1	Too much death can kill you: inhibiting intrinsic apoptosis to treat disease
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15	KEYWORDS
16	BAK, BAX, BCL-2, intrinsic apoptosis, mitochondria
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22	Abstract
23	Apoptotic cell death is implicated in both physiological and pathological processes.
24	Since many types of cancerous cells intrinsically evade apoptotic elimination, induction
25	of apoptosis has become an attractive and often necessary cancer therapeutic approach.
26	Conversely, some cells are extremely sensitive to apoptotic stimuli leading to
27	neurodegenerative disease and immune pathologies. However, due to several challenges,
	This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but
	has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which
	may lead to differences between this version and the <u>Version of Record</u> . Please cite this article
	as <u>doi: 10.15252/EMBJ.2020107341</u>

pharmacological inhibition of apoptosis is still only a recently emerging strategy to combat pathological cell loss. Here, we describe several key steps in the intrinsic (or mitochondrial) apoptosis pathway that represent potential targets for inhibitors in disease contexts. We also discuss mechanisms of action, advantages and limitations of small-molecule and peptide-based inhibitors that have been developed to date. These inhibitors serve as important research tools to dissect apoptotic signaling and may foster new treatment to reduce unwanted cell loss.

8

#### 9 Introduction

Apoptosis is a highly regulated process of cell death that is important for multicellular 10 organisms to maintain normal embryonic development and tissue homeostasis (Ke et al, 11 12 2013; Singh et al, 2019). Ligation of cell surface death receptors, such as members of the tumour necrosis factor (TNF) receptor superfamily, initiates extrinsic apoptosis, while 13 14 stresses including growth factor withdrawal and DNA damage activate intrinsic (or mitochondrial) apoptosis, which is orchestrated by the B-cell lymphoma 2 (BCL-2) family of 15 proteins (Czabotar et al, 2014). The BCL-2 family consists of three groups of members with 16 opposing functions. The dynamic interplay between these proteins, including with other 17 non-BCL-2 proteins, determines cell fate in response to apoptotic stress. The anti-apoptotic 18 19 members include BCL-2 and its homologues (MCL-1, BCL-X<sub>L</sub>, BCL-W and A1/BFL1). The pro-apoptotic members include a group of pro-apoptotic proteins termed BH3-only proteins 20 (BAD, BIK, BID, HRK, BIM, NOXA, PUMA and BMF) that initiate the pathway by 21 triggering activation of a second pro-apoptotic group, the executioner proteins BAX, BAK 22 and BOK. BAX and BAK permeabilise the mitochondrial outer membrane (MOM) upon 23 activation and either is critical for apoptosis in most cells (Lindsten et al, 2000; Wei et al, 24 2001), whilst the function of BOK is less well resolved (Echeverry et al, 2013; Hsu et al, 25 1997; Llambi et al, 2016). Mitochondrial outer membrane permeabilisation (MOMP) by 26 BAX and/or BAK is considered the "point of no return" in the apoptosis pathway as it leads 27 to irrevocable damage to mitochondria that disrupts the generation of ATP by oxidative 28 29 phosphorylation and also causes the release of mitochondrial components into cytosol that trigger end-stage apoptotic events. In particular, cytochrome c when released from the 30 mitochondrial intermembrane space ignites the activation of caspases, a conserved family of 31 cysteine-dependent aspartate-specific proteases. Activated caspases proteolytically cleave 32 33 multiple proteins to dismantle the cell and prepare it for clearance by resident phagocytic This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

cells (Slee *et al*, 2001). Additionally, caspases actively suppress the innate immune response
to Danger-Associated Molecular Patterns (DAMPs) such as mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA)
and reactive oxygen species (ROS), which are released from damaged mitochondria during
apoptosis (Riley *et al*, 2018; White *et al*, 2014).

Aside from the role of apoptosis in normal physiology, both silencing and overactivation 5 of apoptosis can lead to pathological conditions. Inactivation of this pathway is a hallmark of 6 cancer (Hanahan & Weinberg, 2011). Hence, since the discovery that BCL-2 promotes 7 tumourigenesis by impeding cell death (Vaux et al, 1988), significant effort has been 8 9 expended in targeting the apoptotic machinery to treat cancer. An improved understanding of apoptosis regulation underpinned the advancement of small-molecule inhibitors, termed BH3 10 mimetics, which induce mitochondrial apoptosis by inhibiting specific anti-apoptotic BCL-2 11 12 members, as promising anti-cancer therapeutics (Adams & Cory, 2007; Czabotar et al., 2014). approval the **BCL-2-selective** 13 The of BH3 mimetic drug. Venclexta/venetoclax/ABT-199 to treat chronic lymphocytic leukemia and lymphoma has 14 confirmed that targeting the cell death machinery for therapy is a tractable and promising 15 strategy (Roberts et al, 2016). 16

Despite the successes in the developing agonists of intrinsic apoptosis and the 17 considerable evidence that excessive or inappropriate apoptosis drives a variety of 18 19 pathologies including acute and chronic degenerative diseases, the clinical development of targeted small molecule inhibitors of cell death has lagged (Butler et al, 2003; Springer et al, 20 1999; Vila et al, 2001). This is in part due to our incomplete understanding of the complex 21 nature of apoptosis signaling, crosstalk between intrinsic and extrinsic apoptosis and also 22 with other death pathways, and a scarcity of structural data on the protein interaction 23 24 network, particularly as many of these events occur in a membrane environment. Moreover, early attempts to block apoptosis likely focused on targeting the wrong checkpoint in the 25 pathway. With positive outcomes in preclinical disease models, pan-caspase inhibitors were 26 considered a promising means to limit tissue injuries caused by unwanted cell death (Yaoita 27 et al, 1998). However, inhibiting caspases has largely failed in clinical trials because of 28 29 severe side effects and unsatisfactory efficacy (O'Brien, 2009). The reason for these failings is likely multi-factorial and may reflect emerging non-apoptotic roles of certain caspases and 30 31 their key roles in mediating the immune response to pathogens. However, it is also now recognised that targeting caspases that act at a late stage in the intrinsic apoptosis cascade, is 32 33 unlikely to be protective as these cells are already destined to die due to the irrevocable This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

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damage to mitochondria (Figure 1). Hence, targeting molecular events upstream of caspase activation, may provide improved opportunity for the selective blockade of mitochondrial apoptosis. More recently, efforts have culminated in the discovery of selective small-molecule inhibitors of BAX and/or BAK that target the "point of no return" in mitochondrial apoptosis to provide more selective and lasting cytoprotective effects (Garner *et al*, 2019; van Delft *et al*, 2019).

There is significant interest in blocking death receptor signalling and extrinsic apoptosis 7 including the development of several FDA-approved antibodies that neutralise TNF signaling 8 9 that has been reviewed elsewhere (Croft et al, 2013). In this review, we will focus on the emerging concept of inhibiting intrinsic apoptosis. We will describe the molecular 10 machineries in mitochondrial apoptosis and discuss the exciting therapeutic opportunities to 11 12 intervene and block excessive mitochondrial apoptosis in disease. Then we will discuss selective inhibitors of mitochondrial apoptosis pathways in terms of their modes of action. 13 14 Moreover, we will describe preclinical use of these inhibitors, with a focus on potential pitfalls and how they may be developed for future clinical translation. 15

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#### 17 Intrinsic apoptosis: A multitude of players

Intrinsic apoptosis can be divided into three key phases: 1) The balance of interactions between BCL-2 family proteins, 2) BAX/BAK-mediated MOMP, and 3) The activation of apoptotic caspases. Each of these phases represent potential targets for therapeutic intervention to impede apoptotic cell death, although long-term protection will only be afforded through targeting steps 1 or 2.

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#### 24 BCL-2 and non-BCL-2 proteins orchestrate the life-or-death decision

BCL-2 family proteins are characterised by one (BH3-only members) or more BCL-2 25 homology (BH) domains. Irrespective of their ability to prevent or induce apoptosis, those 26 proteins with more than one BH domain adopt a similar overall fold that is characterised by a 27 buried BH3 domain and a hydrophobic surface groove (Petros et al, 2004). Through these 28 29 conserved sequence motifs and structural elements, the pro-apoptotic and anti-apoptotic BCL-2 proteins partake in dynamic and competitive interactions to strike a delicate balance 30 31 that serves as the first checkpoint for mitochondrial apoptosis (Figure 1). This balance is 32 upset, however, when a cell receives diverse apoptotic stimuli, as specific BH3-only proteins

are activated or upregulated to interact with anti-apoptotic and executioner members to tip the
 balance toward cell death.

