Ca$^{2+}$ and pH Determine the Interaction of Chromaffin Cell Scinderin with Phosphatidylserine and Phosphatidylinositol 4,5,-Biphosphate and Its Cellular Distribution During Nicotinic-receptor Stimulation and Protein Kinase C Activation

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Abstract. Nicotinic stimulation and high K$^+$-depolarization of chromaffin cells cause disassembly of cortical filamentous actin networks and redistribution of scinderin, a Ca$^{2+}$-dependent actin filament-severing protein. These events which are Ca$^{2+}$-dependent precede exocytosis. Activation of scinderin by Ca$^{2+}$ may cause disassembly of actin filaments leaving cortical areas of low cytoplasmic viscosity which are the sites of exocytosis (Vitale, M. L., A. Rodríguez Del Castillo, L. Tchakarov, and J.-M. Trifaró. 1991. J. Cell. Biol. 113:1057–1067). It has been suggested that protein kinase C (PKC) regulates secretion. Therefore, the possibility that PKC activation might modulate scinderin redistribution was investigated. Here we report that PMA, a PKC activator, caused scinderin redistribution, although with a slower onset than that induced by nicotine. PMA effects were independent of either extra or intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ as indicated by measurements of Ca$^{2+}$ transients, and they were likely to be mediated through direct activation of PKC because inhibitors of the enzyme completely blocked the response to PMA. Scinderin was not phosphorylated by the kinase and further experiments using the Na$^+$/H$^+$ antiport inhibitors and intracellular pH determinations, demonstrated that PKC-mediated scinderin redistribution was a consequence of an increase in intracellular pH. Moreover, it was shown that scinderin binds to phosphatidylserine and phosphatidylinositol 4,5-biphosphate liposomes in a Ca$^{2+}$-dependent manner, an effect which was modulated by the pH. The results suggest that under resting conditions, cortical scinderin is bound to plasma membrane phospholipids. The results also show that during nicotinic receptor stimulation both a rise in intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ and pH are observed. The rise in intracellular pH might be the result of the translocation and activation of PKC produced by Ca$^{2+}$ entry. This also would explain why scinderin redistribution induced by nicotine is partially (26–40%) inhibited by inhibitors of either PKC or the Na$^+$/H$^+$ antiport. In view of these findings, a model which can explain how scinderin redistribution and activity may be regulated by pH and Ca$^{2+}$ in resting and stimulated conditions is proposed.

It has been proposed that the actin microfilament network localized underneath the plasma membrane of chromaffin cells (Lee and Trifaró, 1981; Trifaró et al., 1984; Cheek and Burgoyne, 1986) acts as a barrier to the movement of secretory granules, blocking their access to exocytosis sites at the plasma membrane (Trifaró et al., 1982, 1984, 1989; Cheek and Burgoyne, 1986, 1987; Burgoyne and Cheek, 1987; Burgoyne et al., 1989; Burgoyne, 1991). Thus, removal of the actin barrier would allow the free movement of granules and their subsequent interaction with the plasma membrane (Lelkes et al., 1986). In this regard, it has been shown that nicotinic receptor stimulation of chromaffin cells induces cortical filamentous actin (F-actin) disassembly (Cheek and Burgoyne, 1986; Trifaró et al., 1989; Vitale et al., 1991; Marxen and Bigalke, 1991). The existence of actin binding proteins, which regulate G-actin/F-actin equilibrium (Yin and Stossel, 1979; Craig and Pollard, 1982; Bader et al., 1986; Maekawa et al., 1989; Rodríguez Del Castillo et al., 1990) suggest a role for these proteins in the reorganization of cortical F-actin networks during secretion. Recently, we have published evidence for the presence of scinderin, a new Ca$^{2+}$-dependent actin-filament severing protein, in adrenal chromaffin cells (Rodríguez Del Castillo et al., 1990) as well as in other tissues with high secretory activity (Tchakarov et al., 1990; Rodríguez Del Castillo et al., 1992). Immunofluorescence microscopy studies on chromaffin cells revealed that under resting conditions scinderin shows a diffuse cytoplasmic staining and a continuous cortical fluorescent ring, suggesting some interaction of the protein with plasma membrane elements. Nico-
tinct stimulation causes the fragmentation of scinderin cortical fluorescent ring, suggesting the release of the protein from binding sites in some areas of the subplasmalemmal region (Vitale et al., 1991). This redistribution, which occurs along with F-actin disassembly, is a Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent process which precedes exocytosis (Vitale et al., 1991). Moreover, a close relationship between cell stimulation-induced scinderin redistribution and F-actin disassembly is observed because areas devoid of scinderin are also devoid of F-actin. Furthermore, we have also demonstrated that the sites of exocytosis are preferentially localized to these cortical areas (Vitale et al., 1991). These results suggest that stimulation evoked-Ca\(^{2+}\) influx induces the association of scinderin with actin filaments and promotes its severing activity. On the other hand, when the stimulus (nicotine) is removed, the recovery of scinderin continuous cortical distribution is faster than cortical F-actin reassembly indicating that when Ca\(^{2+}\) concentrations returns to basal levels, cortical scinderin is not associated with cortical F-actin networks. This would suggest that scinderin interacts with other membrane components (Vitale et al., 1991) and that even though Ca\(^{2+}\) has a key role in this process, other intracellular messengers may also modulate scinderin distribution and activity.

Several lines of evidence suggest the participation of protein kinase C (PKC; Takai et al., 1979) in catecholamine secretion from bovine chromaffin cells. Activation of PKC increases evoked-catecholamine release in intact (Pocotte et al., 1985; Morita et al., 1985; TerBush et al., 1988; Bittner and Holz, 1990) as well as in permeabilized chromaffin cells (Knight and Baker, 1983; Brocklehurst et al., 1985; Knight et al., 1988; Bittner and Holz, 1990; Tachikawa et al., 1990; TerBush and Holz, 1990; Isosaki et al., 1991). Moreover, nicotinic stimulation induces translocation of PKC from cytoplasm to membranes (TerBush et al., 1988), a process known to be associated with the activation of the enzyme. However, the sites of action of PKC in the secretory process still remain unknown. One possibility is that PKC is involved in the reorganization of the cortical cytoskeleton preceding exocytosis, because PKC interacts with many cytoskeleton and cytoskeleton-associated proteins (Naka et al., 1983; Katoh et al., 1983; Phatak et al., 1988; Georges et al., 1989; Miyamoto and Wu, 1990; Zalewski et al., 1990; Appgar, 1991).

