

Involvement of PKC α in insulin-induced PKC δ expression: Importance of SP-1 and NF κ B transcription factors

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Abstract

Protein kinase C delta (PKC δ) is a key molecule in insulin signaling essential for insulin-induced glucose transport in skeletal muscle. Recent studies in our laboratory have shown that insulin rapidly stimulates PKC δ activity and increases PKC δ protein and RNA levels, and that the SP-1 transcription factor is involved in insulin-induced transcription of the PKC δ gene. Activation of SP-1 involves serine phosphorylation and translocation to the nucleus. In this study we examined the possibility that PKC α might be involved in serine phosphorylation and activation of SP-1. We found that insulin rapidly phosphorylates and translocates SP-1. In the cytoplasm, SP-1 was constitutively associated with PKC α , and insulin stimulation caused these proteins to dissociate. In contrast, in the nucleus insulin induced an increase in association between PKC α and SP-1. PKC α inhibition blocked insulin-induced serine phosphorylation of SP-1 and its association with PKC α in the nucleus. Inhibition of PKC α also reduced the insulin-induced increase in PKC δ RNA and protein in the cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. We also attempted to determine if another transcription factor might be involved in regulation of PKC δ expression. We earlier showed that insulin did not affect nuclear NF κ B levels. Inhibition of NF κ B, however, increased insulin-induced increase in PKC δ RNA and protein in the cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. Surprisingly, this inhibition reduced the insulin-induced increase in cytoplasmic and nuclear PKC α RNA and protein. Inhibition of PKC δ reduced I κ B α phosphorylation as well as NF κ B activation. Thus, PKC α regulates insulin-induced PKC δ expression levels and this regulation involves activation of SP-1 and NF κ B.

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The binding of insulin to its receptor initiates a cascade of events leading to activation of a number of signaling proteins [1]. Others and we have reported that among the proteins activated by insulin stimulation of skeletal muscle and fat cells are certain PKC isoforms, in particular PKCs α , β II, δ , and ζ [2–7]. PKCs β II and ζ are activated via products of PI3 kinase activity [5]. While the pathway for insulin stimulation of PKC δ and α in skeletal muscle is not known, it is clearly independent of PI3 kinase activity and appears to involve participation of Src tyrosine kinase [8]. We have reported that PKC δ is a positive regulator of insulin receptor (IR) tyrosine phosphorylation and inter-

nalization in skeletal muscle [9]. Moreover, blockade of PKC δ reduces insulin-induced phosphorylation of IR and inhibits insulin-induced glucose uptake. Moreover, PKC α appears to be a physiological negative regulator of the insulin cascade and is constitutively associated with IRS-1 [10,11]. On activation by insulin, PKC α disassociates from IRS-1 and permits continuation of the insulin signal. In addition to its metabolic effects, insulin is known to regulate the transcription of specific genes including not only those involved in mediation of metabolic effects but also transcription factors, oncogenes, hormones, and cytoskeletal and membrane proteins [12].

Recently, we reported that insulin induced increase in PKC δ RNA and protein levels [13], and that these effects are mediated by the SP-1 transcription factor [22]. Insulin

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induces serine phosphorylation and translocation of SP-1 to the nucleus, and inhibition of SP-1 reduces the insulin induced increase in PKC δ RNA and protein levels. SP-1 contains consensus phosphorylation sites for a variety of kinases including MAP kinase (Erk 1 and Erk 2) calmodulin kinase, casein kinases, and protein kinases (PK) A and C. Interestingly, PKC α , which is also rapidly activated by insulin in L6 skeletal muscle, reportedly serine phosphorylates SP-1 when co-transfected with Erk2 [14,15].

Insulin rapidly activates both PKC α and PKC δ upstream in the insulin signaling cascade [9–11]. These proteins appear to play complementary roles in this cascade. Preliminary studies in our laboratory indicate that insulin may also upregulate PKC α RNA and protein levels. The various interactions involving PKCs α and δ raise the possibility that there may be elements common to regulation of expression. Studies in Baf3 and 32D cells have shown that PKC α may participate in the regulation of PKC δ RNA levels both at the level of transcription as well as by prevention of degradation of PKC δ mRNA [16]. In this study, we have examined the possibility that insulin activation of PKC α may be involved in the effect of insulin to regulate PKC δ expression levels in skeletal muscle through activation of SP-1 transcription factor.

