A CYTOLOGICAL STUDY OF ARTIFICIAL PARTHENOGENESIS IN THE SEA URCHIN ARBACIA PUNCTULATA

MARTIN I. SACHS and EVERETT ANDERSON

From the Department of Zoology, The University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts 01002, and the Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Massachusetts 02543

ABSTRACT

Eggs of the sea urchin Arbacia punctulata were artificially activated with hypertonic seawater. The artificially activated eggs undergo the cortical reaction which is not distinguished by a wavelike progression as in the case of inseminated eggs. The cortical granules are released at random loci at the surface of the egg and result in spaces separated by large cytoplasmic projections. Unreacted cortical granules and ribosomes are found within the matrix comprising the large cytoplasmic projections. No "fertilization cone" is formed. The subsequent release of additional cortical granules results in the formation of a continuous perivitelline space, 15 min following activation. 85 min postactivation, an organization of annulate lamellae, endoplasmic reticulum of the smooth variety, and microtubules around a centriole is observed prior to nuclear division. Before the breakdown of the nuclear envelope a streak stage is formed. The streak is composed of a central core of annulate lamellae and is encompassed by endoplasmic reticulum and vesicular components. Condensation of chromatin is followed by the establishment of the mitotic apparatus. Centrioles were not found in the mature egg; however, they are present after activation prior to the first nuclear division, in the four-cell embryo, multicellular embryo, and at blastula. Artificially activated eggs have been observed to develop to the pluteus stage in more than 50% of the eggs treated.

INTRODUCTION

Natural parthenogenesis was first described by Greef in the Echinoderm Asterias glacialis (starfish) (18) and is now known to occur in many organisms. On the other hand, artificial parthenogenesis has attracted the attention of researchers since the Hertwigs (37) first gave an account of the basic features of this phenomenon by utilizing chloroform and strychnine as stimulating agents in the sea urchin, *Paracentrotus lividus*. Morgan (68) used various salt solutions including sodium, potassium, and magnesium chloride to artificially activate eggs of the sea urchin Arbacia punctulata. It was Loeb (54), however, who was the first to obtain parthenogenetic plutei of Arbacia punctulata by using magnesium chloride. Development has been stimulated by physical means such as application of heat or cold (35, 63, 64) and by the utilization of a variety of chemical means, e.g. sodium chloride (33, 54, 55, 64, 68), acids (33, 45, 55), strychnine (69), sucrose (55, 71), saponin (70), and many others (see 31). Cytological studies have been made of events associated with fertilization (2, 57, 58, 65, 67, 88, 94); however, few studies are available concerning those events associated with artificial parthenogenesis at the ultrastructural levels of observation

THE JOURNAL OF CELL BIOLOGY · VOLUME 47, 1970 · pages 140-158

(9, 59). The present study deals with artificially activated eggs of the sea urchin *Arbacia punctulata* and calls attention to (a) the cortical reaction, (b) streak formation, and (c) nuclear replication. These events are compared with those occurring in the inseminated egg.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Arbacia punctulata were obtained from The Marine Biological Laboratory at Woods Hole, Massachusetts, during the months of June, July, and August. They were induced to spawn by applying a 10v alternating current across the oral surface (30, 31). The eggs were collected according to the recommendation of Costello et al. (4). Eggs were artificially activated by placing them in seawater made hypertonic by the addition of 30 g of sodium chloride/ liter of seawater (44). The time of activation was considered to be the moment the eggs were placed in the hypertonic solution. The eggs were allowed to remain in the hypertonic seawater (19–22°C) for 20 min and were subsequently transferred to fresh seawater. Egg samples were taken at the following

intervals: 30 sec, 1, 3, and 5 min, and successive 5-min intervals until 95 min or the initiation of cleavage. Some of the cleaving eggs were permitted to develop to the pluteus stage. Activated eggs, cleaving stages, and plutei were studied by both phase-contrast optics and electron microscopy. The activated eggs from each of the above-mentioned times and the initial cleavage stage were prefixed for 2 hr in a 2% glutaraldehyde-seawater solution or in the glutaraldehyde-paraformaldehyde mixture of Karnovsky (48). After fixation, the specimens were washed in seawater, postfixed for 1 hr in a 1% solution of osmium tetroxide dissolved in seawater, rapidly dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol, infiltrated, and embedded in Epon (62). 1 μ sections, cut on a Porter-Blum MT-2 ultramicrotome, were stained according to the recommendation of Ito and Winchester (43). Thin sections were also obtained with the MT-2 ultramicrotome and stained with uranyl acetate followed by lead citrate (91), and were examined in an RCA EMU-3H electron microscope.

Eggs collected in the manner indicated above were inseminated with the "dry sperm" diluted with seawater (45). The inseminated eggs were fixed for



FIGURE 1 An electron micrograph depicting the untreated egg. MV, microvilli; CG, cortical granule; AL, annulate lamellae; M, mitochondria; GC, Golgi complex. \times 8,000.

light and electron microscopy (see above) or were observed with phase-contrast optics at 10-min intervals for 70 min through the initial cleavage.

OBSERVATIONS

Unactivated Egg

The morphology of an unactivated egg is shown in Fig. 1. The oolemma is projected into short microvilli (MV). Immediately beneath the oolemma is a population of cortical granules (CG) embedded in a matrix of free ribosomes and some vesicles. The ooplasmic components such as yolk droplets, annulate lamellae (AL), endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi complexes (GC), rod-containing vesicles, and pigment granules are randomly dispersed; the majority of mitochondria (M) are randomly distributed, but some are closely associated with lipid droplets.

