PKA regulation of neuronal function requires the dissociation of

catalytic subunits from regulatory subunits

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Abstract

Protein kinase A (PKA) plays essential roles in diverse cellular functions. However, the spatiotemporal dynamics of endogenous PKA upon activation remain debated. The classical model predicts that PKA catalytic subunits dissociate from regulatory subunits in the presence of cAMP, whereas a second model proposes that catalytic subunits remain associated with regulatory subunits following physiological activation. Here we report that different PKA subtypes, as defined by the regulatory subunit, exhibit distinct subcellular localization at rest in CA1 neurons of cultured hippocampal slices. Nevertheless, when all tested PKA subtypes are activated by norepinephrine, presumably via the β-adrenergic receptor, catalytic subunits translocate to dendritic spines but regulatory subunits remain unmoved. These differential spatial dynamics between the subunits indicate that at least a significant fraction of PKA dissociates. Furthermore, PKA-dependent regulation of synaptic plasticity and transmission can be supported only by wildtype, dissociable PKA, but not by inseparable PKA. These results indicate that endogenous PKA regulatory and catalytic subunits dissociate to achieve PKA function in neurons.

Introduction

Cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP)-dependent kinase, or protein kinase A (PKA),

regulates diverse critical functions in nearly all mammalian cells, including neurons. PKA is

a tetrameric protein consisting of two regulatory subunits (PKA-Rs) and two catalytic

subunits (PKA-Cs) (Francis and Corbin, 1994; Johnson et al., 2001). In the inactive state,

each PKA-R binds to and inhibits a PKA-C. Binding of cAMP to PKA-R activates PKA-C.

However, there are different proposals on the molecular events that follow activation.

For decades, PKA-C is thought to dissociate from PKA-R upon cAMP binding (Beavo

et al., 1974; Francis and Corbin, 1994; Gold, 2019; Johnson et al., 2001; Reimann et al.,

1971). Freed PKA-C molecules then move to phosphorylate their substrates. However, a

small number of studies (reviewed in Gold, 2019), including two notable recent

publications (Smith et al., 2017, 2013), propose an alternative model, in which

physiological concentrations of cAMP can activate PKA-C but do not result in its

dissociation from PKA-R. Testing these two models will not only elucidate the biophysical

mechanism of PKA activation, but also have distinct implications in how PKA may achieve

its specificity, which is thought to rely on spatial compartmentalization (Wong and Scott,

2004).

We have previously found that the majority of type IIβ PKA, as defined by PKA-R, is

anchored to microtubules in the dendritic shaft of hippocampal CA1 pyramidal neurons

where PKA-RIIβ is bound to the abundant microtubule associated protein MAP-2 (Zhong et

al., 2009). Upon activation of the β-adrenergic receptor with norepinephrine, a fraction of

PKA-C dissociated from PKA-RIIβ (Tillo et al., 2017). The freed PKA-C redistributed into

dendritic spines, whereas PKA-RIIβ remained anchored at the dendritic shaft (Tillo et al.,

2017; Xiong et al., 2021). These results are consistent with the classical PKA activation

model. However, recent studies suggest that PKA-Rs other than PKA-RIIβ may be the more

abundant isoforms in CA1 neurons (Church et al., 2021; Ilouz et al., 2017; Weisenhaus et al.,

2010). It remains untested whether these PKA isoforms dissociate upon physiologically

relevant stimulations in neurons.

Here, we examined whether PKA-C dissociates from the major PKA-R isoforms,

PKA-RIβ and PKA-RIIα, in CA1 neurons. The rescue of function following knockdown of

PKA-C was compared between wildtype dissociable PKA and an inseparable PKA variant in

which PKA-C is covalently linked to PKA-R. The result supports the classical model of PKA

activation via dissociation.

