



# The luminal $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ chelator, TPEN, inhibits NAADP-induced $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ release

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## ABSTRACT

The regulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release by luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  has been well studied for the ryanodine and  $\text{IP}_3$  receptors but has been less clear for the NAADP-regulated channel. In view of conflicting reports, we have re-examined the issue by manipulating luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  with the membrane-permeant, low affinity  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffer, TPEN, and monitoring NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release in sea urchin egg homogenate. NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release was almost entirely blocked by TPEN ( $\text{IC}_{50}$  17–25  $\mu\text{M}$ ) which suppressed the maximal extent of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release without altering NAADP sensitivity. In contrast,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release via  $\text{IP}_3$  receptors was 3- to 30-fold less sensitive to TPEN whereas that evoked by ionomycin was essentially unaffected. The effect of TPEN on NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release was not due to an increase in the luminal pH or chelation of trace metals since it could not be mimicked by  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  or phenanthroline. The fact that TPEN had no effect upon ionophore-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release also argued against a substantial reduction in the driving force for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  efflux. We propose that, in the sea urchin egg, luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is important for gating native NAADP-regulated two-pore channels.

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## 1. Introduction

$\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channels on intracellular stores are not only subject to regulation by second messengers but also by additional factors that include accessory proteins, pH and phosphorylation [1–5]. Of primary importance is the exquisite regulation of the channels by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  itself, a feedback that is essential for generating the hierarchy of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals such as local release events,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves [6]. This feedback is multifaceted and is not restricted to one site on a given channel:  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  can stimulate or inhibit channel activity since there can be multiple  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -binding sites on the channel complex, some on the cytosolic face, others on the luminal face.

Cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is well accepted to stimulate or inhibit inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate ( $\text{IP}_3$ ) receptors ( $\text{IP}_3\text{Rs}$ ) and ryanodine receptors ( $\text{RyR}$ ) as it follows a bell-shaped concentration response curve [5,6]. By contrast, the NAADP (nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate) receptor has hitherto been reported to be insensitive to cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (or surrogate ions) [1,7–9] and therefore local, “trigger”  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  released by NAADP is necessarily amplified by proximal  $\text{IP}_3\text{Rs}$  or  $\text{RyRs}$  which are  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive [10,11].

Whether these  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -release channel families are regulated by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  within the lumen of the stores themselves is more controversial [12]. For  $\text{IP}_3\text{Rs}$  and  $\text{RyRs}$ , higher luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

concentrations promote channel opening, possibly via intermediate luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -binding proteins [5,6,12,13]. However, NAADP-regulated channels were initially reported to be insensitive to luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [9]. More recently, mammalian members of the TPC (two-pore channel) family – the newly discovered target of NAADP [14–16] – exhibited sensitivity to luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  whereby increasing luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations enhanced channel activity in lipid bilayers [17,18]. Although plant TPC has not yet been shown to be modulated by NAADP, the channel is also influenced by luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , albeit in an inhibitory manner [19].

In view of the potential confusion surrounding these disparate results, we have re-examined the role of luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in regulating NAADP responses in sea urchin egg, a system in which TPCs are channels regulated by NAADP [20,21] possibly via smaller accessory proteins that are the NAADP-binding moieties [22,23]. By using a membrane-permeant  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelator, TPEN (N,N,N',N'-tetrakis(2-pyridylmethyl)ethylenediamine), we manipulated the luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , an approach taken previously in other systems for  $\text{IP}_3\text{Rs}$  [13] and  $\text{RyRs}$  [24], and our data are consistent with a role for luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in NAADP-regulated channel gating.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Homogenate preparation

Sea urchin egg homogenate was prepared as detailed [25]. Eggs from *Lytechinus pictus* were harvested by intracoelomic

