Ca$^{2+}$ Influx Pathways Mediated by Swelling or Stores Depletion in Mouse Thymocytes

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ABSTRACT We used fura-2 video imaging to characterize two Ca$^{2+}$ influx pathways in mouse thymocytes. Most thymocytes (77%) superfused with hypoosmotic media (60% of isoosmotic) exhibited a sharp, transient rise in the concentration of intracellular free Ca$^{2+}$ ([Ca$^{2+}]_i$). After a delay of $\approx 70$ s, these swelling-activated [Ca$^{2+}]_i$ (SWAC) transients reached $\approx 650$ nM from resting levels of $\approx 100$ nM and declined with a time constant of 20 s. Peak [Ca$^{2+}]_i$ during transients correlated with maximum volume during swelling. Regulatory volume decrease (RVD) was enhanced in thymocytes exhibiting SWAC transients. Three lines of evidence indicate that Ca$^{2+}$ influx, and not the release of Ca$^{2+}$ from intracellular stores, underlies SWAC transients in thymocytes. First, thymocytes swollen in Ca$^{2+}$-free media failed to respond. Second, Gd$^{3+}$ and La$^{3+}$ inhibited SWAC influx with $K_i$'s of 3.8 and 2.4 $\mu$M, respectively. Finally, the depletion of Ca$^{2+}$ stores with thapsigargin (TG) before swelling did not inhibit the generation, nor decrease the amplitude, of SWAC transients. Cell phenotyping demonstrated that SWAC transients are primarily associated with immature CD4-CD8- and CD4+CD8+ thymocytes. Mature peripheral lymphocytes (mouse or human) did not exhibit SWAC transients. SWAC influx could be distinguished from the calcium release-activated Ca$^{2+}$ (CRAC) influx pathway stimulated by store depletion with TG. In TG-treated thymocytes, [Ca$^{2+}]_i$ rose steadily for $\approx 100$ s, peaked at $\approx 900$ nM, and then declined slowly. Simultaneous activation of both pathways produced an additive [Ca$^{2+}]_i$ profile. Gd$^{3+}$ and La$^{3+}$ blocked Ca$^{2+}$ entry during CRAC activation more potently ($K_i$'s of 28 and 58 nM, respectively) than Ca$^{2+}$ influx during SWAC transients. SWAC transients could be elicited in the presence of 1 $\mu$M Gd$^{3+}$, after the complete inhibition of CRAC influx. Finally, whereas SWAC transients were principally restricted to immature thymocytes, TG stimulated the CRAC influx pathway in all four thymic CD4/CD8 subsets and in mature T cells. We conclude that SWAC and CRAC represent separate pathways for Ca$^{2+}$ entry in thymocytes.

INTRODUCTION

Activation of the T-cell receptor/CD3 complex of lymphocytes by antigen, mitogenic lectins, or monoclonal antibodies initiates a rise in the concentration of intracellular free Ca$^{2+}$ ([Ca$^{2+}]_i$). The rise in [Ca$^{2+}]_i$ is subdivided into two periods:
the first is brief and correlates with the release of stored Ca\(^{2+}\) triggered by inositol-1,4,5-triphosphate (InsP\(_3\)) (Berridge, 1993). The second results from sustained Ca\(^{2+}\) influx across the plasma membrane. Putney (1990) has speculated that Ca\(^{2+}\) influx is modulated indirectly by the Ca\(^{2+}\) content of InsP\(_3\)-sensitive stores by a process termed capacitative Ca\(^{2+}\) entry. This hypothesis suggests that the release of Ca\(^{2+}\) from pools activates a mechanism which initiates Ca\(^{2+}\) influx across the plasma membrane. In lymphocytes, the sustained influx of Ca\(^{2+}\) through "calcium release-activated" channels is a prerequisite for IL-2 gene expression (Negulescu, Shastri, and Cahalan, 1994) and T-cell proliferation (Crabtree and Clipstone, 1994).

Lewis and Cahalan (1989) first identified the Ca\(^{2+}\) influx pathway in T cells. In whole-cell, patch-clamp experiments, cytosolic dialysis of Jurkat T lymphocytes with pipette solutions containing EGTA or BAPTA activated a Ca\(^{2+}\)-selective current; the same current was recorded in cells stimulated with phytohemagglutinin (PHA) during perforated-patch experiments (Lewis and Cahalan, 1989). Strong buffering also stimulated Ca\(^{2+}\) influx in rat thymocytes (Montero, Alvarez, and Garcia-Sancho, 1990; Mason, Mahaut-Smith, and Grinstein, 1991b), at which time it was proposed that the degree of store filling dictated Ca\(^{2+}\) permeability in lymphocytes. Subsequent work, using specific inhibitors of ER Ca\(^{2+}\)-ATPases to disrupt the balance between store refilling and depletion, revealed a Ca\(^{2+}\) influx pathway in many lymphoid cell types (Gouy, Cefai, Christensen, Debré, and Bismuth, 1990; Mason, Garcia-Rodriguez, and Grinstein, 1991a; Mason et al., 1991b; Sarkadi, Tordai, Homolya, Scharff, and Gardos, 1991). These Ca\(^{2+}\) influx pathways in T cells closely resemble calcium release-activated Ca\(^{2+}\) (CRAC) channels in rat mast cells (Hoth and Penner, 1992, 1993). Ca\(^{2+}\) influx through CRAC channels, or close relatives, is believed to underlie T-cell activation (Zweifach and Lewis, 1993; Premack, McDonald, and Gardner, 1994).

Other pathways for Ca\(^{2+}\) influx in T lymphocytes have been partially characterized. Two studies provide evidence for voltage-gated Ca\(^{2+}\) channels during whole-cell recordings in specific T-lymphocyte cell lines (Dupuis, Héroux, and Payet, 1989; Densmore, Szabo, and Gray, 1992). However, voltage-gated Ca\(^{2+}\) channels are not commonly expressed in lymphocytes; membrane depolarization with high K\(^+\) extracellular solutions fails to elicit Ca\(^{2+}\) influx in Jurkat and human peripheral blood (HPB) T lymphocytes (references listed in Lewis and Cahalan, 1995). Another potential Ca\(^{2+}\) influx pathway, mediated by the direct interaction of InsP\(_3\) with plasma membrane InsP\(_3\)-receptor channels, has been observed in cloned human T lymphocytes and Jurkat cells (Kuno, Goronzky, Weyand, and Gardner, 1986; Kuno and Gardner, 1987). A separate study using immunocytochemistry confirmed the presence of InsP\(_3\) receptors on the surface of intact Jurkat T cells (Khan, Steiner, Klein, Schneider, and Snyder, 1992). Nevertheless, the functional role of plasma membrane, InsP\(_3\)-gated channels in lymphocytes is unclear at this time (Premack et al., 1994).

Many vertebrate cells exhibit a rise in [Ca\(^{2+}\)], when challenged with other stimuli, such as hypoosmotic solutions (McCarty and O’Neil, 1992; Hoffmann, Simonsen, and Lambert, 1993). Depending upon cell type, this increase in [Ca\(^{2+}\)], during swelling may result from Ca\(^{2+}\)-release, Ca\(^{2+}\) influx, or a combination of both
mechanisms. Stretch-activated cation channels are presumed to be the route for Ca\(^{2+}\) entry across the plasma membrane (Morris, 1990). After the rise in [Ca\(^{2+}\)], separate K\(^+\) and Cl\(^-\) efflux pathways are activated; in many cases, the K\(^+\) and Cl\(^-\) conductances are directly modulated by [Ca\(^{2+}\)]. Within minutes, the loss of KCl and osmotically obliged water shrinks cells back to control volume by a process termed regulatory volume decrease (RVD). However, this sequence of events does not occur in HPB T lymphocytes, which display no change in [Ca\(^{2+}\)], during swelling (Rink, Sanchez, Grinstein, and Roth, 1983; Grinstein and Smith, 1990). Rather, a Ca\(^{2+}\)-independent RVD mechanism has been proposed (Cahalan and Lewis, 1988; Deutsch and Lee, 1988; Rotin, Mason, and Grinstein, 1991), which begins with the opening of plasma membrane Cl\(^-\) channels in response to swelling. Membrane depolarization caused by the efflux of Cl\(^-\) from the cell activates voltage-gated K\(^+\) channels. As before, the loss of KCl and water returns the lymphocyte to normal volume. At present, the Ca\(^{2+}\)-independent RVD hypothesis has been accepted as the mechanism used by lymphoid cells to resist conditions that cause swelling.

