Presence of Inositol 1,4,5-Trisphosphate Receptor, Calreticulin, and Calsequestrin in Eggs of Sea Urchins and *Xenopus laevis*

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The presence of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor (InsP₃R), calreticulin, and calsequestrin was demonstrated in eggs of sea urchins (Lytechinus pictus, Lytechinus variegatus, and Strongylocentroutus purpuratus) and Xenopus laevis. Binding of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (InsP3) to microsomes of L. pictus eggs was inhibited by heparin and NaCl. An affinity-purified antibody against the C-terminal of the type I InsP₃R, which recognizes InsP₃R isoforms of rabbit brain (273 kDa) and Xenopus oocytes and eggs (256 kDa), reacted with a 373-kDa protein in sea urchin eggs. The 373-kDa protein was tentatively identified as the sea urchin egg InsP₃R. Observations with fluorescence microscopy indicated that the InsP₃R is present throughout the cytoplasm of sea urchin eggs in a pattern consistent with the distribution of endoplasmic reticulum. Small differences in the relative amount of reaction deposits in cortex vs subcortex were noted among the species of sea urchins examined. Reaction product was also localized to the periphery of female pronuclei in eggs of all three sea urchins. InsP₃R reactivity was present in the perinuclear region, along the periphery of the germinal vesicle, and throughout the animal and vegetal hemispheres of Xenopus oocytes. A similar cytoplasmic staining pattern was also observed in eggs, although islands of reactivity, much larger than those in oocytes, were present in the animal hemisphere of eggs. Calreticulin and calsequestrin in sea urchin eggs had the same molecular mass as in rabbit brain (56 and 60 kDa, respectively), but differed from those present in Xenopus oocytes/eggs (61 and 57 kDa, respectively). The distribution of calreticulin and calsequestrin in both sea urchin and Xenopus oocytes and eggs was similar to that observed for the InsP₃R. These results are discussed in relation to previous studies of Ca2+ regulation during egg development and fertilization and suggest that in the oocytes and eggs of the species examined, InsP₃-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores play an important role in the regulation of cellular Ca2+. © 1994 Academic Press, Inc.

INTRODUCTION

Activation of deuterostome eggs is dependent on a transient increase in intracellular Ca²⁺, which is initiated at the site of sperm-egg fusion and is then propagated through the egg as a Ca²⁺ wave (Jaffe, 1983; Busa, 1990). Although various activators, including InsP₃, cGMP, cADP-ribose, and Ca²⁺ itself, have been proposed as initiators of the Ca²⁺ signal, the exact mechanisms whereby the Ca²⁺ wave is initiated and propagated are not yet known (Busa, 1990; Whitaker and Crossley, 1990; Nuccitelli, 1991; Whalley *et al.*, 1992).

In somatic cells, two mechanisms involved in the elevation of intracellular Ca²⁺ have been described: InsP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release (IICR) and Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release (CICR) (Berridge and Irvine, 1989). While the former system is mediated by the InsP₃R (Ferris *et al.*, 1989), the latter was generally thought to be regulated by the ryanodine receptor (Imagawa *et al.*, 1987; McPherson *et al.*, 1991). Recent evidence indicates that the InsP₃R can also induce CICR (see Berridge, 1993).

A substantial literature exists concerning the effects of InsP₃ in oocytes and eggs of different species, and recently the presence of an InsP₃R was demonstrated in fertilized hamster eggs (Miyazaki et al., 1992) and in Xenopus laevis oocytes and eggs (Parys et al., 1992; Kume et al., 1993). The Xenopus oocyte/egg InsP₃R has been purified and shown to represent a different isoform of the type I InsP₃R (Parys et al., 1992). Sequence analysis demonstrated that the Xenopus oocyte/egg InsP₃R shares 90% identity at the amino acid level with the mouse type I InsP₃R (Kume et al., 1993). No evidence was

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² Abbreviations used: InsP₃, D-myo-inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; InsP₃R, InsP₃ receptor; AH, animal hemisphere; VH, vegetal hemisphere; IICR, InsP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release; CICR, Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release; PMSF, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride; SDS-PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; ASW, artificial seawater; CaFASW, Ca²⁺-free artificial seawater; CIB, cortical isolation buffer; BSA, bovine serum albumin.

found for a ryanodine receptor in *Xenopus* eggs and oocytes (Parys *et al.*, 1992). Recent investigations indicate that Ca²⁺ waves in *Xenopus* oocytes and hamster eggs, which have been described as resulting from CICR, are due to a Ca²⁺-modulated serial Ca²⁺ release of InsP₃-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores (Lechleiter and Clapham, 1992; De-Lisle and Welsh, 1992; Miyazaki *et al.*, 1992; Parys *et al.*, 1992). In sea urchin eggs the presence of InsP₃-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores is well established (Whitaker and Irvine, 1984; Clapper and Lee, 1985; Turner *et al.*, 1986; Oberdorf *et al.*, 1986; Swann and Whitaker, 1986) but recent evidence also indicates the presence of InsP₃-insensitive Ca²⁺ stores and of a ryanodine receptor-like protein (Rakow and Shen, 1990; Fujiwara *et al.*, 1990; Galione *et al.*, 1991; McPherson *et al.*, 1992; Buck *et al.*, 1992).