Methods

Materials. Tissue culture media and serum were purchased from Biological Industries (Beit HaEmek, Israel). Enhanced chemical luminescence (ECL) was performed using antibodies purchased from Bio-Rad (Hercules, CA, USA) and other reagents from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA). The following antibodies were used: anti-PKC δ and anti-PKC α (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti p-I κ B α (Santa Cruz), anti-skeletal muscle β -actin (Sigma Chemicals), anti-phosphoserine (Biomed), Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit and anti-mouse IgG (Bio-Rad), anti-SP-1 (Delta Biolabs), and anti-NF κ B (Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Leupeptin, aprotinin, PMSF, DTT, orthovanadate, pepstatin, and NF κ B inhibitor were purchased from Sigma Chemicals. Insulin (HumulinR-recombinant human insulin) was purchased from Lilly France SA (Fergersheim, France). Rottlerin was purchased from Cal-Biochem.

Cell culture. L6 cells were grown in α -modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum for 4 days post-confluence, with media changed daily; cells were allowed to differentiate spontaneously or by changing the media to one supplemented with 2% fetal calf serum.

Cytoplasm extract. Dishes were washed with Ca²⁺/Mg²⁺-free PBS and then mechanically detached with cell scraper in Ripa buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM NaF, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% SDS, and 1% Na deoxycholate) containing a cocktail of antiproteases and antiphosphatases (Sigma). After scraping, the preparation was centrifuged at 20,000g for 20 min at 4 °C. The supernatant from this step was designated the cytoplasm fraction.

Nuclear extracts. Dishes were washed with Ca²⁺/Mg²⁺-free PBS and then mechanically detached with cell scraper in PBS. Cells were transferred to Eppendorf tubes and centrifuged at 2g for 15 min at 4 °C. The pellet was resuspended in buffer (1 M Tris, pH 7.5, 2.5 M NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, and 1 mM EGTA) containing cocktails of protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Sigma). The suspension was then homogenized in a Dounce glass homogenizer (30 strokes) and centrifuged at 4g for 15 min at 4 °C. The pellet was resuspended again in buffer 1 (0.5 M sucrose, 5 mM MgCl₂, 0.1 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris, pH 8, and 1 mM DTT) and centrifuged again at 23,100g for 45 min at 4 °C. The pellet from this step was resuspended in buffer 2 (buffer 1 without EGTA, with 0.6 M KCl) and left in ice for 30 min. The suspension was then centrifuged at 75,500g for

60 min at 4 °C. The supernatant from this step was designated the nuclear fraction.

Immunoprecipitation. Specific antibody to SP-1 (dilution 1:100) was added to 400 μ g protein from cytoplasm or nuclear extract and was rotated continuously for 60 min at 4 °C. After the samples were rotated for 60 min, 30 μ l of A/G Sepharose was added and rotated overnight at 4 °C. The samples were then centrifuged at 2,000g for 10 min at 4 °C, and the pellet was washed three times with buffer 2 with centrifugation at 2000g for 2 min at 4 °C. To this, 25 μ l of sample buffer (0.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 10% SDS, 10% glycerol, 4% 2- β -mercaptoethanol, and 0.05% bromophenol blue) was added. The suspension was again centrifuged at 500g (4 °C for 10 min), boiled for 5 min, and then subjected to SDS-PAGE.

Western blot analysis. Western blots were performed as described [13]. Equal protein loading of Western blots was confirmed by immunoblotting for skeletal muscle β -actin.