In this study, we report a novel Ca\(^{2+}\) influx pathway, activated by swelling, in certain populations of murine thymocytes. The swelling response in single cells is characterized by a sharp, transient rise in [Ca\(^{2+}\)]. These swelling-activated [Ca\(^{2+}\)] (SWAC) transients are due to Ca\(^{2+}\) influx across the plasma membrane. Phenotypic analysis with CD4 and CD8 antibodies illustrates that SWAC influx is primarily associated with immature thymocytes. We compared SWAC influx in thymocytes to CRAC influx, which was stimulated by emptying Ca\(^{2+}\) stores with the microsomal Ca\(^{2+}\)-ATPase inhibitor thapsigargin (TG). Based upon kinetics, pharmacology, and phenotyping, we conclude that SWAC and CRAC represent distinct Ca\(^{2+}\) entry pathways through the plasma membrane of thymocytes. Furthermore, we suggest that Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent channel activation may contribute to RVD in immature thymocytes.

Preliminary reports of this work have been published in abstract form (Ross, 1991; Ross and Cahalan, 1995).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Lymphocyte Preparation and Fura-2 Loading

Thymectomies were performed on 4 to 10-wk old female Balb/c mice. Thymus glands were gently dissociated between two sintered glass microscope slides. Thymocytes were washed free of supporting tissue with RPMI 1640 media (GIBCO/BRL, Gaithersburg, MD) containing 10% fetal calf serum (JR Scientific, Woodland, CA), 25 mM HEPES and 2 mM glutamine (RPMI/10% FCS).

The suspension was then centrifuged at 350 g for 10 min. An analogous protocol was used to isolate splenocytes from murine spleens. Cells were resuspended in RPMI/10% FCS, and aliquots containing ~6 x 10^6 cells/ml were loaded with 3 μM fura-2/AM (Molecular Probes, Inc., Eugene, OR) for 20 min. After loading, lymphocytes were washed three times with RPMI/10% FCS and stored in the dark for up to 10 h before experiments. Cell preparation, dye loading, storage, and experiments were performed at room temperature (~22°C).

HPB T lymphocytes were purified from the blood of healthy adult donors as described previously (Hess, Oortgiesen, and Cahalan, 1993). Experiments were also performed on Jurkat E6-1 cells, a human T leukemic cell line, obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Rock-
ville, MD) and maintained in RPMI/10% FCS media following standard procedures. HPB and Jurkat T lymphocytes were loaded with fura-2/AM as described above.

**Solutions**

Mammalian Ringer solution contained (in millimolar): 160 NaCl, 4.5 KCl, 2 CaCl₂, 1 MgCl₂, and 5 HEPES, titrated to pH 7.4 with NaOH. Hypoosmotic solutions were prepared by diluting 100% Ringer with distilled water. 10 mM glucose was added to isoosmotic and diluted Ringer solutions before experiments.

**Cytosolic Calcium Measurements and Fura-2 Calibration**

Lymphocytes were allowed to settle onto glass coverslip chambers pretreated with 0.5 mg/ml poly-D-lysine (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO) for 10 min. Adhered cells were then washed with Ringer on the stage of a Zeiss Axiovert 35 microscope (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). A xenon arc lamp (Carl Zeiss) provided the light for imaging fura-2 in lymphocytes at 360- and 380-nm wavelengths; the light passed through a motorized filter wheel/shutter assembly (Lambda 10, Axon Instruments, Inc., Foster City, CA) containing 360- and 380-nm excitation filters (Omega Optical, Brattleboro, VT) and was reflected by a 400-nm dichroic mirror through a 100× oil-immersion objective (Zeiss Neofluar) to illuminate dye-loaded cells. Dye fluorescence was monitored above 480 nm with a Hamamatsu C9400 SIT camera (Hamamatsu Photonics, Bridgewater, NJ) connected to a video image-processing system (Videoprobe, ETM Systems, Irvine, CA). At 5-s intervals, 8-bit images, averaged over 16 frames, were collected at 360- and 380-nm wavelengths. The background-subtracted pixel intensities of the 360- and 380-nm images were divided in register to give 360/380 ratios, which were stored digitally. [Ca²⁺]ᵢ in intact cells was calculated from 360/380 ratios using the equation of Grynkiewicz, Poenie, and Tsien (1985):

\[
[Ca^{2+}]_i = \frac{K_d (F_{\text{min}} / F_{\text{max}}) (R - R_{\text{min}})}{(R_{\text{max}} - R)}
\]

where \(K_d\) is the dissociation constant for fura-2 in the cytosol (250 nM), \(F_{\text{min}}\) and \(F_{\text{max}}\) are the 380-nm fluorescent intensity and 360/380 ratio at low [Ca²⁺], \(F_{\text{max}}\) and \(F_{\text{min}}\) are the 380-nm fluorescence intensity and 360/380 ratio at high [Ca²⁺], and \(R\) is the 360/380 ratio recorded during experiments. Calibration measurements of \(F_{\text{min}}\) and \(F_{\text{max}}\) were performed after incubating cells for 10 min in nominally Ca²⁺-free Ringer containing 2 mM EGTA. Cells were then superfused with Ringer containing 1 μM TG, 5 μM ionomycin, and 10 mM Ca²⁺ to evaluate \(F_{\text{max}}\) and \(F_{\text{min}}\).

During osmotic swelling, the concentration of dye within cells is reduced, and the surrounding cytoplasmic viscosity may also decline. Botchkin and Matthews (1993) have described a potential artifact of fura-2 measurements in swollen retinal pigment epithelial cells, leading to a small apparent increase in [Ca²⁺], (∼100 nM). This apparent rise, calculated from the ratio of 340 and 380 nm fura-2 fluorescence, was due mostly to a decrease in 380 nm fluorescence. In HPB T cells, the observed apparent rise of 50 nM upon exposure to hypoosmotic solution may originate from this artifact. The SWAC transients described in this paper may be influenced by, but do not originate from, this artifact for three reasons as described in Results. First, the SWAC transients are much larger in amplitude and do not parallel the time course of volume changes. Second, they can be eliminated by acute removal of Ca²⁺ and by the addition of lanthanides or organic blockers. Third, during SWAC transients, the 350 nm fluorescence rises as the 380 nm fluorescence falls (not shown).

**Single-Cell Volume Determination**

We employed a custom-designed beam-splitter to separate the green fluorescence emission of fura-2 loaded cells from a differential interference contrast (DIC) image illuminated with red light, similar in concept to the method of Foskett (1988). Cross over between DIC and fluores-
cence images was insignificant and therefore allowed the near-simultaneous measurement of volume and \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), within single cells. After beam-splitter partition, the light signals were collected by two separate cameras. The process of data storage limited the acquisition of each pair of DIC and fluorescence images to intervals of 7 s. \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), in single cells was calculated as described above, while single-cell outlines in digitized DIC images were traced manually using NIH Image v1.57ppc, a Macintosh computer program written by Wayne Rasband at the National Institutes of Health and available from the Internet by anonymous ftp from zippy.nimh.nih.gov or on floppy disc from NTIS, 5285 Port Royal Rd., Springfield, VA 22161, part no. PB93-504868. Relative volume \((V/V_0)\) was calculated from cross-sectional surface areas before \((S_0)\) and during swelling \((S)\) with the relation

\[
\frac{V}{V_0} = \left(\frac{S}{S_0}\right)^{3/2}
\]

This relationship assumes a spherical cell.

**Single-Cell Phenotyping and \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) Measurements**

In some experiments, murine thymocytes were labeled with CD4 (L3T4) and CD8 (Lyt-2) monoclonal antibodies (Becton Dickinson Corp., San Jose, CA), conjugated with the fluorescent compounds phycoerythrin (PE) or fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC), respectively. Cells were incubated on ice with 2.5 \(\mu\)g/ml anti-CD4-PE and anti-CD8-FITC for 20 min. After staining, cells were washed three times with cold RPMI/10% FCS, resuspended to a final volume of 400 \(\mu\)l, and then stored on ice until needed. Subsequent experiments were performed with 50-\(\mu\)l aliquots of stained cells that had been allowed to adhere to poly-D-lysine-coated coverslips for 15 min.