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injection of 0.5 M KCl, collected in artificial sea water (ASW (mM): 435 NaCl; 40 MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 15 MgSO<sub>4</sub>; 11 CaCl<sub>2</sub>; 10 KCl; 2.5 NaHCO<sub>3</sub>; 20 Tris base, pH 8.0) and de-jellied by passage through 100- $\mu$ m nylon mesh (Millipore). Eggs were then washed four times in Ca<sup>2+</sup>-free ASW (the first two washes containing 1 mM EGTA) and then washed in intracellular-like medium (GluIM (mM): 250 potassium gluconate; 250 N-methylglucamine (NMDG); 20 HEPES and 1 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, pH 7.2). Homogenization was effected with a glass Dounce tissue homogenizer in ice-cold GluIM supplemented with 2 mM MgATP; 20 U/ml creatine phosphokinase; 20 mM phospho-creatine; Complete™ EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor tablets (Roche). Homogenate (50%, v/v) was centrifuged at 13,000  $\times$  g, 4 °C for 10 s and the supernatant stored at –80 °C. On the day of use, an aliquot of homogenate was sequentially diluted in equal volumes of GluIM containing the ATP regenerating system over a period of 3 h at 17 °C to give a 2.5% (v/v) final concentration.

## 2.2. Fluorimetry

### 2.2.1. Ca<sup>2+</sup> release

All fluorimetry was conducted at 17 °C in a microcuvette containing a magnetic stir bar mounted in a Perkin Elmer LS-50B fluorimeter. Ca<sup>2+</sup> release was measured in homogenate with 3  $\mu$ M fluo-3 (excitation/emission: 506/526 nm) which was calibrated using the standard equation  $[Ca^{2+}] = K_d \times (F - F_{min}) / (F_{max} - F)$ , using a  $K_d$  of 0.4  $\mu$ M;  $F_{min}$  and  $F_{max}$  were determined by addition of 0.5 mM EGTA and 10 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup> respectively at the end of each run. TPEN (dissolved in ethanol) had no effect upon dye calibration ( $F_{min}$  and  $F_{max}$  values were  $98 \pm 5\%$  and  $101 \pm 3\%$  of ethanol controls respectively;  $n = 9$ ,  $P > 0.5$  paired  $t$  test). The upstroke kinetics were determined by linear regression of the raw fluorescence (in units (U)/s) normalized to the resting fluorescence ( $F_0$ ) to account for machine variability and therefore expressed as units  $\cdot F_0/s$  ( $U \cdot F_0/s$ ).

### 2.2.2. Acidic vesicle pH

We monitored luminal pH (pH<sub>L</sub>) as before [26]. 10  $\mu$ M acridine orange was added to each cuvette immediately before each run and allowed to equilibrate (5–10 min) while the dye partitioned into acidic vesicles, as indicated by a gradual fall in fluorescence (acquisition wavelengths were the same as for fluo-3). An increase in fluorescence represents an increase in pH<sub>L</sub>. Data were expressed as a percentage of the maximum minus minimum fluorescence (the maximum was defined as the fluorescence after addition of 10 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl at the end of the run; this was equivalent to the pre-quench acridine orange fluorescence at the beginning of the recording [26]).

## 2.3. Data analysis and source of reagents

Representative traces are plotted as raw fluorescence (relative fluorescence units, RFU) against time. Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM. Two data sets were compared using Student's  $t$  test, whereas multiple groups were analysed using ANOVA and a Tukey–Kramer or Dunnett's post-test. Data were paired where appropriate and significance assumed at  $P < 0.05$ . Graphs were annotated using the following conventions:  $P < 0.05$  (\*),  $P < 0.01$  (\*\*),  $P < 0.001$  (\*\*\*). Curve fitting was conducted using Graphpad Prism.

NAADP was enzymatically synthesised [25] or purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (Poole, Dorset, UK). IP<sub>3</sub> was from LC Laboratories (Woburn, MA, USA). Acridine orange and fluo-3 (K<sup>+</sup> salt) were from Invitrogen (Paisley, UK). Nigericin, TPEN, phenanthroline and potassium oxalate were from Sigma–Aldrich whilst ionomycin (free acid) was from Calbiochem–Novabiochem (Merck

Biosciences, Nottingham, UK). All other reagents were of analytical grade.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. NAADP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release

