Protein Kinase Cy (PKCy): Function of Neuron Specific Isotype

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The gamma isotype of protein kinase C (PKC_γ) is a member of the classical PKC (cPKC) subfamily which is activated by Ca²⁺ and diacylglycerol in the presence of phosphatidylserine. Physiologically, PKCy is activated by a mechanism coupled with receptormediated breakdown of inositol phospholipid as other cPKC isotypes such as PKCα and PKCB. PKCy is expressed solely in the brain and spinal cord and its localization is restricted to neurons, while PKCa and PKCB are expressed in many tissues in addition to the brain. Within the brain, PKCy is the most abundant in the cerebellum, hippocampus and cerebral cortex, where the existence of neuronal plasticity has been demonstrated. Pharmacological and electrophysiological studies have shown that several neuronal functions, including long term potentiation (LTP) and long term depression (LTD), specifically require PKCy. Generation of mice deficient in PKCy provided more information regarding the physiological functions of this isotype. PKCy deficient mice (i) have modified long term potentiation (LTP) in hippocampus, (ii) exhibit mild deficits in spatial and contextual learning (iii) exhibit impaired motor coordination due to persistent multiple innervations of climbing fibers on Purkinje cells, (iv) show attenuation of opioid receptor activation, and (v) show decreased effects of ethanol on type A of γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor. Furthermore, a point mutation in the PKCy gene may contribute to retinitis pigmentosa and Parkinsonian syndrome. This article reviews the specific functions of this neuron-specific isotype of PKC in neuronal signal transduction.

Key words: GABA receptor, knockout mice, long term depression, long term potentiation, Parkinson disease.

Overview

PKCy is a member of the classical PKCs (cPKC) which was first isolated as one of more than 10 PKC cDNAs from a brain cDNA library (1). The cPKCs, PKCα, PKCβ, and PKCy, are activated by diacylglycerol (DAG) and Ca²⁺ in the presence of phosphatydylserine (2, 3). PKCy was separated from PKCα and PKCβ biochemically using hydroxyapatite column chromatography, and the enzymological properties of the three isotypes were compared (4). Enzymological properties of this neuron specific isozyme are similar to those of PKCα and PKCβ which are described elsewhere in this series of reviews. The elucidation of PKCy-specific function was first approached by determining the localization of PKCy within the central nervous system. PKCy shows a unique neuronal distribution and intracellular localization in the brain (5-7) but the involvement of this PKC isotype in the specific neuronal function is still unclear. The generation of mice deficient in PKCy in 1993 (8, 9) provided an invaluable tool for the detailed analysis of PKCy-specific function. Although the appearance and behavior of the PKCy-knockout mice are not obviously abnormal, the experiments testing fine physiological

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: +81-78-803-5961, Fax: +81-78-803-5961, E-mail: naosaito@kobe-u.ac.jp Abbreviations¹ PKC, protein kinase C; LTP, long term potentiation; LTD, long term depression; DAG, diacylglycerol; GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid; RP, retinitis pigmentosa; mGluR1, metabotropic receptor 1; PLCβ4, phospholipase Cβ4.

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and behavioral responses revealed significant effects of deletion of this enzyme. In this review, we focus on the physiological functions of this isozyme and its involvement in etiology of diseases.

1. Genomic and protein structure

The cDNA for PKCy was sequenced in 1986 with those of PKC α and PKC β (10, 11), then the genomic structure of PKCy and its chromosomal mapping were analysed. The human and mouse PKCy genes are localized on chromosomes 17q13.4 and 7, respectively. The human PKCy gene is found on the most distal part of the chromosome, suggesting that there might be a telomeric position effect modifying the gene's expression throughout the replicative lifespan of human cells. The PKCy gene is approximately 24.4 kb long and composed of small 18 exons varing between 32 and 406 bp in size (12). The AUG translation initiation site for open reading flames of PKCy is localized in exon 1 as other cPKCs. Deletions or translocations involving the chromosomal region of PKCy are frequently associated with malignant diseases such as leukemia [The Cancer Genome anatomy Project: recurrent chromosome aberrations in cancer (http://cgap.nci.nih.gov/Chromosomes/ RecurrentAberrations)], although the functional role of this neuron specific PKC isotype in cancer is unclear. The 5'flanking region of mouse PKCy gene lacks TATA and CAAT boxes but contains the binding sites of transcription factors, including AP2 and SP1 (13). The region responsible for neuron-specific expression of PKCy remains to be clarified.