Light from a xenon arc-lamp (see above), passing through sets of filters optimized for fluorescent color separation and directed through a 100\(\times\) oil-immersion objective, illuminated the antibody-labeled cells. A 510- to 560-nm excitation filter, a 580-nm dichroic beam splitter, and a 590-nm long-pass emission filter comprised the anti-CD4-PE filter set. The anti-CD8-FITC filter set contained a 450- to 490-nm excitation filter, a 510-nm dichroic beam splitter, and a 40-nm-wide emission filter centered at 540 nm. Discrimination between red and green fluorescence images was verified using PE- and FITC-labeled Calibrite beads (Becton-Dickinson Corp.).

Subset classification of thymocytes was performed with epifluorescence photomicroscopy. Separate photographs of red and green fluorescent thymocytes were recorded on Ektachrome P1600 film (Eastman Kodak Corp., Rochester, NY). A third brightfield image, using condenser illumination, was also photographed. Cells were then loaded with 3 \(\mu\)M fura-2/AM for 20 min on the microscope stage. \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) measurements were performed on the phenotyped cells as described above. Photographic images classified thymocytes into four categories: (a) fluorescently labeled cells exhibiting both red and green fluorescence (double positive, CD4\(^+\)CD8\(^+\)); (b) cells exhibiting red fluorescence (single positive, CD4\(^+\)CD8\(^-\)); (c) cells exhibiting green fluorescence (single positive, CD4\(^-\)CD8\(^+\)); and (d) colorless, unlabeled thymocytes (double negative, CD4\(^-\)CD8\(^-\)), that appeared only in brightfield images. Thymocyte phenotype was correlated with single-cell \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) measurements after the photographs were developed.

**Materials**

Stock solutions of fura-2/AM and TG (LC Services, Woburn, MA) were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) as 1 mM concentrations and stored at \(-20^\circ\)C. The metal salts NiCl\(_2\)-6H\(_2\)O, GdCl\(_3\)-6H\(_2\)O, LaCl\(_3\)-6H\(_2\)O (Alfa/Johnson Matthey Co., Ward Hill, MA), and CdCl\(_2\)-2.5H\(_2\)O (Mallinckrodt, St. Louis, MO) were dissolved in Ringer as 100 mM stocks. Nicardipine, nifedipine, and methoxyverapamil (D-600) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. and dissolved in ethanol as 10 mM stocks. All other chemicals were from Sigma Chemical Co.
Data Analysis

Exponential curves were fitted to the decay of \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) transients with an Apple Macintosh computer program (Igor Pro v2.02, WaveMetrics, Inc., Lake Oswego, OR). Statistical analysis was performed with Excel v5.0 (Microsoft, Redmond, WA), SuperAnova v1.11 (Abacus Concepts, Inc., Berkeley, CA), and Systat v5.1 (Systat Inc., Evanston, IL). Grouped data are reported as mean ± SD, unless otherwise indicated. Mean values were compared by analysis of variance; pairs of means were considered statistically different if \(P < 0.05\).

RESULTS

Results are divided into four sections. First, we describe \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) transients in swollen murine thymocytes. Second, we examine the influx pathway activated by depleting intracellular \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\) stores. Third, we provide evidence that separate pathways are activated during swelling and store depletion. And finally, we show that SWAC transients are principally associated with immature lymphocyte subsets.

SWAC Transients in Thymocytes

Fluorescence-ratio imaging of fura-2-loaded murine thymocytes during swelling revealed rapid changes in \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), at the single-cell level (Fig. 1 A). Superfusion of thymocytes with hypoosmotic solution (60% of isosmotic) elicited a rise in \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), from the resting level of 101 ± 8 nM (\(n = 6\) experiments, 652 cells) to a peak of 646 ± 213 nM. On average, 77 ± 4% (\(n = 6\) experiments, 857 cells) of thymocytes exhibited \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) transients during swelling. \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) rose steeply from resting to peak levels within 10 s in the majority of cells eliciting SWAC transients. A histogram showing the distribution of latencies between the hypoosmotic solution change and peak \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) for 652 cells is displayed in Fig. 1 B. The average latency is 70 ± 29 s. No significant correlation is present between the amplitude of \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) transients and latency (Fig. 1 C).

The decay of each SWAC transient was fitted by a single exponential function. The average time constant for decay was 20 ± 10 s (\(n = 6\) experiments, 652 cells). The decline in \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) from peak to basal levels is primarily due to cytosolic \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\) buffering and \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\) pumps in the plasma membrane and endoplasmic reticulum (Scharff and Foder, 1993). However, 8 min after the hypoosmotic solution exchange, \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) remained elevated at 167 ± 23 nM, a level that is significantly higher than resting \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), \(P < 0.01\). This elevated \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) influx continues through SWAC or other pathways at a rate sufficient to overload buffering and pump-down mechanisms.

Lymphocytes require ~60 s to reach maximum volume when swollen with hypoosmotic solution (Cheung, Grinstein, Dosch, and Gelfand, 1982a; Grinstein, Cohen, Sarkadi, and Rothstein, 1983; Grinstein, Rothstein, Sarkadi, and Gelfand, 1984). We also examined the relationship between \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) and volume in thymocytes during swelling (Fig. 2 A). SWAC transients were observed as single cells attained their maximal volume. Peak values in average \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) and \(V/V_0\) profiles show alignment at ~60 s (Fig. 2 C). A minority of thymocytes display no change in \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) during swelling. At the start of experiments, nonresponsive thymocytes were indistinguishable from cells exhibiting transients; resting \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) in nonre-
responsive cells averaged $105 \pm 13$ nM ($n = 6$ experiments, 205 cells). However, nonresponsive cells (Fig. 2 B) swelled to a greater volume and exhibited a longer delay before the inception of RVD, as compared to thymocytes exhibiting SWAC transients (cf. average $V/V_0$ traces in Fig. 2 C). Furthermore, nonresponsive thymocytes were more swollen after 9 min in hypoosmotic media and shrank less when isoosmotic media was reapplied (Fig. 2 C). Table I summarizes these differences. These results suggest that SWAC transients in thymocytes enhance RVD.

$Ca^{2+}$ influx is required for SWAC transients. SWAC transients were never observed in the absence of extracellular $Ca^{2+}$, suggesting that $Ca^{2+}$ influx underlies $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transients (Fig. 3 A). By exposing cells briefly to $Ca^{2+}$-free solutions, we ex-
amined and ruled out the possibility that rapid depletion of intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) stores in Ca\(^{2+}\)-free media could suppress the SWAG response (Fig. 3 B). SWAC transients were recorded in only 6 ± 2% (n = 2 experiments, 159 cells) of the cells, and these responses were initiated before Ca\(^{2+}\) withdrawal. The subsequent addition of ionomycin released intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\), demonstrating that stores contained Ca\(^{2+}\) well after the peak SWAG response in the latency histogram (see Fig. 1 B). In Fig. 3 C, the length of Ca\(^{2+}\) exposure during swelling was extended to 60 s, resulting in a greater percentage of thymocytes (49%) eliciting SWAC transients. These results indicate that SWAC transients depend critically on Ca\(^{2+}\) influx.

We performed experiments to determine, in relation to cell swelling, the period during which SWAC transients can be elicited in thymocytes. As shown in Fig. 4 A, cells were exposed to Ca\(^{2+}\)-free, isoosmotic media for 5 min before swelling. After this incubation period, thymocytes were swollen in Ca\(^{2+}\)-free media for 60 s. Addition of Ca\(^{2+}\) elicited SWAC transients in 64% of the thymocytes. The percentage of thymocytes displaying SWAC transients decreased as the period of swelling in Ca\(^{2+}\)-free media lengthened (Fig. 4 B). These findings illustrate that the SWAC re-
Changes in relative volume ($V/V_0$) during swelling were measured in single cells. Representative traces are shown in Fig. 2. Data are presented as mean ± SD. Pairs of means were significantly different at $P < 0.01$. Data collected from four experiments (experiments 12595-3 to 12595-6).

