidation and lysosomal translocation could affect cardiomyocyte Ca²⁺ handling. In line with the imaging studies, mitochondrial Ca²⁺ handling was not affected by oxidation of PKAR1 α . Moreover, general Ca²⁺ transients were also grossly similar in WT and KI mice and sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ stores were comparable between genotypes. KI mice did, however, display a significant increase in oscillating Ca²⁺ currents and diastolic Ca²⁺ release events, suggestive of enhanced spontaneous opening of the RyR. Furthermore, the oscillating Ca²⁺ currents in KI mice were prevented by RyR inhibition, by depletion of lysosomal Ca²⁺ stores, and by the TPC inhibitor Ned-19. Together these findings support the hypothesis that oxidized PKAR1 α regulates spontaneous RyR opening by preventing TPC-mediated calcium release from the lysosomal compartment.⁸

In the context of myocardial I/R injury, spontaneous RyR Ca²⁺ release events can trigger cardiac arrhythmias

and stimulate apoptosis.¹¹ The PKAR1 α -mediated reductions in lysosomal Ca²⁺ release could thus translate into increased resilience to I/R. To test this hypothesis, murine WT and KI hearts were exposed to ex vivo I/R injury using the Langendorff system. Myocardial infarct size was markedly increased in KI compared with WT hearts, associated with substantial reductions in functional recovery. The TPC inhibitor Ned-19 normalized myocardial injury to control values, confirming the hypothesis that PKAR1 α oxidation affords endogenous cardioprotection through downstream effects on the TPC.⁸

In summary, Simon et al⁸ report the first direct evidence that oxidative stress-induced disulfide bonds within the regulatory domain of PKAR1 α localize the holoenzyme to lysosomes in proximity to the RyR. In this subcellular domain, oxidized PKAR1 α blocks lysosomal Ca²⁺ release events that trigger RyR Ca²⁺ sparks and promote myocardial I/R injury. Oxidation and subsequent disulfide formation of PKAR1 α thus appears to reflect an endogenous protective mechanism that limits myocardial damage in response to oxidative stress (summarized in the Figure).

The authors should be applauded for their meticulous work, which combines multiple state-of-the-art imaging techniques, advanced fluorescent biosensors, and established functional readouts in primary cells and mutant mice. In addition to the previously unrecognized cardioprotective effects of PKAR1 α , they also revealed the lysosome as a surprising new subcellular domain controlled by PKAR1 α . Lysosomes have only recently been recognized as culprits in cardiac I/R injury.¹⁰ The discovery that oxidation and lysosomal translocation of PKAR1 α can prevent lysosomal Ca²⁺ release is intriguing and warrants further exploration. Although the authors did not detect a clear difference in arrhythmia burden, a recent detailed analysis suggested that redox-dead KI mice are resistant to oxidative stress-induced arrhythmias.¹² Further research is required to define the physiologic contribution of oxidized PKAR1 α to cardiac Ca²⁺ handling and arrhythmogenesis.

As often occurs with such pioneering work, important questions remain. First, in contrast to previous reports,^{13,14} PKAR1 α disulfide formation did not appear to influence the catalytic activity of PKA, nor did it alter phosphorylation of established PKA targets involved in cardiac Ca²⁺ handling. Accordingly, a clear explanation as to how oxidized PKAR1 α prevents lysosomal Ca²⁺ release from the TPC remains enigmatic. It is highly likely that changes in the catalytic activity of oxidized PKAR1 α were restricted to the lysosomal compartment, which would not have been detectable using confocal microscopy. We therefore propose that the effects of oxidized PKAR1 α on Ca²⁺ release are specifically governed by phosphorylation of the TPC (Figure [A]).

Whereas lysosomal translocation of oxidized PKAR1 α was convincingly demonstrated with stimulation