Results

Recent studies have suggested that PKA-RIIα and PKA-RIβ may be the prevalent

isoforms in hippocampal CA1 neurons. Therefore, we co-expressed C-terminally EGFP

tagged PKA-C (PKA-C-EGFP) (Tillo et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2009) and a cytosolic marker

(mCherry) with either PKA-RIIα or PKA-RIβ in CA1 neurons of organotypic hippocampal

slice cultures (Figs. 1A and 1B, upper left panels). At rest, PKA-C-EGFP exhibited a

distribution that was dependent on the co-expressed PKA-R: when co-expressed with PKA-

RIIα, PKA-C was enriched in dendritic shafts; when co-expressed with PKA-RIβ, PKA-C was

more evenly distributed (quantified using the spine enrichment indexes, or SEI, see

Methods) (Fig. 1C). This distribution was independent of the expression level (rest

conditions in Figure S1) and largely resembled that of the corresponding PKA-R (Figs. 1A-

1C).

Notably, upon application of norepinephrine (10 µM), PKA-C of both subtypes

translocated to dendritic spines, but the subcellular localization of PKA-Rs remained

unchanged (Figs. 1D & 1E). This differential re-distribution between PKA-C and PKA-R was

more prominent following activation with forskolin (25 µM) and IBMX (50 µM). The

translocation of PKA-C was independent of the expression level and the effect remained

when extrapolating to the zero-overexpression level using a linear fit (Figure S1). These

results can only be explained if at least a fraction of PKA-C dissociated from both PKA-RIIα

and PKA-RIβ when a physiological stimulant was used. Together with our earlier results

regarding PKA-C/PKA-RIIβ, we conclude that PKA-C dissociates from PKA-R with

physiologically relevant stimuli.

Next, we asked whether PKA regulation of neuronal function is dependent on the

dissociation of PKA-C from PKA-R. A key experiment supporting the non-dissociating PKA

activation model was that PKA regulation of cell growth could be sustained by a construct

in which PKA-C was fused to PKA-RIIα in one polypeptide chain via a flexible linker (named

R-C; Fig. 2A) (Smith et al., 2017). We therefore asked whether this R-C construct could

support PKA regulation of neuronal function. When R-C-EGFP was expressed in CA1

neurons, this construct exhibited a distribution highly similar to that of RIIα (Figs. 2B and

2C). The tendency of this construct to translocate to the spine was largely diminished

compared to PKA-C-EGFP co-expressed with wildtype, unlinked PKA-RIIα (Fig. 2D),

indicating that the catalytic subunit in R-C was indeed inseparable from the regulatory

subunit.

To evaluate the function of R-C, a previously established shRNA construct was used

to selectively knock down PKA-Cα in CA1 neurons in cultured hippocampal slices (Tillo et

al., 2017). Given that PKA activation is required for the late phase of long-term potentiation

(L-LTP) (Abel et al., 1997), we examined the structural LTP of individual dendritic spines of

CA1 neurons elicited by focal two-photon glutamate uncaging (Fig. 3) (Matsuzaki et al.,

2004). The shRNA knockdown of PKA-C resulted in attenuated LTP at 90 min after

induction (Figs. 3A–3C). This attenuation was not observed when a control shRNA against

LacZ was expressed (Fig. 3C). The attenuated structural LTP was rescued by co-expression

of shRNA-resistant wild-type PKA-C-EGFP together with PKA-RIIα (Figs. 3A–3C). However,

the R-C construct in which PKA-C was also resistant to shRNA knockdown but could not

leave PKA-RIIα failed to rescue the phenotype.

PKA activity has also been shown to regulate synaptic transmission. We therefore

examined evoked AMPA and NMDA receptor (AMPAR and NMDAR, respectively) currents

in paired, transfected and adjacent untransfected CA1 neurons in cultured hippocampal

slices. As shown previously (Tillo et al., 2017; Xiong et al., 2021), neurons expressing the

shRNA construct against PKA-C exhibited significantly lower AMPAR currents (Fig. 4A), but

not NMDAR currents (Fig. 4B). As a result, the AMPAR/NMDAR current ratio was also

reduced (Fig. 4C). The deficits were rescued by co-expression of shRNA-resistant, wild-type

dissociable PKA-C-EGFP and PKA-RIIα (Fig. 4). However, the inseparable R-C construct

failed to rescue the phenotype. Taken together, the R-C construct did not support normal

PKA-dependent synaptic function.