RT-PCR. Total RNA was obtained using RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) from control and insulin stimulated cells. Reverse transcription was performed on 1 μ g total RNA using One Tube RT-PCR system (Roche) and 10 μ M specific primers designed based on reported sequences for PKC δ and S12 control (ribosomal RNA—housekeeping gene). The RT reaction was amplified for 40 cycles (94 °C, 1 min; 50 °C, 35 min; 60 °C, 1 min; 72 °C, 1 min; and 70 °C, 10 min). Finally, 50% of the amplified products were resolved on a 1% agarose gel.

Primer sequences for PKC δ , PKC α , and S12:

PKC δ :

I AATCCCTTCCTCACCCATC

II TTCCTGTTACTCCCAGCCTC

PKC α :

I TGAACCTCAGTGGAATGAGTCCT

II ATGGCTGCTTCCTGGTCTTCTGAAG

S12:

I GGAAGGCATTGCTGCTGG

II CCTCAATGACATCCTTGG

Results

PKC α is involved in insulin-induced SP-1 activation

We reported that insulin rapidly serine phosphorylates SP-1 and induces it to translocate to the nucleus. The identity of the serine kinase responsible for insulin-induced serine phosphorylation of SP-1 is not known. Among the several serine-threonine kinases have been shown to be able to serine phosphorylates SP-1 is PKC α . As a first step to examine the possibility that PKC α is involved in the insulin-induced increase in PKC δ levels through SP-1 activation, we examined possible physical association between PKC α and SP-1. In these studies, SP-1 immunoprecipitated from control and insulin-stimulated L6 muscle cells was subjected to SDS-PAGE and then immunoblotting with specific anti-PKC α antibodies. The results are shown in Fig. 1. In the cytosolic fraction (Fig. 1A), SP-1 is constitutively associated with PKC α and following insulin treatment PKC α is induced to disassociate from SP-1. In contrast, in the nuclear fraction (Fig. 1B) there was no detectable association between SP-1 and PKC α under basal conditions, and insulin stimulation induced association between these two proteins.

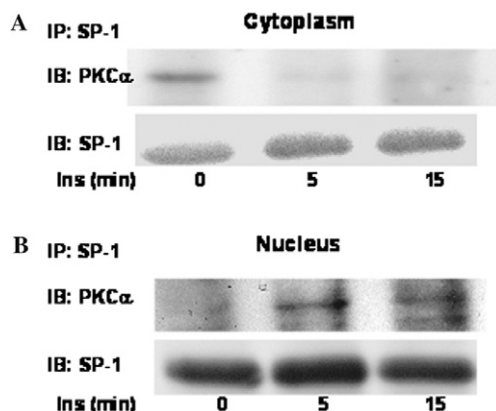


Fig. 1. Insulin induces disassociation between SP-1 and PKC α in the cytoplasm fraction and association between these proteins in the nuclear fraction. Differentiated myotubes were treated with insulin (10^{-7} M) for the times indicated, following which nuclear extracts or cytoplasm extract were prepared as described in the Methods. SP-1 was immunoprecipitated from the nuclear fractions and from the cytoplasm fraction with specific anti-SP-1 antibodies. The immunoprecipitated SP-1 was subjected to SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting with anti-PKC α antibody. (A) Western blots of insulin-induced de-association between SP-1 and PKC α in the cytoplasm fraction. (B) Western blots of insulin-induced association between SP-1 and PKC α in the nuclear fraction.

To further clarify the role of PKC α in SP-1 activation, we next examined effects of inhibition of PKC α on insulin-induced association between PKC α and SP-1 and serine phosphorylation of SP-1. PKC α was inhibited by treatment of muscle cells with Go6976, a selective PKC α inhibitor. Fig. 2 shows results obtained in these studies. Inhibition of PKC α prevented insulin-induced association between SP-1 and PKC α (Fig. 2A) and also reduced insulin-induced serine phosphorylation of nuclear SP-1 (Fig. 2B).

