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Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA) and its receptors

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Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA), a bioactive phospholipid, and its family of cognate G protein-coupled receptors have demonstrated roles in many biological functions in the nervous system. To date, five LPA receptors have been identified, and additional receptors may exist. Most of these receptors have been genetically deleted in mice toward identifying biological and medically relevant roles. In addition, small molecule agonists and antagonists have been reported. Here we review recent data on the nervous system functions of LPA signaling, and summarize data on reported agonists and antagonists of LPA receptors.

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Introduction

Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA; 1- or 2-acyl-*sn*-glycerol-3-phosphate) is a bioactive phospholipid with diverse biological functions on many cell types. LPA is detected in serum, plasma, other biological fluids, and tissues including brain [1].

LPA is generated by the action of a number of different enzymes including phospholipase A₁ or A₂, monoacylglycerol kinase, glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase, and autotaxin (ATX), a lysophospholipase D (lysoPLD) [2]. LPA is catabolized by a number of different pathways that include the actions of lipid phosphate phosphatases or LPA acyltransferase, thus terminating its signaling actions [2].

LPA elicits its functions through receptors on plasma membranes. So far, there are five G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) identified as specific receptors for LPA that are referred to as LPA₁, LPA₂, LPA₃, LPA₄, and LPA₅ [3–8]. In addition, recent reports have suggested that three additional GPCRs, GPR87, P2Y5,

and P2Y10, may be responsive to LPA [9,10,11], although further study is required to validate these observations. Analyses of gene knockout mice for most of the five *bona fide* receptors have revealed physiological and pathological roles of LPA signaling including brain development [12–15], neuropathic pain [16], and female and male reproduction [17,18], to name a few (see below).

This review focuses on the functions of LPA signaling in the nervous system and briefly introduces LPA agonists/antagonists (Figure 2 and Table 2). Because of space limitations, additional characteristics of known LPA receptors are merely summarized in Table 1.

LPA signaling in the nervous system

Neural progenitor cells (NPCs)

The processes that mediate central nervous system (CNS) development include proliferation, differentiation, migration, and apoptosis. NPCs proliferate in the ventricular zone (VZ) to expand progenitor pools, and sequentially exit the cell cycle to differentiate into multiple cell types including neurons, astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes (Figure 1). During these processes, the cells change their morphology drastically and migrate out from the VZ toward their final destinations. The restricted expression of LPA₁ in the VZ of the developing cerebral cortex [3] and the presence of ATX in the embryonic brain [19] suggested a role for LPA signaling in cortical development.

In vitro primary culture of mouse cortical NPCs and heterologous expression of LPA₁ in B103 rat neuroblastoma cells revealed the proliferative role of this receptor subtype [12,20]. However, a study using immortalized hippocampal progenitor cells, which express LPA₁ and LPA₄, suggests the effects of LPA signaling on neuronal differentiation. This may occur through LPA₄-G_s pathways: LPA stimulates cyclic AMP response element-binding protein (CREB) phosphorylation, which promotes neuronal differentiation [21]. In neurospheres consisting of NPCs, the effects of LPA signaling on both proliferation and differentiation have been reported; generation and growth via LPA₁ and/or LPA₃ [22], and neuronal differentiation via LPA₁ [23]. Interestingly, these responses are inhibited by a pathological concentration (10 μM) of LPA [24]. *Ex vivo* culture of embryonic brain reveals that LPA promotes survival and differentiation of NPCs rather than proliferation through LPA₁ and/or LPA₂ [25]. Thus, the specific role of LPA signaling on proliferation or neuronal differentiation is highly complex and appears to depend on the stage of cortical

Table 1

Characteristics of LPA receptors.

