On the role of calcium during chemotactic signalling and differentiation of the cellular slime mould Dictyostelium discoideum

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ABSTRACT Transient cytosolic calcium elevations are required for chemotaxis and differentiation of Dictyostelium discoideum since Ca2+ chelating buffers introduced into the cells by scrape loading inhibited motility as well as orientation in a Ca²⁺ specific manner. Ca²⁺ changes are provided either by intrinsic cytosolic Ca²⁺ oscillations that can be determined as periodic Ca²⁺ efflux, or by receptor-mediated Ca2+ liberation from the InsP3-sensitive store and Ca2+ influx. Cytosolic Ca²⁺ homeostasis as well as oscillations seem to be regulated by two different Ca²⁺ stores, the acidosomes and the InsP₃-sensitive store, both of which are dependent on Ca²⁺ pumps and V-type H⁺ ATPases, Ca²⁺ transients are sensed by calmodulin-binding proteins. The latter have been detected in Dictyostelium by 125I-calmodulin labeling. A calmodulin-dependent protein phosphatase, calcineurin A, was cloned, sequenced, purified and characterized biochemically. Overproduction of calcineurin A as well as antisense constructs will help to the elucidation of its function in signal transduction. Surprisingly, protein synthesis is also controlled by Ca2+/calmodulin. An integral ribosomal protein of the 60S subunit, L19, proved to be a calmodulin-binding protein and calmodulin antagonists of different classes, inhibited in vitro translation of Dictyostelium and wheat germ extracts.

KEY WORDS: cAMP, cGMP, oscillation, calcineurin, calmodulin

Introduction

The cellular slime mould serves as a model organism to study phagocytosis, chemotaxis, motility, bone-resorption, oscillations and differentiation (for review see Gerisch, 1987; Devreotes, 1989; Wurster *et al.*, 1990; Mutzel, 1991; Van Haastert, 1991).

Single motile cells feed on bacteria. Starvation induces a developmental program. cAMP is synthesized and released in a pulsatile manner from aggregation centers and attracts neighbouring cells to migrate to the center. cAMP binds to cell surface receptors (CAR1-4) and initiates a signalling cascade which includes transient increases of InsP₃, cGMP and finally cAMP. cAMP is relayed and attracts distantly located cells, thereby increasing the morphogenetic field of aggregating cells stepwise to 1-2 cm or 100,000 cells. The pulsatile release of cAMP results in concentric or spiral-rings of amoebae which finally collect in mounds. These mounds culminate or transform into a migrating slug which contains an organizing tip of prestalk cells and a larger rear end of prespore cells. This slug is sensitive to heat, light and humidity. After selection of a suitable place in the decaying foil a fruiting body is formed in a sort of gastrulation process whereby the tip invaginates forming a stalk and raises the spore mass. In the presence of bacteria single amoebae hatch from the spores.

We are interested in the mechanism of signal transduction following cAMP-binding, leading to chemotaxis, differentiation and oscillations. We found that cAMP causes a substantial amount of Ca²⁺ influx and study the role of calcium in signal transduction.

Calcium influx

Ca²⁺ influx varies during differentiation. At the beginning influx is small, increases after 3 h and becomes maximal at 5 h. It starts 6-12 s after cAMP addition and peaks within 30 sec. It saturates at an extracellular calcium concentration of about 5-10 μ M with a K_{0.5} of 2 μ M and yields a rate of influx of 3x10⁸ Ca²⁺ ions per cell per min. This would result in an increase of Ca_i of 10-15 μ M if no Ca²⁺ would be buffered or sequestered (Wick *et al.*, 1978; Bumann *et al.*, 1984).

There exist $2x10^8$ high affinity Ca^{2+} binding sites per cell at the cell surface with a K_{0.5} of 2 µM which are azide sensitive (Jaworski and Malchow, unpublished results), as is Ca^{2+} influx (Böhme *et al.*, 1987).

Abbreviations used in this paper: CaM, calmodulin; cAR, cAMP receptor; InsP₈, inositol 1,4,5, triphosphate; PLC, phospholipase C.

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Fig. 1. Calmidazolium induces a transient Ca_i increase in aggregative *Dictyostelium* cells. 15 μ l 100 μ M calmidazolium were added to 100 μ l cells deposited on a slide, after scrape-loading with fura-2 (Schlatterer et al., 1992). The Ca_i changes were recorded as described (Schlatterer et al., 1994) before (3 pictures) and after application of calmidazolium. The time point of addition is marked by an arrowhead. The pictures were taken 5 sec apart. The colour bar indicates the R 340/380 value which is proportional to the Ca_i concentration. The external Ca²⁺ concentration was 1 mM.

