

## CHOLERAGEN-INDUCED CYCLIC NUCLEOTIDE RESPONSE IN A LOWER EUKARYOTE

J. W. DANIEL, Nancy L. OLEINICK and Susan WHISTLER

*Division of Radiation Biology, Department of Radiology, Case Western Reserve University, School of Medicine, Cleveland, OH 44106, USA*

Received 28 October 1980

### 1. Introduction

Cholera toxin, the exoenterotoxin produced by *Vibrio cholerae* [1–3] reacts with almost all vertebrate cells tested to produce a sustained increase in the cAMP level of tissues, cells [4,5] and isolated membranes [6,7]. The cellular cAMP level elevated by cholera toxin is often associated with the acquisition by many cultured cells of differentiation characteristics and/or inhibition of proliferation [8,9], though in some instances this elevation has been associated with initiation of proliferation [10].

Steps in the mechanism of action of the toxin, as now understood, include the characteristic binding of the cholera toxin B protomer to the G<sub>M1</sub> ganglioside [11,12] located in the plasma membrane, the disulfide reduction to release the A<sub>1</sub> subunit from the A protomer [13,14] and the A<sub>1</sub> subunit-facilitated ADP-ribosylation of a GTP-binding regulatory unit of the membrane-bound adenyl cyclase. ADP-ribosylation, with NAD as donor [15], is thought to interdict the normal control function of the regulatory unit of adenyl cyclase, leaving the enzyme in the activated state.

We have found that cholera toxin induces a change in the calcium-controlled H<sup>+</sup>-permeability [16,17], mimicking that produced by light [18] as well as by dibutyryl cAMP or caffeine [19–21]. This reaction appears to be closely related to photoreception in the light-induced sporulation of *Physarum polycephalum* [17]. Light also rapidly induces a transient elevation of plasmodial cAMP [22]. In the plasmodial phase, cholera toxin [23] increases the mitotic delay induced

by  $\gamma$ -irradiation [24–26]; thus, the toxin acts in a manner opposite to caffeine, which increases the levels of both cyclic nucleotides (J. W. D., N. L. O., in preparation) and reduces or eliminates mitotic delay [23].

We report here that cholera toxin reacts with the lower eukaryote syncytial slime mold, *Physarum polycephalum*, to elevate the plasmodial cAMP level, but not that of cGMP, in a uniquely characteristic manner.

### 2. Methods and materials

*Physarum polycephalum* strain M<sub>3</sub>C VI was employed. Cultures were prepared and maintained at 26°C as in [27] using a medium with modified salts [28]. Microplasmodia were grown in shaken flasks, and large surface plasmodia were prepared by fusing microplasmodia on filter paper in Petri dishes. The Petri dish cultures were used ~24 h later, usually in the latter part of the G<sub>2</sub> period preceding mitosis III (the third mitosis after fusion).

Culture sampling and the extraction and assays for cyclic nucleotides were performed as in [29]. Briefly, 1/8th of a surface culture (~5 mg protein) was removed, blotted and the plasmodium quickly removed with a spatula to liquid nitrogen and lyophilized. Care was taken to minimize the length of time cultures were out of the incubator and their exposure to light, since light elevates the cAMP level in this organism [17,22,30]. In an ice bath, the lyophilized samples were extracted by homogenization in M HClO<sub>4</sub>, the extract neutralized with 0.5 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and assayed for cAMP and cGMP by radioimmunoassay employing the New England Nuclear kits and the high sensitivity acetylation procedures. For each of the cyclic nucleotide assays, 125% of the specified

*Abbreviations:* cAMP, adenosine-3',5'-monophosphate; cGMP, guanosine-3'-5'-monophosphate; G<sub>M1</sub>, galactosyl-N-acetylgalactosaminyl-(N-acetylneuraminyl)-galactosylglucosylceramide

antibody reagent volumes was used. Substantial improvement in reproducibility of replicate assays was achieved. Extracted pellets were dissolved in 0.4 N NaOH and analyzed for protein by a modification of the Lowry procedure [31].

