

1 PDGF-induced migration of synthetic vascular smooth muscle cells through
2 c-Src-activated L-type Ca^{2+} channels with full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ C-terminus
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Abstract

In atherosclerosis, vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC) migrate from the media toward the intima of the arteries in response to cytokines, such as platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF). However, molecular mechanism underlying the PDGF-induced migration of VSMCs remains unclear. The migration of rat aorta-derived synthetic VSMCs, A7r5, in response to PDGF was potently inhibited by a $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel inhibitor, nifedipine, and a Src family tyrosine kinase (SFK)/Abl inhibitor, bosutinib, in a less-than-additive manner. PDGF significantly increased $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel currents without altering $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ proteins expression levels in A7r5 cells. This reaction was inhibited by C-terminal Src kinase, a selective inhibitor of SFKs. In contractile VSMCs, the C-terminus of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ is proteolytically cleaved into proximal and distal C-termini (PCT and DCT, respectively). Clipped DCT is noncovalently reassociated with PCT to autoinhibit the channel activity. Conversely, in synthetic A7r5 cells, full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ ($\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$) is expressed much more abundantly than truncated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$. In a heterologous expression system, c-Src activated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels composed of $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ but not truncated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ ($\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$) or $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ plus clipped DCT. Further, c-Src enhanced the coupling efficiency between the voltage-sensing domain and activation gate of $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ channels by phosphorylating Tyr1709 and Tyr1758 in PCT. Compared with $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$, c-Src could more efficiently bind to and phosphorylate $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ irrespective of the presence or absence of clipped DCT. Therefore, in atherosclerotic lesions, phenotypic switching of VSMCs may facilitate pro-migratory effects of PDGF on VSMCs by suppressing posttranslational $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ modifications.

Key Words

Vascular smooth muscle cells, Platelet-derived growth factor, $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels, c-Src

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1 **Introduction**

2
3 Despite recent improvements in life style and advances in pharmacotherapy, atherosclerosis
4 remains to be a cause of various cardiovascular diseases, such as ischemic heart diseases, which are the
5 leading cause of death in developed nations. Therefore, it is necessary to further explore the
6 pathophysiology of atherosclerosis.

7 In the presence of atherosclerotic risk factors, such as hypercholesterolemia, the initial lesions of
8 atherosclerosis are formed as “fatty streaks,” in which circulating monocytes and T lymphocytes invade the
9 sub-endothelial intimal layer of the large and medium arteries [20]. Macrophages derived from these
10 monocytes secrete various cytokines, such as platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF). These cytokines cause
11 a phenotypical switching of vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC) from “contractile” to “synthetic” types.
12 Further, PDGF potently induces the migration of synthetic VSMCs from the media into the intima of the
13 arteries [25]. Synthetic VSMCs in the intima proliferate and efficiently secrete extracellular matrix,
14 pathologically narrowing the vascular lumen, thereby leading to cardiovascular complications.

15 PDGF is a homo- or heterodimer encoded by four genes, PDGF-A, PDGF-B, PDGF-C, and
16 PDGF-D. It acts on cells by binding to homo- or heterodimers of two PDGF receptors (PDGFRs), PDGFR-
17 α and PDGFR- β [6]. Stimulated PDGFRs activate many intracellular signaling proteins, such as c-src
18 family kinases (SFK), phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase (PI3K), mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK),
19 phospholipase C- γ , Rho family GTPases (RFG), etc. Among them, SFK, PI3K, MAPK, and RFG have been
20 implicated to play a role in cell migration [11].

21 Intracellular Ca^{2+} also plays a crucial role in cell migration, [15, 31]. In migrating cells, Ca_v1
22 Ca^{2+} channels evoke Ca^{2+} sparklets at their rear end, thereby increasing the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration
23 and causing actomyosin contraction to retract their trailing tail [18]. VSMCs express L-type $\text{Ca}_v1.2$
24 channels, which play a role in migration [4] [21]. However, it is not entirely clear how an array of PDGFR-

1 derived signals orchestrates with the activity of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels during VSMC migration.

2 $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ is the main pore-forming subunit of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels, with 24 transmembrane segments
3 divided into four domains and cytoplasmic N- and C-termini [35]. Each domain contains six transmembrane
4 segments (S1-6). The pseud-heterotetrameric channel pore comprising S5-6 derived from each domain is
5 symmetrically surrounded by four voltage-sensing domains (VSDs) formed by S1-4 of each domain [3].
6 The internal part of S6 serves as an activation gate (AG) of the channel. VSDs open AG through an
7 intracellular S4-5 linker in the same domain upon membrane depolarization. A total of 10 of the 53 known
8 $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ exons undergo alternative splicing. Tang et al. have observed that the most prevalent splice variant
9 of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ in the rat aorta (designated B8) bears exons 1, 8, 21, 32, and 33 and lacks exon 9* [30]. Vascular
10 isoforms of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ form vascular $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels with ancillary subunits, such as β_2 or β_3 and $\alpha_2\delta_1$
11 subunits [29].

12 The C-terminus of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ is proteolytically cleaved into proximal and distal C-termini (PCT and
13 DCT, respectively) in muscle cells and neurons [5] [13]. These posttranslational modifications produce two
14 distinct molecular sizes (i.e., ~240 and ~210 KDa) of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ in contractile VSMCs [1, 2, 22, 23, 33].
15 Cleaved DCT is noncovalently reassociated with PCT, autoinhibiting the channel activity [2, 8, 14, 19, 32].
16 In cardiac myocytes, protein kinase A (PKA) and casein kinase (CK) 2 activate $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels by
17 inhibiting the autoinhibitory effect of the cleaved and reassociated DCTs [9] [17]. However, the functional
18 significance of posttranslational modification in terms of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel activity regulation in VSMCs
19 remains unknown.

20 In the present study, we demonstrated the PDGF-induced migration of synthetic VSMCs through
21 the activation of L-type Ca^{2+} channels with full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ C-terminus through c-Src.

Methods

Animals

All animals used in the present study received humane care in compliance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals published by the US National Institutes of Health. All experimental procedures were performed in accordance with the Guidelines for Animal Experimentation of Shinshu University and approved by the Committee for Animal Experimentation (Approval number 260017). Male Sprague–Dawley rats (200–220 g) were anesthetized with 0.3 mg/kg medetomidine (Domitor, Nippon Zenyaku Kogyo Co., Fukushima, Japan), 4.0 mg/kg midazolam (Midazolam Sandoz, Novartis, Tokyo, Japan), and 5.0 mg/kg butorphanol (Vetorphale, Meiji Seika Pharma Co., Tokyo, Japan). All animals were procured from Japan SLC Inc. (Hamamatsu, Japan).

Isolation of tissues

Rats were anesthetized and euthanized by exsanguination. The hearts were immediately excised and immersed in ice-cold modified Tyrode solution containing (mM) 136.5 NaCl (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan), 5.4 KCl (Wako), 1.8 CaCl₂ (Wako), 0.53 MgCl₂ (Wako), 5.5 HEPES (Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan), and 5.5 glucose (Wako) (pH 7.4 with NaOH). The aorta and cerebral arteries were carefully dissected from the thorax and brain, respectively, and rinsed with the modified Tyrode solution.