The temporal profile of these histograms, in combination with data presented in Figs. 1 B, and 2, A and C, suggest that the window of opportunity coincides with maximal

\begin{table}[h]
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\begin{tabular}{lcc}
\hline
 & Thymocytes exhibiting SWAC transients (49 cells) & Thymocytes not showing SWAC transients (25 cells) \\
\hline
Maximum $V/V_0$ & $1.31 ± 0.10$ & $1.44 ± 0.11$ \\
$V/V_0$ at 600 s & $1.08 ± 0.10$ & $1.15 ± 0.14$ \\
$V/V_0$ after isoosmotic shrinkage & $0.86 ± 0.09$ & $0.92 ± 0.07$ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Change in Thymocyte Volume during Swelling}
\end{table}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure3}
\caption{Ca$^{2+}$ influx is required for SWAC transients. (A) Average [Ca$^{2+}$]$_i$ profiles for thymocytes swollen in the presence and absence of 2 mM Ca$^{2+}$. SWAC transients were recorded in 78% of the cells swollen in the presence of Ca$^{2+}$, while no [Ca$^{2+}$]$_i$ change was observed when thymocytes were swollen in Ca$^{2+}$-free media (experiments 43094-4 and 41394-8). (B) Intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ stores are not involved in the generation of SWAC transients. Single cell [Ca$^{2+}$]$_i$ profiles are displayed. During the first 30 s of swelling, thymocytes were exposed to 2 mM Ca$^{2+}$. After this brief exposure, the bathing media was replaced with hypoosmotic, Ca$^{2+}$-free Ringer. Few cells elicited SWAC transients. 5 μM ionomycin added at 150 s in Ca$^{2+}$-free, hypoosmotic media revealed that intracellular stores contained Ca$^{2+}$ (experiment 12595-16). (C) Longer exposure to 2 mM Ca$^{2+}$ during swelling increases the percentage of thymocytes displaying SWAC transients. Single-cell [Ca$^{2+}$]$_i$ profiles are shown (experiment 12595-10).}
\end{figure}
Thymocytes require Ca\textsuperscript{2+} during a critical period to elicit SWAC transients. (A) 64\% of thymocytes preswollen for 60 s in Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-free media exhibit SWAC transients. [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}]\textsubscript{i} profiles are displayed for 62 individual cells (experiment 12495-6). (B) When held in Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-free hypoosmotic media for longer periods, fewer cells exhibit SWAC transients (experiment 12495-2). (C) Summary histogram of data presented in Fig. 3, B and C. As the period of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} exposure during swelling is lengthened, a greater percentage of thymocytes show SWAC transients. Const. (far right bar) indicates...
cellular volume. Furthermore, Fig. 4 reinforces the conclusion that SWAC transients are the result of Ca"+ influx, rather than the release of stored Ca"+

Pharmacology. We next examined the ability of Ca"+ channel antagonists to inhibit SWAC influx. Ca"+ influx pathways in a wide range of cell types are blocked by polyvalent metal cations and organic compounds (Tsien and Tsien, 1990; Hille, 1992). Trivalent cations of the lanthanide series inhibited SWAC influx effectively.

Fig. 5 A displays the average time course of five experiments conducted with increasing concentrations of extracellular Gd"+ ([Gd"+]o). The traces show a concentration-dependent decrease in the average amplitude of SWAC transients from 787 ± 287 nM (180 nM Gd"+, n = 2 experiments, 176 cells) to 287 ± 131 nM (5.6 μM Gd"+, n = 2 experiments, 180 cells). In Fig. 5 A, note that the time courses exhibited significantly higher [Ca"+] after Gd"+ application than at rest. A high

that Ca"+ was present during the entire hypoosmotic exposure (experiments 12595-7 to 12595-10, and 43094-1 to 43094-6). (D) Summary histogram of data presented in A and B. The percentage of cells exhibiting SWAC transients decreases as the period of exposure to Ca"-free, hypoosmotic media increases (experiments 12495-2 to 12495-6, and 12495-8).
[Gd$^{3+}$]$_o$ of 100 μM was necessary to lower [Ca$^{2+}$]$_i$ back to basal levels. This finding supports the idea that another Ca$^{2+}$ influx pathway, which is less sensitive to [Gd$^{3+}$]$_o$, develops concurrently with SWAC influx during swelling. A Gd$^{3+}$ dose-response curve for SWAC influx is shown in Fig. 5 B. Separate data points were best fit using a $K_a$ of 3.8 μM and a Hill coefficient ($n_h$) of 2. La$^{3+}$ was slightly more effective at blocking SWAC influx; the dose-response curve for La$^{3+}$ yielded a $K_a$ of 2.4 μM (data not shown). Potent lanthanide inhibition of the SWAC response reinforces the conclusion that Ca$^{2+}$ influx mediates [Ca$^{2+}$], transients.

Divalent transition metal cations and dihydropyridine Ca-channel antagonists were less effective blockers. Ni$^{2+}$ inhibited SWAC influx with a $K_a$ of 4.4 mM (data not shown). Cd$^{2+}$ was effective at levels >100 μM. Similarly, 100 μM levels of nifedipine, D-600, and nicardipine inhibited SWAC influx.

Swollen thymocytes respond in a threshold-like manner. We measured the degree of swelling needed to trigger [Ca$^{2+}$], transients by superfusing thymocytes with stepwise-diluted Ringer solutions. The osmolarity of the bathing media was decreased in 10% increments at 3-min intervals. [Ca$^{2+}$], transients were recorded in 84 ± 4% of thymocytes ($n = 3$ experiments, 451 cells) using this stepwise dilution protocol. [Ca$^{2+}$], profiles in three individual cells (Fig. 6, A–C) illustrate the range of re-

![Figure 6](image-url)
sponses. While a few thymocytes exhibited a single SWAC transient of normal amplitude and duration after the step to 70% isoosmotic (Fig. 6 A), the majority of cells responded at 60% isoosmotic. Solutions more dilute than 50% caused many thymocytes to burst, as previously reported (Cheung et al., 1982a; Cheung, Grinstein, and Gelfand, 1982b).

Approximately 30% of cells exhibited more than one transient during the dilution run (Fig. 6, B and C). Most cells exhibiting doublets responded at 70% isoosmotic with the first transient of the pair, while the second was elicited after the step to 50% isoosmotic (Fig. 6 B). This finding suggests that a recovery period, longer than the 3-min interval between dilution steps, is typically required before secondary transients can be generated. A few thymocytes displayed three or four transients during the experiment (Fig. 6 C). The step to 80% isoosmotic proved to be the upper limit of sensitivity. Theoretically, in 80% Ringer, thymocytes would swell in volume by 125% if they behaved as perfect osmometers. Thymocytes consistently showed a ~70 nM rise in steady state [Ca2+]i after transients decayed (Fig. 6, A–C). Multiple transients in single cells led to progressively higher steady state [Ca2+]i (Fig. 6, B and C). The average time course (Fig. 6 D) demonstrates that steady state [Ca2+]i rises with each reduction in osmolarity beyond 70%.

Fig. 7 presents a histogram of [Ca2+]i transients in thymocytes during stepwise dilution experiments. Transients are classified by the level of hypoosmolarity (horizontal axis) and their relative position to one another in single-cell [Ca2+]i profiles (legend). Primary responses (black bars) indicate the dilution step at which the first transient in a single cell was generated. Note that successive responses (secondary, tertiary and quaternary) in each hypoosmolarity category do not always correlate with the preceding dilution step (e.g., a cell showing a secondary response at 60% isoosmotic may have given a primary response at either 80 or 70%). Error bars, some of which are too small to be seen, indicate ± SD (experiments 110993-2, 43094-7, and 43094-8).
**CRAC Influx in Thymocytes**

The main objectives of this study were to characterize SWAC transients in thymocytes and distinguish SWAC influx from other Ca\(^{2+}\) entry pathways. To address this second issue, we examined the influx of Ca\(^{2+}\) through the CRAC pathway in TG-treated thymocytes. TG specifically inhibits microsomal Ca\(^{2+}\)-ATPases, exposing an endogenous leak pathway which empties stores (for review, see Thastrup, Dawson, Scharff, Foden, Cullen, Drøbak, Bjerrum, Christensen, and Hanley, 1989), leading to Ca\(^{2+}\) influx by capacitative Ca\(^{2+}\) entry (Putney, 1990).

