Mechanisms Underlying the Neuronal Calcium Sensor-1-evoked Enhancement of Exocytosis in PC12 Cells*

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Neuronal calcium sensor-1 (NCS-1) or the originally identified homologue frequenin belongs to a superfamily of EF-hand calcium binding proteins. Although NCS-1 is thought to enhance synaptic efficacy or exocytosis mainly by activating ion channel function, the detailed molecular basis for the enhancement is still a matter of debate. Here, mechanisms underlying the NCS-1-evoked enhancement of exocytosis were investigated using PC12 cells overexpressing NCS-1. NCS-1 was found to have a broad distribution in the cells being partially distributed in the cytosol and associated to vesicles and tubular-like structures. Biochemical and immunohistochemical studies indicated that NCS-1 partially colocalized with the light synaptic vesicle marker synaptophysin. When stimulated with UTP or bradykinin, agonists to phospholipase C-linked receptors, NCS-1 enhanced the agonist-mediated elementary and global Ca2+ signaling and increased the levels of downstream signals of phosphatidylinositol 4-kinase. NCS-1 enhanced the UTP-evoked exocytosis but not the depolarization-evoked Ca2+ responses or exocytosis, suggesting that the enhancement by NCS-1 should involve phospholipase C-linked receptor-mediated signals rather than the Ca2+ channels or exocytotic machinery per se. Taken together, NCS-1 enhances phosphoinositide turnover, resulting in enhancement of Ca2+ signaling and exocytosis. This is a novel regulatory mechanism of exocytosis that might involve the activation of phosphatidylinositol 4-kinase.

EF-hand-containing Ca2+-binding proteins include those of the neuronal calcium sensor family. This family of relatively small proteins (<30 kDa) is expressed in neuronal and neuroendocrine cell types and includes recoverin/S-modulin, visinin, visinin-like protein, neurocalcin, hippocalcin, frequenin, and neuronal Ca2+-sensor-1 (NCS-1). Recoverin has a well defined role in signal transduction, regulating rhodopsin phosphorylation by inhibiting rhodopsin kinase (2). However, the functions of the other members of this family are unclear.

Frequenin markedly enhances synaptic efficacy by increasing neurotransmitter release in *Drosophila* (3) and *Xenopus* (4) through unknown mechanisms. Furthermore, the expression of NCS-1 (the mammalian homologue of frequenin) in other secretory cell types such as chromaffin cells suggests a more generalized role in exocytosis (5, 6). In a model of synaptic transmission in PC12 cells, NCS-1 potentiated ATP-mediated exocytosis of dense core granules but did not affect Ca2+-induced exocytosis in permeabilized PC12 cells, suggesting that regulation by NCS-1 may be at the level of signal transduction rather than through direct effects on the exocytotic machinery (5, 6). Although the precise mechanisms for such enhancement remain unknown, recent accumulating evidence suggests that NCS-1 or frequenin could modulate ion channels such as non-L-type (7, 8) and VQ-type (9) voltage-gated Ca2+ channels and A-type K+ channel (10), which may explain such an increased exocytosis.

In addition to ion channels, NCS-1 and/or frequenin binds to multiple proteins such as G-protein receptor kinase 1 (11, 12) to regulate exocytosis and to substitute for calmodulin (13). Recently, the yeast frequenin, but not vertebrate NCS-1 (14), has been demonstrated to bind to and activate phosphatidylinositol 4-0H kinase, a phosphatidylinositol 4-kinase (PtdIns4K) isoform (1). This class of enzyme is key to the supply of the phospholipase C substrate phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PtdIns(4,5)P2) and therefore has the potential to regulate phosphoinositide and Ca2+ signaling mediated by G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) and receptor tyrosine kinases. The potentiation of this signaling pathway may explain the enhancement of GPCR-mediated vesicle exocytosis by NCS-1.

In the current study, we sought to test this hypothesis by examining the subcellular distribution of NCS-1 and its influence on GPCR-mediated phosphoinositide, elementary and/or

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** The abbreviations used are: NCS-1, neuronal calcium sensor-1; PtdIns4K, phosphatidylinositol 4-kinase; GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor; PNS, postnuclear supernatant(s); TRITC, tetramethylrhodamine isothiocyanate; SgII, secretogranin II; HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography; Ins(1,4,5)P3, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; CCE, capacitative Ca2+ entry; PLC, phospholipase C; PtdIns, phosphatidylinositol; PtdIns(4)P, phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate; PtdIns(4,5)P2, phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate; InaP3, inositol phosphate.
global Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling, and exocytosis in PC12 cells. The immunolocalization of NCS-1 is consistent with a role for this protein in exocytosis. Further, we demonstrate that NCS-1 enhances UTP- and bradykinin-evoked exocytosis, and this is associated with enhanced agonist-mediated phosphoinositide signaling and potentiated elementary/global Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling events. These data suggest that the regulation of a PtdIns4K activity by NCS-1 (1) occurs in mammalian cells and could be the mechanism by which this protein enhances exocytotic responses.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Cell Culture and Generation of NCS-1-overexpressing PC12 Cells—**