BH3-only proteins insert their BH3 domain into the hydrophobic surface groove on 3 binding BAK and BAX, or at an alternative "rear-pocket" involving residues in the 4 BAX/BAK  $\alpha 1$  and  $\alpha 6$ , thereby triggering a coordinated series of activating conformation 5 changes in the executioners, including exposure of their own BH3 domain (Czabotar et al, 6 2013; Dewson et al, 2008; Moldoveanu et al, 2013; Wei et al, 2000) (Figure 2A). BH3-only 7 proteins likewise bind to the hydrophobic groove of the anti-apoptotic BCL-2 proteins, 8 9 thereby limiting the latter's ability to sequester newly activated BAK and BAX. As a result, 10 activated BAK and BAX are free to oligomerise on the MOM to cause permeabilisation. 11 Initially BAK and BAX form homodimers by inserting their everted BH3 domain into the hydrophobic groove of a neighbouring molecule (Brouwer et al, 2014; Czabotar et al., 2013; 12 13 Dewson et al., 2008; Subburaj et al, 2015). Homodimers then form higher-order oligomers that permeabilise the MOM through a mechanism that is yet to be clearly defined, but likely 14 15 involves interaction with MOM lipids in a toroidal lipidic pore (Cowan et al, 2020; Qian et al, 2008; Salvador-Gallego et al, 2016; Terrones et al, 2004). The similar protein interfaces 16 17 employed in these varied interactions between pro-apoptotic and anti-apoptotic proteins poses conceptual challenges when exploiting these interfaces for targeted drug development. 18

19 While much focus has been given to BCL-2 family proteins, important roles for other non-BCL-2 proteins as gatekeepers of MOMP is emerging. For example, voltage-dependent 20 anion channel 2 (VDAC2) is proposed to influence BAK and BAX apoptotic function. 21 VDAC2 interacts with inactive BAK to impair its oligomerisation and thus limit MOMP 22 (Cheng et al, 2003). VDAC2 is also required for BAK and BAX to target mitochondria 23 effectively, and consequently is necessary for the apoptotic function of BAX (Lauterwasser et 24 al, 2016; Ma et al, 2014; Naghdi et al, 2015). These seemingly opposing functions in 25 controlling apoptosis are yet to be fully resolved. Additionally, VDAC1, the most abundant 26 protein in the MOM, is proposed to oligomerise and initiate cytochrome c release 27 independent of BAX/BAK in certain circumstances (Huang et al, 2015). Whilst cells that 28 29 lack all three VDAC isoforms can still undergo apoptosis, suggesting that they are ultimately 30 dispensable (Baines et al, 2007), the VDACs remain potentially important arbiters of mitochondrial integrity during apoptotic signalling and so are potential targets to manipulate 31 32 apoptosis (van Delft et al., 2019).

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#### 1 Mitochondrial membrane dynamics in apoptosis

2 As a consequence of MOMP, a number of components in the mitochondrial intermembrane space are released into the cytosol to trigger end-phase apoptotic signaling. Pro-apoptotic 3 factors include cytochrome c (Liu et al, 1996), Second Mitochondria-derived Activator of 4 Caspase (SMAC)/Direct IAP Binding protein with Low pI (DIABLO) (Du et al, 2000; 5 Verhagen et al, 2000), and the serine protease OMI/high temperature requirement A2 6 (HTRA2) (Suzuki et al, 2001). However, recent findings have challenged the notion of 7 MOMP as the "point of no return" in intrinsic apoptosis. Incomplete MOMP (termed 8 9 "minority MOMP") leads to limited caspase activation, which is insufficient to trigger cell death. Instead, limited caspase activity triggered by minority MOMP can cause genomic 10 instability that drives tumorigenesis (Ichim et al, 2015). Incomplete MOMP in epithelial cells 11 12 may also contribute to immune defense against infection (Brokatzky et al, 2019). Since caspases attenuate innate immune responses to damaged mitochondria restricted caspase 13 14 activation after minority MOMP can lead to activation of cGAS/STING-dependent production of inflammatory cytokines (Rongvaux et al, 2014; White et al., 2014). Although 15 limited mitochondrial permeabilisation can be tolerated in certain cells, the physiological 16 relevance of minority MOMP is not fully resolved. However, it remains a potential 17 mechanism that may contribute to inflammatory or chronic degenerative conditions. 18

19 In addition to the rupture of the MOM, changes in the mitochondrial inner membrane (MIM) may also influence the kinetics of apoptosis. Some apoptogenic components, 20 including the majority of cytochrome c, reside in the mitochondrial cristae, structures formed 21 by invaginations of the MIM (Scorrano et al, 2002). The constrictions of the cristae, the 22 cristae junctions, are mainly governed by Optic Atrophy 1 (OPA1), a dynamin related 23 24 GTPase that facilitates MIM fusion (Frezza et al, 2006). Low OPA1 expression (Olichon et al, 2003), dissociation of OPA1 oligomers (Griparic et al, 2004), or cleavage by the 25 metalloprotease OMA1 (Jiang et al, 2014), promotes cristae opening and the full release of 26 cristae components during apoptosis, including cytochrome c, to promote caspase activity 27 and the end-phase of apoptosis (Frezza et al., 2006; Yamaguchi et al, 2008). 28

Whilst OPA1 located in the MIM links mitochondrial fusion to suppression of mitochondrial apoptosis, mitochondrial fission that occurs during early apoptosis is implicated to promote cell death (Karbowski *et al*, 2004). Dynamin-related protein 1 (DRP-1), a key mediator of mitochondrial fission, was demonstrated to trigger MOMP partially by interacting with BCL-2 proteins (Frank *et al*, 2001; Karbowski *et al*, 2002). This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved 1 DRP-1 oligomerises and induces MOM constriction primarily at ER-mitochondria contact 2 sites to enable the transmission of  $Ca^{2+}$  from ER to mitochondria, which triggers 3 mitochondrial apoptosis (Prudent *et al*, 2015).

Whilst in most settings manipulation of mitochondrial dynamics and remodelling is unlikely to dictate the ultimate fate of a cell whose MOM is breached, it may influence the kinetics of caspase activation and cell death. So, in light of recent discoveries that cells may tolerate incomplete MOMP and limited caspase activation, these processes may indeed represent targets to determine cell fate.

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#### 10 Caspases and inhibitor of apoptosis proteins: the counterbalancing acts

Apoptotic caspases can be functionally subdivided into *initiators* (caspase-8, -9 and -10) and 11 12 effectors (caspase-3, -6 and -7). Following MOMP, released cytochrome c promotes the oligomerisation of Apoptotic Protease Inhibiting Factor-1 (APAF-1) into a heptameric 13 14 complex termed the apoptosome that serves as a platform for auto-activation of initiator caspase-9. Subsequently, caspase-9 proteolytically activates the effector caspases, which in 15 turn cleave hundreds of substrates to manifest the characteristics of apoptotic cells including 16 membrane blebbing, cell shrinkage, chromosomal DNA fragmentation and the presentation 17 of signals that guide efferocytosis by resident phagocytes. 18

19 As part of the endogenous checkpoints negatively regulating apoptosis, a group of E3 ubiquitin ligases named Inhibitor of Apoptosis Proteins (IAPs) inhibit caspases, through three 20 distinct mechanisms. IAPs can bind to the N-terminal IAP-binding motif (IBM) of caspase-9 21 to sequester and inhibit it (Srinivasula et al, 2001). A range of apoptogenic mitochondrial 22 components including SMAC/DIABLO and OMI/HTRA2 contain similar N-terminal IBMs 23 24 after maturation, and upon release into the cytosol, they compete with caspase-9 for binding to IAPs, enabling caspase-9 release and activation. IAPs can also competitively inhibit 25 effector caspase-3 and caspase-7 by occupying their active site to hinder proteolysis of true 26 substrates (Chai et al, 2001; Huang et al, 2001; Riedl et al, 2001). Lastly, the E3 ligase 27 activities of IAPs promote the ubiquitination and proteasome-directed degradation of 28 caspases (Hao et al, 2004). 29

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#### 31 Crosstalk between apoptosis and other regulated cell death modalities

32 In most circumstances, apoptosis is considered immunologically silent due to the suppression

33 of DAMPs, the preservation of cell membrane integrity and efferocytotic clearance of the This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

apoptotic cell. In contrast, more recently defined death modalities including 1 2 caspase-1-dependent pyroptosis and RIPK1/RIPK3/MLKL-mediated necroptosis are characterised by permeabilisation of the plasma membrane leading to the release of 3 cytoplasmic contents that trigger inflammatory responses (Silke et al, 2015). Despite these 4 stark differences in outcome, a picture is now emerging of a highly coordinated interplay 5 between these different cell death modalities that determines how cells respond to specific 6 stressors, exemplified recently by the highly coordinated and adaptable response to infection 7 (Doerflinger et al, 2020). Whilst the molecular control of this interplay is still being resolved, 8 9 the machineries involved have been found to play roles in multiple cell death modalities. For example, the ligation of death receptors can result in either extrinsic apoptosis or necroptosis, 10 and can also trigger mitochondrial apoptosis, with caspase activity determining pathway 11 12 execution. Understanding the complex interplay and potential redundancies between these pathways is key to exploiting them to limit pathogenic cell death. 13

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#### 15 Excessive mitochondrial apoptosis in disease

Excessive apoptosis participates in the pathology of both acute and chronic degenerative diseases. Significant gains have been made in understanding the role of mitochondrial apoptosis in pathological conditions based on genetic profiling of patients, gene expression analysis and genetically engineered model organisms (Table 1). Whilst potential roles for non-apoptotic cell death pathways have been implicated in various pathologies, we will focus here on the collective evidence indicating that excessive mitochondrial apoptosis is central to the loss of specific cell types and succedent tissue degeneration.

