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α -LTX and α -LTX^{N4C} induce [Ca²⁺]_i elevation through different mechanisms in pancreatic β cells

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Abstract α -latrotoxin (α -LTX), a neurotoxin from black-widow spider, causes vesicles release in pre-synapse of nerve terminal after binding to specific membrane receptors. α -LTX^{N4C} is an effective tool binding to calcium independent receptor for latrotoxin (CIRL), which is used to elucidate the mechanism of receptor-mediated signal pathway. In our study on the pancreatic β cells, we found that α -LTX inserts into the plasma membrane and forms stable non-selective cation channels. The influx of extracellular Ca²⁺ through the channels causes massive Ca²⁺-dependent exocytosis of insulin-containing vesicles, whereas, α -LTX^{N4C}, binding with its receptor CIRL in extracellular divalent cation-dependent way, increases [Ca²⁺]_i by mobilization of the intracellular calcium stores.

Keywords: α -Latrotoxin, α -LTX^{N4C}, calcium.

α -latrotoxin (α -LTX) is the only neurotoxin from black-widow spider which has secretagogue effects in the vertebrates. It causes massive neurotransmitter and hormone release via two instinct mechanisms after binding with its high-affinity membrane receptors^[1,2]. Several structurally and functionally unrelated membrane receptors for α -LTX have been reported. The first receptor discovered is neurexin^[3,4], which binds with α -LTX only in the presence of extracellular Ca²⁺. The fact that α -LTX preserves its stimulating effect on

exocytosis in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺ led to the discovery of its Ca²⁺-independent receptor of α -LTX, calcium-independent receptor for latrotoxin (CIRL) or latrophilin^[5,6]. CIRL is a plasmalemma protein with seven transmembrane segments and belongs to the secretin/calcitonin family of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR)^[7]. Recently, a third type receptor of α -LTX, protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTP δ) which binds with the toxin in a Ca²⁺-independent manner has been described^[8]. It only plays a minor role in secretagogue effect of α -LTX.

In the presence of divalent cations, α -LTX, which is in presence of dimers in solution, forms Ca²⁺-permeable non-selective pores in the plasma membrane via formation of tetramers or higher order oligomers and insertion into plasma membrane after binding with its receptor^[9,10]. Evidence is accumulating that α -LTX is still active in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺, suggesting that it does not only act as an ionophore for Ca²⁺ and there is an additional Ca²⁺-independent mechanism in its stimulation of secretion^[11]. It is generally believed that the major Ca²⁺-dependent effect is due to the Ca²⁺ influx through the toxin pore, whereas the Ca²⁺-independent effect results from receptor-mediated signaling. It has been proposed that α -LTX activates latrophilin and induces generation of IP₃ thus mobilizing Ca²⁺ from intracellular stores via activation of phospholipase C (PLC)^[12–14]. The mobilization of intracellular Ca²⁺ plays a pivotal role in mediating the effect of the toxin^[14,15].

The effect of α -LTX on secretion via intracellular signal transduction pathways are overwhelmed by the effect via Ca²⁺ influx through the pore in the presence of extracellular Ca²⁺. To avoid the complication and reveal α -LTX stimulating effect of secretion via its receptor-mediated actions and the possible mechanisms, we took the advantage of the recently developed mutant toxin, α -LTX^{N4C} which contains a small insert of 4 amino acids Val-Pro-Arg-Gly within the domain responsible for the formation of the ring-like tetramers. α -LTX^{N4C} binds to the receptors with affinity similar to the wild-type toxin, but neither forms pores nor penetrates into plasma membrane. Both α -LTX^{N4C} and α -LTX can trigger neurotransmitter release^[12,16], so α -LTX^{N4C} is an effective tool to study the effects of receptor-mediated signaling. The present study focused

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on the different effects on intracellular Ca^{2+} changing induced by α -LTX and α -LTX^{N4C}. Our data showed that both α -LTX and α -LTX^{N4C} evoked $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation in primary pancreatic β cells and insulin-secreting INS-1 cells via Ca^{2+} influx and mobilization of Ca^{2+} from intracellular store respectively.

