

REVIEW ARTICLE

cAMP: A master regulator of cadherin-mediated binding in endothelium, epithelium and myocardium

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Abstract

Regulation of cadherin-mediated cell adhesion is crucial not only for maintaining tissue integrity and barrier function in the endothelium and epithelium but also for electromechanical coupling within the myocardium. Therefore, loss of cadherin-mediated adhesion causes various disorders, including vascular inflammation and desmosome-related diseases such as the autoimmune blistering skin dermatosis pemphigus and arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy. Mechanisms regulating cadherin-mediated binding contribute to the pathogenesis of diseases and may also be used as therapeutic targets. Over the last 30 years, cyclic adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate (cAMP) has emerged as one of the master regulators of cell adhesion in endothelium and, more recently, also in epithelial cells as well as in cardiomyocytes. A broad spectrum of experimental models from vascular physiology and cell biology applied by different generations of researchers provided evidence that not only cadherins of endothelial adherens junctions (AJ) but also desmosomal contacts in keratinocytes and the cardiomyocyte intercalated discs are central targets in this scenario. The molecular mechanisms involve protein kinase A- and exchange protein directly activated by cAMP-mediated regulation of Rho family GTPases and S665 phosphorylation of the AJ and desmosome adaptor protein plakoglobin. In line with this, phosphodiesterase 4 inhibitors such as apremilast have been proposed as a therapeutic strategy to stabilize cadherin-mediated adhesion in pemphigus and may also be effective to treat other disorders where cadherin-mediated binding is compromised.

KEYWORDS

adherens junction, cadherin, cAMP, desmosome, endothelium, epithelium, myocardium

1 | INTRODUCTION

Maintenance of cell–cell adhesion is crucial for the integrity of internal and external barriers in multicellular

organisms allowing to isolate the organism from the surrounding environment and separate different compartments within the body. These barriers include epithelia such as the epidermis as well as the endothelium

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outlining the inner wall of blood vessels and the heart. Moreover, the myocardium requires proper cell adhesion to allow the electromechanical coupling of cardiomyocytes during the contractile heart cycle. Although the main barrier-forming cell contacts in endothelium and epithelium are formed by tight junctions (TJ), the general assumption is that adherens junctions (AJ) and desmosomes as adhesive cell contacts are required to provide the mechanical strength for intercellular adhesion.¹⁻³ Both AJ and desmosomes consist of cadherin-type adhesion molecules which are coupled via adaptor proteins including plakoglobin (Pg) to the cytoskeleton. In endothelial AJ, VE-cadherin is coupled to actin filaments, whereas desmosomal cadherins comprise different desmoglein (Dsg) and desmocollin (Dsc) isoforms and are attached to intermediate filaments.^{4,5} In the myocardium, intercalated discs, besides proper desmosomes, also contain areae compositae in which AJ and desmosome components intermingle.⁶ This conserved backbone of cadherin-based adhesive contacts serves as the structural basis for shared mechanisms in the regulation of intercellular adhesion in cell types as diverse as endothelial cells, keratinocytes and cardiomyocytes.

Research on the regulation of barrier function in blood vessels goes back to a time when the molecular composition of cell contacts was unknown. Then, vascular physiologists studied the transport of water and fluid across the vessel wall and proposed different forms of pores to allow regulated exchange.^{7,8} Meanwhile, it is known that TJ, together with the glycocalyx, are the structures to limit endothelial paracellular permeability.^{9,10} The groundbreaking studies of physiologists identified the second messenger, cyclic adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate (cAMP), as one of the most efficient signaling molecules to reduce permeability against almost all forms of inflammatory stimuli.¹¹ Later, cAMP in the endothelium was found to regulate the Rho family GTPases and to control VE-cadherin-mediated adhesion, which was identified as a central barrier-supporting adhesion molecule.^{12,13} Since Rho family GTPases were identified to regulate cadherin adhesion in desmosomes, the role of cAMP to regulate desmosomal adhesion was explored in keratinocytes and in cardiomyocytes because these cell types are affected by the desmosome-related diseases pemphigus and arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy, respectively.¹⁴ This review summarizes the current knowledge on the regulation of cadherin-mediated adhesion by cAMP in different tissues and highlights components of the cAMP signaling cascade and its downstream molecules as targets for therapeutic approaches in disease.

2 | cAMP SIGNALING PATHWAY

cAMP was identified as a second messenger by Sutherland and Tall in 1958¹⁵ and plays a critical role in a plethora of cellular functions such as the response to hormones and neurotransmitters, migration, mitochondrial homeostasis, proliferation and cell death.¹⁶ The broad spectrum of cellular functions requires precisely regulated levels of cAMP in the cell and compartmentalization of cAMP signaling to provide a cell- and stimulus-specific response.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ Levels of cAMP are balanced by the activity of adenylyl cyclases (AC) and phosphodiesterases (PDE), of which different isoforms with certain expression pattern and mechanisms of regulation exist.^{19,20} The α subunit of G protein drives AC activation. Important members of this G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCR) are the β -adrenoreceptors (Figure 1). Vice versa, AC activity can be inhibited by muscarinic receptors and their α_i subunit of the G_i protein²⁰ (Figure 1).

cAMP induces activation of protein kinase A (PKA) and exchange protein directly activated by cAMP (Epac).^{21,22} PKA consists of two catalytic (C) and two regulatory (R) subunits, the latter of which binds to cAMP.²¹ cAMP binding leads to dissociation of the subunits and release of the catalytic subunit affecting a broad range of downstream targets²³ (Figure 1). A-kinase-anchoring proteins (AKAP) attach to the regulatory subunits of PKA to drive compartmentalization of PKA (Figure 1). For instance, AKAPs link PKA to the classical cadherins VE-cadherin and E-cadherin.²⁴⁻²⁶ In addition, Epac activates the GTPase Rap1²² but is also involved in other cellular processes such as cell adhesion,^{27,28} differentiation²⁹ and gene expression.²¹

The cAMP signaling cascade is connected to and regulated by a plethora of other signaling pathways known to be involved in desmosomal and adherens junction adhesion such as Ca^{2+} signaling,³⁰ Rho family GTPases,¹³ PKC,³¹ PI3K,³² PLC and MAPK/ERK signaling.³³

Pharmacologically, the cAMP signaling cascade can be targeted by several mediators to modulate cadherin-mediated adhesion. A selection of respective compounds and targets are summarized and highlighted in Figure 1.