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#### 24 Mitochondrial apoptosis in acute degeneration

#### 25 Ischaemic injury

Apoptosis plays a key role in the pathogenesis of ischaemic organ injuries such as in the heart 26 and brain. Acute myocardial infarction is one of the common cardiac syndromes and a 27 leading cause of death. Numerous studies have shown that increased apoptotic loss of 28 29 cardiomyocytes and other cells in the heart is an important component in the pathogenesis of myocardial infarction and heart failure (Narula et al, 1996; Olivetti et al, 1997). 30 Ischaemia-reperfusion (I/R) to resolve the infarct also induces apoptosis of cardiomyocytes in 31 vivo (Gottlieb et al, 1994). Studies on transgenic mice showed that overexpression of BCL-2 32 33 protected against injury of cardiomyocytes after I/R as indicated by reduced markers of This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

apoptosis and significantly smaller infarct volumes (Brocheriou et al, 2000; Chen et al, 1 2 2001). Similarly, BAX deletion reduced apoptosis and improved myocardial function following I/R injury (Hochhauser et al, 2007; Hochhauser et al, 2003). Consistent with these 3 findings, targeted deletion of the BH3-only protein PUMA significantly preserved cardiac 4 function in a mouse model of I/R (Toth et al, 2006). Interestingly, cardiac-specific deletion of 5 caspase-3 and caspase-7 did not significantly reduce cardiomyocyte death after ischaemic 6 insult (Inserte et al, 2016), indicating that targeting executioner caspases is too late in the 7 apoptotic pathway to halt myocardial I/R injury in the face of mitochondrial damage in the 8 9 cardiomyocyte.

Apoptosis shapes embryonic development of the nervous system, with multiple mouse 10 models of defective apoptosis exhibiting neural development defects (Ke et al, 2018; Li et al, 11 1997; Zou et al, 1997). Terminally differentiated neurons are necessarily highly resistant to 12 cell death including apoptosis. Mitochondrial apoptosis elicited by certain pathological 13 14 insults in post-mitotic neurons is likely mediated by BAX, given that mature neurons seemingly express only a truncated variant of BAK that cannot itself cause mitochondrial 15 damage (Sun et al, 2003; Uo et al, 2005). Accumulating evidence shows that apoptosis of 16 neurons occurs in the brain following ischemic stroke. Samples from patients post-ischaemia 17 exhibited cytosolic cytochrome c indicative of mitochondrial permeabilisation and activated 18 19 caspase-3 in neurons (Rami et al, 2003). Consistently, in a mouse model of cerebral ischaemia, caspase-3 activation, DNA fragmentation and apoptotic bodies were observed 20 (Namura et al, 1998). Bax deletion also reduced neuronal apoptosis and infarct volume in a 21 middle-cerebral artery occlusion model of ischaemic stroke (D'Orsi et al, 2015), consistent 22 with BAX being the main executioner in neurons. Remarkably, apoptosis contributes to 23 24 ischaemic neuronal death in young brains more so than in adult brains, substantiating the notion that sensitivity to apoptosis decreases after development (Zhu et al, 2005). 25

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#### 27 Traumatic brain injury

Although the immediate damage as a result of mechanical trauma to the brain is likely irreversible, the consequent biochemical alterations of regulated cell death pathways that lead to tissue degeneration in the penumbra is potentially amenable to intervention. Initially, tissue degeneration after brain trauma was linked solely to unregulated necrosis, while the involvement of apoptosis has emerged more recently. Brain tissue samples from traumatic brain injury patients compared with controls indicated altered expression of anti- and This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

pro-apoptotic proteins that suggested a tipping of the balance toward apoptosis (Clark et al, 1 2 1999). In addition, elevated expression of APAF-1 and cleaved caspase-3 were observed at injury sites in rat models induced by traumatic injuries of the spinal cord (Springer et al., 3 1999) or brain (Yakovlev et al, 2001). Compared with wild-type mice, Bax knockout mice 4 exhibited significantly reduced neuronal death following traumatic brain injury, although this 5 protection did not manifest in improved cognition, attributed to potential developmental 6 defects in Bax null mice (Tehranian et al, 2008). Collectively, these biochemical features of 7 apoptosis after traumatic injury suggest that application of neuroprotective protocols targeting 8 9 apoptosis could improve patient outcome.

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#### 11 Mitochondrial apoptosis in chronic degenerative diseases

#### 12 Neurodegenerative diseases

Evidence suggests that mitochondrial apoptosis of various neuronal subtypes contributes to 13 14 chronic neurodegenerative diseases including Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's (PD), amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), Huntington's disease (HD) and multiple sclerosis (MS) 15 (Table 1). However, despite significant effort, attempts to stave off neuronal loss in these 16 degenerative diseases to achieve neuroprotection have failed. There is unfortunately no cure 17 for neurodegeneration and currently approved treatment strategies are limited to relieving 18 19 symptoms. The major challenges in limiting the neurodegenerative process itself are a lack of understanding of the varied triggers for neuronal cell death in these complex diseases and the 20 mode of cell death responsible for neuronal loss. 21

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#### 23 Parkinson's disease

The motor symptoms of PD are linked to the selective loss of dopaminergic neurons 24 predominantly in the substantia nigra pars compacta region of the brain. The correlation 25 between dopaminergic neuron apoptosis and PD is under debate, as initial studies showed no 26 significant differences in the expression of BCL-2 proteins in PD patient samples (Banati et 27 al, 1998; Jellinger, 2000; Wüllner et al, 1999). However, elevated BAX and also activated 28 29 caspase-3 have been reported in post-mortem brain samples (Tatton, 2000). Moreover, deletion of BAX was sufficient to prevent the death of cultured neurons and PD-like motor 30 31 deficits in mice treated with the mitochondrial toxins 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) and 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) (Gomez-Lazaro et al, 2008; Vila et 32 33 al., 2001). Intriguingly, although BAX-deletion inhibited dopaminergic neuron death in This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

6-OHDA-treated mice, it failed to significantly reduce motor deficits, suggesting that blocking death could not functionally rescue the neurons (Kim *et al*, 2011). Overexpression of the anti-apoptotic XIAP was also shown to be neuroprotective in an MPTP-induced mouse model of PD (Crocker *et al*, 2003; Eberhardt *et al*, 2000). Whether these acute toxin-induced models replicate the chronic cell death signalling in patients with familial or idiopathic PD, however, is questionable.

A mechanistic link between early onset PD and mitochondrial apoptosis has been 7 established via the E3 ubiquitin ligase Parkin and its upstream regulator PTEN-induced 8 9 kinase 1 (PINK1). The genes encoding Parkin (PRKN/PARK2) and PINK1 (PINK1/PARK6) are PD susceptibility genes, with mutations known to cause over 50% of juvenile onset 10 autosomal recessive PD (Kitada et al, 1998). The mitochondrial serine/threonine kinase 11 12 PINK1 protects neurons from intrinsic apoptosis, while PD-associated mutations and a kinase-inactive mutation abrogated this protective effect (Petit et al, 2005). Furthermore, 13 14 when activated by PINK1, Parkin likewise promotes cell survival by ubiquitinating BAK and BAX to impair their activity (Bernardini et al, 2019; Johnson et al, 2012). However, 15 following severe and irreparable mitochondrial damage induced by agents such as 16 valinomycin, Parkin actually promotes apoptosis through the ubiquitination and degradation 17 of anti-apoptotic MCL-1 (Carroll et al, 2014; Zhang et al, 2014), suggesting that Parkin 18 19 controls the tipping point for neuronal survival in response to graded mitochondrial damage. Interestingly, in addition to ubiquitination, other post-translational modifications are also 20 linked to neuronal apoptosis in PD. An S-nitrosylated form of X-linked IAP (XIAP), which 21 has compromised ability to inhibit caspases, is enriched in PD patients and mouse models 22 (Tsang et al, 2009). Likewise, elevated S-nitrosylation of Parkin is observed in both PD 23 animal models and patient samples that impairs its ligase activity and neuroprotective 24 function (Chung et al, 2004). OPA1 missense mutations have been found in patients with PD, 25 further implicating the mitochondria (Carelli et al, 2015). However, whether dysregulated 26 OPA1 predisposes dopaminergic neurons to apoptosis or impairs mitochondrial function is 27 unclear. 28

29

#### 30 Alzheimer's disease

31 AD is the most common neurodegenerative disease and is characterised by extracellular

32 deposits of amyloid- $\beta$  (A $\beta$ ) and phosphorylated tau that are thought to drive neuronal loss.

33 Expression of various pro-apoptotic proteins including BAX and BAK, but also This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

anti-apoptotic BCL-2 proteins, are elevated in susceptible neurons in AD patients (Su et al, 1 1997). Additionally, *in vitro* treatment of primary neurons with aggregation prone A $\beta_{1-42}$ 2 peptide induced expression of the BH3-only protein BIM. The consequent neuronal cell death 3 was blocked by deletion of BAX, but not caspase-3, consistent with the need to block 4 mitochondrial apoptosis upstream of perturbation of the MOM (Kudo et al, 2012; Selznick et 5 al, 2000). This dependency on BAX-mediated apoptosis for Aβ-induced neuronal toxicity 6 7 was subsequently confirmed in ex vivo hippocampal brain slices (Kudo et al., 2012). However, whether ablation of apoptosis protects from the cognitive deficits in mouse models 8 9 of AD is unclear.