**Fig. 8.** Depletion of intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) stores stimulates CRAC influx in TG-treated thymocytes. (A) Single-cell response showing release of stored Ca\(^{2+}\) between 100 and 400 s. Re-application of extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) at 400 s activates CRAC influx. A slowly declining plateau develops after \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0\) has reached maximal levels. Labeled arrows indicate start and end points over which time derivatives were calculated (experiment 42794-5; cell 75). (B) The average time course is displayed for 107 cells (experiment 42794-5).

Fig. 8 illustrates a protocol making it possible to separate Ca\(^{2+}\) release and Ca\(^{2+}\) influx within single cells. After a 50-s incubation period in Ca\(^{2+}\)-free media, a saturating dose of TG (1 \(\mu\)M; Gouy et al., 1990) was applied to thymocytes. \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_0\), rose immediately after TG treatment, and on average required 167 ± 42 s (n = 25 experiments, 2,925 cells) to reach a maximum value of 208 ± 31 nM. Maximum \(d[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i/dt\) during release averaged 1.1 ± 0.6 nM/s. After TG-sensitive stores were exhausted, buffering and TG-insensitive Ca\(^{2+}\) pumps gradually lowered \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\). Ca\(^{2+}\) readdition to Ca\(^{2+}\)-depleted thymocytes caused \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) to increase rapidly,
peaking after $103 \pm 71 \text{s} \ (n = 1 \text{ experiment, 107 cells})$ at a value of $905 \pm 144 \text{nM}$. Maximum $d[\text{Ca}^{2+}] / dt$, typically measured at the midpoint of the rise, averaged $21 \pm 15 \text{nM/s}$. This value is equivalent in magnitude to the initial rate of increasing $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in the presence of $2 \text{ mM Ca}^{2+} \ (\sim 17 \text{nM/s})$ measured by Premack et al. (1994) in TG-treated Jurkat T cells. The rising phase in thymocytes halted abruptly, leading to a steady state which declined gradually at $-0.35 \pm 0.16 \text{nM/s}$.

**Extracellular Ca$^{2+}$ dependence.** The decline in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, after the peak represents the interplay between Ca$^{2+}$ influx through the CRAC pathway, cytosolic Ca$^{2+}$ buffering, Ca$^{2+}$ extrusion via plasma membrane Ca$^{2+}$ pumps, and Ca$^{2+}$ sequestration by TG-insensitive Ca$^{2+}$ pumps. We examined the declining phase by exposing thymocytes to multiple Ca$^{2+}$-free episodes. Fig. 9, A and C, illustrates that $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, falls after each exposure to Ca$^{2+}$-free media. However, each time Ca$^{2+}$ is reapplied, $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ rises near to the previous peak level. The slope of the tangent line drawn in Fig. 9 A was less steep than the decline measured in Fig. 8. We also measured the

![Figure 9](image)

Figure 9. CRAC influx depends upon extracellular Ca$^{2+}$. (A) $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ time course in a single cell exposed to Ca$^{2+}$-free cycles spaced at regular intervals of 300 s. Ca$^{2+}$-free Ringer solution rapidly lowers $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$; however, $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ almost reaches previous peak levels after Ca$^{2+}$ is reapplied. The tangent line drawn between $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, peaks at arrows b, d, and f exhibits a slope of $-0.26 \text{nM/s}$ (experiment 51394-8; cell 16). (B) $d[\text{Ca}^{2+}] / dt$ during Ca$^{2+}$ exposure declines with successive Ca$^{2+}$-free episodes. Labeled arrows correspond to those in A. Between arrows a and b, maximum $d[\text{Ca}^{2+}] / dt$ in this cell reached $22.4 \text{nM/s}$. Maximum $d[\text{Ca}^{2+}] / dt$ then fell to $16.5 \text{nM/s}$ during the second cycle. Finally, between arrows e and f, maximum $d[\text{Ca}^{2+}] / dt$ decreased to $12.8 \text{nM/s}$. (C) Average response of 109 cells. Peak $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, fell from $847 \pm 170 \text{nM} \ (n = 2 \text{ experiments, 239 cells})$ to $808 \pm 154 \text{nM}$, finally reaching $744 \pm 145 \text{nM}$ during the last cycle. Peak levels were established $93 \pm 42 \text{s}$ after the first Ca$^{2+}$ readdition, then at $83 \pm 39 \text{s}$ and $87 \pm 39 \text{s}$ during subsequent cycles. These numbers were used to calculate an average declining slope of $-0.17 \text{nM/s}$ between peaks (experiment 51394-8).
rise in $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ during the three influx episodes; time derivatives are shown in Fig. 9 B. On average, maximum $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ decreased from 23 ± 15 nM/s to 18 ± 10 nM/s, indicating that declining peak $[Ca^{2+}]$, during the influx episodes correlates with slower $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$.

**Lanthanide block.** Like SWAC transients, the influx of Ca$^{2+}$ through the CRAC pathway is sensitive to lanthanides (see above and Mason et al., 1991b; Demaurex,

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 10.** CRAC influx in thymocytes is blocked by nM Gd$^{3+}$. (A) Average $[Ca^{2+}]$, profile of six experiments at increasing Gd$^{3+}$ concentrations. The CRAC influx episode between 400 and 600 s was used as an internal control. Average responses are the composite of >100 cells (experiments 51594-5, 51594-10, 51594-11, 51594-13, 51594-16, and 51594-17). (B) Gd$^{3+}$ dose-response curves for CRAC influx (solid lines). The degree of block was calculated as the ratio of $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ before and after Gd$^{3+}$ application with the following equation:

$$d[Ca^{2+}]/dt, \text{(Gd}^{3+}/\text{control)} = \frac{\text{Slope}_{400-600}}{\text{Slope}_{800-1000}} \times \frac{\text{Slope}_{400-600}}{\text{Slope}_{800-1000}}$$

where $\text{Slope}_{400-600}$ is maximum $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ during the internal control (see A), and $\text{Slope}_{800-1000}$ is maximum $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ between 800 and 1000 s. Successive $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ measurements during control experiments are signified by $\text{Slope}_{400-600}$ and $\text{Slope}_{800-1000}$, respectively. The amount of block was calculated from peak $[Ca^{2+}]$, measurements with an analogous equation. Data points represent mean values, with error bars indicating ± SEM. In some
Lew, and Krause, 1992; Hoth and Penner, 1993). In Fig. 10, we provide evidence that nanomolar amounts of Gd$^{3+}$ or La$^{3+}$ block Ca$^{2+}$ entry through the CRAC pathway in thymocytes. Experiments measuring the block of CRAC influx are complicated by mechanisms which regulate [Ca$^{2+}$]. As described above, the declining [Ca$^{2+}$], plateau is controlled by at least four parameters: Ca$^{2+}$ influx, buffering, sequestration, and extrusion. Therefore, to examine a preferential blocking effect on influx, inhibitors must be added before [Ca$^{2+}$], rises. Because $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ in thymocytes varies during CRAC activation, an internal control must be established for each cell before applying blocker. In Fig. 10 A, the internal control in the absence of inhibitor corresponds to the interval between 400 and 600 s. Two independent assessments of block are provided by this experiment: a change in $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$, and effects on peak [Ca$^{2+}$]. Gd$^{3+}$ has a similar effect on $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ and peak [Ca$^{2+}$]; thus, we can infer that Gd$^{3+}$ primarily blocks Ca$^{2+}$ influx through the CRAC pathway in thymocytes. In Fig. 10 B, we have plotted two Gd$^{3+}$ dose-response curves (solid line, Fig. 5 B, dotted line). A Hill equation fitted the ratio of $d[Ca^{2+}]/dt$ measurements before and after Gd$^{3+}$ application with a $K_d$ of 18 nM and $n_h$ of 2. Similarly, a Hill equation fitted to fractional peak [Ca$^{2+}$], exhibited a $K_d$ of 28 nM and $n_h$ of 1.5. Therefore, Gd$^{3+}$ blocks Ca$^{2+}$ entry through the CRAC pathway 130 times more effectively than it inhibits Ca$^{2+}$ influx during SWAC transients (cf. Fig. 5, Results). La$^{3+}$ was slightly less effective than Gd$^{3+}$ at blocking CRAC influx (data not shown). A summary of $K_d$ and $n_h$ values for Gd$^{3+}$ and La$^{3+}$ block of SWAC and CRAC pathways is presented in Table II. Whereas Gd$^{3+}$ blocks CRAC influx more effectively than La$^{3+}$, the opposite is true for the inhibition of SWAC transients.