Receptor	Synonyms	Gene ^a /location	G-protein coupling	Cellular responses	Physiological/pathological functions
LPA ₁	VZG-1 EDG2 Rec1.3 GPR26 GPCR26	<i>LPAR1</i> /chr9 (human) <i>Lpar1</i> /chr4 (mouse)	G _{i/o} , G _{q/11} , G _{12/13}	Proliferation [20] Survival [70] Stress fiber formation [20] Neurite retraction, cell rounding [3,20,26]	Brain development [14,15] Neuropathic pain [16] Pulmonary fibrosis [90] Renal fibrosis [91]
LPA ₂	EDG4	<i>LPAR2</i> /chr19 (human) <i>Lpar2</i> /chr8 (mouse)	G _{i/o} , G _{q/11} , G _{12/13}	Cell rounding [26]	Vascular injury (LPA _{1/2}) [92]
LPA ₃	EDG7	<i>LPAR3</i> /chr1 (human) <i>Lpar3</i> /chr3 (mouse)	G _{i/o} , G _{q/11}	Neurite elongation [26]	Embryo implantation and spacing [17] Spermatogenesis, male mating activity (LPA _{1/2/3}) [18]
LPA ₄	GPR23 P2Y9 P2Y5-like	<i>LPAR4</i> /chrX (human) <i>Lpar4</i> /chrX (mouse)	G _{i/o} , G _{q/11} , G _{12/13} , G _s	Neurite retraction, cell rounding, cell aggregation [28,29]	N/D
LPA ₅	GPR92 GPR93	<i>LPAR5</i> /chr12 (human) <i>Lpar5</i> /chr6 (mouse)	G _{q/11} , G _{12/13}	Stress fiber formation, neurite retraction, cell rounding [7]	N/D
GPR87 ^b	GPR95	<i>GPR87</i> /chr3 (human) <i>Gpr87</i> /chr3 (mouse)	N/D	Ca ²⁺ mobilization [9*]	N/D
P2Y5 ^b		<i>P2YR5</i> /chr13 (human) <i>P2yr5</i> /chr14 (mouse)	N/D	CRE activation [10*]	Hair growth [10*,93]
P2Y10 ^b		<i>P2YR10</i> /chrX (human) <i>P2yr10</i> /chrX (mouse)	N/D	Ca ²⁺ mobilization [11*]	N/D

CRE, cyclic AMP response element and N/D, not determined.

^a Gene names are referred to Human Genome Nomenclature Committee (<http://www.genenames.org/>) and Mouse Genome Informatics (<http://www.informatics.jax.org/>).

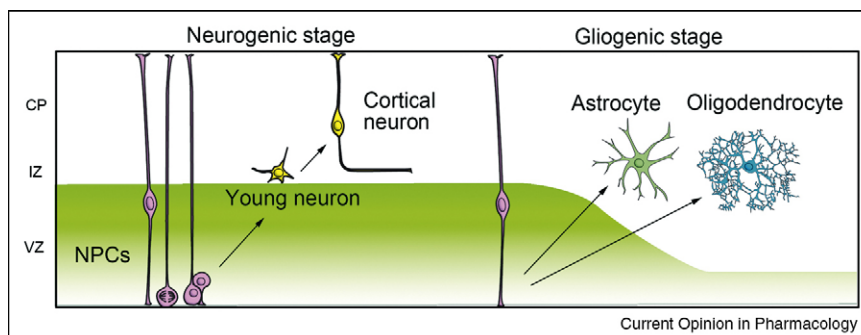
^b Preliminary identification as LPA receptors, requiring further confirmation.

development, surrounding conditions, and ligand concentration.

LPA signaling induces morphological changes of NPCs in cell lines, primary culture, and whole brain culture. Heterologous expression of LPA₁₋₅ in NPC cell lines such as TSM mouse immortalized NPCs and B103 cells


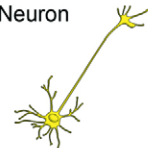
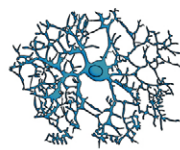
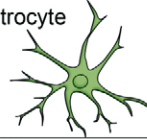

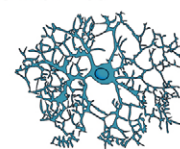
revealed the ability of individual LPA receptors to mediate different morphological changes. Neurite retraction and cell rounding are induced by LPA in cells expressing LPA₁, LPA₂, LPA₄, or LPA₅ through Rho-mediated pathways [3,7,20,26–29]. Additionally, cell aggregation and cadherin-dependent cell adhesion are observed in LPA₄-expressing cells following LPA-treatment [28].