The present paper describes the partial contribution of PKC activation to nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution and the role of intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) and pH in the regulation of scinderin localization during resting and stimulated conditions. The results demonstrated that PMA, a compound known to activate PKC (Castagna et al., 1982), induced cortical scinderin redistribution in a Ca\(^{2+}\)-independent manner and with a slower rate of onset than that observed during nicotinic stimulation. PMA-induced scinderin redistribution was completely blocked by three PKC inhibitors. However, the PKC inhibitors only partially (26-40%) inhibited nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution. Scinderin was not phosphorylated by PKC. PMA and nicotine induced a rise in intracellular pH, which was blocked by a Na\(^{+}/H^+\) antiport inhibitors. Immunofluorescence microscopy studies revealed that amiloride completely blocked PMA-induced but partially (30–40%) blocked nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution. Furthermore, the experiments described here indicate that scinderin might be associated with membrane phospholipids such as phosphatidylserine (PS) and phosphatidylinositol 4,5-biphosphate (PIP\(_2\)) in a Ca\(^{2+}\)- and pH-dependent manner. Our results indicate that nicotine stimulation and Ca\(^{2+}\) entry activates PKC, which in turn activates the Na\(^{+}/H^+\) antiport with the subsequent rise in intracellular pH. These cellular changes (increases in Ca\(^{2+}\) and pH) might modulate scinderin activity and its interaction with its targets ( phospholipids and actin).

**Materials and Methods**

**Chromaffin Cell Culture**

Bovine adrenal glands were obtained from a local slaughterhouse and chromaffin cells were isolated by collagenase digestion and further purified using a Percoll gradient (Trifaro and Lee, 1980). Cells were used either immediately after isolation for preparation of cytosolic fractions for phospholipid binding studies or plated on collagen-coated glass coverslips contained within plastic Petri dishes (0.3 × 10\(^6\) cells/35-mm diameter dish) for fluorescence microscopy studies or 1.5 × 10\(^6\) cells/35-mm diameter dish for intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) measurements) or in collagen-coated Petri dishes (3 × 10\(^6\) cells/35-mm diameter dish) for PKC assay, respectively. Plated chromaffin cells were grown at 37°C in a humidified incubator under CO\(_2\) + air atmosphere for 48 h and cultures were periodically examined under phase contrast optics.

**Immunofluorescence Microscopy Studies**

Cultured chromaffin cells were rinsed three times with regular Locke’s solution (in mM: NaCl, 154; KCl, 2.6; KHPO\(_4\), 1.25; KH\(_2\)PO\(_4\), 0.50; MgCl\(_2\), 1.2; CaCl\(_2\), 2.2; and p-glucose, 100; pH 7.2), when Ca\(^{2+}\)+free Locke’s solution was used, Ca\(^{2+}\) was removed and 1 mM EGTA was added. Cells were then treated with different drugs as described in the respective experiments, and immediately fixed in 3.7% formaldehyde in Locke’s solution for 20 min and processed for immunofluorescence microscopy as previously reported (Lee and Trifaro, 1981; Vitale et al., 1991). Briefly, chromaffin cells were permeabilized by three successive exposures of 5 min each to 50, 100, and 50% acetone. After washing several times with PBS (in mM: NaCl, 130; Na phosphate, 100; pH 7.0) preparations were incubated at 37°C with scinderin antiserum 6 (1:80 dilution) for 60 min. At the end of this period, preparations were washed with PBS and mounted in PBS: glycerol (1:1, vol/vol). Control experiments were carried out with (a) FITC-IgG alone and (b) scinderin antiserum previously adsorbed with rabbit immunoglobulin FITC-IgG (1:160 dilution) for another 60 min. All the slides were observed with a Leitz Ortholux fluorescence microscope equipped with a 100-W high pressure lamp (E. Leitz, Inc., Rockleigh, NJ) and an incident light illuminator containing an 11-Filter block (KP 490 plus 1-mm GG 455 exciting filter, TK dichroic beam splitting mirror, and K 515 suppression filter) (Ploemopack II, Toronto, Ontario). Photographs were taken with Kodak-Tri-X pan films (400 ASA, Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester, NY). One hundred cells per coverslip were examined and classified as having either a “continuous cortical staining” or a “discontinuous cortical staining.” To avoid personal bias, code numbers were given to each coverslip to be examined and the procedure was conducted without knowing whether cells were from control or treated preparations; only after the coverslips were examined and the results recorded were the codes revealed to identify the experimental conditions used (single-blind design).

**Protein Kinase C Activity**

Protein kinase C activity in particulate fractions was assayed as described by TerBush and Holz (1986). Cells were rinsed three times with regular

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1. Abbreviations used in this paper: BCECF, 2',7'-bis(carboxyethyl)5(6)-carboxyfluorescein; BCECF/AM, 2',7'-bis(carboxyethyl)5(6)-carboxyfluorescein acetoxymethyl ester; PIP\(_2\), phosphatidylinositol 4,5-biphosphate; PKC, protein kinase C; PS, phosphatidylserine.
Locke's solution and incubated at room temperature with 0.1% DMSO in Locke's solution alone or containing 10^{-7} M 4a-PMA or PMA for 1 or 6 min. After these treatments, cells were immediately scraped off in 900 μl ice-cold buffer A (in mM: potassium glutamate, 139; Pipes, 20 [pH 6.6]; EGTA, 5; and leupeptin, 50 μM). Cell suspensions were sonicated for 5 s twice in a sonic dismembrator (model 300; Fisher Scientific, Ontario, Canada). Homogenates were centrifuged at 78,000 g for 90 min and sediments were resuspended in 900 μl buffer A, diluted 10-fold with buffer A and enough Triton X-100 was added in order to reach a final concentration of 0.1%. 20 μl of particulate fraction preparations were incubated at 30°C for 10 min with 180 μl of PKC assay buffer (final concentration: potassium glutamate, 42 mM; Pipes, 20 mM (pH 6.6); MgCl₂, 10 mM; DTI, 10 mM; BSA, 80 μg/ml; leupeptin, 5 μg/ml; mercaptoethanol, 25 μM; Triton X-100, 0.01%; ATP, 30 μM (300,000 cpm of [γ-32P]ATP; sp act, 10 Ci/mmol); histone Type III-S, 5 μg/ml; EGTA 5 μM; Ca^{2+}, 0.8 mM; phosphatidylserine-diolein, 167 μg/ml; ± diolein, 267 μg/ml. The reaction was stopped with 1 ml of 1.5% TCA containing 0.25% NaN₃, 15 mM NaH₂PO₄, and 2 mM ATP and 180 μl of a 6.5 mg BSA/ml solution. Tubes were kept on ice for 20 min and then centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min. Sediments were dissolved in 0.1 ml 0.5 M NaOH. The precipitation/dissolution step (with 1 ml 5% TCA, 0.25% Na₂W/100 μM 0.5 M NaOH) was repeated three times. Radioactivity was determined in the resuspended sediments by liquid scintillation spectrophotometry (model LS 7800; Beckman Instruments Inc., Fullerton, CA). PKC activity was considered to be the difference between the presence of Ca^{2+} and without phosphatidylserine-diolein and the activity in the presence of Ca^{2+} and without phosphatidylserine-diolein. PKC activity was expressed as pmol-[^32P]/min/mg membrane protein. Under the experimental conditions described, PKC specific activity was linear for samples containing 0.5-2.5 μg protein.