Activated Egg

CORTICAL CHANGES: When the eggs are treated with hypertonic seawater they undergo a cortical reaction. Figs. 2, 5, 6 show the cortical region of the egg at 1, 5, and 10 min after being exposed to the activating medium. All of the cortical granules that are closely associated with the inner aspect of the oolemma do not fuse with the oolemma simultaneously when activated (Fig. 2, RCG; however, they fuse at random loci (Fig. 2) and Fig. 2 inset, see arrow). The artificially activated egg produces an activation calyx (Fig. 5, AC) and does not produce a protrusion reminiscent of an entrance cone like that of the inseminated egg (2, 57). The fusion of the membrane encompassing the cortical granule with the oolemma produces vesicular structures (Figs. 5, 6, V) over the contents of the cortical granules. Upon the completion of membrane fusion, the contents of



FIGURE 2 The surface of an egg, 1 min following activation with hypertonic seawater. CG, cortical granule; RCG, released cortical granule. \times 25,800. Inset is a photomicrograph of an egg 1 min postactivation, demonstrating the release of cortical granules. \times 400.

the cortical granules are released, initiating the formation of the perivitelline space (Fig. 6, PS). The release of the contents of all the cortical granules does not occur simultaneously, for "pillars" of unreacted cortical ooplasm which contain cortical granules, free ribosomes, and occasional pigment bodies are commonly found (Figs. 5, 6, P). The further release of the cortical granules results in the formation of a continuous perivitelline space limited by the "chorion" and the oolemma (Fig. 7, PS). In the artificially activated egg, the perivitelline space is smaller than that of the inseminated egg. As demonstrated for the inseminated egg (2), not all cortical granules are released during the initial reaction to the hypertonic seawater.

Within the relatively small perivitelline space, 30 min postactivation, the hyaline layer (Fig. 7, *HL*) may be observed directly beneath the "chorion" (Fig. 7, C) (also see 1). It is composed of a mat of fine, electron-opaque, filamentous material. By 65 min, the hyaline layer increases in thickness. Beneath the microvilli the cortical ooplasm is now composed of an accumulation of pigment bodies (Fig. 9, PB), few mitochondria, and dense yolk bodies. The cortical ooplasm contains numerous rod-containing vesicles. As in the inseminated eggs, the rods are released subsequent to the release of the contents of the cortical granules. The rodlike structures become associated with the components of the hyaline layer (Fig. 9, R).

When cytokinesis is initiated $(1\frac{1}{2}-4\frac{1}{2}$ hr postactivation), the periphery of the embryo is characterized by a well-developed hyaline layer (Fig. 9, *HL*), long microvilli (Fig. 8, *MV*), and an almost continuous stratum of pigment bodies (Fig. 9, *PB*) immediately beneath the plasma membrane.

OOPLASM: The mitochondria show an inter-



FIGURE 3 An electron micrograph of an egg in hypertonic seawater for 1 min, showing a Golgi complex (GC) associated with coated vesicles (**) closely associated with annulate lamellae (AL). \times 25,000.

FIGURE 4 An electron micrograph of an egg 1 min following activation, depicting mitochondria (M) clustered around lipid droplets (L). \times 38,000.



FIGURE 5 An electron micrograph of the surface of an egg, 5 min following activation. P, pillars of unreacted ooplasm containing cortical granules (CG); V, vesicles; AC, activation calyx. \times 21,000.

FIGURE 6 An electron micrograph of the surface of an egg, 10 min following activation, showing the reduction in number and thickness of the pillars (P) which contain cortical granules (CG). V, vesicles; PS, incomplete perivitelline space. \times 17,000. The phase-contrast photomicrograph (*inset*) of a living *Arbacia* egg depicts the appearance of the egg at the light microscope level. Note the striated appearance of the perivitelline region. \times 450.

nal configuration similar to that of the unactivated egg. At 1 min postactivation, there appears to be a close spatial association between mitochondria (Fig. 4, M) and lipid droplets (Fig. 4, L). There also appears an intimate association between the Golgi complex (Fig. 3, GC) and its associated coated vesicles (Fig. 3, *) and the annulate lamellae (Fig. 3, AL) similar to that observed during pronuclear development in the rabbit (58). Centrioles have not been described in the unfertilized egg (2, 92) and have not been observed in the artificially activated eggs until the formation of the aster (9, 80).

FORMATION OF THE STREAK STAGE: According to Harvey (31), in inseminated eggs, a monaster is formed after the fusion of the male and female pronuclei. Subsequently "The rays disappear and the centrosome (probably) divides forming a curved disk over the nucleus . . .". Harvey (31) defines this stage as the *streak stage*. In the case of eggs treated with hypertonic seawater, a streak stage is also formed. Closely associated with the nuclear envelope (Fig. 11, NE), prior to the forma-

tion of the streak stage (60 min postactivation), are stacks of annulate lamellae (Figs. 10-12, AL). Occasionally, one sees intranuclear annulate lamellae (Fig. 11, IAL). Concomitant with the organization of the annulate lamellae, centrioles (one, two, or three) may be observed (Figs. 15, 16, 17, C) associated with microtubules (Fig. 17, MT) and endoplasmic reticulum (Fig. 15, ER). Together, the latter organelles form an aster (Figs. 15, 18, *inset a*, AS) which is similar to that reported for the sperm (57, also see 26, 27).