PC12 cells were grown as described previously (15). To establish stable NCS-1 clones, PC12 cells were transfected with the rat ncs-1 cDNA (GenBank™ accession number J027421) in pCIneo (kindly provided by Jan Eggermont) and selected for neomycin resistance following standard protocols. Stable clones were further characterized by Western blotting and immunofluorescence as described below.

**Subcellular Fractionation—**

NCS-1 cells were subjected to subcellular fractionation as previously described (16, 17) with minor modifications. Briefly, cells were homogenized in buffer containing 0.25 M sucrose, 1 mM (CH\(_3\)COO)\(_2\)Mg, 2 mM EDTA, 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, with NaOH and supplemented with protease inhibitors (10 mg/ml aprotinin, 2 mg/ml pepstatin A). To separate the membranes from cytosol, the postnuclear supernatant (PNS) was centrifuged at 80,000 \(\times\) g for 20 min in a TLA 100.3 rotor using a Beckman Optima TL ultracentrifuge. The pellets were resuspended in homogenization buffer, loaded on the top of sucrose gradients (0.3–1.2 M sucrose), and then centrifuged at 110,000 \(\times\) g for 30 min (velocity gradient). Fractions of 1 ml were collected from the top of the velocity gradients. 300 \(\mu\)l of each fraction from 4 to 8 were pooled and loaded on second sucrose gradients (1.0–2.0 M sucrose), and then centrifuged at 110,000 \(\times\) g for 30 min (velocity gradient). Fractions of 1 ml were collected from the top of the velocity gradients. 300 \(\mu\)l of each fraction from 4 to 8 were pooled and loaded on second sucrose gradients (1.0–2.0 M) and centrifuged at 110,000 \(\times\) g for 18 h (equilibrium gradients). Equal aliquots (250 \(\mu\)l) of both gradient fractions and equal amounts of proteins of PNS prepared from wild type and NCS-1 cells were analyzed by Western blotting as described (18). Briefly, after electrophoresis, samples were electroblotted to nitrocellulose filters (Schleicher & Schuell) and probed with antibodies. The blots were then washed and probed with the polyclonal anti-NCS-1 antibody and monoclonal antibodies against SgII, synaptophysin (Syn), or NCS-1.

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**FIG. 1.** Western blotting analysis of NCS-1. A, Western blotting analysis of the PNS (40 mg of proteins) obtained from brain, wild type PC12 cells (clone 251 and N2), and PC12-N2 cells stably transfected with the empty vector (E.V.) or cDNA coding for NCS-1 (#2) immunolabeled using anti-NCS-1 antibody. B and C, Western blotting analysis of sucrose gradient fractions obtained as described under “Experimental Procedures.” Aliquots containing equivalent amounts of protein were collected from each gradient and pelleted with 80% aceton at –20 °C and analyzed by immunoblotting using antibodies against SgII, synaptophysin (Syn), or NCS-1.

**Experimental Procedures**

**Calcium Imaging in Single Cells—**

Changes in [Ca\(^{2+}\)]\(_i\) in single cells were measured by the fura-2 method as described by Grynkiewicz et al. (21) with minor modifications (22). In brief, the culture medium was replaced with balanced salt solution of the following composition: 150 mM NaCl, 5.0 mM KCl, 1.8 mM CaCl\(_2\), 1.2 mM MgCl\(_2\), 25 mM HEPES, and 10 mM t-glucose, pH 7.4. Cells were loaded with fura-2 by incubation with 5 \(\mu\)M fura-2 acetoxymethylester (fura-2/AM) at room temperature (20–22 °C) in balanced salt solution for 30 min, followed by a balanced salt solution wash and a further 30-min incubation to allow de-esterification of the loaded dye. Then the coverslips were mounted onto a microscope (TMD-300, Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a xenon lamp and band pass filters of 340- and 360-nm wavelength. Image data, recorded by a high sensitivity silicon intensifier target camera (C-2741-08, Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu, Japan) were regulated by a Ca\(^{2+}\) imager system (Furusawa Laboratory Appliances).