**Measurement of Intracellular Ca^{2+}**

Intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations were measured by using the fluorescent Ca^{2+} indicator Fura-2 (Grynkiewicz et al., 1985). It has been described that cell suspensions can be resistant to display changes in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations in response to stimulation (Tucker et al., 1990). To avoid this possibility, cells attached to collagen-coated coverslips were used in the present work. Chromaffin cells, grown on glass coverslips at a density of 1.5 × 10⁶ cells/35 mm diameter dish, were rinsed three times with assay buffer (in mM: NaCl, 118; KCl, 4.6; Hepes, 20 [pH 7.20]; CaCl₂, 1; glucose, 10). Coverslips were then incubated with Fura-2 (10^-4 M, final dilution) for 40 min at 37°C. After the loading step, cells were rinsed five times with assay buffer and coverslips were inserted into the cuvette loaded with 2 ml assay buffer. The coverslips were immobilized in such a way that the same group of cells were facing the incoming excitation light beam. Fluorescence of the attached cells was measured using a dual wavelength luminescence spectrophotometer (LS-50; Perkin-Elmer Instrument Division, Norwalk, CT). F_max values were obtained from cell preparations lysed with 1% Triton X-100 and F_min values by adding enough EGTA to reach 10 mM.

**Phosphorylation of Scinderin**

PKC-catalyzed phosphorylation of scinderin was performed according to Kambamoto and Hidaka (1984) by evaluating 32P incorporation into scinderin after electrophoresis, proteins were electrophoresed onto nitrocellulose membranes, previously blocked with 3% BSA in PBS and then incubated for 4 h at room temperature with scinderin antisem (1:1:500 dilution), monoclonal (clone GA-2C4) antibody against gelsolin (1:500 dilution) or monoclonal (clone M C 5) antibody against protein kinase C (1:500 dilution). Membranes were next washed and incubated for 1 h at room temperature with goat antirabbit immunoglobulin G-alkaline phosphatase conjugate (1:3,000 dilution) in the case of scinderin antisem or with goat antimouse immunoglobulin G-alkaline phosphatase conjugate (1:3,000 dilution) in the case of mAbs. Color was developed by treatment with a mixture of p-nitroblue tetrazolium chloride and 5-bromo-4-chlor-3-indolyl phosphate-toluidine salt. Quantification of scinderin was performed by the [125I]protein A method described by Burnette (1979) as modified by Rodríguez Del Castillo et al. (1990). Nitrocellulose membranes were incubated with scinderin antisem 6 (1:1,000 dilution) for 60 min followed by an incubation with [125I]protein A (200,000 cpm/ml 1% BSA in PBS; sp act: 30 Ci/mg protein A). A standard curve was obtained with purified scinderin. Dried membranes were exposed to Kodak AR(XAR-5)-x-ray film for 18 h at -80°C. Autoradiograms were scanned in a transmission densitometer (model ECS910; E-A Apparatus Corp., Philadelphia, PA). The sensitivity of the assay allows the detection of 10 ng of scinderin.

**Preparation of Protein Samples and Phospholipid Binding Studies**

Cytosol from bovine adrenal chromaffin cells was obtained by homogenizing 150 × 10⁶ freshly isolated chromaffin cells in 2.5 ml 0.3 M sucrose in either buffer B or C. Phosphatidylthanolamine 4.5-bisphosphate (sodium salt, PTP) was dissolved in buffer B or C at a concentration of 1 mg/ml. A chloroform/methanol suspension of phosphatidylserine (PS) was evaporated at 0°C under N₂ atmosphere and resuspended in buffer B or C at a concentration of 1 mg/ml. Phospholipid suspensions were mixed by shaking in a vortex for 15 min and further sonicated for 20 min (Mettler Electronics Corp., Anaheim, CA). Liposomes thus obtained (300 μl) were incubated with 300-μl protein samples (scinderin or cytosolic protein fraction) in a final volume of 700 μl. Free Ca^{2+} concentrations (from 10⁻⁷ to 10⁻⁵ M) were adjusted according to Caldwell (1970). The mixtures were incubated at 35°C for 30 min, centrifuged at 78,000 g for 30 min and supernatants and sediments were separated. Sediments were dissolved in 700 μl 50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.5], 2% SDS, 1 mM EDTA. Experiments on the binding of PKC to phosphatidylserine liposomes were also performed in order to compare binding characteristic of a known protein to those of scinderin. The presence of scinderin and PKC in supernatants and sediments was analyzed by electrophoresis followed by immunoblotting.

**Affinity Chromatography Studies**

Actin-DNase I-Sepharose 4B and a polyclonal antibodies immobilized phosphatidylserine columns were prepared according to Bader et al. (1986) and Uchida and Filburn (1984), respectively. The phosphatidylserine column...
Protein Determination

Protein concentrations were determined by the method of Bradford (1976) using BSA as standard.

Chemicals

PMA, amiloride (hydrochloride), staurosporine, ionomycin, A23187, sphingosine, nicotine (hydrogen tartrate salt), L-α-phosphatidyl-L-serine, L-α-phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate, 1,2-diolein, FITC-IgG, mAb against gelsolin (clone GS-2C4) and cyanogen bromide-activated Sepharose 4B were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO). 5-(N-methyl-N-isobutyl)-amiloride was obtained from Research Biochemicals Inc. (Natick, MA). mAb against PKC (clone M-C 5) and [125I]protein A were from Amersham Canada (Oakville, Ontario, Canada). [γ-32P]ATP was obtained from New England Nuclear (Boston, MA). Materials for electrophoresis and immunoblotting were purchased from BIO-RAD Laboratories (Mississauga, Ontario, Canada). 4a-PMA and calphostin C were obtained from Amersham Canada (Oakville, Ontario, Canada). 

Results

Cortical Scinderin Redistribution Induced by PMA: A Fluorescence Microscopy Study

2-d-old cultured chromaffin cells were incubated with 0.1% DMSO alone for 6 min (control) or in the presence of 10^{-5} M nicotine for 40 s or 10^{-7} M PMA for 1 or 6 min and then processed for scinderin immunofluorescence microscopy (Fig. 1). Control cells showed, as expected, a diffuse cytoplasmic staining and a bright and continuous cortical fluorescent ring (Fig. 1 a). As we have previously shown (Vitale et al., 1991), after nicotinic stimulation the cortical fluorescent ring appeared fragmented (Fig. 1, b and c). Moreover, incubation of chromaffin cells with PMA for 1 or 6 min (Fig. 1, d and e, respectively) also produced a disruption of the scinderin cortical fluorescent ring.

