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Grp94 (HSP90B1)

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Synonyms

94 kDa glucose-regulated protein; Endoplasmic reticulum protein 94; Grp94; Heat shock protein 90 kDa beta member 1; TRA1; Tumor rejection antigen gp96

Historical Background

Grp94 is the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) paralog of heat shock protein (► [Hsp](#)) 90. This chaperone/stress protein was identified together with the other members of the family of glucose-regulated proteins because its levels significantly increased after treatment of mammalian cells with culture medium lacking glucose. Subsequent evidence showed that other ER stressors, such as calcium depletion, inhibition of glycosylation, and reducing agents, similarly affected Grp94 protein levels, making it one of the hallmarks of ER stress response (Lee 1987). Grp94 protein levels increase also after exposure to low-doses of endotoxin, hypoxia, and mild ischemia and in most tumors (Srivastava 2006; Glembotski 2008). The last feature, which is accomplished by Grp94 binding of tumor-specific peptides, explains the other widely used synonyms gp96 and TRA1 (Srivastava 2006).

The apparent Mr of Grp94 is around 94–100 kDa in most Vertebrate species and is the product of a single gene. Whereas Grp94 orthologs are detected in Metazoa, plants enclosed, no corresponding gene or protein has been so far identified in yeast and other monocellular eukaryotes, except for *Leishmania* (Eletto et al. 2010). The protein shows multiple Mr isoforms depending on the variable degree of glycosylation and on the presence of Ser/Thr- or Tyrosine phosphorylation (Frasson et al. 2009 and references within). Whereas the functional significance of glycosylation remains still obscure, Ser/Thyrosine phosphorylation by Golgi► casein kinase and Tyrosine phosphorylation by ► Fyn Src-kinase are involved in Grp94 subcellular localization. Detailed analyses of Grp94 distribution in adult mammalian tissues and primary cells indicate relatively low expression levels of mRNA and protein in most tissues, except for lung bronchial epithelium, pancreatic islets, kidney tubular cells, and dendritic cells (Mao et al. 2010).

Structurally, Grp94 contains four domains (Eletto et al. 2010 and [Fig. 1a](#)). The N-terminal (N) domain contains a nucleotide binding site, a peptide binding site, unmapped sites responsible for interaction with dendritic cells during antigen presentation (Jockheck-Clark et al. 2010), the binding site for the co-chaperone Murine canopy 3 (CNPY3, Liu et al. 2010), and a putative transmembrane domain (Frasson et al. 2009 and references within). The second domain, as in Hsp90, is a charged linker between the N and middle (M) domains, but it is longer in Grp94 and functionally important for binding of both nucleotide and calcium. The M-domain contains residues involved in ATP hydrolysis after interaction with the N-terminal domain, and the C-terminal domain mediates the dimerization of

65 Grp94 and ER localization via the C-terminal KDEL
66 peptide. Grp94 displays a “twisted V” conformation as
67 crystal structure (Fig. 1b), whereas in solution it has an
68 extended, “chair-like” conformation, which shifts
69 toward less extended, more closed conformations after
70 nucleotide binding (Eletto et al. 2010).

71 Like other ER chaperones, such as Grp78 and
72 calreticulin, Grp94 is a putative low affinity-high
73 capacity Ca^{2+} -binding protein. Grp94 binds about
74 16–28 moles Ca^{2+} per mole protein with a few high
75 affinity (K_d 1–5 μM) binding sites and the rest, lower
76 affinity sites (K_d ~600 μM). Thus, Grp94 may bind
77 about 4 moles of calcium/mole of protein in the pres-
78 ence of 1 mmol/L calcium, namely the range of free
79 calcium concentration considered to be present within
80 the ER (Eletto et al. 2010).

81 ER localization of Grp94 is regulated, like other ER
82 chaperones, through the C-terminal KDEL sequence.
83 The KDEL sequence is recognized by a specific recep-
84 tor, which is mainly localized in the cis-Golgi. Dimers-
85 oligomers of Grp94 interacting with the aminoacyl-
86 tRNA synthetase-interacting multifunctional protein
87 1 (AIMP1; previously known as p43) bind to the
88 receptor and lead to its oligomerization and rapid
89 transport out of cis-Golgi (Kim et al. 2010). The
90 KDEL receptor-Grp94 complex returns to the ER,
91 where it dissociates, thus freeing the receptor for fur-
92 ther cycling of transport. In addition to the ER, Grp94
93 is detected at the cell surface of several tumors and of
94 immature cells (Srivastava 2006; Gorza and Vitadello
95 2000). Two signaling pathways responsible for Grp94
96 exit outside the ER have been so far identified (Fig. 2):
97 (1) in differentiating myoblasts, the Tyr phosphoryla-
98 tion of Grp94 by Fyn Src-kinase is required for the
99 chaperone translocation to Golgi and cell surface
100 (Frasson et al. 2009) and (2) in LPS-stimulated mono-
101 cytes and splenocytes, the Ser-phosphorylation of
102 AIMP1 by c-Jun N-terminal kinase (► JNK) releases
103 the binding of the protein from Grp94 and the interac-
104 tion with the KDEL receptor (Kim et al. 2010).