3 | cAMP REGULATES BARRIER FUNCTION AND CADHERIN-MEDIATED CELL ADHESION OF ENDOTHELIAL CELLS UNDER PHYSIOLOGIC AND INFLAMMATORY CONDITIONS

Endothelium, as a single, semipermeable layer of endothelial cells covering the inner surface of the blood vessels,

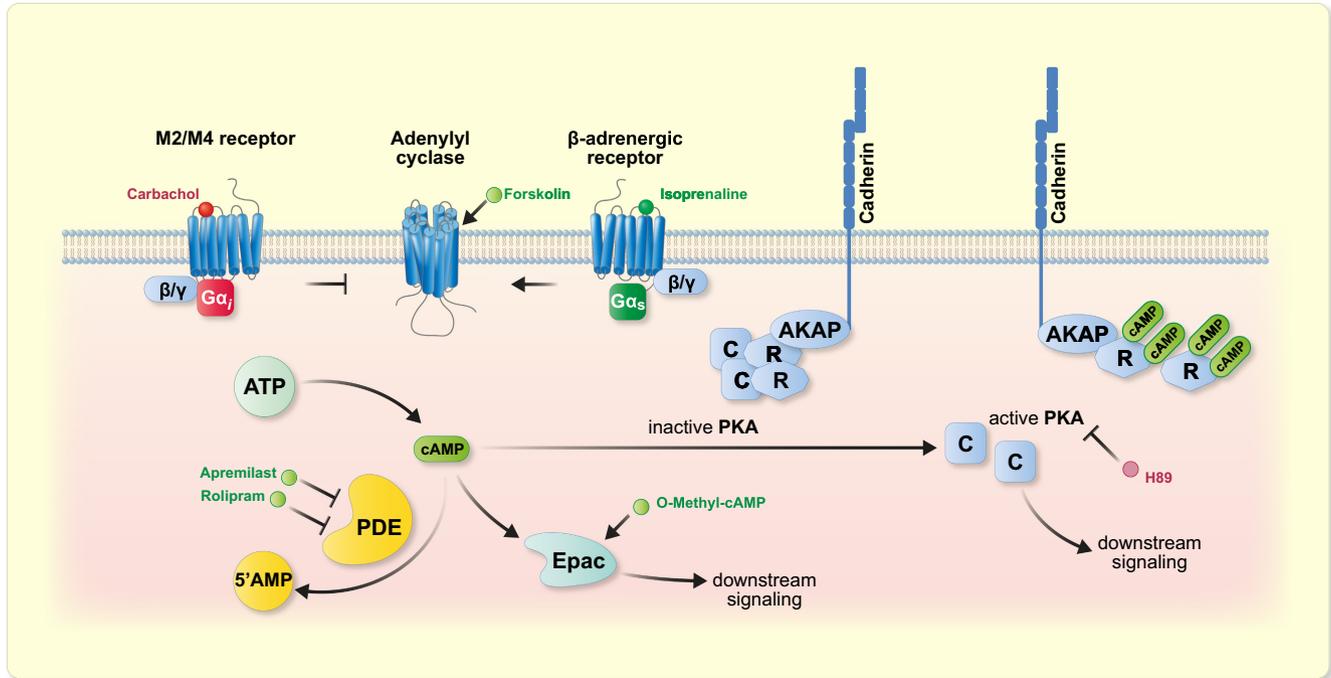


FIGURE 1 cAMP signaling machinery. Intracellular cAMP levels are controlled by phosphodiesterase (PDE) and adenylyl cyclase (AC) activity, the latter of which is regulated by β -adrenoreceptors and M2/M4 muscarinic receptors. cAMP activates PKA and Epac which in turn lead to a plethora of downstream signaling that maintain the respective function of cAMP signaling. Different compounds can be used pharmacologically to regulate cAMP levels: Carbachol: agonist of muscarinic Ach-receptor; Forskolin: activator of adenylyl cyclase; Isoprenaline: agonist of β -adrenoreceptor; Rolipram: PDE4 inhibitor, Apremilast: PDE4 inhibitor, H89: PKA inhibitor, O-methyl-cAMP: activator of Epac. 5'AMP, 5'adenosine monophosphate; AKAP, A-kinase-anchoring protein; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; C, catalytic units; cAMP, cyclic adenosine 3',5'- monophosphate; Epac, exchange protein directly activated by cAMP; PKA, protein kinase A; R, regulatory units.

provides a selective barrier between the blood and the surrounding tissue.^{4,34} Several processes contribute to the maintenance of endothelial barrier integrity such as actin-myosin contraction, cell-cell and cell-matrix adhesion, actin cytoskeleton remodeling and glycocalyx integrity.⁹ Therefore, the balance between adhesion and contraction is crucial for the barrier function and this may be partly controlled by cAMP.³⁵⁻³⁷ Endothelial barrier dysfunction, occurring mainly in postcapillary venules,^{34,38} is a hallmark of various pathological disorders such as tumor, edema or severe inflammation, which often is accompanied by sepsis and multiorgan failure, remaining a primary cause of mortality in intensive care units.³⁹⁻⁴¹ Under inflammatory conditions, endothelial barrier breakdown is mostly caused by gap formation at intercellular contacts (paracellular leak), whereas the transcellular leak is less relevant.^{4,42,43} Paracellular permeability is controlled by the dynamic opening and closing of intercellular junctions,^{40,44} such as AJ and TJ. While the TJ seal the intercellular cleft between neighboring cells and thus directly control paracellular permeability, VE-cadherin-composed AJ provide mechanical strength, initiate cell-to-cell contacts and support their maturation and preservation. It is also believed that AJ assembly is essential for precise TJ

organization.^{44,45} In addition to the ability to transmit intracellular signals, which can modulate many endothelial functions, both junctional complexes are associated with the actin cytoskeleton, which explains why the regulation of actin dynamic is also crucial for the maintenance of endothelial barrier integrity.^{40,45,46,47}

A remarkable number of studies revealed that intracellular cAMP levels drop significantly during onset of inflammation,⁴⁸⁻⁵¹ while increased cAMP levels reduce paracellular permeability under basal conditions⁵²⁻⁵⁴ and attenuate the endothelial cells inflammatory response in vitro and in vivo.^{50,51,55,56,57,58,59,60,61,62,63,64,65} To do so, cAMP is produced by endothelial cells downstream of β -adrenergic receptors which were found to be necessary for proper barrier function in vivo.⁶⁶ Before, cAMP was shown to regulate permeability of brain capillaries⁶⁷ However, Fitzroy E. Curry's laboratory was the first to discover the effect of cAMP on baseline endothelial permeability in intact microvessels in vivo. The group reported that treatment with agents enhancing cAMP levels reduce microvascular hydraulic conductivity (Lp) of single intact capillaries and postcapillary venules. Interestingly, the effect was not linked to closure of preexisting gaps but was associated with an increase in the mean number of