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PKC γ has C1 and C2 domains which bind DAG and Ca²⁺, respectively (14, 15). Both second messengers are necessary for the activation of cPKCs and fatty acids or lysoPC further enhances the activity of cPKCs (16, 17). The C1 domain of PKC γ consists of two cystein-rich repeats (C1A and C1B), both of which bind DAG with high affinity (18, 19); all nPKC family members have a single high affinity DAG binding site in C1B region. The structure of the PKC α . PKC β . and PKC γ C1 domains are similar, while the amino acid sequences of their C2 domains show quite low homology. The functional differences resulting from this low homology are not known, but PKC γ appears to have higher affinity to Ca²⁺ than the others in the presense of phosphatydylserine (20).

2. Localization

The neuron specific distribution of PKC γ is the most unique characteristics of this isotype. PKC γ mRNA is solely found in the brain and spinal cord; it has not been found in any other tissues (1). Immunocytochemistry using isotype-specific antibodies showed that all members of cPKC are enriched in the brain but their distributions are distinctly different (7). Abundant expression of PKC γ in the hippocampal pyramidal cells and cerebellar Purkinje cells (5) has implicated it in the modulation of synaptic plasticity, including long term potentiation (LTP) (21) and long term depression (LTD) (22).

Developmentally, the expression of PKC γ is low at birth and increases progressively up to 2–3 weeks (23, 24). In contrast, a considerable amount of PKC α and PKC β are expressed before birth in brain, suggesting that PKC γ is important for synaptic formation rather than for early neuronal development and that the deletion of PKC γ is unlikely to alter early development.

Under electron microscopy, PKCy is localized in the cytoplasm of the soma including nucleus and dendrites including dendritic spines, axon and synaptic terminals (25, 26). This intracellular localization also differs from those of other cPKCs (7), suggesting that the association of PKC isotypes with their specific substrates in different intracellular compartment results in isotype specific function. However, live imaging studies using GFP (green fluorescent protein)-tagged PKCy revealed a rapid cycling of this isozyme between the cytoplasm and plasma membrane in cells upon stimulation of G-protein coupled receptors or Ca+-ionophore (27, 28). The dynamic movement of PKCy in response to various stimuli indicates that PKCy does not always exist in the cytoplasm but interacts with specific substrates in other subcellular compartments when activated. Furthermore, as PKC isotypes show isotype-specific translocation and distinct translocation depending on stimulus (29, 30), the various PKC translocation, in addition to the existence of multiple isotypes, is a basic molecular mechanism of multiple function of this enzyme.

3. PKCy specific functions in nervous system

3-1. LTP. Among various neuronal functions which involve PKC activation, modulation of synaptic plasticity by PKC has attracted the attention of biochemists and neuroscientists alike. Many papers have implicated the involvement of PKC in LTP, a synaptic model of memory. Activation of PKC by phorbol esters potentiates a synaptic transmission which resembles LTP in hippocampal slices (*31*–

33). Additionally, direct injection of PKC into the postsynaptic hippocampal pyramidal cells mimics LTP (34). Finally, PKC inhibitors prevents the induction of LTP (35). Thus, the activation of postsynaptic PKC appears to be necessary for the induction of LTP. As PKC γ is predominantly localized in the postsynaptic dendrites in the hippocampal pyramidal cells, the data are consistent with involvement of PKC γ in LTP.