105 Another distinctive feature of Grp94 is the trans-
106 membrane configuration, which apparently involves
107 a minor proportion of molecules and coexists in the
108 ER compartment with the luminal configuration
109 (Frasson et al. 2009 and references within). The precise
110 mechanism of anchorage of Grp94 molecules to the
111 cell surface is presently unknown; however, data sug-
112 gest that it occurs through noncovalent, nonionic bind-
113 ing with other proteins (Srivastava 2006).

Physiological Functions

114

Protein Chaperone

115

116 Grp94 exists as a homodimer or higher-order oligomer.
117 Although it has been shown to bind to some nascent ER
118 proteins, Grp94 participates to the second major ER
119 chaperone system, which operates, in addition and/or
120 in alternative to the lectin system, on unfolded regions
121 of proteins containing hydrophobic residues and is
122 involved in folding and assembly of multimeric pro-
123 teins, whose first and most studied example is the
124 immunoglobulin heavy chain (Ma and Hendershot
125 2004). A large ER-localized multi-protein complex is
126 initiated by the ER chaperone Grp78 that recognizes
127 protein hydrophobic residues and recruits Grp94 and
128 other molecular chaperones, among which are protein-
129 disulfide isomerase, cyclophilin B, Grp170. As
130 revealed by studies performed using chemical cross-
131 linking, the complex forms also in the absence of
132 protein synthesis (Ma and Hendershot 2004). The
133 mechanism through which Grp94 exerts its chaperone
134 function is still obscure, due to controversial evidence
135 concerning ATPase activity, to the lack of co-
136 chaperones and the paucity of client proteins. Conser-
137 vation of amino acids involved in ATP binding and
138 hydrolysis between Hsp90 and Grp94 would suggest
139 a similar mechanism of nucleotide utilization. Grp94
140 binds adenosine nucleotides in vitro and mutations of
141 either the ATP binding site, or the putative catalytic
142 one, hamper chaperone activity in vivo (Randow and
143 Seed 2001). However, structure analysis methods,
144 including x-ray crystallography, mass spectrometry,
145 and optical techniques showed that the ATP and
146 ADP-bound forms of Grp94 are equivalent, that is,
147 they display identical twisted “V”-shape conformation
148 with closed C domains and open N domains in oppos-
149 ing orientation (Eletto et al. 2010; Fig. 1b). Therefore,
150 ATP binding is not sufficient to drive Grp94 into
151 a hydrolytically productive conformation: the open
152 N domain and the relaxed N–M orientation leave the
153 catalytic residues too distant from the gamma-
154 phosphate of the ATP, at variance with Hsp90 and
155 other proteins of the GHKL ATPase/kinase superfam-
156 ily, whose ATPase activity results from the contact of
157 residues localized in both the N and M domains with
158 the bound nucleotide. As argued by the structural anal-
159 ysis, co-chaperone(s) would be required by Grp94 to
160 promote ATP hydrolysis by rotating the catalytic loop,
161 and to regulate binding and release of client proteins.

The ER resident protein CNPY3 has been recently identified as the first Grp94 co-chaperone, specifically involved in TLR folding (Liu et al. 2010). CNPY3 binds Grp94 close to the ATP pocket and in competition with nucleotides, suggesting that it regulates the folding of conformational intermediates without nucleotides, as shown for some Hsp90 co-chaperones (Eletto et al. 2010; Liu et al. 2010). Indeed, the same single point mutation at the highly conserved amino acid 103 (E103A) of Grp94, which was found to abolish ATPase activity and insulin-like growth factor (► IGF) folding (Eletto et al. 2010), hampered the interaction with CNPY3 (Liu et al. 2010) and folding of Toll-like receptors (► TLR) (Randow and Seed 2001), but it did not affect the folding of other client proteins, such as ► integrins (Randow and Seed 2001). At present, no recognition moiety has been identified for Grp94. Its small population of client proteins does not display common features other than the presence of disulfide bonds, and, in the case of integrins and TLR, shows selectivity even among family members (Table 1 and McLaughlin and Vandenbroeck 2011).

An unexpected role for Grp94 has been described in the ER quality control, that is, in targeting misfolded proteins to ER-associated degradation (ERAD). Misfolded and demannosylated protein substrates are bound by OS-9, a ER luminal lectin, which associates with Grp94 in order to present substrates to the ubiquitination and dislocation apparatus. The role of Grp94 is presumably to facilitate or mediate substrate recognition, since degradation of mutated glycosylated proteins is impaired in Grp94-depleted cells (Eletto et al. 2010).

