

Effect of anisotonic media on the volume of the T-lymphocyte nucleus

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ABSTRACT Time-resolved measurements of the nuclear volume response of human peripheral T-lymphocytes, under anisotonic conditions, are presented. In the experiments slit scanning FlowCytometry methods were used. We propose an extension to the standard solid viscoelastic model to interpret the observed dynamical behavior of the nucleus. It is shown that experimental and theoretical evidence indicates a passive nuclear response merely induced by a mechanical link (i.e., the cytoskeleton) between the cell membrane and the nuclear envelope. Implications of this work to the field of cellular mechanics and cytoskeletal rheology are surveyed.

INTRODUCTION

Recently it was shown experimentally that the light scattered by lymphocytes in the forward directions in anisotonic media varies inversely with cell volume (McGann et al., 1988)¹. These results appear to be inconsistent with the observation that low-angle lightscattering is proportional to particle size (Slood and Figdor, 1986). We solved this paradox by including changes in the optical density of the cell, induced by variations in the osmolarity of the solution, in a light scattering model (Slood et al., 1988). A crucial point in this model is the assumption of a nuclear volume response directly related to the cytoplasmic volume response. It is well known that *isolated* nuclei do not respond to anisotonic conditions (Roodyn, 1969). On the other hand it is not clear whether nuclei of *intact* cells can respond to these conditions. Furthermore, if the nuclei of intact cells respond to anisotonic conditions, as predicted by the light scattering theory, then the mechanism of this response is not clear. We therefore hypothesized a physical link between the cytoplasmic membrane and the nuclear envelope (the cytoskeletal network) resulting in an induced nuclear volume response.

The response of lymphocytes in anisotonic media has been studied extensively. It was noted recently that the behavior of human B- and T-lymphocytes in hypoosmotic media is completely different. After suspension in a hypoosmotic medium the total cell volume response of T-lymphocytes consists of two steps. First, a fast initial volume increase and next, for cells suspended in a NaCl solution, a slow decrease in volume back to the initial

isoosmotic value (Ben-Sasson et al., 1975). In KCl solutions, the initial fast increase in cell volume is followed by a much slower increase in cell volume. The first step is interpreted as an osmotic flow of H₂O through the membrane into the cell. The increase in volume is well described by the Boyle van't Hoff relation (McGann et al., 1988) the second, volume regulatory step, is explained by the activation of potassium and chloride pathways (Ben-Sasson et al., 1975; Gelfand et al., 1984). In contrast to T-lymphocytes, human B-lymphocytes in hypoosmotic NaCl solutions show the initial (fast) volume increase but remain in a swollen state (Cheung et al., 1982; Gelfand et al., 1984).

Under hyperosmotic conditions, (T- and B-) lymphocytes decrease in volume but are not capable of any volume regulation (Hempling, 1974, 1977). This volume decrease also follows the Boyle van't Hoff relation (Hempling, 1974; McGann et al., 1988).

Apart from a total cell volume response, analysis of Transmission Electron Microscopy recordings of lymphocytes also revealed a *nuclear* response. (Schmid-Schönbein et al., 1980). However, no attention was paid to the sometimes complex total cell volume response of lymphocytes as a function of time, which might affect the nuclear response. The question why the nucleus responds to anisotonic conditions was also not addressed.

In this study we introduce time-resolved measurements of the nuclear volume response of human peripheral T-lymphocytes, after suspension in both hypoosmotic- and hyperosmotic media (with dominant ion K⁺ or Na⁺).

A mechanistic interpretation of the nuclear response is presented. We modeled the response of the nuclei as a passive phenomenon, induced by a mechanical link

¹A comparable effect, the inverse relationship between the transmittance of red blood cell suspensions and the red blood cell volume, was already known empirically in the 1930's (Ørskov, 1935).

between cell membrane and nuclear envelope. The data are fitted to an extended standard solid viscoelastic model. The nature of the mechanical link is discussed in terms of the cytoskeleton.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell handling

Isolation of cells

Large amounts of human peripheral T-lymphocytes were obtained by Computer Assisted Centrifugal Elutriation (CACE), as described in detail by Sloot et al. (1987) and Figdor et al. (1981).

Preparation of suspending media

The Phosphate-Buffered Saline (PBS, in this paper referred to as Na⁺ medium) was prepared according to Dulbecco and Vogt (1954). Phosphate-Buffered potassium medium (PBK, this paper: K⁺ medium) is identical to Na⁺ medium with the sodium and potassium interchanged, and the calcium concentration halved (see also Ben-Sasson et al., 1975).

A stock solution of 10 \times isoosmotic K⁺- and Na⁺ medium was prepared. This solution was diluted with distilled water to obtain media with the desired osmolarity. The isoosmotic osmolarity Π_0 equals 285 mOsm/l. The anisosmotic media are characterized by Π_0/Π , with Π the osmolarity of the anisosmotic medium. If $\Pi_0/\Pi > 1$, the medium is hypoosmotic; for $\Pi_0/\Pi < 1$ the medium is hyperosmotic.

The osmolarity of the media was measured by means of a freezing point depression method (Knauer Halbmikro-Osmometer).

Stock suspension

Freshly isolated T-lymphocytes were resuspended in isoosmotic Na⁺ medium at a concentration of 10⁶ cells/ml. We refer to this as the stock cell suspension.