Time Courses of Nicotine- and PMA-induced Cortical Scinderin Redistribution

Chromaffin cells were incubated for 0, 5, 20, 60, 120, 180, or 360 s with 10^{-5} M nicotine (Fig. 2, ○), 10^{-7} M PMA (Fig. 2, □) or 10^{-7} M 4a-PMA (Fig. 2, △). As previously described (Vitale et al., 1991), nicotine induced a sharp increase in the percentage of cells displaying cortical scinderin redistribution (Fig. 2, ○). 5 s of exposure to nicotine raised the percentage from 20 ± 3% to 60 ± 3% (total cells examined, n = 600) and maximum scinderin redistribution was observed after 40 s of nicotine treatment. Nicotine exposure for periods longer than 60 s resulted in lower percentages of cells showing a disrupted cortical fluorescent ring; cells incubated with nicotine for 180 s showed a similar percentage of scinderin redistribution than control preparations (0 s incubation) (Fig. 2, □). Furthermore, at least one min incubation with PMA was necessary to induce scinderin redistribution (Fig. 2). The percentage of cells displaying scinderin redistribution (Fig. 2) was indicated by arrows. Bar, 10 μm.
48 h were incubated with either $10^{-5}$ M nicotine (n), $10^{-7}$ M PMA (<>), or $10^{-7}$ M 4α-PMA (<> for 0, 5, 20, 60, 120, 180, and 360 s. After these periods of time, cells were stained for immunofluorescence microscopy using scinderin antiserum 6. 100 cultured cells per coverslip were examined and classified as having either a "continuous cortical fluorescent pattern" (see Fig. 1 a) or having a "discontinuous cortical fluorescent pattern" (see Fig. 1 b). To avoid personal bias, code numbers were given to each coverslip to be examined and the procedure was conducted without knowing whether cells were from control or treated preparations; only after all coverslips were examined and the results recorded were the codes revealed to identify the experimental condition used (single-blind design). The percentage of scinderin redistribution for each condition was then calculated and plotted. Each value shown is the mean ± SEM of the percentage of discontinuous cortical scinderin fluorescence staining of four to six coverslips (400-600 cells for each value), containing cells from two different cultures.

Redistribution rose from 1 to 6 min of incubation (Fig. 2, 0). 4α-PMA, an inactive phorbol ester, did not cause subplasmalemmal scinderin redistribution at any time studied (Fig. 2, <>).

**Effect of Ca$^{2+}$ on PMA-induced Cortical Scinderin Redistribution**

Nicotine- or high K$^+$-induced cortical scinderin redistribution are absolutely dependent on the presence of extracellular Ca$^{2+}$ (Vitale et al., 1991). However, the increases in scinderin patched fluorescence induced by $10^{-7}$ M PMA treatment were not affected by removal of Ca$^{2+}$ from the medium, indicating that the effect of PMA was independent of extracellular Ca$^{2+}$ (Fig. 3). Moreover, the percentages of cells displaying a patched cortical fluorescence ring for scinderin in either Ca$^{2+}$-free- or Ca$^{2+}$-free-0.1% DMSO Locke's solution (controls) were not different from cells incubated in the presence of Ca$^{2+}$ (Fig. 3). Experiments with Fura-2 showed that $10^{-7}$ M PMA (final concentration) did not cause any alteration in intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ levels either in the presence (Fig. 4 A; PMA) or in the absence (1 mM EGTA) of extracellular Ca$^{2+}$ (Fig. 4 B, PMA). Furthermore, as expected, $10^{-3}$ M nicotine (final concentration) produced a sharp increase in intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ in the presence of extracellular Ca$^{2+}$ (Fig. 4 A; NiC) and it did not cause a release of Ca$^{2+}$ from intracellular stores (Fig. 4 B, NIC).

**Protein Kinase C Activity in PMA-treated Cells**

It is known that activation of PKC by phorbol esters is associated with translocation of the enzyme from the cytoplasm to the cell membranes (Kraft and Andersson, 1983; Ko et al., 1985; TerBush and Holz, 1986). Incubation of cultured chromaffin cells with $10^{-7}$ M 4α-PMA (an inactive phorbol ester) for 1 or 6 min did not change the membrane PKC activity with respect to controls (Fig. 5). On the other hand, treatment of chromaffin cells for 1 or 6 min with $10^{-2}$ M PMA increased threefold the membrane associated PKC activity with respect to control values (Fig. 5).

**Effects of Inhibition of PKC Activity on Nicotine and PMA-induced Cortical Scinderin Redistribution**

The effects of the PKC activity inhibitors, sphingosine (Hannun et al., 1986), staurosporine (Tamaoki et al., 1986) and calphostin C (Kobayashi et al., 1989), on nicotine- and PMA-induced cortical scinderin redistribution were also studied (Fig. 6 A-C). Chromaffin cells were preincubated for 6 min with increasing concentrations of either sphingosine (0-10$^{-4}$ M; Fig. 6 A), staurosporine (0 to 10$^{-4}$ M, Fig. 6 B) or calphostin C (0-10$^{-4}$ M, Fig. 6 C) and they were next challenged for 40 s with 10$^{-5}$ M nicotine or for 6 min with 10$^{-2}$ M PMA. Control preparations (filled symbols) were incubated with the highest concentration of each inhibi-

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**Figure 2.** Time course of scinderin redistribution in response to nicotine, PMA and 4α-PMA. Chromaffin cells grown in culture for 48 h were incubated with either $10^{-5}$ M nicotine (n), $10^{-7}$ M PMA (<>), or $10^{-7}$ M 4α-PMA (<> for 0, 5, 20, 60, 120, 180, and 360 s. After these periods of time, cells were stained for immunofluorescence microscopy using scinderin antiserum 6. 100 cultured cells per coverslip were examined and classified as having either a "continuous cortical fluorescent pattern" (see Fig. 1 a) or having a "discontinuous cortical fluorescent pattern" (see Fig. 1 b). To avoid personal bias, code numbers were given to each coverslip to be examined and the procedure was conducted without knowing whether cells were from control or treated preparations; only after all coverslips were examined and the results recorded were the codes revealed to identify the experimental condition used (single-blind design). The percentage of scinderin redistribution for each condition was then calculated and plotted. Each value shown is the mean ± SEM of the percentage of discontinuous cortical scinderin fluorescence staining of four to six coverslips (400-600 cells for each value), containing cells from two different cultures.

**Figure 3.** Effect of extracellular Ca$^{2+}$ on PMA-induced subplasmalemmal cortical scinderin redistribution. Two-day old chromaffin cell cultures were incubated for 6 min in Locke's solution containing 0.1% DMSO alone or 0.1% DMSO and $10^{-7}$ M PMA each case containing either 2.2 mM Ca$^{2+}$ or 1.0 mM EGTA (Ca$^{2+}$-free medium). Following the incubations, cells were processed for scinderin immunostaining. The peripheral scinderin fluorescence was examined and one hundred cells per coverslip were examined and classified according to the criteria mentioned in legend to Fig. 2. Values shown are the mean ± SEM of eight coverslips (800 cells for each experimental condition) containing cells from three different cultures.

**Figure 4.** Distribution of intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ in response to PMA and nicotine. Cells were incubated in the presence of Ca$^{2+}$ (Fig. 3). Further-
Figure 4. Effects of PMA and nicotine on intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) levels in chromaffin cells in the presence or in the absence of extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\). Chromaffin cells grown on collagen-coated coverslips were loaded with Fura-2 for 40 min and the changes in intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) were monitored using a dual wavelength luminescence spectrophotometer. Coverslips were introduced in a cuvette containing assay buffer (1 mM Ca\(^{2+}\)) (A) or Ca\(^{2+}\)-free assay buffer (2 mM EGTA) (B). The coverslips were immobilized in such a way that the same group of cells were always facing the incoming excitation light beam. At the times indicated by the arrows, cells were sequentially challenged with PMA (PMA: 10\(^{-7}\) M, final concentration) and nicotine (NIC: 10\(^{-5}\) M, final concentration). The figure shows traces of representative experiments.