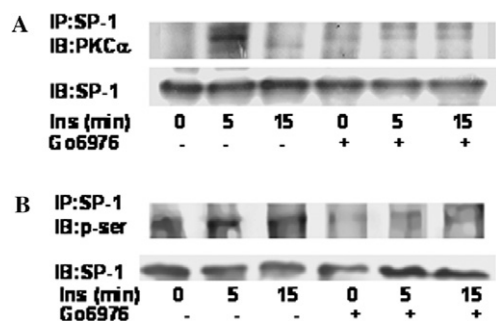


Fig. 2. Inhibition of PKC α reduces insulin-induced association between SP-1 and PKC α and SP-1 serine phosphorylation. Differentiated myotubes were pre-treated with PKC α inhibitor, Go6976 20 mM, for 30 min and then with insulin (10^{-7} M) for the times indicated. Nuclear extracts were prepared as in Fig. 1. SP-1 was immunoprecipitated from the nuclear fractions with specific anti-SP-1 antibodies. The immunoprecipitated SP-1 was subjected to SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting with anti-PKC α antibody and with anti-phosphoserine antibodies. (A) Western blots of Go6976 decrease insulin-induced association between SP-1 and PKC α in the nuclear fraction. (B) Western blots of Go6976 decrease insulin-induced serine phosphorylation of SP-1.

PKC α is involved in insulin-induced increase in PKC δ expression

We recently reported that SP-1 is essential for insulin-induced increase in PKC δ RNA and protein levels. Since, as we have shown here, PKC α is involved in SP-1 serine phosphorylation, we next considered the possibility that PKC α might participate in insulin-induced regulation of PKC δ RNA and protein levels. In these experiments we studied effects of Go6976 inhibition on insulin-induced increases in PKC δ RNA and protein levels. As can be seen in Fig. 3, inhibition of PKC α reduced insulin-induced increases in PKC δ protein levels in both the nuclear (Fig. 3A), and cytosolic (Fig. 3B) fractions as well as in PKC δ RNA levels (Fig. 3C).

NF κ B involved in insulin-induced increase in PKC α

Because PKC δ plays a key role in many cellular processes as well as in the insulin signaling cascade it is reasonable to assume that that SP-1 may not act alone to regulate PKC δ gene expression. One candidate transcription factor might be NF κ B, which was found to be involved in regulation PKC δ by TNF- α in keratinocytes. The NF κ B binding

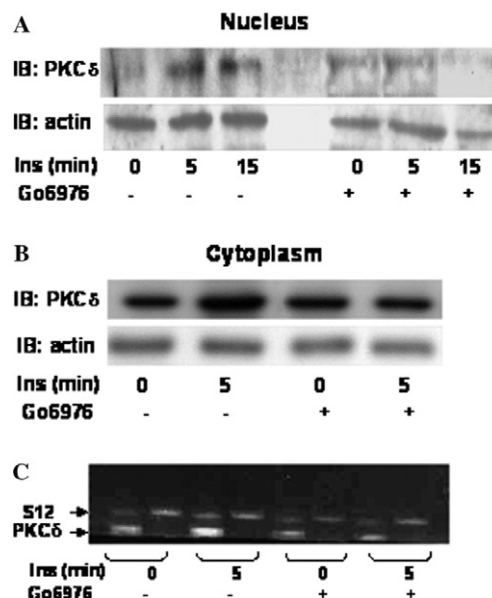


Fig. 3. Inhibition of PKC α reduces insulin-induced increase in PKC δ protein and RNA levels. Differentiated myotubes were pre-treated with PKC α inhibitor, Go6976 20 mM, for 30 min and then with insulin (10^{-7} M) for the times indicated, following which nuclear extracts or cytoplasm extracts were prepared as described in the Methods. Following SDS-PAGE and transfer, proteins were probed with specific antibodies against PKC δ . (A) Western blots showing that Go6976 decreases insulin-induced increase in PKC δ expression in the nuclear fraction. (B) Western blots showing that Go6976 decreases insulin-induced increase in PKC δ expression in the cytoplasm fraction. (C) Differentiated myotubes were pre-treated with PKC α inhibitor, Go6976 20 mM for 30 min and then with insulin (10^{-7} M) for the times indicated following which RNA was purified as described in Methods. PKC δ RNA and S12 ribosomal RNA were determined by RT-PCR.

site is located immediately upstream of the PKC δ transcription site. Accordingly, we considered the possibility that NF κ B transcription factor may also be involved in insulin regulation of PKC δ gene expression.