Staining

For the measurement of the nuclear diameter in the slit scan FlowCytometer (see next section), the nucleus of the cells was stained with the fluorescent dye Hoechst 33342 (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO). Hoechst 33342 (Hö) was added to 200 μ l stock cell suspension to a final concentration of 2 μ g/ml Hö, and incubated at room temperature for 20 min.

As a control experiment the total cell volume response in an anisosmotic medium was measured (with the Coulter Counter, see next section) in the absence and presence of Hö. Both responses were equal.

In one experiment the total cell volume was also measured in the FlowCytometer. The cells were stained with carboxyFluorescein-Diacetate (cFDA; Bruning et al., 1980). A stock solution of 20 mg/ml cFDA in acetone was prepared; 5 μ l of this stock solution was added to 2.5 ml isotonic Na⁺ medium, with 250 μ l stock cell suspension and incubated for 15 min at 37°C. After incubation the cells were washed twice with isotonic Na⁺ medium and resuspended in 50 μ l isotonic Na⁺ medium. Under the fluorescence microscope, the cells showed a bright, homogeneous fluorescence. For times extending beyond ~15 min after staining the cells developed protuberances and showed bleaching of the fluorescence.

Resuspension of cells in anisosmotic media

The cells were resuspended in the anisosmotic media in two different ways, depending on the method of analysis used (see next section). In case of the Coulter measurements (total cell volume measurement), 100 μ l of stock cell suspension was added to 10 ml of anisosmotic medium.

The procedure for the slit scan FlowCytometry experiments was as follows: after staining, the cells were centrifuged at 200 g for 3 min, the supernatant was removed and the cells were resuspended in 250 μ l anisosmotic medium, with 2 μ g/ml Hö added to maintain a constant level of staining (this was not necessary for cFDA staining). Addition of low concentrations of Hö did not affect the osmolarity of the media. Immediately after resuspension (within 10–20 s), the measurements on the cell suspensions were started.

Measuring the total cell volume

The total cell volume was obtained by electronic sizing with a Coulter counter model ZF connected to a Coulter channelizer model C 1000. Immediately after the resuspension of cells in the anisosmotic media, the cells were transported to the Coulter counter and after ± 1 min the first measurement was performed. Typically ~20,000 cells were sized in 20 s. The time between two measurements was 2 min.

After sizing of the cells, a hardcopy of the volume distribution was produced and digitized with a Numonics 1220 digitizer (Optronics, Nijmegen, the Netherlands) into memory of a Hewlett Packard HP 9816 computer. The mean value of the volume distribution V_m was calculated. As lymphocytes show a homogeneous response to an osmotic shock, V_m is a good parameter to represent the volume of the cell distribution (Ben-Sasson et al., 1975).

Since we measure volumes in anisosmotic media (V_{cell}) relative to the isoosmotic volume $V(0)_{\text{cell}}$ by

$$\left[\frac{V(t)}{V(0)} \right]_{\text{cell}} = \frac{V_m(t)}{V_m(0)}, \quad (1)$$

with t the time after the osmotic shock and V_m the mean volume of the isoosmotic volume distribution, an absolute calibration of the apparatus is not necessary (Segel et al., 1981; Grover et al., 1969).² Here it is assumed that the electronic shape factor is constant for lymphocytes as a function of the osmolarity of the suspending medium (Segel et al., 1981).

Measuring the nuclear volume

Two techniques were applied to determine the nuclear volume: Fluorescence Microscopy and FlowCytometry.

²The measured voltage pulse height Δv as a function of volume V of a particle in the Coulter Counter is $\Delta v = K\rho iV$, with i the constant current through the orifice, r the electric resistivity of the medium, and K a formfactor dependent on the particle shape and orifice geometry. The electric resistivity of the media is a function of the osmolarity, therefore particles of the same volume in different media produce different Δv . This source of error was investigated by measuring 10 μ m polystyrene spheres (Duke Scientific Corporation, Palo Alto, CA) in media with $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.5$ and 1.5. The measured $V_m/V(0)_m$ was 0.98 and 1.00 for $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.5$ and 1.5, respectively. This small systematic error is considered insignificant.

Fluorescence Microscopy

Following the resuspension of the cells, a drop of stained cells in an- or isoosmotic medium was placed on an objective glass and immediately covered to prevent water evaporation and subsequent osmolarity changes. The cells were examined under a Zeiss microscope with 40× objective-, 10× ocular magnification and UV illumination. The cells were photographed and the negatives were further analyzed on the Numonics 1220 digitizer. Absolute calibration of the measured nuclear diameters was not necessary since the nuclear diameters in anisotonic media are measured relative to the isoosmotic values.

FlowCytometry

The stained cell suspensions were analyzed using a cytofluorograph 30 FlowCytometer (Becton Dickinson, Mountain View, CA) with a Spectra Physics (Mountain View, CA) 2000 Argon ion laser tuned to the UV. The measuring principle is drawn schematically in Fig. 1. Special purpose optics, using crossed cylindrical lenses, was applied to focus the laser beam at the center of the quartz flow channel. The laser beam in the focal plane is line shaped to produce a "slit" of laser illumination through which the stained cells flow (see e.g., van Dilla et al., 1985, chapter 2). After hydrofocussing the cells pass the focal plane one by one. The dye is excited by the intense UV beam and the resulting fluorescence signal is measured as a function of time. The width of the fluorescence pulse is a measure of the nuclear diameter.

