

Original Article

AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) in skeletal muscle during physical exercise

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Abstract

AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) is a phylogenetically conserved serine-threonine protein kinase that plays a major role as fuel-sensing enzyme. As such it stimulates the fatty acid oxidation, glucose uptake and ketogenesis with a concomitant inhibition of lipogenesis and a modulation of insulin secretion. AMPK is mainly expressed in liver, brain and skeletal muscle, tissues where the bioenergetic metabolism is relevant for the physiology of the entire organism. In addition, emerging evidences indicate that the dysregulation of AMPK functions can be associated to the pathogenesis of several diseases including type 2 diabetes and cancer. For these latter properties, AMPK functions turnover has also been considered as a target for specific therapeutic approaches. Considering the skeletal muscle physiology, during physical exercise, the energy demand increases compared to the resting state, and a large amount of ATP is hydrolyzed causing the increase of the AMP/ATP ratio. The increase of intracellular AMP concentration leads to the activation of AMPK that modulates the activity of the main regulatory enzymes involved in energy metabolism. The activation of AMPK triggers signaling pathways that lead to the stimulation of energy producing processes (substrates uptake and catabolic pathways) as well as to the inhibition of biosynthetic pathways that need energy expenditure. Moreover, the involvement of AMPK in mitochondrial biogenesis has also been proposed to be relevant in skeletal muscle tissue plasticity. In this mini review we report of the main biochemical and functional properties of AMPK, its activation during physical exercise, focusing on the molecular and cellular effects in muscle contraction.

Keywords: AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK); physical exercise; energy metabolism; skeletal muscle.

Introduction

Skeletal muscle is a tissue not only responsible for human movement but it also affects the whole energy metabolism of the entire organism (Egan and Zierath, 2013). Moreover, the muscle tissue shows high plasticity for its ability to modify the number, the size, and the composition of its myofibers as well as to adapt the energy metabolism in response to physical exercise (PE) (Fluck, 2006). Several molecular and cellular mechanisms are involved in the adaptation of skeletal muscle to PE, including regulation of gene expression, protein synthesis and energy related metabolic pathways (Bassel-Duby and Olson, 2006). Since in skeletal muscle, the ATP turnover may increase up to 100-fold in response to PE, it is important that the ATP production and hydrolysis are maintained in balance. Among the intracellular component involved in the ATP concentration homeostasis, the AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) is a key regulatory enzyme that ensures this balance according to the cell energy needs (Gowens and Hardie, 2014; Garcia et al., 2017; Hardie, 2018). AMPK is activated upon the increase of AMP levels or coupled with decreased ATP concentration (Chen et al., 2003). Activated AMPK phosphorylates many target proteins, including transcription factors and key metabolic enzymes causing either the activation of ATP-producing pathways, including the production of new mitochondria (Herzig et al., 2018) or the inhibition of ATP-consuming processes, thus restoring energy homeostasis (Kjøbsted et al., 2018).

Recently, it has been shown that AMPK can also sense the availability of glucose, the primary carbon source for most eukaryotic cells, via a mechanism independent of changes in AMP or ADP levels (Carling, 2019). This behaviour has also been related to cancer progression (Monteverde et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016; Arcucci et al. 2014), via the involvement of metalloproteinase 9 (MMP-9) induction (Endo et al., 2018, Pagliara et al., 2014).

Drugs that modulate AMPK have great potential in the treatment of metabolic disorders such as obesity and Type 2 diabetes, and even in cancer (Daignan-Fornier et al., 2012; Kjøbsted et al., 2018). Indeed, some existing drugs such as metformin and aspirin, appear to work, in part, by activating AMPK. On the other hand, lifestyle behaviour including the use of naturally derived dietary supplements display a beneficial effect on

cancer progression (Yuan et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2016; Margina et al., 2020) also addressing MMP-9 expression (Pagliara et al., 2019; Arcone et al., 2016).

