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## (H)Elping nerve growth factor: Elp1 inhibits TrkA's phosphatase to maintain retrograde signaling

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#### Commentary

Nerve growth factor (NGF) regulates many aspects of neuronal biology by retrogradely propagating signals along axons to the targets of those axons. How this occurs when axons contain a plethora of proteins that can silence those signals has long perplexed the neurotrophin field. In this issue of the *JCI*, Li et al. suggest an answer to this vexing problem, while exploring why the Elp1 gene that is mutated in familial dysautonomia (FD) causes peripheral neuropathy. They describe a distinctive function of Elp1 as a protein that is required to sustain NGF signaling by blocking the activity of its phosphatase that shuts off those signals. This finding helps explain the innervation deficits prominent in FD and reveals a unique role for Elp1 in the regulation of NGF-dependent TrkA activity.



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### (H)Elping nerve growth factor: Elp1 inhibits TrkA's <sup>3</sup><sub>4</sub>phosphatase to maintain retrograde signaling

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Nerve growth factor (NGF) regulates many aspects of neuronal biology by retrogradely propagating signals along axons to the targets of those axons. How this occurs when axons contain a plethora of proteins that can silence those signals has long perplexed the neurotrophin field. In this issue of the JCI, Li et al. suggest an answer to this vexing problem, while exploring why the Elp1 gene that is mutated in familial dysautonomia (FD) causes peripheral neuropathy. They describe a distinctive function of Elp1 as a protein that is required to sustain NGF signaling by blocking the activity of its phosphatase that shuts off those signals. This finding helps explain the innervation deficits prominent in FD and reveals a unique role for Elp1 in the regulation of NGF-dependent TrkA activity.

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#### 26 Innervation deficits in familial 27 dysautonomia

28 Familial dysautonomia (FD), also called 29 hereditary sensory and autonomic neuro-30 pathy type III, is a genetic disorder that 31 affects the development and survival of 32 nerve growth factor-dependent (NGF-33 dependent) sympathetic and sensory neu-34 rons of the peripheral nervous system. 35 Individuals with FD exhibit a range of 36 perturbed autonomic (hence dysautono-37 mia) and nociceptive phenotypes (1). FD 38 is caused by mutations in the Elp1 (IKB-39 KAP) gene, best known as a scaffolding 40 component of the Elongator complex 41 that regulates tRNA modification and 42 therefore translation, and for its role in 43 normal transcriptional elongation (1-3). 44 Relevant to neuronal function, Elongator 45 is also required for appropriate neuronal 46 branching, organization of actin networks, 47 and acetylation of  $\alpha$ -tubulin. Loss of Elp1 48 results in mitochondrial dysfunction (1-4). 49

A locus of action outside the nucleus is supported by evidence that Elp1 is readily detected in the cytosol. FD mouse models in which Elp1 is mutated or deleted show profound peripheral nervous system (PNS) and central nervous system (CNS) innervation deficits that recapitulate the FD human phenotype (5, 6). Given the many consequences of Elp1 mutation, it has been difficult to determine how and why the PNS is severely disrupted in FD.

The neurotrophic factor hypothesis is a classic concept in neurobiology first proposed by Levi-Montalcini and Hamburger (7) that states that developing neurons compete with each other for a limited supply of a neurotrophic factor provided by the target tissue. Successful competitors survive and innervate the target tissue, while unsuccessful neurons die. NGF is the prototypical target-derived factor, binding receptors at axon terminals innervating the target and transmitting its signals down the

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survival of neuronal cell bodies and locally 11 to support sprouting. Similarly, adult sen-12 sory, sympathetic, and basal forebrain cho-13 linergic neurons depend on target-derived 14 NGF for axon and dendrite growth and the 15 acquisition and lifelong maintenance of 16 neuronal specification and neurotransmit-17 ter phenotypes. For decades, the neurotro-18 phin field has focused on how retrograde 19 signals are transmitted over remarkably 20 long distances. For example, the cell bod-21 ies of sensory axons that innervate our 22 fingertips and are responsible for thermo-23 and pain sensations are located near the 24 spinal cord, up to a meter or more away 25 (think of a giraffe). How does this extend-26 ed signaling occur? NGF first binds to the 27 TrkA receptor tyrosine kinase at nerve ter-28 minals, which changes the conformation 29 of the TrkA dimer. This enables TrkA to 30 transphosphorylate tyrosine residues on 31 each monomer of the receptor, including 32 on key tyrosine residues that function as 33 recognition sites for intracellular signal-34 ing proteins that associate with and are 35 phosphorylated and activated by TrkA (8, 36 9). The best known TrkA-bound protein is 37 Shc, which activates the Ras-MAP kinase 38 and Ras-PI3-kinase signaling pathways 39 that mediate axonal and dendrite growth 40 and cell survival (10). How then does 41 target-derived NGF transmit its signals 42 over long distances? Upon internalization, 43 the NGF-TrkA complex is localized to 44 membrane-bound organelles that are ret-45 rogradely transported toward the cell body 46 by a microtubule-based motor system (11-47 13). TrkA is oriented with its ligand-binding 48 domain inside, and its cytoplasmic kinase 49 and substrate-bound signaling proteins 50 outside of the organelle. In this manner, 51 52 TrkA signals locally as it travels down the axon to stimulate axonal growth. Upon 53 arriving at the cell body, the signaling 54 endosome releases its contents to activate 55 gene expression responsible for survival, 56 growth, and neuronal specification. Dis-57