The fluorescence signal of the illuminated cell nuclei was detected through a 490-nm bandpass filter by a photomultiplier. The fluorescence pulse shape was obtained by digitizing the signals from the photomultiplier at a rate of 10 Mhz and storing into the memory of a dedicated computer system for slit scanning analysis. The values of the total (integrated) fluorescence intensity and the width of the fluorescence pulse (defined as the full width at half maximum; fwhm) from individual particles are stored in a two-dimensional histogram (Aten, 1984). These modes of operation are shown schematically in Fig. 2.

Approximately 500 cells per s are analyzed. After 15 s the system has sampled enough cells to allow reliable off-line statistical analysis of the two-dimensional histogram. The histogram is stored and the system starts filling a new histogram. Typically 15 subsequent histograms were measured.

From the two-dimensional histogram a (one-dimensional) pulse width histogram is calculated by integration over the total intensity. An

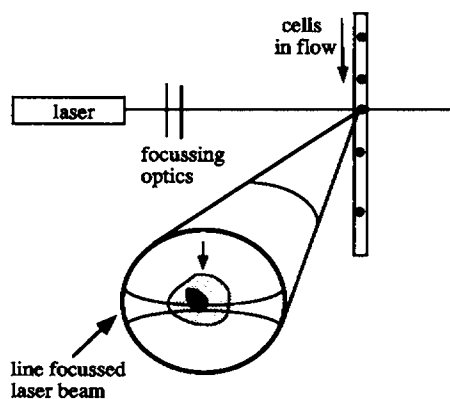


FIGURE 1 A schematic drawing of the slit scan principle. Hydrofocussed cells in a flow pass the line focussed laser beam one by one. The stained nucleus produces a fluorescence signal. The width of the fluorescence pulse is a measure of the nuclear diameter.

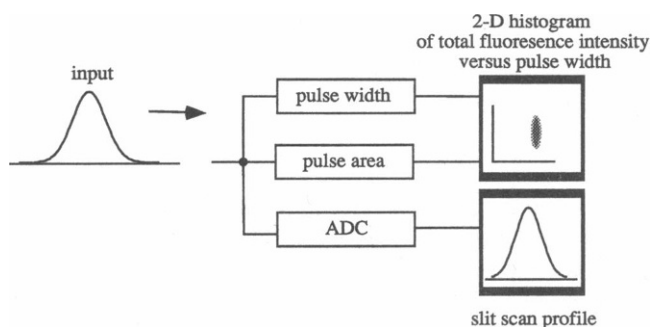


FIGURE 2 Modes of operation of the data acquisition equipment. In the experiments described in this paper the two-dimensional histogram is measured and further analyzed to obtain an average pulse width. The pulse area box measures the total (integrated) fluorescence intensity; the ADC box measures pulse profiles and the pulse width box measures the width of the fluorescence pulse.

average pulse width is obtained by calculating the first moment of the pulse width histogram. This value is used to calculate the nuclear diameter.

The measured fluorescence intensity $I(t)$ as a function of time t (i.e., the pulse profile) is a convolution of the nuclear fluorescence emission distribution $c(x, y, z)$ with the laser irradiance profile $H(z)$ in the focal plane (van Dilla et al., 1985):

$$I(vt) = \int c(x, y, vt - \xi) H(\xi) d\xi dx dy, \quad (2)$$

where v is the velocity of cell flow along the z axis. After deconvolution of $I(vt)$ with $H(z)$, the nuclear profile $C(z)$ is found, where

$$C(z) = \int c(x, y, z) dx dy. \quad (3)$$

Assume that the nucleus is a sphere and that $c(x, y, z)$ is homogeneous. It can be shown that $C(z)$ is, to third order in z , a Gaussian function with width $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}D$, where D is the diameter of the nucleus. The laser intensity $H(z)$ is also a Gaussian function. Convolution of two Gaussian functions yields a new Gaussian function. The variance of this new function is the sum of the variances of the original functions. Therefore, the width of $C(z)$ is:

$$\text{width}[C(z)] = \sqrt{\{\text{width}[I(vt)]\}^2 - \{\text{width}[H(z)]\}^2}. \quad (4)$$

In our system the nuclear diameter of the T-lymphocytes was approximately a factor of 4 larger than the width of the focussed laser beam. Therefore the measured pulse width is, within a few per cent, equal to $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}D$.

The volume of the nucleus $V_N(t)$ at time t , relative to the isotonic value $V_N(0)$ can now be calculated from

$$\frac{V_N(t)}{V_N(0)} = \left[\frac{w_m(t)}{w_m(0)} \right]^3, \quad (5)$$

where w_m is the mean of the pulse width distribution and the nucleus of the lymphocyte is assumed to be a sphere (Schmid-Schönbein et al., 1980). The linearity of w_m with particle diameter was verified by introducing test spheres of different diameter in the system. The

measured w_m was proportional to the test spheres diameter (data not shown).

RESULTS

In this section the measurements of the nuclear volume response of human peripheral T-lymphocytes in anisotonic media are presented. This response was measured in both hypo- and hyperosmotic conditions for two different media (Na^+ and K^+ media), as a function of time ($0 < t < 6$ min). The total cell volume response depends on these parameters. Since the volume regulatory phase in hypoosmotic medium is not observed in hyperosmotic medium and the dominant ion in the hypoosmotic medium determines the nature of the volume regulation, we expect the nuclear volume response to depend also on these parameters.