**Confocal Ca\(^{2+}\) Imaging—**

For recording subcellular Ca\(^{2+}\) signals, the cells were loaded with 5 \(\mu\)M fluo-3/AM for 30–40 min at room temperature. After a further 20–30 min for de-esterification of the acetoxymethyl ester, the coverslips were mounted on a microscope (E-600; Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a CSU-10 laser-scanning unit (Yokogawa, Tokyo, Japan) and ICCD camera (C2400-87V; Hamamatsu Photonics). Fluo-3 was excited with the 488-nm line of an argon ion laser, and the emitted fluorescence was collected at wavelengths of >515 nm. A Nikon CFI Fluor ×60 water immersion objective (1.0 numerical aperture) was used. In order to compensate for uneven distribution of the fluo-3, self ratios were calculated (\(R = F(F*)\)), which were subsequently converted into Ca\(^{2+}\) concentration using the following equation.

\[ [Ca^{2+}]_i = R_0 \frac{K_d}{[Ca^{2+}]_{NS}} - R_s \]  

(Eq. 1)

The \(K_d\) value of fluo-3 for PC12 cells was taken to be 707 nM, which was determined by an in vivo calibration method (23).

**Dopamine Release—**

The procedure for the measurement of released dopamine was the same as that described by Koizumi et al. (22). The
amount of dopamine released to superfusate and that remaining in the
cells was determined by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)
coupled with an electrochemical detector (LC-4B; Bioanalytical Systems,
West Lafayette, IN). The percentage of release was calculated by dividing
supernatant values by the sum of supernatant and pellet values.

Assay of Phosphoinositides and Inositol 1,4,5-Trisphosphate
(Ins(1,4,5)P₃)—Subconfluent cells were labeled with
myo-[3H]inositol (3 Ci/ml) for 48 h and were equilibrated for 15 min in the presence of 10
mM LiCl before challenge with UTP. Incubations were terminated by
the addition of an equal volume of 1 M trichloroacetic acid. The super-
natant was recovered and neutralized, and [3H]inositol phosphate
([3H]InsPₓ) accumulation was assessed as described previously (24).
Cell residues were extracted with acidified chloroform/methanol to re-
cover the total lipid fraction, and deacylation and separation of glycer-
ophosphoinositol (phosphates) was performed (25). Experiments to
measure changes in Ins(1,4,5)P₃ mass were performed as described
above except that cells were not prelabeled with myo-[3H]inositol, and
LiCl was omitted from the medium (26).

RESULTS

Subcellular Localization of Endogenous and Recombinant
NCS-1 in PC12 Cells—To determine the level of the expression
and subcellular distribution of NCS-1, wild type or NCS-1-
transfected PC12 cells were initially analyzed by immunoblot-
ting and subcellular fractionation. Using a specific antibody,
the levels of NCS-1 were analyzed in two different PC12 cell
clones (clones 251 and N2) and in a number of stable trans-
fected clones obtained from N2 cells (Fig. 1A). Whereas the
level of endogenous NCS-1 was similar in the wild type clones,
transfection with NCS-1 resulted in markedly enhanced levels
of expression in a number of selected clones. The clone selected
for further investigation (from here on referred to as NCS-1
cells) expressed ~6 times more NCS-1 than the wild type N2
cells.

Fig. 2 Immunocytochemical analy-
sis of NCS-1. A–B′, double immunofluo-
rescence micrographs showing the distrib-
ution of NCS-1 in NCS-1 cells. After
fixation, cells were double immuno-
stained with anti-NCS-1 antibody (A and
B) together with either anti-synaptophys-
in (A′) or anti-chromogranin B (B′) anti-
bodies. A′ and B′, superimposed images.
Note a partial colocalization of NCS-1
with synaptophysin (A′; yellow staining).
Bar, 10 µm. C and D show the subcellular
localization of NCS-1. Ultrathin frozen
sections of NCS-1 cells were immuno-
abeled with the anti-NCS-1 antibody fol-
lowed by anti-rabbit IgG conjugated to
5-nm (C) or 10-nm (D) gold particles. The
arrows indicate the presence of NCS-1 in
small vesicle tubular structures (C and D)
and the plasma membrane (D). Bars, 100
nm.
**FIG. 3.** Concentration dependence of Ca^{2+} responses to UTP in NCS-1 cells compared with control cells. 