The annulate lamellae (Fig. 13, AL) become dispersed from their circumnuclear configuration, initiating the elongation of the aster and the formation of the streak. The inset of Figs. 13 and 14 is a phase-contrast photomicrograph of a streak (ST) stage 85 min postactivation. The streak is characterized by annulate lamellae (Fig. 14, AL) arranged in parallel array encompassed by endoplasmic reticulum and vesicular components. Occasionally, one finds mitochondria amongst the annulate lamellae comprising the streak; however, protein-carbohydrate yolk bodies (Fig. 14, Y) are



FIGURE 7 An electron micrograph of the surface of an egg 30 min postactivation, C, "chorion"; HL, hyaline layer; PS, perivitelline space. \times 6,500.



FIGURE 8 The surface of an egg at the time of cytokinesis, depicting the hyaline layer (HL), microvilli (MV), and pigment bodies (PB). \times 16,000.

FIGURE 9 A section of an artificially activated egg 65 min postactivation. *HL*, hyaline layer; *R*, rodlike structures; *PB*, pigment bodies. \times 25,000.

excluded. The conformation of the annulate lamellae (streak) extends from the tips of the longitudinal axes of the now elliptical nucleus toward the plasmalemma. We have observed that eggs artificially activated with hypertonic seawater may remain in the streak stage for 1–3 hr before dividing. Inseminated eggs remain in the streak stage for only approximately 25 min.

NUCLEUS: The pronucleus contains a granular nucleoplasm in which are suspended nucleoluslike structures (Figs. 10, 15, NL). The pronucleus is surrounded by a perforated nuclear envelope. At 85 min postactivation, the pronucleus elongates with a concomitant condensation of its chromatin followed by a breakdown of the pronuclear envelope (Fig. 18, CH, and *inset a*).

At metaphase (Fig. 18, *inset b*) and anaphase (Figs. 18, 19, *inset c*) the chromosomes appear as dense masses of granular material embedded within a matrix of ribosomes (Fig. 18, MR). The

mitotic apparatus (Fig. 18, *inset b* (SA), c; Fig. 19) is composed of predominantly microtubules (Fig. 19, MT) with some endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and ribosomes (see 26, 27, 57). At the periphery of the mitotic apparatus may be found mitochondria (Fig. 19, M) and yolk bodies.

At telophase, the chromosomes (Fig. 20, CH) are elongated in the direction of the centrioles (Fig. 20, C) and are often found in intimate association with nucleolus-like bodies (Fig. 20, NL). Microtubules (Fig. 20, MT), mitochondria, and annulate lamellae are also found among the chromosomes. A perforated envelope forms around the chromosomes, establishing chromosome-containing vesicles (karyomeres) (Fig. 20, *inset*) (see 94). Fusion of the chromosome-containing vesicles and subsequent dispersal of the chromatin results in the formation of two nuclei prior to cytokinesis (Fig. 21). Each of these nuclei contains some dense chromatin material (CH).



FIGURE 10 A section through the nucleus of an egg 50 min following activation. NL, nucleolus-like bodies; AL, annulate lamellae. \times 22,000.

Development to the Pluteus Larva

First cleavage of artificially activated eggs occurs between $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{2}$ hr and results in the two-cell embryo (Fig. 22). Ensuing cleavages result in various multicellular stages (Figs. 23-26). The cells of the multicellular embryo (of which the electron micrographs are not included) are spherical and contain the regularly occurring organelles including centrioles, microtubules, mitochondria, smooth and rough forms of endoplasmic reticulum. Large quantities of yolk are present, but there is a reduction in the amount of lipid. The cells of the morula stage are often found associated by tight junctions.

The blastula contains elongated polarized cells with apically situated nuclei. The cells of the ciliated blastula contain organelles similar to those described for the multicellular stage. The pluteus appears, at the light microscope level, to be identical with that formed from the inseminated egg.

DISCUSSION

Cortical Reaction

Evidence obtained during this study suggests that the complex cortical reaction of the eggs of the

sea urchin, Arbacia, brought about by treatment with hypertonic seawater, is different from that initiated by insemination (see 2, 13). Artificially activated eggs do not demonstrate the wavelike propagation of cortical granule release seen in inseminated eggs (65). The perivitelline space formed as a result of the cortical reaction is smaller in the artificially activated egg, although the mechanism by which the cortical granule reaction occurs, i.e. fusion and vesiculation as discussed by Anderson (2), appears to be the same for the artificially activated egg and the inseminated egg.

The fact that an increase in tonicity, via the addition of 3% sodium chloride to seawater, induces the cortical reaction suggests that this reaction is due to a change in the water and/or ion content of the egg. Loeb (55) wrote that "It appeared to me that nothing would more clearly demonstrate the sovereign role that electrolytes play in the phenomena of life than by causing, if possible, with their help, unfertilized eggs to develop into larvae." In subjecting *Arbacia* eggs to a hypertonic sodium chloride solution, the actual activating agent in the solution could be a change in water flow, the sodium or chloride ions, or, possibly, a change in the surface of the egg. We choose



FIGURE 11 An electron micrograph of an artificially activated egg 60 min following activation, depicting annulate lamellae (AL) and intranuclear annulate lamellae (IAL). Note the nuclear envelope (NE). \times 29,000.