In this series of experiments, we first examined the effect of insulin on NF κ B expression in the nuclear fraction. We have already reported that insulin treatment does not appear to affect the expression levels of NF κ B [22]. Here, we investigated the possibility that NF κ B activity may nonetheless influence the levels of PKC δ and PKC α . We first examined effects of NF κ B inhibition on insulin-induced changes in expression and protein levels of PKCs α and δ . We inhibited NF κ B in two ways: (1) treatment of L6 muscle cells with NF κ B inhibitor as well as by (2) expression of I κ B α (kindly supplied by Prof. D. Wallach, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, Israel), which is unable to be phosphorylated and therefore remains bound to NF κ B thus preventing its activation. The results of these studies are shown in Figs. 4 and 5. NF κ B inhibition had opposite effects on insulin-induced changes in PKC α and PKC δ

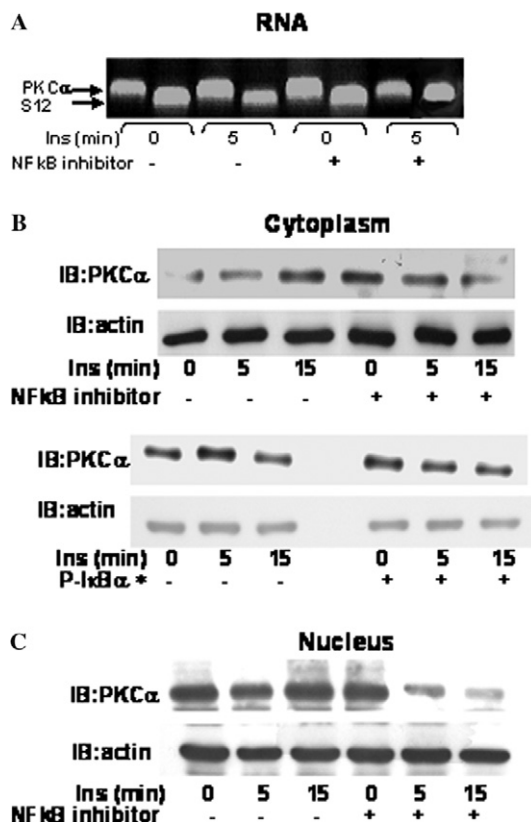


Fig. 4. NF κ B activation inhibitor decreases insulin-induced increase in PKC α protein and RNA levels. Differentiated myotubes were pre-treated with NF κ B activation inhibitor, [6-amino-4-(4-phenoxyphenylethylamino) quinazoline] 5 μ g/ml for 12 h and then with insulin (10^{-7} M) for the times indicated. In addition, (B, right-hand blots), differentiated myotubes were transfected with mutant plasmid of I κ B α , and then with insulin (10^{-7} M). (A) RNA was purified as described in Methods and PKC α RNA and S12 ribosomal RNA levels were determined by RT-PCR. (B) Cytoplasmic extracts or (C) nuclear extracts were prepared as described in the Methods. Following SDS-PAGE and transfer, proteins were probed with specific antibodies against PKC α .