The exact roles of the InsP₃R and InsP₃-sensitive stores in eggs have not yet been delineated. We, therefore, investigated the presence and localization of the InsPaR in eggs of two organisms commonly employed in developmental biology studies, sea urchins (Lytechinus pictus, Lytechinus variegatus, and Strongylocentrotus purpuratus) and the South African clawed toad, Xenopus laevis. In addition, the presence and localization of two Ca2+ binding proteins, calreticulin and calsequestrin, were determined. Calreticulin, widely distributed in muscle and nonmuscle tissues (Treves et al., 1990: Milner et al., 1991; Tharin et al., 1992), is believed to be associated with InsP₃-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores (Krause et al., 1990; Van Delden et al., 1992). Calsequestrin in chicken cerebellum is also associated with InsP₃-sensitive stores (Volpe et al., 1990). Using biochemical and microscopic immunomethods, we show that the InsPaR is present throughout the cytoplasm of sea urchin and Xenopus eggs and oocytes, in a pattern consistent with the distribution of endoplasmic reticulum. Calreticulin and calsequestrin have fluorescent localization patterns similar to that of the InsP₃R. These results indicate important roles for the InsP₃R and for InsP₃-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores during gamete development and fertilization.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation and analysis of membrane fractions. Eggs and pellets of isolated cortices of sea urchins, L. pictus, L. variegatus, and S. purpuratus, were prepared as described (McPherson et al., 1992). The supernatant, obtained after isolation of cortices, contained most of the cytoplasm and was brought to pH 7.25 by addition of maleic acid. Tris-HCl (pH 7.25) and sucrose were added to final concentrations of 20 and 100 mM, respectively. After pelleting a fraction enriched in yolk bodies (4500g, 15 min), microsomes were recovered by high-speed centrifugation (142,000g, 35 min). Full-grown (stage VI) oocytes were procured from ovaries of X. laevis; unfertil-

ized, mature eggs were obtained from gravid females stimulated to ovulate by an injection of human chorionic gonadotropin (Parys et al., 1992). Membranes (yolk bodies, melanosomes, and microsomes) from oocytes and eggs of Xenopus (Parys et al., 1992), rabbit light sarcoplasmic reticulum (Campbell et al., 1980), and rabbit whole brain or rabbit cerebellar microsomes (McPherson and Campbell, 1990) were obtained as described and suspended in end medium (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.25, 300 mM sucrose, 0.8 mM benzamidine; 0.2 mM PMSF). Protein was determined by a modified Lowry procedure (Peterson, 1977). Measurement of [³H]InsP₃ binding activity was performed according to Parys et al. (1992).

Antibodies. Antibodies against the InsP₃R (Parys et al., 1992) and chicken cardiac calsequestrin (Jorgensen and Campbell, 1984) were prepared as described. Pure recombinant calreticulin and an antibody against calreticulin were a gift from Dr. R. Clark (University of Iowa). Except where indicated, all antibodies used were affinity-purified as described previously (Parys et al., 1992).

Sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and immunoblotting. Samples were analyzed on 3-12% linear gradient SDS-PAGE (Laemmli, 1970). Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose (Towbin et al., 1979) followed by overnight incubation with antibodies and visualized using peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies.

Immunofluorescence microscopy. Sea urchin eggs were fixed in 3% paraformaldehyde/0.1% glutaraldehyde in artificial seawater (ASW), in Ca²⁺-free artificial seawater (CaFASW; McPherson et al., 1992), or in cortical isolation buffer (CIB; 0.4 M mannitol, 0.2 M KCl, 50 mM Hepes, 50 mM Pipes, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 20 mM EGTA, pH 6.8). Xenopus oocytes and eggs were fixed in 3% paraformaldehyde/0.1% glutaraldehyde in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.4, amphibian Ringers (73 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 25 mM NaHCO₃), or CIB. Fixation was for 2 hr at 4°C, followed by an overnight wash in the corresponding buffer. Fixed specimens were embedded in gelatin as described by Henson et al. (1989) or in Tissue-Tek (Miles Inc., Elkhart, IN), frozen in liquid nitrogen, and cryosectioned.