FIGURE 12 An electron micrograph taken of an egg 75 min postactivation showing annulate lamellae (AL) circumferentially located around the nucleus. Note mitochondria (M) and yolk (Y). \times 12,000.

to discuss the possibility of a change in water flow or sodium ion as the activating agent. Discussion favoring the concept that water flow, causing either a decrease or increase in the amount of water in the cgg, is responsible for the initiation of the cortical reaction is based largely on the fact that the oolemma acts as a selectively permeable membrane (33, 61, 64). Eggs subjected to hypotonic solution maintain their shape, although there appears to be an increase in volume. When returned to seawater the eggs undergo shrinkage, indicating that the moiety passing through the plasma membrane is water and that the salt content in the egg probably remains constant (61). Many investigators consider that the loss of water from an egg placed in hypertonic seawater is the factor causing what they refer to as the "explosion" of the cortical ooplasm (33, 40, 54, 55, 68). Heilbrunn (33, 34) suggested that treatment with various agents including sodium chloride causes a marked change in the viscosity of the cortical cytoplasm. Recent investigation by Anderson (unpublished data) has demonstrated that there is a change in the position of the cortical granules when treated with sodium chloride or urethane and then centrifuged at high speeds (also see 29). In eggs so treated, the cortical granules abandon their peripheral position and form a stratum. The change in the cortical granule membrane-oolemma relationship does not explain, however, what would dittiate the fusion and subsequent vesiculation process associated with the cortical reaction.

The concentration of the sodium chloride and the exposure time of the eggs to the hypertonic medium are both critical if development is to ensue. Examinations of swelling and shrinkage are only crude indicators of water flow. It would be must fruitful to have the techniques of (a) diffusion tracing and (b) bulk flow brought to bear on the unactivated and initially activated *Arbacia* egg in order to establish, quantitatively, the actual rate and amount of water flow at activation. These techniques, used on artificial membranes, have demonstrated the ability to measure water flow



FIGURE 13 A section of an egg 65 min postactivation, showing the initiation of streak formation. N, nucleus; AL, annulate lamellae; GC, Golgi complex. \times 11,000.

FIGURE 14 An electron micrograph depicting the components of the streak stage. AL, annulate lamellae; M, mitochondria; Y, yolk. \times 11,660. The *inset* is a phase-contrast photomicrograph of the living egg illustrating the streak (ST). \times 300.



FIGURE 15 A section through the aster (AS) (60 min postactivation), which consists of endoplasmic reticulum (ER), annulate lamellae (AL), and a centriole (C). Note the nucleolus-like body (NL). \times 19,000.

FIGURE 16 An electron micrograph showing three centricles (C) adjacent to the nucleus (N). 60 min postactivation. \times 18,000.

(16, 22, 38, 72). They have been applied to oocytes of the frog *Rana* and have led investigators to believe that cytoplasmic resistance to water flow is a factor to be considered as well as the physical state of the membrane (7, 55, 60, 76). This is especially significant in many eggs, where the ooplasm is filled with a variety of inclusions, all of which may act as a type of endogenous buffer. This may help to explain the ability of the unactivated egg to maintain its shape when placed in an anisotonic-activating solution.

An alternative hypothesis would be that there is an ion flow into the egg initiated by the increase of Na⁺⁺ and Cl⁻⁻ ions in the hypertonic seawater. In fresh seawater, the sodium ion concentration outside the *Arbacia* egg far exceeds that found in the ooplasm (67, 73, 79, 89). This information, coupled with the findings of Ohnishi (75) that there is an ATP-dependent active transport system in the oolemma, suggests that the oolemma may be not simply a passive barrier to sodium entrance, but instead is equipped to maintain the transmembrane potential via active transport. Ussing (90) and others (6, 36, 51, 86, 93) have stated that active transport, in various cells and tissues responsible for the maintenance of transmembrane potential, can be virtually eliminated by introducing the cells to an osmotic gradient, resulting in a change in the volume of the cell. Thus, when Arbacia is subjected to our hypertonic solution the shrinkage may lead to an influx of sodium. The possible relationship of this influx to the initiation of the cortical granule release is unclear.



FIGURE 17 A section through an egg 60 min after activation. C, centrioles; MT, microtubules; L, lipid; Y, yolk; M, mitochondria. \times 38,000.

Nucleus

We have seen that the pronucleus (containing the haploid number of chromosomes) can be activated to go through periods of development leading to its division. Division eventually leads to the formation of a pluteus larva. Development, upon activation with hypertonic seawater, proceeds, in a very large percentage of eggs, to the streak stage. Often there is a temporary arrest of the nuclear activity at the streak stage in development, e.g. approximately 1–3 hr. This temporary arrest suggests to us that, in order for development to continue, an "activation" of the nucleus must occur.

In connection with the activation of the nucleus in other systems, some investigators have indicated that an informational transfer between cytoplasm and nucleus results in a change in nuclear activity, for example, DNA replication, RNA synthesis, and protein synthesis (14, 15, 23–25, 39, 47, 49, 74). In our study, the activation of the nucleus could be a direct result of ion or water flow from cytoplasm to nucleus, or possibly an indirect effect of a change in the ion constituency in the cytoplasm, inducing macromolecular synthesis which, in turn, transfers information to the nucleus.

A number of studies have demonstrated a definite relation between the effect of ion and water shifts between the nucleus and the cytoplasm and the activation of nuclear activity. In Dipteran salivary glands, Loewenstein et al. (56) have demonstrated an appreciable resistance of the nuclear envelope. Furthermore, the permeability of the nuclear envelope undergoes changes during development (42; also 41). The change in permeability is accompanied by a change in total DNA content and total protein and is related to the effect of ecdysone. The relationship between the changes mentioned, and the action of the chromosomal puffs, may well be dependent upon ion flow into the nucleus (49, 50, 52, 56). In this connection, Kroeger (49) states that the "genetic loci activated in vitro by ions are also activated by these ions in normal development and that ecdysone exerts it effect on the puffing pattern by stimulating the sodium pump; the consequential change in the internal ion balance of the cell activates the re-



FIGURE 18 An electron micrograph of an egg at early anaphase, depicting the chromosome (CH), associated with microtubules (MT) and ribosomes (MR), 110 min postactivation. \times 27,000.