**A**

(a) \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 1.8 \text{ mM}\)

(b) \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 0 \text{ mM}\)

UTP (\mu M): 0.1, 1, 3, 10, 30, 100, 300

Control

NCS-1

**B**

(a) \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 1.8 \text{ mM}\)

Bradykinin, UTP

NCS-1

Control

Clone 3

(b) \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 0 \text{ mM}\)

Bradykinin, UTP

NCS-1

Control

Clone 3

**C**

(a)

\([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 1.8 \text{ mM}\)

Cyclopiazonic acid (30 \mu M)

Control

NCS-1

(b)

UTP

(c)

\([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 1.8 \text{ mM}\)

DMSO

Control

NCS-1

(d)

\([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 0 \text{ mM}\)

Cyclopiazonic acid (30 \mu M)

Control

NCS-1

(e)

UTP

(f)

\([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0 = 1.8 \text{ mM}\)

DMSO

Control

NCS-1

**Enhancement of Exocytosis by NCS-1**
Data from subcellular fractionation indicated a broad distribution of NCS-1 in transfected cells. As reported (5), a certain portion of NCS-1 was soluble in the cytosol. To study the distribution of the portion of protein associated with cellular organelles, the PNS were subjected to high speed centrifugation, and the pellets were resuspended in homogenization buffer. These were then analyzed by subcellular fractionation using two-step gradients. Analysis of the fractions obtained from the first (velocity) gradients, which separates organelles according to their size, revealed a broad distribution of NCS-1. In these velocity gradients, two peaks of NCS-1 were observed: one in the lighter fractions and the second in fractions 7–9 (Fig. 1B). This distribution is similar to that of synaptophysin, a protein present in the membrane of vesicles highly related to synaptic vesicles (referred to as synaptic-like microvesicles) (27) and known to recycle through the early endosomal compartment in PC12 cells (28, 29). A well known marker of the secretory granules, SgII (30), peaked in fractions 4–8, where some synaptophysin and NCS-1 were also present. In order to further analyze whether a portion of NCS-1 could be present in the membranes of secretory granules, aliquots of fractions 4–8 were collected and loaded on the equilibrium gradients in order to achieve separation of organelles according to their density. Western blotting analysis of the fractions from these gradients revealed the presence of NCS-1 mainly in the earlier fractions. This distribution was again very similar to that of synaptophysin. There was no colocalization of NCS-1 with the marker for secretory granules, SgII, which was in the denser fractions.

The cellular localization of NCS-1 in stably transfected PC12 cells was also studied by immunofluorescence and immunocytochemistry. As shown in Fig. 2, A and B, when NCS-1 cells were labeled with NCS-1 antibodies, intense immunofluorescence was seen in a large number of cells (about 60%). The immunostaining for NCS-1 was partially diffuse in the positive cells in agreement with its partial distribution in the cytosol (Fig. 2, A and B) (5). The anti-NCS-1 antibody also gave a punctate staining and showed partial colocalization with the immunostaining pattern of synaptophysin (see Fig. 2, A–A’). In contrast, very little colocalization was observed with the immunofluorescent pattern of chromogranin B, a well known marker for the secretory granules of PC12 cells (Fig. 2, B–B’). In addition, NCS-1 immunostaining was observed at the periphery of the positive cells, raising the possibility that a certain amount of the protein could be bound to the plasma membrane. To confirm this possibility, ultrathin frozen sections prepared from NCS-1 cells were immunolabeled with anti-NCS-1 antibodies and secondary labeled with anti-rabbit IgG conjugated to 5-nm gold particles. As shown in Fig. 2, C and D, this revealed intracellular NCS-1 immunoreactivity, with gold particles distributed both in the cytoplasm and on small clear vesicles and tubules. In line with the immunofluorescence data, some gold particles were also found to decorate the plasma membrane, thus confirming the presence of NCS-1 at the cell surface in NCS-1 cells.

Enhancement by NCS-1 of Ca2+ Responses to UTP or Bradykinin—Stimulation of PC12 cells with the P2Y2-selective agonist UTP results in the activation of phospholipase C (PLC) and the subsequent generation of Ins(1,4,5)P3. Indeed, U73122 (10 µM), an inhibitor of PLC, substantially decreased the UTP-evoked elevation in intracellular Ca2+ concentration ([Ca2+]i) in the cells. In the presence of U73122, the UTP-evoked [Ca2+]i was decreased by 93.3 ± 0.5% (n = 53 cells from two independent experiments). In PC12 cells, the normal consequence of UTP stimulation is the rapid release of Ca2+ from intracellular Ins(1,4,5)P3-sensitive stores, followed by a more sustained Ca2+ entry across plasma membrane in response to store depletion (capacitative Ca2+ entry (CCE)) (31). In the current study, a brief UTP stimulation caused a transient pattern of [Ca2+]i, elevation consistent with Ca2+ mobilization and CCE in both vector-transfected control and NCS-1 cells in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 3A). However, UTP was significantly more potent in NCS-1 cells than in control cells (EC50 = 19 and 81 µM, respectively). Furthermore, the maximal [Ca2+]i responses evoked by 300 µM UTP were significantly greater in NCS-1 cells than control cells (363 ± 52 nM versus 269 ± 31 nM, p < 0.05). The enhancement of Ca2+ responses was not a clonal artifact, because in another NCS-1-expressing clonal cell line (clone 3) whose NCS-1 levels are greater than control but less than that of NCS-1 cells, UTP was more potent than in control cells (Fig. 3A, c). Bradykinin also elevates [Ca2+]i, in PC12 cells via the PLC-coupled bradykinin B2 receptor (32). Similar to the UTP-mediated responses, bradykinin elevated [Ca2+]i in NCS-1 cells more potently than in control cells (EC50 values; 6.0 and 8.5 nM, respectively), and the maximal response was again enhanced (315 ± 34 nM versus 232 ± 21 nM, p < 0.05; 100 nM bradykinin) (Fig. 3D). This enhancement by NCS-1 of both UTP- and bradykinin-evoked Ca2+ signaling in NCS-1 cells was also apparent in the absence of extracellular Ca2+ (Ca2+-o) (Fig. 3, A (b) and B (b)), indicating that the Ca2+ release process had itself been potentiated. U73122 (10 µM) also inhibited the Ca2+ responses to UTP in NCS-1 cells ([Ca2+]i), elevation was 5.3 ± 0.62% of that with UTP alone; n = 52 cells from two independent experiments). In contrast to these differences in UTP- and bradykinin-evoked responses between NCS-1 cells and control cells, the elevations in [Ca2+]i, evoked by depolarization with high K+ (25–100 mM) were almost identical in control and NCS-1 cells (Fig. 3B, a).