The monosialoganglioside  $G_{M1}$  (Supelco) (440  $\mu\text{g}$ ) in  $\text{CHCl}_3$ -methanol was taken to dryness under high purity nitrogen at room temperature then dispersed in culture medium (220  $\mu\text{l}$ , pH 7.0), and 2.20  $\mu\text{g}$  cholera toxin in 220  $\mu\text{l}$  were added and incubated 60 min before use [32]. Cholera toxin (Schwarz-Mann) was freshly reconstituted from a lyophilized preparation to contain 1.0 mg toxin/ml and stored at 4°C.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Response of cAMP to cholera toxin

Fig.1B shows that cholera toxin, added to large surface cultures of *Physarum polycephalum*, rapidly

induces a marked increase in the plasmodial cAMP content. Table 1 summarizes the data plotted in fig.1B. The onset of the initial phase occurs rapidly (within 6 min for 1  $\mu\text{g}$  cholera toxin) and is transient. The initial high level rapidly returns to a new basal level about twice that of the initial untreated plasmodium. This level was maintained approximately through the duration of the experiment. The same pattern was found in replicate experiments. In another experiment when the plasmodium was exposed to cholera toxin for 10 min, well rinsed, and transferred to conditioned medium (from another control culture), and then analyzed for cyclic nucleotide content, a new sustained level, 2.4-fold higher than the original basal level, was observed. The kinetics of the transient increase in cAMP with 0.5  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  of cholera toxin follows a much less rapid course (fig.1B; table 1), reaching a maximum after ~15 min and declining to the new elevated value ~45 min after

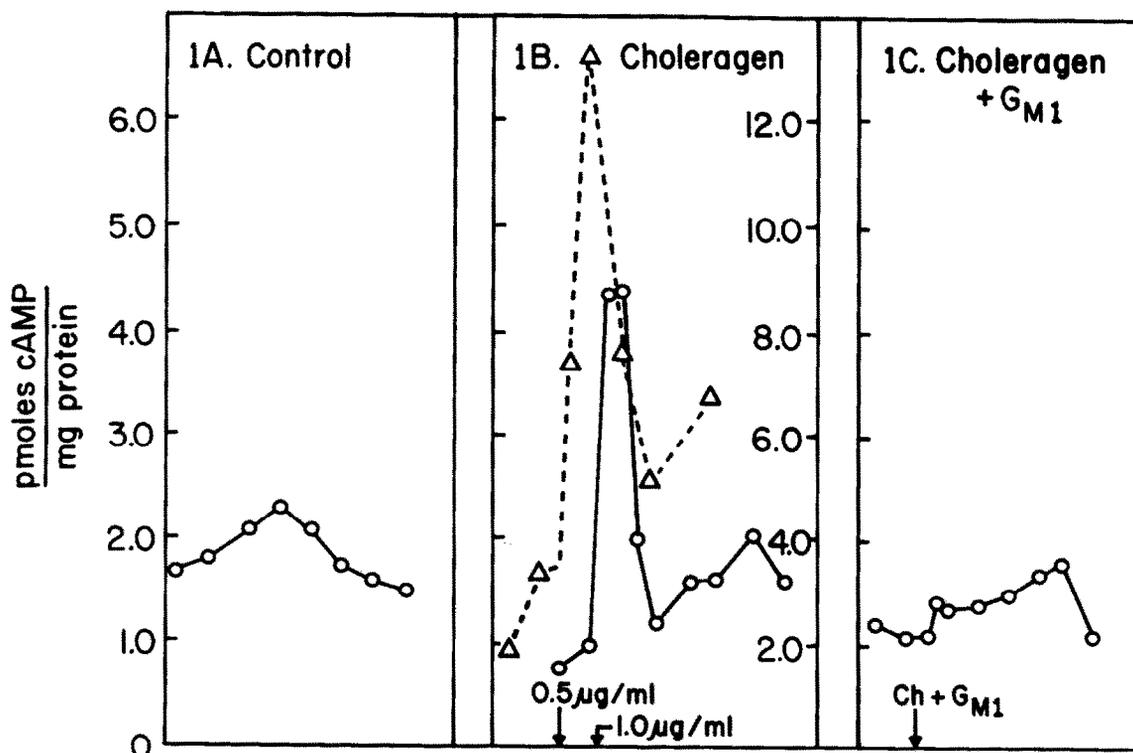


Fig.1. Response of plasmodial cAMP to cholera toxin. Plasmodia for each experimental condition were prepared, sampled and assayed for cyclic nucleotides as in section 2. Each sample when analyzed for both cAMP and cGMP yielded values plotted in the paired graphs (e.g., 1A,2A). Each series of points (fig.1A,B or C) is derived from the same plasmodium. Total protein/plasmodium varied from 37–45 mg. Additions were made at the indicated times ( $\downarrow$ ) to give the following final concentrations: cholera toxin, 0.5  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  ( $-\Delta-$  and values on right ordinate, fig.1B) or 1.0  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  ( $-O-$  and values on left ordinate, fig.1B); 1.0  $\mu\text{g}$  cholera toxin/ml + 200  $\mu\text{g}$   $G_{M1}/\text{ml}$  (fig.1C), and no addition (fig.1A). The cholera toxin- $G_{M1}$  mixture was prepared as in section 2. See table 1 for characteristics of cholera toxin action.