Discussion

Our results indicate that at least a fraction of PKA-C molecules dissociate from all

tested PKA-R isoforms, including Iβ, IIα and previously tested IIβ, when activated by

physiological stimuli. Given that PKA activity increases by two orders of magnitude when

dissociated from PKA-R (Miyamoto et al., 1969), even a small fraction of PKA-C dissociation

will result in a marked increase of PKA kinase activity. These results corroborate the

observations in intact non-neuronal cells that used FRET imaging and biochemical

measurements, respectively (Walker-Gray et al., 2017; Zaccolo et al., 2000). Furthermore,

PKA-C that is covalently linked to PKA-RIIα cannot functionally replace wildtype PKA for

normal neuronal transmission or plasticity. Although this R-C construct has been shown to

functionally replace endogenous PKA in terms of supporting the growth of a heterologous

cell line (Smith et al., 2017), it cannot support all necessary PKA functions. Overall, we

conclude that PKA-C dissociation from PKA-R is essential for PKA regulation of neuronal

function. Additionally, PKA specificity is mediated by spatial compartmentalization (Wong

and Scott, 2004). This is likely mediated by mechanism downstream of PKA dissociation,

such as membrane tethering of freed PKA-C or its buffering by extra PKA-Rs (Gaffarogullari

et al., 2011; Tillo et al., 2017; Walker-Gray et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015).

In addition, this study shows that PKA distribution in neuronal dendrites at the

resting state is subtype dependent. PKA-RIIα is enriched in dendritic shaft in a way similar

to PKA-RIIβ, likely via its interaction with the abundant microtubule binding protein MAP2

(Tillo et al., 2017; Vallee et al., 1981). Note that this observation does not exclude the

importance a small fraction of PKA being anchored to synaptic sites via other PKA binding

proteins. In contrast, PKA-RIβ is more evenly distributed between spine and dendrites.

These observations establish a spatial organizational base for understanding subtype-

specific PKA function in neurons.

This study also demonstrates that PKA is essential for long-term structural LTP of

individual spines. PKA has been shown to facilitate the induction of LTP (i.e.,

metaplasticity) (Thomas et al., 1996; Zhong et al., 2009), and is required for the

maintenance of L-LTP (Abel et al., 1997), as assayed using electrophysiological recording of

postsynaptic currents. However, it has been suggested that the structural and synaptic

current changes may not be causally linked (Kopec et al., 2006). Our results fill the gap to

show that PKA is also required for maintaining the late phase of structural LTP.

Materials and Methods

Plasmid constructs

Constructs were made using standard mutagenesis and subcloning methods. All previously

unpublished constructs and their sequences will be submitted to Addgene. In the R-C

construct, mouse PKA-RIIα and PKA-Cα were fused via a linker with residues

WDPGSGSLEAGCKNFFPRSFTSCGSLEGGSAAA that were previously used (Smith et al.,

2017).

Organotypic hippocampal slice cultures and transfections

Cultured rat hippocampal slices were prepared from P6 – P8 (typically P7) pups, as

described previously (Stoppini et al., 1991; Zhong et al., 2009). Animal experiments were

performed in accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the

National Institutes of Health, and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee (IACUC) of the Oregon Health & Science University (#IP00002274). cDNA

constructs were transfected after 1.5–3 weeks *in vitro* via the biolistic gene transfer

method using the Helios gene gun and 1.6 μm gold beads (Fig. 1) or, where long-term

expression (∼ 1 week) was required, with single-cell electroporation (Fig. 2) (Otmakhov

and Lisman, 2012).