Figure 1



General scheme of neural cell production during CNS development. In the early stage of CNS development, NPCs proliferate in the VZ to expand progenitor pools. As development proceeds, NPCs sequentially differentiate into neurons, astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes. Microglia are derived from peripheral mesodermal tissue [89] and not shown here. CP, cortical plate; IZ, intermediate zone.

Figure 2

Cell Types	Reported LPA Receptor Expression	Responses to LPA
NPC 	LPA ₁ , LPA ₂	Proliferation Differentiation Inhibition of differentiation (in pathological concentration) Neurite retraction / cell rounding Early conductance change
Neuron 	LPA ₂	Neurite retraction / cell rounding Growth cone collapse / repulsive turning Inhibition of migration Survival Apoptosis
Oligodendrocyte 	LPA ₁	Process formation (maturation) Process retraction / cell rounding
Astrocyte 	LPA ₁₋₅	Proliferation Impaired glutamate uptake ROS production Cytoskeletal changes Neuronal differentiation factor release
Microglia 	LPA ₁ , LPA ₃	Metabolic activity increase (proliferation) Chemokinesis enhancement
Shwann cell 	LPA ₁ , LPA ₂	Survival Differentiation Cytoskeletal changes Demyelination

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LPA receptor expression and responses to LPA in each neural cell type. Each neural cell type has a different LPA receptor expression pattern and exhibits distinct responses to LPA.

Interestingly, LPA₃ expression results in neurite elongation and inhibition of LPA-induced cell rounding in B103 cells and TR cells (a mouse NPC line) respectively [26]. In NPC cluster culture, LPA induces neurite retraction and cluster compaction which reflects both cell migration, and cell rounding within clusters, accompanied by nuclear movement toward the center of clusters [30], and the compaction by LPA is severely attenuated in LPA₁-null clusters [12]. Cortical explant studies show rounded morphologies of NPCs and accumulation of NPC nuclei at the VZ surface produced by LPA-treatment [30]. These *in vitro* observations resemble morphological changes and nuclear/cellular migration of NPCs in the VZ during cortical development (Figure 1). In addition, LPA stimulates conductance changes in early

cortical NPCs preceding that of the neurotransmitters GABA and L-glutamate, and is considered as one of the earliest extracellular stimuli of ionic conductance changes for cortical NPCs [31].

Neurons

Early studies showed that LPA signaling induces neurite retraction and growth cone collapse in neuronal cell lines such as N1E-115, NG108-15, and differentiated PC12 cells, and in primary cultured chick neurons [32–34]. In mouse young postmitotic neurons, LPA induces rapid neurite retraction and cell rounding [35]. As neurons mature, these responses decrease, and instead, Rho-independent growth cone collapse appears [27]. In contrast, Rho-mediated growth cone collapse and repulsive turning by

LPA have been reported in chick dorsal root ganglion (DRG) neurons and in *Xenopus* spinal neurons, respectively [36,37]. Another LPA-induced collapse mechanism is rapid protein degradation in the growth cone of *Xenopus* retinal neurons, which involves activation of proteasome, p38 MAPK, and caspase-3 [38,39]. In addition, inhibitory effects of LPA on the migration of young postmitotic neurons are observed in mouse cortical and whole brain explant cultures [35]. Because mouse cortical plate neurons and primary cultures of mouse young postmitotic neurons mainly express LPA₂ [35,40], and some of these responses are still observed in LPA₁-null neurons [35], these suggest that LPA₂ and/or other as-yet unidentified LPA receptors may function in the developing brain.