Immune Regulator

Grp94 is involved in both innate and adaptive immune responses.

In addition to play a key role in the folding of several TLR, Grp94 was proposed to activate professional antigen-presenting cells (pAPC) by interacting with TLR2 and ► TLR4. Contaminating endotoxin, either derived from recombinant Grp94 preparations or released even at very low levels from commensal flora, appears to have confounded the interpretation of these studies. However, after stringently controlling the level of endotoxin contamination and evaluating the inhibition of the Grp94 interaction by means of specific antibodies, a recent study demonstrated that this chaperone activates human macrophages

primarily through TLR2 and induced both IL-6 and TNF- α release (Huang et al. 2009) (Fig. 3a). Some activation occurs through TLR4, concerning only IL-6 production. Besides, Grp94 appears to regulate the pathway activated by the TLR2 receptor downstream the mitogen extracellular kinase (► MEK)► -ERK1/2. In kidney tubular cells, this chaperone binds and maintains in active conformation the serine-threonine protein phosphatase 5 (PP5), a negative modulator of ► Raf-1 (Mkaddem et al. 2009).

In addition to initiate the innate immune responses by interacting with TLR2 and TLR4, Grp94 contributes to the adaptive one. Several in vitro studies demonstrated that the N-terminal and charged linker domains of Grp94 comprise a peptide-binding domain, which is inhibited when small molecules such as radicicol, geldanamycin and NECA occupy the nucleotide pocket at the opposite site (Eletto et al. 2010). Although it is presently debated whether Grp94-peptide binding is physiologically relevant in vivo, it is fully recognized that Grp94 can direct the associated peptides into the Major Histocompatibility Complex (► MHC) class I cross-presentation pathway of pAPCs (Srivastava 2006; Jockheck-Clark et al. 2010). Peptides bound to Grp94 are internalized by pAPCs by endocytosis and trafficked to a post-ER endosomal compartment, where they are processed and loaded onto mature MHC class I molecules (Fig. 3b). The mechanism of endocytic uptake of the Grp94-peptide complex remains controversial. A large body of evidence indicates the requirement of receptor-mediated internalization, via the low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1 (► CD91) and/or the scavenger receptors, whereas recent results obtained in pAPC, engineered to knockdown or knockout CD91 expression, support a prominent role of the pathway of nonspecific fluid-phase uptake (Jockheck-Clark et al. 2010). In any case, the interaction of Grp94-peptide complex with pAPC elicits proinflammatory cytokine secretion and MHC class I/II up-regulation, leading to subsequent priming and activation of peptide-specific CD8+ T lymphocytes.

Calcium Binding Protein

Although each Grp94 molecule can bind between 16 and 28 Ca²⁺, only one high affinity calcium-binding site has been mapped with certainty in the N-terminal portion of Grp94, in the charged linker domain (Eletto et al. 2010). In vitro studies showed that Ca²⁺ binding

at this site stimulates Grp94 peptide binding. Due to its relative abundancy in the ER, Grp94 is expected to provide about 30 μM of Ca^{2+} storage capacity. This property, which is shared with other ER chaperones, like Grp78 and calreticulin, might imply the participation of Grp94 to the maintenance of calcium homeostasis. In addition to protein folding, ER is deputed to the storage and utilization of calcium. Release and uptake of calcium by the ER is involved in many signaling pathways and physiological responses, like protein secretion and muscle contraction. Depletion of calcium from the stores induces an ER stress response. Besides, alterations in ER free calcium concentration strongly influence cell survival. If the ER has less free calcium to release upon stress, then cytosolic calcium levels will not rise to the critical levels needed for triggering deleterious downstream effectors. Therefore, the increased expression of ER chaperones with calcium-binding properties should protect cells by decreasing the amount of releasable calcium. Such a hypothesis finds support from several studies showing that Grp94 overexpression counteracts the increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} evoked by exposure either to calcium ionophore or to oxidants, whereas cells engineered to decrease Grp94 expression appear unable to cope with it (Pizzo et al. 2010 and references within). Passive calcium release from the stores, induced in myogenic cells by means of sarcoendoplasmic calcium ATPase (SERCA) inhibition, showed that cellular levels of Grp94 inversely correlate to the rise in intracellular Ca^{2+} (Pizzo et al. 2010). This body of evidence points toward a role for Grp94 in preserving cell viability, when challenged by perturbations of Ca^{2+} homeostasis, suggesting that Grp94 may modify intracellular Ca^{2+} content, probably by interaction with calcium cycling proteins.