TJ between cells in vivo.^{58,68} The latter observation was in agreement with an in vitro study reporting modulation of TJ complexity by cAMP⁵⁴ and supported by the finding that the basal levels of cAMP are crucial for maintaining cell membrane permeability under resting conditions.⁶⁹

As outlined earlier, cAMP is generated by AC in response to various stimuli triggering GPCRs. In contrast, hydrolysis of cAMP via different PDEs leads to its degradation.⁷⁰⁻⁷³ Therefore, it is believed that application of cAMP-enhancing agents such as PDE inhibitors has the potential to overcome the loss of endothelial barrier function. Thus, in this context, PDE inhibitors against the most abundant PDE isoform in endothelium, that is, PDE4, such as rolipram or roflumilast have been intensively tested.⁷⁴⁻⁷⁶ Several studies were showing that systemic PDE inhibition may attenuate inflammation- or sepsis-derived microvascular leakage in vivo.⁷⁷⁻⁸⁰ Recently, activation of PDE3A, found to be expressed in the heart and lungs and known to hydrolyze both cAMP and cGMP, was also shown to negatively regulate cAMP levels in LPS-challenged mice in vivo.⁸¹

It is important to notice that cAMP synthesis within different cell compartments is critical for endothelial barrier function. While the cAMP localized at the plasma membrane strengthens barrier function, the cytosolic pool of cAMP was reported to cause barrier dysfunction.^{13,82,83,84,85,86,87} In this line of thoughts, a number of reviews discussed the existence of signalosome complexes where a unique combination of cyclic nucleotide effectors such as PKA or other kinases, phosphatases, ACs and Epac are in interaction with PDE and/or other scaffolding proteins (i.e. AKAPs, β -arrestin, or RACK1) to promote highly compartmentalized cyclic nucleotide signaling platforms.^{72,73,88,89,90,91} Interestingly, cAMP extruded into the extracellular space was also identified. This so-called “free” cAMP directly contributes to intercellular communication. Beyond this, cAMP encapsulated within extracellular vesicles was discovered too. The latter acts in a similar fashion to the cAMP localized near the membrane by preserving the intact endothelial barrier.^{92,93} However, a recent study revealed that prolong activation of cAMP signaling leads to endothelial barrier dysfunction. In fact, cAMP, as a key regulator of gene expression, repressed the RRAS gene, leading to VE-cadherin clustering and thereby AJ disruption.⁹⁴

Downstream from cAMP, endothelial barrier function is enhanced by the activation of PKA⁹⁵⁻⁹⁸ and consequent phosphorylation of its substrates such as ERK,⁹⁹ ZNF185,¹⁰⁰ MLCK,⁶¹ RhoA,¹⁰¹ VASP,¹⁰²⁻¹⁰⁶ and/or Epac and its effector GTPase Rap1³¹ (Figure 2). These otherwise independent pathways may work in parallel to maintain barrier function.¹⁰⁷ Further down, PKA- and Epac-mediated pathways converged on Rac1, the activation of which is

Tiam1/Vav2 dependent. Rac1 together with RhoA and Cdc42 belongs to Rho family of small GTPases, which earlier were found to be involved in the regulation of the endothelial barrier.¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹¹ Later, the requirement of Rac1 for cAMP-dependent endothelial barrier maintenance in vivo and in vitro was demonstrated and it was shown that Rac1 is crucial for VE-cadherin junctional integrity, strengthening of junction-associated actin cytoskeleton and the VE-cadherin-actin cytoskeleton anchorage.^{112,113}

cAMP-mediated Rac1 activation was verified in both micro- and macrovascular endothelium in vitro,^{114,115} though the data for the latter are controversial.¹¹⁶ Meanwhile, it was shown that Epac1 acts as a tonic stabilizer of vascular baseline permeability in vivo.¹¹⁷ In line with this, in cultured cells, Epac1 was found to be critical for basal and cAMP-mediated endothelial barrier stabilization, which is partly independent of Rac1.¹¹⁸ Inhibition of Epac also increased the basal permeability in bovine retinal endothelium and the Epac-Rap1 pathway preserved TJ organization of ZO1, claudin-5 and occludin.¹¹⁹ Independent of cAMP/Epac1 activation, Rap1A can be also triggered by ArhGEF12 to limit disruption of TJ-dependent integrity induced by inflammation.¹²⁰ Furthermore, it was shown that FLRT2/LPHN2/cAMP/Rap1 signaling disassemble integrin-based focal adhesions and promotes ZO1-containing TJ. These effects were associated with restriction of YAP/TAZ signaling cascade known to regulate an angiogenic blood vessel formation and function.¹²¹ cAMP/PKA signaling modulates endothelial permeability by phosphorylating the TJ component claudin-5.¹²²⁻¹²⁴ Moreover, it was shown that stimulation of cAMP/PKA/CREB cascade via G α leads to an increase of plasmalemma vesicle-associated protein (PLVAP) expression, a membrane protein playing indispensable role in endothelial barrier function.¹²⁵ In this context, the role of G α was also demonstrated in vivo.

Signaling activation by an EPAC-specific cAMP analog also restored the barrier properties by attenuating VEGF/ERK signaling.¹¹⁹ Indeed, numerous studies revealed that Rap1, its effectors and their binding partners (Rasip1, Radil, ArhGAP29, Cdc42 and its GEF FGD5, AF6, KRIT1) control RhoA/ROCK signaling, actin dynamics, as well as recruitment and stabilization of junctional complexes.¹²⁶⁻¹³¹ In this respect multiple studies reported that cAMP/Epac/Rap signaling promotes augmentation of VE-cadherin-mediated adhesion associated with cortical actin rearrangement.^{28,116,132,133,134,135} The impact of VE-cadherin was further demonstrated when strengthening of VE-cadherin transinteraction via a tandem peptide was protective against stimuli compromising the barrier in vivo.¹³⁶ In line with this, VE-cadherin extracellular interaction created a positive feedback loop of Rac1-signaling and thereby this VE-cadherin outside-in signaling may