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#### 11 Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis/motor neurone disease

ALS/MND pathogenesis is driven by the apoptotic death of motoneurons. The first gene 12 associated with familial ALS was Cu/Zn-superoxide dismutase (SOD1) (Rosen et al, 1993). 13 Mutant SOD1 localises predominantly to the mitochondrial intermembrane space (MIS), 14 where it can trigger cytochrome c release to induce apoptotic death (Magrané et al, 2009; 15 Takeuchi et al, 2002). Studies revealed that mutant SOD1 can initiate apoptotic pathways by 16 either directly compromising mitochondrial integrity (Pedrini et al, 2010), or by sequestering 17 anti-apoptotic BCL-2 (Pasinelli et al, 2004). In vitro, early apoptotic markers increased in a 18 19 motoneuron-like cell line expressing mutant SOD1 (Joshi et al, 2018). In in vivo mouse models of ALS the pro-apoptotic proteins BIM and PUMA were upregulated (Hetz et al. 20 21 2007; Kieran et al, 2007). Whilst deletion of BAX was seemingly sufficient for neuroprotection and to maintain motor function and prolong survival in SOD1 mutant 22 (G93A) mice, it failed to stop axonal denervation, questioning the utility of anti-apoptosis 23 agents in ALS (Gould et al, 2006). However, that deletion of both BAX and BAK was 24 functionally neuroprotective and prolonged survival in the SOD1<sup>G93A</sup> mouse model, suggests 25 such a strategy could be ameliorative (Reyes et al, 2010). 26

27

#### 28 Huntington's Disease

HD arises due to the expansion of a CAG trinucleotide repeat in the *huntingtin (HTT)* gene,
which leads to an expanded polyglutamine (polyQ) stretch in the mutant protein.
Mitochondrial apoptosis is activated in the striatum of severe HD patients and murine models
of HD (Kiechle *et al*, 2002). *In vitro*, mutant HTT can trigger apoptosis with evidence of
chromatin condensation, DNA laddering and caspase-3 activation, while wide-type HTT is
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protective against apoptotic stimuli (Rigamonti et al, 2000; Saudou et al, 1998). The role of 1 2 mutant and wide-type HTT in apoptosis was further supported by studies on proteins that interact with HTT. Normally, Huntingtin-Interacting Protein 1 (HIP-1) is sequestered by HTT 3 (Kalchman et al, 1997), but increased polyQ length of mutant HTT disrupts this 4 sequestration, enabling free HIP-1 to activate caspase-9 and -3 (Choi et al, 2006). It has been 5 6 shown that mutant HTT can also translocate to the nucleus to activate p53, which in turn increases expression of NOXA and PUMA to trigger apoptosis (Steffan et al, 2000). 7 Consistently, brains of HD patients and transgenic mouse models have elevated p53, while 8 9 genetic deletion of p53 alleviated neurodegeneration and behavioral abnormalities (Bae et al, 2005). 10

11

#### 12 Degenerative retinal diseases

A body of studies indicate that apoptosis of human retinal cells including retinal ganglion 13 14 cells, photoreceptor cells and endothelial cells is at the root of degenerative retinal diseases such as age-related macular degeneration and diabetic retinopathy (Mizutani et al, 1996). 15 Indeed, haplo-insufficiency of OPA1, the guardian of mitochondrial cristae formation, is 16 responsible for autosomal dominant optic atrophy as a result of retinal ganglion cell 17 degeneration (Alexander et al, 2000). Behr syndrome, which is characterised by early-onset 18 optic atrophy, is also directly linked to heterozygous mutations in the OPA1 gene (Schaaf et 19 al, 2011). Besides OPA1, quantitative analysis determined that anti-apoptotic protein 20 BCL-X<sub>L</sub> is downregulated after optic injury (Levin et al, 1997). BCL-X<sub>L</sub> deficiency also 21 accelerates retinal cell loss in mouse models of retinal degeneration, whereas its 22 overexpression has the opposite effect (Harder et al, 2012; Liu et al, 2001). Similarly, ectopic 23 24 BCL-2 expression preserved retinal ganglion cells during both natural retinal development in mouse embryos and stress-induced optic damage in adult mice (Bonfanti et al, 1996; Cenni et 25 al, 1996). Beside ganglion cells, photoreceptor cells were also preserved by BCL-2 26 overexpression in mouse models of retinal degeneration (Chen et al, 1996; Nir et al, 2000). 27 BAX-deficient mice exhibited long-term preservation for retinal cells after damage (Semaan 28 et al, 2010; Yang et al, 2004). Furthermore, retinal capillaries in patients with diabetic 29 retinopathy are characterised by increased apoptosis, while blocking endothelial cell 30 31 apoptosis facilitates tissue revascularisation (Grant et al, 2020). Overall, these pre-clinical 32 studies support a role for intrinsic apoptosis in retinal degeneration.

33

#### **1 Degenerative bone disease**

2 Chondrocytes are crucial for adequate bone function. Apoptosis of chondrocytes is necessary during normal joint development, while accelerated apoptotic cell death may lead to chronic 3 diseases such as osteoarthritis. This degenerative joint disease is characterised by degradation 4 of articular cartilage and changes in the subchondral bone. However, whether chondrocyte 5 apoptosis is a cause or a result of cartilage degeneration in osteoarthritis is debatable. 6 Chondrocytes from patients with osteoarthritis had enhanced apoptosis in the cartilage 7 sections compared with controls (Pérez et al, 2005) with the degree of apoptosis significantly 8 9 correlating with clinical grade (Hashimoto et al, 1998). Animal models of experimental osteoarthritis also confirmed that during the early phases of osteoarthritis, chondrocyte 10 apoptosis contributes to the pathogenesis of cartilage degradation (Almonte-Becerril et al, 11 12 2010).

Besides osteoarthritis, osteoporosis is another common disorder of bone degeneration 13 14 resulting from increased survival of osteoclasts (OCs) and/or increased apoptosis of osteoblasts (OBs) and osteocytes, leading to a suppression of bone formation. Which cell 15 type is predominantly altered to cause osteoporosis is currently unknown. Glucocorticoid 16 treatment is a common cause of osteoporosis, and promotes apoptotic death of osteoblasts 17 and osteocytes, suggesting that this glucocorticoid-induced bone disease is the result of 18 19 aberrant apoptosis of bone cells (O'Brien et al, 2004). The induction of human osteoblast apoptosis was associated with an increased ratio of pro-apoptotic proteins to anti-apoptotic 20 proteins (Jilka et al, 1998). Mechanistically, glucocorticoids can also activate caspase 21 3-mediated apoptosis in cultured cells (Liu et al, 2004). Another hormone, androgen, has a 22 distinct function in skeletal homeostasis. It has been reported that androgen enhanced 23 24 osteoblast apoptosis by decreasing BCL-2 expression in a post-transcriptional manner (Wiren et al, 2006). 25

Overexpression of BCL- $X_L$  or BCL-2 has been shown to increase bone volume and retain bone strength during aging in transgenic mice (Moriishi *et al*, 2016; Pantschenko *et al*, 2005). Consistent with these findings, selective deletion of BAK and BAX in osteoblasts likewise increased bone formation (Jilka *et al*, 2014), suggesting that mitochondrial apoptosis is important in degenerative bone diseases.

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32 Considering the significant and increasing medical and economic costs of degenerative 33 diseases of aging, the need for novel therapeutic and preventative strategies is pressing. This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

Preservation of degenerating tissues has been proposed as one avenue for therapeutic 1 2 intervention, including the inhibition of mitochondrial apoptosis. However, it should be noted that although apoptosis is implicated in many of these chronic degenerative conditions (Table 3 2), definitive evidence for mitochondrial apoptosis as a major driver of disease pathology is 4 still lacking, with other cell death pathways such as necroptosis and pyroptosis also 5 implicated to play a role. Even if apoptotic signalling drives the disease pathology, blocking 6 it may trigger alternative, potentially highly inflammatory, cell death modalities that may be 7 8 detrimental. Furthermore, even if the cell death program is arrested, the preserved "zombie" 9 cells may still be functionally impaired due to altered gene expression patterns, disrupted cellular signalling or damaged intracellular structures. This raises the conceptual question 10 whether protecting cells that are destined to die due to these underlying cellular defects would 11 actually be beneficial. So, although resolving contextual issues is going to be key, an ability 12 to efficiently and specifically suppress early apoptotic events in non-proliferative and 13 14 indispensable cell types is likely to have significant potential for the treatment of certain degenerative diseases. 15

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#### 7 SELECTIVE INHIBITION OF MITOCHONDRIAL APOPTOSIS

Given the central role of apoptosis in the pathologies discussed above, targeted 18 19 pharmacological inhibition of apoptosis may represent a promising therapeutic strategy. Many putative apoptosis inhibitors, identified through both target-based and unbiased 20 phenotypic screens, are thought to act upon targets localised to mitochondria. Some are 21 proposed to act directly upon the BCL-2 effector proteins BAX and/or BAK, while others are 22 believed to impair apoptosis through other mechanisms. Whilst several inhibitors have been 23 described, none have yet progressed beyond the early stages of pre-clinical development. We 24 will summarise several of the most recently described inhibitors below and place them in the 25 context of our current understanding of the apoptosis pathway. 26

27

#### 28 Blocking caspase activity

For many years, caspases were the most actively pursued target for inhibiting apoptosis, owing largely to their key role in driving the widespread cleavage of cellular protein substrates during the culminating phase of the apoptotic cell death signaling cascade. Prior experience with drugging proteases facilitated the rapid identification of specific caspase inhibitors, some of which progressed to clinical trials aiming to provide cytoprotective This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved benefit in settings such as organ transplantation and metabolic diseases associated with liver
damage (Table 2). Unfortunately, caspase inhibitors have largely underwhelmed in clinical
trials (Table 2) (Garcia-Tsao *et al*, 2019; Ratziu *et al*, 2012), which may be due in part to
their poor pharmacokinetic properties and the very high fractional inhibition of caspases
required to effectively block their action (Methot *et al*, 2004). That caspases have many
functions beyond apoptosis further complicates their use in patients (Carlile *et al*, 2004;
Fujita *et al*, 2008; Guery *et al*, 2011; Jacquel *et al*, 2009; Sordet *et al*, 2002),