Skeletal muscle contraction and energy systems

In the cell, adenosine triphosphate (ATP) is consumed for energy-requiring anabolic processes, such as biosynthesis of macromolecules and for mechanical work, during physical exercise in the skeletal muscle. Muscle contraction needs ATP hydrolysis with the production of adenosine diphosphate (ADP), phosphate ions (Pi) and the concomitant release of Energy (Fig. 1 a). Then, in the recovery phase, the ADP and Pi are reconverted into ATP mainly by the electron chain transport and oxidative phosphorylation (figure 1b) a mitochondrial process in the eukaryotic cells. Under rest conditions, the balance generated by reactions that produce ATP.

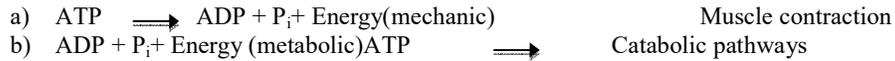


Figure 1: a) ATP hydrolysis by myosin ATPase during skeletal muscle contraction; b) ATP synthesis, mainly by ATP synthase during the electron chain transport and oxidative phosphorylation.

Up today, three major energy systems have been described for ATP synthesis, that are based on different mechanisms depending on exercise intensity and duration: a) fosfagen system: b) glycolitic system and c) mitochondrial respiration.

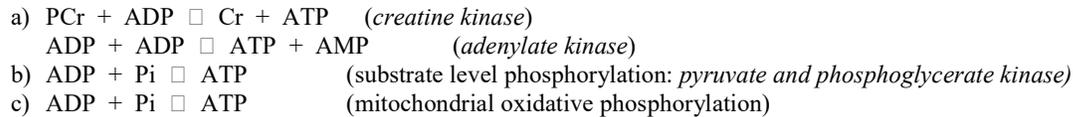


Figure 2. Main skeletal muscle ATP production systems

Therefore, in these energy production systems, adenosine monophosphate (AMP) is mainly produced by the adenylate kinase, that catalyses the reversible conversion of the two ADP molecules in ATP and AMP (Figure 2 a).

AMPK: an energy-sensing enzyme

AMPK is a highly conserved heterotrimeric enzyme complex (E.C. 2.7.11.31) in all eukaryotic organisms, from the yeast to the man, that consists of the three distinct components, a catalytic (α) and two regulatory (β and γ) subunits. The 3D structure of the human AMPK derived from the atomic coordinates deposited in the RCS Protein data Bank (Xiao et al., 2013) is reported in Fig. 3.

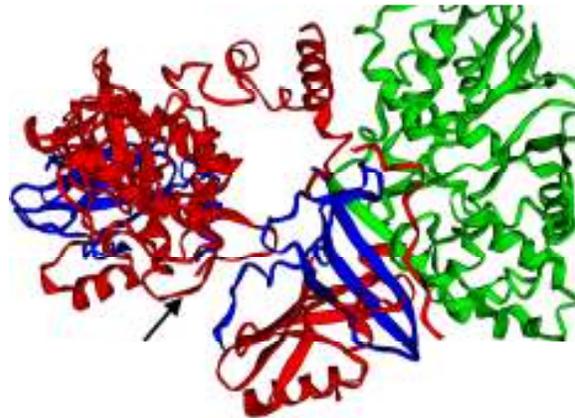


Figure 3. 3D model of human AMPK. The 3D atomic coordinates of the AMPK heterotrimeric structure (PDB accession 4CFE) have been used to visualize the model by the Molecular Display Wizard "EzMol", freely available on the web (<http://www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/~ezmol/>).

The ribbon display of the secondary elements of the α , β , and γ subunits are coloured in red, blue, and green, respectively. The black arrow indicates the position of Thr172 phosphorylation site.

Several isoforms have been described for the three subunits ($\alpha 1$, $\alpha 2$, $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$, $\gamma 1$, $\gamma 2$, $\gamma 3$) providing many possible combinations of the assembly of the heterotrimer (Hardie et al., 2018). The α subunit contains the kinase catalytic domain that induces AMPK activation, following the reversible phosphorylation on its Thr172 residue, (Hawley et al., 1996). The β subunit contains a glycogen binding domain (GBM) as well as an α and γ binding domain (Hudson et al., 2003). The GBM domain, interacting with glycogen, mediates the interaction between glycogen synthetase and AMPK (Hudson et al., 2003). The γ subunit is involved in the direct binding of adenosine nucleotides (Scott et al., 2004), and its N-terminal region has four identical domains repeated in tandem called CBS (cystathionine-beta-synthetase) or Bateman domains (Bateman, 1997) each of them binding AMP or ATP in a mutually exclusive way (Kahn et al., 2005). These mechanisms ensure a sensitive response to any variation in AMP concentration. Moreover, since AMP activation is antagonized by high concentrations of ATP, this mechanism also allows a response to variations in either AMP or ATP ratio within the cell.