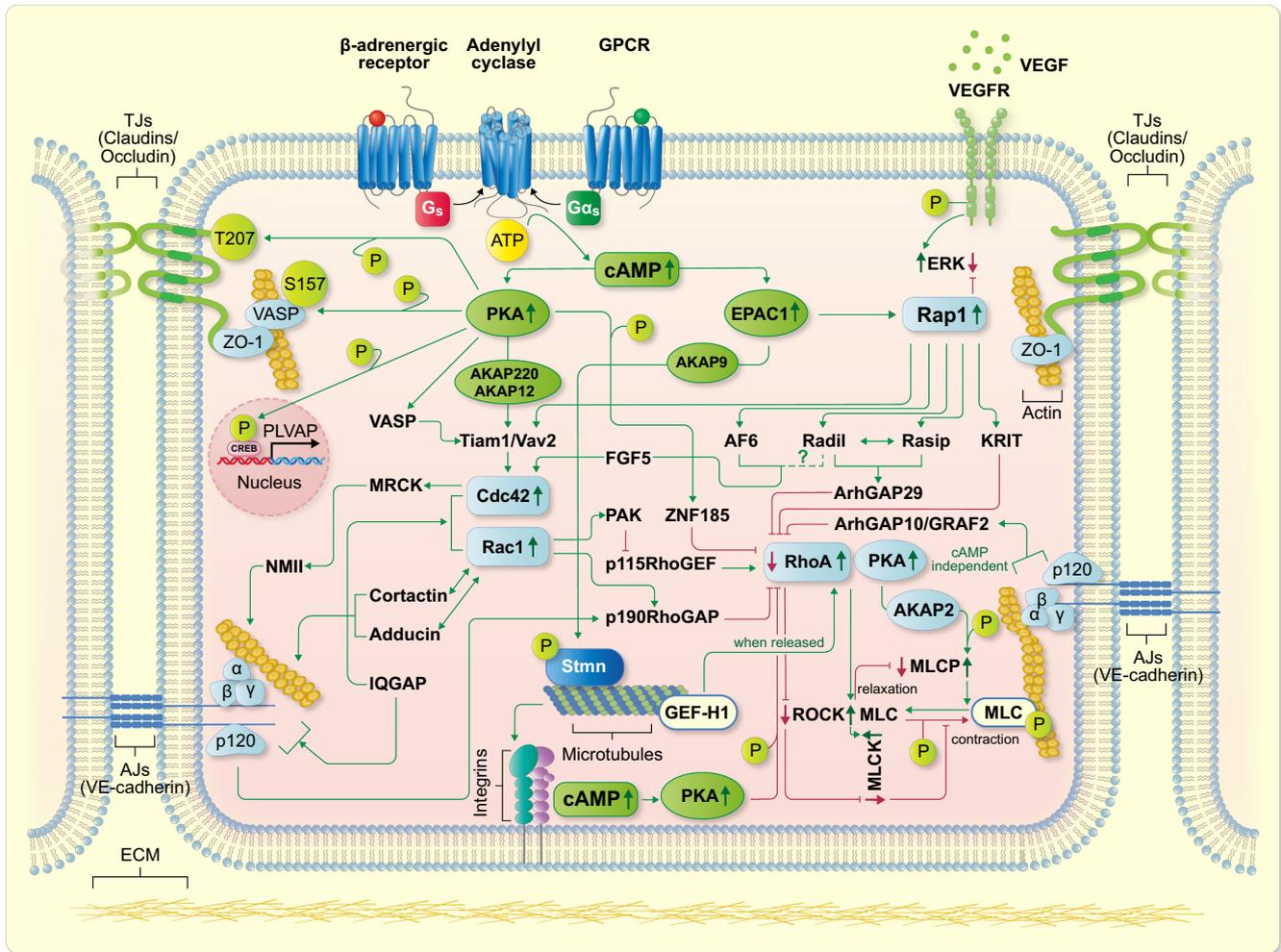


FIGURE 2 Mechanisms involved in cAMP-mediated regulation of cadherin adhesion and barrier function in the endothelium. cAMP produced under control of β -adrenergic signaling activates PKA and Epac1 which control the activity of Rho family GTPases and thereby fine-tune the balance of cytoskeletal anchorage and actin–myosin contraction to regulate endothelial AJ.

control local Rac1 activity.¹³⁷ Vice versa, VE-cadherin fragments (sVE-cadherin) released from endothelial cells upon inflammation, which were detected in sepsis patients, interfered with VE-cadherin interaction and therefore promote endothelial barrier breakdown *in vitro*.¹³⁸

Finally, AKAPs and actin-binding proteins are crucial modulators of cAMP/PKA-dependent Rac1 stimulation (Figure 2). It was shown that AKAPs are required for endothelial barrier integrity *in vivo* and particularly AKAP220 and AKAP12 control cAMP-mediated Rac1 activation *in vitro*.²⁴ AKAP9, downstream from Epac1, was also introduced to promote microtubule growth and thus enhanced endothelial barrier stability.¹³⁹ Recently, AKAP2 was identified for cAMP-independent PKA activation, leading to myosin light chain phosphatase (MLCP) stimulation and consequent MLC dephosphorylation resulting in reduced endothelial cell contraction and endothelial barrier preservation.¹⁴⁰ Additionally, actin-binding proteins including vasodilator-stimulated phosphoprotein

(VASP),^{103,104,106} adducin,^{141,142} and cortactin¹⁴³ are involved in the modulation of cAMP-mediated Rac1 activity and barrier function. In this context, the role of cortactin was also demonstrated *in vivo*.

It is important to note that Rac1 activation promoted by both Epac1 and PKA can contribute to the inhibition of RhoA signaling, assuming the existence of a Rac1/RhoA crosstalk mechanism stimulated by cAMP^{144,145} (Figure 2). Moreover, cAMP/PKA activation, independently of Rac1, may inhibit the RhoA/ROCK pathway. The latter is reported to reduce MLC phosphorylation via MLCP activation and thereby leading to inactivation of endothelial contractile machinery.^{146,147} However, this was shown for macrovascular endothelium *in vitro* only, which is not the vascular bed relevant for inflammation. Since it was demonstrated that contractile mechanisms are overexaggerated in cultured endothelium,³⁷ the *in vivo* relevance of this mechanism is unclear. cAMP-induced PKA activation may also phosphorylate ZNF185, which

together with filamentous actin was reported to localize to the plasma membrane and stabilize cortical actin and thus was found to be important for barrier function in vivo. ZNF185 is also essential for cAMP/PKA-induced RhoA inhibition.¹⁰⁰ Taken together, ample evidence has been provided over the last two decades that cAMP via PKA and Epac1 controls endothelial barrier properties including VE-cadherin adhesion by the regulation of Rap1 and Rho family GTPases. In this process, spatiotemporal regulation is provided by AKAPs and actin-binding proteins which allow actin anchorage of VE-cadherin and actin-myosin contraction along junctions to be fine-tuned.