To ascertain whether the CCE process per se was affected by NCS-1, we determined CCE directly in control and NCS-1 cells. CCE was activated by inhibiting the Ca2+-ATPase of the endoplasmic reticulum using cyclopiazonic acid (30 µM). The elevations of [Ca2+]i, induced by cyclopiazonic acid were not different in control and NCS-1 cells (Fig. 3C, e and d; 117.2 ± 16.5% of control, p > 0.05, n = 32 cells), indicating that CCE per se was unaffected by overexpression of NCS-1. We next monitored Ca2+ release and CCE separately to investigate the relationship between UTP-evoked Ca2+ release and CCE in the absence of Ca2+o. UTP produced concentration-dependent elevations of [Ca2+]i, in both control and NCS-1 cells (Fig. 3C, b and e). After the removal of UTP, readmittance of Ca2+-o produced a sustained rise in [Ca2+]i, which slowly returned to basal levels after ~10 min. This rise was a consequence of CCE and was dependent upon the initial UTP concentration (Fig. 3C, b, c, e, and f). In other words, the extent of CCE is related to the extent of the UTP-mediated store depletion.

In addition to Ins(1,4,5)P3 receptors, PC12 cells express functional type 2 ryanodine receptors on intracellular Ca2+ stores (33, 34). Activation of these Ca2+ release channels with 40 mM caffeine caused a rapid transient elevation in [Ca2+]i, of similar magnitude in control and NCS-1 cells (85.7 ± 19.2% of control, release evoked by various concentrations of UTP (10–1000 µM, shown on the left side of each trace) in the absence of Ca2+-o, and Ca2+ entry evoked by readmittion of Ca2+-o in control (b) and NCS-1 cells (c). The traces represent averaged responses from 28–54 cells. Cells were stimulated with UTP for 2 min (horizontal closed bars) and washed by UTP-free/Ca2+-free medium for another 1 min, and then Ca2+ (1.8 mM) was readded. Ca2+ responses in C (b) and C (e) are summarized in C (c) and C (f), respectively. The maximal Ca2+ release (open circles) and Ca2+ entry (closed circles) were plotted against the UTP concentration. The amplitude of initial Ca2+ release correlates to that of the subsequent Ca2+ entry in both clones. Curves were fitted using a Hill equation.
FIG. 4. Characterization of elementary Ca\textsuperscript{2+} events in PC12 cells. A, a phase-contrast image of NCS-1 cells. Each trace in B shows the time course of spontaneous and UTP (0.3 \textmu M)-evoked changes in [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}], at sites a–c in A. Characteristic features of these elementary Ca\textsuperscript{2+} release signals are summarized in C and D. In C, bars and circles indicate the fraction of cells that showed elementary Ca\textsuperscript{2+} release signals and the number of initiation sites for the elementary events (per cell) in the absence (−UTP) or presence of UTP (+UTP), respectively. In D, bars and circles show event amplitude and frequency of spontaneous or the UTP (0.3 \textmu M)-evoked Ca\textsuperscript{2+} release events, respectively. The data are mean ± S.E. of 58–79 cells. Statistical analysis was performed by paired Student’s t test. E (a) illustrates pseudocolor images of an elementary Ca\textsuperscript{2+} release event (arrowhead) evoked by 0.1 \textmu M UTP in an NCS-1 cell. A higher UTP concentration (3 \textmu M) applied subsequently resulted in a global Ca\textsuperscript{2+} response (E (b)). The time course of the UTP-evoked rise in [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}], at the site indicated by the arrowhead in E is plotted in F.
Since we have reported that luminal \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]\) affects the activity of both \(\text{Ins}(1,4,5)P_3\) receptors and ryanodine receptors in PC12 cells (35, 36), the \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\) contents of the intracellular stores in control and NCS-1 cells were compared. In the absence of \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\), ionomycin (5 \(\mu\)M) releases almost all \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\) from the intracellular
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stores of PC12 cells (37). In NCS-1 cells, ionomycin-mediated elevations in [Ca^{2+}], were similar to those in control cells (96.1 ± 6.3% of control, n = 32 cells from two independent experiments), indicating similar luminal Ca^{2+} contents in the two cell lines.