1 Materials and methods

1.1 Solutions

The standard KRBB solution contained in mmol/L: NaCl 129, KCl 4.7, KH_2PO_4 1.2, NaHCO_3 5.0, CaCl_2 2.5, $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 1.2, HEPES 10, BSA 0.1%, Glucose 3 (pH = 7.0 adjusted with NaOH, osmolarity = 300 mOsm). The normal extracellular bath solution contained in mmol/L: NaCl 150, KCl 2.8, $\text{MgCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 2.0, $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 2.6, Glucose 3.0 and HEPES 10 (pH = 7.4 adjusted with NaOH, osmolarity = 310 mOsm). The Ca^{2+} free bath solution consisted of components similar to the normal solution except that CaCl_2 was substituted by 1.0 mmol/L EGTA. Replacing 2.0 mmol/L NaCl by the same molar amount of LaCl_3 , we got LaCl_3 containing solution. Unless otherwise stated, chemicals and reagents were purchased from Sigma (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA).

1.2 Cell culture

All experiments were performed on isolated rat pancreatic β cells with diameters of 12–14 μm at 30–32°C. Pancreatic β cells from adult male Wistar rats were prepared as described previously^[17]. In brief, rats were killed by cervical sever, and pancreatic islets were isolated by collagenase digestion of the pancreas. The islets were further digested by dispase II to dissociate single β cells. The dispersed β cells were plated on glass coverslips and grown in DMEM (Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium, Gibco, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco), 25 mmol/L HEPES, 2 g/L NaHCO_3 , 100 IU/mL penicillin, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ streptomycin at 37°C gassed with a humidified mixture of 5% CO_2 and 95% air. Cells cultured for 3–5 d were used in the experiments.

1.3 $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ measurement

To measure the $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ responses of β cells to the toxins, intact cells were loaded with Fura 2-AM (Molecular Probes, Carlsbad, CA, USA) by immersing the cells in 3 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$ Fura 2-AM containing bath solution for 30 min. $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ was then measured using illuminations alternat-

ing between 350 and 380 nm generated from the monochromator (Till Photonics, Planegg, Germany). The resulting fluorescence was acquired by a photodiode (Till Photonics). Considering that the concentration of Fura 2 which was introduced into cell by extracellular perfusion was unknown, we used directly the fluorescence ratio (R) as indicator of change of intracellular level.

1.4 Membrane capacitance (C_m) measurement

The C_m of β cells was measured in real time using an EPC9 amplifier (Heka Electronics, Lambrecht, Germany) in conventional whole-cell patch clamp configuration. A sine + DC protocol was applied using the Lockin extension of the Pulse program (Heka Electronics). β cells were voltage-clamped at a holding potential of -70 mV and a sine wave voltage command with an amplitude of 20 mV and a frequency of 1024 Hz was applied. Currents were filtered at 2.9 kHz and sampled at 15.6 kHz. The pipette solution contained in mmol/L: CsGlu 125, HEPES 40, MgATP 2, Na_2GTP 0.3, $\text{MgCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 1, EGTA 0.3 (pH = 7.2 adjusted with CsOH, 300 mOsm). α -LTX (Cat. No. L-130, Alomone Labs, Jerusalem, Israel) and α -LTX^{N4C} (supplied kindly by Prof. Yuri Ushkaryov at Department of Biochemistry, Imperial College, London, UK) of 3 nmol/L contained in pipette solution were applied by local perfusion with pipettes (around 5 μm in diameters) pointing to the cells.