Cell cultures

A7r5 smooth muscle cells derived from the rat thoracic aorta (American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA, USA) and tsA201 human embryonic kidney cells (European Collection of Authenticated Cell, Salisbury, UK) were cultured in the high-glucose (4.5 g/l) and low-glucose (1 g/l) Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma-Aldrich Japan, Tokyo,

Japan), 100 units/ml penicillin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Thermo), respectively, at 37°C and 5% CO₂.

Plasmid construction

cDNA encoding a rat smooth muscle Cav1.2 (B8 clone) was kindly provided by Dr. Tuck Wah Soong (National University of Singapore, Singapore, Singapore) [30]. Cav1.2Δ1763 [Cav1.2 subunit lacking a distal C-terminus_{1764–2140} (DCT)] was generated using PCR. For the plasmid construction of HA-tagged Cav1.2 and HA-Cav1.2Δ1763, an HA-epitope was inserted into N-termini using a sense primer containing a sequence coding HA-epitope tag and *Bam*HI site. The PCR products were subcloned into a blunt-ended pBlueScript SK-vector and subcloned again into the *Bam*HI sites of Cav1.2 sequence and plasmid multi-cloning sites. To generate 3xFLAG-tagged Cav1.2 DCT, cDNA encoding amino acids 1764–2140 of Cav1.2 was PCR-amplified and subcloned into p3xFLAG-CMV-10 (Sigma-Aldrich). Other cDNA included in the rat or mouse heart cDNA library were isolated using RT-PCR and were subcloned into pcDNA3.1 or pCMV-Myc (Clontech Laboratories, Mountain View, CA, USA) as previously reported [17, 28]. Single or multi-amino acid substitution mutants of Cav1.2 with their tyrosine residues of the C-terminus substituted with phenylalanine residues (Fig. 5) were generated using the QuickChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Stratagene, Agilent Technologies, Tokyo, Japan) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Wound healing assay

A7r5 cells in collagen-coated 24-well plates were wounded by dragging a sterile 200 µl pipette tip (Labcon, Petaluma, CA, USA) across 100% confluent monolayers to create cell-free area. Then, the cells were treated with deionized water (control) or PDGF-BB (10 ng/ml, Bachem, Torrance, CA, USA) in the presence or absence of pharmacological inhibitors in serum-free DMEM for 48 h. The cells were fixed

in 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate buffered saline for 15 min and stained with Phalloidin–tetramethylrhodamine B isothiocyanate (1 µg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) and Hoechst 33342 (0.5 µg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich). Fluorescence images were acquired and digitized using an inverted fluorescent microscope (Zeiss Axio Observer Z1, Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany). The extent of wound healing was evaluated as the ratio of the number of pixels of a healed area to that of the original wound area using a contrast adjustment configuration in the ImageJ software (NIH, MD, USA).

Ca²⁺ imaging

A7r5 cells plated to ~50% confluency on collagen-coated glass bottom 35-mm dishes were cultured in serum-free DMEM for 48 h to induce growth arrest, and the cells were treated with deionized water (control) or 10 ng/ml PDGF-BB for 24 h. Then, the samples were incubated with 2 µM Fluo-4/AM (Dojindo) plus 0.01% Cremophore EL (Sigma-Aldrich) and 0.02% BSA (Sigma-Aldrich) in serum-free DMEM for 30 min at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Following the treatment with vehicle (0.01% DMSO) or pharmacological inhibitors for 30 min and perfusion with normal or 60 mM KCl Tyrode solution, fluorescence images were acquired and digitized with an LSM 7 LIVE laser-scanning microscope every 0.5 s (Carl Zeiss). To assess the time course of intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration ([Ca²⁺]_i) change, the increment in fluorescence intensity normalized to baseline fluorescence intensity ($\Delta F/F_0$) was calculated.

Electrophysiology

A7r5 cells were grown to ~70% confluency in plastic dishes and transiently transfected with cDNA for enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP, 0.1 µg plasmid DNA/35-mm dish) plus mock or C-terminal Src kinase (CSK) cDNA (1.0 µg plasmid DNA/35-mm dish) with Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo). The cultures were maintained in a serum-free condition for 48 h. Then, the transfected cells were treated with vehicle (deionized water) or 10 ng/ml PDGF-BB for 24 h. Finally, the cells were detached and re-

1 plated onto coverslips at a low density in serum-free DMEM for 2 h before measuring Cav1.2 channel
2 currents.

3 TsA201 cells were grown to ~70% confluency in plastic dishes and transiently transfected with
4 an equimolar ratio of cDNA encoding wild-type or mutant Cav1.2 α_{1C} , β_{2a} , and $\alpha_2\delta_1$ subunits (1.0, 0.7, and
5 0.8 μ g of plasmid DNA/35-mm dish, respectively); a 10-fold lower concentration of cDNA for EGFP; and
6 cDNA for other proteins with polyethylenimine (4 μ g/ml, Polysciences, Inc., Warrington, PA). The cultures
7 were maintained in a serum-free condition for 48 h. Then, the cells were detached and re-plated onto
8 collagen-coated coverslips at a low density in serum-free DMEM for 24 h.

9 Ionic currents of Cav1.2 channels were recorded from EGFP-positive A7r5 cells in the whole-
10 cell configuration of the patch-clamp method at 35–36°C with a patch-clamp amplifier (Axopatch 200B,
11 Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). A pipette solution contained (mM) 90 D-glutamate (Wako), 20
12 TEA-Cl (Tokyo Chemical Industry, Tokyo, Japan), 10 EGTA (Dojindo), 20 HEPES, 10 N-methyl-D(–)-
13 glucamine (Wako), 2 MgCl₂, and 3 MgATP (Sigma-Aldrich) (pH 7.3 with CsOH). The extracellular bath
14 solution contained (mM) 150 N-methyl-D(–)-glucamine, 10 BaCl₂ (Wako), 5.4 CsCl (Wako), 1.2 MgCl₂, 5
15 HEPES, and 5.5 glucose (pH 7.4 with HCl). Cav1.2 channel currents were measured as the current inhibited
16 by Cd²⁺ (100 μ M, Wako). The relationship between the current density and voltage of Cav1.2 channels was
17 analyzed according to the standard voltage protocol. The peak of Cav1.2 channel Ba²⁺ current density
18 (pA/pF) was calculated by dividing the peak channel current amplitude by the cell membrane capacitance
19 and plotted against the membrane potentials. The liquid junction potential of +20 mV between these pipette
20 and bath solutions was corrected in the membrane potentials indicated in the following descriptions.

21 The coupling efficiency between the VSD and AG of recombinant Cav1.2 channels was assessed
22 in EGFP-positive tsA201 cells with the above pipette and bath solutions as follows: (1) first, the membrane
23 potential was depolarized from the holding potential of –80 mV to potentials between +50 mV and +80 mV
24 for 25 ms with a 2-mV increment and then repolarized to –70 mV for 10 ms every 5 s; (2) then, the gating

charge was measured by integrating the ON gating current at the apparent reversal potential of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ currents (E_{rev}) for initial 2 ms; and (3) finally, the coupling efficiency was assessed by calculating the ratio of the tail Ba^{2+} current amplitude upon repolarization from E_{rev} to -70 mV to the ON gating charge at E_{rev} [17].

The relationship between the current density and voltage of recombinant $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels in tsA201 cells was analyzed according to the standard voltage protocol with the above pipette solution and the bath solution in which Ba^{2+} was substituted with 10 mM Ca^{2+} .