Elementary Ca^{2+} Release Events in NCS-1 Cells—Elementary Ca^{2+} release signals, such as puffs and sparks, are the building blocks for global Ca^{2+} signals (38, 39). Such elementary events have been observed in a wide variety of cell types including PC12 cells (35). Thus, using confocal microscopy, we investigated whether overexpression of NCS-1 affects elementary Ca^{2+} release events. Elementary Ca^{2+} signals were observed spontaneously (Fig. 4B, left traces), and these were facilitated upon stimulation with UTP concentrations (0.1 or 0.3 μM) that were subthreshold for global Ca^{2+} signaling. These elementary Ca^{2+} events were observed even in the absence of Ca^{2+}, suggesting that they were mainly due to Ca^{2+} release from Ca^{2+} stores. Low concentration (0.3 μM) of UTP increased both the number of responding cells and the number of active elementary Ca^{2+} release sites (Fig. 4C), and enhanced the event amplitude and frequency (Fig. 4D). When NCS-1 cells were stimulated with higher (e.g., 3 μM) concentrations of UTP, these elementary events were followed by global Ca^{2+} signals (Fig. 4E and F). In control cells, spontaneous elementary Ca^{2+} events also occurred, but there were no significant differences with NCS-1 cells in either the proportion of cells in which events were observed or the event amplitude. However, in control cells, 0.3 μM UTP activated fewer additional elementary Ca^{2+} release sites in fewer cells. Furthermore, the frequency of UTP-stimulated elementary events was lower than that seen in NCS-1 cells. These data demonstrate that overexpression of NCS-1 enhanced elementary Ca^{2+} release events mediated by PLC-linked GPCRs, and as a consequence the NCS-1-expressing cells displayed global Ca^{2+} signals at low levels of stimulation.

NCS-1 Enhances Secretion Evoked by UTP but Not by High K—UTP evokes the release of dopamine from PC12 cells (31), and the effects of NCS-1 overexpression on UTP-evoked secretion responses were therefore investigated. The UTP-evoked release of dopamine into the superfusate was determined by HPLC. UTP caused the release of dopamine in a concentration-dependent manner in control and NCS-1 cells. At each UTP concentration, there was a significantly greater release of dopamine in NCS-1 cells compared with control cells (Fig. 5). We also examined the UTP-evoked release of dopamine in clone 3 cells (see Fig. 3A, c). The dopamine release by clone 3 cells was greater than control but less than that of NCS-1 cells. This UTP-evoked release of dopamine was dependent on Ca^{2+}, in all cell lines (Fig. 5, triangles). There was no significant difference in spontaneous or high K+ (25–100 mM)-evoked dopamine release between control, NCS-1 and clone 3 cells. In addition, no significant difference was observed in total cellular dopamine content between the clones (control, 287.8 ± 22.6 (n = 9); NCS-1 cell, 291.6 ± 30.7 (n = 9) ng/dish; p > 0.05).

Enhancement of Phosphoinositide Signaling by NCS-1—Finally, the levels of various phosphoinositides in both clones were investigated (Fig. 6). Under basal conditions, there was no significant difference in [H]PtdIns levels between the two clones (Fig. 6A, a). In control cells, [H]phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate (PtdIns(4)P) and [H]PtdIns(4,5)P_2 represented 1.0 and 2.2% of the total phosphoinositide pool, respectively. In NCS-1 cells, the levels of both PtdIns(4)P and PtdIns(4,5)P_2 were significantly increased to 2.2 and 3.7% of the total phosphoinositide pool, respectively (Fig. 6A, a–c). Stimulation of both clones with UTP (300 μM) resulted in accumulation of [H]InsP_3 against a Li+ block of inositol monophosphatase (Fig. 6A, d). The response to UTP was significantly enhanced in NCS-1 cells such that accumulation was greater (198% over basal at 20 min compared with 83% in vector controls) (Fig. 6A, d). UTP caused an increase in Ins(1,4,5)P_3 mass in control cells (Fig. 6B). There was a marked potentiation in the magnitude (228% over basal level at 20 s compared with 146% in vector controls) and the duration of the Ins(1,4,5)P_3 response to UTP in NCS-1 cells (Fig. 6B).