axon toward the cell body to support the

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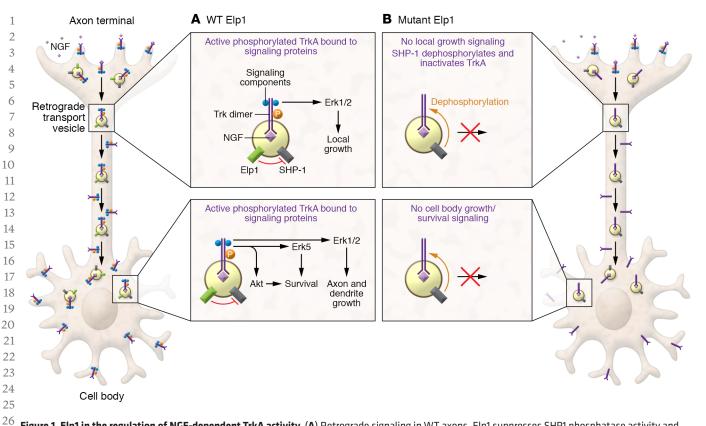


Figure 1. Elp1 in the regulation of NGF-dependent TrkA activity. (A) Retrograde signaling in WT axons. Elp1 suppresses SHP1 phosphatase activity and
enables NGF-mediated neuronal innervation and survival. (B) In the absence of Elp1, SHP1 dephosphorylates retrogradely transported TrkA and inhibits
NGF-mediated neuronal innervation and survival.

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ruption of activated TrkA endocytosis, 31 32 transport, or activity during the transport process results in cell body apoptosis, indi-33 34 cating the key role of retrograde signaling 35 endosomes - as essential carriers of NGF signals. Notably, a portion of the activated 36 37 TrkA-containing endosomes traverses the cell body and translocates to dendrites 38 where it mediates circuit formation and 39 40 synapse maintenance (14).

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#### 42 Maintaining TrkA activity

through distance and time 43 44 A puzzling question, however, is how TrkA 45 activity is maintained during endosomal transport from nerve terminals to cell 46 47 bodies over long distances and in a process whose duration can be many hours. 48 49 All signaling processes reversibly regu-50 lated by phosphorylation require a kinase that adds phosphates to proteins and a 51 52 corresponding phosphatase that removes phosphates and inactivates the kinase-53 54 activated signaling protein. Indeed, inhi-55 bition of tyrosine phosphatase activity elevates and sustains TrkA signaling both 56 57 in the presence and absence of NGF, indicating that phosphatases normally keep TrkA in the inactive state when not bound to NGF and modulate and prevent TrkA from overactivity following NGF binding (15). Overactive TrkA that induces aberrant sprouting and nociceptive responses is deleterious. TrkA possesses several important tyrosine phosphorylation sites, and at least eight different protein tyrosine phosphatases are known to dephosphorylate TrkA and suppress signaling. Even more problematic is the NGF-dependent association of TrkA with SHP1 (also called PTPN6), a potent phosphatase. SHP1 keeps TrkA in an offstate in the absence of NGF and modulates TrkA activity after activation by NGF (15). One way to maintain TrkA phosphorylation is to shift the balance of the kinase-phosphatase relationship that occurs when NGF binds and activates TrkA kinase activity, overwhelming the activity of nearby phosphatases. However, since as few as one NGF molecule are present in a signaling endosome that presumably contains many more activated TrkA receptors (16), another mechanism

must suppress the activity of TrkA phosphatases during the retrograde transport process.

The correspondence between the sen-34 sory and sympathetic neurons affected in 35 FD patients and those neurons known to be 36 responsive to NGF produced in their targets 37 of innervation has long suggested a role for 38 NGF and NGF signaling in this disorder (1). 39 In this issue of the JCI, Li et al. (17) explored 40 the role of Elp1 in retrograde neuronal sig-41 naling and survival. The researchers gener-42 ated mice engineered to express the human 43 Elp1 mutation together with the WT Elp1 44 gene. The WT Elp1 gene was subjected to 45 conditional ablation by tamoxifen addition 46 to cultured sympathetic neurons from the 47 mice. Neurons only expressing the mutant 48 Elp1 failed to survive to the same extent as 49 WT neurons when NGF was added to axon 50 terminals in compartmented chambers, 51 and survival to WT levels by retrograde 52 NGF signaling was rescued when WT Elp1 53 was reexpressed in those neurons. While 54 NGF induced the same tyrosine transphos-55 phorylation and internalization of TrkA at 56 axon terminals and TrkA retrograde endo-57