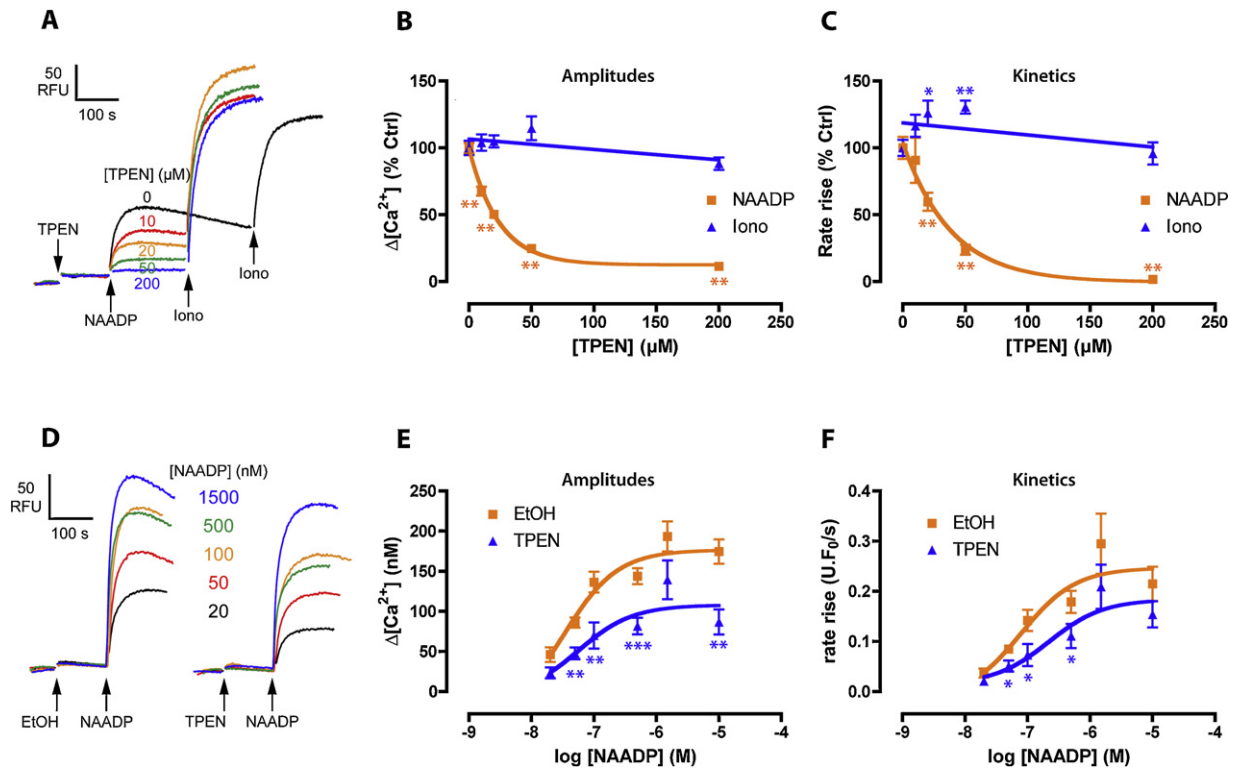
NAADP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release (NICR) in sea urchin egg homogenate was monitored fluorescently in the presence of ethanol vehicle or the membrane-permeant, low affinity (40–130  $\mu$ M [27,28]) Ca<sup>2+</sup> chelator, TPEN. TPEN crosses membranes rapidly to lower luminal free Ca<sup>2+</sup> [28] and a 2-min preincubation with TPEN produced a substantial concentration-dependent inhibition of NICR, both in terms of amplitude and kinetics (IC<sub>50</sub> of 17 and 27  $\mu$ M respectively; Fig. 1A–C). This did not reflect a general perturbation by TPEN of Ca<sup>2+</sup> release (or the assay) because the response to the Ca<sup>2+</sup> ionophore, ionomycin, was essentially unaffected (Fig. 1A–C), as was the Ca<sup>2+</sup> dye calibration (see Section 2). By varying the NAADP concentration (Fig. 1D–F), we found that the major effect of TPEN was to reduce the maximal extent of NICR without substantially altering the affinity of the receptors for NAADP (EC<sub>50</sub> (95% confidence intervals) – amplitude: ethanol 32 nM (9–113 nM), TPEN 56 nM (7–47 nM); kinetics: ethanol 79 nM (17–370 nM), TPEN 218 nM (33–1460 nM)).