2 Results

2.1 α -LTX induced $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation, which could be blocked by La^{3+} , via influx of extracellular Ca^{2+}

In Ca^{2+} free bath solution, application of α -LTX (3 nmol/L) at 60 s caused no significant fluorescence ratio (F_{340}/F_{380}) change in β cells. Using standard bath solution containing 2.6 mmol/L Ca^{2+} to replace the Ca^{2+} free solution, we could record significant $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation induced by the toxin (Fig. 1). Flickering of inward currents accompanied by concurrent changes in the fluorescence ratio was observed under the whole-cell patch-clamp configuration in normal bath solution (holding potential, -70 mV), demonstrating that α -LTX inserted into plasma membrane and assembled into calcium-permeable pores or channels which increased $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ via Ca^{2+} influx (Fig. 2). Furthermore, application of α -LTX obviously elicited Ca^{2+} -dependent exocytosis indicated by the increase of the membrane ca-

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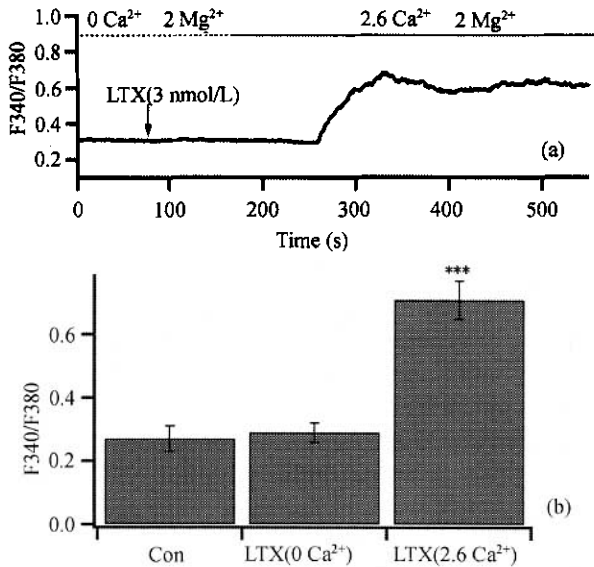


Fig. 1. α -LTX induced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation depending on extracellular Ca^{2+} . (a) As shown by a typical response of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation measured by fura-2 microfluorimetry, α -LTX failed to increase $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the absence of Ca^{2+} , whereas it caused robust $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation in the presence of extracellular Ca^{2+} (2.6 mmol/L). (b) Comparison of the amplitude of ratio (F340/F380) for control and LTX-treated cells ($n = 5, p < 0.01$).

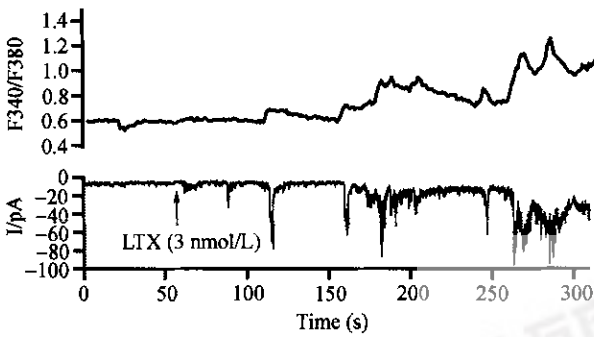


Fig. 2. α -LTX increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ via Ca^{2+} influx. Simultaneous measurement of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ changes (reflected by the fluorescence ratio) and currents which were recorded from a single β cell in the whole-cell configuration. Small and brief bursts of α -LTX current elicited small $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation ($n = 4$).

capacitance in pancreatic β cells (Fig. 3). The elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was blocked by extracellular application of 2 mmol/L La^{3+} , which is a blocker of cation pore of α -LTX, as shown in Fig. 4.

2.2 The divalent cations were indispensable for α -LTX^{N4C} to evoke $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation

As α -LTX^{N4C} cannot penetrate into the plasma membrane and form Ca^{2+} permeable pore to induce $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation via extracellular Ca^{2+} influx, so it is a good tool to study the effect of exocytosis of α -LTX via

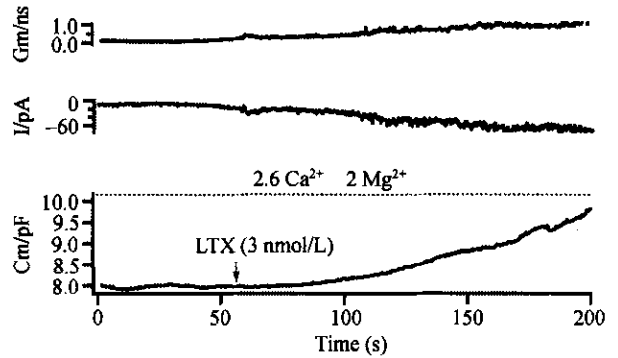


Fig. 3. α -LTX elicited exocytosis indicated by the membrane capacitance (C_m) increase. A significant increase in C_m (reflecting exocytosis) was detected when applying 3 nmol/L α -LTX. The cell was voltage clamped at -70 mV. α -LTX was applied at the time indicated by the arrow. The average increment of C_m was 1.6 ± 0.4 pF ($n = 6, p < 0.05$).