Both apoptotic and survival effects of LPA signaling on neuronal cells have been reported [41–45]. In LPA₁-null mice, cortical apoptosis is increased in both the embryonic and postnatal brain (see below) [14]. Opposing effects of LPA signaling may result from concentration differences as well as differential expression of varied LPA receptor subtypes.

Oligodendrocytes

Oligodendrocytes, the myelin-forming glial cells in the CNS, express LPA₁ in a pattern that correlates temporally and spatially with maturation and myelination [46,47]. *In vitro* studies show cellular responsiveness to LPA including Ca²⁺ mobilization, ERK1/2 phosphorylation, process retraction, and cell rounding, depending on the maturity of oligodendrocytes [48–50]. However, some discrepancies remain with respect to the observed signaling pathways that are activated during oligodendrocyte development. LPA stimulates process formation, and increases the number of differentiating, but not mature, oligodendrocytes [51*].

Astrocytes

Cultured astrocytes express all five LPA receptors [52*], while the basal *in vivo* expression levels of these receptors appear to be below standard detection limits for at least LPA₁ [46,47,53]. Further examination of other receptors under basal conditions and *in situ* are needed, as are expression levels under non-basal conditions.

LPA induces proliferative effects on cultured astrocytes including intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization, production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and DNA synthesis [54–57], although some studies show no proliferative effect [58–61]. LPA also induces inhibition of glutamate uptake in cultured astrocytes [54]. Notably, the proliferative effect is abolished, but glutamate uptake inhibition is still observed in LPA₁-null astrocytes [52*]. Further, LPA induces Rho-mediated cytoskeletal changes such as rapid reversal of stellate morphology that are induced by cyclic AMP elevation or serum removal [62,63]. LPA also induces the stabilization of stress fibers, and stimulates

actomyosin contraction [64]. *In vivo* LPA injection into the adult mouse striatum induces astrogliosis that occurs following brain injury and stroke [57]. Several observations also support roles for LPA signaling in neurodegeneration. These include upregulation of ATX in reactive astrocytes adjacent to injury lesion sites [19*], and proliferation, ROS production, and impaired glutamate uptake documented *in vitro*. Taken together, LPA signaling may have roles in exacerbating brain injury.

Recently, indirect effects of LPA signaling on neuronal differentiation were reported [65*]. LPA-primed astrocytes enhanced neuronal differentiation. This effect was dependent on LPA₁ and/or LPA₂ expression on astrocytes, but not NPCs. Experiments using conditioned medium from LPA-primed astrocytes demonstrated that a soluble factor is released from astrocytes to mediate these effects, although the identities of putative factors remain undetermined.

Microglia

Microglia prepared from rat and mouse predominantly express LPA₁ and/or LPA₃ [66,67] and respond to LPA to produce intracellular Ca²⁺ mobilization, increased metabolic activity (proliferation), enhanced chemokinesis, membrane ruffling, and brain-derived neurotrophic factor expression [66,68,69]. However, LPA receptor expression profiles and cellular responses vary with microglial maturation as well as species sources (e.g. rat versus mouse), which require further study.

Schwann cells (SCs)

SCs express LPA₁ and LPA₂ [47,70,71]. In cultured neonatal SCs, LPA promotes LPA₁-dependent survival and morphological changes, and LPA₂-dependent differentiation. LPA rescues SCs from apoptosis [70,72], and LPA₁-null SCs display increased apoptosis [12]. LPA induces actin cytoskeleton-based morphological changes, focal adhesion assembly, and *N*-cadherin-mediated cell–cell contacts, and these responses are diminished in LPA₁-null SCs [71]. LPA increases myelin P₀ protein expression in SCs; a response that is decreased by siRNA against LPA₂ [72]. In adult SCs isolated from axotomized sciatic nerve, LPA₁ and LPA₂ expression are upregulated coincident with postaxotomy SC proliferation, suggesting that LPA signaling promotes SC mitogenesis in regenerating peripheral nerves [71,73]. Moreover, LPA induces demyelination of SCs in *ex vivo* culture of the dorsal root (DR) and in mice that have received an intrathecal LPA injection (see below) [16,74].