Physiological Function in Embryonic Development

Consistently with the observation that Grp94 is absent from most unicellular organisms, knockdown of Grp94 in different cell culture systems shows that low basal expression levels of the protein are sufficient to support cell growth and proliferation (Eletto et al. 2010). Similarly, two Grp94 gene mutations causing knocking out of the protein (the *Shepherd* mutation in *A. thaliana* and the frameshifts terminating Grp94 prematurely in

the pre-B lymphocyte 70Z/3 cell line) are not cell-lethal, but rather affect selected processes. Although these data suggest that Grp94 does not appear to be essential for growth of individual mammalian cells in culture, survival of $\text{grp94}^{-/-}$ embryonic stem cells (ES) is strictly dependent from the presence of serum and IGFs. In addition, a parallel independent study showed that $\text{grp94}^{-/-}$ ES cells display an increased, compensatory, expression of ER chaperones, whereas in the presence of a 50% reduction of Grp94 levels, as it occurs in hemizygosis, there is no compensatory response (Mao et al. 2010). Furthermore, $\text{grp94}^{-/-}$ ES cells show a decreased ability to activate the XBP-1 pathway of the ER stress response. This observation reveals the involvement of Grp94 in the ER stress signaling, a function up to now mainly attributed to Grp78 (Glembotski 2008). In $\text{grp94}^{-/-}$ ES cells, the decreased expression of the ER stress-induced transcription factor XBP-1 might be due to the misfolding of the Grp94 client proteins TLR4 and TLR2, which in macrophages are known to activate the ER-stress sensor, inositol-requiring enzyme 1a ($\triangleright$ IRE 1), and its downstream target XBP-1 (Mao et al. 2010).

Conversely, Grp94 absence is responsible for the occurrence of lethal phenotypes in plants, nematodes, fruit flies, and mice (Eletto et al. 2010). In mammals, Grp94 transcripts are found in oocytes and, in 5–8.5-d embryos, protein expression is highest in the embryonic and extraembryonic ectoderm and lower in the visceral endoderm. Grp94 is also detected in mesoderm cells emerging from the primitive streak. At later stages during organogenesis (E9.5–13.5) Grp94 is expressed within the developing heart, neuroepithelium, and branchial arches (Fig. 4). Despite of the widespread and early expression of Grp94 during embryonic development, its requirement during differentiation and organogenesis differs depending on the pattern of expression and the essential function of the client proteins.

One relevant example is given by skeletal muscle progenitors, where Grp94 expression is required for differentiation and maturation (Eletto et al. 2010; Gorza and Vitadello 2000). The phenotype of $\text{grp94}^{-/-}$ mice is lethal at E7.5 and embryo bodies generated by $\text{grp94}^{-/-}$ ES cells show any type of tissue differentiation, except the formation of striated and smooth muscles. The loss of ability to give origin to muscle is due to the absolute requirement of Grp94 in folding of IGFs. When supplemented with IGF, 352

353 *grp94*^{-/-} ES cells are able to differentiate and express
354 myogenin and contractile proteins; they can also fuse
355 into myotube-like syncytia, although with far less effi-
356 ciency of wild type ES cells. Since Grp94 depletion
357 does not affect myoD levels, the chaperone is not
358 required for the commitment to myogenesis. Con-
359 versely, Grp94 appears to be involved in myogenesis
360 initiation. Few hours after switching the myogenic cell
361 line C2C12 to differentiation medium, the protein
362 translocates from the ER to the Golgi compartment
363 and the cell surface, after interacting with and being
364 Tyr-phosphorylated by the Src-kinase Fyn (Frasson
365 et al. 2009 and Fig. 2a). It is presently unknown
366 whether this re-localization is related to delivery of
367 specific protein cargo; an identified relevant client is
368 IGF-II, whose secretion and autocrine interaction with
369 IGF-I and II receptors (► IGF-R1) is required to pro-
370 ceed along the differentiation program. Eventually,
371 Grp94 appears to be involved in myotube formation.
372 Knocking down Grp94 protein levels to 40% of wild
373 type C2C12 cells is permissive for myogenic differen-
374 tiation, but not for myotube formation (Gorza and
375 Vitadello 2000). Since IGF supplementation does not
376 fully rescue the myotube phenotype, it is likely that
377 other Grp94 client proteins play a relevant role at this
378 later stage.

379 Another example of the tissue specificity of Grp94
380 involvement in tissue differentiation and maturation
381 has been recently provided by the study of murine
382 hematopoietic and lymphopoietic precursors after con-
383 ditional knock out of Grp94 (Staron et al. 2010).
384 Despite the essential role of the chaperone in the fold-
385 ing of most TLRs and integrins, only lymphopoiesis,
386 that is, maturation of pro-B lymphocytes and develop-
387 ment of thymocytes, is severely affected. Furthermore,
388 this defect cannot be rescued by wild type precursors,
389 indicating that the chaperone regulates B- and
390 T-lymphopoiesis in a cell-intrinsic fashion.

