

*Current Perspective***T-type Calcium Channels: Functional Regulation and Implication in Pain Signaling**Fumiko Sekiguchi¹ and Atsufumi Kawabata^{1,*}¹*Division of Pharmacology and Pathophysiology, Kinki University School of Pharmacy,
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Abstract. Low-voltage-activated T-type Ca^{2+} channels (T-channels), especially $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ among the three isoforms ($\text{Ca}_v3.1$, $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, and $\text{Ca}_v3.3$), are now considered to play pivotal roles in processing of pain signals. $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels are functionally modulated by extracellular substances such as hydrogen sulfide and ascorbic acid, by intracellular signaling molecules including protein kinases, and by glycosylation. $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels are abundantly expressed in both peripheral and central endings of the primary afferent neurons, regulating neuronal excitability and release of excitatory neurotransmitters such as substance P and glutamate, respectively. Functional upregulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels is involved in the pathophysiology of inflammatory, neuropathic, and visceral pain. Thus, $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels are considered to serve as novel targets for development of drugs for treatment of intractable pain resistant to currently available analgesics.

Keywords: $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, T-type calcium channel, neuropathy, visceral pain, hydrogen sulfide

1. Introduction

T-type Ca^{2+} channels (T-channels) are activated at near-resting membrane potential and play a crucial role in the neuronal firing. T-channels consist of a single pore-forming α_1 -subunit, differing from high-voltage-activated (HVA) Ca^{2+} channels (L-, N-, P/Q-, and R-type Ca^{2+} channels) that are heteromultimers comprising an α_1 -subunit together with ancillary β , γ , and $\alpha_2\delta$ subunits. Three α_1 -subunit genes, *CACNA1G*, *CACNA1H*, and *CACNA1I*, encode α_{1G} ($\text{Ca}_v3.1$), α_{1H} ($\text{Ca}_v3.2$) and α_{1I} ($\text{Ca}_v3.3$) isoforms of the T-channel family, respectively (1). T-channels regulate neuronal excitability in the central and peripheral nervous systems, and hormone secretion under physiological conditions, whereas altered functions of T-channels are linked to pathophysiologies such as absence epilepsy, cardiovascular diseases, cancer, and pain (2). In 2001, Todorovic and his co-workers (3), for the first time, provided clear evidence for the involvement of T-channels in pain signaling, and

thereafter a number of researchers including our group have demonstrated that $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ and possibly $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ play a pivotal role in nociceptive processing in health and disease (4). We have demonstrated that $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels are functionally upregulated by endogenous substances including hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) and participate in not only somatic but also visceral pain signaling (5–8). Here we describe the molecular characteristics and functional modulation of T-channels, especially $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, and review their impacts on peripheral and central processing of somatic and visceral pain signals.

2. Functional modulation of T-type Ca^{2+} channels**2.1. Histidine at position 191 in $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels, a high affinity metal binding site, as a target for selective modulation of the channel functions by endogenous and exogenous substances**

$\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels are much more sensitive to inhibition by metals, such as zinc, copper, and nickel, than $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ or $\text{Ca}_v3.3$. It is now clear that a histidine residue at position 191 (His^{191}) in the second extracellular loop of domain I of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ is a critical determinant for the trace metal inhibition and is not conserved in $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ or $\text{Ca}_v3.3$ (2) (Fig. 1). $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels appear to be

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Published online in J-STAGE on August 1, 2013