### 3.2. IP<sub>3</sub>-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release

To ascertain whether the effect of TPEN was unique to NICR, we examined the effect of TPEN upon another channel regulated by luminal Ca<sup>2+</sup>, the IP<sub>3</sub> receptor. Similar to NICR, IP<sub>3</sub>-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release was also inhibited by TPEN but a major difference was that it required 3- to 30-fold higher concentrations of TPEN (estimated IC<sub>50</sub> of 79  $\mu$ M and 536  $\mu$ M for kinetics and amplitudes respectively; Fig. 2A–C). Once again, these higher TPEN concentrations were essentially without effect upon ionomycin-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release (Fig. 2D–F). As with NAADP, a sub-maximal concentration of TPEN predominantly affected the IP<sub>3</sub> maximum and not the affinity, although the TPEN effect was more evident upon the kinetics than the amplitude (Fig. 2G–I); IP<sub>3</sub> (EC<sub>50</sub> (95% confidence intervals) – amplitude: ethanol 217 nM (46–1028 nM), TPEN 143 nM (50–413 nM); kinetics: ethanol 1303 nM (450–3774 nM), TPEN 953 nM (11–8106 nM)). The data are consistent with TPEN altering ER channel gating by chelating luminal Ca<sup>2+</sup> as it does in other systems [13,24] and verify that the inhibition by TPEN is not peculiar to the NAADP-regulated channel.

### 3.3. TPEN and other ions

Whilst IP<sub>3</sub> releases Ca<sup>2+</sup> from the neutral ER, NAADP mobilizes Ca<sup>2+</sup> from acidic Ca<sup>2+</sup> stores which, in the sea urchin egg, appear to be the lysosome-related organelles, yolk platelets [29,30]. Since acidic Ca<sup>2+</sup> store loading [11] and TPC channels [11,17,18,31] may be sensitive to luminal pH (pH<sub>L</sub>), we investigated whether the inhibition by TPEN was due to changes in pH<sub>L</sub> rather than Ca<sup>2+</sup>. First, we monitored pH<sub>L</sub> in NAADP-sensitive vesicles using acridine orange as reported previously [26]. TPEN did indeed raise pH<sub>L</sub> slightly as judged by the increase in acridine orange fluorescence but with a lower potency than its effect upon NICR (estimated EC<sub>50</sub> 222  $\mu$ M; Fig. 3A and C). Although this 10-fold lower potency argued against pH<sub>L</sub> as the factor underlying NICR inhibition, we directly tested whether an acute change in pH<sub>L</sub> could modulate Ca<sup>2+</sup> release by applying the base, NH<sub>4</sub>Cl. As expected, NH<sub>4</sub>Cl profoundly increased acridine orange fluorescence (pH<sub>L</sub>) with an EC<sub>50</sub> of  $\sim$ 1 mM (Fig. 3B and C) but, despite this, NH<sub>4</sub>Cl had no major effect upon NICR (Fig. 3D and E) or subsequent ionomycin-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from neutral stores (Fig. 3D and F). This suggested that TPEN does not act



**Fig. 1.** TPEN inhibits NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release. (A) Different concentrations of TPEN (or 0.1% (v/v) ethanol vehicle) were preincubated for 2 min prior to addition of a sub-maximal concentration of NAADP (50 nM) followed by 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$  ionomycin. Raw control  $\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  was  $79 \pm 9$  nM (NAADP) and  $227 \pm 18$  nM (ionomycin). Summary of the effect of TPEN upon the amplitude (B) or kinetics (C) of NAADP- or ionomycin-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release shown in (A). (D) Effect of a sub-maximal concentration of TPEN upon NAADP sensitivity. 0.1% (v/v) ethanol (EtOH) or 20  $\mu\text{M}$  TPEN was preincubated for 2 min prior to the addition of different NAADP concentrations. Graphs summarizing the amplitudes (E) or kinetics (F) of the responses in (D).  $N = 9-16$  (A–C),  $n = 5-9$  (D–F). Significance was determined using a Dunnett's test versus 0  $\mu\text{M}$  TPEN (B and C); Student's *t* test comparing EtOH and TPEN (E and F). NAADP data were fitted as a one-phase exponential decay (B and C) or a Sigmoidal concentration–response (E and F).

via increases in  $\text{pH}_L$  and this conclusion is reinforced by plotting the relationship between  $\text{pH}_L$  (acridine orange fluorescence) and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release in the presence of TPEN or  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  (Fig. 3G and H): although there is a tendency for higher  $\text{pH}_L$  to inhibit NICKR (as seen with  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ ), it is clear that the effect of TPEN is greater than would be expected from an effect on  $\text{pH}_L$  alone. We conclude that TPEN does not act via  $\text{pH}_L$ .