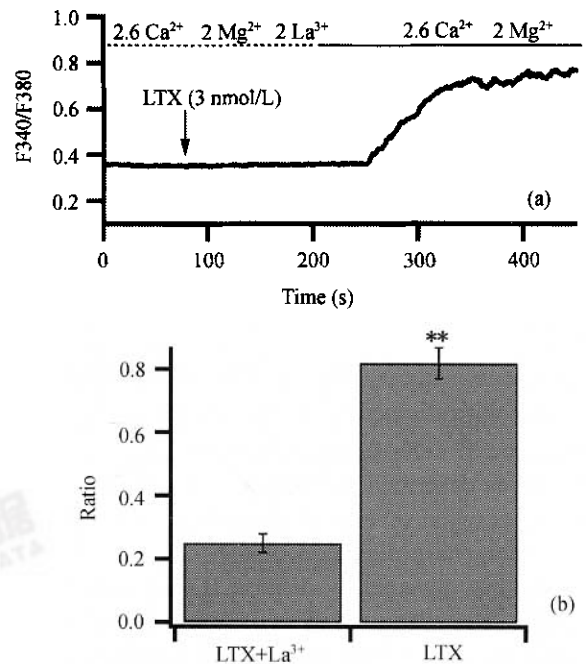


Fig. 4. La^{3+} blocked the effect of α -LTX on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. (a) In the presence of 2 mmol/L extracellular La^{3+} , α -LTX failed to elicit elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ even in Ca^{2+} containing normal bath solution. When La^{3+} was omitted from the bath solution, α -LTX recovered the ability of elevating $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the same cell. (b) Comparison of the amplitude of the ratio (F340/F380). ($n = 5, p < 0.01$).

receptor-mediated signaling. Fig. 5(a) and (b) shows that α -LTX^{N4C} caused $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation in both normal bath solution and Ca^{2+} free solution, demonstrating that α -LTX^{N4C} triggered $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ increase through intracellular Ca^{2+} store release. The pharmacological specificity of α -LTX^{N4C} was conformed by its wash effect. However, as shown in Fig. 5 (c), elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was