Sections were blocked with 0.2% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS (137 mM NaCl, 3 mM KCl, 6 mM NaHPO₄, 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄, pH 7.4; 15 min) and incubated for 30 min at room temperature in the affinity-purified antibodies listed above. Cryosections 5 μ m thick were incubated with affinity-purified antibodies diluted 1:2 to 1:10 with 0.2% BSA in PBS. Specimens were washed twice in PBS, followed by a 30-min incubation in FITC-conjugated secondary antibody. After two 5-min washes in PBS, the specimens were mounted in 0.1%

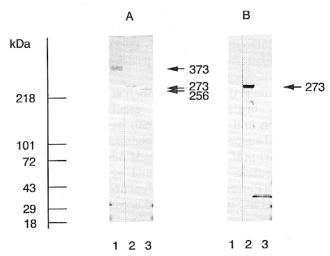


FIG. 1. Immunoblot of InsP₃R molecules using Rbt52, an affinity-purified antibody directed against the C-terminal of the type I InsP₃R (A), or Goat44, an affinity-purified polyclonal antibody against rabbit brain InsP₃R (B). Samples: L. pictus cortical membranes, 100 μ g (1); rabbit cerebellar membranes, 50 μ g (2); and Xenopus oocyte microsomes, 200 μ g (3). The molecular masses of the InsP₃R molecules are indicated.

p-phenylenediamine in 90% glycerol, examined with an inverted microscope (Nikon Inc., Garden City, NJ) equipped with fluorescence optics, and photographed with TMAX 400 film (Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester, NJ). To demonstrate antibody specificity, specimens were incubated in (1) secondary antibody without a prior treatment with primary antibody or (2) immunodepleted solutions (McPherson et al., 1992). The affinity-purified antibody against the C-terminal of the type I InsP₃R was diluted 1:4 with 0.2% BSA in PBS and then incubated with the C-terminal peptide. After a 2-hr incubation, cryosections were reacted first with the processed fluid and then with the secondary antibody as described above.

RESULTS

Structural and biochemical analyses of the sea urchin egg $InsP_3R$. Specific $InsP_3$ binding activity of L. pictus microsomes was 50 ± 21 fmole/mg protein (n=3) and 95% inhibited by heparin $(50 \, \mu \text{g/ml})$. The high binding activity and heparin sensitivity strongly suggested the presence of an $InsP_3R$, similar to $InsP_3R$ molecules from higher organisms. This was confirmed in Western blots, as an antibody against the C-terminal of the type $InsP_3R$ (Rbt52) recognized a single protein band in L. pictus membrane preparations (Fig. 1a). The protein band had a distinctly higher molecular mass $(373 \pm 7 \, \text{kDa}, n=6)$ than the $InsP_3R$ from mammalian brain or from Xenopus oocytes and eggs (Fig. 1a). An affinity-purified polyclonal antibody directed against pure rab-

bit brain InsP₃R (Goat44) did not recognize any protein on immunoblots of *L. pictus* membranes (Fig. 1b). This was not surprising as the antibody did not recognize the InsP₃R from *Xenopus* oocytes. In *Xenopus* oocytes (but not in eggs; data not shown) a 33-kDa protein was specifically labeled by the Goat44 antibody; its relation to the InsP₃R is unknown.

Isolation of the InsP₃R from sea urchin eggs was attempted; however, the scheme used for purification of the InsP₃R from mammalian brain and from amphibian oocytes and eggs (Parys et al., 1992) resulted in a rapid decay of [3H]InsP₃ binding activity in sea urchin egg preparations. Binding of InsP₃ to L. pictus egg microsomes was found to be highly salt-sensitive (Fig. 2). Sodium chloride, even at concentrations as low as 100 mM, inhibited InsP3 binding. InsP3 binding to rabbit brain microsomes, which was used as a control, was much less sensitive to NaCl. KCl only slightly influenced InsP₃ binding in both L. pictus egg and rabbit brain microsomes (Fig. 2). Since the decay of binding activity during purification could be due to the strong inhibiting effects of Na+, we attempted to purify the L. pictus InsP3R under conditions where Na⁺ was replaced by K⁺. Decay of binding activity was, however, still observed, suggesting that during solubilization and purification a cofactor or a subunit necessary for InsP₃ binding is lost. These findings are consistent with observations by Lee (1991), who described the lability of InsP₃-sensitive mechanisms in sea urchin eggs. In comparison to L. pictus preparations, lower binding activities were obtained from membranes isolated from L. variegatus and S. purpuratus (data not shown). We do not know if this difference in binding activity reflects a greater lability of the

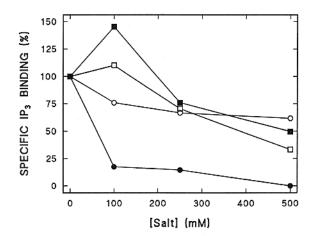


FIG. 2. The effect of varying NaCl and KCl concentrations on $InsP_3$ binding activity in microsomes isolated from L. pictus eggs (closed symbols) or from rabbit brain (open symbols). Binding of $[^3H]InsP_3$ was measured as previously described (Parys $et\ al.$, 1992) except for the addition of NaCl (circles) or KCl (squares). Each point is the mean of at least two independent experiments, each done in triplicate.