Two-photon imaging and two-photon glutamate uncaging

A custom built two-photon microscope based on an Olympus BW51WI microscope body

was used. Laser beams from two different Ti:Sapphire lasers (Maitai, Newport) were

aligned to allow for simultaneous two-photon excitation and photoactivation. Laser

intensities were controlled by Pockels cells (Conoptics). Imaging and photoactivation were

controlled by ScanImage (Vidrio Tech) (Pologruto et al., 2003). Slices were perfused during

imaging in gassed artificial cerebral spinal fluid (ACSF) containing (mM) 127 NaCl, 25

NaHCO$_3$, 25 D-glucose, 2.5 KCl, 4 MgCl$_2$, 4 CaCl$_2$, and 1.25 NaH$_2$PO$_4$ with 0.5 μM

tetrodotoxin (TTX). mEGFP fluorescence (green) was unmixed from that of the cytosolic

marker (mCherry or DsRed Express) using a dichroic (Chroma 565DCXR) and band-pass

filters (Chroma HQ510/70 for green and Semrock FF01-630/92 for red).

For single-spine structural LTP experiments, 2.25 mM MNI-caged-L-glutamate

(Tocris) was added to ACSF containing 4 mM calcium, 0.05 mM magnesium, 1 μM TTX and

4 μM 2-chloroadenosine, as previously described (Harvey et al., 2008a). To trigger

structural plasticity, 30 pulses of 4-ms 16-mW (at back focal plane) 720-nm laser light

were delivered to the spine head at 0.5 Hz.

Image analysis was performed using custom software written in MATLAB called

SI_View (https://github.com/HZhongLab/SI_View) (Ma et al., 2022). Using the software,

regions of interest (ROIs) were manually drawn to isolate spines or their immediately

adjacent dendritic shaft. Only the spines well isolated from the dendrite laterally

throughout the entire experiments were included. Spine enrichment index was calculated

as:

$$SEI = \log_2[(F_{green}/F_{red})_{spine}/(F_{green}/F_{red})_{shaft}]$$

in which F is the average fluorescence intensity in an ROI.

The expression level was estimated by the maximal intensity from thick apical

dendrite near the soma (typically 50-100 μm) similar to previously described (Harvey et

al., 2008b; Tillo et al., 2017). To minimize the influence of noise, a line of 9 pixels (pixel size

~0.04 µm) thick was manually drawn transecting the dendrite through the visually

identified, brightest region. The line profile was further smoothened by 5 pixels along the

line and baseline subtracted before determining the maximal value. To combine

measurements from different hardware configuration (e.g., different microscopes), the data

from each configuration and experiment were internally corrected for laser stimulation

intensity and then normalized to the average of all data under the same condition.

Electrophysiology

Whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings were performed using a MultiClamp 700B amplifier

(Molecular Devices). Electrophysiological signals were filtered at 2 kHz and digitized and

acquired at 20 kHz using custom software written in MATLAB. Slices were perfused with

artificial cerebrospinal fluid containing 4 mM Ca and 4 mM Mg. The internal solution

contained (in mM) 132 Cs-gluconate, 10 HEPES, 10 Na-phosphocreatine, 4 MgCl2, 4 Na2-

ATP, 0.4 Na-GTP, 3 Na-ascorbate, 3 QX314, and 0.2 EGTA with an osmolarity of 295

mOsmol/kg. The junction potential was calculated to be -17 mV using a built-in function in

the Clampfit software (Molecular Devices). Several less abundant anions (phosphocreatine,

ATP, GTP and ascorbate) were omitted in the calculation due to lack of data in the program.

The Cl reversal potential was -75 mV.