Steady-state activation curve of recombinant $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels was assessed by fitting the peak current density–voltage curve of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ Ca^{2+} channel currents into the following equation (Table 1):

$$D_{peak} = G_{max} (1 / (1 + \exp ((E_{0.5_Act} - E_m) / k_{Act}))) (E_m - E_{rev}) \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

D_{peak} , peak current density; G_{max} , maximum conductance density; $E_{0.5_Act}$, half-maximum activation potential; E_m , membrane potential; and k_{Act} , slope factor of activation. From $E_{0.5_Act}$ and k_{Act} , the activation curve of recombinant $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels was depicted using the Delta Graph software (Pantone Inc., NJ, USA).

The steady-state inactivation of recombinant $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels was assessed according to the standard double-pulse protocol, and the peak $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel Ca^{2+} current amplitude in P2 normalized to the maximum was plotted against P1 membrane potentials and fit into the following equation (Table 1):

$$f = f_0 + (1 - f_0) / (1 + \exp ((E_m - E_{0.5_Inact}) / k_{Inact})) \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

f , availability; f_0 , an offset at depolarized potential; $E_{0.5_Inact}$, half-maximum inactivation potential; and k_{Inact} , slope factor of inactivation.

Immunoblotting and immunoprecipitation

Immunoblotting and immunoprecipitation were performed as previously described [17]. Briefly, microsomes were obtained from isolated tissues and cells. Samples were lysed with ice-cold lysis buffer with 10 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton-X (Sigma-Aldrich), and 10% glycerol (Wako) containing a protease inhibitor cocktail and a phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Nacalai tesque, Kyoto, Japan). For immunoprecipitation of HA-Cav1.2, lysates (125–250 µg/lane) containing HA-antibody (MBL, Nagoya, Japan) (3 µg) were incubated with Protein A-Sepharose (GE Healthcare Japan, Tokyo, Japan), and the immunoprecipitates were washed with the lysis buffer. For immunoblotting, samples were separated on SDS-PAGE using 4%–15% gradient gels. Primary and secondary antibodies against the following proteins were used: Cav1.2 (1:2,000, Alomone Labs, Jerusalem, Israel), c-Src (1:500, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, CA, USA), α -tubulin (1:3,000, Sigma-Aldrich), HA (1:5,000, MBL), phosphotyrosine (1:2,000, Abcam, Cambridge, UK), rabbit IgG (1:30,000), and mouse IgG (1:30,000) (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, West Grove, PA, USA). Anti-c-Src antibody was kindly provided by Dr. Toshikazu Takeshita (Shinshu University, Japan). Signal intensities of bands were quantified using the gel analysis program of the ImageJ software.

Proximity ligation assay and immunocytochemistry

A proximity ligation assay (PLA) was performed using the Duolink system (Sigma-Aldrich) in tsA201 cells cotransfected with cDNA for Cav1.2 channel subunits plus that for Myc-c-Src according to the manufacturer's instructions. Antibodies against Cav1.2 (1:200, Alomone) and Myc (1:2,000, MBL) were used as primary antibodies. Signals were visualized using Duolink In Situ PLA Probe Anti-Mouse PLUS, Duolink In Situ PLA Probe Anti-Rabbit MINUS, and Duolink In Situ Detection Reagents Orange (Sigma-Aldrich). Slides were mounted with Duolink In Situ Mounting Medium and DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich).

1 Z-stack images of the cells (pinhole size: 1 airy unit) were acquired using a laser scanning microscope TCS
2 SP8 (Leica Microsystems), and the images were merged using the maximum projection program in the
3 ImageJ software. For signal quantification, fluorescence images of PLA and nucleus signals were converted
4 to binary images by the triangle and minimum methods, respectively, using the ImageJ software [24, 34].
5 In each merged image, the number of pixels with PLA positive signals was normalized to that of pixels
6 with nucleus signals by using ImageJ software.

7 **Statistics**

9 All data are expressed as means \pm SEM. Statistical significance was evaluated using the unpaired Student's
10 t test. For multiple comparisons of data were performed using ANOVA followed by Dunnett's or
11 Bonferroni's test. A $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. All statistical analyses were performed
12 using the SPSS software (SPSS Inc., Armonk, NY, USA).

Results

PDGF-induced VSMC migration by activating Cav1.2 Ca²⁺ channels through c-Src/Abl tyrosine kinases

A confluent monolayer of A7r5 cells was wounded and treated with vehicle or 10 ng/ml PDGF-BB for 48 h in a serum-free condition. Compared with the controls, PDGF-BB healed the wound significantly more intensely (Fig. 1a), indicating that PDGF-BB promoted migration and/or proliferation of VSMC [26] [36]. Moreover, a Cav1.2 channel inhibitor, nifedipine (Sigma-Aldrich), almost completely inhibited PDGF-induced wound healing in a concentration-dependent manner in a range of concentrations between 0.1 μ M and 3 μ M (Fig. 1b) as reported previously [4] [21]. PDGF activates various intracellular signaling proteins [6]. Thus, the molecule(s) that mediated the effect of PDGF were examined. SFK/Abl inhibitor, bosutinib, (Sigma-Aldrich) exhibited a much stronger inhibitory effect on the PDGF-induced wound healing than a PI3K inhibitor, wortmannin, (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA); an ERK inhibitor, SCH772984 (AdooQ Bioscience, Irvine, CA, USA); a p38 kinase inhibitor, VX-702 (Tokyo Chemical Industry); or a protein kinase C (PKC) inhibitor, Gö6983 (Wako) (Fig. 1c-g). Moreover, the effect of EHop-016, an inhibitor of an RFG, Rac1, was assessed; however, its strong cytotoxic effect precluded reliable analysis (data not shown). The fact that the proliferative PI3K and ERK played a minor role in the wound healing suggests that the result of this assay under the present condition mainly reflects the promigratory effect of PDGF. Thus, bosutinib inhibited PDGF-induced VSMC migration in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 1c). Of note, nifedipine and bosutinib did not show any additivity in inhibiting PDGF-induced migration (Fig. 1h), indicating that PDGF induced VSMC migration by activating Cav1.2 channels through SFK/Abl tyrosine kinases.

Direct evidence for PDGF-induced activation of Cav1.2 Ca²⁺ channels through SFKs

The extracellular application of 60 mM K⁺ increased intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration much more strongly in PDGF-BB (10 ng/ml)-treated than that in control cells (Fig. 2a and b). This effect of PDGF was almost completely inhibited by bosutinib (2 μM) (Fig. 2b). However, PDGF-BB did not affect the expression level of Cav1.2 subunits nor c-Src (Fig. 2c and d), indicating that the effect of PDGF on Cav1.2 channels was posttranslational. In mock-transfected cells, PDGF significantly increased Cav1.2 channel Ba²⁺ currents in a range of the membrane potential between −30 and +30 mV (Fig. 2e). However, this effect of PDGF was not observed in cells transfected with CSK, a selective inhibitor of SFK (Fig. 2e). Therefore, PDGF increased the activity of Cav1.2 channels through SFK in VSMCs.

c-Src activates Cav1.2 Ca²⁺ channels with full-length Cav1.2 by enhancing the coupling efficiency between VSD and AG

Posttranslational modifications of Cav1.2 of VSMCs were assessed using immunoblotting (Fig. 3a). Full-length Cav1.2 (Cav1.2FL) and Cav1.2 with truncated C-terminus at 1763 a.a. (Cav1.2Δ1763) were expressed in tsA201 cells and were immunoblotted as molecular markers of Cav1.2 without and with posttranslational modification, respectively. In synthetic A7r5 cells most of the expressed Cav1.2 was full-length (~240 KDa). In contrast, in contractile VSMCs in the rat aorta and cerebral artery and heart, both full-length and truncated Cav1.2 (~210 KDa) were expressed; these results are in agreement with those reported previously [1, 2, 5, 22] [23, 33]. These results suggest that PDGF induced the migration of A7r5 cells mainly by activating full-length Cav1.2.