The generation of PKCy knockout mice was reported in 1993 by Abeliovich et al. (8). The PKCy deficient mice are viable and their brain anatomy is normal when examined by light microscopy. Behaviors such as grooming, feeding and mating are also unimpaired, although the mutant mice moved with a mild ataxic gait. The authors first examined the effect of deletion of PKCy on the expression of LTP in the CA1 region of the hippocampus (8). Although synaptic transmission evoked by stimulating hippocampal axons in PKCy deficient mice are indistinguishable from the wildtype mice, in PKCy deficient mice, LTP is rarely induced by the commonly used high frequency stimulation. However, after a low frequency stimulation is used to produce LTD, LTP can be elicited in the knockout mice, suggesting that PKCy regulates LTP but is not necessary for the actual process of synaptic plasticity. In fact, the knockout mice can learn to carry out hippocampus-dependent tasks, although they exhibit mild deficits in spatial and contextual learning

3-2. LTD. LTD, the use-dependent decrease in synaptic strength, is the opposite phenomenon of LTP (22, 36). The involvement of PKCy in LTD induction is strongly suggested by reports which show that (i) LTD is blocked by PKC inhibitors (37), (ii) PKC activators such as phorbol ester induced depression of synaptic transmission (37), and (iii) PKCy is the major PKC isotype in Purkinje cells (5). Thus, the deletion of PKCy would be predicted to abolish LTD. However, LTD is fully inducible in the cerebellar slices of the mutant mice (38). It is noteworthy that a PKC inhibitor peptide (PKC19-36) completely blocks LTD in wild-type mice but does not abolish LTD in mutant mice (37, 39). This suggests that PKCy plays a pivotal role in LTD in wild-type mice and that unknown kinases compensate for the PKCy deficiency in the mutant mice. This compensation for the lack in PKCy by other kinase(s) makes it difficult to elucidate the specific function of PKCy in the mutant mice.

PKCy deficient mice exhibit impaired motor coordination but are fully capable of discrete motor learning (40). In mature mutant mice, 40% of Purkinje cells are innervated by multiple climbing fibers. In wild-type mice, these multiple innervations are eliminated during the 3rd week after birth, resulting in one-to-one innervation between the Purkinje cells and climbing fibers. There are several reports of other knockout mice which exhibit this persistent multiple innervation of Purkinje cells by climbing fibers. Mice deficient in metabotropic receptor 1 (mGluR1) (41) or phospholipase Cβ4 (PLCβ4) (42) show a similar phenotype of multiple innervation and motor discoordination. Taken together, the results from these mutant mice suggest that an mGluR1-PLCβ-PKCγ signaling pathway in cerebellar Purkinje cells is involved in the elimination of climbing fibers and the observed motor discoordination is due to the persistent multiple innervation of Purkinje cells by climbing fibers.

3-3. Modulation of receptor function. PKC γ is also abundant in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord and has been suggested to be important in sensory signal processing including pain. Several studies have shown that activation of μ -opioid receptors in the spinal cord induce prolonged PKC translocation (43) and that inhibition of PKC prevents the development of antinociceptive tolerance to μ -opioid agonists (44). Of the 10 PKC isotypes, the following evidence for the involvement of PKC γ in signaling for pain has been reported: selective μ -opioid receptor agonists (i) increase the amount of membrane-associated PKC γ but not other PKC isotypes and (ii) desensitize μ -opioid receptor-mediated G-protein activation (45, 46).

PKCy deficient mice have been used to demonstrate that activation of PKCy is critical for the development of morphine induced reinforcing (46) and enhancement of nociceptive responses (47). In PKCγ deficient mice, μ-opioid receptor-mediated analgesia/antinociception is enhanced and functional µ-opioid receptors are protected from degradation by phosphorylation (48). Furthermore, PKCy deficient mice failed to develop a neuropathic pain syndrome after partial nerve section (49). These findings suggest that PKCy may contribute to the induction of the psychological dependence on morphine and the development of PKCy specific inhibitor may enable us to alleviate pain by protecting the tolerance. It is also interesting that epinephrineinduced hyperalgesia is also attenuated in mice lacking PKCE, a presynaptic localized isotype of nPKC (50). Although both PKCy and PKCe act at different levels of the neuraxis, both isotypes play a role in pain responses.

The modulation of GABA_A receptors by PKC was also reported but the role of PKC in their function is controversial. The response of GABA_A receptors expressed in Xenopus oocytes is inhibited by phorbol esters (51) and the mutation of a possible PKC phosphorylation site, Ser343, in the γ 2L subunit of GABA_A receptor reduced the effect of PKC activation (52). In contrast, the activity of GABA_A receptors expressed in fibroblasts are enhanced by active PKC (53).