Separate Ca$^{2+}$ Influx Pathways

SWAC transients can be generated after stores are emptied. Our pharmacology data suggest that SWAC and CRAC are separate pathways. The following experiments (Figs. 11–13) provide further evidence that the pathways are distinct. Most thymocytes (59%) swollen immediately after TG treatment elicit [Ca$^{2+}$]$_i$ transients (Fig. 11 A). After a delay of 57 ± 42 s ($n = 1$ experiment, 70 cells), [Ca$^{2+}$]$_i$ during...
SWAC transients peaked at a higher level (1,208 ± 159 nM) than reported earlier without store depletion (see Fig. 1). Thymocytes exhibiting SWAC transients displayed a much slower rise in CRAC influx than nonresponsive thymocytes (cf. Figs. 11 A and 11 B). Elevated \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) is believed to stimulate \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\)-ATPases and/or inhibit depletion-activated \(\text{Ca}^{2+}\) influx in lymphocytes (Lewis and Cahalan, 1989; Dolmetsch and Lewis, 1994; Premack et al., 1994) and in A431 cells, a human cancer cell line derived from epidermal tissue (Lückhoff and Clapham, 1994). The transient elevation of \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), generated by SWAC influx may stimulate one or both of these processes and delay the development of CRAC influx in thymocytes.

\(\text{Ca}^{2+}\) influx pathways are additive. Shown in Fig. 12 A is the simultaneous generation of CRAC and SWAC influxes in a single cell. Less than half (46 ± 4%, \(n = 2\) experiments, 223 cells) of the thymocytes elicited SWAC transients above the \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), plateau established by CRAC influx. The low percentage of thymocytes ex-

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{example_graph}
\caption{SWAC transients are not affected by depletion of TG-sensitive, intracellular stores. \(A\) A subgroup of 71 cells (59% of total) exhibited \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) transients immediately after store depletion. Note the extended delay in the single-cell \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) profile (top) and subgroup average (bottom) before \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) transients. After the transient peak, \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\), decayed with a time constant averaging 22 ± 16 s and reached a minimum of 402 ± 135 nM (experiment 42794-6; cell 16). \(B\) Subgroup of thymocytes not displaying \([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i\) transients (experiment 42794-6; cell 35).}
\end{figure}
hibiting transients suggests that the SWAC response is inhibited by elevated \([Ca^{2+}]_i\) during the plateau. After a delay of \(60 \pm 16\) s, \([Ca^{2+}]_i\) reached \(1,184 \pm 178\) nM \((n = 2\) experiments, 99 cells\) during the transients, and then decayed with a time constant of \(19 \pm 7\) s. As in Fig. 11 A, depletion of TG-sensitive stores correlated with substantially higher peak \([Ca^{2+}]_i\), during transients. Likewise, \([Ca^{2+}]_i\), rose slowly after the superimposed transient (Fig. 12 A).

**Pharmacological separation.** Three lines of evidence support the hypothesis that SWAC and CRAC influx pathways are distinct: (a) \(d[Ca^{2+}]/dt\) kinetics differ substantially between the two pathways; (b) the pathways differ in sensitivity to lanthanide block; and (c) the pathways are additive and can be activated simultaneously in single cells. In Fig. 13, the two \(Ca^{2+}\) influx pathways are distinguished by their relative \(Gd^{3+}\) sensitivity. After the depletion of \(Ca^{2+}\) stores with TG, \([Ca^{2+}]_i\),
was allowed to rise for 100 s (between 400 and 500 s in Fig. 13, A and B). Maximum $d[Ca^{2+}]_{i}/dt$ reached $15 \pm 7$ nM/s ($n = 1$ experiment, 88 cells) before $[Ca^{2+}]_{i}$ peaked at $750 \pm 206$ nM after a $92 \pm 12$ s delay. The delay measurement indicates that $[Ca^{2+}]_{i}$ in most cells plateaued before Gd$^{3+}$ application at 500 s. CRAC influx was completely blocked by 1 μM Gd$^{3+}$; $[Ca^{2+}]_{i}$ declined with a time constant of $37 \pm 13$ s, a value significantly longer than that measured during the sequential

![Diagram A](image1)

![Diagram B](image2)

**Figure 13.** SWAC transients can be generated after Gd$^{3+}$ block of Ca$^{2+}$ influx through the CRAC pathway. (A) 68% of the thymocytes swollen in the presence of 1 μM Gd$^{3+}$ displayed SWAC transients after the complete inhibition of CRAC influx (experiment 42794-13; cell 52). (B) Subgroup of 42 cells exhibiting CRAC influx, but not SWAC transients (experiment 42794-13; cell 2).

Ca$^{2+}$-free episodes in Fig. 9. Therefore, Ca$^{2+}$ pumps in the plasma membrane of thymocytes are sensitive to [Gd$^{3+}$]$_o$ in the μM range. Lanthanide inhibition of plasma membrane Ca$^{2+}$ pumps has been reported previously in various cell types (Kwan, Takemura, Obie, Thastrup, and Putney, 1990; Carafoli, 1991).

Hypoosmotic solution applied at 600 s generated SWAC transients in 68% of the cells. A delay of $75 \pm 29$ s was measured before $[Ca^{2+}]_{i}$ transients; $[Ca^{2+}]_{i}$ peaked at
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663 ± 168 nM and then declined with a time constant averaging 63 ± 48 s. This experiment demonstrates that SWAC transients can be observed in the presence of 1 μM Gd\(^{3+}\), after the complete inhibition of CRAC influx. A similar experiment can be performed with 0.5 μM La\(^{3+}\) (data not shown), even though a narrower \(K_d\) margin for La\(^{3+}\) block (41-fold) separated SWAC and CRAC influxes.

\(T\)-Cell Phenotyping

SWAC transients correlate with thymocyte phenotype. Using fluorescently labeled monoclonal antibodies, we examined the surface expression of CD4 and CD8 on thymocytes before swelling. Developmental stages in thymocytes were then correlated with their ability to elicit SWAC transients. Table III summarizes the phenotyping experiments. The results indicate that immature double-negative and double-positive thymocytes are more likely to exhibit SWAC transients than single-positive CD4\(^{-}/\)CD8\(^{+}\) (helper) and CD4\(^{+}/\)CD8\(^{-}\) (cytotoxic/suppressor) cells. Representative single-cell [Ca\(^{2+}\)]\(_i\) traces of the four CD4/CD8 phenotypes are displayed in Fig. 14 A. The presence of surface antibodies did not affect the ability of thymocytes to elicit a response; 69 ± 10% \((n = 14\) experiments, 815 cells) of phenotyped cells exhibited SWAC transients. SWAC transients were most frequently observed in double-positive thymocytes. The CD4\(^{-}/\)CD8\(^{+}\) subgroup was least likely to exhibit transients. In contrast, the four phenotypes displayed identical [Ca\(^{2+}\)]\(_i\) profiles during CRAC influx (Fig. 14 B). Our data represent a "snapshot" of thymocytes at various developmental stages. Many thymocytes were probably observed in transition between phenotypes. Further distinction among the four thymocyte subpopulations, based upon the relative fluorescence brightness of bound CD4 and CD8 antibodies or the expression of other surface markers, was not performed. Nevertheless, these results support the hypothesis that SWAC transients are primarily associated with immature thymocyte phenotypes.