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1 somal transport in mutant and WT Elp1 2 neurons, TrkA was rapidly dephosphor-3 ylated only in the Elp1 mutant neurons. 4 The appearance of specific phosphorylated 5 and activated signaling proteins in the cell 6 body, indicates retrograde NGF signaling. 7 However, none of these phosphorylated 8 proteins (Erk1/2, Erk5, Akt and CREB, 9 which are required for axonal growth or 10 survival) were observed in the Elp1 mutant 11 cell bodies following application of NGF to 12 the distal axons. In contrast, TrkA and TrkA 13 substrate phosphorylation was maintained 14 for up to five hours in WT neurons. Elp1 is 15 thus required to propagate NGF-dependent 16 retrograde signals and neuronal survival 17 (17). How then does Elp1 function to sus-18 tain NGF signaling? The authors intuited 19 that Elp1 might suppress TrkA phosphatase 20 activity, and they focused on the previ-21 ously identified TrkA-associated tyrosine 22 phosphatase SHP1 (15). NGF induced the 23 association of Elp1 and SHP1 with TrkA 24 and their recruitment to TrkA-containing 25 transport endosomes. Though SHP1 phos-26 phatase was still recruited to the TrkA sig-27 naling complex in Elp1 mutant neurons, 28 it was hyperactive; and inhibiting SHP1 29 activity or expression rescued the deficits 30 in retrograde NGF-mediated survival in 31 these neurons. Thus, at least in culture, the 32 consequence of the FD Elp1 mutation was 33 SHP1 hyperactivation that dephosphorylat-34 ed retrogradely transported TrkA, resulting 35 in decreased NGF-mediated survival (ref. 36 17 and Figure 1).

37 A prominent human FD phenotype, 38 however, is deficits in sympathetic target 39 innervation. To begin to address whether 40 hyperactive SHP1 is responsible for this 41 phenotype, the authors examined neo-42 natal mice with Elp1 specifically ablated 43 in sympathetic neurons. The neurons in 44 those Elp1-deficient mice showed dimin-45 ished TrkA phosphorylation and inner-46 vation defects. Remarkably, infusion of a 47 SHP1-selective inhibitor rescued the defi-48 cits in TrkA phosphorylation and sympa-49 thetic neuron innervation, consistent with 50 a unique and required role for Elp1 in reg-51 ulating NGF-dependent TrkA activity and 52 neuronal innervation in FD.

Is the hyperactivation of SHP1 activ-54 ity the major consequence of the FD Elp1 55 mutation on peripheral neuron innerva-56 tion? A reduced velocity of retrogradely 57 transported NGF has been noted in sensory neurons lacking Elp1, possibly due to dysregulated Elongator activity that can hyperacetylate α-tubulin and alter protein translation (18). However, in the present study, no deficits were observed in the expression of TrkA and TrkA signaling proteins, and there was no substantial reduction in the amount of retrogradely transported TrkA. The widespread CNS phenotypes of patients with FD, including seizures, visual and learning impairments, heightened anxiety, and white and grey matter structural deficits, suggest that the Elp1 modulation of Elongator that mediates many general cell functions (1, 3, 5) is more likely to be mechanistically responsible for these perturbations.

#### Next steps

The next step is understanding how Elp1 maintains TrkA activity during retrograde transport. For example, does Elp1 inhibit SHP1 activity directly, outcompete SHP1 from binding to TrkA at its association site (Y490), or sterically bind to and prevent SHP1 from dephosphorylating TrkA? Retrogradely transported TrkA is not only protected from SHP1 by Elp1, but from all of the many TrkA phosphatases. This protection suggests that Elp1 has a more general role as an inhibitor of TrkA dephosphorylation. Whether Elp1 also inhibits TrkA dephosphorylation by the SHP1 relative and TrkA phosphatase SHP2 (19) would be helpful to know. Other questions are: How are Elp1 levels and association with TrkA regulated by NGF? Does Elp1 in the retrograde transport complex function as an Elongator regulator when it arrives in the TrkA signaling endosome at the cell body? Finally, is Elp1 involved in determining the levels and temporal activity of TrkA in other neurons, including NGF-dependent basal forebrain cholinergic neurons important for attentive learning and memory or neurons that utilize TrkB for synaptic plasticity? Elp1 emerges as a prime candidate to not only preserve TrkA activity during long-distance transport, but as a fine-tuner of Trk activity by regulating Trk phosphatases. It will be exciting to further explore the spectrum of Elp1-interacting receptor tyrosine kinases, and what other Elp1-like proteins are recruited to modulate TrkA activation.

The present study adds important insights into the extraordinary ability of neuronal cell bodies to sustain innervation of distant targets through formation and transport of signaling endosomes. Especially given these new disease-relevant observations, this study makes a strong case for continued attention to further elucidating this fundamental aspect of neuronal function.

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