doi: 10.1254/jphs.13R05CP

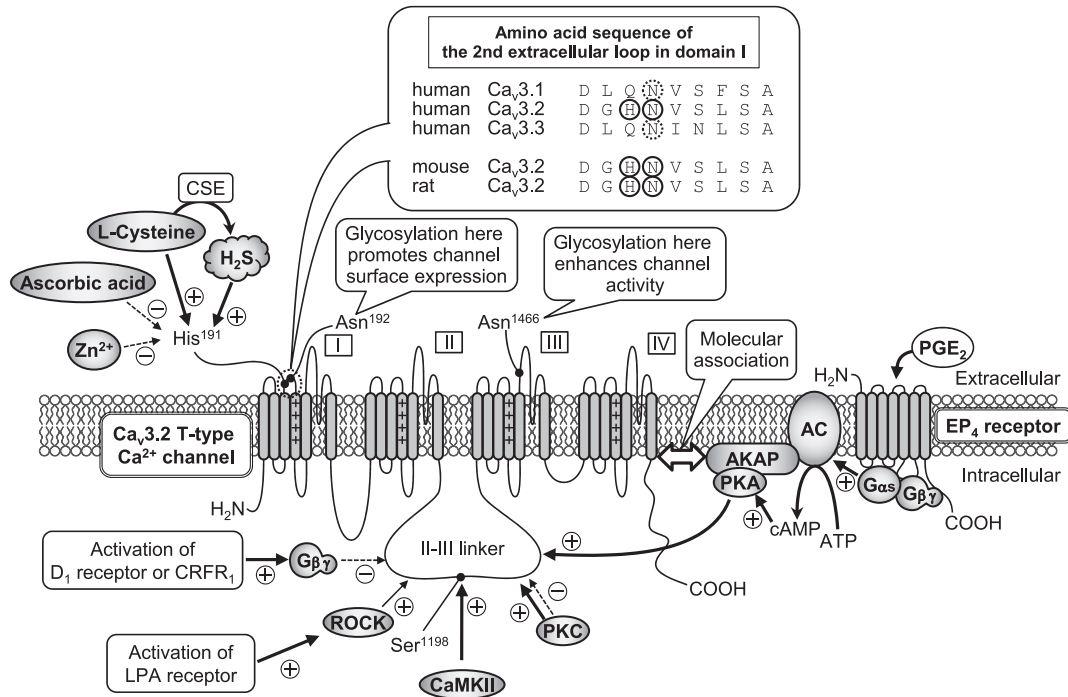


Fig. 1. Modulation of Ca_v3.2 T-channels. I, domain I; II, domain II; III, domain III; IV, domain IV; AKAP, A-kinase anchoring protein; AC, adenylyl cyclase; cAMP, cyclic AMP; CaMKII, Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II; PKA, protein kinase A; PKC, protein kinase C; PGE₂, prostaglandin E₂; ROCK, Rho-associated protein kinase; H₂S, hydrogen sulfide; CSE, cystathionine-γ-lyase; CRFR₁, corticotropin-releasing factor receptor 1; LPA, lysophosphatidic acid.

tonically exposed to inhibition by Zn²⁺ in cultured cells and possibly in mammalian tissues under physiological conditions, and Zn²⁺-chelating agents or substances including L-cysteine and H₂S that interact with Zn²⁺ selectively enhance the channel functions of Ca_v3.2 among the three T-channel isoforms, leading to nociceptor sensitization or hyperalgesia in vivo (4, 6, 9, 10). H₂S, a diffusible gasotransmitter, is synthesized from L-cysteine by multiple enzymes such as cystathionine-γ-lyase (CSE) (Fig. 1), playing various roles in health and disease (11). Given that His¹⁹¹ is present in the extracellular loop of Ca_v3.2, H₂S, rather than L-cysteine, might function as an endogenous regulator of Ca_v3.2. On the contrary, ascorbic acid (vitamin C) selectively suppresses Ca_v3.2 via metal-catalyzed oxidation of the Zn²⁺-binding His¹⁹¹ of Ca_v3.2 (4, 12), leading to inhibition of Ca_v3.2-mediated hyperalgesia (13). Importantly, His¹⁹¹ of Ca_v3.2 is conserved through different species including human, mouse and rat (Fig. 1), serving as a possible target for selective modulation of Ca_v3.2.