FIGURE 19 A section through a mitotic figure at anaphase, 110 min postactivation, showing mitochrondria (M), endoplasmic reticulum (ER), yolk (Y), microtubules (MT). \times 34,240.

Insets a, b, c Photomicrographs of artificially activated eggs at 95 minutes (a) prophase, 100 min (b) metaphase, and 105–115 min postactivation (c) anaphase. CH, chromosome; AS, aster; SA, spindle apparatus. a, b, c, \times 400.



FIGURE 20 An electron micrograph through telophase stage of mitosis of an embryo (110-120 min postactivation). CH, chromatin; C, centriole; MT, microtubules; AL, annulate lamellae; NL, nucleoluslike body; M, mitochondria. Inset is an electron micrograph demonstrating the perforated membranebounded, chromosome-containing vesicle (CV). Fig. 20, \times 10,600; Inset, \times 34,000.

FIGURE 21 A section through an embryo (120 min postactivation) illustrating the membrane-bounded nuclei and chromatin (CH). \times 17,000.

FIGURE 22 A phase-contrast photomicrograph of a two-cell stage, living embryo $(3\frac{1}{2} \text{ hr following activation with hypertonic seawater})$. \times 250.

FIGURE 23 A phase-contrast photomicrograph of a four-cell stage, living embryo $(4\frac{1}{2})$ hr following activation with hypertonic seawater). \times 400.

FIGURE 24 A phase-contrast photomicrograph of a living multicellular embryo (10-12 hr following activation). \times 300.

FIGURE 25 A phase-contrast photomic rograph of a living early gastrula (24–30 hr postactivation). \times 500.

FIGURE 26 A phase-contrast photomicrograph of a living, swimming pluteus larva (48 hr following activation). \times 500.

spective genes." Further evidence of the effect of ion and water changes in the nucleus on the initiation of nuclear activity have been described by Harris (23–25). In hybrid cells in which erythrocyte nuclei become associated with HeLa cell cytoplasm, Harris (23–25) notes changes in nuclear volume and chromatin dispersion. He suggests that the nuclei are affected by shifts of water and electrolytes across the nuclear envelope. He has found these effects in hybrid cells regardless of species differences. Another example of the possible effects of egg cytoplasm in inducing a change in the nuclear volume and concomitant nuclear activity is in the nuclear transplantation studies. Swelling of the transplanted nuclei is often observed (19, 20, 21, 84) and is found to precede a period of DNA synthesis. The swelling may directly affect the chromosomes or, as Gurdon (20) sug-

154 The Journal of Cell Biology · Volume 47, 1970

gests, may induce the transplanted nuclei to be susceptible to a cytoplasmic factor which thus results in DNA synthesis.

It is not unusual for physical agents, such as ion and water balance, light, heat, etc., to control cellular activity. The ability to artificially synchronize cellular activity in many organisms is a demonstration of the effect of a change in the physical environment of the cell that results in a regulation of cellular activity. Synchronization represents a specialized form of intracellular communication between nucleus and cytoplasm, resulting in a dramatic demonstration of the interdependence of these two cellular compartments.

In many cases, the eggs of some organisms remain diploid after artificial activation. Presumably the diploid condition is achieved by the retention of the second polar body in the final division of maturation (see 12). In the case of *Arbacia*, the egg is shed in the haploid pronuclear stage. We have not been able to ascertain the ploidy state of the nuclei of the artificially activated eggs. It would be of great interest to analyze the replication of DNA prior to first cleavage and in ensuing cleavages to determine if and when the diploid amount of DNA is restored.

Centrioles

The aster in the artificially activated egg is composed of a multitude of vesicular structures embedded in a matrix which also contains microtubules and annulate lamellae oriented around a centriole.

In their investigations, Anderson (2), Longo and Anderson (57), Harris (28), and Verhey and Moyer (92) did not report centrioles in the unactivated egg of *Arbacia*. The possibility exists that centrioles are present in the unactivated egg (see 94), but the alternative possibility, i.e. that one is organized from submicroscopic precursors, is strongly suggested. Evidence for centriole morphogenesis has been demonstrated in the work of Dingle and Fulton (8) and Schuster (81) on the protozoan *Naegleria*.

The artificially activated egg has been demonstrated to contain a centriole prior to the first cleavage (9, 80). The present study illustrates the presence of centrioles before and during the first cleavage, as well as in the four-cell stage embryo, multicellular embryo, and blastula.

In the artificially activated egg, the presence of centrioles and their replication may provide the catalyst for the organization of monomers into those microtubules that constitute the spindle apparatus. Microtubules have been seen emanating from the lateral surface of centrioles, or satellites associated with centrioles (5, 77, 85). Moreover, when the cell is treated with colchicine, low temperature, or hydrostatic pressure, or when the cell is not in mitosis (78), pieces of microtubules may be found associated with the centrille (87). Thus, both the centrioles and microtubules, owing to their consistency in the form they assume and in their temporal appearance within the cell, lend themselves to the assembly theory. The temporal and spatial relationship strongly suggests that the centriole does orient microtubular assembly in the formation of the aster. We have observed, in some artificially activated eggs, the presence of many cytasters (10). We were not able, however, to determine if all these cytasters were centered around centrioles. The fate of these eggs with multiple cytasters was not determined.

Voluminous studies on the origin of basal bodies (possessing centriolar architecture) indicate that procentrioles develop further into basal bodies of cilia (11, 17, 46, 82, 83). The procentriolar structure has also been discussed in the formation of centrioles in the sperm of the water fern *Marsilea* (66). The aforementioned study lends further support to our suggestion that centriole formation in the artificially activated egg is a process of assembly in various steps to produce what may be then morphologically identifiable as a centriole.