The regulation of AMPK activation occurs by different mechanisms that involve: 1) an allosteric activation control by AMP; 2) a covalent modification through phosphorylation of its Thr-172 by several kinases

such as LKB1, Tak1 (transforming growth factors (TGF)- β activated kinase), and α Ca²⁺/kinase dependent kinase (CaMKK), all interacting directly with the α subunit of AMPK (Hawley S. et al., 1996); 3) other small activating molecules such as 5-Aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide-1- β -D-ribofuranosyl 5'-monophosphate (AICAR) a natural metabolic intermediate of purine biosynthesis (Daignan-Fornier et al., 2012). In addition, indirect AMPK activators have also been reported, including metformin, dinitrophenol and rotenone, acting by increasing the AMP concentration. Inactivation of AMPK is induced by ATP and de-phosphorylation by specific phosphatase; even glycogen can inhibit AMPK, through its binding to the β subunit (Kjøbsted et al., 2018).

AMPK metabolic functions in physical exercise

High intensity physical exercise can be considered as a metabolic stress, that through the increase of AMP/ATP ratio in the skeletal muscle leads to the AMPK activation (Kjøbsted et al., 2018).

The activation of AMPK, due to this energy depletion condition, will allow the restore of ATP levels by activating catabolic processes such as of carbohydrates and fatty acids oxidation.

Up to now, more than 60 target proteins for AMPK have been reported and most of them have been identified as metabolic enzymes. AMPK activates glycolysis, promotes uptake of fatty acids into the cells and their mitochondrial oxidation, and enhances the expression of oxidative enzyme within mitochondria (TCA cycle) (Kjøbsted et al., 2018). AMPK seems to play an important role in the oxidation of free fatty acids (FFA), increasing the uptake of FFA in the mitochondria of skeletal muscle. This effect is accomplished by the inhibition of the enzyme acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC), through the reversible phosphorylation of its serine-79 residue. Some other studies suggest that AMPK can reduce the levels of Malonyl-CoA also by the phosphorylation and activation of Malonyl-CoA decarboxylase (MCD) (Saha et al., 2000; Park et al., 2002). These phenomena lead to the inhibition of fatty acids biosynthesis through the reduction of intracellular levels of malonyl-CoA; on the other hand, the lack of inhibition of carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1 will be able to guarantee the physiological amount of activated fatty acids (Winder et al., 1996; Hardie et al., 2006; Lim et al., 2010) the prerequisite for their mitochondrial oxidation.

Moreover, studies performed in genetically modified mice, in which the skeletal-muscle specific AMPK isoforms were deleted (mdKO) demonstrated an impaired exercise capacity and that AMPK regulates the stimulation of mitochondria biogenesis, fatty acid oxidation and glucose up-take (Steinberg et al. 2010; Lantier et al., 2014; Hardle, 2017).

Conclusion

In this mini review we describe the properties of AMPK, a key enzyme activated during muscle contraction, following ATP level depletion and increase of AMP concentration. Activated AMPK acts as a key enzyme able to switch the metabolism from anabolism to catabolism thus suggesting AMPK as therapeutic target for metabolic disorders including cancer. Indeed, AMPK functions demonstrate its key role in response to the high energy demands for the skeletal muscle contraction that occurs during physical exercise. In addition, AMPK acts as a key enzyme able to switch the metabolism from the anabolic to the catabolic pathway thus suggesting AMPK as therapeutic target for several human diseases (Richter and Ruderman, 2009; Sang-Min, 2016) and metabolic disorders, such as metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes (Kjøbsted et al., 2016; Ferrari et al., 2019; Grahame et al., 2019). Furthermore, AMPK activation during skeletal muscle contraction represents one of the major mechanisms triggering the beneficial effects induced by sport, physical exercise, as well as an appropriate nutritional lifestyle, on human health.

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