Since Ca²⁺ influx is measured as decrease of the extracellular Ca²⁺ concentration with a Ca²⁺ sensitive electrode or by association of ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ with the cells, Ca²⁺ influx could reflect merely binding to the cells. However, receptor mediated influx is subject to inhibition by drugs that act on Ca²⁺ transport ATPase or V-type H⁺ ATPase (Flaadt *et al.*, 1993a), see below. Moreover, Ca²⁺ influx is followed by Ca²⁺ efflux. The amount of efflux is larger than influx during the beginning of differentiation. Later on, both are of equal size. During aggregation efflux gradually ceases and becomes totally absent. Under this condition Ca²⁺ entry can be stimulated more than twenty times in the absence of Ca²⁺ efflux. These results suggest that cAMP causes Ca²⁺ entry into the cell and that Ca²⁺ binding to the cell surface is a transitory event.

Mechanism of Ca2+ influx

The driving force for Ca²⁺ entry is a Ca²⁺ transport ATPase which sequesters Ca²⁺ into an InsP₃-sensitive pool. A V-type H⁺ ATPase seems to take part in this process similar to the situation in pancreatic acinar cells (Europe-Finner and Newell, 1986; Thevenod *et al.*, 1991; Flaadt *et al.*, 1993a).

Surprisingly, even in permeabilized cells, receptor-mediated Ca²⁺ uptake was still in function and the Ca²⁺ flux was blocked by inhibition of Ca²⁺ transport ATPase or H⁺ ATPase activity in permeabilized cells as well as in intact cells.

Our working hypothesis is that receptor-mediated activation of phospholipase C (PLC) yields InsP₃ which releases Ca²⁺ from the InsP₃-sensitive pool. The empty store could elicit Ca²⁺ entry at the plasma membrane and a feedback activation of Ca²⁺ transport into the store. Concomitantly with InsP₃ formation cAMP activates membrane-bound guanylate cyclase activity. We have shown in streamer F mutants that display large aggregation territories due to a lack of cGMP phosphodiesterase, an enhanced and prolonged cAMP-induced Ca^{2+} entry. We deduced that cGMP could be involved in opening of Ca^{2+} channels similar as in visual transduction (Menz *et al.*, 1991). Indeed, a membrane-permeable cGMP-derivative activated the cAMPinduced Ca^{2+} entry whereas cGMP which remains externally reduced the response due to receptor-desensitization (Flaadt *et*



Fig. 2. Identification and functional cloning of CaM-binding proteins from *Dictyostelium*. The left part of the figure shows binding of ¹²⁵labeled D. discoideum CaM to total extract proteins from aggregative cells (t_{e}) blotted to a nitrocellulose membrane. (Lane 1) Binding in the presence of 0.1 mM CaCl₂; (lane 2) binding in the presence of 2 mM EGTA. The ca. 80 kDa band was identified as the Dictyostelium homolog of calcineurin, the 22 kDa band is the Dictyostelium CaM-binding homolog of mammalian ribosomal protein L19. The right part of the figure shows functional isolation of a cDNA clone for Dictyostelium calcineurin from a λ gt11 lysogen expression library. In a background of 5000 recombinant clones a single colony expressing CaM-binding activity was identified (arrowhead). The cDNA insert from this clone encoded the C-terminal half of Dictyostelium calcineurin.



al., 1993b). However, cGMP regulation is not a prerequisite for Ca²⁺ entry, since the latter can occur in the absence of cGMP (Van Haastert, personal communication). cGMP seems to be used to increase Ca²⁺ entry during spike formation (see below).

Likewise, $G\alpha^2$ which is thought to activate PLC is not necessary for about half of the Ca²⁺ flux (Milne and Devoreotes, 1993). Therefore, either InsP₃ can be formed in the absence of PLC activity which recently has been shown to occur by hydrolysis of InsP₅ (Drayer *et al.*, 1994) or a separate pathway of Ca²⁺ entry must exist. Interestingly, even cells lacking G α 2 but possessing the full amount of cell surface receptor cAR1 (strain JM-1) sequester Ca²⁺ into the InsP₃-sensitive store (unpublished).

Therefore, the PLC-independent formation of InsP₃ could be a major pathway in *Dictyostelium*. Alternatively, another messenger is involved in the regulation of the InsP₃-sensitive store.