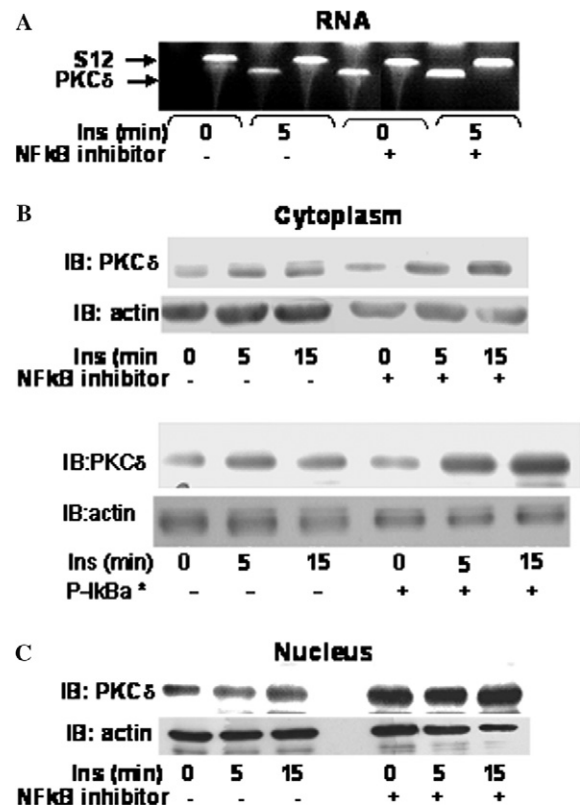


Fig. 5. NF κ B activation inhibitor increases insulin-induced increase in PKC δ protein and RNA levels. Differentiated myotubes were treated as in Fig. 4. (A) RNA was purified as described in Methods, and PKC δ RNA and S12 ribosomal RNA levels were determined by RT-PCR. (B) Nuclear extracts or (C) cytoplasmic extracts were prepared as described in the Methods. Following SDS-PAGE and transfer, proteins were probed with specific antibodies against PKC δ .

RNA and protein expression. As can be seen, inhibition of NF κ B reduces insulin-induced increase in PKC α RNA (Fig. 4A) and protein both in the cytoplasm (Fig. 4B) and in the nucleus (Fig. 4C). On the other hand, inhibition of NF κ B increases PKC δ RNA levels (Fig. 5A) and protein both in the cytoplasm (Fig. 5B) and in the nucleus (Fig. 5C).

PKC δ activity is necessary for NF κ B activity

Studies have shown that PKC δ activation is necessary for NF κ B activity [17,18]. Therefore, we next examined if inhibition of PKC δ may influence NF κ B activation in skeletal muscle as well. Phosphorylation of I κ B is necessary for dissociation of I κ B from NF κ B so that the latter can translocate to the nucleus where it can be activated. Inhibition of PKC δ was accomplished in two ways: (1) pretreatment of cells with Rottlerin (5 μ M) for 1 h before addition of insulin, and (2) by infection of cells with adenovirus constructs of kinase dead (dominant negative-DN) PKC δ (Kindly supplied by Prof. Chaya Brodie, Bar-Ilan University). The results demonstrate that inhibition of PKC δ by Rottlerin (Fig. 6A) or by DNPKC δ (Fig. 6B)

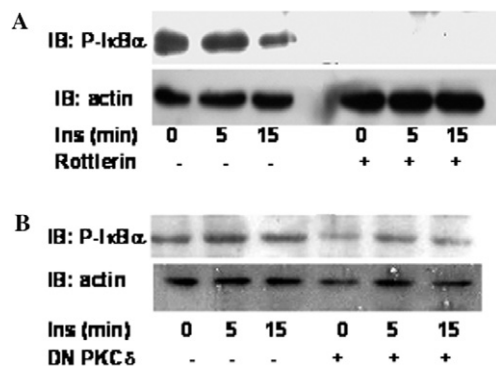


Fig. 6. Inhibition of PKC δ activation reduces phosphorylation of I κ B α . Differentiated myotubes were treated Rottlerin or infected with adenovirus constructs of DNPCK δ following which they were stimulated with insulin (10^{-7} M) for the times indicated. Cytoplasm extracts were prepared and subjected to SDS-PAGE and transfer. Proteins were probed with specific antibodies against p-I κ B α or β -actin to verify equal loading.

reduced phosphorylation of I κ B α and consequently reduced NF κ B activation.

Discussion

The results presented here clearly demonstrate that PKC α is involved in activation of SP-1 transcription factor. Inhibition of this isoform prevents insulin-induced physical association between SP-1 and PKC α , and reduces insulin-induced serine phosphorylation of SP-1. SP-1 transcription factor contains many phosphorylation sites that can be phosphorylated by serine threonine kinases. Interestingly, PKC α , which is also rapidly activated by insulin in L6 skeletal muscle, reportedly serine phosphorylates SP-1 when co-transfected with Erk2 [15]. Our findings show that PKC α is involved in insulin-induced SP-1 phosphorylation on serine residues as well. We also showed that both PKC α -dependent association of SP-1 with PKC α and SP-1 serine phosphorylation induced by insulin are essential for insulin-induced gene expression of PKC δ . The results reported here are consistent with our recent finding that the nuclear transcription factor SP-1 is involved in rapid insulin-induced transcription of PKC δ in skeletal muscle [22].