Knockout mice

LPA₁-null mice have approximately 50% neonatal lethality, and exhibit craniofacial dysmorphism (shorter snouts and more widely spread eyes) and reduced body mass in survivors [12]. These mice are also characterized by the defects in normal suckling behavior, presumably

because of a lack of olfactant detection and/or processing, which accounts for increased neonatal death and decreased postnatal growth. However, no obvious abnormalities in olfactory/vomer nasal epithelia, olfactory bulb, or cortex are observed, except for occasional, slightly smaller cortical width and reduced wall thickness of brains/olfactory bulbs. A small fraction of embryonic and neonatal LPA₁-null mice have frontal cranial hemorrhage. An LPA₁-null substrain that arose spontaneously during colony expansion of the original line [12], called Malaga LPA₁ variant, exhibits more severe phenotypes [14]. The mutant mice exhibit smaller brains with reduced VZ and smaller cortices. Moreover, they show defects in hippocampal neurogenesis, which is stimulated by environmental enrichment and voluntary physical activity [15]. Independently generated LPA₁-null mice display deficits in prepulse inhibition, widespread changes in neurotransmitter 5-HT levels and turnover, and a brain region-specific alteration in amino acid levels, which resemble defects found in psychiatric diseases [75].

LPA₂-null mice display no obvious phenotypic abnormalities [13]. LPA₁/LPA₂-double-null mice display no additional phenotypes to LPA₁-null mice, except for an increased incidence of perinatal frontal hematoma [13]. Further analyses are needed to determine more subtle phenotypic differences.

LPA₃-null females have a significantly reduced litter size that is due to delayed implantation, altered embryo spacing, and prolonged pregnancy [17], whereas LPA₁/LPA₂/LPA₃-triple-null male mice show a testosterone-independent reduction of mating activity and spermatogenesis [18]. No phenotypes related to LPA₃ loss in the nervous system have been reported to date.

ATX-null embryos die around E9.5–E10.5 with severe vascular defects in the yolk sac and embryo [76,77]. ATX-null embryos at E8.5–E9.5 show various defects including allantois malformation, growth retardation, neural tube malformation, incomplete turning, reduced number of somites, and asymmetric headfolds [76,77]. Allantois culture system shows that LPA and ATX are not angiogenic but stabilize preformed vessels by

preventing endothelia disassembly [77]. Since these phenotypes are much more severe than those observed in LPA₁₋₃ single-null or multiple-null mice, and stabilization of preformed vessels by LPA or ATX is not blocked by LPA₁/LPA₃-specific antagonist Ki16425 [77], it is strongly suggested that other LPA receptors such as LPA₄ and LPA₅ or unidentified LPA receptors are involved in vascular stabilization. In contrast, ATX heterozygous mice appear healthy but show half-normal ATX activity and plasma LPA levels [76,77], indicating that ATX is the major LPA-producing enzyme *in vivo*.

LPA signaling in pain

Intraplantar injection of LPA into the mouse hind limb induces peripheral nociception, which is markedly reduced by PTX-pretreatment or substance P receptor antagonist-pretreatment, and partially blocked by LPA₁ antisense oligodeoxynucleotide administration [78,79]. Taken together with a finding that LPA₁ mRNA is detected in DRG [79], it appears that LPA induces peripheral nociception through LPA₁ and G_{i/o} by releasing substance P from nociceptor endings.