The first step was to assess if, under various anisotonic conditions, a nuclear volume response could be observed at all. Furthermore, in this pilot experiment, the results of the Fluorescence Microscopy and the FlowCytometry have been compared.

We prepared two anisotonic solutions (hyperosmotic Na^+ medium with $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.8$ and hypoosmotic Na^+ medium with $\Pi_0/\Pi = 1.4$) and isoosmotic Na^+ medium ($\Pi_0 = 285$ mOsm/l). Freshly isolated lymphocytes were stained as described in the previous section, and resuspended in the isoosmotic- and the two anisotonic media. After 15 min, cells were introduced into the FlowCytometer and the nuclear diameter was measured. This procedure was repeated four times for all media. The nuclear diameter in isoosmotic medium remains constant over a long period of time. The results are shown in Table 1.

The Fluorescence Microscopy data are also tabulated in Table 1; 5 min after resuspension the cells were placed under the microscope and photographed. The

nuclei appeared to be round. In all cases the diameters of 80 nuclei were measured.

A nuclear volume response is unambiguously observed, both by pulse width FlowCytometry analysis and by Fluorescence Microscopy. Apart from the small standard deviation in FlowCytometry, compared with Fluorescence Microscopy, the statistics in FlowCytometry are much better due to the larger amount of cells that can be measured in a typical experiment. In the following only FlowCytometry has been applied to obtain the nuclear volume.

Next, the total cell volume response and the nuclear volume response were measured simultaneously as a function of time. Four anisotonic solutions were prepared; two K^+ - and two Na^+ media, both with $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.5$ and $\Pi_0/\Pi = 1.5$, respectively, and isoosmotic K^+ and Na^+ media. A freshly isolated pool of lymphocytes was divided in two parts. The first part was used to measure the total cell volume response, whereas the second part was used to measure the nuclear volume response (by means of Coulter Counter and FlowCytometry, respectively). Both experiments were repeated four times for all the four anisotonic media and the two isoosmotic media. The averaged results are shown in Fig. 3, a-d.

First we note that the behavior of the total cell volume response of the T-lymphocytes is as expected. In hyperosmotic medium the volume decreases fast to an end value. After this fast response no further volume changes occur (Coulter Counter measurements at $t = 30$ min also reveal no further volume change, data not shown). The total cell volume response in hypoosmotic medium clearly shows the two steps. A fast increase in volume is followed by the volume regulatory phase. The decrease in volume in Na^+ medium is somewhat slow compared with experiments reported in literature (Ben-Sasson et al., 1975), but eventually (after ± 50 min) the volume returns to the initial isoosmotic value (data not shown).

The measured nuclear response, under the four different anisotonic conditions, shows resemblance to the total cell volume response. In both K^+ - and Na^+ hyperosmotic medium the nuclear volume reaches a plateau after ± 1 min but the relative volume decrease of the nucleus is much less than the total cell volume decrease (Na^+ medium: $[V/V_0]_{\text{nucleus}} \sim 0.85$ vs. $[V/V_0]_{\text{cell}} \sim 0.6$; K^+ medium: $[V/V_0]_{\text{nucleus}} \sim 0.9$ vs. $[V/V_0]_{\text{cell}} \sim 0.5$). Furthermore it can be seen from Fig. 3 b that in hyperosmotic K^+ medium the nucleus shows a tendency to increase in volume for $t > 3$ min.

The nuclear volume response under hypoosmotic conditions is much more pronounced. The fast increase in volume, followed by a volume regulatory phase, is observed in both hypoosmotic media. The first part of

TABLE 1 The nuclear volume response after resuspension of T-lymphocytes in a hyperosmotic and hypoosmotic Na^+ medium, measured by Fluorescence Microscopy (FM) and FlowCytometry (FCM)

		Π_0/Π	
		0.8	1.4
V/V_0	FCM	0.77 (0.02)	1.07 (0.02)
	FM	0.7 (0.1)	1.3 (0.3)

The FCM data are the average of four independent measurements per medium. The FM data are based on the measurement of 80 nuclei per medium. The numbers in brackets are standard deviations.