4 | cAMP INDUCES POSITIVE ADHESIOTROPY IN CARDIOMYOCYTES

In contrast to endothelial cells, intercellular adhesion of cardiomyocytes depends on both AJ and desmosomes, both of which comprise cadherin-type adhesion molecules to maintain the adhesive function.⁶ Impaired cardiomyocyte cohesion can contribute to heart disease. Arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy in most patients is considered to be an inherited heart disease, the pathogenesis of which is very complex and includes morphological changes such as fibrosis and fatty degeneration, inflammation, arrhythmias and a loss of cell–cell adhesion, all of which affect the myocardium and impair its function leading to an increased risk of sudden cardiac death.^{148,149} Fibro-fatty degeneration results from altered signal transduction in Hippo, an interacting partner of Pg, and of Wnt, along with impaired α V β 6-integrin binding and transforming growth factor β (TGF β) release.^{2,6,150–155} In addition, inflammation may cause myocardial damage.^{156–159} However, early arrhythmias occur without detectable myocardial damage and may be induced by p38MAPK and ERK-mediated loss of gap junction (GJ) component Cx43 and disruption of ryanodine receptor 2 (RyR2).^{153,160–162} Excitation propagation is transmitted via GJ using electrotonic and ephaptic coupling with Nav 1.5 channels and depends on Ca²⁺ homeostasis.¹⁶³

It is important that arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy is considered as a disease of the desmosome^{148,149} since more than 60% of patients carry mutations in genes for Dp (*DSP*), Pkp2 (*PKP2*), Pg (*JUP*), Dsg2 (*DSG2*) and Dsc2 (*DSC2*).^{148,149} Beta blockers are recommended as the first-line therapy for arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy patients; however, the prophylactic use of β blockers in healthy gene carriers was not recommended.¹⁶⁴ In contrast, beta-blocker treatment was ineffective in certain arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy patient's cohorts.¹⁶⁵ Therefore, it is imperative to understand how cAMP, a downstream

effector molecule of β -adrenergic receptor, regulates cardiomyocyte cohesion.

In this pursuit, the first evidence for a possible role of cAMP in cardiomyocyte desmosomal adhesion was found when β_1 -adrenergic receptor was localized to the intercalated disc of intact mouse myocardium,¹⁶⁶ where the desmosome together with AJ and GJ proteins is localized⁶ (Figure 3). Further, in another study, adrenergic signaling phosphorylated Pg at serine 665 by PKA, paralleled by an enhanced desmosomal adhesion via increased Dsg2 interactions at cell borders, eventually leading to enhanced cardiomyocyte cohesion in vitro.¹⁶⁷ Similar to other functions of adrenergic signaling in the heart, this phenomenon was referred to as “positive adhesiotropy.” On the ultrastructural level, positive adhesiotropy was characterized by increased area composita length and plaque thickness at intercalated discs in murine slice culture.¹⁶⁸ In line with this, enhanced cardiomyocyte cohesion was abrogated in the Pg-deficient murine arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy model. Furthermore, Langendorff's experiments with β -adrenergic mediator isoprenaline in Pg-deficient hearts failed to increase pulse pressure and heart rate ex vivo, indicating that the positive adhesiotropic effects of β -adrenergic signaling could be coupled with positive inotropic and chronotropic effects. Indeed, treatment of murine hearts with the inotropic agent digitoxin enhanced desmosomal adhesion, paralleled by increased plaque thickness and enhanced Dp and Dsg2 localization at the intercalated disc.¹⁶⁹ Similar to the abrogation of positive adhesiotropy by adrenergic signaling in Pg-deficient mouse heart,¹⁶⁷ the inotropic agent digitoxin failed to induce positive inotropy and adhesiotropy in the absence of Pg. Overall, these observations strongly support that adhesiotropy and inotropy are interlinked and cAMP via PKA-mediated Pg-S665 phosphorylation can alter both inotropy and adhesiotropy.

The cardiac desmosome is classically thought to function as a cell–cell adhesive structure¹⁷⁰; however, emerging evidence points to non-canonical roles for the cardiac desmosome in regulating electrical channels and function, independent of its structural roles. Indeed, a functional interplay between desmosomes, GJ protein, and β_1 -adrenergic receptors was observed in HL-1 cardiomyocytes.¹⁷¹ In this study, immunoprecipitation of GJ protein, Cx43, revealed Dsg2 and β_1 -adrenergic receptors in complex with Cx43 in vitro. Furthermore, impaired cadherin binding induced by tryptophan or siRNA-mediated depletion of Dsg2 or Pg significantly abrogated cAMP increase and impaired conduction velocity of HL-1 cardiac myocytes in response to β_1 -adrenergic receptor activation in vitro. Overall, the findings from this study revealed that desmosomal proteins aid in sufficient GJ and β_1 -adrenergic receptor functions,