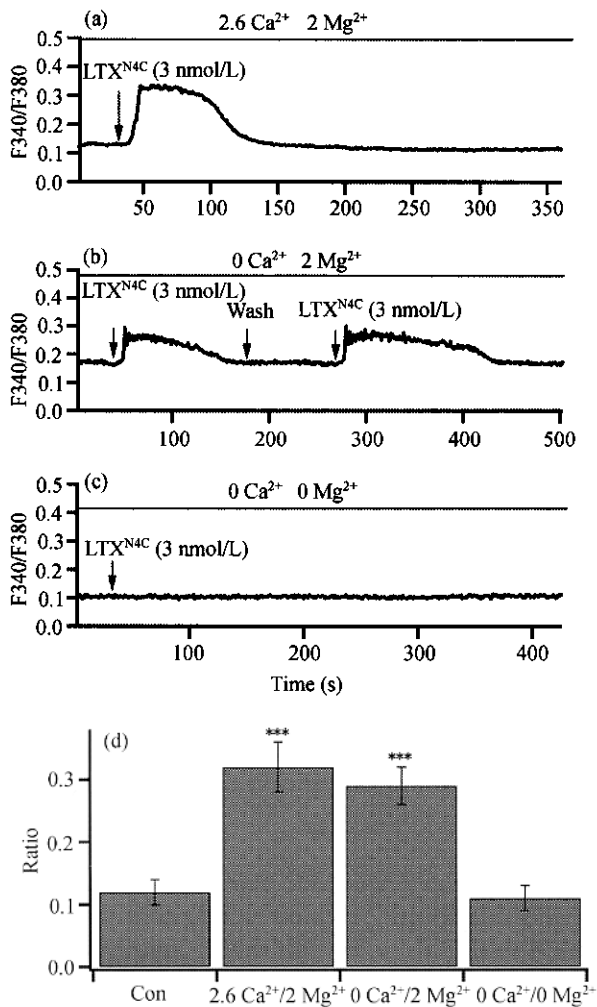


Fig. 5. $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ induced intracellular Ca^{2+} stores release. (a) $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ evoked a transient $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation in the standard bath solution, whereas $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ elicited a sustained $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ increase ($n = 6$, $p < 0.001$, see Fig. 1). (b) $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ effect of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation was not abolished when extracellular Ca^{2+} was omitted. ($n = 5$, $p < 0.001$). (c) $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ rise triggered by $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ disappeared when both Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} from the extracellular were removed, indicating that $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ elevated $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ via mobilization of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores and its effect was dependent on the extracellular bivalent cation. (d) Comparison of the effects $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ -induced in three different bath solution.

eliminated by the further absence of extracellular Mg^{2+} . The result demonstrated that the effect of $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ depended on extracellular divalent cations. Based on this fact, we suggested that the binding of $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ with its receptor needed the presence of external bivalent cation.

2.3 Different effects on $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ induced by $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ and $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$

From the results above, we could draw the conclu-

sion that $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ and $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ evoked $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation via different mechanisms. To further validate our deduction, we used $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ and $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ to challenge the same β cell. Fig. 6(a) and (c) shows that $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ could not change $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, whereas $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ evoked obviously transient elevation of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in the absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} . We obtained the same results in INS-1 cells by use of this two toxins. As shown by Fig. 6(b) and (c), in the same INS-1 cells immersed in Ca^{2+} -free bath solution, and $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ had no effect on $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$.

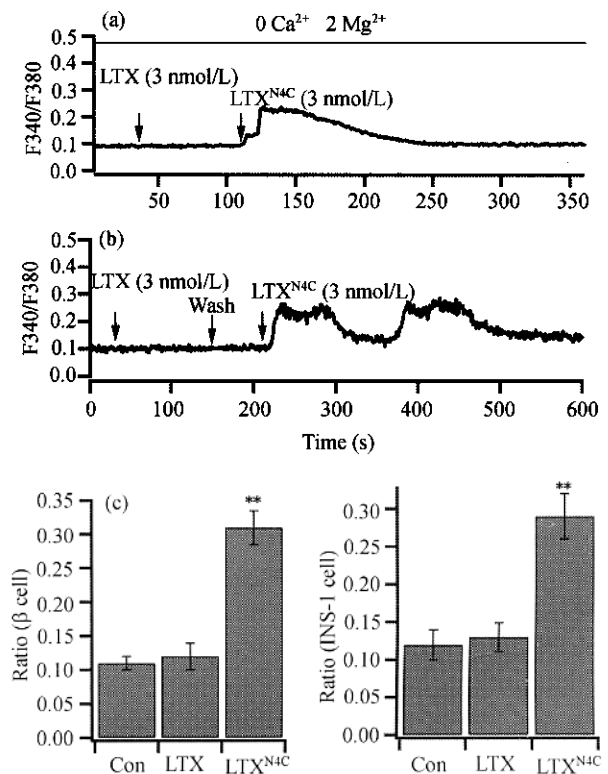


Fig. 6. The different effects of $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ and $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ on $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in the absence of external Ca^{2+} . (a) By challenging the same β cell with $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ and $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$, we observed that $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ failed to evoke $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ elevation, whereas, $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$ elicited robust $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ increase ($n = 8$, $p < 0.01$). (b) In the INS-1 cell, we obtained similar results, validating our data in primary pancreatic β cells ($n = 4$, $p < 0.01$). (c) Summary of the different effects induced by $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ and $\alpha\text{-LTX}^{\text{N4C}}$.