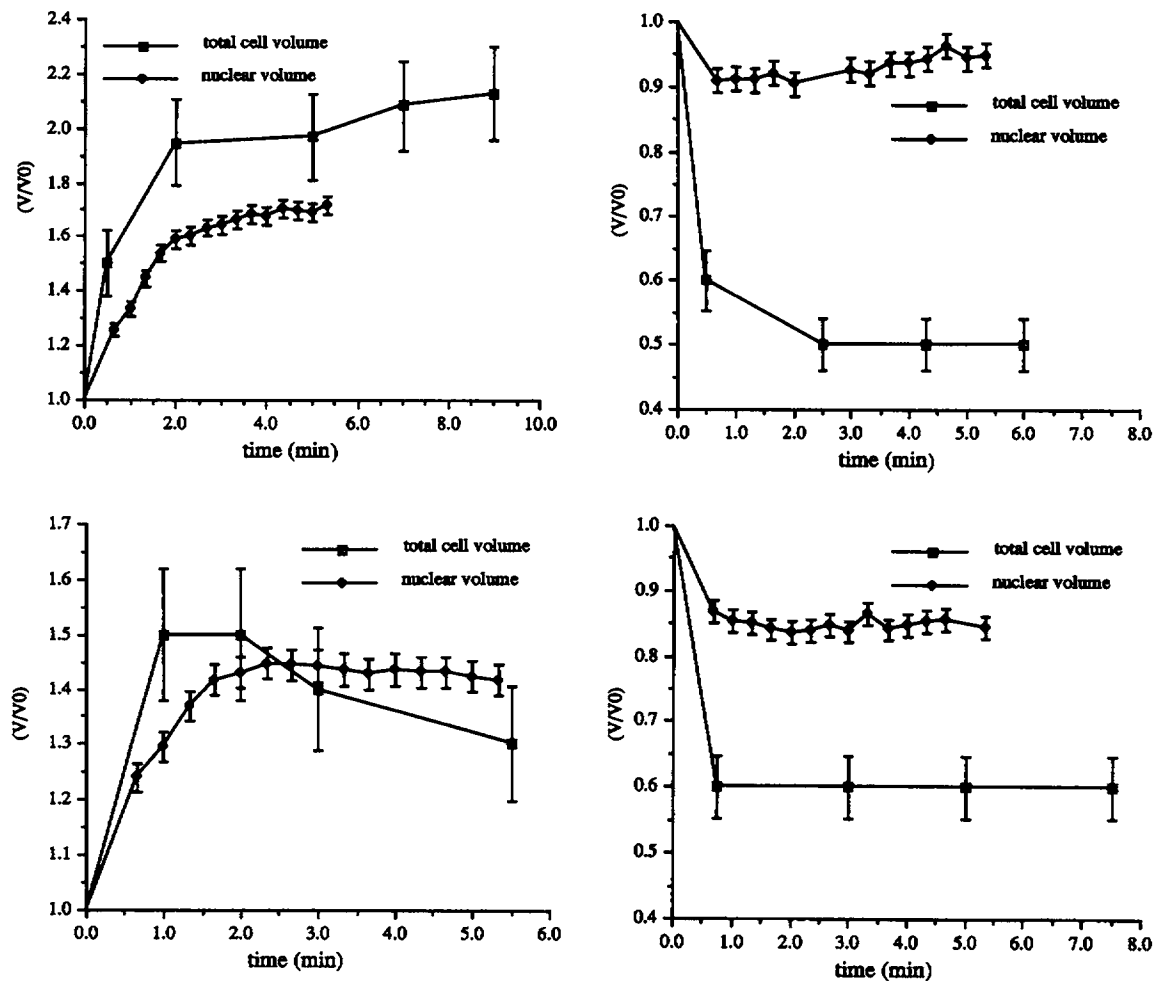


FIGURE 3 (a) The total cell volume response and the nuclear volume response as a function of time, after resuspension of cells at $t = 0$ min; K^+ medium, $\Pi_0/\Pi = 1.5$. The error bars indicate the standard deviation of four independent measurements. (b) The total cell volume response and the nuclear volume response as a function of time, after resuspension of cells at $t = 0$ min; K^+ medium, $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.5$. The error bars indicate the standard deviation of four independent measurements. (c) The total cell volume response and the nuclear volume response as a function of time, after resuspension of cells at $t = 0$ min; Na^+ medium, $\Pi_0/\Pi = 1.5$. The error bars indicate the standard deviation of four independent measurements. (d) The total cell volume response and the nuclear volume response as a function of time, after resuspension of cells at $t = 0$ min; Na^+ medium, $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.5$. The error bars indicate the standard deviation of four independent measurements.

the increase in nuclear volume ($0 < t < 2$ min) is much slower (order of minutes) with respect to the total cell volume (order of seconds). After ± 2 min in K^+ medium the rate of volume increase of the total cell volume and the nuclear volume are approximately the same. For longer times the nuclear volume seems to reach a plateau value, whereas the total cell volume continues to increase.

On the other hand, in hypoosmotic Na^+ medium the increase in nuclear volume is followed by a very slow (that is, slower than the total cell volume) decrease in volume.

DISCUSSION

The response of lymphocytes after suspension in anisotonic media has received much attention over the past years, especially the details of the volume regulatory phase and its potential as a diagnostic tool are extensively studied (Ben-Sasson et al., 1975; Gelfand et al., 1984). The response of intracellular structures, such as the nucleus, has barely been investigated.

Relying on a physical (light scattering) model, we predicted a nuclear response (Sloot et al., 1988) al-

though it is known that isolated nuclei, due to large pores in the nuclear membrane, do not behave as osmometers (Roodyn, 1969). We have demonstrated in Table 1 and Fig. 3 that the nuclei of intact lymphocytes do respond to several anisotonic conditions.

In this section the mechanism of the nuclear volume response will be discussed. It will be shown that the response is a passive viscoelastic response, and the role of the cytoskeleton in this response will be discussed. Finally, a possible link between this work and the field of cellular mechanics and cytoskeletal rheology is surveyed.

Across the cell membrane a chemical potential gradient is the driving force of the fast total cell volume response. The nucleus of intact eukariotic cells has large pores to allow the active transport of macromolecules (Newport and Forbes, 1987). As a consequence, a chemical potential gradient across the nuclear membrane cannot exist. Another possible mechanism for a nuclear response is a conformational change of chromatin in the nucleus due to variations in ion concentration. The volume of isolated nuclei of rat liver cells varies with Mg^{++} concentrations. However, this effect is only observed for divalent cations (Grattarola et al., 1985; Manning, 1978). The nucleus of intact cells, like isolated nuclei, cannot respond in an active way to variations in osmotic pressure, induced by K^+ or Na^+ concentration changes.