It is well documented that TPEN also binds to trace metal ions such as  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  with high affinity [27]; conceivably, TPEN could affect NICKR by trace-metal chelation and as so a control for this, we tested the effect of phenanthroline which potently binds trace metals ( $K_d$ s in the nanomolar to low micromolar range) but its  $K_d$  for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (78–200 mM [32,33]) is 2000- to 5000-fold lower than that of TPEN. Table 1 shows that phenanthroline had no significant effect upon NICKR amplitude or kinetics which contrasted with a TPEN positive control. We conclude that TPEN does not inhibit NICKR by chelating trace metals.

**Table 1**

Heavy metal chelation by phenanthroline does not affect NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release.

Addition	Amplitude ( $\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ , nM)	Rate of rise (U/s)
0.1% ethanol	$121 \pm 2$	$0.187 \pm 0.027$
20 $\mu\text{M}$ phenanthroline	$126 \pm 4$	$0.162 \pm 0.015$
200 $\mu\text{M}$ phenanthroline	$128 \pm 3$	$0.163 \pm 0.018$
200 $\mu\text{M}$ TPEN	$10 \pm 3^{**}$	nd

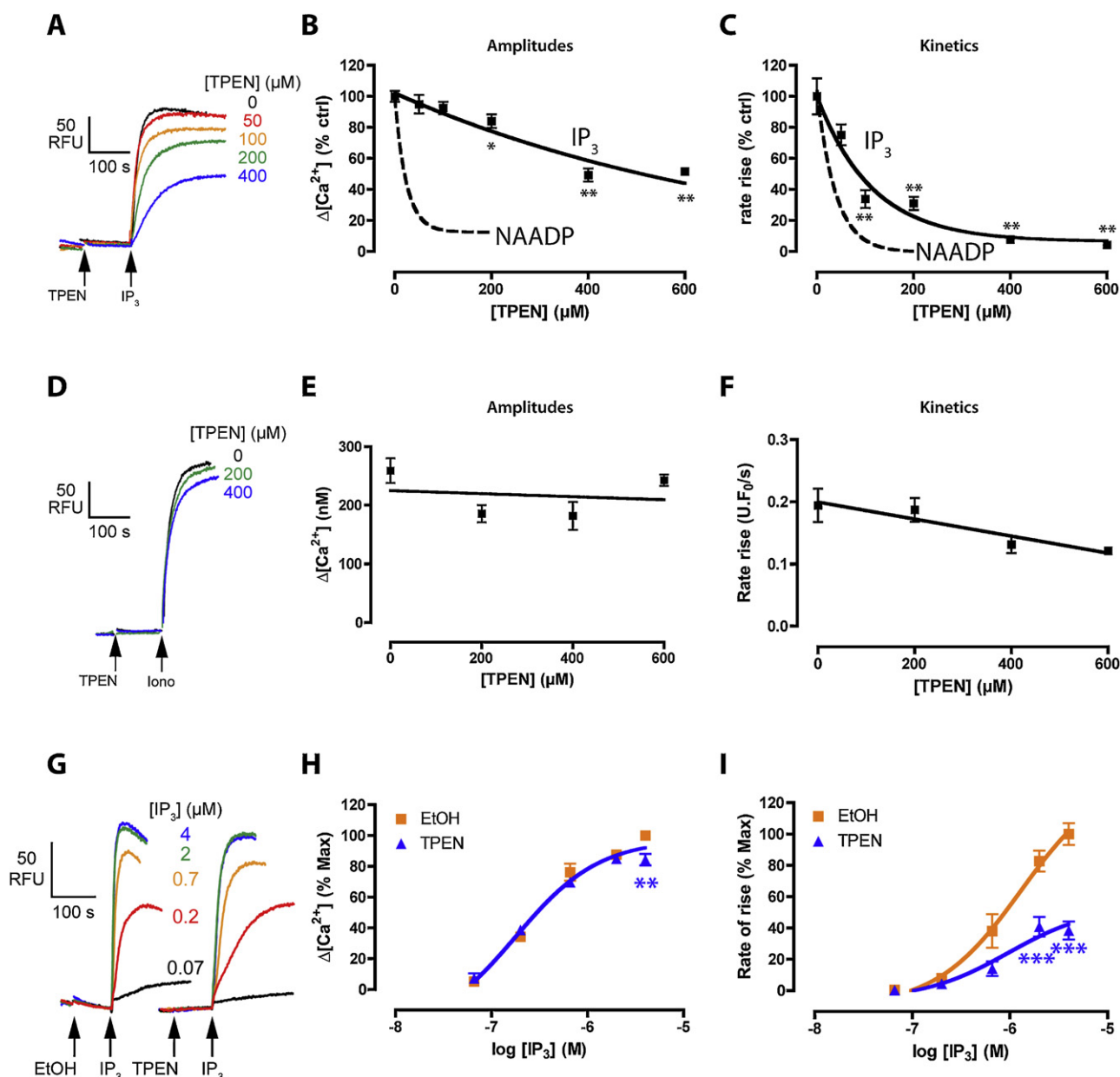
Amplitude of 50 nM NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release 2 min after the addition of chelators or ethanol vehicle. Phenanthroline had no effect upon the basal  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  nor the response to NAADP. The small rise in the presence of TPEN was lost in the addition artefact and so the initial kinetics could not be determined (nd). Data are mean  $\pm$  SEM of 6 determinations.