391 Pathophysiological Functions

392 Cancer

393 Most neoplastic cells express high levels of chaperone/
394 stress proteins. ER chaperones are upregulated proba-
395 bly because hypoxia and hypoglycemia are two char-
396 acteristics of the tumor environment and inducers of
397 the ER stress response. A direct consequence of this
398 upregulation is the enhancement of neoplastic cell

399 survival; an indirect one is the increase and the release
400 of tumor-specific peptides bound to chaperones. 400
401 Srivastava and coworkers first identified a series of
402 structurally related, but distinct, Grp94 molecules
403 associated with specific immunogenicity of chemically
404 induced mouse sarcoma. Specific antitumor immunity,
405 raised after purification of the Grp94-peptide complex
406 from a highly metastatic variant of murine lung carci-
407 noma, is mediated by CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T lymphocytes
408 and natural killer cells and suppresses tumor metasta-
409 sis. Furthermore, vaccination with Grp94-peptide
410 complexes isolated from different tumors elicits
411 antitumor response against all the tumors (Srivastava
412 2006). These results, which have been confirmed
413 experimentally by other laboratories, represent the
414 starting point for the development of anticancer immu-
415 notherapy, which is presently tested in several clinical
416 trials (Woods and Mulders 2009).

417 Grp94 is also involved in anticancer therapies
418 aimed to disrupt Hsp90 chaperone function on several
419 oncogenic proteins by means of molecules like
420 geldanamycin and analogues, which inhibit ATPase
421 activity (Fig. 1a). The effects of these molecules on
422 Grp94 function in tumor cells are rarely investigated,
423 although they might play a role in reducing active cell
424 surface levels of transmembrane receptors implicated
425 in cancer, such as the receptor for the epidermal growth
426 factor (► EGF receptor) and, most importantly, the
427 release of IGFs (McLaughlin and Vandenbroeck
428 2011).

429 Autoimmune Diseases

430 Only immature cells and some neoplastic ones express
431 Grp94 molecules at the cell surface. Spontaneous sys-
432 temic lupus erythematosus-like autoimmune pheno-
433 type was experimentally obtained by inducing
434 persistent expression of cell surface Grp94, via trans-
435 genic overexpression of an obligatory transmembrane
436 form of Grp94 (Liu et al. 2006) or knock out of AIMP1,
437 which allows the interaction of Grp94 with the KDEL
438 receptor (Kim et al. 2010). A subsequent study
439 excluded the direct role of the enforced cell surface
440 expression of Grp94 demonstrating that disease phe-
441 notype occurs secondary to the concomitant increased
442 expression of TLR4 and the enhanced sensitivity of the
443 receptors to low levels of endotoxin released by the
444 commensal flora (Liu et al. 2006). On the other hand,
445 the inhibition of Grp94 localization to the surface of
446 AIMP^{-/-} cells, achieved by restoring KDEL receptor

uptake, appeared efficient in ameliorating the disease phenotype (Kim et al. 2010). Despite these controversial findings, the participation of this chaperone in the pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases has been recently demonstrated for rheumatoid arthritis. Released Grp94 is increased in synovial fluid from the joints of human rheumatoid arthritis patients, where it interacts with the extracellular domains of both TLR2 and TLR4, promoting the self-perpetuating activation of synovial macrophages (Huang et al. 2009).

A major nonimmune role in the pathogenesis of autoimmune myositis is played by the ER stress response accompanying transgenic MHC class I upregulation in mouse skeletal muscle fibers and leading to ► NF- κ B activation and increased expression of ER chaperones. Extensive analysis of patients' biopsies revealed that Grp94 overexpression was restricted to regenerating myofibers, which recapitulating muscle differentiation overexpressed also MHC class I molecules and other autoantigens (Vitadello et al. 2010). In this context, the immunomodulatory and pro-inflammatory effects of Grp94 upregulation appear to play a secondary role, bound to muscle regenerative events, which, however, may stimulate further the immune response.

Nevertheless, Grp94 involvement in the inflammatory and the adaptive immune response represents an interesting therapeutical target for autoimmune disorders. Grp94 chaperone activity on client proteins, such as TLRs and the p40 subunit of the interleukin 12 family of cytokines (► IL-12), might be inhibited by radicicol and geldanamycin derivatives, which have been shown to reduce inflammatory markers and capillary leakage and modulate IL-12 family secretion levels (McLaughlin and Vandenbroeck 2011).