Figure 5. PKC activity in chromaffin cells. Chromaffin cells cultured for 48 h were incubated for 1 or 6 min in regular Locke's solution containing 0.1% DMSO alone or in the presence of 0.1% DMSO plus either 10\(^{-7}\) M 4α-PMA or 10\(^{-7}\) M PMA. Following these incubations, cells were scraped and resuspended in PKC-assay medium, sonicated and centrifuged at 78,000 g for 90 min. Sediments were separated, resuspended and added to PKC-assay buffer containing 0.1% Triton. PKC activity was measured as described in Materials and Methods. Phosphorylated proteins were precipitated with 5% TCA and radioactivity of the samples measured. Membrane PKC activity is expressed as specific activity ([\(^{32}\)P] pmol/min/mg membrane protein). Values shown are the mean ± SEM of four culture dishes.

Figure 6. Preincubation of chromaffin cells with any of the PKC inhibitors tested did not affect cortical scinderin distribution (Fig. 6). However, the three PKC blockers inhibited in a dose-dependent manner nicotine (Fig. 6, □) and PMA (Fig. 6, ○) induced scinderin redistribution. The maximal inhibitory effect of sphingosine on nicotine-induced redistribution was 40% and was observed with 50 × 10\(^{-6}\) M sphingosine, higher concentrations of this PKC inhibitor did not increase the inhibition (Fig. 6, □). Incubation of chromaffin cells with 0.5 × 10\(^{-8}\) M staurosporine produced an inhibition of 30% on nicotine-induced redistribution (Fig. 6 B, □). Higher concentrations of staurosporine did not increase the inhibitory effect (Fig. 6 B, □). PMA-induced cortical scinderin redistribution was completely inhibited (100%) by 1.0 × 10\(^{-6}\) M staurosporine (Fig. 6 B, ○). Furthermore, as can be observed in Fig. 6 C (○), 0.5 × 10\(^{-6}\) M calphostin C reduced by 26% the number of cells displaying a discontinuous scinderin fluorescence staining as a result of nicotinic receptor stimulation. In contrast, PMA-induced scinderin redistribution was completely abolished (100% inhibition) by micromolar concentrations of this PKC inhibitor (Fig. 6 C, ○). As indicated in Fig. 6, staurosporine and calphostin C were 100 times more potent than sphingosine in inhibiting nicotine- and PMA-induced cortical scinderin redistribution.

Ca\(^{2+}\) and pH Dependent Interactions of Scinderin with Phospholipids (PS and PIP)

Recent published work has demonstrated the interaction of actin-filament severing proteins with phospholipids (Janmey and Matsudaira, 1988; Yin et al., 1988; Maekawa and Sakai, 1990; Sakurai et al., 1991a,b). This together with the observations on the localization of scinderin in chromaffin cell subplasmalemmal areas and that, under resting conditions (10\(^{-8}\) M Ca\(^{2+}\)), scinderin does not interact with subplasmalemmal F-actin (Vitale et al., 1991) prompted us to study the interaction of scinderin with phospholipids. Preliminary studies showed that when scinderin was incubated with liposomes (0.4 mg phospholipid/ml) in the presence of 10\(^{-5}\) M free-Ca\(^{2+}\) concentration, binding of scinderin to liposomes was saturable at concentrations of the protein ranging from 20 to 30 nM. Furthermore, under these experimental conditions, incubations lasting from 30 min to 3 h did not increase the amount of scinderin bound to liposomes. Therefore, the following experiments were performed using a concentration of scinderin six times higher (180 nM) than the concentration known to elicit saturation (30 nM) upon 30 min of incubation. The fact that during cell stimulation intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) concentration varies dramatically within seconds, whereas scinderin remains constant, suggests that under physiologi-
Chromafin cells cultured for 48 h were preincubated for 6 min in the presence of increasing concentrations of sphingosine (A) or staurosporine (B) or calphostin C (C). After this period, cells were treated for 40 s with $10^{-5}$ M nicotine (n) or for 6 min with $10^{-7}$ M PMA (o) in the presence of the corresponding concentration of each inhibitor. Control preparations were incubated for 12 min with the highest concentration of each inhibitor (filled symbols). After the incubations, cells were immediately fixed in 3.7% formaldehyde and stained for scinderin immunofluorescence. Preparations were viewed under the fluorescence microscope and single-rounded cells were classified as described in legend to Fig. 2. Each value represents the mean ± SEM of the percentage of cells with disrupted cortical fluorescent rings in four coverslips (400 cells examined for each value).

The experiments indicate that in presence of other cytosolic proteins and at $10^{-8}$ M Ca$^{2+}$ and pH 6.8, conditions
similar to those found in resting cells, scinderin binds only to PS (Fig. 8). Moreover, alkalinization of the medium (pH 7.1) without changes in the Ca\(^{2+}\) concentration, a condition produced by protein kinase C activation (Na\(^+\)/H\(^+\) antiport activation, see below), displaces scinderin from PS (Fig. 8).

Competition studies between scinderin, actin and PS were carried out by a two column-affinity chromatography approach as described in Materials and Methods (Fig. 10). The results obtained showed that at pH 7.1 (when scinderin showed its maximal affinity for PS) and in the presence of 10\(^{-5}\) M free Ca\(^{2+}\), the amount of scinderin eluted from the PS column (first column) was only 5% of the total amount of scinderin present in the original sample (Fig. 10 SC, lane I). The remaining 95% of scinderin was eluted from the

Figure 8. Effects of cytosolic proteins on the Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent binding of scinderin and PKC to PS liposomes (competition studies). Total cytosolic proteins (400 \(\mu\)g) were incubated with PS liposomes (0.4 mg PS/ml) in the presence of increasing free Ca\(^{2+}\) concentrations (pCa\(^{2+}\); from 9 to 5) at two different pHs (6.8 and 7.1) under the same experimental conditions described in legend to Fig. 7. The figure shows the immunoblottings for scinderin (SC) in supernatants (S) and pellets containing liposomes (P). Protein kinase C (PKC) binding to PS liposomes was used for comparison (control). (C) cytosolic protein sample incubated without liposomes in the presence of 10\(^{-5}\) M free Ca\(^{2+}\).