Next, the effect of posttranslational modifications of Cav1.2 C-terminus on recombinant vascular Cav1.2 channels was examined. In this assay, tsA201 cells were transfected with cDNA for Cav1.2FL, Cav1.2Δ1763, or Cav1.2Δ1763 with clipped DCT together with cDNA for ancillary subunits β_{2a} and α₂δ₁ (Fig. 3b). The ratio of the ON gating charge of Cav1.2 channels elicited upon depolarization from −80 mV to *E*_{rev} and the amplitude of inward tail Cav1.2 channel Ba²⁺ currents upon repolarization to −70 mV (Fig.

3c, inset) was measured. This ratio reflected the coupling efficiency between VSD and AG. $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ channels showed a significantly higher ratio than $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ channels, whereas $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ channels coexpressed with clipped DCT ($\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763 + \text{DCT}$) exhibited a significantly smaller ratio than $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ channels (Fig. 3c). These results indicate that both “internal” DCT in $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ and “clipped” DCT associated with $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ autoinhibited vascular $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel activity.

Further, effects of coexpression of c-Src on three types of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels were assessed. Interestingly, c-Src significantly increased the coupling efficiency of $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ channels, did not further increase that of $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ channels, and had no significant effect on $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763 + \text{DCT}$ channels (Fig. 3d). c-Src significantly increased the Ca^{2+} current density of $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ channels in a range of the membrane potentials between -20 and $+30$ mV (Fig. 3e). However, c-Src did not affect the voltage-dependency of steady-state activation or inactivation of $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ channels (Fig. 3f, Table 1). Whether the failure of c-Src to activate $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763 + \text{DCT}$ channels may be attributed to the overexpression of DCT compared with $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ in tsA201 cells and thus, very strong inhibition of the channel activity was examined. This may be because of the smaller nucleotide number and the consequent more efficient transcription of cDNA for DCT than that for $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$. However, different molar ratios of cDNA of DCT and $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ failed to enable c-Src to activate $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763 + \text{DCT}$ (Fig. 3g). In contrast, $\text{CK2}\alpha'\beta$ significantly activated $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763 + \text{DCT}$ but not $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ channels (Fig. 3h). These results strongly suggest that $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels with full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ or truncated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ associated with clipped DCT were both autoinhibited but were not functionally identical and subjected to differential regulations.

c-Src can bind to and phosphorylate full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels

To elucidate the molecular mechanism underlying the selective effect of c-Src on $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$, the phosphorylation of $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$, $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$, and $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763 + \text{DCT}$ by c-Src was assessed. c-Src phosphorylated $\text{Ca}_v1.2\text{FL}$ significantly more efficiently than $\text{Ca}_v1.2\Delta1763$ in the presence or absence of

DCT (Fig. 4a–c).

Next, the interaction between c-Src and three types of Cav1.2 channels was assessed by an *in situ* PLA. This assay visualizes the interaction of two proteins identified by two specific antibodies. This assay indicated that c-Src was significantly closer to Cav1.2FL channels than to Cav1.2Δ1763 or Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels (Fig. 4d and e). Immunocytochemistry using the same antibodies used for PLA indicated that there was no statistical difference in expression levels of Cav1.2FL, Cav1.2Δ1763, and Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT (data not shown). These results indicate that c-Src selectively activates Cav1.2FL channels because it can associate with and thus phosphorylate Cav1.2FL more efficiently than Cav1.2Δ1763 irrespective of the presence or absence of DCT.

c-Src phosphorylation sites in full-length Cav1.2

Increased coupling efficiency of Cav1.2 channels through c-Src and effects of c-Src on Cav1.2 channels modulated by DCT suggest that c-Src may bind to and phosphorylate the C-terminus of Cav1.2. The C-terminus of Cav1.2 bears a total of 12 tyrosine residues (Fig. 5a). The C-terminus was first divided into PCT and DCT, and all tyrosine residues in PCT and DCT were mutated to phenylalanine residues (Fig. 5b). Mutations in PCT but not DCT completely inhibited the effect of c-Src on the coupling efficiency of Cav1.2FL channels (Fig. 5b). Next, PCT was divided into proximal PCT (PPCT) and distal PCT (DPCT), and all tyrosine residues in PPCT and DPCT were mutated to phenylalanine residues. The results of analysis of c-Src on these channels indicated that tyrosines in DPCT but not PPCT participated in the activation of Cav1.2 channels by c-Src (Fig. 5b). Finally, each tyrosine residue in DPCT was individually mutated to phenylalanine, which confirmed that c-Src activated Cav1.2FL channels by phosphorylating Tyr¹⁷⁰⁹ and Tyr¹⁷⁵⁸ in DPCT of Cav1.2FL channels (Fig. 5c).

Discussion

The present study confirmed for the first time that PDGF induces the migration of synthetic VSMCs by activating $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels with full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ through SFK. Synthetic VSMCs represented by A7r5 cells expressed mainly full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$, but contractile VSMCs *in vivo* expressed both full-length and truncated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$. In assays using recombinant vascular $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels, c-Src could bind to and phosphorylate full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ more efficiently in comparison to truncated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ in the presence or absence of DCT. Moreover, c-Src activated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels by phosphorylating Tyr¹⁷⁰⁹ and Tyr¹⁷⁵⁸ in the PCT of full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$. These results confirmed that phenotypic switching of VSMCs in atherosclerotic lesions may increase the ratio of full-length to truncated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels and thereby facilitate PDGF-induced migration of VSMCs.

Among versatile signal transduction pathways activated by PDGFR, SFK, PI3K, MAPK, and RFG are implicated to play a role in cell migration [11]. However, we observed that SFK exerted much stronger pro-migratory effect on A7r5 cells than PI3K, MAPK, or PKC (Fig. 1). In addition, we observed that the PDGF-induced migration of A7r5 cells was strongly dependent on $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel activity. The effects of an SFK inhibitor, bosutinib, and a $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channel inhibitor, nifedipine, did not exhibit additive effect, indicating that PDGF activated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels through SFKs. In cell migration, intracellular Ca^{2+} plays a crucial role [15, 31]. In migrating cells, Ca_v1 channels evoke Ca^{2+} sparklets at the rear end. This channel activity increases intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration and causes actomyosin contraction to retract the trailing tail [18]. However, the mechanism through which SFK activate only $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ channels at the rear end of migrating VSMCs remains unclear. Recently, Kim et al. have reported that chemotactic signal (local epidermal growth factor receptor stimulation) at the front edge of human umbilical endothelial cells activated the whole-cell Ca_v1 channels through PI3K, whereas PKC more strongly inhibited Ca_v1 channels closer to the receptors at the front edge [18]. Because in our case, inhibitors of PI3K and PKC were not

effective, different mechanism(s) may underlie the localized activation of Cav1.2 channels in VSMCs.