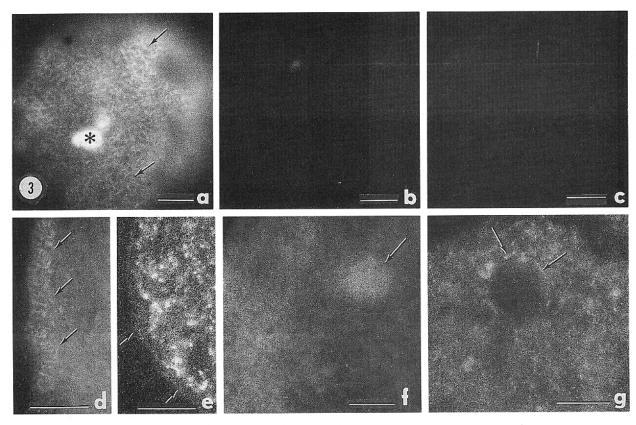


FIG. 3. Immunofluorescent preparations demonstrating the localization of the InsP₃R, using affinity purified Rbt52 antibody, in eggs of the sea urchins S. purpuratus (a-d and f) and L. pictus (e and g). Similar immunofluorescent patterns were also observed in L. variegatus. (a) In S. purpuratus a reticular staining pattern (arrows) is distributed throughout the egg cytoplasm. (b and c) Control sections of S. purpuratus eggs stained only with secondary antibody (b) or with immunodepleted antibody solution (c). (d and e) In S. purpuratus (d) cortical staining (arrows) is frequently more intense than that within the subcortex, while in L. pictus (e) cortical staining (arrows) is not as bright as that in the subcortex. (f and g) S. purpuratus (f) and L. pictus (g) eggs which demonstrate InsP₃R reactivity in conjunction with the female pronucleus (arrows). The section in (f) depicts a "surface view" of one pole of the female pronucleus while that in (g) is cut through the organelle and demonstrates reaction product along its perimeter. *, Stained debris. Scale bar, 10 µm.

receptor, differences between species, or environmental factors, such as seasonal variations, that may affect egg development.

Immunolocalization of the InsP_sR. Overall, similar staining patterns, employing affinity-purified Rbt52 antibody, were observed in eggs of the three species of sea urchins used in this study; similarities and differences in staining are presented as appropriate. Stained cryosections of all three species contained reaction deposits that were present throughout the entire egg cytoplasm (Figs. 3a-3e), consistent with the distribution of cortical and subcortical endoplasmic reticulum (Terasaki and Jaffe, 1991). A reticular pattern of staining was clearly recognizable in S. purpuratus (Fig. 3a), whereas in L. pictus and L. variegatus reaction deposits were of varying sizes and, overall, formed a less organized network (Fig. 3e). The intensity of cortical and subcortical staining was similar with small variations among species. In S. purpuratus, cortical reactivity was often slightly more intense than that present in the subcortex (Fig. 3d), whereas in *L. pictus* cortical staining was often less than that present in the subcortex (Fig. 3e). In all three species, but particularly in *L. pictus* and *S. purpuratus*, antibody staining was also localized to the periphery of the female pronucleus (Figs. 3f and 3g). Cryosections incubated with only the secondary antibody or with immunodepleted solutions were negative (Figs. 3b and 3c).

Reactivity of *Xenopus* oocytes to Rbt52 anti-InsP₃R was distributed throughout the cytoplasm of the animal hemisphere (AH) and vegetal hemisphere (VH) (Fig. 4). Staining in the oocyte AH consisted of interconnected, linear areas that outlined relatively small, and mostly irregular, nonstaining regions (Fig. 4a). The oocyte AH was, for the most part, uniformly stained, although reactivity within its cortex was frequently obscured by pigment granules (Fig. 4a). In contrast, staining in the VH consisted of a relatively larger network that, in general, filled the interstices between the large nonstaining yolk bodies characterizing this region of the oocyte (Fig. 4b).