Parthenogenesis

The production of an embryo from a female gamete without any genetic contribution from a male gamete, or parthenogenesis (natural or artificial), is found in many phyla, including Echinodermata, Mollusca, Annelida, Arthropoda, Rotifera and Chordata (3, 32). The ubiquity of this phenomenon, together with the fact that in many cases the embryo produced is functionally similar to that produced as a result of fertilization, emphasizes the egg's capability to support development. In the present study, "normal"-appearing plutei developed upon artificial stimulation. The development to the pluteus larva does not assure one that development to the adult sea urchin will follow, but it does suggest that within the machinery of the mature egg the potential for all of the events necessary for larval development is present.

Tyler (88) has stated that "While the discovery

of artificial parthenogenesis did not bring the realization of the early hopes that problems of fertilization would be readily solved, it has greatly enlarged the scope of the attack on the problem of activation by substituting relatively simple chemical and physical agents for the spermatozoon."

This investigation was supported by a grant (HD 04924-09) from the National Institutes of Child Health and Human Development, United States Public Health Service.

Received for publication 9 February 1970, and in revised form 1 April 1970.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- ANDERSON, E. 1967. The formation of the primary envelope during oocyte differentiation in teleosts. J. Cell Biol. 35:193.
- 2. ANDERSON, E. 1968. Oocyte differentiation in the sea urchin, *Arbacia punctulata*, with particular reference to the origin of cortical granules and their participation in the cortical reaction. J. Cell Biol. 37:514.
- 3. BEATTY, R. A. 1967. Parthenogenesis in vertebrates. In Fertilization. C. B. Metz and A. Monroy, editors. Academic Press Inc., New York. 1: 413.
- COSTELLO, D. P., M. E. DAVIDSON, A. EGGERS, M. H. FOX, and C. HENLEY. 1957. Methods for Obtaining and Handling Marine Eggs and Embryos. Lancaster Press, Inc., Lancaster, Pa.
- DETHÉ, G. 1964. Cytoplasmic microtubules in different animal cells. J. Cell Biol. 23:265.
- DEYRUP, I. 1953. A study of the fluid uptake of rat kidney slices in vitro. J. Gen. Physiol. 36:739.
- DICK, D. A. T. 1966. Cell Water. Butterworth, Washington, D. C.
- DINGLE, A. D. and C. FULTON. 1966. Development of the flagellate apparatus of Naeglaria. J. Cell Biol. 31:43.
- 9. DIRKSEN, E. R. 1961. The presence of centrioles in artificially activate sea urchin eggs. J. Biophys. Biochem. Cytol. 11:244.
- DIRKSEN, E. R. 1964. The isolation and characterization of asters from artificially activated sea urchin eggs. *Exp. Cell Res.* 36:256.
- DIRKSEN, E. R., and T. T. CROCKER. 1966. Centriole replication in differentiating ciliated cells of mammalian respiratory epithelium. An electron microscopic study. J. Microsc. 5: 629.
- EBERT, J. D. 1965. Interacting Systems in Development. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York.

- ENDO, Y. 1961. Changes in the cortical layer of the sea urchin eggs at fertilization as studied with the electron microscope. I. *Clypeaster japonicus. Exp. Cell Res.* 25:383.
- FELDHERR, C. M. 1962 a. The intracellular distribution of ferritin following microinjection. J. Cell Biol. 12:159.
- FELDHERR, C. M. 1962 b. The use of colloidal gold for studies of intracellular exchanges in the amoeba *Chaos chaos. J. Cell Biol.* 12:640.
- FINKLESTEIN, A., and A. J. CASS. 1968. Permeability and electrical properties of thin lipid membranes. J. Gen. Physiol. 52:1.
- FRISCH, D. 1967. Fine structure of the early differentiation of ciliary basal bodies. Anat. Rec. 157:245.
- GREEFF, R. 1876. Uber den bau und die entwicklung der Echinodermen. 5. Mittheilung, Parthenogenesis bei den Seesternen. Sitzungsber. Gesells. Beförd Gesammt. Naturwiss. Marburg. 83.
- GURDON, J. B. 1967. Nuclear transplantation and cell differentiation. *In* Ciba Symposium on Cell Differentiation. A. V. S. De Reuck and J. Knight, editors. Churchill Ltd., London. 65.
- GURDON, J. B. 1968. Changes in somatic cell nuclei inserted into growing and maturing amphibian oocytes. J. Embryol. Exp. Morphol. 20:401.
- GURDON, J. B., and H. R. WOODLAND. 1968. The cytoplasmic control of nuclear activity in animal development. *Biol. Rev.* 43:233.
- HANAI, T., D. A. HAYDON, and W. R. REDwood. 1966. The water permeability of artificial bimolecular leaflets. A comparison of radiotracer and osmotic methods. Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci. 137:731.
- HARRIS, H. 1966. Hybrid cells from mouse and man: A study in genetic regulation. Proc. Roy. Soc. Series B. 166:538.
- HARRIS, H. 1968. Nucleus and Cytoplasm. Oxford Press, Oxford, England.
- HARRIS, H., E. SIDEBOTTOM, D. M. GRACE, and M. E. BROMWELL. 1969. The expression of genetic information. A study with hybrid animal cells. J. Cell Sci. 4:499.
- HARRIS, P. 1961. Electron microscopic study of mitosis in sea urchin blastomeres. J. Cell Biol. 11:419.
- HARRIS, P. 1965. Some observations concerning metakinesis in sea urchin eggs. J. Cell Biol. 25:73.
- HARRIS, P. 1967. Nucleolus-like bodies in sea urchin eggs. Amer. Zool. 7:753.
- 29. HARVEY, E. B. 1933. Effects of centrifugal force on fertilized eggs of *Arbacia punctulata* as
- 156 The Journal of Cell Biology · Volume 47, 1970

observed with the centrifuge microscope. *Biol. Bull.* **65:**389.