\(Mature\ T\ cells\ fail\ to\ exhibit\ SWAC\ transients.\) To address the proposal that [Ca\(^{2+}\)]\(_i\) transients are more often seen in immature lymphocyte populations, we examined [Ca\(^{2+}\)]\(_i\) responses in swollen murine splenocytes and HPB T cells. Peripheral lymphocytes share many properties with mature thymocytes. Therefore, single-positive CD4/CD8 thymocytes, or closely related subgroups, are thought to be precursors

| CD4/CD8  | Percent of total | Percent exhibiting transients |
|---------|-----------------|-------------------------------|
| -/-     | 7               | 78 ± 23                       |
| +/+     | 68              | 84 ± 9                        |
| +/-     | 20              | 33 ± 17                       |
| -/+     | 5               | 13 ± 17                       |

Mean values were compared with a one-way ANOVA and the statistical difference between pairs of means evaluated with a Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test. Pairs of means were significantly different at \(P < 0.05\), except -/- vs +/+ . Data collected from 14 experiments: -/- phenotype, 56 cells; +/+ phenotype, 555 cells; +/- phenotype, 161 cells; -/+ phenotype, 48 cells (experiments 70994-2 to 70994-5, 70994-1 to 70994-8, 70994-13, and 70994-14).
of peripheral T cells. Fig. 15 A shows a typical splenocyte [Ca^{2+}]_{i} profile (top) and the average time course (bottom) during exposure to 60% isoosmotic solution. [Ca^{2+}]_{i} profiles in most splenocytes displayed fluctuations rather than sharp, single transients. These [Ca^{2+}]_{i} fluctuations, which varied in amplitude and frequency,

were stopped by returning cells to isoosmotic bathing media. A few splenocytes displayed [Ca^{2+}]_{i} spikes immediately after the solution exchange to hypoosmotic media (e.g., Fig. 15 A, top). However, these spikes decayed completely to basal [Ca^{2+}]_{i} levels, unlike SWAC transients in thymocytes which led to a sustained plateau above

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**FIGURE 14.** SWAC transients and thymocyte phenotype are correlated. (A) The majority of immature thymocytes exhibit SWAC transients during swelling. [Ca^{2+}]_{i} time courses in four representative thymocytes, classified by surface expression of CD4 and CD8, show typical swelling-induced responses. Approximately 80% of immature thymocytes, designated −/− (double negatives) and +/- (double positives), exhibit SWAC transients (see Table III). In contrast, most (>80%) of the mature thymocytes, classified as +/− and −/+ (single positives), show no response. (experiments 70994-8; cells 51, 54, 71, and 74). (B) TG stimulates Ca^{2+} influx through the CRAC pathway in all four classes of CD4/CD8 thymocytes. (experiment 70994-10; cells 6, 12, 19, and 68).
resting $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ (see Figs. 1 A, and 2, A and C). HPB T cells (Fig. 15 B), like the subset of nonresponsive murine thymocytes described in Fig. 2 B, showed very little change in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ during swelling.

We also examined the swelling-induced $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ response in Jurkat T lymphocytes, a cell line commonly used to study $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ signaling. Jurkat T cells (Fig. 15 C) display $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ fluctuations similar to those seen in swollen splenocytes (Fig. 15 A). However, large fluctuations in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ were less frequent in Jurkat T cells, perhaps...

\textbf{Figure 15.} Mature lymphocytes do not exhibit SWAC transients. (A) Swollen splenocytes exhibit $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ fluctuations rather than sharp transients. Because $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ fluctuations in single cells (top) are asynchronous, the average profile (bottom) appears smooth. Reapplication of isosmotic solution stops $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ fluctuations. On average, peak $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in swollen splenocytes reached $388 \pm 152$ nM ($n = 2$ experiments, 91 cells) from a resting level of $141 \pm 45$ nM ($n = 4$ experiments, 234 cells). $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ decreased to $163 \pm 43$ nM ($n = 2$ experiments, 91 cells) with the return of isosmotic media; this $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ level was not significantly different from basal measurements (experiment 1206992; cell 35). (B) Human peripheral T cells show little change in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ during swelling. From a resting level of $85 \pm 13$ nM ($n = 3$ experiments, 129 cells), average $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in swollen HPB T lymphocytes reached $125 \pm 48$ nM before declining over a period of 8 min to $95 \pm 25$ nM. This small change in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ during swelling may be artifactual. The apparent rise in $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ can be mimicked by a 10% decrease in the $K_0$ of fura-2 from 250 to 225 nM as the cell swells (not shown) (experiment 41394-1; cell 53). (C) Swollen Jurkat T lymphocytes, like splenocytes, exhibit $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ fluctuations. However, fluctuations are less frequent and smaller in amplitude in Jurkat T lymphocytes. On average, $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in swollen Jurkat T cells reached $387 \pm 195$ nM ($n = 3$ experiments, 200 cells) from a resting level of $144 \pm 12$ nM. Isosmotic media attenuated $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ fluctuations and lowered $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ to $196 \pm 70$ nM ($n = 2$ experiments, 121 cells). Jurkat $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ images were recorded with a 63X objective (experiment 41394-5; cell 6).
due to their larger size. Furthermore, Jurkat T cells do not exhibit [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}]i spikes when first swollen. These [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}]i fluctuations may correlate with the inwardly directed “leak” conductance measured previously in whole-cell, patch-clamp recordings of swollen Jurkat T cells (Ross, Garber, and Cahalan, 1994).

**DISCUSSION**

In this study we have characterized a distinct Ca\textsuperscript{2+} influx pathway activated by cell swelling in immature mouse thymocytes. Features of the SWAC influx pathway include (a) a transient macroscopic [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}]i profile (Figs. 1, 2, 6, 11, 12, 13, and 14); (b) a critical dependence on extracellular Ca\textsuperscript{2+} (Figs. 3 and 4); and (c) block by μM amounts of Gd\textsuperscript{3+} and La\textsuperscript{3+} (Fig. 5 and Table II). The restriction of SWAC influx to immature T-cell subsets (Table III) is consistent with the absence of transients in swollen mouse splenocytes, HPB, and Jurkat T lymphocytes (Fig. 15 A–C). Comparison experiments indicate that thymocytes use separate pathways for SWAC and CRAC influx. Five lines of evidence support this finding: (a) d[Ca\textsuperscript{2+}]/dt kinetics differ substantially between the two pathways (cf. Figs. 1 A, 2 A, and 8 A); (b) lanthanides blocked Ca\textsuperscript{2+} entry during CRAC activation much more potently than Ca\textsuperscript{2+} influx during SWAC transients (Figs. 5, 10, and Table II); (c) the simultaneous activation of both pathways generated an additive [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}]i profile in single cells (Fig. 12 A); (d) the difference in sensitivity to Gd\textsuperscript{3+} illustrated that SWAC transients could be elicited in the presence of 1 μM Gd\textsuperscript{3+}, after the complete inhibition of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} entry through the CRAC pathway (Fig. 13). Similar results were obtained with 0.5 μM La\textsuperscript{3+}, even though a narrower Kd margin for La\textsuperscript{3+} separated SWAC and CRAC inhibition (Table II); and finally (e) SWAC transients are primarily restricted to immature thymocytes, while TG stimulated the CRAC influx pathway in all four thymic CD4/CD8 subsets and in mature T cells (Figs. 14 and 15).

**Ca\textsuperscript{2+} Dependence of RVD**

Grinstein, Dupre, and Rothstein (1982) first hypothesized that a rise in [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}], initiated RVD in swollen HPB T lymphocytes. They proposed that the opening of Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-activated K\textsuperscript{+} (K\textsubscript{Ca}) channels provides the cation efflux limb of RVD based on the following results: (a) A23187-treated cells shrank in isoosmotic media; (b) A23187 caused K\textsuperscript{+}/86Rb\textsuperscript{+} efflux to increase; (c) quinine (50–100 μM), believed at the time to block K\textsubscript{Ca} channels specifically, inhibited RVD; (d) calmodulin inhibitors blocked A23187-induced cell shrinkage, K\textsuperscript{+}/86Rb\textsuperscript{+} efflux, and RVD; and (e) the RVD response in lymphocytes preincubated with Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-free/EGTA solutions was diminished. The authors speculated that, because of increased 45Ca\textsuperscript{2+} efflux in swollen lymphocytes, Ca\textsuperscript{2+} release from stores stimulated RVD. Bui and Wiley (1981) had already determined that 45Ca\textsuperscript{2+} uptake did not increase in swollen lymphocytes. The Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-release hypothesis was discounted when no change in [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}] could be measured in swollen lymphocytes with the fluorescent Ca\textsuperscript{2+} indicator quin2 (Rink et al., 1983). Rink and coauthors (1983) noted that quin2 may have buffered Ca\textsuperscript{2+} and attenuated [Ca\textsuperscript{2+}] changes in swollen lymphocytes. Nevertheless, RVD was observed in swollen, quin2-loaded lymphocytes.