Blocking the apoptosome is another potential way to limit caspase activity and apoptosis, 8 9 and both small molecule and peptoid inhibitors of APAF-1 have been described (Lademann et al, 2003; Wang et al, 2016). These have shown some in vivo efficacy in animal models of 10 stem cell transplantation as well as cisplatin-induced ototoxicity and ischemic kidney injury 11 (Orzáez et al, 2014; Shim et al, 2013). Intriguingly, as APAF-1 inhibitors block caspase 12 activation downstream of MOMP, their mode of action has been shown to involve the 13 14 recovery of early apoptotic cells in an autophagy-dependent fashion (Gortat et al, 2015). The same reliance on autophagy was noted for caspase inhibitors to preserve cell growth potential 15 following MOMP (Colell et al, 2007). 16

17

Although it is possible for a cell to recover following minority MOMP, this tends to 18 19 occur at low frequency. In the main, once a cell undergoes MOMP it is committed to die. Hence, although inhibiting caspase activation or apoptosome formation downstream of 20 BAX/BAK-mediated MOMP may slow cell death, it is generally not an effective way to 21 confer cytoprotection. Long-term cellular protection from insults that trigger intrinsic 22 apoptosis can be achieved more efficiently by targeting regulators upstream of mitochondrial 23 24 damage. Indirect approaches that quench stress signals, such as anti-oxidants or ROS scavengers represent one option. However, conceptually a more direct way to achieve this 25 would be with molecules that preserve mitochondrial integrity through targeting BAX/BAK 26 or proteins that modulate their activity. 27

28

#### 29 Preserving mitochondrial integrity to prevent cell death

Mitochondria have a central role as the platform for intrinsic apoptosis, while also critical for cellular metabolism, iron cluster biogenesis and calcium signaling. Hence, a disrupted MOM is generally considered a death knell for a cell. As a potent source of pro-inflammatory DAMPs, mitochondrial damage can also have non-cell-autonomous effects on surrounding This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved cells and tissues. Thus, there is much interest in generating small molecules that protect mitochondrial integrity. A number of key players implicated in mitochondrial integrity have been identified, and some have been successfully targeted with small molecules. Continued development of these inhibitors will provide not only a greatly improved toolkit to decipher mitochondrial functions in cell survival and death, but also an expanded arsenal of small-molecule drug leads to inhibit pathological apoptosis.

7

#### 8 Inhibitors of VDAC1 oligomerisation

9 Mammalian voltage-dependent anion channels (VDAC1, VDAC2, VDAC3) are responsible for transporting ions and metabolites across the MOM, but can also regulate MOMP. In the 10 case of VDAC2, this occurs through modulating BAK and BAX (Cheng et al., 2003; Ma et 11 al., 2014), whilst VDAC1 is argued to form oligomeric pores that enable the release of 12 mitochondrial cytochrome c independently of BAX and BAK (Huang et al., 2015). The 13 14 pore-forming propensity of VDAC1 does not fit with the consensus view that BAX and BAK are required for cytochrome c release and that VDACs in general are dispensable (Baines et 15 al., 2007; Wei et al., 2001). Nevertheless, VDAC1 has been targeted with small molecules to 16 preserve mitochondrial integrity. 4,4'-diisothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulfonic acid (DIDS), an 17 anion conductance inhibitor, has been shown to interact non-specifically with VDAC1 and 18 19 inhibit its oligomerisation (Keinan et al, 2010). Small molecules that selectively prevent VDAC1 oligomerisation were also identified from a high-throughput cell-based phenotypic 20 screen relying on bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET) to monitor VDAC1 21 oligomerisation (Ben-Hail et al, 2016). A series of analogues, including VBIT-4, were shown 22 to interact with VDAC1, inhibit mitochondrial dysfunction, and block apoptosis of cultured 23 cells (Ben-Hail et al., 2016). 24

The role of VDAC1 in apoptosis may in fact be quite specialised with recent findings 25 suggesting that oligomerisation of VDAC1 enables mtDNA release and an interferon (IFN) 26 response without initiating typical cell death processes associated with cytochrome c release 27 and caspase activation. This mtDNA release was blocked by VBIT-4 in mouse models of 28 29 systemic lupus erythematosus (Kim et al, 2019) and more recently TDP-43-driven ALS (Yu et al, 2020). Therefore, rather than having broad utility in limiting apoptosis for 30 31 cytoprotection, inhibitors of VDAC1 oligomerisation may be beneficial to limit inflammatory 32 responses caused by the release of mitochondrial DAMPs.

33

#### 1 Inhibitors of the mitochondrial fission protein DRP-1

In cells, Dynamin-Related Protein 1 (DRP-1)-induced mitochondrial fission plays an active role in apoptosis (Estaquier & Arnoult, 2007; Frank *et al.*, 2001; Lee *et al*, 2004). In response to mitochondrial fission induced by nitric oxide (NO) in neurons, BAX translocated to, and selectively aggregated at, fission sites, whilst blocking DRP-1 inhibited BAX foci formation (Yuan *et al*, 2007). These findings suggest that DRP-1 might be a useful target in numerous degenerative diseases.

8 One widely used compound that was originally described as a DRP-1 inhibitor is the 9 quinazolinone derivative mitochondrial division inhibitor-1 (mdivi-1). mdivi-1 was identified from a phenotypic screen for small molecules that would preserve mitochondrial architecture 10 and counteract the growth arrest in a temperature-sensitive mitofusin mutant yeast strain 11 12 (Cassidy-Stone et al, 2008). It was proposed that mdivi-1 inhibited mitochondrial fission by impairing the GTPase activity of DNM-1, the yeast homologue of DRP-1. Although 13 14 originally proposed to act similarly in mammalian cells, mdivi-1 has been shown to be a very weak inhibitor of human DRP-1 and instead to attenuate cell death by inhibiting 15 mitochondrial respiration complex I and ROS production independently or DRP-1 (Bordt et 16 al, 2017). Although its precise mode of action remains uncertain, mdivi-1 has demonstrated 17 neuroprotection in animal models of ischaemic stroke (Grohm et al, 2012), traumatic brain 18 injury (Wu et al, 2016), Parkinson's disease (Rappold et al, 2014), Alzheimer's disease 19 (Reddy et al, 2018) and Huntington's disease (Zhao et al, 2018). 20

A cell-permeating peptide, P110, has also been rationally designed to selectively inhibit 21 both the GTPase activity of DRP-1 as well as its interaction with mitochondrial fission 1 22 protein (FIS-1), an adaptor that recruits DRP-1 to the MOM (Qi et al, 2013). In cultured 23 24 neurons, P110 preserved mitochondrial function and blocked excessive fission and apoptosis caused by a neurotoxin responsible for atypical forms of parkinsonism (Qi et al., 2013). It has 25 also demonstrated benefit in mouse models of retinal degeneration (Kim et al, 2015) and 26 ALS (Joshi et al., 2018), highlighting the potential of targeting DRP-1 to limit pathological 27 apoptosis in these settings. 28

Whilst these *in vivo* studies are of interest and suggest that modulating DRP-1 may have therapeutic benefit, it remains unclear whether suppressing mitochondrial fission limits intrinsic apoptosis or rather it potentiates mitochondrial activity. Moreover, although inhibition of mitochondrial fission may slow events downstream of mitochondrial damage,

much like the inhibition of caspases, it is unlikely to confer long-term protection, hence the
rationale for targeting mitochondrial fission to block cell death remains unclear.

3

#### 4 Compounds targeting mitochondrial respiration

mdivi-1 is not the only apoptosis inhibitor proposed to target a component of the 5 mitochondrial electron transfer chain. Another was found through a small molecule library 6 screen for inhibitors of BAX/BAK-mediated apoptosis induced by BIM expression (Jiang et 7 al, 2016). That molecule, compound A, was shown to covalently bind succinate 8 9 dehydrogenase subunit B of respiratory complex II. Compound A afforded clonogenic protection to cells in culture and limited the loss of dopaminergic neurons in a 10 6-OHDA-induced mouse model of PD. Intriguingly, although pre-treatment with compound 11 12 A reduced cytochrome c release it had only a modest impact on BAX oligomerisation. Compound A was therefore proposed to act downstream of BAK/BAX oligomerisation, 13 14 challenging the notion that BAX/BAK oligomerisation and MOMP is the death knell for a cell. It remains under debate whether disruption of the electron transport chain and 15 mitochondrial respiration are consequences of mitochondrial apoptosis or are events that 16 guide it. Although these compounds are early in their development, their mode of action is 17 unique and they have revealed interesting new biology. 18

19

#### 20 Inhibitors of the pro-apoptotic BCL-2 effector proteins BAX and BAK

Given that a variety of apoptotic signals culminate in activating BAX and BAK to damage mitochondria as the pivotal step in intrinsic apoptosis, there has been intense interest in developing targeted small-molecule inhibitors of these critical effector proteins.