3 Discussion

α -latrotoxin ($\alpha\text{-LTX}$) is a neurotoxin from black-widow spider which causes neurotransmitter and hormone release^[1,19]. Expression of the $\alpha\text{-LTX}$ receptor in endogenous receptor-lacking PC12 cells can also induce cells to become sensitive to the toxin. This suggests that the receptors are responsible for the function

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of α -LTX^[7,20]. In this study, we found that α -LTX evokes $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation in 2.6 mmol/L Ca^{2+} containing bath solution, whereas it has no effect on elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the absence of Ca^{2+} . These results suggest that α -LTX induced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation via extracellular Ca^{2+} influx, which are blocked by trivalent ion La^{3+} , through the cation pores formed by the toxin in pancreatic β cells^[21-23]. The mechanisms underlying La^{3+} of Ca^{2+} influx may be as follows: (i) La^{3+} may block the formation of Ca^{2+} permeable pore of the toxin in plasma membrane via blocking the toxin to assemble into tetramer; (ii) La^{3+} may make the pore structure unstable and block the channel^[21].

It is reported that mobilization of intracellular Ca^{2+} store plays a key role on the function of α -LTX in the absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} ^[14,15] via binding to one of its receptors CIRL/latrophilin which is a G protein-coupled receptor linking to $G\alpha_{q/11}$. The downstream effector of $G\alpha_{q/11}$ is phospholipase C (PLC). Activation of PLC leads the production of IP_3 and DAG, which are two important intracellular second messengers. IP_3 induces release of Ca^{2+} from the intracellular stores^[12]. However, the α -LTX is still active even in the presence of thapsigargin which blocks IP_3 -sensitive Ca^{2+} stores^[24]. Furthermore, there are few α -LTX-sensitive intracellular Ca^{2+} stores in the synapses^[25]. In our present study, we did not observe $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation evoked by the wild type α -LTX in the absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} , indicating that intracellular Ca^{2+} stores probably play less prominent role in the function of α -LTX.

In the presence of extracellular divalent cations, α -LTX can insert itself into the plasma membrane and form stable non-selective cation channels^[26]. The action of α -LTX via extracellular Ca^{2+} influx dominates that via intracellular signal transduction pathways. To exclude the possible interference of cellular function by La^{3+} which is often used to block the channel of α -LTX, we used a mutant toxin α -LTX^{N4C} to reveal the effect of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation of the toxin. α -LTX^{N4C} contains a small insert (4 amino acids: Val-Pro-Arg-Gly) within the domain responsible for the formation of the ring-like tetramers, so α -LTX^{N4C} has not big change in structure, but it can not assemble further into tetramers any more. As a result, α -LTX^{N4C} is unable to form pores^[10,16,21], but its affinity with the receptors remains unchanged. α -LTX^{N4C} evoke $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation in both

normal and Ca^{2+} free solution. Our data are consistent with the reports that α -LTX^{N4C} mobilizes the intracellular IP_3 -sensitive Ca^{2+} via the CIRL- $G\alpha_{q/11}$ -PLC signal transduction pathway^[12,14]. In Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} free bath solution, α -LTX^{N4C} effect of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation is abolished, suggesting that divalent cations are essential for α -LTX^{N4C} binding to its receptors.

The different mechanisms underlying the effects of α -LTX and α -LTX^{N4C} are demonstrated by the facts that α -LTX can only elicit $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation in the presence of extracellular Ca^{2+} , whereas α -LTX^{N4C} elevate $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in both presence and absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} . Our results disagree with the reports that α -LTX and α -LTX^{N4C} had the same effects on intracellular Ca^{2+} level^[26]. From our results, we suggest that α -LTX evoke $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation mainly via formation of Ca^{2+} permeable channels after binding with the receptor neurexin, and α -LTX^{N4C} induce Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores via production of the second messenger IP_3 mainly by binding with the receptor CIRL and cellular signal transduction. However, many details of mechanisms of the toxin remain elusive and need to be further elucidated.

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