Determination of intracellular calcium (Cai)

To our surprise stimulation with low concentrations of cAMP did not cause an increase in Ca_i as determined in single cells by scrape-loading of fura-2 (Schlatterer *et al.*, 1992). Measurement in cell suspension with acquorin expressing cells led to tiny short increases at low temperature (Saran *et al.*, 1994). An explanation to this discrepancy of the expected Ca²⁺. This was demonstrated when cells were permeabilized with 3 mg/ml saponin in the presence of 1 mM external Ca²⁺. Even after this harsh treatment the initial increase in Ca_i was reduced to the resting level of the cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentration (Schlatterer *et al.*, 1992).

Cytosolic Ca_i increases were detected when high cAMP concentrations (100 μ M) were applied (Schlatterer *et al.*, 1994). Under these conditions receptor-mediated Ca²⁺ entry was independent of G α 2 and occurred even in vegetative cells. An increase of 50-100 nM over the basal level of 50 nM was found. Besides high cAMP concentrations calmidazolium induced an increase of Ca_i in *Dictyostelium* (Fig. 1). The rise is preferentially due to Ca²⁺ entry at the plasma membrane (Schlatterer, 1996). Fig. 3. Extracellular Ca²⁺ oscillations in mutant 21a. Note that oscillations begin with Ca²⁺ efflux indicating that Ca, oscillates. A 10 nM cAMP pulse did not disturb the oscillations and induced a small amount of Ca²⁺ release. The extracellular Ca²⁺ concentration was recorded with a Ca²⁺ sensitive electrode as described (Menz et al., 1991) in a suspension of 1×10^8 cells per ml 5 h after induction of differentiation (Menz, 1988). The Ca²⁺ efflux amounted to 30 pmol per 10^7 cells.

Calcium sequestering organelles have been characterized by electron probe microanalysis (Schlatterer *et al.*, 1994). In addition to high amounts of Ca²⁺ the mass dense granules contained phosphate and either K⁺ or Mg²⁺, depending on the state of differentiation.

Although the Ca²⁺ concentration inside the cell is not increasing to a large extent, definite, possibly local Ca²⁺ transients, do occur under physiological conditions. What then is the role of Ca²⁺ elevations? At first we consider calmodulin-binding proteins.

Calmodulin-binding proteins

One of the main primary receptors for elevated intracellular Ca2+ in eukaryotic cells is calmodulin which, when complexed with Ca2+, activates a number of target enzymes including protein kinases and protein phosphatases. In order to analyze these targets in Dictyostelium we are investigating, both at the biochemical and molecular level, proteins that bind to Ca2+/CaM. Work from this and other laboratories has demonstrated the presence of a number of specific CaM-binding proteins in crude extracts and subcellular fractions (Winckler et al., 1991). Probing protein blots from Dictyostelium cell extracts with ¹²⁵I-labeled Dictyostelium CaM revealed several specific high-affinity CaMbinding proteins (Winckler et al., 1991). In parallel, we have developed a novel technique for direct, functional isolation of cDNA clones for CaM-binding proteins by probing cDNA expression libraries with labeled CaM (Mutzel et al., 1990; Mutzel, 1994). Using this approach, cDNA clones for a CaM-dependent protein phosphatase and for a ribosomal protein of the 60S subunit were isolated (Fig. 2).

Calcineurin

Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein phosphatase (calcineurin) plays a crucial role in the transduction of intracellular Ca²⁺ signals to the gene level. In lymphocytes, the enzyme is a

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major target of immunophilin-immunosuppressant complexes (Liu et al., 1991) which inhibit its phosphatase activity. Concomitant with this inhibition are effects on the expression of interleukin genes. We have isolated and characterized a calcineurin homolog from Dictyostelium (Dammann et al., 1996). There is evidence that calcineurin is part of a signaling cascade in Dictyostelium that regulates cell differentiation, similar to the situation in lymphocytes: in vitro differentiation studies by Gross and his co-workers (J. Gross, personal communication) show that cell-type proportions in Dictyostelium can be shifted by treatment both with calmodulin antagonists and the immunosuppressors, cyclosporin A and FK506. Recombinant D. discoideum cells that overexpress calcineurin (H. Dammann and R. Mutsel, unpublished) are analyzed, and we are trying to reduce the concentration of the protein by expression of antisense mRNA, and to disrupt the gene for calcineurin by homologous recombination. The reverse genetic approach is particularly promising in Dictyostelium since, unlike higher eukaryotes (or even yeast cells) this organism harbors only a single calcineurin gene. Since the Dictyostelium enzyme displays particular primary structure features as compared to its homologs from other eukaryotes (extra domains at both termini, a 4-fold repeated hexapeptide sequence immediately C-terminal from the putative autoinhibitory site) we are also investigating its biochemical properties. Recombinant protein was purified from E. coli cells and its biochemical properties determined (Damman et al., 1996). We recently established a Dictyostelium cell line that over-expresses the protein about 50-fold, and we have developed a rapid and efficient purification strategy. The availability of pure Dictyostelium calcineurin A will now greatly facilitate its further biochemical and structural analysis.