We suggested in earlier work that the fibrillar networks inside the cell might regulate the changes in size of the nucleus (Sloot et al., 1988) i.e., that the nuclear response is induced via a mechanical link between the cell membrane and the nuclear envelope, and that the cytoskeleton provides this mechanical link.

The main components of the cytoskeleton (microfilaments, microtubules, and intermediate filaments) occur in the cytoplasm of lymphocytes (Yahara and Edelman, 1975). Dense microfilamentous networks are observed underneath the plasma membrane (Yahara and Edelman, 1975; Sundqvist et al., 1980; Fagraeus et al., 1974; de Petris, 1975) as well as in regions close to the nuclear membrane (Yahara and Edelman, 1975). The microtubules are usually separated from the plasma membrane by microfilaments (de Petris, 1975). Microfilaments, microtubules, and intermediate filaments form a highly interconnected structural network; the cytoskeleton (Schliwa and van Blerkom, 1981; Griffith and Pollard, 1978). The microfilaments are joined to the plasma membrane (Braun and Unanue, 1983; Barber and Crumpton, 1976; Hoessli et al., 1980) and it is shown that the nuclear matrix is physically associated with the cytoskeleton (Braun and Unanue, 1983; Capco et al., 1982). These observations suggest that a mechanical link

between the cell membrane and the nuclear membrane exists.

Next we consider the nuclear response in more detail by assuming that the response is a linear viscoelastic response. Leukocytes are viscoelastic (Elson, 1988). The relaxation of leukocytes after small deformations can be modeled by the standard solid viscoelastic model (Schmid-Schönbein et al., 1981; Sung et al., 1988), where the leukocyte is assumed to be an isotropic homogeneous spherical body. We have extended the standard solid viscoelastic model with a Voigt element to simulate the retardation of the nucleus. In Appendix A this model is presented and the measurements are fitted to this model. The result of this fit for Na^+ hyposmotic medium is shown in Fig. A4. For $t < 4$ min the nuclear response can be fitted to this model with one retardation time. This clearly indicates that the nuclear response may be modeled by a passive viscoelastic response.

In phase I (see Appendix A) the fast initial total cell volume response was considered as a step function. It is known that this initial response is very fast; within 20 s an end value is reached (see e.g., Ben-Sasson et al., 1975). On the time scale of the nuclear response (which is order of minutes) this fast initial response may be regarded as a step function.

It is important to note that in Fig. A4 the nuclear response was fitted to the model for $t < t_1$ ($=1.8$ min) yielding the model parameter τ . With known values for τ , τ_c , and t_1 , the response for $t > t_1$ is calculated. For $t_1 < t < 4$ min the model calculations agree with the measurements.

For $t > 4$ min the calculations decrease too fast. A possible explanation for this discrepancy can be found in the suggested behavior of actin filament solutions. Actin filament solutions appear to be viscoelastic solids on one time scale, but show liquid-like behavior over longer periods of time (Elson, 1988). If actin filaments play an important role in the mechanics of a cell, similar behavior might occur. In the study of leukocyte deformation and recovery two models emerged (Elson, 1988). On the one hand the above-mentioned solid-like behavior for relative small deformations over a short time interval ($t < \pm 200$ s) and on the other hand a viscous-like behavior for large deformations and long periods of time. This difference might be explained by the behavior of actin filament solutions, as suggested by Elson (Elson, 1988). The deviations from the proposed solid like model, as observed in Fig. A4, may be explained by a change of the cytoskeleton from a solid-like to a liquid-like behavior. Obviously, more detailed studies to unravel these data are necessary.

In Appendix A we noted that the time steps in the measurement of the total cell volume response are too long to allow for an accurate evaluation of the response

integral (A6). For the Na^+ hypoosmotic medium this response could be approximated by simple functions, allowing an analytical solution of Eq. A6. This is not the case for the K^+ hypoosmotic medium. Therefore, in a preliminary experiment, we measured in the FlowCytometer the total cell volume response with the same time resolution as the nuclear response. The cells were stained with cFDA (see Materials and Methods). From these measurements it was concluded that the total cell volume response can be measured accurately in the FlowCytometer, after staining of the cells with cFDA (data not shown). In the future we will focus on dual-staining techniques to measure simultaneously the total cell volume response and the nuclear response of each individual cell. These improvements will allow more accurate analysis in terms of the proposed extended standard solid viscoelastic model.

The hyperosmotic data cannot be fitted by the proposed viscoelastic model because one expects the end value $[V/V_0]_{\text{cell}}$ and $[V/V_0]_{\text{nucleus}}$ to be equal. Obviously the nucleus resists further shrinkage beyond $[V/V_0]_{\text{nucleus}} < 0.9$ (see Fig. 3). We suggest that this nonlinear behavior is caused by the increase in density in the nucleus during the shrinking. In Table 1 a hyperosmotic response of 0.77 was measured for $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.8$, whereas in Fig. 3 *d* a response of 0.85 was obtained for $\Pi_0/\Pi = 0.5$. These measurements were performed on T-lymphocytes from different donors. The difference in the results is probably due to donor variability.