- HARVEY, E. B. 1952. Electrical methods of sexing Arbacia and obtaining small quantities of eggs. Biol. Bull. 103:284.
- HARVEY, E. B. 1956. The American Arbacia and Other Sea Urchins. Princeton University Press, Princeton, N. J.
- HARVEY, E. N. 1910. Methods of artificial parthenogenesis. *Biol. Bull.* 18:269.
- HEILBRUNN, L. V. 1915. Studies in artificial parthenogenesis. II. Physical changes in the egg of *Arbacia*. *Biol. Bull.* 29:149.
- HEILBRUNN, L. V. 1924. The colloid chemistry of protoplasm. III. The viscosity of cytoplasm at various temperatures. *Amer. J. Physiol.* 68: 645.
- HEILBRUNN, L. V. 1925. Studies in artificial parthenogenesis. IV. Heat parthenogenesis. J. Exp. Zool. 41:243.
- 36. HEINZ, E. 1967. Transport through biological membranes. Ann. Rev. Physiol. 29:21.
- 37. HERTWIG, O., and R. HERTWIG. 1887. Über den Befruchtungs-und Teilungsvorgang des tierischen Eies unter dem Einfluss Äusserer Agentien. Jena Z. Naturforsch. 13:120.
- HUANG, C., and T. E. THOMPSON. 1966. Properties of lipid bilayer membranes separating two aqueous phases: Water permeability. J. Mol. Biol. 15:539.
- HOROWITZ, S. B. and I. R. FENICHEL. 1968. Analysis of glycerol-³H transport in the frog oocyte by extractive and autoradiographic techniques. J. Gen. Physiol. 51:703.
- ISHIKAWA, M. 1954. Relation between the breakdown of the cortical granules and permeability to water in the sea urchin egg. *Embryologia*. 2:57.
- ITO, S. 1962. Resting and activation potential of the Oryzias egg. 2. Change of membrane potential and resistance during fertilization. *Embryologia*. 7:47.
- 42. ITO, S., and W. R. LOEWENSTEIN. 1965. Permeability of a nuclear membrane: Changes during normal development and changes induced by growth hormone. *Science (Washington)*. 150:909.
- 43. ITO, S., and R. J. WINCHESTER. 1963. The fine structure of the gastric mucosa in the rat. J. *Cell Biol.* 16:541.
- 44. JUST, E. E. 1922. Initiation of development in the egg of Arbacia. I. Effect of hypertonic sea water in producing membrane separation, cleavage and top swimming plutei. Biol. Bull. 43:384.
- 45. JUST, E. E. 1939. Basic Methods for Experiments on Eggs of Marine Animals. P. Blakiston's Son and Co., Inc., Philadelphia, Pa.

- KALINIS, V. I., and K. R. PORTER. 1969. Centriole replication during ciliogenesis in the chick tracheal epithelium. Z. Zellforsch. 100:7.
- 47. KANNO, Y., and W. R. LOEWENSTEIN. 1963. A study of the nucleus and cell membranes of oocytes with an intracellular electrode. *Exp. Cell Res.* 31:149.
- KARNOVSKY, M. 1965. A formaldehyde-glutaraldehyde fixative of high osmolarity for use in electron microscopy. J. Cell Biol. 27:137a. (Abstr.)
- 49. KROEGER, H. 1966. Potential differenz und Puff-muster. Electrophysiologische und cytologische Untersuchungen an den Speicheldrüsen von Chironomus thummi. Exp. Cell Res. 41:64.
- 50. LAUFER, H., and Y. NAKASE. 1965. Salivary gland secretion and its relation to chromosomal puffing in the dipteran *Chironomus Thummi. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 53:511.
- 51. LEAF, A. 1956. On mechanisms of fluid exchanges in vitro. *Biochem. J.* 62:241.
- LEZZI, M. 1966. Induktion eines Ecdysonaktivierbaren Puff in isolierten Zellkernen von Chironomus durch KCL. Exp. Cell Res. 43:571.
- 53. LING, G. N., N. M. OCHSENFELD and G. KAR-REMAN. 1967. Is the cell membrane a universal rate limiting barrier to the movement of water between the living cell and its surrounding medium? J. Gen. Physiol. 50:1807.
- LOEB, J. 1900. On the artificial production of normal larva from the unfertilized eggs of the sea urchin (Arbacia). Amer. J. Physiol. 3:434.
- LOEB, J. 1913. Artificial Parthenogenesis and Fertilization. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.
- LOEWENSTEIN, W. R., Y. KANNO, and S. ITO. 1966. Permeability of nuclear membranes. Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci. 137:708.
- 57. LONGO, F. J., and E. ANDERSON. 1968. The fine structure of pronuclear development and fusion in the sea urchin Arbacia punctulata. J. Cell Biol. 39:339.
- 58. LONGO, F. J., and E. ANDERSON. 1969. Cytological events leading to the formation of the two cell stage in the rabbit: Association of the maternally and paternally derived genomes. J. Ultrastruct. Res. 29:86.
- LÖNNIG, S. 1967. Studies of the ultrastructure of sea urchin eggs subjected to hypotonic and hypertonic medium. Arbok. Univ. Bergen. Med. Ser. 5:1.
- LØVTRUP, S. 1963. On the rate of water exchange across the surface of animal cells. J. Theor. Biol. 5:341.
- LUCKE, B., and M. MCCUTCHEON. 1932. The living cell as an osmotic system and its permeability to water. *Physiol. Rev.* 12:68.
- 62. LUFT, J. H. 1961. Improvements in epoxy

resin embedding methods. J. Biophys. Biochem. Cytol. 9:409.