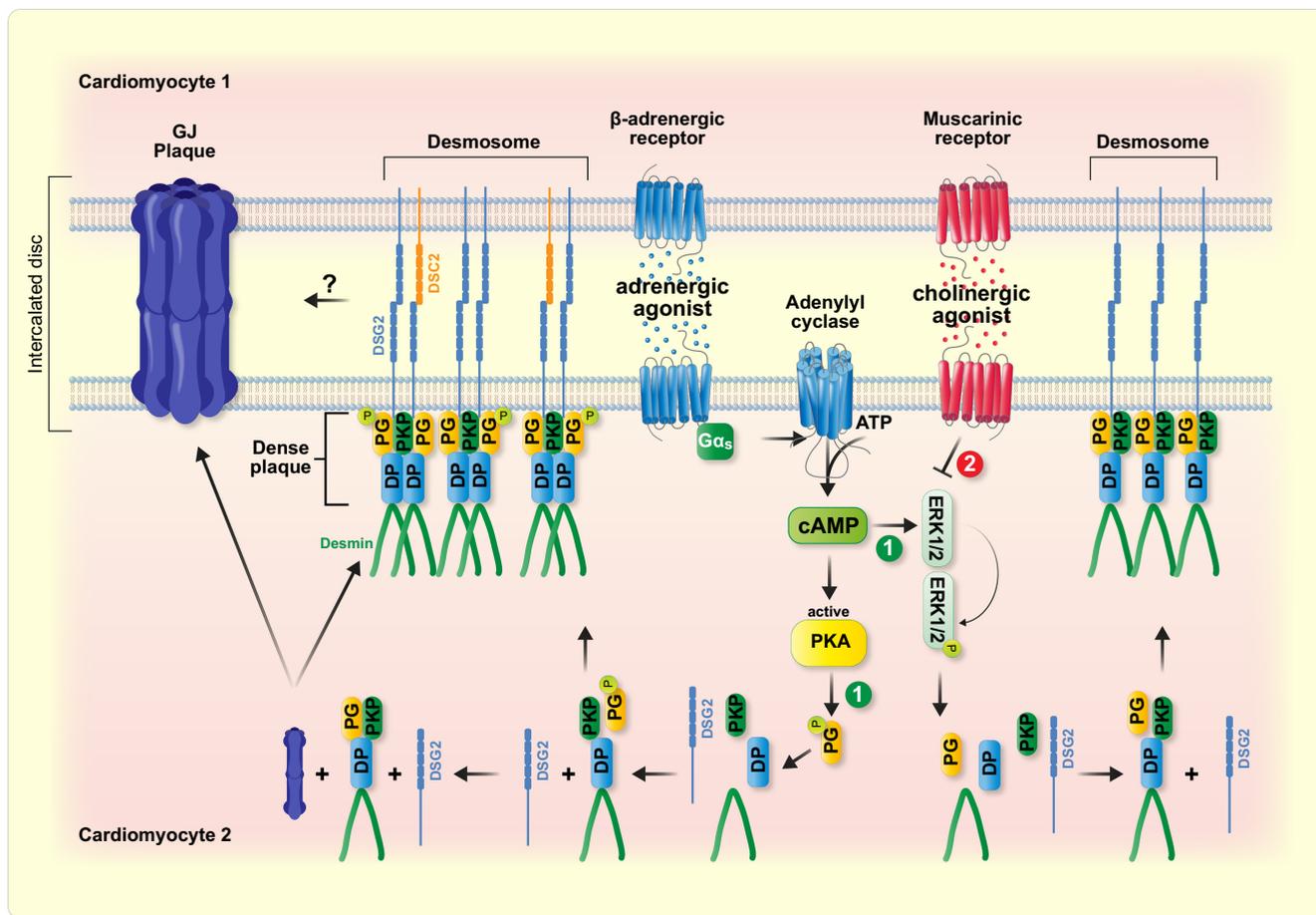


FIGURE 3 cAMP-mediated stabilization of desmosomal adhesion at intercalated discs. Adrenergic and cholinergic signaling have antagonistic effects on desmosomal adhesion which in part are mediated by opposite regulation of signaling molecules such as ERK. In addition, cAMP triggers PKA-mediated Pg phosphorylation at S665, which drives desmosome assembly and enhances GJ function.

and concomitantly, β_1 -adrenergic receptor signaling regulates both desmosomal adhesion and GJ function. Although the signaling mechanisms operating between desmogleins and GJ are not clear, a linking peptide enhancing Dsg2 binding rescued GJ function and caused PKC-mediated phosphorylation of Cx43 at Serine 368.¹⁷² Moreover, a loss of interaction between Pkp2, Dp, Cx43, N-cad, and ankyrin G, which necessitate directional transport of Nav 1.5 to the ICDs, disrupted excitatory conduction.^{162,166,173–177} Similarly, Dsg2 and Pkp2 probably also influence the functional properties of these channels through their association with Nav1.5.^{178–180} In a recent study, Pg deubiquitination enhanced its interaction with the Dp and end-binding protein 1 complex, promoting the microtubule-dependent transport of Cx43.¹⁸¹

The downstream mechanisms of cAMP-mediated positive adhesiotropy include PKA-mediated Pg-S665 phosphorylation and ERK1/2¹⁸² (Figure 4), the latter of which was dependent on Pg, Dp, and Dsg2 in vitro. Interestingly, the role of ERK1/2 in desmosomal adhesion contrasts in

keratinocytes compared to cardiomyocytes, as ERK1/2 inhibition rather than activation was proven beneficial for desmosomal adhesion in keratinocytes.¹⁸³

It is well established that cardiac stimulation by the sympathetic and parasympathetic autonomic nervous system has antagonistic effects on many aspects of cardiomyocyte physiology. Similarly, recently it was demonstrated that cholinergic signaling in both HL-1 cells and murine ventricular cardiac slices from wild-type and Pg-deficient mice antagonized the positive adhesiotropy of adrenergic signaling¹⁸⁴ (Figure 3). In addition, cholinergic signaling abrogated Dsg2 translocation to cell borders via inhibiting ERK1/2 activation in vitro. This observation was further supported by the finding that cholinergic signaling effectively reduced cardiomyocyte cohesion in Pg-deficient murine slices ex vivo, suggesting that alternative pathways independent of Pg exist for cholinergic signaling mediated cardiomyocyte cohesion. Furthermore, cholinergic signaling reduced the translocation of Dsg2 and Dp to cell borders, thereby cardiomyocyte cohesion dependent on the