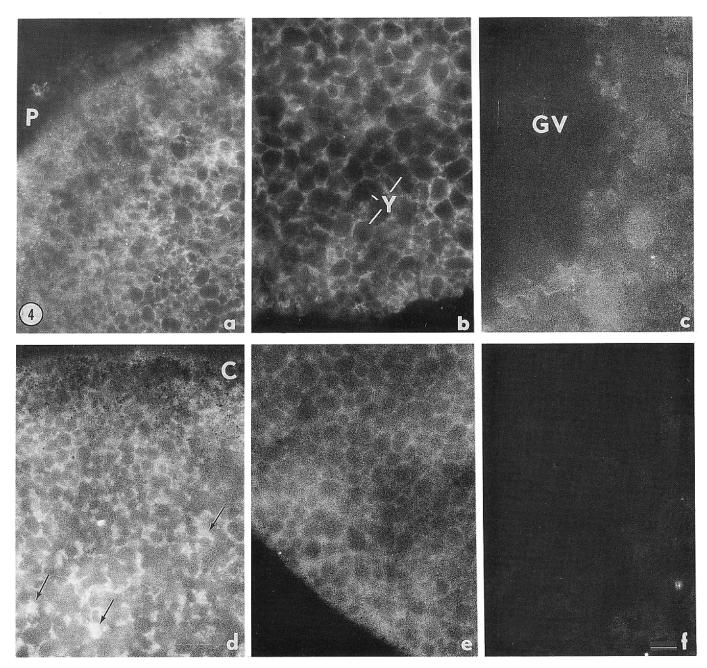


FIG. 4. Xenopus oocyte (a-c) and egg (d-f) reacted with affinity-purified Rbt52 antibody to the C-terminal of the InsP₃R. Reaction product, distributed throughout the cytoplasm, is present within the AH (a and d) and VH (b and e) of eggs and oocytes. (a) AH of an oocyte showing a reticular staining pattern circumscribing relatively small, nonstaining spaces. The dense pigment layer (P) of the AH partially obscures staining within the cortex. (b) In the VH reactivity is present in regions between yolk bodies (Y) and forms a reticular pattern larger than that present in the AH. (c) Perinuclear reactivity and staining associated with the germinal vesicle (GV). (d) Reactivity in the AH of eggs forms a reticular pattern consisting of relatively large islands (arrows) of staining. In addition to pigment granules, staining is apparent within the cortex (C). (e) Reticular staining pattern characteristic of the VH of eggs. (f) Control section of an egg stained with only secondary antibody. Scale bar, $10~\mu m$.

Major differences in staining intensity of the cortex, subcortex, and interior deep cytoplasm of the VH were not readily apparent (Fig. 4b). Reaction deposits were also present in the perinuclear cytoplasm and associated with the periphery of the germinal vesicle (Fig.

4c). Overall, the staining pattern in eggs was similar to that observed in oocytes, i.e., it consisted of a reticulum that was present throughout the entire egg cytoplasm (Figs. 4d and 4e), corresponding to the cytosolic spaces between yolk bodies. The reticulum in the AH, however,

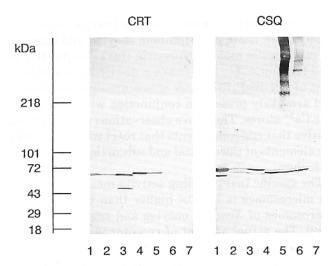


FIG. 5. Detection of calreticulin and calsequestrin on immunoblots of sea urchin and *Xenopus* specimens. Samples: rabbit light sarcoplasmic reticulum, 40 μ g (1); *L. pictus* cortical membranes, 200 μ g (2); *L. pictus* microsomes, 200 μ g (3); *Xenopus* oocyte microsomes, 200 μ g (4); *Xenopus* egg microsomes, 200 μ g (5); *Xenopus* egg melanosomes, 200 μ g (6); and *Xenopus* egg yolk bodies, 200 μ g (7). After SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting, staining was with affinity-purified antibody against calreticulin (left) or with antiserum against chicken cardiac calsequestrin (right).

possessed relatively large islands of intense staining (Fig. 4d). Differences in the staining of the VH of eggs and oocytes were not apparent (Figs. 4b and 4e). Control sections in which the primary antibody was omitted were negative (Fig. 4f).

Presence of Ca²⁺ binding proteins. An affinity-purified antibody against calreticulin (Fig. 5, left) recognized a protein in sea urchin eggs with the same molecular mass $(56 \pm 0.4 \text{ kDa}, n = 5)$ as mammalian muscle calreticulin $(56 \pm 0.5 \text{ kDa}, n = 4)$. Calreticulin in *Xenopus* oocytes and eggs had a somewhat higher molecular mass (61 \pm 1 kDa, n = 5). To identify calsequestrin, we employed an antiserum against chicken cardiac calsequestrin (Jorgensen and Campbell, 1984) which was previously used to identify a calsequestrin-like protein in sea urchin eggs (Oberdorf et al., 1988) and Xenopus oocytes (Parys et al., 1992). As is apparent from data in Fig. 5 (right), this antiserum recognized two proteins, calsequestrin itself and also calreticulin, to which it demonstrated a weak interaction. Calsequestrin of sea urchin eggs had a molecular mass (61 \pm 1 kDa, n = 5) similar or equal to mammalian muscle calsequestrin ($60 \pm 1 \text{ kDa}, n = 4$). In Xenopus oocytes and eggs, calsequestrin had a smaller molecular mass (57 \pm 1 kDa, n = 5). Both calreticulin and calsequestrin showed a similar distribution in fractionated preparations. In sea urchin eggs, microsomes were enriched in both proteins when compared to isolated cortices (Fig. 5, lanes 2 and 3). In Xenopus, calreticulin and calsequestrin were also present in the microsomal fraction with negligible amounts in melanosomes or yolk bodies (Fig. 5, lanes 4-7). In addition, *Xenopus* oocytes contained more of the Ca²⁺ binding proteins than eggs (Fig. 5, lanes 4 and 5).