In a heterologous expression system, c-Src activated Cav1.2FL channels by enhancing the coupling efficiency between VSD and AG. This indicated that c-Src inhibited the autoinhibitory effect of DCT in Cav1.2FL. This effect of c-Src was mediated by the phosphorylation of Tyr¹⁷⁰⁹ and Tyr¹⁷⁵⁸ in PCT. Different from PKA, c-Src did not shift the activation curve of Cav1.2 channels in the hyperpolarizing direction. This is probably because of different amino acid residues phosphorylated by these kinases. It is also possible that different modes of action of PKA and c-Src may account for the difference: PKA activates Cav1.2 channels composed of truncated Cav1.2 and clipped DCT whereas c-Src activates Cav1.2FL channels. Tyr¹⁷⁰⁹ and Tyr¹⁷⁵⁸ in PCT are novel regulatory sites identified in this study. Kang's previous study on the human vascular Cav1.2-b has indicated that c-Src first phosphorylates Tyr²¹³⁴ of Cav1.2, recognizes this phosphotyrosine with its own SH2 domain, and then phosphorylates Tyr¹⁸³⁷ of Cav1.2 to activate Cav1.2 channels [16]. Of these two sites, Tyr²¹³⁴ corresponds to Tyr²¹³⁶ in our B8 clone, whereas Tyr¹⁸³⁷ is replaced with serine in our B8 clone. The reason for the discrepancy between our and Kang's results remains unclear, but this could be attributed to various possibilities. First, Kang's analysis was restricted to DCT; thus, the effects of phosphorylation of tyrosine residues in PCT might have been overlooked. Second, a slight and insignificant decrease in the effect of c-Src on Cav1.2FL DCT-YF compared with that on Cav1.2FL (Fig. 5b) may indicate the phosphorylation of Tyr²¹³⁶ (corresponding to Tyr²¹³⁴ in their Cav1.2-b). Finally, we coexpressed $\alpha_2\delta_1$ subunits with Cav1.2 and β_2 subunits, such a different subunit composition of Cav1.2 channels may have affected the results.

c-Src significantly activated Cav1.2FL channels but not Cav1.2 Δ 1763 or Cav1.2 Δ 1763 + DCT channels (Fig. 3d). As mentioned above, it was likely that c-Src activated Cav1.2FL channels by inhibiting the autoinhibitory effect of DCT. It is, therefore, plausible that c-Src might not further activate unautoinhibited Cav1.2 Δ 1763 channels. However, it was puzzling why c-Src did not activate unautoinhibited Cav1.2 Δ 1763 + DCT channels. We first considered a possibility that in our construct, DCT may be

overexpressed in comparison with Cav1.2Δ1763 in tsA201 cells and thereby caused very strong inhibition on the channel activity. However, this was not the case because a wide range of DCT-to-Cav1.2Δ1763 cDNA molar ratios did not enable c-Src to activate Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels (Fig. 3g). Therefore, we suggest that Cav1.2 channels became unresponsive to c-Src irrespective of the degree of autoinhibition once its Cav1.2 C-terminus was clipped. Interestingly, CK2 efficiently activated Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels (Fig. 3h), but it failed to activate Cav1.2FL channels. We also observed the same results regarding the differential regulation of cardiac Cav1.2 channels by c-Src and CK2 [17]. These results strongly suggest that Cav1.2 channels with full-length Cav1.2 and those with truncated Cav1.2 associated with clipped DCT were both autoinhibited but were not functionally identical and subjected to differential regulations.

Our results indicate that c-Src can more efficiently bind to and phosphorylate Cav1.2FL than Cav1.2Δ1763 or Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels (Fig. 4). It was proposed that c-Src binds to the proline-rich domain (PRD) in DCT via its SH3 domain (Fig. 6) [10] [16]. Thus, c-Src would not be able to bind to Cav1.2Δ1763 because it is devoid of PRD. It is also suggested that cleaved DCT associates with PCT via the same PRD [10]. Thus, we propose that c-Src cannot activate Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels because the binding of c-Src to PRD in clipped DCT is precluded by the putative PRD acceptor site(s) (PAS) in PCT (Fig. 6). Namely, Cav1.2Δ1763, DCT, and c-Src may not form a ternary complex. In Cav1.2FL channels, DCT may not noncovalently bind to internal PCT via the PRD; thus, c-Src may be able to bind to PRD. Notably, c-Src weakly but unmistakably interacted with and phosphorylated Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels (Fig. 4). This interaction may arise from the interaction of c-Src with another PRD in the intracellular loop between domains II and III of Cav1.2 [7]. However, our study did not delineate the functional significance of this phosphorylation.

To summarize, our findings demonstrate that PDGF induces the migration of synthetic VSMCs by activating Cav1.2 channels with full-length Cav1.2 through SFK. Moreover, in contrast to contractile VSMCs, synthetic VSMCs express full-length Cav1.2 more strongly than truncated Cav1.2. It is possible

1 that contractile VSMCs are less migratory than synthetic VSMCs at least in part because the substantial
2 fraction of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ in contractile VSMCs is converted into the truncated form. Clipped DCT enters the
3 nucleus and serves as a transcriptional factor [12], suppressing the transcription of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ gene in cardiac
4 myocytes and VSMCs [2, 27]. Thus, when VSMCs undergo a phenotypic switching in atherosclerotic
5 lesions, the inhibition of posttranslational modification of the C-terminus of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ may increase the ratio
6 of full-length $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ to truncated $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ and enhance the transcription of $\text{Ca}_v1.2$ *per se*. We posit that such
7 phenotypic switching may coordinately facilitate the pro-migratory effects of PDGF on VSMCs.

8

Figure legends

Fig. 1. PDGF induces vascular smooth muscle cell migration dependent on Cav1.2 channels and Src/Abl tyrosine kinases

(a) PDGF-induced VSMC migration. Representative images of wound healing assay of A7r5 cells with vehicle (control) or 10 ng/ml PDGF-BB for 48 h in a serum-free condition (left-hand panel). Scale bar, 200 μ m. Dashed yellow lines indicate original wound area. Wound healing ratio of A7r5 cells with vehicle (n = 12) or 10 ng/ml PDGF-BB (n = 7) for 48 h (right-hand panel). **P* < 0.05 *versus* control. (b–g) effects of pharmacological inhibitors on the PDGF-induced migration of A7r5 cells. A7r5 cells were treated with PDGF-BB in the presence of vehicle, nifedipine (b, n = 6–9), bosutinib (c, n = 6–10), wortmannin (d, n = 6–14), SCH772984 (e, n = 10–14), VX-702 (f, n = 6–7), or Gö6983 (g, n = 7–10). **P* < 0.05 *versus* each PDGF-treated A7r5 cells in the presence of vehicle. (h) less-than-additive effects of nifedipine and bosutinib on the PDGF-induced migration of A7r5 cells. Representative images (left-hand panel) and wound healing ratio (right-hand panel) of PDGF-treated A7r5 cells in the presence of vehicle (n = 9), 0.3 μ M nifedipine alone (n = 8), 0.1 μ M bosutinib alone (n = 11), or 0.3 μ M nifedipine plus 0.1 μ M bosutinib (n = 13). **P* < 0.05 *versus* PDGF-treated A7r5 cells in the presence of vehicle.