Figure 9. Effects of cytosolic proteins on Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent scinderin binding to PIP\(_{2}\) liposomes (competition studies). Total cytosolic proteins (400 \(\mu\)g) were incubated with PIP\(_{2}\) liposomes (0.4 mg PIP\(_{2}\)/ml) in the presence of increasing free Ca\(^{2+}\) concentrations (pCa\(^{2+}\); from 9 to 5) at two different pHs (6.8 and 7.1) under the same experimental conditions described in legend to Fig. 7. The figure shows the immunoblotting for scinderin (arrowheads) in supernatants (S) and pellets containing liposomes (P). (C) cytosolic protein sample incubated without liposomes in the presence of 10\(^{-5}\) M free Ca\(^{2+}\).
To study the interactions of scinderin with G-actin and PS an affinity chromatography approach was employed. A chromaffin cell cytosolic protein preparation was treated with ammonium sulphate (65% saturation), the mixture was stirred for 20 min, centrifuged at 100,000 g for 60 min and the supernatant was dialyzed overnight against buffer D (10^{-5} M free Ca^{2+}, pH 7.1). The sample was then loaded onto a system consisting in a phosphatidylserine column (first column; 1) in tandem with an actin-DNase I Sepharose 4B column (second column) and recycled overnight. After this step, the system of the two columns in tandem was extensively washed with buffer D (10^{-5} M free Ca^{2+}). Proteins retained by each column were separately eluted with Ca^{2+}-free buffer D (5 mM EGTA). Aliquots of eluates from columns 1 and 2 (25 μg protein) were analyzed for the presence of protein kinase C (PKC), scinderin (SC), and gelsolin (G) by SDS-PAGE followed by immunoblotting with the respective antibodies. S indicates the molecular weight standards. The bands (mol wt <45 kD) which appeared in PKC 1 and 2, Sc 2 and G 2 are storage degradation products of PKC, scinderin and gelsolin, respectively.

Under the same experimental conditions, 90% of PKC, also a PS-binding protein, was retained by the PS column (Fig. 10 PKC, lane 1) whereas the remaining 10% was associated with the actin-DNase I Sepharose 4B column (Fig. 10 SC, lane 2). Gelsolin, another actin-binding protein, interacted only with the actin-DNase Sepharose 4B column (Fig. 10 G, lanes 1 and 2). Moreover, none of the three proteins (PKC, scinderin, and gelsolin) were recovered in the flow-through of the system, suggesting that the proteins interacted either with PS or actin. The experiments show that at conditions (10^{-5} M Ca^{2+}, pH 7.1) which provide optimal binding of scinderin to PS, the protein has greater affinity for actin as indicated by its recovery (95%) in the eluate from the second column. These results do not rule out the possibility that other actin-binding proteins might have stronger affinities for actin. However, the present results as well as our earlier published experiments (Rodríguez Del Castillo et al., 1990) demonstrate that both gelsolin and scinderin are equally retained by actin affinity columns.

**Effect of PMA or Nicotine on Intracellular pH**

The experiments described above indicated that the binding of scinderin to phospholipids depend not only on Ca^{2+} concentrations but also on the pH. It has been suggested that activation of PKC brings about the phosphorylation of different cellular proteins which are accompanied with changes in intracellular pH (Burns and Rosengurt, 1983). Experiments carried out in our laboratory to determine whether scinderin was a direct substrate for PKC indicated that, under conditions in which histone type III showed increased phosphorylation, PKC did not phosphorylate scinderin (data not shown). Although a direct effect of PKC on scinderin was not observed, it became necessary to determine the effects of PKC activation and nicotine receptor stimulation on chromaffin cell pH. Fig. 11 shows that resting pH values of BCEF/AM loaded chromaffin cells suspended in incubation buffer averaged 6.98 ± 0.9 (n = 7). The pH was recorded for 3 min before adding either PMA (A) or nicotine (B). Addition of both substances caused a rise in pH, after 6 min incubation in the presence of PMA the chromaffin cell pH increased by 0.15 pH unit above resting values (Fig. 11, A).

![Figure 11. Effects of PMA, nicotine and amiloride on pH. Chromaffin cells cultured on coverslips were loaded with BCECF/AM as described in Materials and Methods. Coverslips were transferred to a cuvette containing 2 ml of assay buffer (in mM: NaCl, 137; KCl, 4.4; KH_{2}PO_{4}, 1.2; CaCl_{2}, 2.2; MgCl_{2}, 0.7; glucose, 10 mM; Hepes, 5; pH 7.2) and excited with a 500-nm light beam; fluorescence emission was recorded at 530 nm. After 3 min of baseline recording 10-μl aliquots of either PMA (A) or nicotine (B) were added to reach a final concentration of 10^{-7} M and 10^{-5} M respectively. Addition of PMA and nicotine caused increases in pH. C shows the effect of the presence of 10^{-5} M amiloride in the incubation medium on PMA-induced rise in pH. Calibration of pH was performed as described in Materials and Methods.](image-url)
PMA), whereas nicotinic stimulation increased pH by 0.08 pH unit (Fig. 13, NIC). PMA- (Fig. 11, lower panel) or nicotine- (data not shown) induced rises in pH were not observed when the cells were previously incubated (3 min) with \(10^{-3}\) M amiloride.

**Inhibitory Effects of Amiloride and Methyl-isobutyl Amiloride on Nicotine and PMA-Induced Cortical Scinderin Redistribution**

The changes in chromaffin cell pH described above suggest that cellular scinderin distribution in response to different stimuli (nicotine, PMA) might be due, at least in part, to changes in intracellular pH. Consequently, the effect of amiloride and methyl-isobutyl-amiloride, Na\(^+\)/H\(^+\) antiport inhibitors (Moolenaar et al., 1983) on scinderin distribution was studied. Preincubation of chromaffin cells for 3 min with increasing concentrations of amiloride or its analogue, methyl-isobutyl-amiloride (Talor et al., 1989), did not affect cortical scinderin redistribution but inhibited in a dose-dependent manner the subsequent nicotine- or PMA-induced scinderin redistribution (Fig. 12, A and B, open symbols). However, nicotine- and PMA-evoked effects showed different sensitivities to Na\(^+\)/H\(^+\) antiport inhibition. A millimolar concentration of amiloride caused only 40% inhibition on nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution (Fig. 12, A, ○) whereas the same concentration completely blocked PMA-induced scinderin redistribution (Fig. 12 A, ▲). Methyl-isobutyl-amiloride, although 10 times more potent than amiloride, also had a higher inhibitory effect on PMA- than on nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution (Fig. 12 B). A concentration of \(10^{-4}\) M methyl-isobutyl-amiloride caused a 100% decrease in the percentage of cells displaying cortical scinderin redistribution in response to PMA (Fig. 12 B, ○) whereas the inhibitor caused only a 30% decrease in the redistribution of scinderin as a result of nicotinic receptor stimulation (Fig. 12 B, □). These experiments suggest again that the redistribution of scinderin induced by nicotine is only partially (30–40%) due to PKC activation.

**Effects of Ionomophores and of Ammonium Chloride on Scinderin Redistribution**

Either direct increases in intracellular pH or increases induced indirectly as a result of Ca\(^{2+}\) entry appear to evoke scinderin redistribution (Fig. 13). NH\(_4\)Cl (15 mM), which increases intracellular pH (Kao et al., 1991), induced an immediate increase in scinderin distribution, which was maximal at 5 s and decayed to control values by 90 s. Ionomycin (1 \(\mu\)M) and A23187 (1 \(\mu\)M), two different calcium ionophores (Pressman, 1976; Negishi et al., 1990), also induced similar scinderin redistributions. Nicotine, however, induced a greater and more prolonged scinderin redistribution that was maximal after 40 s of stimulation (Vitale et al., 1991). Thus, a different or additional mechanism of action appears to follow stimulation by nicotine.