2.2. The domain II-III linker of T-channels as a target for protein kinases and G protein β and γ (G_{βγ}) subunits downstream of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs)

The intracellular linker between domains II and III (II-III linker) of T-channels is considered a target site for modulation of the channel functions by various protein kinases including Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII), protein kinase A (PKA), PKC, and Rho-associated protein kinase (ROCK) (Fig. 1) (2, 14). A serine residue at position 1198 (Ser¹¹⁹⁸) within the II-III linker of Ca_v3.2 appears to be a key site for phosphorylation and functional potentiation of the channels by CaMKII (14), whereas precise phosphorylation sites in the II-III linker for other protein kinases have not been identified. There is evidence that PKC and PKA enhance the activities of Ca_v3.1, Ca_v3.2, and Ca_v3.3 expressed in mammalian cell lines (2, 14). However, several papers show suppression of T-channel activity by PKC (4, 14) (Fig. 1), implying that effects of PKC on T-channels might vary with cell types, PKC isoforms, or other experimental conditions. On the other hand, PKA activation of T-channels appears to mediate various cellular responses to activation of G_s protein-coupled receptors (2, 14). Recently, we have demonstrated the molecular

association between $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ and A-kinase anchoring protein 79/150 (AKAP79/150) and shown that activation of PKA following stimulation of EP_4 receptors, G_s protein-coupled receptors, by prostaglandin E_2 (PGE_2) causes AKAP-dependent phosphorylation and functional upregulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels in NG108-15 cells (15) (Fig. 1). AKAP-dependent facilitation of T-channel currents by cyclic AMP has also been demonstrated in isolated rat dorsal root ganglion (DRG) neurons (15), implying potential roles of PKA-mediated activation/sensitization of T-channels in pain signaling. $\text{G}_{12/13}$ protein-dependent activation of RhoA and ROCK following stimulation of lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) receptors, a family of GPCRs, causes a shift of the activation and inactivation curves to the more depolarized potentials for $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, although it mediates reversible inhibition of $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ and $\text{Ca}_v3.3$ (2, 14). The physiological or pathological roles of 'sensitization' of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ following LPA receptor activation (Fig. 1) remain unclear, although LPA has been linked to neuropathic pain (14). The II-III linker of T-channels is also a target for functional modulation by $\text{G}_{\beta\gamma}$ subunits downstream of GPCRs (Fig. 1). Stimulation of dopamine D_1 receptors expressed in adrenocarcinoma H295R cells causes direct interaction of $\text{G}_{\beta 2\gamma 2}$ subunits with $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, leading to inhibition of the channel functions (14). Similarly, activation of corticotropin-releasing factor receptor 1 (CRFR_1) inhibits $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, but not $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ and $\text{Ca}_v3.3$, through a cholera toxin-sensitive, $\text{G}_{\beta\gamma}$ -mediated pathway (2, 14).

2.3. T-channel modulation by asparagine-linked glycosylation

Modulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels by asparagine N-linked glycosylation at positions 192 (Asn^{192}) and 1466 (Asn^{1466}) was recently reported (16). Glycosylation at Asn^{192} promotes channel expression of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ at the cell surface, whereas glycosylation at Asn^{1466} enhances the channel activity (Fig. 1). Strikingly, N-linked glycosylation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ also underlies glucose-dependent potentiation of the channel functions, which might be implicated in diabetic neuropathy. It has yet to be studied whether N-glycans regulate functions of $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ or $\text{Ca}_v3.3$, although those two Asn residues at corresponding positions are conserved in all three T-channel isoforms (Fig. 1).

3. Roles of T-channels in processing of pain signaling

3.1. Somatic pain processing by T-channels

After the first report concerning nociceptor sensitization by activation of T-channels (3), a critical role of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ in sensory neurons was demonstrated by its gene