Fig. 2. PDGF activates Cav1.2 channels through c-Src family kinases

(a) representative traces of 60 mM K⁺-induced [Ca²⁺]_i elevation in A7r5 cells pretreated with vehicle or with PDGF for 24 h in a serum-free condition. (b) effects of bosutinib (2 μ M) on 60 mM K⁺-induced [Ca²⁺]_i elevation in control and PDGF-treated A7r5 cells. The number of observed cells is indicated in the graph. **P* < 0.05 *versus* each control cells. (c and d) representative immunoblots of Cav1.2 (c) and c-Src (d) from three independent experiments in control and PDGF-treated A7r5 cells (each left-hand panel). The whole-cell lysates (Cav1.2; 50 μ g/lane, c-Src; 20 μ g/lane, tubulin; 20 μ g/lane) were immunoblotted with

antibodies against Cav1.2 α_{1c} , c-Src, and tubulin. The summary of the data normalized to tubulin; n = 3 independent blots (each right-hand panel). **P* < 0.05 *versus* control. (e) representative traces of Ba²⁺ currents of Cav1.2 channels in control and PDGF-treated A7r5 cells expressing mock (upper left-hand panel) or CSK (upper right-hand panel). Voltage protocol (inset). Effect of PDGF on peak current density–voltage relationships of Cav1.2 channels with Ba²⁺ as a charge carrier in control and PDGF-treated A7r5 cells expressing mock or CSK (lower panels); n = 8–19. **P* < 0.05 *versus* each control.

Fig. 3. Activation of recombinant full-length Cav1.2 channels by c-Src

(a) a representative immunoblot of Cav1.2 from three independent experiments. Lysates (50 μ g/lane) from indicated samples were immunoblotted with antibody against Cav1.2. This antibody binds to the intracellular linker between domains II and II of Cav1.2. Lysates from tsA201 cells transfected with mock, full-length Cav1.2 (Cav1.2FL), and Cav1.2 Δ 1763 channels were used as negative or positive controls. (b) schematic illustration of Cav1.2FL, Cav1.2 Δ 1763, and Cav1.2 Δ 1763 + DCT channels. (c) coupling efficiencies (nA/pC) of Cav1.2FL, Cav1.2 Δ 1763, and Cav1.2 Δ 1763 + DCT channels in tsA201 cells; n = 6–8. Representative traces of gating currents and Ba²⁺ tail currents of Cav1.2 Ca²⁺ channels, and voltage protocol (insets). **P* < 0.05 *versus* Cav1.2FL channels, #*P* < 0.05 *versus* Cav1.2 Δ 1763 channels. (d) effect of Myc-c-Src overexpression on coupling efficiencies of Cav1.2FL, Cav1.2 Δ 1763, and Cav1.2 Δ 1763 + DCT channels in tsA201 cells; n = 7–10. **P* < 0.05 *versus* each mock. (e) effect of Myc-c-Src overexpression on peak current density–voltage relationships of Cav1.2FL Ca²⁺ currents in tsA201 cells expressing mock (n = 7) or Myc-c-Src (n = 5). **P* < 0.05 *versus* mock. (f) effect of Myc-c-Src overexpression on steady-state activation and inactivation of Cav1.2FL Ca²⁺ currents in tsA201 cells expressing mock or Myc-c-Src; n = 7–8. (g) the effect of Myc-c-Src on the coupling efficiency of Cav1.2 Δ 1763 + DCT channels with different molar ratios of DCT to Cav1.2 Δ 1763; n = 5–11 cells in each ratio. There was no statistically significant difference between mock and c-Src groups at any molar ratios. (h) effect of CK2 α ' β overexpression on

coupling efficiencies of Cav1.2FL and Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels in tsA201 cells; n = 6–9. **P* < 0.05 versus each mock.

Fig. 4. Interaction between Cav1.2 Ca²⁺ channels and c-Src

(a–c) c-Src more potently phosphorylated Cav1.2FL than Cav1.2Δ1763 with or without DCT. HA- Cav1.2 channels and Myc-c-Src were expressed in tsA201 cells as indicated. HA-Cav1.2 subunits were immunoprecipitated (IP) with antibody against HA from lysates and analyzed by immunoblotting (IB) with antibodies against phosphotyrosine (pTyr, a) and HA (b). a and b are representative immunoblots from four different experiments. NS, nonspecific band. (c) quantification of phosphorylated Cav1.2 (Cav1.2-pTyr)/total Cav1.2. Data were normalized to Cav1.2FL-pTyr/total Cav1.2FL. **P* < 0.05 versus Cav1.2FL + c-Src group. There was no statistically significant difference between Cav1.2Δ1763 + c-Src and Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT + c-Src groups. (d) representative images showing the association of Cav1.2FL, Cav1.2Δ1763, or Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels with c-Src as detected by PLA assay. Cav1.2 channels and Myc-c-Src were expressed in tsA201 cells as indicated. Protein–protein association between Cav1.2 channels and c-Src was visualized as orange signals. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). Scale bars, 25 μm. (e) quantification of association of Cav1.2FL, Cav1.2Δ1763, or Cav1.2Δ1763 + DCT channels with c-Src; 40 images from four coverslips in each group. Data were normalized to the ratio of Cav1.2FL + c-Src. **P* < 0.01 versus Cav1.2α_{1c}FL + c-Src.

Fig. 5. Requirement for phosphorylation of Tyr¹⁷⁰⁹ and Tyr¹⁷⁵⁸ for c-Src-mediated activation of Cav1.2 channels

(a) schematic representation of all tyrosine residues (indicated as Y) in the C-terminus of Cav1.2 (Cav1.2CT). PCT (proximal C-terminus); DCT (distal C-terminus); PPCT (proximal proximal C-terminus); DPCT (distal proximal C-terminus). (b) the coupling efficiency of Cav1.2FL channels in which all tyrosine

residues were mutated to phenylalanine within the indicated regions of Cav1.2CT. (c) the coupling efficiency of Cav1.2FL channels in which tyrosine residues were individually mutated to phenylalanine; n = 5–15 cells. * $P < 0.05$ versus each mock.

Fig. 6. Proposed mechanism underlying the selective effect of c-Src on full-length Cav1.2

In Cav1.2FL, c-Src can bind to the proline-rich domain (PRD, 1945–1970 aa) in DCT through its SH3 domain (SH3) and thereby can phosphorylate Y1709 and Y1758 in PCT (left-hand panel). c-Src cannot bind to Cav1.2Δ1763 because it is devoid of PRD (middle panel). Clipped DCT is associated with truncated PCT via interactions between DCRD (2070–2082 aa) and PCRD (1664–1674 aa) and between PRD and a putative PRD acceptor site (PAS) in PCT (right-hand panel). Because PRD in clipped DCT is already occupied by PAS in this case, c-Src can no longer bind to Cav1.2 and phosphorylate Y1709 or Y1758. Y, tyrosine; S, serine; SH2, SH2 domain; KN, kinase N-lobe; and KC, kinase C-lobe.

1 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

3 **Disclosure of potential conflicts of interest**

4 This study was supported by Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) (grant number 16K08546) to T.K.
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6 Shinshu Public Utility Foundation for Promotion of Medical Sciences.

8 **Research involving Animals**

9 All animals used in the present study received humane care in compliance with the Guide for the Care
10 and Use of Laboratory Animals published by the US National Institutes of Health. All experimental
11 procedures were performed in accordance with the Guidelines for Animal Experimentation of Shinshu
12 University and approved by the Committee for Animal Experimentation (Approval number 260017).