Ethanol and benzodiazepines are known to enhance the function of GABA, receptor. The mutation of Ser343 in the y2L subunit prevented ethanol potentiation but not benzodiazepine potentiation (54). GABA, receptors isolated from brain membranes of PKCy deficient mice, do not respond to ethanol, although the deletion of the PKCy gene does not alter their response to muscimol, fluinitrazepam or pentobarbital (55). Behaviorally, the mutant mice also display reduced sensitivity to the acute effects of ethanol on righting reflex and body temperature, but show normal responses to flunitrazepam or pentobarbital. Mutant mice consume more ethanol and display decreased tolerance development to the sedative hyptonic and hypothermic effects of ethanol (56, 57), suggesting that these PKCy null mice may be a suitable model for the study of alcoholism. Interestingly, PKC also regulates the sensitivity of GABA receptor to ethanol. In contrast to PKCy mutant mice, PKCE deficient mice show supersentivity to allosteric activation by ethanol and fluinitrazepam and exhibit reduced ethanol self-administration (58). These findings suggest that two PKC isotypes, PKCy and PKCE, modulate the sensitivity of GABA, receptors to ethanol but have opposite actions on GABA, receptor activity.

4. Mutation of PKCy gene related to disease

The genomic mapping in patients was performed to search for functional PKC polymorphisms or mutations associated with familial genetic abnormalities. Linkage analysis revealed that a major locus of retinitis pigmentosa (RP) exists at chromosome position 19q, which includes the PKCy gene. Additionally, a point mutation in PKCy that segregates with RP was found in two RP families (59). The mutation is a C-A transversion, which substitutes a serine for an arginine residue at codon 659 in the catalytic domain of PKCy. Although the physiological function of this isotype in retina is unknown, some immunocytochemical studies demonstrate the expression of PKCy in the amacrine and ganglion cells but not in photoreceptor cells (60). The effect of Arg659 mutation on the kinase activity of PKCy is unclear, but it is possible that this mutation affects PKCy maturation, as Arg659 is present between two important residues for maturation, turn motif (Thr655) and hydrophobic motif (Thr674) (61, 62).

Another report suggests that PKCy is a candidate gene for Parkinsonian syndrome. The AS/AGU rat is a spontaneously occurring mutation which exhibits altered behavior and and brain pathology resembling Parkinsonian syndrome. At an early age of AS/AGU rat, the extracellular dopamine levels are markedly decreased in the AS/AGU rat. Later, loss of dopaminergic cells in the substantia nigra and dysfunction of movement are evident (63-65). Positional cloning of the agu mutation showed that this locus is tightly linked to the PKCy gene. A comparison of PKCy cDNA sequence from AS/AGU rats and that from the parental AS strain revealed that the G to T exchange at nucleotide 841 alters a GAG (281Glu) codon to an inframe TAG stop codon (66). This new stop codon would truncate the PKCy at 280 amino acids, resulting in expression of most of regulatory domain of PKCy. The generation of knock-in mice expressing this truncated PKCy instead of full length PKCy would help the elucidation of the etiology of neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinsonian syndrome. It is also noteworthy that LTP in the CA1 region of the hippocampus from AS/AGU rats is not altered (67), while LTP in PKCy deficient mice is impaired under the conventional condition described above. Thus, it is possible that the regulatory domain of PKCy in AS/AGU rats plays a role in LTP.

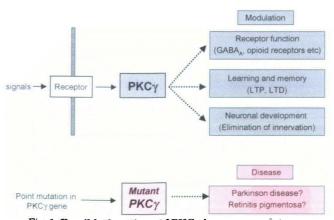


Fig. 1. Possible functions of PKCy in nervous system.

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Conclusion

Recent studies using PKC γ mutant mice have accumulated evidences for PKC γ specific functions in the nervous system (Fig. 1). However, as described above, PKC γ function could be compensated by other kinases, and neuronal network is subtly abnormal in the mutant mice. Further studies utilizing inducible knockouts of PKC γ are necessary to fully elucidate the neuronal functions of PKC γ .

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