To determine whether the effects of NH\(_4\)Cl and ionophores were additive, scinderin redistribution was measured after the addition of combinations of these drugs (Fig. 13 B). Approximately the same response was observed whether the drugs were used singly or in any of the combinations tested, suggesting that all three substances may increase intracellular pH. In fact, ionomycin has been shown to increase intracellular pH through stimulation of the Na\(^+\)/H\(^+\) antiporter via a Ca\(^{2+}\)- and calmodulin-dependent mechanism (Negishi et al., 1990). A23187 may act similarly although this has not been shown.

**Discussion**

Recent work from our laboratory has demonstrated that cortical scinderin redistribution, induced by either nicotine or a depolarizing concentration of K\(^+\) is a Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent event which precedes exocytosis (Vitale et al., 1991). These results have suggested that Ca\(^{2+}\) entry after cell depolarization may modulate the activity of Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent actin filament-severing proteins such as scinderin. As a consequence of the activation of these proteins, the peripheral cytoskeleton is reorganized allowing exocytosis to occur.
Here we report that PKC modulates cortical scinderin distribution by controlling the interactions between scinderin, membrane phospholipids (PS and PI₃), and actin through the activity of the Na⁺/H⁺ antiport. Short-term incubations (1–6 min) of chromaffin cells with the phorbol ester PMA, a PKC activator (Castagna et al., 1982), induced redistribution of cortical scinderin. This PMA-induced effect is likely to be mediated by activation of PKC because under the experimental conditions described here: (a) PMA produced translocation of PKC from the cytoplasm to membranes, a process known to activate PKC in chromaffin cells (TerBush and Holz, 1986); (b) 4α-PMA, a phorbol ester which does not activate PKC, did not produce any disruption of scinderin fluorescent ring pattern; (c) PKC activity inhibitors, such as staurosporine, sphingosine and calphostin C, inhibited PMA-induced effects on cortical scinderin in a dose-dependent manner; and (d) PMA did not cause intracellular Ca²⁺ transients. Although it is generally accepted that PKC is the only known target for phorbol esters, the possibility that PKM may act through a still unknown pathway which is independent of activation of PKC cannot be completely ruled out.

Figures 13. Cortical scinderin redistribution induced by nicotine, Ca²⁺ ionophores and NH₄Cl. (A) Time course: two-day old chromaffin cell cultures were incubated either with 10⁻⁵ M nicotine (○), 10⁻⁶ M ionomycin (□), 10⁻⁶ M A23187 (◇) or 15 mM NH₄Cl (▲) for 0, 5, 20, 40, 60, and 90 s. After these periods of time, cells were stained for immunofluorescence microscopy using scinderin antiserum 6. 100 cells per coverslip were examined and classified as having either a "continuous cortical fluorescent ring" (Fig. 1a), or having a "discontinuous cortical fluorescent ring" (Fig. 1b). This procedure was conducted as described in legend to Fig. 2. The percentage of cells showing cortical scinderin redistribution (discontinuous cortical fluorescent pattern) was then calculated and plotted. Each value shown is the mean ± SEM of the percentage of discontinuous cortical fluorescence staining of three coverslips (300 cells for each value). (B) Effect of combination of Ca²⁺ ionophores and NH₄Cl (intracellular alkalinization) on cortical scinderin redistribution. Chromaffin cells cultured for 48 h were incubated for 5 s with Locke's solution alone (□) or Locke's solution containing either ionomycin, A23187, or NH₄Cl (◇). The following combinations: ionomycin + NH₄Cl or A23187 + NH₄Cl were also tested (▲). After the incubations, cells were stained for scinderin and examined and classified as explained above (A). Each value shown represents the mean ± SEM of the percentage of discontinuous cortical fluorescence staining of cells present in three coverslips (300 cells for each value).

Studies on the time course of PMA-induced scinderin redistribution demonstrated that chromaffin cells must be incubated with the phorbol ester for at least 1 min in order to detect disruption of the cortical scinderin staining. This effect of PMA was quite slow when compared to nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution. 5 s of nicotinic stimulation was enough to increase the percentage of cells showing scinderin discontinuous fluorescent rings from 20 ± 3% to 60 ± 3%. The fact that PMA must cross the plasma membrane to reach its target (PKC) might explain the slow onset of scinderin redistribution. In this regard, it has been demonstrated that stimulation of nicotinic receptors as well as depolarization of chromaffin cells with 56 mM K⁺ induce a shift of PKC from cytoplasm to membrane within 2 s (TerBush et al., 1988), whereas PMA needs a longer time than nicotine to induce the translocation of PKC from the cytoplasm to membranes (TerBush and Holz, 1986; TerBush et al., 1988).

Another important difference between PMA- and nicotine-induced cortical scinderin redistribution is that PMA effects are completely independent of extracellular Ca²⁺ whereas nicotine-induced effects are fully dependent on the presence of this divalent cation (Vitale et al., 1991). Moreover, our results indicate that PMA elicited no effect on basal intracellular Ca²⁺ levels either in the presence or in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺. Thus, it seems likely that PMA effects on scinderin redistribution were mediated through an activation of PKC and not by a change in the intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration. It has been demonstrated that phorbol esters increase the sensitivity of PKC for Ca²⁺ (Castagna et al., 1982). Therefore, under resting conditions (pCa²⁺ ≈ 8), PMA would be able to activate PKC. In contrast, nicotine-induced cortical scinderin redistribution is absolutely dependent on extracellular Ca²⁺. However, the possibility exists that the Ca²⁺ influx that follows nicotinic receptor stimulation activates PKC and consequently cortical scinderin redistribution. To test whether PKC activation participates in nicotine-induced cortical scinderin redistribution, experiments were performed in which PKC activity was inhibited before incubation of chromaffin cells with nicotine. These experiments showed that blockade of PKC activity with different inhibitors (sphingosine, staurosporine, calphostin C) reduced in 26–40% the percentage of cells displaying cortical scinderin redistribution. Thus, activation of PKC mediates, only partially, nicotine-induced cortical scinderin redistribution.
It has been reported that actin-binding proteins such as vinculin, filamin (Kawamoto and Hidaka, 1984), talin (Litchfield and Ball, 1986), and caldesmon (Umekawa and Hidaka, 1985) are substrates for PKC. However, under our experimental conditions, PKC failed to phosphorylate scinderin. Moreover, because the effect of PKC on scinderin was Ca²⁺-independent it can be concluded that the effect on scinderin could be the result of other process(es) which is (are) dependent on PKC activation. One such possibility is that PKC affects the interaction of scinderin with the membrane phospholipids because immunocytochemical evidence indicates that scinderin could be associated with some components of the plasma membrane. This is based in the following observations: (a) in resting conditions scinderin appears as a cortical fluorescent ring underneath the plasma membrane; (b) upon nicotinic stimulation, scinderin and F-actin cortical fluorescent rings appear fragmented with similar patterns of distribution; (c) when the stimulus (nicotine) is removed, the recovery of scinderin continuous cortical fluorescent ring is faster than F-actin reassembly, suggesting that when Ca²⁺ concentration returns to basal levels, cortical scinderin is not associated with cortical F-actin networks but with other membrane components (Vitale et al., 1991); and (d) the activities of the other actin-filament severing proteins are inhibited by phospholipids such as PIP₃, PIP, and PS (Janmey and Matsudaira, 1988; Yin et al., 1988; Maekawa and Sakai, 1990; Sakurai et al., 1991a,b). Results described here show that scinderin binds to PS and PIP₂ in a Ca²⁺-dependent manner. Moreover, in the presence of cytosolic proteins and at low Ca²⁺ concentrations, alkalinization of the medium (pH = 7.1) decreases the binding affinity of scinderin for phospholipid liposomes. Competition studies using liposomes and affinity chromatography column also demonstrated that G-actin and phospholipids (PS and PIP₂) compete for binding to scinderin, suggesting that the phospholipid binding site and one of the two actin binding sites (Trifarò et al., 1992) are localized in the same domain of the scinderin molecule. Moreover, phospholipids could be more easily displaced from scinderin by G-actin at acid than alkaline pHs providing Ca²⁺ is present. These results clearly indicate the important role of the anionic charges in the binding between scinderin and phospholipids.