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Table 1: Kinetic parameters of Cav1.2 Ca²⁺ channels

	Control	n	c-Src	n
Steady-state activation				
G_{max} (pS/pF)	511 ± 58	7	858 ± 93*	8
$E_{0.5_Act}$ (mV)	-3.9 ± 2.2	7	-8.5 ± 0.8	8
k_{Act} (mV)	7.2 ± 0.5	7	6.5 ± 0.4	8
E_{rev} (mV)	60.2 ± 4.1	7	70.6 ± 2.1	8
Steady-state inactivation				
f_0	0.23 ± 0.03	7	0.22 ± 0.03	8
$E_{0.5_Inact}$ (mV)	-17.57 ± 0.69	7	-17.19 ± 0.48	8
k_{Inact} (mV)	9.81 ± 1.37	7	8.69 ± 0.84	8

G_{max} : maximum conductance density; $E_{0.5_Act}$: half-maximum activation potential; k_{Act} : slope factor of activation; E_{rev} : apparent reversal potential; f_0 , an offset at depolarized potential; $E_{0.5_Inact}$: half-maximum inactivation potential; k_{Inact} : slope factor of inactivation. * $P < 0.05$ vs. Control

a

48 h

Vehicle (control) PDGF

Wound healing ratio

PDGF - +

b

Wound healing ratio

Nifedipine 0 0.1 0.3 1 3 (μM)

+ PDGF

c

Wound healing ratio

Bosutinib 0 0.03 0.1 0.3 (μM)

+ PDGF

d

Wound healing ratio

Wortmannin 0 0.01 0.03 0.1 (μM)

+ PDGF

e

Wound healing ratio

SCH772984 0 3 10 30 100 (nM)

+ PDGF

f

Wound healing ratio

VX-702 0 0.1 0.3 1 (μM)

+ PDGF

g

Wound healing ratio

Gö6983 0 0.03 0.1 0.3 0.5 (μM)

+ PDGF

h

48 h

PDGF + Vehicle PDGF + Nifedipine (0.3 μM) PDGF + Bosutinib (0.1 μM) PDGF + Nif (0.3 μM) + Bos (0.1 μM)

Wound healing ratio

PDGF +

Nifedipine (0.3 μM)

Bosutinib (0.1 μM)