It has been reported that there is cross-talk between PKC α and PKC δ . Some studies show opposing roles for these two isoforms in the insulin signaling cascade. For example, PKC δ acts as positive regulator by physical association with IR [9] and promotes transmission of the insulin signal, while PKC α acts as a physiological negative regulator by association with IRS-1 and dissociates from IRS-1 in response to insulin-stimulation [10,11]. Other studies demonstrate relatively similar effects for PKC α and PKC δ . It was shown in several cell systems that overexpression of PKC α and PKC δ appears to exert the same biological effects. For example, overexpression of either PKC α or PKC δ causes prolonged activation of MAPK, induction of myeloid differentiation of murine 32D cells,

and formation of polynuclear cells in hamster COH fibroblasts. It also was reported that there is a complex inter-isoenzyme relationship between PKC α and PKC δ in which activation, PKC α protein upregulates the steady-state levels of PKC δ mRNA, which causes an increase in PKC δ protein level [16].

PKC δ is a key molecule in many cellular processes and expressed at different levels in almost every type of cell. Hence, it would appear to be unlikely that SP-1 is the only transcription factor that involved in its regulation in skeletal muscle. The PKC δ promoter region has been sequenced and analyzed for putative transcription factor binding sites containing greater than 90% homology to the known consensus sequence motifs. It was found that the NF κ B binding site is located immediately upstream of the PKC δ transcription site [19]. Furthermore, NF κ B transcription factor was shown to be involved directly in TNF- α regulation of PKC δ expression in mouse keratinocytes. In a recent study [22], we investigated the involvement of NF κ B in insulin-induced PKC δ and PKC α expression levels in skeletal muscle and did not find an effect of insulin on NF κ B expression in the nuclear fraction. However, inhibition of this transcription factor induced an increase in insulin-induced increase in PKC δ RNA and protein levels both in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus, in contrast to effects of TNF- α on PKC δ expression in keratinocytes. On the other hand, inhibition of NF κ B reduced the insulin-induced increase in PKC α RNA and protein levels both in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus. These results raise the possibility that NF κ B may be involved in insulin-induced increase in PKC α which was found to be involved in insulin-induced increase in PKC δ gene expression via mediation of insulin-induced serine phosphorylation of SP-1 [22].

There are several studies that suggest a possible relation between regulation of expression of certain PKC isoforms and NF κ B activation [17,18,20,21]. Thus, it was shown that phorbol esters, known activators of PKC proteins, induce activation of NF κ B as well. In β cells, PKC β phosphorylates IKK α and causes activation of NF κ B. In PC12 cells overexpression of PKC γ is essential for activation of NF κ B. Inhibition of PKC ζ in *Xenopus* oocytes inhibits activation of NF κ B. Finally, In airway epithelial cells activation of PKC δ increases association and transactivation of NF κ B and in pancreatic acinar cells PKC δ and PKC ϵ regulate activation of NF κ B. When we inhibited PKC δ activation by Rottlerin or by adenoviruses with inactive kinase domain we observed a decrease in phosphorylation of I κ B α . Our results indicate that activation of PKC δ is essential for phosphorylation of I κ B α and, therefore, NF κ B activation which depends on phosphorylation of I κ B α .

In conclusion, the findings in this study show that PKC α regulates PKC δ RNA and proteins levels in skeletal muscle through activation of the transcription factor SP-1. PKC α expression levels appear to be regulated by NF κ B whose activation depends on PKC δ activity. These regulations of PKC α and PKC δ , which are both rapidly activated by

insulin, indicate that there may be a reciprocal mechanism for regulation of these two proteins by insulin.

Acknowledgments

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