silencing using the antisense oligodeoxynucleotides (17). Further, a study using knockout mice (18) demonstrated involvement of $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ and $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ in nociceptive processing, particularly signaling of inflammatory pain (18). Generally, it is considered that $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels regulate cellular excitability in the peripheral nerve endings of nociceptors, while N-type Ca^{2+} channels regulate release of neurotransmitters such as glutamate and substance P in the central terminals of the nociceptor neurons in laminae I and II of the spinal dorsal horn (19) (Fig. 2). However, the most recent evidence shows that $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ channels also regulate low-threshold exocytosis in cultured cells in an action potential-independent manner (20) and that presynaptic $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ regulates spontaneous excitatory synaptic neurotransmission in the spinal dorsal horn (21). Thus, $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ is now considered to play important roles in nociceptive processing at both peripheral and central endings of the primary afferent neurons (Fig. 2). This notion is consistent with our finding that not only intraplantar but also intrathecal administration of NaHS, a donor of H_2S , caused hyperalgesia in rats, an effect blocked by a T-channel blocker or by silencing of the $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ gene (6). Activation/sensitization of T-channels by endogenous H_2S formed by CSE may be involved in inflammatory hyperalgesia because inhibitors of T-channels and CSE, an H_2S -forming enzyme, prevent the development of inflammatory hyperalgesia caused by intraplantar administration of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in rats (5). It is also to be noted that H_2S is capable of activating TRPA1 channels in addition to $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ (22) and that peripheral H_2S -induced mechanical hyperalgesia and allodynia require activation of both $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ and TRPA1 (23) (Fig. 2). AKAP-dependent functional upregulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ by PKA following EP_4 -receptor activation mediates PGE_2 -induced mechanical hyperalgesia (15), although sensitization of TRPV1 channels by PKC following EP_1 -receptor activation participates in the PGE_2 -induced thermal hyperalgesia (24) (Fig. 2). Thus, $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ expressed in the nociceptors appears to play a role in the development of inflammatory pain or hyperalgesia. There is also some evidence for pro-nociceptive roles of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ at the supraspinal levels (25, 26). A study shows that $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ -dependent activation of ERK in the anterior nucleus of the paraventricular thalamus contributes to the development of acid-induced chronic hyperalgesia (25). It has also been demonstrated that $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ is involved in the generation of burst firing of both nociceptive and tactile reticular thalamic neurons (26).

3.2. Involvement of T-channels in neuropathic pain

Accumulating evidence strongly suggests involvement of T-channels in neuropathic pain (4). There is evidence

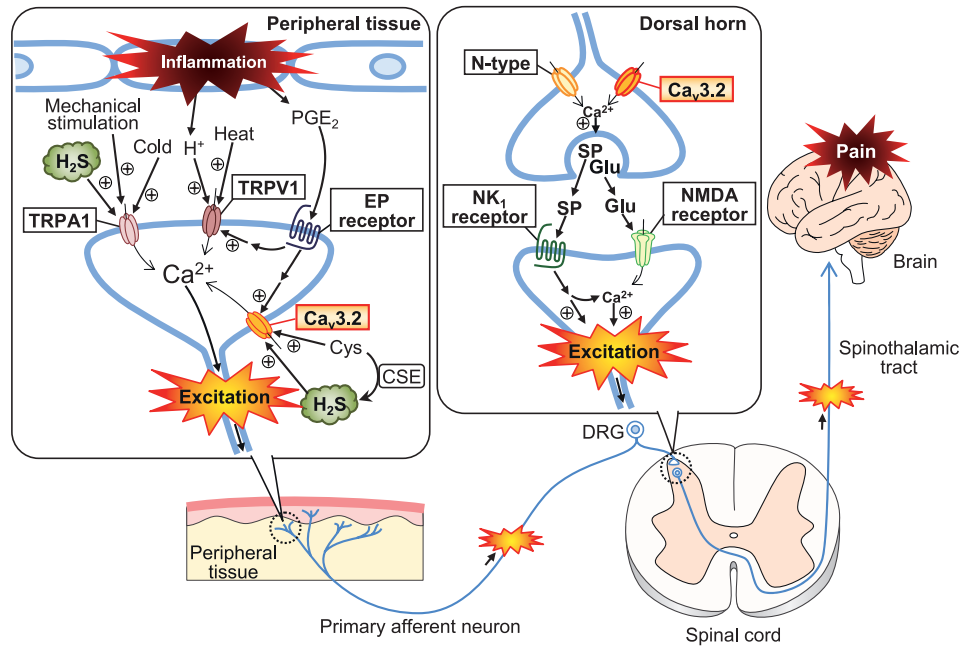


Fig. 2. Roles of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels in the peripheral and central terminals of the primary afferent neurons. DRG, dorsal root ganglion; N-type, N-type Ca^{2+} channels; TRPV1, transient receptor potential vanilloid 1; TRPA1, TRP ankyrin 1; PGE_2 , prostaglandin E_2 ; Cys, L-cysteine; Glu, L-glutamate; SP, substance P.