\*\*  $P < 0.01$ , Dunnett's test versus ethanol.

### 3.4. TPEN and the $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ electrochemical gradient

The rate and extent of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from any intracellular store is a function of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  electrochemical gradient i.e. the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration gradient plus the organellar membrane potential,  $\Delta\psi$  [11]. Consequently, it was possible that TPEN acted by reducing this electrochemical gradient, most obviously by dramatically lowering the free luminal  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  in acidic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores. To test this, we reasoned that altering the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  electrochemical gradient would impact upon all  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release pathways, not just TPCs, and so we tested the effect of TPEN upon another pathway, the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leak. Any  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leak can be unmasked by inhibiting the compensatory  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake; in acidic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores, the  $\text{H}^+$  gradient ( $\Delta\text{pH}$ ) facilitates  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake [11] and so we collapsed  $\Delta\text{pH}$  as a means of indirectly inhibiting  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake. Note that sea urchin egg acidic vesicles are not very  $\text{H}^+$  "leaky" [26,29,30] so we could not use the  $\text{V-H}^+$ -ATPase inhibitor, bafilomycin A1, to passively collapse  $\Delta\text{pH}$ . Instead, we used nigericin (an electroneutral,  $\text{K}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange ionophore) to rapidly dissipate the  $\Delta\text{pH}$  of acidic vesicles without substantially altering their  $\Delta\psi$  [11]. In this way,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release via the basal leak pathway can be revealed.

We have previously shown that nigericin collapses  $\Delta\text{pH}$  in sea urchin egg acidic vesicles [26] and so we tested whether nigericin mobilizes  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the NAADP-sensitive acidic vesicles. Increasing concentrations of nigericin promptly released  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and the size of the NAADP-sensitive store was subsequently assessed by application of a high concentration of messenger: we observed a reciprocal relationship between the extent of nigericin- and NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (Fig. 4A and B) consistent with both agents acting on common  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores. Conversely, mobilization of stores by NAADP reduced the response to nigericin (see below). The reduction of the