Regulation of protein synthesis

We have discovered a ribosomal Ca2+/calmodulin-binding protein in D. discoideum that corresponds to the large ribosomal subunit protein L19 from mammalian cells and its homologs from archaebacteria (Sonnemann et al., 1991). Hypothesizing that this protein could confer calmodulin regulation to the translation of mRNAs, we have initiated an investigation of the regulation of protein synthesis in Dictyostelium. An in vitro translation system has been established, and we find that elongation of nascent peptides in this system can indeed be specifically inhibited by calmodulin antagonists and monoclonal antibodies against D. discoideum calmodulin (Sonnemann et al., 1993). These results are interesting in the light of recently published observations showing that in human erbB-2 overexpressing tumor cells the mRNA for L19 is specifically overexpressed (Henry et al., 1993). We are presently constructing Dictyostelium mutants with altered expression and primary structure of L19. In vitro translation assays using extracts from such cell lines will help understanding the role of L19 in protein synthesis and its regulation.

Chemotaxis

Chemotactic movement is characterized by orientation and cell motility. To assess the question whether Ca^{2+} transients are required for motility and/or orientation cells were loaded with Ca^{2+} buffers of different Ca^{2+} binding affinity (Schlatterer and

Malchow, 1993; Unterweger and Schlatterer, 1995). It turned out that both motility and orientation depended on Ca²⁺ elevations. Inhibition of orientation was less sensitive to extracellular Ca2+ chelation than motility indicating that smaller Ca2+ changes are sufficient for orientation to proceed. During pseudopod formation a gradient of Ca, increasing from the front to the rear was observed (Schlatterer et al., 1994). In the streamer F mutants myosin II association with the cell cortex is enhanced and prolonged (Liu and Newell 1988). The same time dependence of wild-type and mutants was found for the rate of Ca2+ influx, indicating that Ca2+ plays a role in contraction (Menz et al., 1991). Specifically we found an inhibition of phosphorylation of myosin II heavy chains by Ca2+ (Malchow et al., 1981) which was confirmed by Yumura and Kitanishi-Yumura (1993). Phosphorylation of myosin heavy chain results in removal of myosin from actin foci at the plasma membrane and subsequent dissociation of the myosin rods.

Oscillations

As stated above cAMP is synthesized and released in a periodic manner. Light scattering measurements revealed the existence of spikes and sinus oscillations (Gerisch and Hess, 1974). Only the former are accompanied by large changes in cyclic nucleotide concentrations (Gerisch and Wick, 1975; Bumann et al., 1986). There exists a basal (extracellular) Ca2+ oscillation, which is transformed into spikes during signal relay (Bumann et al., 1984, 1986). Ca, oscillations could not yet be detected, probably because of the efficient Ca2+ sequestration. However, inhibitors of Ca2+ transport ATPases or H+ ATPases blocked light scattering spikes (unpublished). Besides InsP₃-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores, acidosomes also seem to regulate Ca, in Dictyostelium (Rooney and Gross, 1992). Acidosomes are sensitive to the Vtype H⁺ ATPase inhibitor bafilomycin A1 whereas the InsP₃-sensitive pool is not; the latter is blocked by another V-type H+ ATPase inhibitor, NBD-CI (Flaadt et al., 1993a). Since these compounds interfered transiently with spike formation, we infer that Cai oscillations occur and that both Ca2+ stores are intimately involved in spike generation. Indeed, in mutant cells selected for a strong chemotactic response, we measured periodic Ca2+ release which was followed by influx (Fig. 3).

Since PLC is subject to feedback stimulation by Ca_i (Lundberg and Newell, 1990; Cubitt and Firtel, 1992) and periodic changes of pH (Malchow *et al.*, 1978) as well as of potassium release (Aeckerle *et al.*, 1985) are occurring, which are also subject to control by Ca²⁺ (Aeckerle and Malchow, 1989), a complex network seems to be responsible for generation of sustained Ca²⁺ oscillations.

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