To reduce recurrent activities, cultured hippocampal slices were cut on both sides of

CA1 and 4 µM 2-chloroadenosine (Sigma) was present in all recording experiments. 10 µM

GABAzine (SR 95531, Tocris) was also included to suppress GABA currents. For electrical

stimulation, a bipolar, θ-glass stimulating electrode (Warner Instruments) was positioned

in the stratum radiatum 100–150 µm lateral to the recorded neuron. For all recordings, a

transfected neuron and an untransfected neuron located within 50 µm of each other were

sequentially recorded without repositioning the stimulation electrode. Measurements were

carried out on averaged traces from approximately 20 trials under each condition. For

AMPAR currents, the cells were held at -60 mV (before correcting for the junction

potential) and the current was measured as the baseline-subtracted peak current within a

window of 2–50 ms after electric stimulation. For NMDAR currents, the average currents at

140 to 160 ms after stimulation were used when the cells were held at +55 mV (before

correcting for the junction potential)

Data analysis, presentation, and statistics

Quantification and statistical tests were performed using custom software written in

MATLAB. Averaged data are presented as mean ± s.e.m., unless noted otherwise. p values

were obtained from one-way ANOVA tests, unless noted otherwise. In all figures, *: $p \leq 0.05$

and is considered statistically significant after Bonferroni correction for multiple tests, **: p

≤ 0.01, and ***: $p \leq 0.001$.

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Author contributions

H.Z. conceived the project. W.X. and H.Z. designed the experiments. W.X. and H.Z. performed the experiments and data analyses. M.Q. produced critical reagents used in the experiments. H.Z. wrote the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figures and figure legends

Figure 1. PKA-C but not PKA-R redistributes to spines upon activation. (A, B)

Representative two-photon images of PKA-C-EGFP co-expressed with PKA-RIIα or PKA-RIβ

at rest, or in the presence of norepinephrine (NE) or forskolin and IBMX (F + I). mCherry

(magenta) was co-expressed to reveal the neuronal morphology. (C–E) Quantification and

comparison of the spine enrichment index at the resting state (C) and upon activation (D &

E). As in panel C from left to right, n (spines/neurons) = 53/11, 34/7, 33/6, and 36/7.

Figure 2. Characterization of the inseparable R-C. (A) Schematic of wildtype PKA versus R-

C. In both cases PKA-C was C-terminally tagged by mEGFP. (B–C) Representative images

(B), quantifications of resting distribution (C), and the distribution change upon

stimulation by forskolin and IBMX (D) of R-C compared to PKA-RIIα-EGFP and co-

expressed PKA-C-EGFP/PKA-RIIα. RIIα and RIIα+C data are from Fig. 1C. n

(spines/neurons) = 48/10.

Figure 3. PKA regulation of synaptic plasticity cannot be sustained by an inseparable PKA

variant. (A–C) Representative image (A), time course (B), and the degree of potentiation (C)

at the indicated timepoints in panel B of single-spine LTP experiments as triggered by focal

glutamate uncaging at the marked spines (gray dot). In panel B, both stimulated spines

(solid circles) and non-stimulated control spines (open circles) are shown. As in panel C

from left to right, n (spines, each from a different neuron) = 8, 7, 17, 11, 9.

Figure 4. AMPA receptor-mediated synaptic transmission requires wildtype dissociable PKA. (A–C) Representative traces (red) normalized to the paired control (blue) (insets) and scatter plots of paired AMPA (A) and NMDA (B) receptor currents and AMPA/NMDA receptor current ratios (C) from neighboring untransfected CA1 neurons and those transfected with shRNA against PKA-C and the indicated shRNA-resistant rescue constructs. Statistical p values were obtained using a sign test (MATLAB). From left to right, n (neuron pairs) = 13, 11, 11, and 15.

Figure S1. Spine enrichment indexes and the movement of PKA-C into spines upon

activation are not dependent on the protein expression level. (A–B) Averaged spine

enrichment indexes within individual neurons of PKA-C co-expressed with RIIα (A) and RIβ

(B), and their linear fit at rest or under the indicated stimulation.