for upregulation of T-channel current density in small DRG cells isolated from rats with neuropathic pain due to chronic constrictive injury (CCI) of the sciatic nerve (27) and that genetic silencing of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ channels reverses CCI-induced neuropathic pain (17). We have demonstrated upregulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ at protein levels in the DRG of rats with neuropathy induced by spinal nerve injury and that pharmacological inhibition or genetic silencing of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ reverses the established neuropathic hyperalgesia/allodynia (28). Interestingly, the neuropathic pain caused by spinal nerve injury is also abolished by two distinct inhibitors of CSE, an H_2S forming enzyme, suggesting that in addition to the upregulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, sensitization of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ by CSE-derived endogenous H_2S through interaction with Zn^{2+} , as described in Section 2.1. and shown in Fig. 1, contributes to the neuropathic pain (28). In addition to $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ and $\text{Ca}_v3.3$ may be involved in the pathophysiology of neuropathic pain, considering evidence that neuropathic pain induced by L5 spinal nerve ligation is attenuated in $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ -defective mice (29) and that $\text{Ca}_v3.3$, as well as $\text{Ca}_v3.2$, is upregulated at mRNA levels in the spinal cord of the rats with neuropathy induced by chronic compression of DRG (30).

Many anticancer agents, such as vincristine, paclitaxel, and oxaliplatin, often cause painful peripheral neuropathies that limit their use in cancer therapy. Involvement of T-channels in cancer chemotherapy-induced neuro-

pathy was first suggested by a report showing that systemic administration of ethosuximide, a classic T-channel inhibitor, alleviated mechanical and cold allodynia/hyperalgesia in rats with paclitaxel- or vincristine-induced neuropathy (31). We have confirmed that paclitaxel-induced neuropathic hyperalgesia is abolished by more selective inhibitors of T-channels and by $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ gene silencing, although expression levels of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ in DRG do not change in this neuropathic pain model (32), differing from the spinal nerve injury-induced neuropathic pain models in which $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ is dramatically upregulated in DRG (28). It is also noteworthy that the paclitaxel-induced neuropathy is reversed by an inhibitor of CSE, suggesting involvement of functional upregulation of the CSE/ H_2S / $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ pathway. Strikingly, we have detected significant decrease in levels of ascorbic acid (vitamin C), known to selectively inhibit $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ (see Fig. 1), in the hindpaw tissue of rats with paclitaxel-induced neuropathy (13). We have also shown that intraplantar injection of ascorbic acid or topical application of disodium isostearyl 2-O-L-ascorbyl phosphate (DI-VCP), a skin-permeable ascorbate derivative, abolishes the H_2S -induced hyperalgesia and paclitaxel-induced neuropathy and also partially inhibits the spinal nerve injury-induced neuropathy (13). These findings are consistent with some clinical evidence for the decreased plasma vitamin C levels in post-herpetic neuralgia patients (33, 34) and for the therapeutic value of ascorbic

acid in patients with post-herpetic neuralgia (33, 35) or with complex regional pain syndrome after wrist fractures (36). Together, it is likely that vitamin C acts as a modulator of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels to suppress excessive sensitization of nociceptors.

There is also much evidence for involvement of T-channels in diabetic neuropathy. Upregulation of T-channel current density has been shown in DRG cells isolated from diabetic Bio-Bred/Worcester (BB/W) rats and from rats with streptozotocin (STZ)-induced diabetic neuropathy (4). Presynaptic $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ responsible for excitatory neurotransmission in the spinal dorsal horn is also functionally upregulated in the animal model of painful diabetic neuropathy (21). It has also been reported that *in vivo* silencing of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ in DRG reverses mechanical and thermal hyperalgesia in STZ-induced diabetic neuropathy rats (4). Thus, the functional upregulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ in the sensory neurons appears to cause diabetes-induced hyperexcitability and excessive neurotransmission in the peripheral and spinal endings of the nociceptors, respectively, contributing to the pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy. Of interest is that N-linked glycosylation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ responsible for its surface expression and enhanced activity (see Fig. 1) is linked to glucose elevations (16), as mentioned in Section 2.3, which might be involved in the etiology of diabetic painful neuropathy.