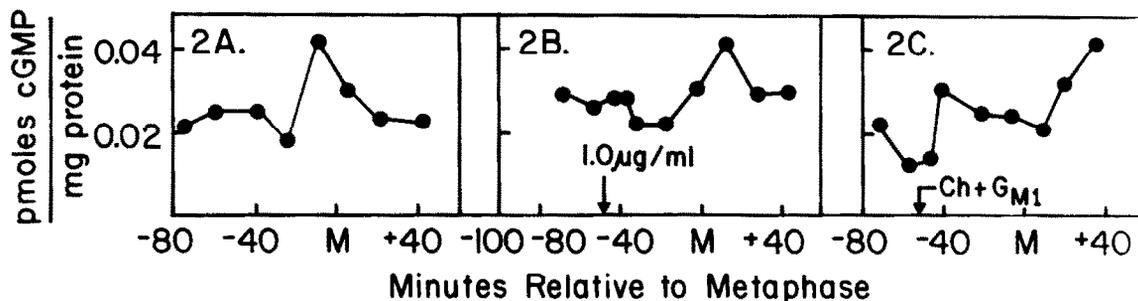


Fig.2. Response of plasmodial cGMP to cholera toxin. Conditions in fig.1 apply exactly except that in fig.1B only, data for 1.0 µg/ml addition of cholera toxin is shown. Figure designations (A–C) correspond to their uses in fig.1.

cholera toxin addition. Theophylline (2 mM), which when added alone leaves the plasmodial cAMP level unaltered (J. W. D., N. L. O., in preparation), suppresses the cholera toxin-induced cAMP elevation by 48% (also see [8]) when added just prior (1 min) to cholera toxin addition. The abscissa of fig.1B also indicates the time relative to mitosis (each syncytial plasmodium is mitotically synchronous) as well as the time elapsed (see also table 1). The induction pattern is not unique to the late  $G_2$  period of the mitotic cycle in this organism, but is also elicited at other cycle times.

Fig.1C indicates that prior reaction of cholera toxin with the  $G_{M1}$  ganglioside nullifies the elevation of the cAMP level produced when the untreated toxin is employed. Fig.1A displays a typical control cAMP pattern found during this period. Individual cultures may exhibit differing basal cAMP levels which with time show fluctuations about an average value. However, no progressive transient pattern related to cell cycle position has been detected [29,30].

### 3.2. Response of cGMP to cholera toxin

The plasmodial cGMP response to cholera toxin was observed to be in agreement with the specificity of cholera toxin action on other cells (fig.2B). Fig.2A and 2C indicate the control responses when no cholera toxin is added and when cholera toxin is reacted with  $G_{M1}$  ganglioside before addition to the cultures, respectively.

## 4. Discussion

The data presented indicate that cholera toxin reacts with *Physarum polycephalum* to give qualitatively typical responses for both the cAMP and cGMP levels. Except for insect larval cells [33], we are not aware of reported cholera toxin reactivity with any other lower eukaryotes. These studies further indicate the presence of a hormone-like receptor system found earlier in our photoreception studies [17,22]. Cholera toxin mimics the light-induced  $H^+$  uptake [16,17] in

Table 1  
Characteristics of cholera toxin action on plasmodial cAMP content<sup>a</sup>

Exp. no.	Time (fig.1B abscissa)	Cholera toxin	Time after cholera toxin addition (min)	[cAMP] (pmol/mg protein)	Increase (-fold)
	-92 to -67	-	-	2.7 (av.)	(0)
I. 0.5 µg cholera toxin/ml	-67 to -52 <sup>b</sup>	+	15 <sup>b</sup>	13. (peak)	4.3
	-37 to +8	+	30–75	6.6 (av.)	2.4
	-68 to -48	-	-	0.89 (av.)	(0)
II. 1.0 µg cholera toxin/ml	-48 to -39.5 <sup>b</sup>	+	8.5 <sup>b</sup>	3.8 (peak)	4.3
	-17 to +43	+	31–91	1.7 (av.)	1.9

<sup>a</sup> Data from fig.1B; <sup>b</sup> Time for generation of peak [cAMP]

*Physarum* during induction of sporulation, suggesting, with other evidence, that an adenylyl cyclase is involved in both responses.