Figure 2

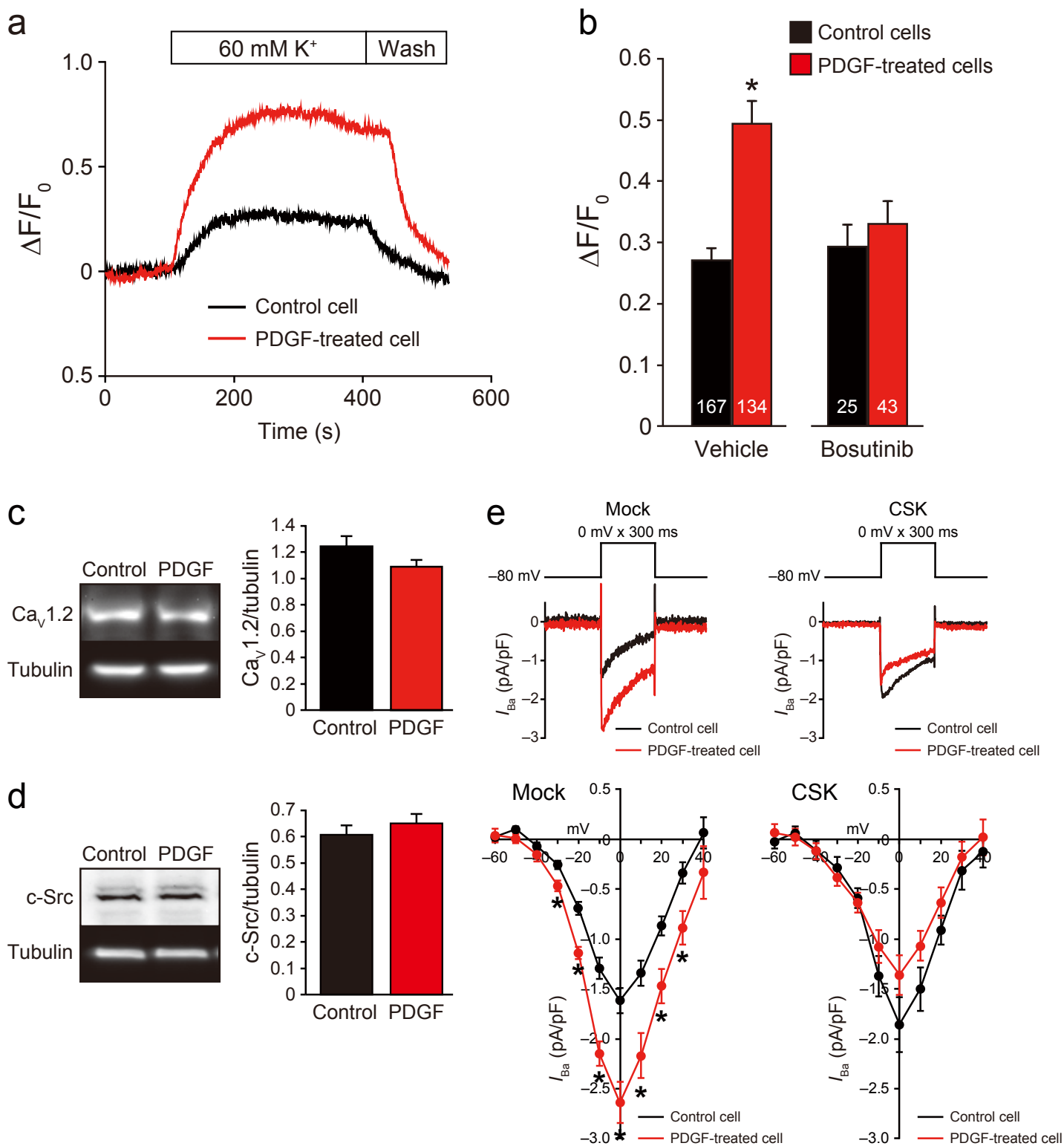


Figure 3

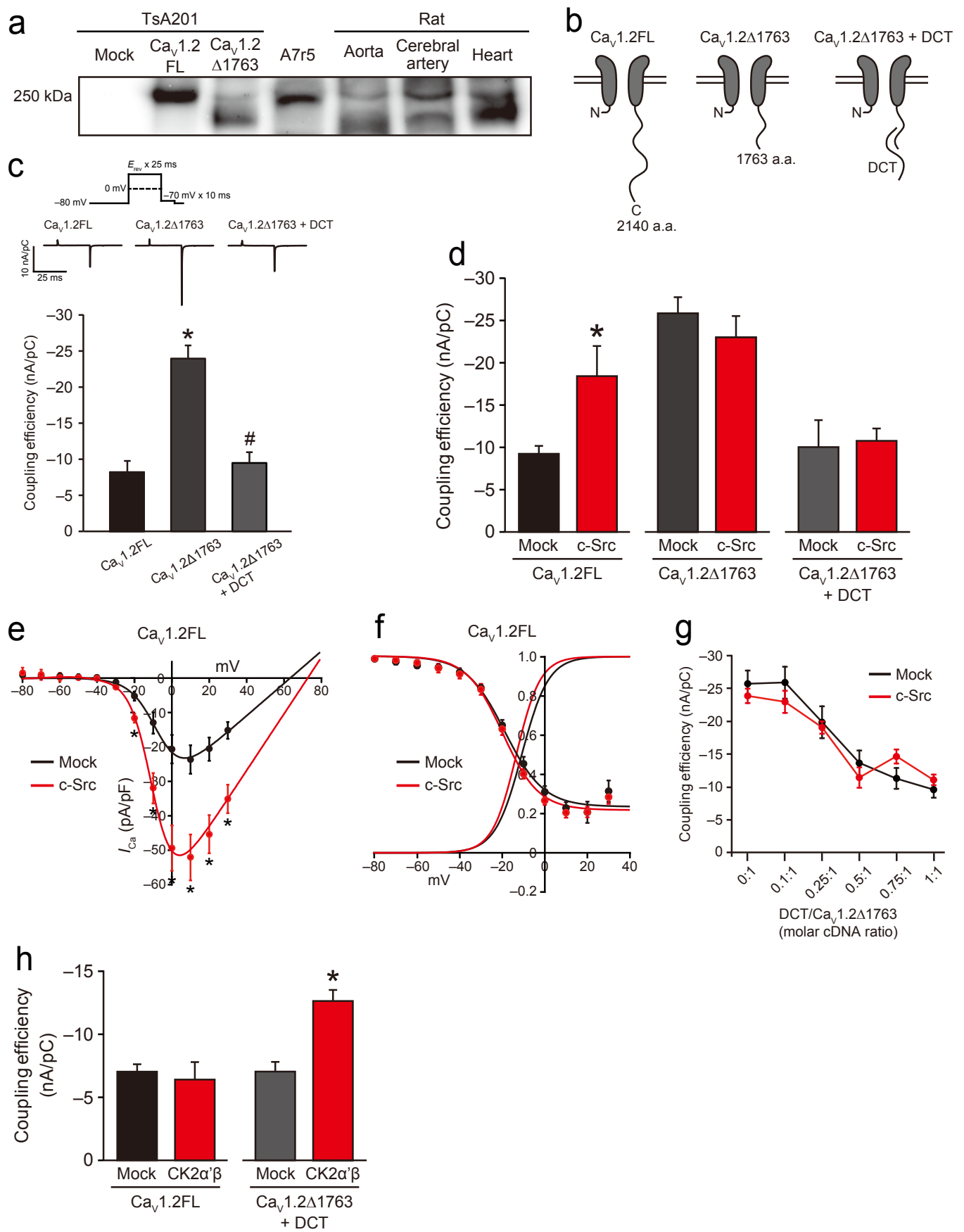
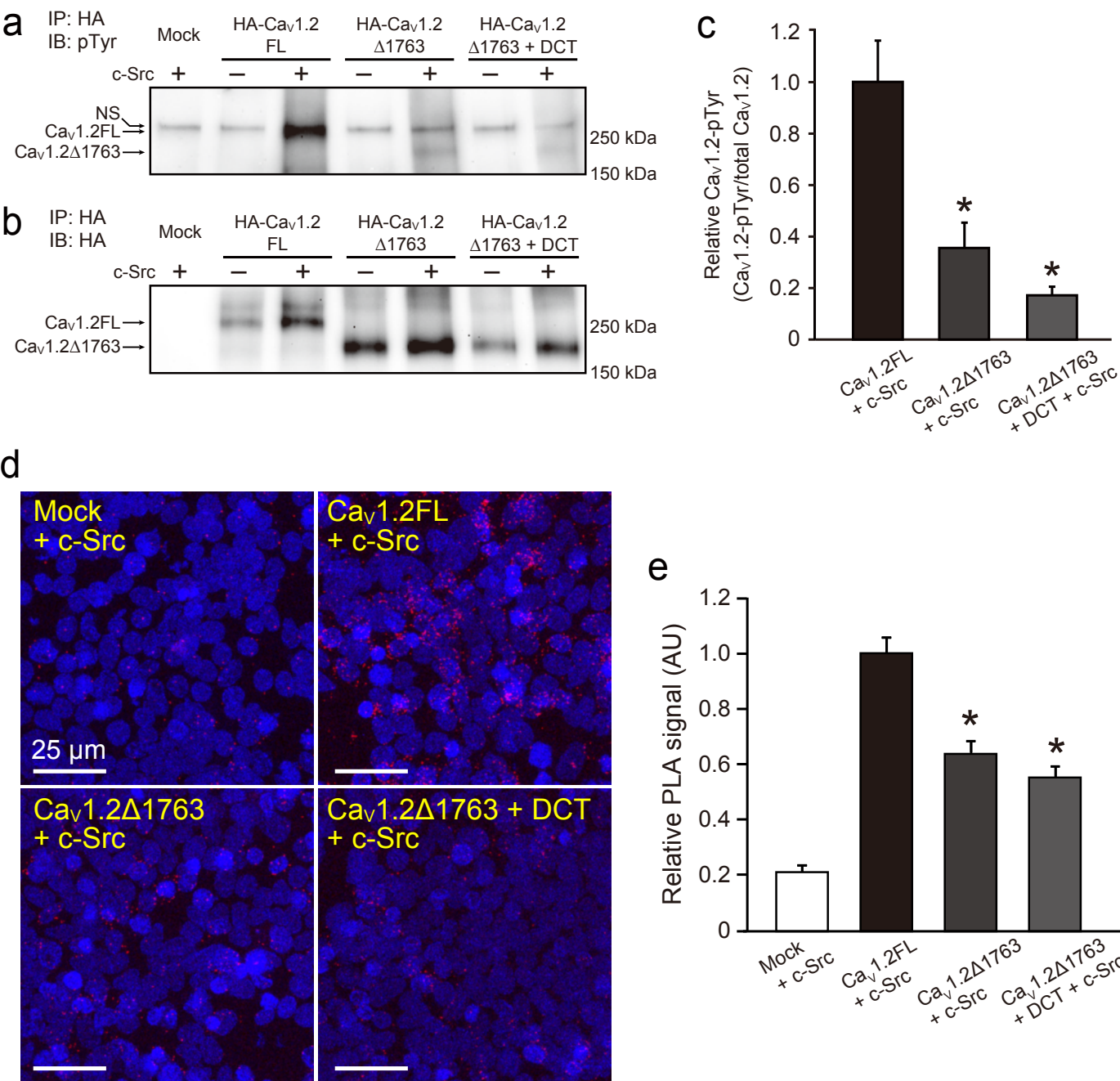


Figure 4



a

Ca_v1.2CT 1477 1481 1504 1619 1627 1709 1710 1758 1784 1847 1861 2119 2136 2140 a.a.

PCT DCT

PPCT DPCT

b

Coupling efficiency (nA/pC)

Mock c-Src

Ca_v1.2FL

Ca_v1.2FL CT-YF

Ca_v1.2FL DCT-YF

Ca_v1.2FL PCT-YF

Ca_v1.2FL PPCT-YF

Ca_v1.2FL DPCT-YF

c

Coupling efficiency (nA/pC)

Mock c-Src

Ca_v1.2FL Y1627F

Ca_v1.2FL Y1709F

Ca_v1.2FL Y1710F

Ca_v1.2FL Y1758F

Figure 6