3.3. Roles of T-channels in visceral pain processing

We have reported, for the first time, that $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels play a critical role in processing of visceral pain in the colon and pancreas (7, 8). Intracolonic (i.col.) administration of NaHS, an H_2S donor, to mice triggers visceral nociceptive behavior accompanied by referred hyperalgesia, which are suppressed by a T-channel inhibitor (7) and also by silencing of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ (37). The nociceptive effect of i.col. NaHS/ H_2S is blocked by pretreatment with ZnCl_2 , and i.col. administration of Zn^{2+} chelators causes T-channel-dependent colonic pain and referred hyperalgesia (9). As described in Section 2.1., therefore, the luminal H_2S might interact with Zn^{2+} bound to His¹⁹¹ of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ and cancel Zn^{2+} inhibition of the channel functions, leading to facilitation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ functions and subsequent colonic pain (see Fig. 1). The impact of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ on colonic pain signaling is supported by a recent report from an independent group showing involvement of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ in butyrate-induced colonic hypersensitivity to colorectal distention in the rat, a model for irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) (38). Similarly, activation/sensitization of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ by endogenous H_2S formed by CSE plays critical roles in pancreatic pain accompanying cerulein-induced pancreatitis (8) and in bladder pain accompanying cyclophosphamide-induced

cystitis (39). Interestingly, in these pancreatic and bladder pain models, CSE protein is upregulated in the pancreatic and bladder tissues, respectively (8, 40). Upregulation of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ protein is also detectable in the DRG in the latter model (39). Collectively, $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ regulated by endogenous H_2S may serve as a novel therapeutic target for treatment of various types of visceral pain. Apart from its role in visceral nociceptive processing, excitation of sensory neurons following H_2S -induced $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ activation underlies bladder inflammation in mice treated with cyclophosphamide (39), but exerts colonic mucosal cytoprotection in rats with 2,4,6-trinitrobenzenesulfonic acid (TNBS)-induced colitis (40). The $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{Ca}_v3.2$ system would thus appear to play bidirectional roles in inflammation, in addition to pronociceptive roles, through neuronal excitation in internal organs. In contrast to involvement of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ in nociceptor excitation, there is evidence that thalamic $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ plays an anti-nociceptive role in visceral pain signaling (41). However, the roles of $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ in the primary afferents and of $\text{Ca}_v3.3$ are still largely open to question.

4. Conclusion

Among three T-channel isoforms, $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ has been best characterized in relation to pain signaling. As described so far, modulation of channel activity or subcellular location of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ by extracellular or intracellular molecules is associated with the pathophysiology of persistent pain as well as epilepsy. Considering recent evidence that transcriptional expression of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ is regulated positively by early growth response 1 (Egr1) and negatively by repressor element 1 (RE-1) protein-silencing transcription factor (REST) (42), abnormal regulation of transcriptional expression of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ may also underlie chronic pain, as $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ protein is upregulated in the DRG of the rat with spinal nerve injury-induced neuropathic pain (28). Together, the development of selective inhibitors of $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ T-channels is an urgently needed for clinical application as analgesics or for research use as pharmacological tools. T-channel inhibitors with low blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability might be useful as analgesics, since they might target T-channels expressed in the peripheral endings of nociceptors without causing central side effects. In addition, because the heart expresses both $\text{Ca}_v3.1$ and $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ isoforms, $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ -selective T-channel inhibitors, if any, could reduce side effects on the heart. Thus, T-channel inhibitors with $\text{Ca}_v3.2$ -selectivity and low BBB permeability would be ideal and useful as analgesics for intractable persistent pain resistant to gabapentin and pregabalin, currently available potent medicines

for neuropathic pain, that inhibit high-voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels by interacting with $\alpha_2\delta$ subunits, but not T-channels.

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