



Commentary: A hypothesis for examining skeletal muscle biopsy-derived sarcolemmal nNOSμ as surrogate for enteric nNOSα function

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A commentary on

A hypothesis for examining skeletal muscle biopsy-derived sarcolemmal $nNOS\mu$ as surrogate for enteric $nNOS\alpha$ function

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Percival J (2015) Commentary: A hypothesis for examining skeletal muscle biopsy-derived sarcolemmal nNOSμ as surrogate for enteric nNOSα function. Front. Med. 2:70. doi: 10.3389/fmed.2015.00070 Dr. Chaudhury puts forward an interesting hypothesis that reductions in sarcolemmal nNOSµ might parallel reductions in enteric neuron nNOS α expression, localization, and activity (1). In other words, nNOSµ expressed at the plasma membrane (sarcolemma) of skeletal muscle cells could act as a surrogate for nNOS α function. This possibility is attractive because sarcolemmal nNOSµ localization and expression can be readily assessed from peripheral skeletal muscle biopsies. Also, this possibility is enticing because it circumvents the difficulties of obtaining gastrointestinal tract biopsies to evaluate nNOS α dysregulation as a potential causal factor of gut dysfunction. We aim to advance the dialog on this issue by addressing key assumptions of this hypothesis from the point of view of skeletal muscle nNOS.

Key assumptions of this hypothesis include (1) the molecular similarity of the nNOS α and nNOS μ splice variants; (2) the mechanisms regulating nNOS α localization in neurons are similar to those regulating nNOS μ in skeletal muscle cells. The molecular similarity assumption is reasonably based on high protein homology between nNOS α and nNOS μ . Muscle nNOS μ contains an internal 34 amino acid insert in the autoregulatory domain not found in nNOS α (2). And while the study of isozyme-specific differences between nNOS splice variants is in its infancy, early studies suggest that μ insert inclusion reduces the speed of electron transfer from reductase to oxidase domains (3). The physiological significance of this altered catalytic activity of nNOS μ relative to nNOS α remains to be determined. From an evolutionary point of view, there has been positive selective pressure to retain both nNOS α and nNOS μ splice variants strongly suggesting key functional differences that confer advantage. Therefore, caution must be exercised to avoid overestimating the similarities of nNOS α and nNOS μ .

In addition, it is important not to overlook additional differences at the transcript level between nNOS α and nNOS μ , particularly in humans, due to alternative amino terminal exon choice that do not impact protein sequence. This provides additional molecular differences between nNOS α and nNOS μ and suggests potential mechanisms of differential control between nNOS splice variants-particularly between neurons and skeletal muscle cells (4). Transcript diversity represents an important regulatory mechanism for the control of tissue-specific distribution and function of *NOS1* gene splice variants and is an important consideration for understanding nNOS isozyme function salient to Dr. Chaudhury's hypothesis.

The second key assumption is that similar mechanisms act to localize nNOSa in neurons and nNOSµ in skeletal muscle cells. Before discussing this point, it is worth describing the multiple spatially and functionally distinct pools of nNOS in skeletal muscle cells. Two functionally and spatially distinct nNOS splice variants are co-expressed in skeletal muscle cells- $nNOS\beta$ and $nNOS\mu$ (5, 6). We consider nNOSµ only here. Although the sarcolemmal localization of nNOSµ is well recognized, it is commonly overlooked that sarcolemmal nNOSµ represents not more than half of total nNOSµ expressed in skeletal muscle cells. Furthermore, a small fraction of that sarcolemmal nNOSµ resides on the postsynaptic membranes of skeletal muscle cells at the neuromuscular synapse. In addition, approximately half of muscle nNOSµ is localized to the cytosol where it regulates RYR1-mediated calcium release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (7). Importantly, cytosolic nNOSµ is quite active in resting muscles; arguing against the proposition that nNOSµ requires localization to the sarcolemma to be active. This is not to say that the localization nNOSµ is not critical for some its functions in skeletal muscle, such as the attenuation of sympathetic vasoconstriction during exercise (8). We are saying that in skeletal muscle, nNOSµ does not have to be at the plasma membrane to be active and that nNOSµ has important non-sarcolemmal functions. Perhaps most importantly, the pool of nNOSµ at the neuromuscular junction in skeletal muscle may be the most relevant for comparison with enteric neuron nNOSa.

The localization of sarcolemmal nNOSµ is relatively well understood. In skeletal muscle, α -syntrophin is a critical and necessary scaffold for nNOSµ at the sarcolemma and neuromuscular synapse. By contrast, post synaptic density 95 (PSD-95) protein is the key scaffold in different neuronal cells of the central nervous system (9). Therefore, there is a critical difference in mechanisms used to localize plasma membrane-associated nNOS in neurons and skeletal muscle cells. This of course undermines the strength of the second key assumption of the hypothesis that the mechanisms localizing nNOS at the plasma membrane in skeletal muscle cells in neurons are similar enough.

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However, of greater relevance and importance to the hypothesis is that the sarcolemmal localization of nNOSµ and its expression in skeletal muscle is dynamic [reviewed in Ref. (6, 10)]. The expression of nNOS μ and its association with the sarcolemma positively correlates with activity or exercise level in rodents and humans and may be a useful biomarker of exercise capacity. With greater activity, typically endurance type exercise, there is an increased expression of nNOSµ at the sarcolemma. Conversely, with a decrease in activity associated with conditions such as myopathy, chronic bedrest, or hindlimb unloading, nNOSµ translocates from the plasma membrane to the cytosol and can initiate a muscle wasting atrogene program by mechanisms that remain to be fully deciphered (10). In other words, nNOSµ appears to participate in a "use it or lose it" type mechanism to control muscle mass and exercise capacity. The molecular details underpinning this mechanism remain to be fully deciphered. However, this muscle-specific activity-based control of nNOSµ may confound the use of sarcolemmal nNOSµ as a proxy for enteric neuron $nNOS\alpha$. It is quite likely that patients with severe gastrointestinal motility disorders will be more sedentary and perhaps exhibit reduced exercise tolerance, particularly if they lack normal nNOSµ activity. Therefore, as a secondary downstream consequence we would expect their skeletal muscles to express less sarcolemmal nNOSµ. In this scenario, these patients would always have less sarcolemmal nNOSµ. In other words, nNOSµ levels would reflect patient activity levels and not neuronal nNOSa making the evaluation of sarcolemmal nNOSµ uninformative as a surrogate for nNOSα in the gastrointestinal tract.

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