24

#### 25 Molecules that influence lipid bilayers

There is an emerging appreciation that MOM lipids play an active role in MOMP, either to act as a bridge that links BAX/BAK oligomers in the proteolipidic pore or to promote membrane curvature, which appears key to MOM rupture (Basanez *et al*, 2002; Cowan *et al.*, 2020). Interestingly, several molecules known to alter the structural and elastic properties of lipid bilayers have been reported to inhibit BAX-mediated MOMP and cytochrome *c* release, including dibucaine, propranolol and cholesterol (Christenson *et al*, 2008; Polster *et al*, 2003). It is possible that these hydrophobic molecules, and some of the others described

1 below, might exert their anti-apoptotic function in part by altering the physical properties of

- 2 the MOM.
- 3

#### 4 **Proteinaceous inhibitors**

Protein and peptide inhibitors of BAX and BAK can help to uncover novel modes of 5 regulation, with insights to be gained from the study of viral inhibitors. Viruses often develop 6 strategies to block host cell apoptosis to promote their persistence and replication. In many 7 cases these inhibitors are structural homologues of BCL-2, but several non-BCL2 BAX/BAK 8 inhibitors have also been described. One example is the cytomegalovirus protein 9 m38.5/vMIA (viral Mitochondria-Localised Inhibitor of Apoptosis), which binds to a novel 10 regulatory site on BAX through a 20 amino acid helical domain that both stabilises cytosolic 11 12 BAX and prevents MOM insertion and oligomerisation (Figure 2B) (Arnoult et al, 2004; Ma et al, 2012). Another cytomegalovirus protein m41.1/vIBO (viral inhibitor of BAK 13 14 oligomerisation) is instead a selective inhibitor of BAK (Cam et al, 2010). The mode of action of this short 57-amino acid protein is less clear, but could equally shed new insight to 15 facilitate the rational design of peptide-based or small molecule inhibitors. 16

The mitochondrial-derived peptide humanin is another naturally occurring peptide 17 inhibitor of BAX (Guo et al, 2003), which has been shown to confer cytoprotection in a 18 19 variety of disease models (Hazafa et al, 2021). Humanin is proposed to prevent BAX activation and translocation to mitochondria through a direct interaction, but the nature of this 20 interaction remains unclear (Guo et al., 2003), and other interacting partners including BID 21 have also been reported (Hazafa et al., 2021; Morris et al, 2020). In vitro evidence now 22 suggests that humanin may impair apoptosis by aggregating BAX and BID into stable fibril 23 structures (Morris et al., 2020; Morris et al, 2019). 24

Peptide inhibitors of BAK have also been developed using structure-guided design. It 25 was understood that BH3-only proteins trigger BAX/BAK activation through transient 26 interaction with the hydrophobic surface groove of BAX/BAK (Figure 2A). Upon BH3-only 27 protein dissociation, BAX/BAK change conformation to expose their BH3 domain to 28 29 facilitate homodimerisation through the same hydrophobic surface groove. Thus, a BH3-peptide that stably interacts with the BAX or BAK groove may impede activation and 30 oligomerisation. Guided by structures of the BIM BH3 domain bound to BAK, BH3 peptides 31 were designed to incorporate a non-natural amino acid predicted to stabilise a charge 32 33 interaction with BAK (Brouwer et al, 2017). As anticipated, the modified peptide interacted This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

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more stably with the BAK hydrophobic groove, but did not induce significant BAK conformation change and prevented other BH3 domains from engaging with and activating BAK (Brouwer *et al.*, 2017). These studies represent the first rationally designed inhibitor of BAK or BAX and highlight the canonical hydrophobic groove as a key site to inhibit their apoptotic activity.

Anti-apoptotic proteins sequester the exposed BH3 domain of BH3-only proteins (termed 6 Mode 1) or of activated BAX and BAK (termed Mode 2) in their own hydrophobic groove to 7 block BAX/BAK activation and homo-oligomerisation (Llambi et al, 2011). However, 8 9 regions in anti-apoptotic proteins other than the hydrophobic groove might also inhibit BAX or BAK, as a synthetic stapled peptide based on the BH4 domain in the BCL-2 N-terminus 10 bound to BAX and inhibited early steps in BAX conformation change induced by a BIM 11 12 BH3 peptide (Barclay et al, 2015). Photo-affinity cross-linking coupled with mass spectrometry identified multiple residues contacted by the peptide. A hotspot of labelling 13 suggested that the BH4 peptide bound BAX at a site comprising residues in  $\alpha 2$  and  $\alpha 3$ , 14 whilst possibly also involving residues in  $\alpha 1$  and  $\alpha 6$  distal to the canonical hydrophobic 15 groove (Figure 2B). Although the BH4 peptide competitively inhibited binding of an 16 activator BH3 peptide to the groove, an allosteric mechanism may also contribute to its 17 inhibitory effect. 18

19 Synthetic antibody fragments (Fab) that bind and inhibit BAX activation have also been 20 described (Uchime *et al*, 2016). 3G11, a representative Fab, was shown to bind the rear 21 activation site of BAX comprising residues in  $\alpha$ 1 and  $\alpha$ 6. It was proposed to block BH3-only 22 proteins from binding to the same region to trigger conformational changes in BAX.

23

#### 24 Carbazole compounds/Mitochondrial Channel Inhibitors (iMACs)

25 Brominated carbazole derivatives, termed Mitochondrial Channel Inhibitors (iMACs), were among the first small molecule inhibitors of BAX/BAK described. They were identified 26 27 based on their ability to block the permeabilisation of artificial liposomes and mitochondria 28 by recombinant BAX (Bombrun et al, 2003). These compounds blocked, and possibly 29 reversed, oligomerisation of both BAX and BAK, inhibited cytochrome c release triggered by recombinant BID (tBID) and protected cells from treatment with staurosporine or 30 31 Interleukin-3 withdrawal (Peixoto et al, 2009). Interestingly, these chemicals are structurally 32 similar to Latrepirdine, an antihistamine drug that was shown to have protective effects on neurons (Bachurin et al, 2001). 33

Recently, the same brominated carbazole compounds were again identified as BAX 1 2 inhibitors in a liposome permeabilisation screen. NMR studies indicated that these molecules, termed BAI1 (iMAC1) and BAI2 (iMAC2), bound directly to BAX with micromolar affinity, 3 predominantly contacting residues in the BAX  $\alpha 3$ ,  $\alpha 4$  and  $\alpha 5$ , close to, but distinct from, the 4 binding site of vMIA inhibitory peptide and BCL-2 BH4 peptide (Figure 2B and C) (Garner 5 et al., 2019). The molecules were shown to inhibit early events in BAX activation including 6 membrane association and exposure of the BH3 domain (Garner et al., 2019), but not the 7 preceding N-terminal epitope exposure (Amgalan et al, 2020), suggesting that binding of the 8 inhibitor to inactive BAX must prevent a discrete conformational transition in the stepwise 9 10 activation of BAX (Figure 3). Allosteric stabilisation of the inactive conformer of BAX was 11 proposed to explain their mode of action, although given the proximity of their binding to the hydrophobic groove (Figure 2C), direct competition with activating BH3-only proteins may 12 also contribute. The compounds inhibited mitochondrial depolarisation, caspase-3/7 13 activation and cell death induced by TNF-a/cycloheximide in Bak knockout mouse 14 15 embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs), but not Bax knockout MEFs, indicating that the inhibitors were selective for BAX (Garner et al., 2019). Further, BAI1/iMAC1 limited BAX-mediated 16 17 doxorubicin-induced cardiomyopathy in mouse models, but it did not compromise the efficacy of doxorubicin-induced cancer cell killing either in vivo and in vitro (Amgalan et al., 18 19 2020), suggesting that BAK was unrestrained in the tumour cells. However, this specificity for BAX is difficult to reconcile with the ability of the inhibitors to block apoptosis of 20 wild-type MEFs that express both BAX and BAK (Garner et al., 2019) and a previous study 21 that suggested activity against BAK (Peixoto et al., 2009). 22

An in vivo screen for pro-neurogenic molecules uncovered another carbazole compound, 23 P7C3, that when directly infused into the brain of mice could enhance neuron viability 24 (Pieper et al, 2010). P7C3 was further developed to improve potency and reduce toxicity 25 (MacMillan et al, 2011; Naidoo et al, 2014), and this chemical series exhibited 26 neuroprotective effects in animal models of PD and ALS (De Jesús-Cortés et al, 2012; Tesla 27 et al, 2012), retinal dystrophies (Asai-Coakwell et al, 2013), and traumatic brain injury 28 (Blaya et al, 2014). The compound also demonstrated antidepressant effects, possibly by 29 30 preserving immature neurons (Walker et al, 2015). Due to its structural relatedness to the brominated carbazoles (Bombrun et al., 2003), P7C3 was initially proposed to limit neuronal 31 degeneration by restraining BAX activity. However, indirect mechanisms involving 32

nicotinamide phosphoribosyltransferase (Wang *et al*, 2014; Yin *et al*, 2014) and glycogen
 synthase kinase 3β have also been proposed (Gu *et al*, 2017).

3

#### 4 **BAX channel inhibitors (BCIs)**

BAX channel inhibitors (BCI1 and BCI2) are another class of small molecule BAX inhibitor 5 identified through lipid bilayer permeabilisation assays (Hetz et al, 2005). These compounds 6 inhibited apoptosis in cells induced by the broad kinase inhibitor staurosporine and also 7 suppressed hippocampal damage in a rodent brain ischaemia model (Hetz et al., 2005). 8 Although not as potent in a following study, these inhibitors impaired conductance through 9 10 channels formed by BAX oligomers downstream of BAX activation and membrane insertion, (Peixoto et al., 2009). However, BAX oligomerisation was not directly assessed in these 11 studies and these inhibitors have not progressed, hence their mechanism of action has not 12 13 been confirmed.