- MATHEWS, A. P. 1900. Some ways of causing mitotic division in unfertilized Arbacia eggs. *Biol. Bull.* 29:149.
- MCCLENDON, J. F. 1909. On artificial parthenogenesis of the sea urchin egg. Science (Washington). 30:454.
- 65. MITCHISON, J. M., and M. M. SWANN. 1952. Optical changes in the membranes of the sea urchin egg at fertilization, mitosis and cleavage. J. Exp. Biol. 29:357.
- MIZUGAMI, I., and J. GALL. 1966. Centriole replication. II. Sperm formation in the fern, *Marsilea*, and the cycad, *Zamia. J. Cell Biol.* 29:97.
- MONROY, A. 1965. Chemistry and Physiology of Fertilization. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York.
- MORGAN, T. H. 1898. The effect of salt solutions on unfertilized eggs of *Arbacia*. Science (Washington). 7:222.
- MORGAN, T. H. 1900. The effect of strychnine on the unfertilized eggs of sea urchins. Science (Washington). 11:178.
- MOSER, F. 1939. Studies on a cortical layer response to stimulating agents in the *Arbacia* egg. II. Response to chemical and physical agents. J. Exp. Zool. 80:447.
- MOSER, F. 1940. Studies on a cortical layer response to stimulating agents in the Arbacia egg. III. Response to chemical and physical agents. *Biol. Bull.* 78:68.
- MUELLER, P., and D. O. RHUDIN. 1968. Resting and action potentials in experimental bimolecular lipid membranes. J. Theor. Biol. 18:222.
- MUIR, C., and H. C. MACGREGOR. 1969. Sodium and potassium in oocytes of *Triturus* cristatus. J. Cell Sci. 4:299.
- 74. NAORA, H., H. NAORA, M. IZAWA, V. G. ALL-FREY, and A. E. MIRSKY. 1962. Some observations on differences in composition between the nucleus and cytoplasm of the frog oocyte. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 48:853.
- OHNISHI, T. 1963. Adenosine triphosphatase activity relating to active transport in the cortex of sea urchin eggs. J. Biochem. 53:238.
- PRESCOTT, D. M., and E. ZEUTHEN. 1953. Comparison of water diffusion and water filtration across cell surfaces. Acta Physiol. Scand. 28:77.
- ROBBINS, E., and GONATAS, N. K. 1964. The ultrastructure of a mammalian cell during the mitotic cycle. J. Cell Biol. 21:429.
- ROBBINS, E., G. JENTZSCH, and A. MICALI. 1968. The centriole cycle in synchronized Hela cells. J. Cell Biol. 36:329.
- 79. ROTHSCHILD, L., and H. BARNES. 1953. The

inorganic constituents of the sea urchin egg. J. Exp. Biol. 30:534.

- SACHS, M. I., and E. ANDERSON. 1969. A cytological study of events associated with artificial parthenogenesis in the sea urchin Arbacia punctulata. J. Cell Biol. 43:29A. (Abstr.)
- SCHUSTER, F. 1963. An electron microscope study of the amoeba-flagellate, Naeglaria gruberi (Schardinger). J. Protozool. 10:297.
- SOROKIN, S. P. 1968. Reconstruction of centriole formation and ciliogenesis in mammalian lungs. J. Cell Sci. 3:209.
- 83. SOROKIN, S. P., and S. J. ADELSTEIN. 1967. Failure of 1100 rads of X radiation to affect ciliogenesis and centriolar formation in cultured rat lungs. *Radiat. Res.* 31:748.
- 84. SUBTELNY, S., and C. BRADT. 1963. Cytological observations in the early developmental stages of activated *Rana pipiens* eggs receiving a transplanted nucleus. J. Morphol. 112:45.
- SZOLLOSI, D. 1964. The structure and function of centrioles and their satellites in the jellyfish, *Phialidium gregarium. J. Cell Biol.* 21:465.
- TOSTESON, D. C. 1964. Regulation of cell volume by sodium and potassium transport. *In* The Cellular Functions of Membrane Transport. J. F. Hoffman, editor. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N. J. 3.
- TILNEY, L. G. 1968. Ordering of subcellular units. The assembly of microtubules and their role in the development of cell form. *Develop. Biol. Suppl.* 2:63.
- TYLER, A. 1955. Gametogenesis, Fertilization and Parthenogesis. In Analysis of Development. B. H. Willier, P. A. Weiss, and V. Hamburger, editors. Saunders, Philadelphia. 170.
- TYLER, A., C. Y. KAO, and H. GRUNDFEST. 1956. Membrane potential and resistance of the starfish egg before and after fertilization. *Biol. Bull.* 111:153.
- USSING, H. H. 1965. Relationship between osmotic reactions and active sodium transport in the frog skin epithelium. *Acta Physiol. Scand.* 63:141.
- VENABLE, J. H., and R. COGGESHALL. 1965. A simplified lead citrate stain for use in electron microscopy. J. Cell Biol. 25:407.
- VERHEY, C. A., and F. H. MOYER. 1967. Fine structural changes during sea urchin oogenesis. J. Exp. Zool. 164:195.
- 93. WHITTAM, R. 1962. The assymetrical stimulation of a membrane adenosine triphosphatase in relation to active cation transport. *Biochem.* J. 84:110.
- WILSON, E. B. 1925. The Cell in Development and Heredity. The Macmillan Company, New York.