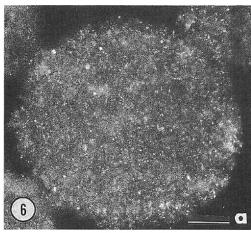
Cross-reactivity of the anti-calsequestrin antibodies with calreticulin is a widely observed problem which has led to confusion in the past (discussed in Michalak et al., 1992). Therefore, we affinity-purified the antiserum to chicken cardiac calsequestrin using purified rabbit skeletal muscle calsequestrin. The rationale was to obtain antibodies recognizing only evolutionarily conserved regions. The resulting antibody reacted with calsequestrin from various sources, including rabbit and Xenopus skeletal muscle, but not oocytes and eggs (data not shown). Presumably, the oocyte and egg calsequestrin shares a certain homology with chicken cardiac calsequestrin, but little or none with skeletal muscle calsequestrin.

Localization of calreticulin and calsequestrin. Calreticulin staining was comparable in the three species of sea urchins employed here and the pattern of localization was similar to that seen with affinity-purified antibody to the InsP₃R (Fig. 6). Staining consisted of particulate fluorescent deposits, which were present throughout the egg cytoplasm (Fig. 6a). Control preparations were negative (data not shown). In Xenopus oocytes and eggs localization of affinity-purified calreticulin antibody was also similar to that seen with affinity-purified antibody to the InsP₃R, i.e., fluorescent staining was present in the interstices between yolk bodies in both the AH (Fig. 6b) and the VH (data not shown). Control preparations of Xenopus oocytes and eggs stained only with the second antibody were negative (data not shown).

Immunolocalization of calsequestrin in sea urchin eggs confirmed the results of Henson et al. (1989). Eggs from all three species of sea urchins demonstrated a reticulum consisting of fine particulate staining throughout the cytoplasm, similar to the pattern seen with antibody to the InsP₃R. In *Xenopus* oocytes and eggs, there was an intense reactivity to the anti-calsequestrin antibody, which was localized to the interstices between the yolk bodies (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

Although functional effects of InsP₃ in sea urchin eggs have been described (Whitaker and Irvine, 1984; Clapper and Lee, 1985; Turner et al., 1986; Oberdorf et al., 1986; Swann and Whitaker, 1986), the presence and localization of an InsP₃R similar to that of higher organisms (Furuichi et al., 1989) have heretofore, not been determined. This is particularly important in view of the potential role of the InsP₃R in the propagation of Ca²⁺ waves in oocytes and eggs (Lechleiter and Clapham,



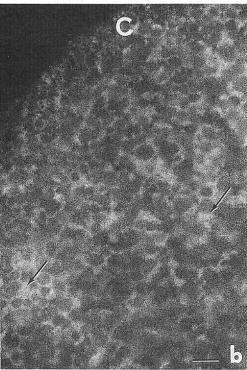


FIG. 6. Localization of calreticulin in L. pictus and Xenopus eggs. (a) Using an affinity-purified antibody against calreticulin, reaction deposits are distributed throughout the egg cytoplasm of L. pictus. Similar localization patterns are found in L. variegatus and S. purpuratus eggs. (b) Reactivity in the AH of Xenopus eggs forms a pattern similar to that seen with affinity-purified Rbt52 antibody in which relatively large islands (arrows) of staining are present. C, cortex. Scale bar, 10 μm.

1992; DeLisle and Welsh, 1992; Miyazaki *et al.*, 1992; Parys et al., 1992). Results of the present study indicate that: (1) microsomes from sea urchin eggs display a heparin-sensitive InsP₃ binding activity; (2) an affinitypurified antibody against the C-terminal of the type I InsP₃R recognizes a single protein band on immunoblots of sea urchin egg membranes; this protein band has a

different molecular mass than the InsP3R isoforms of mammalian brain or amphibian oocytes and eggs; and (3) calreticulin and calsequestrin (for calsequestrin see also Henson et al., 1989) have a distribution similar to that of the InsP₃R in eggs of sea urchins and Xenopus and are likely present in conjunction with InsP3-sensitive Ca2+ stores. The above observations are highly suggestive that egg components that react with anti-InsPaR are elements of the cortical and subcortical endoplasmic reticulum.