Ischemia-Reperfusion

Ischemia-reperfusion represents a strong inducer of the ER stress response. Several studies have been performed in the brain, where the activation of the ER stress response upregulates ER chaperone expression and is protective. Such an issue is far more relevant for mammalian cardiomyocytes, where control of intracellular calcium concentration $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ becomes critical during ischemia. Although evidence obtained in vitro and in vivo confirmed the activation of the ER stress response in ischemic-reperfused cardiomyocytes, it is less clear what function the ER stress response

serves in the cardiac context. Several studies show that ER stress response contributes to ischemic damage, by inducing both apoptosis and autophagy-mediated cell death; conversely, others support the protective role of the ER stress response and of ER chaperones, among which is Grp94, in decreasing size of infarct or maintaining cardiomyocyte viability (Glembotski 2008). Such a discrepancy might depend upon the context of the study, in that protective aspects of the ER stress response predominate early after the ischemic injury, whereas pro-apoptotic features occur later. Although the mechanism through which Grp94 exerts cardioprotection remains to be determined, a body of evidence point to its role in the maintenance of calcium homeostasis. Grp94 overexpression improves myocyte survival after exposure to oxidative stress, a usual consequence of ischemia-reperfusion, because it reduces the degree of protein oxidation (Pizzo et al. 2010). Calcium dyshomeostasis is generated by and generate further oxidative stress. Grp94 overexpression, which can also be pharmacologically upregulated, appears to disrupt this pathway, by reducing the amount of releasable calcium from the stores.

Ischemia/reperfusion injury also induces an innate immune response, leading to an inflammatory reaction and tissue damage that have been attributed to engagement of TLR2 and 4. In the ischemic kidney, Grp94 contributes to the activation of ERK1/2 downstream pathway by dissociating from PP5, and thus inactivating this negative modulator. Although multiple pathway activated by ischemia-reperfusion act upon the ERK1/2 cascade of renal tubular cells, the dissociation of Grp94 from PP5 is dependent only from TLR2 activation (Mkaddem et al. 2009).

Inhibitors and Expression Regulators

The small number of client proteins and the involvement in specific cellular events make this chaperone an interesting target to be inhibited or increased, depending of the desired outcome.

Known inhibitors of both ATP hydrolysis and peptide binding, such as radicicol, geldanamycin, and analogues, are already tested in clinical trials mostly as inhibitors of Hsp90 chaperone activity (McLaughlin and Vandenbroeck 2011). The nucleotide analog 5'-N-ethylcarboxamidoadenosine (NECA), a broad-spectrum adenosine A_2 receptor antagonist, which binds Grp94

and not Hsp90, is presently used only in vitro. Recently, the molecule S-methyl 2-(4,6-dimethoxypyrimidine-2-yl-oxo)-3-methylbutanoate (GPM1) has been shown to directly interact with hydrophobic residues of Grp94 within the dimerization domain (Fig. 1a), facilitating its oligomerization and retrograde transport to endoplasmic reticulum via the KDEL receptor. In vivo administration of this compound reduced maturation of pAPCs and activation of B and T cells, alleviating the symptoms associated to an experimental model of systemic lupus erythematosus in mice (AIMP1^{-/-}) (Han et al. 2010).

Although upregulation of Grp94 is achieved pharmacologically together with that one of the other ER chaperones – one example is the ER stress response induced by celecoxib, a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug, and its derivatives (McLaughlin and Vandenberg 2011) – a more selective Grp94 involvement apparently follows the administration of curcumin (Pizzo et al. 2010). Similarly to celecoxib, also curcumin is a SERCA inhibitor and able to induce an ER stress response by depleting calcium stores. A single pulse of curcumin at low dosage selectively upregulates Grp94 expression and contains the effects of oxidative stress on protein carbonylation and cell survival, whereas the benefits of such a short curcumin treatment cannot be observed, when Grp94 is knocked down by antisense cDNA (Pizzo et al. 2010).

Summary

Grp94 is a chaperone/stress protein of the ER and is expressed only in multicellular organisms. At variance of the paralog Hsp90, Grp94 is involved in the folding of a limited population of client proteins and only one co-chaperone has been identified so far. Grp94 absolute requirement for embryonic development derives from the specific role of the client proteins played in critical contexts, like IGFs for differentiation of muscle tissues, and TLR and integrins for lymphopoiesis.

In addition to chaperone activity, Grp94 serves different functions. It binds calcium and participates, through still unknown mechanisms, to the control of intracellular calcium homeostasis. When increased, consequent to the ER stress-response, it exerts cytoprotection against different stressors, such as calcium overload and reactive oxygen species. Grp94 may change its subcellular localization, migrating to

Golgi and the cell surface, depending on the cell type and the activation of signal transduction pathways involving Src-kinase or JNK. Cell surface and released Grp94 molecules act as immune regulator of both the innate and adaptive responses by allowing maturation of pAPCs. The protein interacts with TLR2 and initiates inflammation promoting IL-6 and TNF- α secretion from pAPCs. It participates to the adaptive immune response by binding peptides and being internalized in post-endoplasmic reticulum endosomal compartment of pAPCs, where the carried peptide is loaded onto mature MHC class I molecules and can recruit specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T lymphocytes.