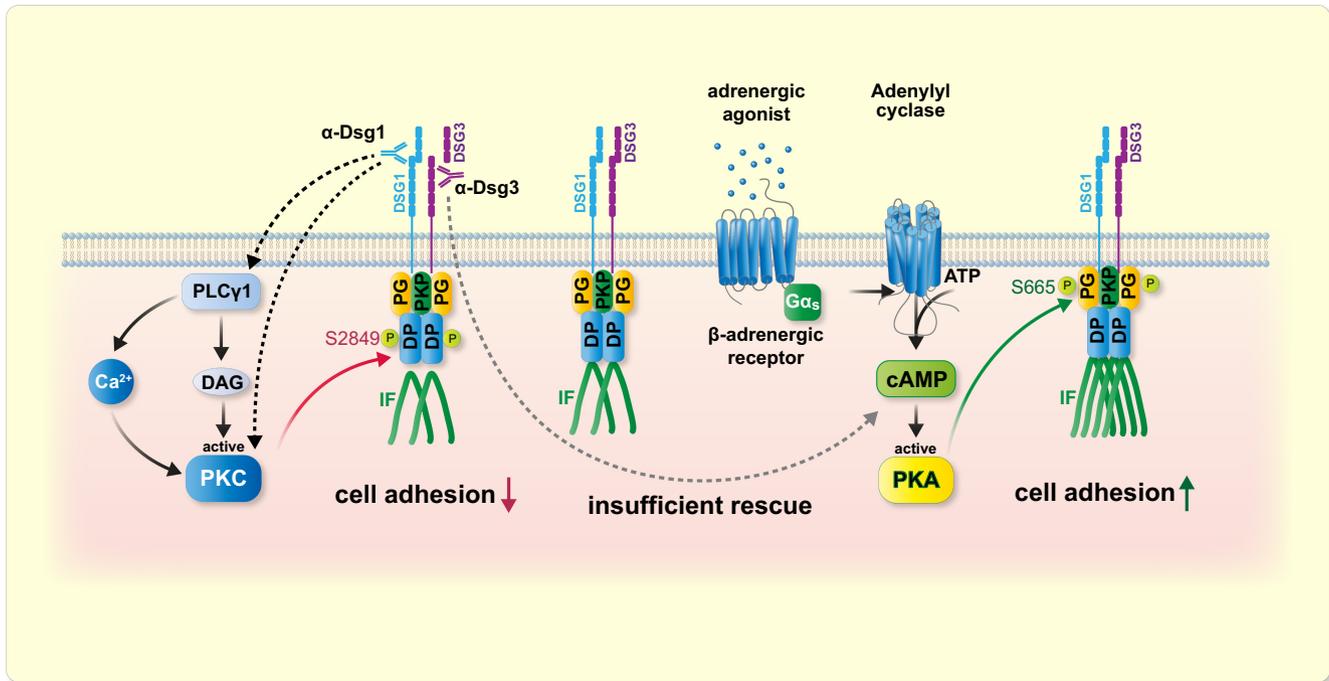


FIGURE 4 Mechanisms by which cAMP and other signaling pathways involved in pemphigus regulate cytoskeletal anchorage of desmosomes. cAMP via PKA-mediated Pg-S665 phosphorylation enhances desmosome anchorage to the intermediate filament cytoskeleton. This outbalances the signaling triggered by pemphigus autoantibodies which bind to Dsg1 and Dsg3. Finally, PKC phosphorylates Dp at S2849 and thereby reduces the cytoskeletal coupling of desmosomes. Therefore, phosphorylation of Pg and Dp serves as molecular switches to balance desmosomal adhesion.

PI3Kinase-AKT-GSK3- β signaling axis. The counterbalance of enhanced cardiomyocyte cohesion in response to adrenergic signaling by the cholinergic signaling axis was termed as “negative adhesiotropy.”

In summary, adrenergic signaling via enhanced cAMP stabilizes desmosomal adhesion by activating PKA-mediated PG-S665 phosphorylation and ERK1/2 activation. Cholinergic signaling interferes with adrenergic signaling and destabilizes desmosomal adhesion via abrogation of ERK1/2 activation and via the PI3Kinase-AKT-GSK3- β signaling axis.

5 | cAMP STABILIZES KERATINOCYTE DESMOSOMAL ADHESION VIA PHOSPHORYLATION OF PLAKOGLOBIN

Similar to cardiomyocytes, AJ and desmosomes provide intercellular adhesion to keratinocytes.^{1,185,186} In contrast, desmosomal cadherins, Dsg1-4 and Dsc1-3, which are the adhesion molecules in desmosomes, are expressed in a differentiation dependent manner in human epidermis. Intracellularly, desmosomal cadherins are linked via the desmosomal plaque proteins plakoglobin (Pg),

plakophilins (Pkp), and desmoplakin (Dp) to the keratin filament cytoskeleton.^{1,187}

With regard to cAMP signaling, keratinocytes comprise the complete adrenergic signaling machinery including several adenylyl cyclases such as AC3, 7, and 9^{188,189} and PDE4.¹⁹⁰ Interestingly, β_2 -adrenergic receptors are also expressed in keratinocytes of the human epidermis¹⁹¹ and were initially identified to increase intracellular Ca^{2+} and in turn to activate PKC.³⁰ Downstream signaling of cAMP involves PKA and Epac1, both of which are expressed in keratinocytes.¹⁹² Furthermore, cAMP signaling was shown to be involved in the regulation of several processes of keratinocyte cell biology including homeostasis and migration. For instance, directional migration was promoted by the decrease of cellular cAMP¹⁹³ and β_2 -adrenergic stimulation accelerated skin barrier recovery.¹⁹⁴ In addition, TGF β_1 -induced cell scattering and invasiveness were inhibited by cAMP increase.¹⁹⁵ It is important to note that cAMP decrease promotes migration and invasive behavior, both of which are processes that lead to downregulation of adhesion molecules.¹⁹⁶ In the bullous autoimmune disease pemphigus, autoantibodies mainly against the desmosomal cadherins, Dsg1 and Dsg3 (Figure 4), cause blistering of the skin and the mucous membranes.¹⁹⁷ Therefore, pemphigus is an autoimmune desmosome disease. Morphologically, blistering is accompanied by

depletion of Dsg1 and Dsg3 from the cell membrane and alterations of the keratin cytoskeleton, both of which contribute to loss of intercellular adhesion.^{198,199} The ultrastructural correlate of these changes is reduced number and size of desmosomes, alterations in the keratin insertion as well as desmosome splitting.^{183,200,201} Therapeutic strategies in pemphigus mainly focus on suppression of autoantibody production and thus on the immune system. In contrast, therapies directly targeting keratinocyte cohesion are not established yet but would fulfill an unmet clinical need.^{197,202,203}

Mechanisms causing loss of intercellular adhesion in pemphigus comprise direct inhibition of Dsg3 interactions as well as dysregulation of a plethora of signaling pathways.^{202,204} Among the signaling pathways, several were identified which were activated upon autoantibody binding and contribute to the loss of adhesion such as p38MAPK,^{205–207} Src,^{208,209} PLC,^{210,211} and Erk^{203,212,213} in vivo. Inhibition of these signaling pathways abolished loss of intercellular adhesion and epidermal blistering.^{183,214,215}

In contrast, cAMP signaling was also increased in response to pemphigus autoantibodies but seems to represent an insufficient cellular rescue mechanism which can be pharmacologically augmented to abolish loss of keratinocyte cohesion²¹⁶ (Figure 4). The AC activator forskolin in combination with the PDE4 inhibitor rolipram (F/R) or the β -receptor agonist isoprenaline protected keratinocytes from loss of intercellular adhesion in vitro and in vivo,²¹⁶ but are unsuitable for the use in patient due to expected severe cardiovascular side effects. β_2 -adrenergic stimulation of the skin was also associated with PKA-dependent increase of differentiation markers keratin K1 and K10 and involucrin²¹⁷ showing cross-regulation of keratin filaments and adrenergic signaling, which explains how desmosomal cadherins regulate epidermal differentiation via cAMP signaling. In this context, it is important to note that β_2 receptors are downregulated in psoriatic skin, where epidermal differentiation is also disturbed.²¹⁸