A complete three-dimensional "concentric sphere Lamb model" in combination with high resolution measurements, should permit detailed analysis in terms of macroscopic rheological properties. This will result in finding k_i and μ_i for both the cytoplasm and the nucleus. It is our opinion that these macroscopic properties can then be combined with microscopic theories, such as Nossal's study of the elasticity of cytoskeletal networks (Nossal, 1988). Experiments with cytochalasin D suggest that the deformability of lymphocytes is mainly determined by the nucleus (Elson, 1988). In our experiment however, cytochalasin D or other cytochalasins, would have a drastic effect on the nuclear response since cytochalasins completely disrupt the cytoskeleton (Schliwa, 1982; Britch and Allen, 1981).

From *in vitro* studies much is known about the polymerization of actin, the rheological properties of actin gels and the influence of numerous chemical agents on these properties (e.g., Godette and Frieden, 1986; Tadanao et al., 1987; Cooper, 1987). The translation of this knowledge to the observed *in vivo* effects of e.g., cytochalasin is still not clear (Cooper, 1987). The type of experiments and data analysis as described in this work may serve as a suitable test system to assemble

the data on isolated cytoskeletal components and the observed *in vivo* effects.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we present both theory and experimental techniques to study the dynamical behavior of osmotically active lymphocytes.

In contrast to the general notion that the nuclei of lymphocytes do not respond to anisomotic conditions, we predicted a definite response of the nuclei. The data presented here unambiguously support this view. We have shown that the nuclear response is a complex function of time and is very sensitive to the anisomotic environment.

A linear viscoelastic model is presented to interpret our measurements. This extension to the standard solid viscoelastic model regards the nuclear response as a passive response which is induced by a mechanical link between the cellular and the nuclear membrane. We suggest that the cytoskeleton provides this mechanical link. Our model is well suited to describe the observed response.

We believe that our measurements can provide knowledge on rheological properties of the nucleus and the cytoskeleton *in vivo* that is of crucial importance to understand cellular mechanics.

APPENDIX A

Fitting of the data to an extended standard solid viscoelastic model

The relaxation of leukocytes after small deformations can be modeled by the standard solid viscoelastic model (see Fig. A1). The exact three-dimensional solution of this model for isotropic, homogeneous spheres is given by Lamb (Lamb, 1965). This "Lamb model" was applied to describe the retardation of leukocytes after a specific load history (Schmid-Schönbein et al., 1981; Sung et al., 1988).

We have extended this model with a Voigt element to describe the retardation of the nucleus, see Fig. A2. Systems with resistive and capacitive elements in them may be fitted by a variety of models. Our

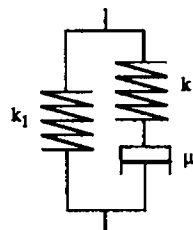


FIGURE A1 The standard solid viscoelastic model; k_1 and k_2 are resistive elements and μ is a capacitive element.

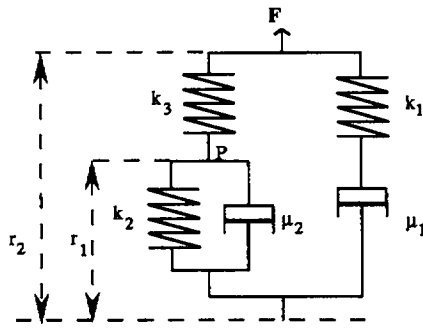


FIGURE A2 The extended standard solid viscoelastic model; r_1 models the nuclear volume and r_2 the total cell volume; k_i are resistive elements and μ_i are capacitive elements.

model is a direct extension of the standard model, that allows for a retardation of the nuclear volume and preserves the total volume relaxation and retardation properties of the standard model.

Here, r_1 mimics the nuclear volume and r_2 the total cell volume, F is a force (the osmotic pressure) to which r_1 and r_2 respond. The response in r_1 and r_2 , due to a change in F , can be calculated from the model in Fig. A2. We shall take a different approach, compatible with the idea that the nuclear volume response is induced by the total cell volume response. At time $t = 0$, F changes instantaneously to another constant value (step function in F). This results in a change of r_2 which then induces a change in r_1 . We shall calculate the response $r_1(t)$ as a function of the stimulus $r_2(t)$.

Considering equilibrium of forces at point P in Fig. A2:

$$k_3(r_2 - r_1) = k_2 r_1 + \mu_2 \frac{dr_1}{dt}, \quad (\text{A1})$$

and taking the Laplace transform of the resulting differential equation, one finds for $R_1(p)$ and $R_2(p)$, the Laplace transforms of $r_1(t)$ and $r_2(t)$,

$$\frac{R_1(p)}{R_2(p)} = K \frac{1}{1 + p\tau}, \quad (\text{A2})$$

with $K = k_3/k_2 + k_3$ and $\tau = \mu_2/(k_2 + k_3)$.

$J(p)$, the Laplace transform of the step response function $J(t)$, is (Fung, 1965):

$$J(p) = \frac{R_1(p)}{pR_2(p)}. \quad (\text{A3})$$

Inverse Laplace transformation gives

$$J(t) = K(1 - e^{-t/\tau})H(t), \quad (\text{A4})$$

with $H(t)$ the Heaviside step function. The corresponding response $r_1(t)$ is

$$r_1(t) = \int_0^t r_2(t') \dot{J}(t - t') dt', \quad (\text{A5})$$

with $\dot{J}(t) = dJ(t)/dt$.