14

#### 15 Inhibitors of BAX/BAK activation

A small molecule series that blocks both BAX and BAK was also identified using a 16 17 tBID/BAX-mediated liposome permeabilization screen. These inhibitors (MSN-50, MSN125, DAN004) reduced both BAX and BAK apoptotic activity on liposomes with low micromolar 18 19 IC50 and provided long-term protection in cultured cell lines and primary cortical neurons (Niu et al, 2017). Mechanistically, the compounds inhibited the oligomerisation of BAX and 20 BAK, whilst not impacting their ability to localise to the MOM. Cross-linking analysis 21 revealed that the formation of BAX/BAK dimers and higher order oligomers were both 22 reduced. Evidence for direct binding to BAX or BAK has not yet been observed, but the 23 ability of these compounds to inhibit oligomerisation of both BAX and BAK suggests that 24 they target a conserved interface, consistent with the ability of BAX and BAK to co-associate 25 through BH3:groove interactions during apoptosis (Ma et al CDD 2014). Given that 26 MSN-125 also prevented exposure of an N-terminal epitope characteristic of BAX activating 27 conformation change suggests these inhibitors may also block interaction with BH3-only 28 proteins, potentially implicating the hydrophobic groove or rear pocket comprising  $\alpha 1$  and 29  $\alpha 6$  as BAX activation trigger sites (Czabotar *et al.*, 2013; Gavathiotis *et al.*, 2008). With 30 31 recent studies indicating that higher order oligomerisation of BAX and BAK may be mediated by protein:lipid as opposed to protein:protein interactions (Cowan et al., 2020; Li et 32

al, 2017; Uren *et al*, 2017), understanding how these inhibitors engage BAX and BAK may
 provide important new insight into the role MOM lipids play in BAX/BAK oligomerisation.

- Recently, Eltrombopag, a thrombopoietin receptor agonist approved by the FDA for the 3 treatment of thrombocytopenia, was identified through an *in silico* screen to have structural 4 similarity to the BAX activator BAM7 (Gavathiotis et al., 2008; Spitz et al, 2021). Yet 5 despite a similar binding site at the  $\alpha 1/6$  rear pocket of BAX, in contrast to BAM7, 6 Eltrombopag inhibited BAX activation *in vitro* and in cellular assays, although its protective 7 effect on 3T3 cells that express both BAX and BAK is difficult to reconcile with its lack of 8 activity in BAX knockout MEFs (Spitz et al., 2021). Whilst the contribution of this BAX 9 10 inhibitory effect to the therapeutic activity of Eltrombopag is unknown, this compound adds to the library of tool compounds to further interrogate and potentially modulate BAX 11 apoptotic activity. 12
- 13

#### 14 WEHI-9625: a BAK-selective inhibitor

15 Liposome-based assays have been the richest source of identifying BAX/BAK inhibitors, but for technical reasons these assays are typically performed using BAX to drive 16 17 permeabilisation. As such, the identified inhibitors have been more likely to target BAX than BAK. Using a different strategy centered on a cell-based phenotypic screen for small 18 19 molecules that could protect cultured cells from cell death induced by a BH3-mimetic drug, a 20 series of BAK-selective inhibitors was identified (van Delft et al., 2019). The lead molecule developed, WEHI-9625, was shown to selectively inhibit BAK-driven apoptosis in cells with 21 low nanomolar IC50. Using genetics and chemical biology its target was resolved as 22 VDAC2, with WEHI-9625 preserving the interaction between BAK and VDAC2 when 23 challenged with BH3-peptides and other apoptotic triggers. In doing so, WEHI-9625 blocked 24 early steps in BAK activation including conformation change and homodimerisation, thereby 25 preserving long-term clonogenic survival (Figure 3). Without structures of the BAK:VDAC2 26 complex the molecular detail of how WEHI-9625 stabilises their association remains unclear, 27 but this study provides a path forward for the development of selective BAK inhibitors and 28 29 advances our understanding of the mechanisms that control BAK apoptotic function. It also 30 highlights the potential of BAX/BAK binding partners as putative targets to modulate apoptosis and the advantage to understanding the complexities of these interactions for 31 32 therapeutic targeting.

33

#### 1 Selective vs dual-specificity BAX/BAK inhibitors

2 BAX and BAK are constitutively expressed in most cell types and mediate apoptosis in a redundant manner. Hence, although targeting one executioner alone may prove partially 3 protective, effective blockade of apoptosis may only come when both proteins are inhibited. 4 In this case, dual-specificity inhibitors that exploit common features of BAX and BAK may 5 be advantageous (Niu et al., 2017). However, inhibitors with dual-specificity conceptually 6 carry greater risk of on-target toxicity that may limit their clinical utility, especially in 7 chronic diseases for which long term dosing is required. In certain circumstances, where cell 8 9 death specifically relies on either BAX or BAK, selective inhibition may be a feasible proposition. For instance, apoptosis in post-mitotic neurons is likely BAX-dependent as 10 mature neurons have limited expression of full-length BAK that is competent to mediate 11 12 MOMP (Deckwerth et al, 1996). Hence, deletion of BAX alone is often sufficient to confer protection to neurons in various animal models of both acute and chronic neurodegeneration 13 14 (Table 1).

15

#### 16 Conclusions

The last two decades have marked an era of understanding the role of apoptosis in disease, 17 with remarkable recent research and clinical progress in the therapeutic modulation of 18 19 apoptotic cell death. Given the intensifying impact of excessive apoptosis in disease pathogenesis, a variety of pre-clinical apoptosis inhibitors have been developed, providing 20 invaluable means to investigate molecular mechanisms and explore therapeutic opportunities 21 to address unmet clinical need. However, several barriers need to be overcome for these 22 targeted apoptosis inhibitors to progress to the clinic including improved understanding of the 23 mechanism of action, enhanced potency, selectivity, cell permeability and evidence of 24 pathway modulation in cells. This would be facilitated by structural information on target 25 engagement for structure-activity relationship studies. The capacity to permeate the 26 blood-brain barrier is an additional hurdle that must be overcome for these compounds to be 27 of use in the treatment of acute neuronal injury or neurodegenerative disease. Furthermore, 28 29 given the essential role in apoptosis in limiting tumour development, there are understandable concerns that systemic, long-term administration of apoptosis inhibitors to treat chronic 30 degenerative diseases may actually promote carcinogenesis. Acute administration of 31 inhibitors, for example to block pathogenic cell death following traumatic injury or ischaemic 32 33 stroke circumvents this issue, whilst phased or targeted drug delivery could limit this This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

potential risk in treating more chronic conditions. Moreover, given that neither Bax<sup>-/-</sup> nor 1 2 Bak<sup>-/-</sup> mice are predisposed to tumour development (Knudson et al, 2001; Knudson et al, 1995; Lindsten et al., 2000), drugs that target BAX or BAK specifically to limit cell death in 3 specific cells or tissues would be invaluable in this endeavour. Although further insights are 4 needed to inform the utility of these inhibitors in specific in vivo disease models, 5 pharmacological inhibition of cell death has the emerging potential to transform the treatment 6 of degenerative conditions, just as targeted agonists of apoptosis are transforming the 7 8 treatment of various cancers.

9

#### 10 Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge Peter Czabotar and Guillaume Lessene for advice and discussions in the preparation of the manuscript. This work is supported by funding from the Bodhi Education Fund (GD) and grants from the National Health and Medical Research Council Australia to GD (GNT2001406, GNT2004446) and MvD (GNT1158137). This work was supported by operational infrastructure grants through the Australian Government Independent Research Institute Infrastructure Support Scheme (9000587) and the Victorian State Government Operational Infrastructure Support, Australia.

18

#### 19 **Conflict of interest**

GD and MvD are employees of the Walter and Eliza Hall Institute which receives royalty
payments relating to the use of Venclexta/venetoclax.

22

### 23 Glossary

AD	Alzheimer's disease				
ALS	Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis				
ALS/AST	Alanine transaminase /aspartate transaminase				
APAF-1	Apoptotic Protease-Activating Factor 1				
BAK	BCL-2 antagonist/killer				
BAX	BCL-2-associated X protein				
BAI	BAX Inhibitor				
BCI	BAX Channel Inhibitor				
BCL-2	B-cell lymphoma 2				

BH	BCL-2 homology				
DRP-1	Dynamin-Related Protein-1				
HD	Huntington's disease				
IAP	Inhibitor of Apoptosis Protein				
I/R	Ischaemia/reperfusion				
iMAC	Mitochondrial Channel Inhibitor				
MND	Motor neurone disease				
MIM	mitochondrial inner membrane				
MIS	mitochondrial intermembrane space				
МОМ	mitochondrial outer membrane				
MOMP	mitochondrial outer membrane permeabilisation				
МРТР	1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine				
MS	Multiple Sclerosis				
NAFLD	Non-alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease				
NASH	Non-alcoholic Steatohepatitis				
6-OHDA	6-hydroxydopamine				
OPA1	Optic Atrophy 1				
PD	Parkinson's disease				
SNpc	substantia nigra pars compacta				
SOD1	Superoxide dismutase 1				
VDAC	Voltage-Dependent Anion Channel				
VMIA	viral Mitochondria-Localised Inhibitor of Apoptosis				
Anth					

Diseases	Diseases Models with genes modulated Outcome		Reference
Ischaemic stoke	Global ablation of caspase-3	Decreased cortical infarct volume	(Le <i>et al</i> , 2002)
	Constitutive deletion of <i>Bax</i>	Reduced infarct volume and brain water	(D'Orsi et al., 2015)
		content	
O	Constitutive knockout of <i>Bid</i>	Reduced ischaemic damage	(Plesnila et al, 2001)
S	Neuron-specific BCL-2 overexpression	Reduced brain infarct volume	(Martinou et al,
			1994)
	Constitutive OPA1 overexpression	Alleviated ischaemic damage	(Varanita et al,
			2015)
Traumatic brain injury	Constitutive Bid deletion	Decreased early post-traumatic damage with	(Bermpohl et al,
		no long-term protection	2006)
	Constitutive <i>Bax</i> deletion	Ameliorated neuronal death but did not	(Tehranian et al.,
		improve cognitive behavior	2008)
Alzheimer's disease	Constitutive Bax excision	Reduced neuronal cell loss induced by	(Kudo <i>et al.</i> , 2012)
		fibrillar A $\beta$ peptide	
Parkinson's disease	Viral delivery of XIAP into striatum	Prevented death of dopaminergic SNpc	(Eberhardt <i>et al.</i> ,
		neurons	2000)
	Constitutive knockout of Bax	Preserved neurons in the SNpc before or	(Vila et al., 2001)
		after neurotoxic insults	