DISCUSSION

Subcellular Localization of NCS-1 and Implications for Its Functional Role—NCS-1 showed a broad subcellular localization in PC12 cells, being partially distributed in the cytoplasm and associated with vesicles and tubular-like structures. The morphological and biochemical results suggest that some NCS-1 may be associated with the membrane of the synaptic-like microvesicles. In contrast to previous observations (5), our results demonstrate that NCS-1 is mainly not associated with the membranes of secretory granules. Interestingly, NCS-1 is also associated with the plasma membrane. This localization may be consistent with the possible role of NCS-1 in the modulation of the function of plasma membrane channels and receptors (40), especially of voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels (7–9). On the other hand, NCS-1 at the plasma membrane and on vesicle membranes may play an important role in the metabolism of phosphoinositides. This phospholipid family is involved in both signal transduction and also in vesicle formation from the plasma membrane, trans-Golgi network and endosomes (41). In yeast, the homologue of NCS-1 has been demonstrated to exist in a complex with and to activate the yeast PtdIns4K, phosphatidylinositol 4-OH kinase (1), and very recent data have shown a direct interaction of NCS-1 with PtdIns4K in eukaryotic cells as well (42). The membranous distribution of NCS-1 in the present study raises the possibility that NCS-1 may contribute to the activation and recruitment of PtdIns4K to the plasma membrane (or other organelles), allowing an increase of PtdIns metabolism and synthesis of the signaling molecule Ins(1,4,5)P_3, which therefore would affect subsequent
in intracellular responses such as Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling and exocytosis (see Fig. 7).

Overexpression of NCS-1 Enhances Elementary and Global Ca\(^{2+}\) Signaling and Secretory Responses—PC12 cells express both voltage- (43) and ligand-gated channels (44) through which Ca\(^{2+}\) entry is able to evoke exocytosis. Of particular relevance to the current study, PC12 cells express P2X\(_2\) non-selective cation channels (45). Although ATP effectively activates this receptor, UTP evokes little (0–6% of the maximal ATP response) (46) or no (45) current through this channel. UTP-mediated [Ca\(^{2+}\)], responses in these cells can therefore be considered to be mediated via activation of PLC-coupled, P2Y\(_2\) receptors. Despite the ability of UTP to elevate [Ca\(^{2+}\)], in the absence of Ca\(^{2+}\), the effects of UTP on exocytosis were totally dependent upon Ca\(^{2+}\). We demonstrated that the entry of Ca\(^{2+}\) across the plasma membrane is a consequence of CCE and that its magnitude is dependent upon the amplitude of the UTP-evoked elevation of [Ca\(^{2+}\)], (as an index of the extent of store depletion). Thus, CCE, in response to the depletion of intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) stores, links the activation of PLC-coupled P2Y\(_2\) receptors to exocytotic events in PC12 cells. The findings that bradykinin-evoked release of [H\(^+\)] noradrenaline from PC12 cells was largely inhibited either by the removal of Ca\(^{2+}\) or by the addition of SK&F96365, an inhibitor of CCE (47) and that caffeine-mediated release of Ca\(^{2+}\) from intracellular stores via ryanodine receptors triggers secretion from PC12 cells in a manner dependent upon Ca\(^{2+}\) (34, 48) further support the role of CCE in exocytosis.

NCS-1 did not influence depolarization (high K\(^+\))-evoked exocytosis, supporting a previous observation that Ca\(^{2+}\) sensitivity of the exocytotic process is not affected by NCS-1 overexpression (5). In addition, the effect of NCS-1 on voltage-gated Ca\(^{2+}\) channels in PC12 cells appears to be negligible. The ability of NCS-1 to enhance exocytosis in PC12 cells therefore implies that this protein enhances CCE. However, CCE resulting from store depletion by inhibition of the endoplasmic reticulum Ca\(^{2+}\)-ATPase with cyclopiazonic acid was unaffected. Furthermore, there was no difference in stored Ca\(^{2+}\) contents or in responses to caffeine between the clones (see “Results”). These data demonstrate that the CCE mechanism per se was not potentiated by NCS-1 overexpression and indicate that NCS-1 exerts its effects on secretion through enhanced GPCR-mediated Ca\(^{2+}\) release from intracellular stores. Our data are fully in accord with this hypothesis and demonstrate that overexpression of NCS-1 enhances elementary and global Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling in response to GPCR activation. Although the amplitudes of the initial, transient agonist-mediated global Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling events were in excess of the more sustained elevation due to CCE, the former were unable to evoke exocytosis. This is in agreement with previous studies demonstrating that CCE in response to depletion of either Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\) or ryanodine-sensitive stores triggers exocytosis more efficiently than the Ca\(^{2+}\) release process (31, 34, 48, 49). The reason for this is unclear. The exocytotic Ca\(^{2+}\) sensors appear to possess a low affinity for Ca\(^{2+}\), requiring 10–100 \(\mu\)M for activation (50, 51). Although global measurements following depolarization reveal [Ca\(^{2+}\)], on the order of 1 \(\mu\)M in many cell types, it is believed that much higher local [Ca\(^{2+}\)], is achieved in subplasmalemmal microdomains due to the spatial packing of voltage-gated Ca\(^{2+}\) channels (52, 53). It is likely, therefore, that the spatial arrangement of Ca\(^{2+}\) channels (e.g. CCE channels and Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\) receptors) and the exocytotic machinery dictate whether Ca\(^{2+}\) fluxes are able to regulate vesicular release.