Meanwhile, further drugs were developed such as the selective PDE4 inhibitor apremilast, which is clinically approved for psoriasis and Behcet's disease, the effects of which primarily were attributed exclusively to the immune system.^{219–223} However, recently it was shown that apremilast was protective against pemphigus autoantibody-induced blister formation in vivo in mouse and ex vivo in human skin and abrogated loss of keratinocyte cohesion.²²⁴ Additionally, apremilast was successfully applied and tested for its efficacy in a patient suffering from therapy-resistant pemphigus vulgaris.²²⁵

cAMP increase by apremilast or F/R restored alterations of the keratin cytoskeleton in cell culture and also in epidermis from a human ex vivo model.²²⁴ Additionally, cAMP drove keratin filament anchorage to desmosomes

via recruitment of Dp.²²⁴ Interestingly, high levels of cAMP induced by F/R in addition ameliorated Dsg depletion. Similarly, autoantibody-induced activation of p38MAPK was also abolished by F/R but not by apremilast which is conclusive given a direct connection of p38MAPK signaling and Dsg-dependent signaling as well as Dsg depletion in pemphigus.^{213,214,216,226,227} Furthermore, a connection of cAMP and p38MPAK activity was observed in models of other skin diseases such as atopic dermatitis.²²⁸

Downstream signaling of cAMP in pemphigus is dependent on PKA and importantly, PKA-dependent cAMP signaling accelerated adhesion recovery of keratinocytes exposed to pemphigus autoantibodies.²¹⁶ Furthermore, apremilast caused PKA-dependent phosphorylation of Pg at Ser665 along cell borders in vitro (Figure 3). Pg-S665 phosphorylation was crucial for epidermal integrity as revealed by a phospho-deficient Pg-S665A mouse model, where keratin filament organization and intercellular adhesion were severely compromised.²²⁴

Taken together, adrenergic signaling in keratinocytes regulates both Dsg membrane localization and keratin filament organization. Mechanistically, a PKA-dependent phosphorylation of Pg at S665 is involved. In pemphigus, additional mechanisms may regulate Dsg internalization and p38MAPK signaling. The broad clinical application of PDE4 inhibitors such as apremilast in skin diseases may suggest that adrenergic signaling also is important for modulation of keratinocyte biology in other diseases.²²⁹ For instance, coincidences of psoriasis and pemphigus and elevated risk in psoriasis patients to become affected by pemphigus may argue for similar mechanisms driving pathogenesis.^{230–232}

6 | PG AND DP SERVE AS MOLECULAR SWITCHES FOR MODULATION OF DESMOSOME ADHESION

As outlined earlier, in both keratinocytes and cardiomyocytes, cAMP enhances cell cohesion via anchorage of the desmosomal plaque to the intermediate filament cytoskeleton. In both cell types, cAMP induces PKA-dependent Pg phosphorylation on S665,^{167,224} which drives binding of intermediate filaments to Dp by a yet unknown mechanism. In contrast, phosphorylation of Dp at S2849 by PKC is known to regulate Dp–keratin interaction negatively and thereby to reduce keratinocyte adhesion, which is important because Ca^{2+} signaling and PLC as regulators of PKC can also be activated by pemphigus autoantibodies.^{233,234} In accordance, inhibition of PKC or a phospho-deficient mutant of Dp S2849G protected from pemphigus autoantibody-induced keratin retraction and

loss of cell adhesion in vitro²³⁵ and abrogated skin blistering in vivo.²³⁶ Similarly, the multikinase inhibitor PKC412 ameliorated Dp phosphorylation, keratin aggregation and loss of cell adhesion in cell lines from epidermolysis bullosa simplex patients in vitro.²³⁷ It was proposed that enhanced interaction of dephosphorylated Dp with keratins traps desmosomal proteins within the desmosome and thereby reduces protein exchange with the extradesmosomal pool.²³⁸ Taken together, phosphorylation of the plaque proteins Pg and Dp serves as opposing molecular switches to regulate desmosome cytoskeletal anchorage and thereby allows desmosomes to react to different environmental cues such as wounding and migration.

In contrast, in endothelial cells, cadherin binding is strengthened by cAMP and Rac1 via enhanced anchorage to the cortical actin cytoskeleton, for which the role of Pg and its PKA-dependent phosphorylation is unknown at present. It is possible that some mechanisms outlined above for cAMP-mediated adhesion regulation in endothelial cells may also be relevant for desmosomal adhesion. For instance, recently it was proposed that Dp regulate RhoA-mediated contractile forces at AJs via recruitment of myosin VI and p114Rho GEF²³⁹ indicating that desmosomes and AJ undergo a functional cross-talk, especially since RhoA and Rac1 are also known to regulate Dsg binding and desmosome stability.^{240,241}

7 | OUTLOOK: cAMP TO STABILIZE CELL ADHESION IN DISEASE

The cAMP signaling cascade was shown to be a druggable pathway. Studies in endothelial cells provided knowledge on cAMP-dependent regulation of the endothelial barrier by regulation of Rac1 and AKAP-dependent actin dynamics which were later transferred to the in vivo situation. Similarly, in cardiomyocytes and keratinocytes, studies on the cAMP signaling were strengthened by using in vitro, in vivo and ex vivo approaches to identify targets for therapeutic approaches. Most recently, the PDE4 inhibitor apremilast was applied to stabilize cadherin-mediated adhesion in the desmosome disease pemphigus in mice and also to treat a first patient.^{224,225} Interestingly, signaling traits regulating cell adhesion are shared in different desmosome-related diseases.¹⁴ Since signaling by p38MAPK and EGFR have been found to be upregulated in models of both pemphigus and arrhythmogenic cardiomyopathy and ADAM17 was found to regulate desmosomal adhesion in keratinocytes in pemphigus and also in cardiomyocytes,^{214,242–244} it is possible that cAMP signaling may also serve as a possible target in other desmosome-related diseases. In addition,

cAMP signaling may be employed to regulate the behavior of other cells. For instance, E-cadherin expression in Schwann cell development is regulated by cAMP signaling and myelination is Rac1 dependent.^{245,246} In addition, N-cadherin expression in ovarian surface epithelium is regulated by gonadotropins in a cAMP-dependent fashion²⁴⁷ and cAMP is involved in N-cadherin expression regulating trophoblast function.^{248,249} Dysregulation of cadherin expression and distinct components of the cAMP signaling cascade were reported in certain tumors such as soluble E-cadherin in salivary gland carcinoma²⁵⁰ and prostate carcinoma cells, where Epac inhibition was suggested as a potential therapeutic approach.²⁵¹ Furthermore, AKAP4 was identified as an oncogene in non-small cell lung cancer and was associated with dysregulation of cadherin expression and cAMP signaling.²⁵² However, systematic studies are missing and may be subject of further scientific studies to reveal whether modulation of cadherin binding in these cell types can be employed to modulate diseases.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

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