Table 1.	Genetic	evidence:	apoptotic	molecules	mediating	neuronal	death
					0		

	Heterozygous knockout of Mcll in	Sensitised Park2-/- mice to dopaminergic	(Ekholm-Reed et al,
	Parkin-deficient mice	neurodegeneration and PD phenotype	2019)
<b>T</b>	Viral delivery of <i>Opa1</i> into substantia nigra	Attenuated dopaminergic nigrostriatal	(Ramonet et al,
		denervation	2013)
	Bax deletion in 6-OHDA-treated mice.	Impaired the loss of dopaminergic neurons	(Kim et al., 2011)
0		but did not rescue the motor deficits	
Amyotrophic lateral	Constitutive deletion of PUMA in	Promoted motoneuron survival and delayed	(Kieran <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
sclerosis	SOD1-mutant mice	disease onset and motor dysfunction	
2	Constitutive overexpression of BCL-2 in	Delayed disease onset and prolonged	(Kostic <i>et al</i> , 1997)
	SOD1-mutant mice	survival, but did not alter disease duration	
$\mathbf{O}$	Neuronal Bax/Bak deletion in SOD1-mutant	Inhibited neuron loss and paralysis and	(Reyes et al., 2010)
$\leq$	mice	extended survival.	
Multiple sclerosis	Neuron-specific overexpression of BCL-2	Reduced axonal damage and clinical	(Offen <i>et al</i> , 2000)
<u> </u>		impairment	
0	Constitutive Bax excision	Reduced axonal damage, inflammatory	(Lev <i>et al</i> , 2004)
č		infiltration and clinical impairment	

## Table 2. Clinical trials of caspases inhibitors Emricasan and Nivocasan as single agents

Agent Tri	al Phase	Status	Indication(s)	Outcome
identi	fier			

Emricasan	NCT00080236	II	Completed	Liver transplantation	No results posted
(PF	NCT00088140	II	Completed	Chronic hepatitis C virus infection	No results posted
03491390,	NCT01653899	I/II	Completed	Islet transplant to treat diabetes	No results posted
IDN-6556)	NCT01912404	II	Terminated	Alcoholic hepatitis	N/A
	NCT01937130	II	Terminated	Acute liver failure	N/A
C	NCT02039817	Ι	Completed	Renal impairment	
	NCT02077374	II	Completed	NASH, NAFLD	Decreased liver enzymes and
					biomarkers in NAFLD (Shiffman et
-					<i>al</i> , 2019)
	NCT02121860	Ι	Completed	Liver impairment	
	NCT02138253	II	Completed	Liver damage caused by hepatitis C	No significant difference in liver
				virus infection after liver	fibrosis
				transplantation	
	NCT02230670	II	Completed	Liver cirrhosis	Improved outcome in liver function
<u> </u>					(Frenette et al, 2019)
(	NCT02230683	II	Completed	Portal hypertension in subjects with	Reduced venous pressure and
				liver cirrhosis	cleaved keratin as marker of caspase
<u> </u>	_				activity in patients with severe portal
+					hypertension
-	NCT02686762	II	Completed	NASH	Did not improve liver histology in
					patients with NASH fibrosis. May
	B.	1	1	1	

					(Harrison <i>et al</i> , 2020)
_	NCT02960204	II	Completed	NASH and portal hypertension	No improvement in clinical outcomes
+					(Garcia-Tsao et al, 2020)
<u> </u>	NCT03205345	II	Active, not	Decompensated NASH cirrhosis	No results posted
			recruiting		
(	NCT03479125	II	Terminated	Post-treatment follow-up study for	N/A
	6		(development	liver diseases	
			discontinued)		
Nivocasan	NCT00725803	II	Completed	Liver damage caused by hepatitis C	Reduced liver enzymes ALT/AST
(GS-9450)				virus infection	
	NCT00740610	II	Completed	NASH	Reduced liver enzymes ALT/AST
	U				and reduced cleaved keratin (Ratziu
					<i>et al.</i> , 2012)
	NCT00874796	II	Terminated	Chronic hepatitis C virus infection	N/A
			(lab		
	5		abnormalities		
			and adverse		
			events)		
+					
_					

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# A

#### **Figure Legends**

## Figure 1. Overview of the mitochondrial apoptosis pathway and opportunities for pharmacological inhibition.

Pro-apoptotic factors such as cytochrome *c*, SMAC/DIABLO and OMI/HTRA2 released from mitochondria trigger caspase-dependent apoptotic pathway. Mitochondrial DNA released from damaged mitochondria can trigger inflammation mediated by cGAS/STING or the NRLP3 inflammasome unless curtailed by caspases. Small molecule or peptide inhibitors have been developed that target distinct steps and players in mitochondrial apoptosis.

#### Figure 2. Modulation of BAX.

(A) BAX hydrophobic groove ( $\alpha$ 2-5) is a site for binding its C-terminal  $\alpha$ 9 transmembrane (TM) anchor and also activating BH3-only proteins. Soluble BAX (*surface representation, grey*) with its  $\alpha$ 9/TM shown (*magenta helix*) occupying the hydrophobic groove (PDB:2LR1). BIM BH3 peptide (*orange helix,* derived from PDB: 4ZIE) overlaid into the hydrophobic groove. (**B**) BAX (PDB: 2LR1) is inhibited by peptide from the cytomegalovirus protein vMIA (*blue,* (Ma *et al.,* 2012) and a stapled BCL-2 BH4 peptide. BAX residues implicated to interact with BCL-2 BH4 are indicated (*pink=low abundance labelling, purple=high abundance labelling*). (**C**) BAX inhibitory compound BAI1 (also known as iMAC1) binds proximally to the hydrophobic groove (*green*).

#### Figure 3. Inhibitory checkpoints in the stepwise activation of BAK and BAX

Stepwise activation of BAK and BAX with structures of transitional conformers. Inhibitors of BAK and/or BAX block at distinct steps in the activation pathway. (1) In healthy cells, inactive BAX is cytosolic with its transmembrane domain predominantly sequestered in its hydrophobic groove (see also Figure 2A), whilst BAK is sequestered in a protein complex containing VDAC2 with its C-terminal  $\alpha$ 9 transmembrane domain (*purple*) integrated into the MOM. The components of the complex and the molecular interactions between BAK and VDAC2 are currently unclear. *Structure*: Inactive conformer of monomeric BAK (PDB:2IMS(Moldoveanu *et al*, 2006)) with helix  $\alpha$ 1 (*wheat*),  $\alpha$ 2 (*marine*),  $\alpha$ 3 (*cyan*),  $\alpha$ 4 (*limon*),  $\alpha$ 5 (*red*),  $\alpha$ 6/7/8 (*grey*) indicated. The BH3 domain ( $\alpha$ 2) and hydrophobic binding groove This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

 $(\alpha 2/3/4/5)$  are the major sites for activation and oligometrisation. (2) Binding of a BH3 peptide (orange) promotes BAX mitochondrial localisation and dissociates BAK from VDAC2. The inhibitory compound WEHI-9625 behinds VDAC2 to stabilise its interaction with inactive BAK. Structure: BAK bound to BIM BH3 peptide (orange) (PDB:5VWY(Brouwer et al., 2014)). (3) BH3-only protein binding instigates BAX/BAK conformation change involving eversion of the N-terminus (NT) and BH3 domain, eversion of the C-terminus (CT, BAX only), and separation dissociation of the core ( $\alpha$ 2-5) and latch ( $\alpha$ 6-8) domains. BCL-2 BH4 domain peptide with an engineered helix-stabilising hydrocarbon staple (dash) between two loop residues (red) and MAC/BAI compounds bind BAX to inhibit its conformation change. Structure: BAK bound with BIM BH3 peptide (*orange*) with its core ( $\alpha$ 1-5) and latch ( $\alpha$ 6-8) domains dissociated (PDB:5VWY(Brouwer et al., 2014)). (4) Conformation change facilitates BAX/BAK homodimerisation via a BH3:groove interaction that precedes higher order oligomer formation and MOMP. The position of the BAK/BAX al (bounded by dashed line) in the activated conformer is unclear. Additionally, the structure of the BAK/BAX BH3: groove homodimers are currently limited to the  $\alpha$ 2-5 core domain. MSN compounds impair oligomerisation of BAX and BAK, MSN-125 also blocked BAX conformation change. \*DAN004 inhibited BAX on liposomes, but toxic to cells. BCI compounds limited channel activity/membrane was permeabilisation mediated by BAX. Structure: BAK BH3-groove homodimer (structure limited to α2-5, PDB:4U2V(Brouwer et al., 2014)). Helix α2 (BH3 domain) of one monomer binds the hydrophobic groove formed by helix  $\alpha 3$ ,  $\alpha 4$  and  $\alpha 5$  of another monomer (shown in *pink*). (5) Binding of a mutant BIM BH3 peptide (*yellow*) to the BAK hydrophobic groove dissociates BAK from VDAC2, but prevents further conformation change and homo-oligomerisation thereby inhibiting BAK apoptotic activity. Structure: BAK bound with a mutant BIM BH3 peptide (yellow) (PDB:5VX0(Brouwer et al., 2017)).



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