Overexpression of NCS-1 also enhanced the elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) release events. Such elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) signals were brief (lifetime \(-1\) s) [Ca\(^{2+}\)], increases with a spatial spread of \(-3\)–\(6\) \(\mu\)M. In control cells, the amplitudes of the elementary events typically ranged from 80 to 100 nM, and the frequency was generally less than 0.1 Hz (0.06–0.1 Hz). All of these characteristic features are well in accord with elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) events previously described in nerve growth factor-differentiated PC12 cells (55). Without stimulation (–UTP), there was little difference in the characteristics of elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) release events between control and NCS-1 cells. However, upon stimulation with UTP, the number of cells showing elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) signals increased, as did the number of active elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) release sites within individual cells. In addition, the frequency of the events was dramatically enhanced. Global Ca\(^{2+}\) signals arise via the coordinated recruitment of elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) release sites (35, 39, 54). The potentiation of elementary Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling in NCS-1 cells therefore underlies their propensity to show global Ca\(^{2+}\) signals with low UTP concentrations.

Overexpression of NCS-1 Increases the Level of Polyphosphoinositides and Facilitates Agonist-mediated Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\) Production—Varieties of mechanisms have been proposed to account for the role of NCS-1 in synaptic enhancement and in exocytosis. Probable explanations for the NCS-1-evoked enhancement may be due to modulation of ion channels such as voltage-gated Ca\(^{2+}\) channels (7–9) and A-type K\(^+\) channels (10). Recently, NCS-1 has been identified as an upstream activator of a specific isof orm of PtdIns4K, phosphatidylinositol 4-OH kinase, in yeast (1). Here we demonstrated that in PC12 cells vertebrate NCS-1 significantly increased the levels of both PtdIns(4)P and PtdIns(4,5)P\(_2\) without affecting those of PtdIns and facilitated Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\) production in response to UTP, an agonist to PLC\(~\beta\)-linked GPCRs. We therefore propose the following model for mechanisms that may underlie the enhancement by NCS-1 of exocytosis (see Fig. 7). First, NCS-1 binds to PtdIns4K located on the plasma membrane (or synaptic vesicles) and up-regulates its activity. This is followed by an increase in the local production of PtdIns(4)P and PtdIns(4,5)P\(_2\) which serves as substrate for PLC, resulting in an increase in the production of Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\) and diacylglycerol in response to UTP (or bradykinin). This local increase in Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\) evokes elementary and global Ca\(^{2+}\) responses including both Ca\(^{2+}\) release via the Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\) receptor and CCE, leading to an enhancement of the secretory response. The dynamics of the interaction between PtdIns4K and NCS-1 remain to be investigated in detail. The fact that the interaction and activation of phosphatidylinositol 4-OH kinase/PtdIns4K is dependent on the myristoylation of NCS-1 suggests that the interaction should occur in a membranous environment. NCS-1, which is also present on the synaptic vesicle fraction, could translocate to the plasma membrane upon stimulation and thereby either recruit PtdIns4K to the plasmamembrane or activate preexisting PtdIns4K (55). The stable PC12 cells now allow us to address these issues.

In summary, we have for the first time demonstrated a role of mammalian NCS-1, as an important member of this family of EF-hand of Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding proteins, in phosphoinositide turnover, Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling, and exocytosis. We have presented evidence that NCS-1 enhances exocytosis by increasing Ca\(^{2+}\) signaling, which involves enhanced generation of Ins(1,4,5)P\(_3\). This is a novel regulatory mechanism of exocytosis that might involve the activation of PtdIns4K. The revealed regulatory mechanisms would provide the basis to study their importance in other neurosecretory cells such as chromaffin cells or neurons.

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