Although this last property suggested the use of peptide-bound Grp94 as anticancer vaccine, the other features identify this ER chaperone as an interesting target for pharmacological therapy. Hampering the chaperone activity of Grp94 or increasing the protein retention into the ER reduces the release of pro-inflammatory and immune modulatory signals. Future attempts to change selectively Grp94 protein levels would permit to vary cell resistance against lethal stresses.

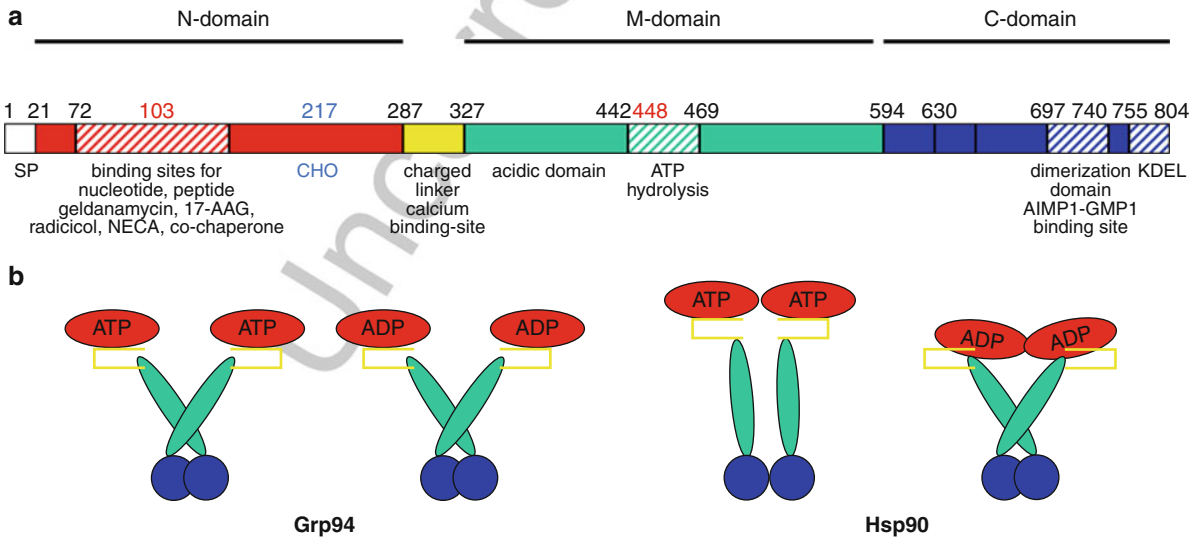
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t1.1 **Grp94 (HSP90B1), Table 1** List of proteins requiring the Grp94 chaperone for folding, as shown by Grp94 knocking out or down experiments

t1.2	Proteins	References
t1.3	Membrane receptors	
t1.4	TLR	Random and Seed (2001),
t1.5	(TLR1, TLR2, TLR4, TLR5, TRL6, TLR7, TLR9, TLR11, but not TLR3)	Yang et al. (2007), Liu and Li (2008), Liu et al. (2010)
t1.6	Integrins	Random and Seed (2001), Liu and Li (2008), Staron et al. (2010)
t1.7	(α 1, α 2, α 4, α D, α E, α L, α M, α V, α X, β 2, β 5, β 6, β 7, β 8)	
t1.8	Secreted enzymes and molecules	
t1.9	ADAMTS9 metalloprotease	Koo and Apte (2010)
t1.10	Bile-salt-dependent lipase	Nganga et al. (2000)
t1.11	IGFs (IGF-I, IGF-II)	Wanderling et al. (2007), Ostrovsky et al. (2009), Ostrovsky et al. (2010)



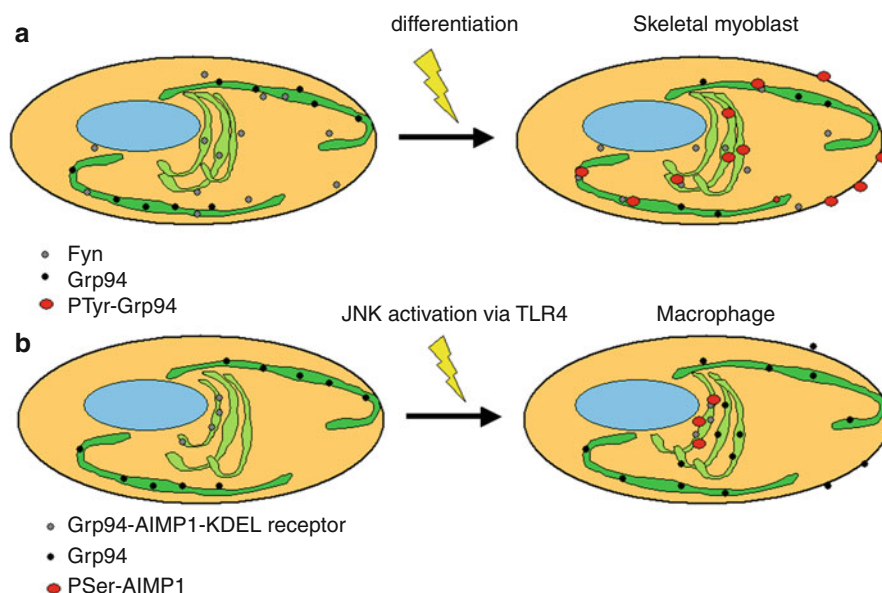
Grp94 (HSP90B1), Fig. 1 Diagrams illustrate Grp94 structure and configuration. (a) Primary structure of Grp94 and domain boundaries identification. Numbers identify amino acids. Numbers 103 and 448 identify amino acid residues involved in ATP hydrolysis; number 217 indicates an identified site of glycosylation. *Crosshatched* regions identify functions specified below