As an alternative to K\textsubscript{Ca} channels, voltage-gated K\textsuperscript{+} (K\textsubscript{V}) channels with overlap-
ping pharmacological sensitivity were proposed to underlie loss of K⁺ during RVD (DeCoursey, Chandy, Gupta, and Cahalan, 1985; Deutsch, Krause, and Lee, 1986). The discovery of swelling-activated Cl⁻ channels in lymphocytes suggested a possible Ca²⁺-independent mechanism for RVD (Cahalan and Lewis, 1988; Lewis, Ross, and Cahalan, 1993), in which the opening of Cl⁻ channels during cell swelling would trigger the loss of Cl⁻ ions and membrane depolarization. Depolarization in turn would activate Kᵥ channels leading to increased loss of K⁺ ions along with osmotically obligated water. More potent K⁺-channel blockers and sensitive intracellular Ca²⁺ probes led Grinstein and Smith (1990) to reexamine Ca²⁺-dependent RVD in T lymphocytes. Charybdotoxin (CTX) potently blocks type n Kᵥ channels (Sands, Lewis, and Cahalan, 1989; Price, Lee, and Deutsch, 1989), as well as voltage-independent Kᵥ channels in HPB T lymphocytes (Grissmer, Nguyen, and Cahalan, 1993). No change in [Ca²⁺]ᵢ was seen during swelling using the Ca²⁺ indicator indo-1, and CTX inhibited 75% of the RVD response in lymphocytes. Thus, Grinstein and Smith (1990) reasoned that Ca²⁺-independent, CTX-sensitive and -insensitive K⁺ channels govern RVD in HPB T lymphocytes. Therefore, the Ca²⁺-independent, CTX-sensitive fraction of RVD in HPB T lymphocytes can be attributed to type n Kᵥ channels. These channels are encoded by the Kᵥ1.3 gene (Douglass, Osborne, Cai, Wilkinson, Christie, and Adelman, 1990; Grissmer, Dethlefs, Wasmuth, Goldin, Gutman, Cahalan, and Chandy, 1992). Recently, transfection of the Kᵥ1.3 gene into RVD-incompetent CTLL-2 lymphocytes and subsequent expression of n-type Kᵥ channels conferred the ability of these cells to volume regulate, providing further evidence that Kᵥ channels can mediate Ca²⁺-independent RVD (Deutsch and Chen, 1993).

The data presented in Fig. 15 also indicate that mature mouse thymocytes and HPB lymphocytes rely upon Ca²⁺-independent RVD during periods of swelling. The absence of SWAC transients in these cells supports this conclusion. Nevertheless, small swelling-induced [Ca²⁺]ᵢ responses have recently been reported in fluo-3-loaded HPB T cells (Schlichter and Sakellaropoulos, 1994), where it is speculated that Ca²⁺-dependent and -independent RVD cooperate to control volume. The swelling-induced [Ca²⁺]ᵢ rise measured by Schlichter and Sakellaropoulos (1994) represents a 36 nM (22°C) to 65 nM (37°C) average [Ca²⁺]ᵢ rise above resting levels in swollen HPB T lymphocytes. Our fura-2 measurements on swollen HPB T cells and mature mouse thymocytes also suggest a small [Ca²⁺]ᵢ rise of 40 and 65 nM, respectively (Fig. 15). However, a rise of this magnitude can be produced artifically by a 10% decrease in the Kᵣ for Ca²⁺ binding to fura-2 as cells swell (Fig. 15 legend). Such a change would be consistent with the difference in fura-2 Kᵣ for Ca²⁺ inside cells as compared with saline solution (reviewed in Negulescu and Machen, 1990). More work is necessary before the effects of small, swelling-induced, [Ca²⁺]ᵢ changes on RVD can be resolved.

Does a rise in Ca²⁺ play a role in volume regulation by mouse thymocytes? On average, 77% of thymocytes showed SWAC transients that elevated [Ca²⁺]ᵢ, to an average of 650 nM. Data in Fig. 2 illustrate that large deviations in [Ca²⁺]ᵢ were temporally correlated with an increased rate of RVD in single cells. Cells not exhibiting SWAC transients were also able to volume regulate, but at a slower rate than cells that generated a SWAC transient. The level of [Ca²⁺]ᵢ, achieved during the SWAC
transient would be high enough to activate $K_{Ca}$ channels described previously in activated HPB T cells (Grissmer et al., 1993). Similar CTX-sensitive $K_{Ca}$ channels have been observed in rat and mouse thymocytes (Mahaut-Smith and Mason, 1991; Nguyen and Cahalan, unpublished observation). The activation of $K_{Ca}$ channels during RVD would hyperpolarize the membrane and increase the driving force for efflux of Cl$^-$ ions, as well as providing an optional pathway for K$^+$ loss. A Ca$^{2+}$-dependent component of RVD might enable immature mouse thymocytes to shrink rapidly rather than lysing.

Membrane potential ($V_m$) control and the mechanism of RVD may be different in rat thymocytes. Compared with HPB T cells, rat thymocytes responded somewhat differently to CTX (Grinstein and Smith, 1989). For example, CTX had no effect on the resting $V_m$, while CTX blocked ionophore-induced, K$^+$-dependent hyperpolarization in rat thymocytes. Furthermore, CTX did not affect RVD in swollen rat thymocytes. These results led Grinstein and Smith (1990) to conclude that Ca$^{2+}$-dependent, CTX-sensitive K$^+$ channels, although present in these cells, did not participate in $V_m$ control or function during RVD. Rather, Ca$^{2+}$-independent, CTX-insensitive K$^+$ channels exclusively controlled $V_m$ and contributed to RVD in rat thymocytes. The identity of the Ca$^{2+}$ independent, CTX-insensitive K$^+$ conductance is uncertain. A CTX-insensitive $K_v$ current has been identified in HPB T lymphocytes (Lee, Levy, and Deutsch, 1992), but its possible role in mediating CTX-insensitive RVD in rat thymocytes and HPB T lymphocytes has not been examined.

A Physiological Role for SWAC Transients

SWAC transients in immature mouse thymocytes may indicate that volume control is critical during early stages of lymphocyte development. It is possible that mouse thymocytes switch from Ca$^{2+}$-dependent to Ca$^{2+}$-independent RVD as they mature. However, enhanced RVD in immature T cells is not a universal phenomenon. Grinstein and Smith (1990) have reported that rat thymocytes, albeit a mixture of mature and immature phenotypes, do not return to control volume as quickly as HPB T lymphocytes. An alternative consideration is that [Ca$^{2+}$], transients, although activated by swelling, may be related to other functions in immature mouse thymocytes besides volume regulation.

Intrathymic T-cell development and selection processes require close interaction between thymocytes and the surrounding microenvironment (Scollay, Wilson, D'Amico, Kelly, Egerton, Pearse, Wu, and Shortman, 1988; Ritter and Boyd, 1993). As thymocytes mature, they migrate within the thymus from the cortical subcapsular region to the central medulla. Signals for clonal proliferation, receptor gene rearrangement, positive selection of appropriate MHC interactions, negative selection of self-reactive and defective cells, are delivered to thymocytes throughout development. The thymic microenvironment supplies these signals via stromal cells (fibroblasts, epithelial cells, dendritic cells, macrophages, et cetera), which closely interact with developing thymocytes. A rise in [Ca$^{2+}$], is believed to mediate the clonal deletion of immature, self-reactive, CD4$^+$CD8$^+$ thymocytes by apoptosis (McConkey, Jondal, and Orrenius, 1994). Thymocyte apoptosis can be stimulated by Ca$^{2+}$ ionophores and anti-TCR antibodies. If SWAC transients can be elicited by membrane stretch during adhesive interactions between stromal cells and thymocytes, they may contribute to Ca$^{2+}$-mediated apoptosis in vivo.
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