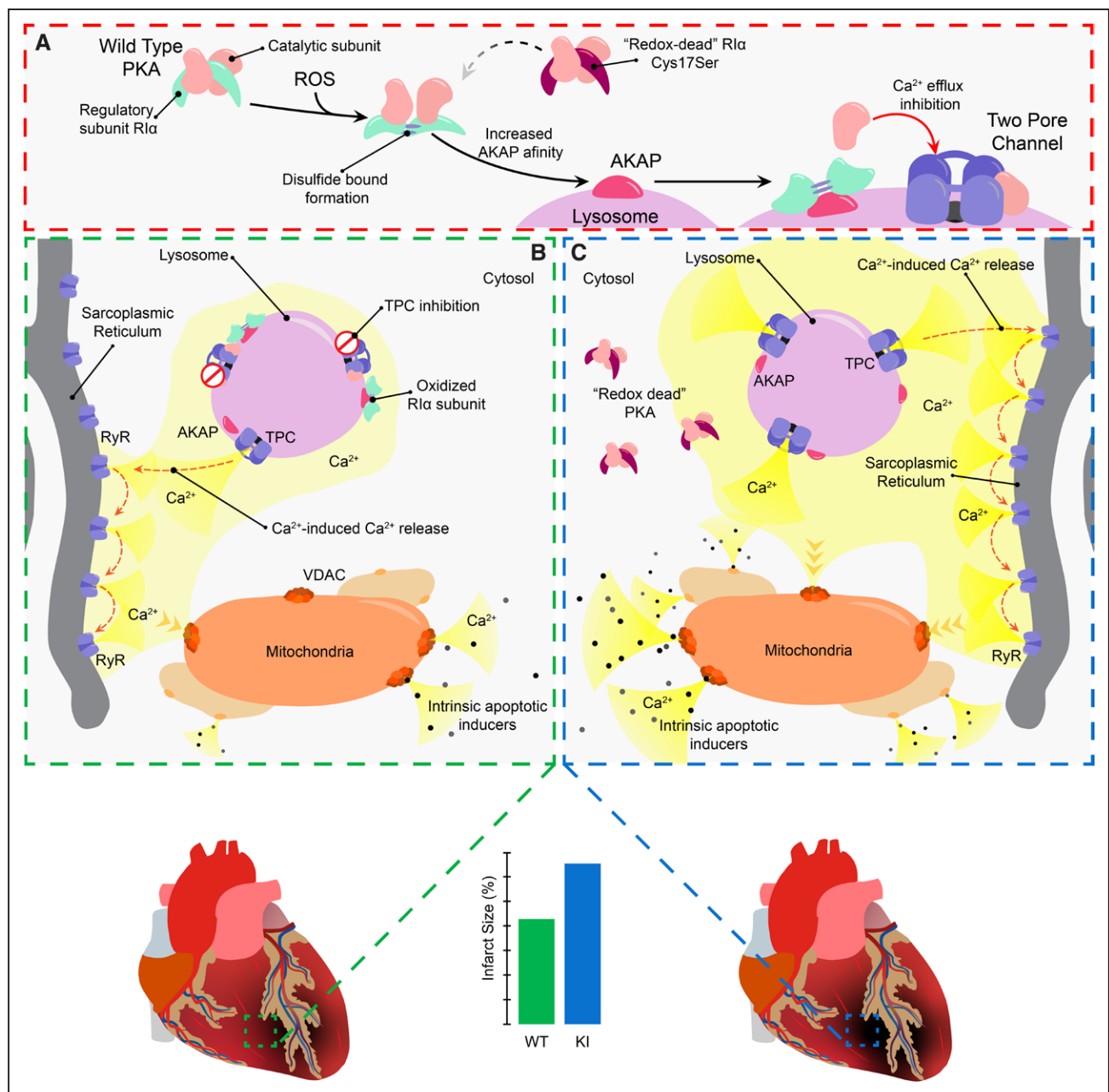


Figure. Oxidation and subsequent disulfide formation of the R1α isoform of PKA (protein kinase A) appears to reflect an endogenous protective mechanism that limits myocardial damage in response to oxidative stress.

A, During ischemia/reperfusion (I/R) injury, oxidation of wild-type PKA occurs in response to reactive oxygen species (ROS) formation, promoting AKAP (A-kinase anchoring protein) binding in the lysosomal microdomain. Binding to AKAP on the lysosome releases the catalytic subunits of PKA that phosphorylate the lysosomal 2-pore channel (TPC) and prevents lysosomal calcium (Ca²⁺) release. A PKA mutant in which the R1α subunit of PKA is replaced by redox-dead isoform (Cys17Ser) does not localize to the lysosome and does not influence the TPC. **B**, Phosphorylation of the TPC prevents Ca²⁺ release and limits Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) and mitochondria. **C**, In knock-in mice where the R1α subunit of PKA is replaced by the redox-dead Cys17Ser mutant, PKA can no longer bind to the TPC, which aggravates I/R injury and promotes spontaneous Ca²⁺ release from the lysosome. VDAC indicates voltage-dependent anion channel.

emission depletion microscopy, it was not confirmed by standard biochemical techniques. The relative translocation to the lysosome compared with other subcellular compartments is therefore unknown. Oxidized PKAR1α is known to translocate to myofilaments, and it is conceivable that other subcellular domains may also have contributed to the observed protection offered by oxidized PKAR1α.⁷ The majority of the reported work was

performed under normal culture conditions, suggesting that the results might have been different in the presence of high concentrations of ROS.

Oxidation of PKAR1α after I/R injury occurred both in the area at risk as well as in the myocardium remote from the infarction, but not in sham-operated hearts. These findings suggest that PKAR1α oxidation not only occurs in the context of oxidative stress but may

also be activated downstream of neurohumoral and hemodynamic signals.⁴ The NAADP (nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate) signals responsible for TPC-mediated lysosomal Ca²⁺ release are also activated downstream of neurohumoral signaling pathways, providing a possible mechanism for remote oxidation of PKAR1 α .¹⁰ Glucagon-like peptide-1 inhibitors specifically activate type 1 PKA and have been shown to attenuate myocardial I/R injury in patients presenting with ST-segment-elevation MI.^{8,15}

Simon et al⁸ have uncovered a novel endogenous cardioprotective mechanism in which oxidative stress limits myocardial injury via stabilization of lysosomal Ca²⁺ release. Future studies should aim to unravel mechanisms responsible and the extent to which this may translate to other forms of physiologic and pathologic stress. These results reinforce the concept that PKA is not always a villain in cardiac pathologies and provide a clear rationale for strategies to activate PKAR1 α to reduce reperfusion injury in patients with an acute MI.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

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Disclosures

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