and described in the text. SP: signal peptide; CHO: oligosaccharide. (b) Schematic representations of domain interactions of Grp94 and Hsp90 proteins observed after binding with ATP or ADP. At variance with Hsp90, whose conformation is changed to a catalytically active one by nucleotide binding, Grp94 ground-state conformation is apparently not affected

Grp94 (HSP90B1),

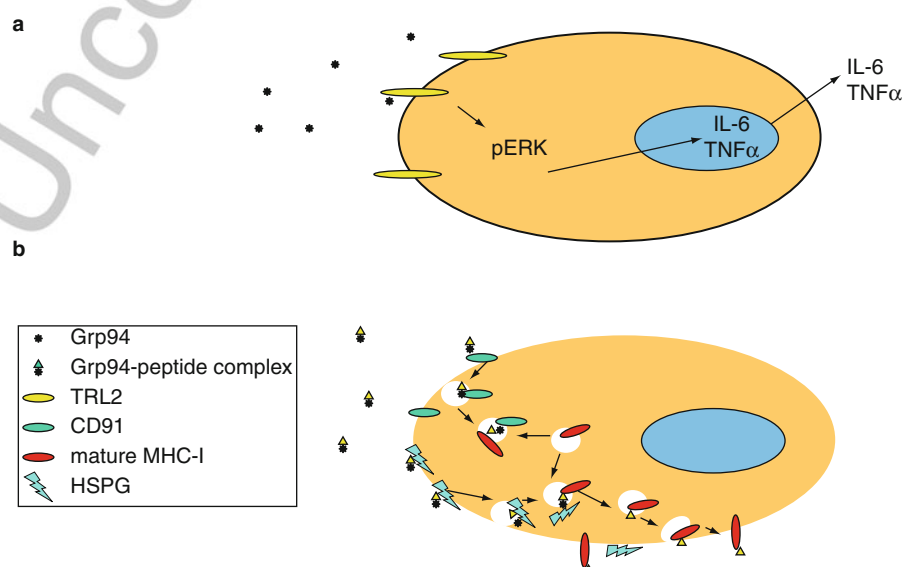
Fig. 2 Signals responsible for Grp94 cell-surface localization. (a)

Differentiation of skeletal myoblasts induced by low serum culture medium activates an ER-resident Fyn, which interacts with and Tyr-phosphorylates Grp94, promoting its migration to the Golgi compartment and the cell surface. (b) Exposure of circulating or spleen macrophages to bacterial lipopolysaccharide activates TLR4 and JNK-mediated AIMP1 phosphorylation, which dissociates Grp94-KDEL receptor complex and favor Grp94 export to the cell surface



Grp94 (HSP90B1),

Fig. 3 Schematic representations of the pathways activated by exposure of pAPCs to Grp94 in innate and adaptive immune responses. (a) Interaction of soluble Grp94 with TLR2 induces IL-6 and TNF- α secretion in human macrophages through ERK1/2 pathway activation. (b) Peptides complexed to Grp94 are internalized by pAPCs after either receptor-mediated or fluid-phase endocytosis, and loaded onto mature MHC class I molecules in a post-ER compartment. HSPG: heparan sulfate proteoglycan



Grp94 (HSP90B1), Fig. 4 In situ hybridization analysis of Grp94 mRNA distribution in the E10 rabbit embryo. (a) and (b) show bright and dark field micrographs, respectively, of a sagittal section of the whole embryo. A and V indicate primordium of the atrial and ventricular myocardium, respectively. Strong hybridization signals are detectable at the level of branchial arches (*thin arrow*) and neuroepithelium (*arrowhead*). (c) The micrograph shows the myocardium of the ventricular primordium at higher magnification. *Large arrows* point to stronger hybridization signals at the level of ventricular trabeculae