If the elevation of the cAMP level in *Physarum* occurs by the same general mechanism found in higher eukaryotes, cholera toxin binds to the  $G_{M1}$ , or a similar, ganglioside in the plasma membrane and subsequently activates an adenylyl cyclase. The striking characteristic of rapid elevation of the plasmodial cAMP level, though not normally observed with mammalian tissue cells where the latent period is usually 20–30 min, has been reported with such cells in culture [7,8]. While the mechanism of the rapid activation in *Physarum* is presently unknown, the simplest explanation may reside in an accelerated activation sequence following the membrane binding of cholera toxin. Activation of adenylyl cyclase in membrane preparations from vertebrate cells by the A or  $A_1$  protomer occurs essentially without a lag [8,13,34]. In *Physarum*, reactivity with the whole plasmodium may be accelerated by, e.g., ready accessibility of the A protomer to the regulatory unit of the cyclase. The molecular basis for the latent period between cholera toxin binding and the earliest detectable rise in cAMP level is still not understood in the vertebrate cells.

At the pH (4.7) of the growth medium, cholera toxin reversibly dissociates into subunits and thus becomes partially inactivated [2]; however, the activation of adenylyl cyclase is much faster (~4.3-fold increase of cAMP in 8.5 min; table 1, fig.2B) than is dissociation [2], and therefore dissociation should not play an important role if cholera toxin binding is essentially irreversible as it is with vertebrate cells. However, if cholera toxin does dissociate appreciably under these conditions, for *Physarum*, the A subunit may be sufficient for adenylyl cyclase activation, as reported for two vertebrate cells [6,34]. Proteolytic activities in the growth medium may also be important.

The novel characteristic not observed with vertebrate cells is the rapid decline of the transiently elevated cAMP level to a new level higher than the initial basal level. Whether this drop in cAMP level is caused by a deactivation of adenylyl cyclase or, e.g., by an elevation of a phosphodiesterase activity is presently unknown. However, caffeine and several phosphodiesterase inhibitors now under study, or light [19,22], also elicit similar patterns (J. W. D., N. L. O., in preparation).

As with other cells, cholera toxin affects only the cAMP level without altering the cGMP level. The

'normal' levels of cAMP (1–2 pmol/mg protein) or of cGMP (0.03–0.1 pmol/mg protein) observed are typical of this organism during rapid growth [29,30]. In rabbit small intestine epithelial cells, cholera toxin activity is reported to suppress guanylyl cyclase and phosphodiesterase [35] to produce a new steady state cGMP level.

As with other cholera toxin-responding tissues, complexation with  $G_{M1}$  ganglioside neutralizes the ability of the toxin to activate adenylyl cyclase since membrane-bound  $G_{M1}$  is the normal toxin receptor [11,12], while the preformed cholera toxin– $G_{M1}$  complex is inactive. Although cholera toxin binding to  $G_{M1}$  is very rapid and essentially irreversible, until the cholera toxin receptor in *Physarum* is positively identified, the possibility of other receptors such as homologous oligosaccharides [36] or glycoproteins [37] must be considered.

When cholera toxin is added to  $\gamma$ -irradiated plasmodia, it slightly increases the radiation-induced mitotic delay [23]. Thus, as proposed in [23,28], elevation of intracellular cAMP alone cannot be responsible for alleviating this radiation syndrome. It appears that the elevation of cGMP induced by caffeine, but not by cholera toxin, may better correlate with the ability of caffeine, but not of cholera toxin, to promote progression of irradiated plasmodia to metaphase.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by PHS research grant CA 22727 from the National Cancer Institute, DHEW. The authors are grateful to Carol Juzulenka and David Blank for capable technical assistance.

## References

- [1] De, S. N. (1959) *Nature* 183, 1533–1534.
- [2] Lospalluto, J. J. and Finkelstein, R. A. (1972) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 257, 158–166.
- [3] Finkelstein, R. A. (1973) *Crit. Rev. Microbiol.* 3, 553–623.
- [4] Field, M. (1971) *New Engl. J. Med.* 284, 1137–1144.
- [5] Schafer, D. E., Lust, W. D., Sircar, B. and Goldberg, N. D. (1970) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 67, 851–856.
- [6] Sahyoun, N. and Cuatrecasas, N. (1975) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 72, 3438–3442.
- [7] Gill, D. M. and King, C. A. (1975) *J. Biol. Chem.* 250, 6424–6432.