Intrathecal injection of LPA into mice induces neuropathic pain and demyelination of the DR similar to those observed after nerve injury. Strikingly, however, LPA₁-null mice are refractory to nerve injury-induced neuropathic pain [16]. Further studies demonstrate that the conversion of LPC to LPA via the action of ATX may be an essential component of this process *in vivo* [80,81]. *Ex vivo* culture of the DR reveals a direct effect of LPA on demyelination in SCs that may underlie this process [74]. A recent study suggests that LPA₃ is potentially involved in mechanical, cold, and inflammatory pain, but not neuropathic pain [82].

LPA receptor agonists/antagonists

In recent years, several groups have reported the generation of agonist and antagonist compounds for LPA receptors that vary in specificities and apparent affinities (Table 2). Several have been reportedly used as study compounds in a number of *in vitro* applications. Notably, Ki16425 is commercially available and acts as

Table 2

Reported LPA receptor compounds.

Compound	Activity	Characteristics
Ki16425	LPA ₁ /LPA ₃ antagonist	Isolated from a compound library, chemically dissimilar to LPA
VPC32183	LPA ₁ /LPA ₃ antagonist	LPA analog
VPC12249	LPA ₁ /LPA ₃ antagonist	LPA analog
Diacylglycerol pyrophosphate	LPA ₁ /LPA ₃ antagonist	Naturally occurring lipid
OMPT	LPA ₃ agonist	Thiophosphate derivative of LPA
T13	LPA ₃ agonist	LPA analog with carbohydrate scaffold
Cyclic carba analogs	Compounds vary in specificity and efficacy	Analog of a naturally occurring cyclic derivative of LPA
Phosphonate compounds	Compounds vary in specificity and efficacy	Metabolically stabilized LPA analogs

an LPA₁/LPA₃-specific antagonist [83]. It has been used in cell culture experiments to inhibit such LPA-mediated processes as Ca²⁺ mobilization, migration, and neurite retraction in a number of different cell types and tissue explants. This compound has recently been licensed by Debiopharm Group (Switzerland) under the name “Debio 0719” and is in preclinical development as an antitumor drug.

In addition, an extensive series of LPA analogs has produced a number of interesting study compounds. VPC12249 has been used *in vitro* and *in vivo* as a low affinity antagonist that is somewhat selective for LPA₁ and LPA₃ [84]. Modification of this lead compound has improved the specificity and affinity for LPA_{1/3} and provides another useful, commercially available compound, VPC32183 [84]. A different approach provides a number of LPA analogs with carbohydrate scaffolds [85]. One interesting compound, T13, demonstrates LPA₃-specific *agonism* and has been used in explant cultures to confirm the involvement of this receptor in uterine contraction [86]. Another LPA analog, 1-oleoyl-2-*O*-methyl-*rac*-glycerophosphothionate (OMPT), has also shown selective *agonism* for LPA₃. OMPT is notable in that it has been used *in vivo* to investigate the involvement of LPA₃ in renal ischemia–reperfusion injury [87]. Other compounds based on phosphonates or cyclic-phosphatidic acid have been reported [88].

The encouraging development of chemical tools for interrogating receptor-mediated LPA signaling will provide additional mechanistic approaches to understanding roles for LPA signaling in the nervous system. Caution must be used when interpreting data generated through the use of partially validated compounds, particularly for *in vivo* studies where pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic variables are often not known or ignored. These *in vivo* variables include compound half-life, receptor occupancy, brain penetration, and off-target activities, all of which should be considered.

Conclusions

LPA signaling is remarkably complex and heterogeneous and has been shown to influence all neural cell types. The developmental, physiological, and pathological significance of these responses *in vivo* is only beginning to be appreciated, due largely to the studies that have recently been performed on LPA receptor knockout mice. These studies have revealed that LPA influences such processes as the development of the CNS, the function of neurons and glia, and the onset of neuropathic pain. Continued study on existing and new LPA receptor-null mutants combined with appropriate pharmacological approaches will further elucidate mechanisms and therapeutic strategies that may lead to new medicines based on receptor-mediated LPA signaling.

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