The response of a lymphocyte to anisotonic conditions is isotropic, therefore it is assumed that a one-dimensional model is sufficient to describe the deformation (i.e., the volume changes). In analogy with Fig. A2 and Eqs. A2–A5, the nuclear volume response is described

with one retardation time and it is assumed that $K = 1$:

$$\left[\frac{V(t)}{V(0)} \right]_N - 1 = \int_0^t \left[\frac{V(t')}{V(0)} \right]_{\text{cell}} - 1 \dot{J}_N(t - t') dt' \quad (\text{A6})$$

and

$$J_N(t) = (1 - e^{-t/\tau}). \quad (\text{A7})$$

Since $K = 1$, V_N/V_{cell} is constant for $t \rightarrow \infty$, independent of the osmolarity of the solution, in agreement with Sloot et al. (Sloot et al., 1988). This volume ratio is ~ 0.5 (Sloot and Figdor, 1986; Elson, 1988; Schmid-Schönbein et al., 1980).

If $[V(t)/V(0)]_{\text{cell}}$ is accurately known, $[V(t)/V(0)]_N$ can be calculated from Eq. A6 and fitted to the measured data. However, from Fig. 3 it is obvious that the time step between two subsequent measurements of $[V(t)/V(0)]_{\text{cell}}$ is too large to allow for accurate numeric evaluation of Eq. A6. Therefore, the total cell volume response is approximated by an analytical expression and the integral A6 can then be evaluated. Only the response in hypoosmotic Na^+ medium is further analyzed.

Dividing the total cell volume response in two phases we obtain (see Fig. A3): Phase I: the fast initial response is approximated by $(\Pi_0/\Pi - 1)H(t)$, where it is assumed that the fast increase in volume is described by the Boyle van't Hoff relation, with the volume of the "dry mass" (the b value) set to zero (Sloot et al., 1988). Phase II: the volume regulatory phase is approximated by an exponential decay:

$$\left(\frac{\Pi_0}{\Pi} - 1 \right) e^{-(t-t_1)/\tau_c} \cdot H(t - t_1),$$

with $t_1 = 1.8$ min and $\tau_c = 7.1$ min.

Substituting this approximation of $[V(t)/V(0)]_{\text{cell}}$ in Eq. A6 gives:

$$\left[\frac{V(t)}{V(0)} \right]_N - 1 = \left(\frac{\Pi_0}{\Pi} - 1 \right) (1 - e^{-t/\tau}) \text{ for } 0 < t < t_1, \text{ and } \quad (\text{A8.1})$$

$$\left[\frac{V(t)}{V(0)} \right]_N - 1 = \left(\frac{\Pi_0}{\Pi} - 1 \right) \left[e^{-(t-t_1)/\tau} - e^{-t/\tau} + \frac{\tau_c}{\tau - \tau_c} (e^{-(t-t_1)/\tau_c} - e^{-(t-t_1)/\tau}) \right], \text{ for } t > t_1. \quad (\text{A8.2})$$

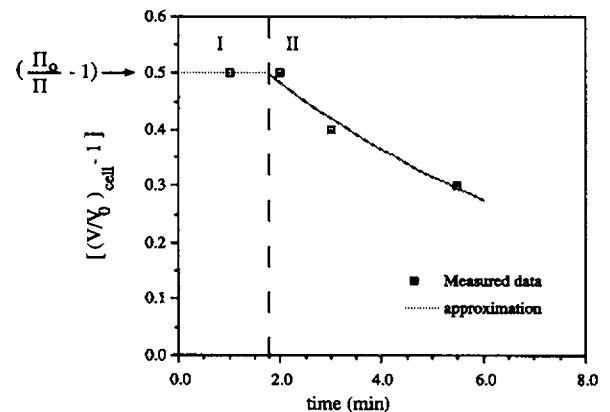


FIGURE A3 The total cell volume response for the hypoosmotic Na^+ medium and the approximation of this response. Phase I is a Heaviside step function; phase II is an exponential decay.

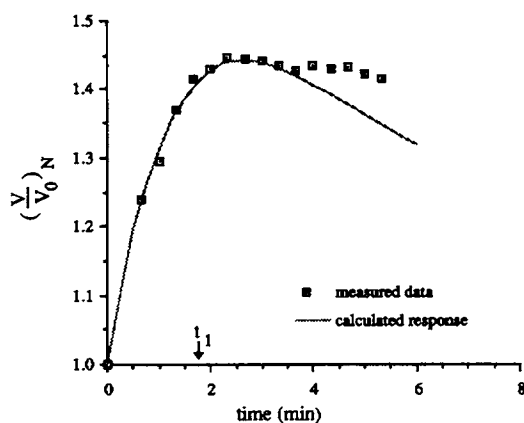


FIGURE A4 The measured nuclear volume response in hypoosmotic Na^+ medium and the fitted response; $t_1 = 1.75$ min, $\tau_c = 7.1$ min, and $\tau = 1.0$ min.

The measured $[(V(t)/V(0))_N - 1]$ data for $0 < t < t_1$ (see Fig. 3 c) are fitted with a least squares method to Eq. A8.1, yielding $\tau = 1.0$ min. With known values for τ , τ_c , and t_1 , the response for $t > t_1$ can be calculated from Eq. A8.2. The result of the fit for $t < t_1$ and the calculations for $t > t_1$ are depicted in Fig. A4.

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