The fact, that Ca²⁺ concentrations and pH changes determine the binding of scinderin to either phospholipids or actin led us to think that, perhaps, PMA effects on scinderin redistribution could be mediated by changes in intracellular pH, because under our experimental conditions, PMA did not increase intracellular Ca²⁺, PMA-induced effects were independent of extracellular Ca²⁺ and scinderin was not phosphorylated by PKC. Evidence that PMA increases pH by activation of the Na⁺/H⁺ antiport in chromaffin cells has been recently reported (Negishi et al., 1990). The PMA-induced rise in pH was completely blocked by amiloride, a Na⁺/H⁺ antiport inhibitor, and by staurosporine, a PKC inhibitor (Negishi et al., 1990). Our results indicate that PMA produced an increase in chromaffin cell pH which was inhibited by amiloride. Other substances known to increase intracellular pH such as NH₄Cl (Kao et al., 1991) and ionomycin (Negishi et al., 1990) also induced scinderin redistribution. The fact that the ionophores, ionomycin and A23187, induced scinderin redistribution could also be explained by an increase in intracellular pH because it has been demonstrated that in chromaffin cells, ionomycin increases intracellular pH through stimulation of the Na⁺/H⁺ antiport via a Ca²⁺-calmodulin-dependent mechanism (Negishi et al., 1990). Nicotine also induced a rise in pH, which, although it was lower than that produced by PMA, was also blocked by amiloride. These results agree with those reported by Yanagihara et al. (1990) using carbachol. However, Brygoyne et al. (1988), have demonstrated that nicotine failed to modify pH and Rosario et al. (1991), on the other hand, observed that nicotine induced a decrease in pH which was not blocked by amiloride. Na⁺/H⁺ antiport inhibitors (amiloride and N-methyl-isobutyl-amiloride) reduced by 100% PMA-induced cortical scinderin redistribution whereas only 30-40% inhibition was observed when nicotine was the stimulus. These results indicate that PKC is, although partially involved, in the mechanism of nicotine-induced cortical scinderin redistribution. Moreover, the rise in intracellular pH observed with nicotine might be the result of a translocation and activation of PKC produced by Ca²⁺ entry. This also would explain why scinderin redistribution is partially inhibited by inhibitors of PKC.

Taking into consideration all data presented in this paper, the following model for the regulation of scinderin is proposed (Fig. 14). Under resting conditions (pCa = 8; pH = 6.98), scinderin is divided into two pools, a soluble one and a pool of scinderin bound to membrane phospholipids (Fig. 14 A). These two pools correspond to the cytoplasmic and cortical stainings observed by immunofluorescence microscopy respectively. Under these conditions, the binding of scinderin to phospholipids is possible because the half-maximal binding to phospholipids is observed at 1 × 10⁻⁸ M Ca²⁺. Moreover, scinderin binding to actin does not occur under these conditions because actin filament severing activity is evident at 1 × 10⁻⁷ M Ca²⁺ (Rodriguez Del Castillo et al., 1990). It appears then, that the physiological role of scinderin binding to membrane phospholipids is to keep cortical scinderin in the vicinity of its substrate (F-actin). Nicotinic stimulation causes a fast increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations (pCa ≥ 6-5) and a slow rise in pH (Fig. 14 B). High intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations induces release of scinderin from the membrane-associated pool (discontinuous scinderin cortical fluorescent ring), and binding of scinderin to F-actin (colocalization of scinderin and F-actin in cortical fluorescent patches) (Vitale et al., 1991) with activation of scinderin severing activity (cortical F-actin disassembly). An increase in pH only takes place after Ca²⁺ influx activates PKC, and this enzyme activates the Na⁺/H⁺ antiport. This rise in pH is also involved in nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution because the blockade of the Na⁺/H⁺ antiport by amiloride partially inhibits the nicotine-induced effect. Therefore, for a complete displacement of scinderin from membrane phospholipids by actin, an increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ with a subsequent rise in pH is necessary (Fig. 14 C). Under these conditions the low affinity second Ca²⁺ binding site of scinderin might be activated. During recovery (Fig. 14 D), intracellular Ca²⁺ decreases due to extrusion or sequestration, and the scinderin-actin complex begins to dissociate (low affinity Ca²⁺ binding site). When Ca²⁺ concentrations are ~10⁻⁷ M and pH is still high (7.1), conditions in which scinderin expresses its maximal affinity for phospholipids, the remaining scinderin-actin complex is dissociated by competing phospholipids (PS and PIP₂). This would explain why scinderin continuous cortical fluorescent ring is recuperated faster than...
F-actin reassembly (Vitale et al., 1991). Finally, when Ca\(^{2+}\) concentrations return to basal values (pCa = 8), PKC activity decreases and chromaffin cell pH reaches resting values (pH 6.98), scinderin is in equilibrium between its membrane bound and cytoplasmic pools (Fig. 14 A). Therefore, PKC might modulate nicotine-induced scinderin redistribution at two different steps: (a) an increase in pH allows the displacement of scinderin from the phospholipids to actin during the disassembly step and more important, (b) during the recovery step, producing an increase in the affinity of scinderin for phospholipids limiting the actin filament severing activity of scinderin. PMA-induced effect on scinderin redistribution (Fig. 14 E) is not physiological because even though there is a rise in intracellular pH, the intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) concentrations are not high enough (lack of Ca\(^{2+}\) influx and because Ca\(^{2+}\) is chelated by other proteins) to activate scinderin (Fig. 14 E) and the protein is simply released from the membrane (cortical discontinuous staining). Nevertheless, the use of PMA and ionophores in the experiments described in this paper has been of great importance in the elucidation of the role of Ca\(^{2+}\) and intracellular pH in the distribution of scinderin in the chromaffin cell, under resting and stimulated conditions.

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