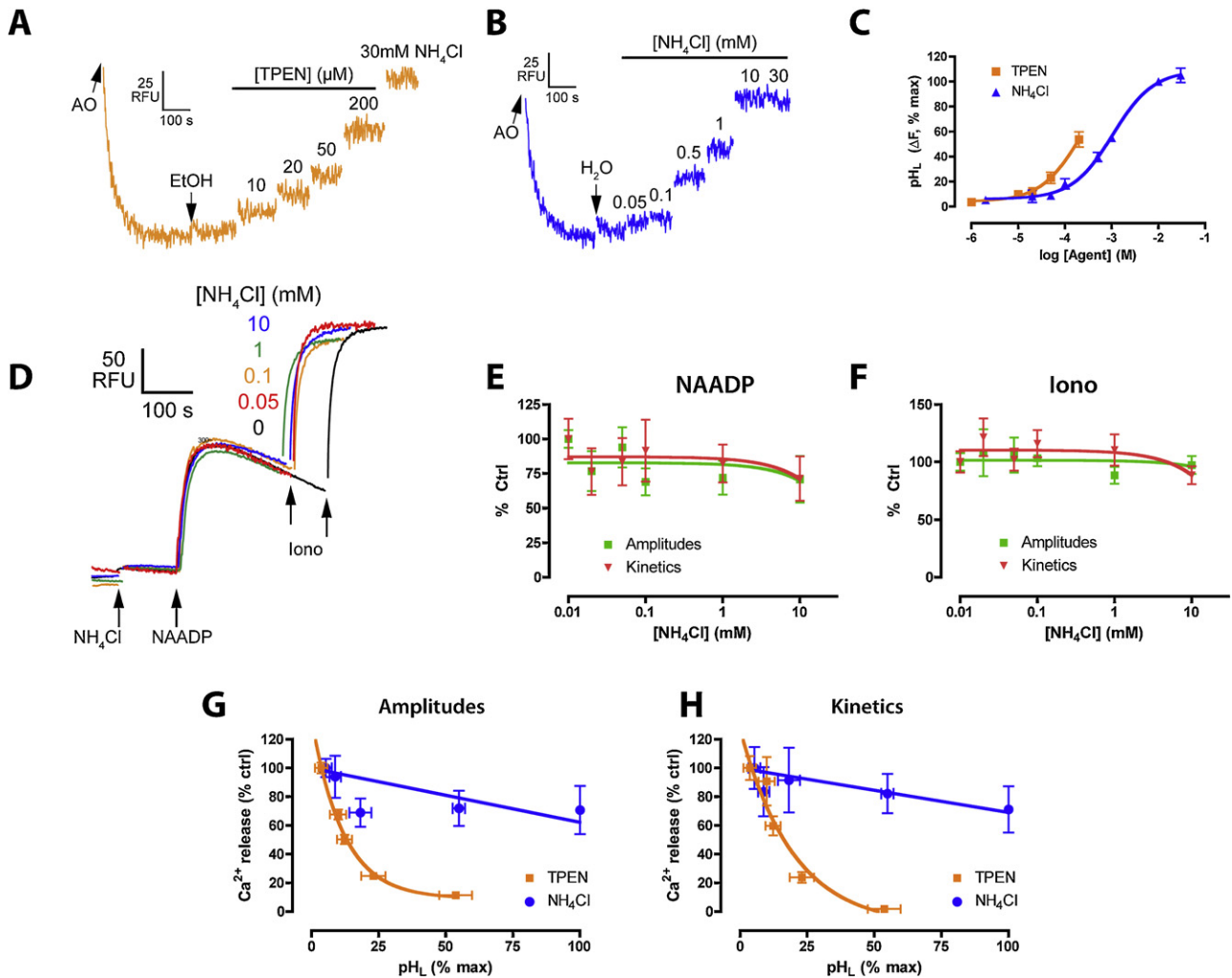
**Fig. 2.** TPEN inhibits IP<sub>3</sub>-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release. Different concentrations of TPEN (or 0.1% (v/v) ethanol vehicle) were preincubated for 2 min prior to addition of 4 μM IP<sub>3</sub> (A–C) or 0.5 μM ionomycin (D–F). Raw control  $\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  was  $145 \pm 6$  nM (IP<sub>3</sub>) and  $259 \pm 21$  nM (ionomycin). Summary of effect upon the amplitudes (B and E) or kinetics (C and F). The dashed lines (B and C) depict the NAADP curves in Fig. 1 for comparison. Significance was determined using a Dunnett test versus 0 μM TPEN. TPEN had no significant effect upon ionomycin responses ( $P > 0.05$ ). IP<sub>3</sub> data were fit as a one-phase exponential decay (B and C). Data are mean  $\pm$  SEM of 3–8 experiments. (G–I) Effect of 200 μM TPEN (or 0.1% ethanol vehicle) upon the IP<sub>3</sub> concentration–response. Data were normalized to the maximum response with 4 μM IP<sub>3</sub> plus ethanol: raw control  $\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  was  $177 \pm 18$  nM (amplitude) and  $0.578 \pm 0.187$  U.F.<sub>0</sub>/s (kinetics). IP<sub>3</sub> data were fit with a Sigmoidal concentration–response (H and I) and ethanol and TPEN compared with a Student's *t* test ( $n = 5–12$ ).