The specific InsP₃ binding activity measured in L. pictus microsomes is 10-20× higher than that present in microsomes of *Xenopus* oocytes and eggs (Parvs et al., 1992). The actual amount of receptor is, however, difficult to estimate, since aggregation of membrane vesicles (Parys et al., 1992), or inhibition of activity, e.g., by Na⁺, can lead to underestimation. The inhibition of binding by heparin is an important, distinguishing property common to the InsP₃R from various tissues, including those from mammalian brain (Supattapone et al., 1988), smooth muscle (Mourey et al., 1990), and Xenopus oocytes (Parys et al., 1992; see also DeLisle and Welsh, 1992).

In Strongylocentrotus droebachiensis both isolated cortices and microsomes sequester Ca2+ in an ATP-dependent manner, but InsP3-induced Ca2+ release is predominant in the former (Oberdorf et al., 1986). Similarly, InsP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release was measured in the cortical fraction of Arbacia punctulata (Terasaki and Sardet, 1991). In L. pictus, however, InsP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release was observed in a membrane fraction enriched in glucose-6-phosphatase, a marker for the endoplasmic reticulum (Clapper and Lee, 1985). These differences may reflect species variations, but as discussed by Oberdorf et al. (1986), they may be a manifestation of methodological differences, and in particular of the salt composition of the buffers used. Oberdorf et al.'s (1986) hypothesis, that a component necessary for InsP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release is lost in high-salt conditions, is in excellent agreement with our observations that NaCl inhibits InsP₃ binding in sea urchin egg microsomes.

An affinity-purified antibody against the C-terminal of the type I InsP₃R recognized only one protein on immunoblots from membrane fractions isolated from different species. In rabbit brain and Xenopus oocytes, proteins of 273 and 256 kDa were shown to represent two different InsPaR molecules (Parys et al., 1992). The lower molecular mass of the Xenopus oocyte/egg InsP₃R is predominantly due to the absence of the S I and S II splice regions (Kume et al., 1993). It should be pointed out that the above-mentioned molecular mass values are based on the mobility of the proteins on SDS-polyacrylamide gels. However, higher values have been obtained from sequence data of InsP₃R cloned from different sources (307 kDa, Südhof et al., 1991, Kume et al., 1993; 313 kDa, Furuichi et al., 1989; 319 kDa, Yoshikawa et al., 1992), indicating anomalous migration of the receptor during electrophoresis. It is, therefore, reasonable to suggest that the protein observed with a molecular mass of 373 kDa in sea urchin membranes represents an InsP₃R molecule. The difference in molecular mass, the extreme salt sensitivity of the InsP₃R binding site. the ineffectiveness of established purification procedures to successfully purify the sea urchin receptor, and the inability of the Goat44 polyclonal antibody to recognize the molecule suggest that a different isoform is present in sea urchin eggs. These distinctions, which may be due to differences in amino acid sequence and/or to post-translational modifications, are not surprising. Investigations with mammalian tissues have demonstrated the existence of several InsPaR isoforms, which are the products of at least three genes (Furuichi et al., 1989; Südhof et al., 1991; Ross et al., 1992), and of alternative splicing mechanisms (Mignery et al., 1990; Danoff et al., 1991; Nakagawa et al., 1991). Therefore, it is not unexpected that in evolutionarily distant phyla, other types of InsP₃R could evolve (see Yoshikawa et al., 1992). It is interesting to note that the ryanodine receptor in sea urchin eggs (McPherson et al., 1992) also has a molecular mass different from that of its mammalian, avian, amphibian, and piscine counterparts (Olivares et al., 1991), but is similar to that of the InsP₃R described in the present study.

The localization of the InsP₃R is essentially similar in the three species of sea urchins examined here, i.e., other than in the cortex, it is uniformly distributed throughout the egg cytoplasm. Such a distribution is consistent with experiments demonstrating that Ca²⁺ release is initiated at the site of sperm-egg interaction and propagates as a wave through the egg cytoplasm (Eisen et al., 1984; Eisen and Reynolds, 1984; Miyazaki et al., 1986; Hafner et al., 1988; Hamaguchi and Hamaguchi, 1990; Stricker et al., 1992). Variation in the intensity of cortical staining for InsP₃R in sea urchins may be related to a variety of factors, including the actual concentration of receptor within the cortex, the amount of cortical endoplasmic reticulum, the presence of cortical granules of different sizes and distribution, etc. Changes in each of these parameters would yield lesser or greater staining intensities.

Staining associated with the periphery of the female pronucleus in sea urchin eggs is intriguing as a number of laboratories have demonstrated that as the cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ wave passes this organelle, there is a significant intranuclear Ca²⁺ increase that is equal to and/or usually higher than that which occurs in the adjacent cytoplasm (Stricker *et al.*, 1990; Hamaguchi and Hamaguchi, 1990; Stricker *et al.*, 1992; Shen and Buck, 1993).