- [8] Bennett, V., Craig, S., Hollenberg, M. D., O'Keefe, E., Sahyoun, N. and Cuatrecasas, P. (1976) *J. Supramol. Struct.* 4, 99–120.
- [9] Hollenberg, M. D., Fishman, P. H., Bennett, V. and Cuatrecasas, P. (1974) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 71, 4224–4228.
- [10] MacManus, J. P., Boynton, A. L. and Whitfield, J. F. (1978) *Adv. Cyclic Nucl. Res.* 9, 485–491; Pardee, A. B., Dubrow, R., Hamlin, J. L. and Kletzein, R. F. (1978) *Ann. Rev. Biochem.* 47, 729–731.
- [11] Cuatrecasas, P. (1963) *Biochemistry* 12, 58–66.
- [12] Homgren, L., Lönnroth, I. and Svennerholm, L. (1973) *Infect. Immun.* 8, 208–214.
- [13] Gill, D. M. (1976) *J. Infect. Dis.* 133, S55–S63.
- [14] Moss, J., Manganiello, V. C. and Vaughan, M. (1976) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 73, 4424–4427.
- [15] Gill, D. M. (1975) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 72, 2064–2068.
- [16] Daniel, J. W. (1980) in: *Frontiers in Biomembrane Research Symp.*, abstr. p. 32, Wayne State University, Detroit.
- [17] Daniel, J. W. (1977) *Biology of Physarum Symp.*, abstr. p. 126, 2nd Int. Mycological Cong. Tampa.
- [18] Daniel, J. W. and Eustace, J. (1972) *FEBS Lett.* 26, 327–332.
- [19] Daniel, J. W. (1974) 6th Ann. Miami Winter Symp. *Membrane Transformations in Neoplasia*, abstr. pp. 106–108.
- [20] Daniel, J. W. (1975) *Am. Soc. Photobiol. Ann. Meet.* abstr. p. 47.
- [21] Daniel, J. W. (1973) *Am. Soc. Photobiol. Ann. Meet.* abstr. p. 182.
- [22] Daniel, J. W. (1976) in: *Proc. 7th Int. Congr. Photobiology*, Rome, p. 248.
- [23] Oleinick, N. L., Brewer, E. N. and Rustad, R. C. (1978) *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* 33, 69–73.
- [24] Nygaard, O. F., Brewer, E. N., Evans, T. E. and Wolpaw, J. R. (1973) in: *Advances in Radiation Research*, vol. 2, pp. 989–995, Gordon and Breach, London.
- [25] Oleinick, N. L. (1972) *Radiat. Res.* 51, 638–653.
- [26] Rustad, R. C., Oleinick, N. L. and Brewer, E. N. (1975) *Exp. Cell Res.* 93, 477–479.
- [27] Daniel, J. W. and Baldwin, H. H. (1964) in: *Methods in Cell Physiology*, vol. 1, pp. 9–41 (Prescott, D. M. ed) Academic Press, New York.
- [28] Brewer, E. N. (1979) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 564, 154–161.
- [29] Oleinick, N. L., Daniel, J. W. and Brewer, E. N. (1980) *Exp. Cell Res.* in press.
- [30] Garrison, P. N. and Barnes, L. D. (1980) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* in press.
- [31] Lowry, O. H., Rosebrough, N. J., Farr, A. L. and Randall, R. J. (1951) *J. Biol. Chem.* 193, 265–275.
- [32] Moss, J., Fishman, P. H., Manganiello, V. C., Vaughan, M. and Brady, R. O. (1976) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 73, 1034–1037.
- [33] Denlinger, D. L. (1978) in: *Molecular Biology and Pharmacology of Cyclic Nucleotides*, p. 319 (Tolco, G. and Paoletti, R. eds) Elsevier/North-Holland, Amsterdam, New York.
- [34] Van Heyningen, S. and King, C. A. (1975) *Biochem. J.* 145, 269–271.
- [35] Keifer, H. C., Atlas, R., Moldan, D. and Kantor, H. S. (1975) *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 66, 1017–1023.
- [36] Fishman, P. H., Moss, J. and Osborne, J. C. jr (1978) *Biochemistry* 17, 711–716.
- [37] Morita, A., Tsao, D. and Kim, Y. S. (1980) *J. Biol. Chem.* 255, 2549–2553.
- [38] Lehnert, S. (1979) *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* 36, 417–422.