

Regulation of RIC-3 and of nAChR expression

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The nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) form a large and diverse family of pentameric acetylcholine-gated ion channels which are expressed widely and have diverse roles. The best known nAChR, $\alpha 1\beta 1\delta\epsilon$ or $\alpha 1\beta 1\delta\gamma$, is expressed in skeletal muscle and mediates muscle excitation by motor neurons. In neurons nAChRs have both excitatory and modulatory roles and in non-excitatory cells they affect many processes including suppression of pro-inflammatory cytokine release from immune cells [1]. Moreover, CNS-expressed nAChRs have been implicated in several neurodegenerative diseases including Parkinson's disease, dementia with Lewy bodies, and Alzheimer's disease [2, 3].

Maturation of nAChRs is a complex and inefficient process requiring assistance from multiple cellular factors including RIC-3, a conserved endoplasmic reticulum-resident protein and nAChR-specific chaperone. RIC-3 was first identified in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* as a positive effector of nAChR maturation. Effects of mammalian RIC-3, however, were shown to be either positive or negative depending on the receptor and the experimental system [1]. The versatile effects of RIC-3 on co-expressed nAChRs and the diverse roles of nAChRs affected by it suggest that mechanisms regulating RIC-3's function enable regulation of multiple processes involving nAChRs. One mechanism likely to affect RIC-3 function is alternative splicing, as expression studies identified multiple alternatively spliced RIC-3 isoforms differentially expressed in multiple tissues [4].

To better understand effects of RIC-3 splicing on nAChR maturation we analyzed two conserved RIC-3 isoforms: one encoding for the full-length (FL) RIC-3 having two transmembrane domains followed by a coiled-coil domain, and the other encoding for the transmembrane domains only (TM). These two RIC-3 isoforms were examined for their effects on three major neuronal nAChRs ($\alpha 3\beta 4$, $\alpha 4\beta 2$ and $\alpha 7$) using electrophysiological analysis in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes. This analysis showed that the TM isoform lacking the coiled-coil domain is defective for either positive or negative effects of RIC-3 depending on the specific nAChR examined [5]. Specifically, FL amplified currents through $\alpha 4\beta 2$ at low concentrations and inhibited currents at high concentrations; in contrast, FL inhibited currents through $\alpha 7$ at low or very high concentrations and amplified currents at a high concentration. TM did not amplify currents through $\alpha 7$

nAChR and did not inhibit currents through $\alpha 4\beta 2$ nAChR at any concentration. FL and TM similarly amplified currents through $\alpha 3\beta 4$ at low concentrations and inhibited currents at high concentrations [5]. Together these results are consistent with previous results suggesting that RIC-3 interacts differently with different nAChRs [6].

Results from expression analysis show that the two RIC-3 isoforms express in the brain differentially and in immune cells RIC-3 expression and splicing are regulated by inflammatory signals. This regulation of RIC-3 expression and splicing is likely to have functional implications as electrophysiology results, summarized above, show either positive or negative effects of RIC-3 on nAChR expression, depending on RIC-3 expression level, specific RIC-3 isoform, and specific nAChR [5].

Of special interest are effects of RIC-3 expression and splicing on the $\alpha 7$ nAChR. Effects of RIC-3 on this receptor are strongly dependent on RIC-3-to-receptor ratio and on the RIC-3 isoform [5]. The $\alpha 7$ nAChR is widely expressed, has many functions, and has been implicated in several neurodegenerative diseases [2, 7]. Among other functions, $\alpha 7$ nAChR mediates the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway in immune cells - a pathway enabling suppression of inflammation by the vagus nerve. Our results showing regulation of RIC-3 expression and splicing by inflammatory signals in immune cells suggest, therefore, that regulation of RIC-3 expression and splicing affect $\alpha 7$ nAChR functional expression and thereby inflammatory processes. Indeed, RIC-3 and the $\alpha 7$ nAChR have been implicated in neurodegenerative diseases in which neuroinflammation is known or is likely to have a role [7,8]. Future studies, therefore, should examine the role of RIC-3 and of mechanisms regulating its expression and splicing in neuroinflammatory diseases.

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