We have not determined whether InsP₃R reactivity associated with the female pronucleus is present in the nuclear envelope and/or in the perinuclear endoplasmic reticulum, but there is evidence for the presence of an InsP₃R in nuclear membranes of somatic cells (Otsu *et al.*, 1990; Walton *et al.*, 1991; Bachs *et al.*, 1992; Matter *et al.*, 1993). In this connection it is important to call attention to studies demonstrating that Ca²⁺ fluxes may be necessary for the activation of nuclear processes at and following fertilization (Whitaker and Patel, 1990; Tombes *et al.*, 1992).

Recent investigations have demonstrated that in addition to IICR, sea urchin eggs contain a CICR system, mediated by a ryanodine receptor (Rakow and Shen, 1990; Fujiwara et al., 1990; McPherson et al., 1992; Buck et al., 1992). In eggs of the three sea urchin species studied here, the ryanodine receptor is located exclusively within the cortical endoplasmic reticulum (McPherson et al., 1992), in sharp contrast to the fairly uniform distribution of the InsP₃R. The relationship of ryanodine and InsP₃ receptors to each other, physically and functionally, i.e., as Ca2+ channels located in the endoplasmic reticulum, and the timing and levels of their activity at egg activation, has yet to be determined. Interestingly, recent observations (Shen and Buck, 1993) of the spatiotemporal release of Ca2+ in sea urchin eggs induced by InsP₃, ryanodine, and cADP ribose are consistent with the localizations of InsP3 and ryanodine receptors described here and by McPherson et al. (1992), respec-

The endoplasmic reticulum of *Xenopus* eggs and oocytes has been shown to be an interconnected network distributed within the cortex and interstices between yolk bodies that occupy the AH and VH (Gardiner and Grey, 1983; Campanella et al., 1984; Andreucetti et al., 1984). The observations presented here demonstrate a fluorescent staining pattern consistent with such a network. These results are in agreement with recent investigations of Kume et al. (1993) in Xenopus oocytes and eggs. Parys et al. (1992), using the same affinity-purified antibody employed here, reported that the InsP₂R localized to the cortex and perinuclear cytoplasm, with virtually no staining in the remaining cytoplasm of Xenopus oocytes. This staining pattern was generated by less than optimal methods of specimen preparation and was not a result of differences in antibody specificity, as suggested by Kume et al. (1993). Although the overall staining patterns here are similar to those described by Kume et al. (1993), differences in relative intensity of the subcortex and deeper regions of the cytoplasm in the two studies are apparent and may be related to individual variations in specimens, as observed by Kume et al. (1993), as well as technical manipulations (e.g., egg procurement). The distribution of InsP₃R throughout the

egg as reported here is in agreement with data on stratified eggs (Han and Nuccitelli, 1990) and demonstrations that InsP₃-sensitive stores are present in *Xenopus* eggs to a depth of at least 180 μm from the cell surface (Larabell and Nuccitelli, 1992). Additionally, the present study, as well as that of Kume *et al.* (1993), provides a spatial context for the generation of waves of Ca²⁺ release observed in *Xenopus* (Lechleiter *et al.*, 1991a,b; Lechleiter and Clapham, 1992; DeLisle and Welsh, 1992) and potential insights into how the development of a capacity to undergo an effective cortical granule reaction and Ca²⁺ release might be realized during oocyte maturation (Charbonneau and Grey, 1984; Chiba *et al.*, 1990; Fujiwara *et al.*, 1993).

Observed differences in the molecular masses of calreticulin and calsequestrin among the different tissues investigated may be due to variations in amino acid sequence, glycosylation, or phosphorylation (Milner et al., 1992; Michalak et al., 1992). While calsequestrin seems confined (at least in chordates) to muscle (MacLennan et al., 1983) or (avian) brain (Volpe et al., 1990), calreticulin has been found in all eukaryotic cells investigated thus far (Michalak et al., 1992). In sea urchin eggs, only calsequestrin has been described (Oberdorf et al., 1988; Henson et al., 1989) and shown to have biochemical properties similar to cardiac calsequestrin (Lebeche and Kaminer, 1992). The localization of calsequestrin in the present study is similar to that described by Henson et al. (1989, 1990), who postulated that it may be involved in the regulation of Ca2+ at egg activation. That both calsequestrin and calreticulin are present in sea urchin and Xenopus eggs and demonstrate a pattern of localization similar to that of the InsP₃R suggest that all three proteins, in conjunction with the ryanodine receptor in sea urchin eggs, may be functionally interconnected and involved in the initiation and propagation of Ca2+ waves at egg activation (see also Shen and Buck, 1993).

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