response to NAADP was not simply a consequence of nigericin raising the baseline because thapsigargin, which also elevates Ca<sup>2+</sup> by mobilizing the ER Ca<sup>2+</sup> stores, has no effect upon NICR [8].

Having established that nigericin mobilized NAADP-sensitive stores, we turned to the effect of TPEN. In control experiments, consecutive responses to a sub-maximal concentration of NAADP and nigericin were measured in vehicle-treated homogenate; consistent with a common Ca<sup>2+</sup> store, the response to nigericin was small when added after NAADP (Fig. 4C and D). In the presence of TPEN, NICR was almost completely inhibited but when nigericin was then applied, a substantial Ca<sup>2+</sup> release was observed that was enhanced to approximately the same size as the control NAADP

response (Fig. 4C and D). That is, even when the response to NAADP was blocked by TPEN, nigericin could still mobilize this Ca<sup>2+</sup> store.

We then directly assessed the effect of TPEN upon nigericin-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release (Fig. 4F and G). TPEN did not inhibit the nigericin responses, and, in fact, slightly enhanced the leak pathway, both in terms of its kinetics and amplitude (Fig. 4G). This indicates that the Ca<sup>2+</sup> leak pathway unmasked by nigericin is manifestly different from that recruited by NAADP. Taken together, the data suggest that TPEN does not exert its effect by dramatically altering the Ca<sup>2+</sup> electrochemical gradient and therefore we conclude that TPEN alters NAADP-regulated channel (TPC) gating.



**Fig. 3.** Comparison of the effects of TPEN and NH<sub>4</sub>Cl on luminal pH or NAADP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release. Luminal pH (pH<sub>L</sub>) was monitored using acridine orange (AO), panels A–C. Cumulative concentration–response curves to TPEN (A) or NH<sub>4</sub>Cl (B), and summarized in (C), where data were fitted as a Sigmoidal concentration–response. Effect of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl upon NAADP-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release (D–F): different concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl were preincubated for 2 min prior to addition of sub-maximal NAADP (50 nM) and 0.5 μM ionomycin. Raw control Δ[Ca<sup>2+</sup>] was 96 ± 10 nM (NAADP) and 249 ± 22 nM (ionomycin). No significant effect of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl ( $P > 0.05$ ) upon NAADP (E) and ionomycin (F) responses was observed (Dunnett’s test). Data are mean ± SEM of 8–13 determinations. (G and H) For each concentration of TPEN or NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, the corresponding pH<sub>L</sub> or Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals were plotted to assess the relationship between the two parameters (including data from Fig. 1).

#### 4. Discussion

The idea that the degree of Ca<sup>2+</sup> store filling (i.e. luminal [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]) modulates resident receptor channels in the store membrane has been with us for many years, applied first to RyRs and then later to IP<sub>3</sub>R [6,12]. Since then, other Ca<sup>2+</sup> homeostatic proteins have emerged that tailor their activity to the luminal Ca<sup>2+</sup> content such as SERCA [34] and STIM1 [35] and so the view that NAADP-regulated channels were, according to some criteria, insensitive to luminal Ca<sup>2+</sup> singled them out as unique [9]. Unfortunately, this study was flawed because it was not then known that NAADP targets acidic Ca<sup>2+</sup> stores and the luminal Ca<sup>2+</sup> was manipulated with ionomycin [9] which does not act at acidic Ca<sup>2+</sup> stores [36]. Given that there have been very few studies that have probed this issue, we have adopted a different strategy, using TPEN as a luminal Ca<sup>2+</sup> chelator.

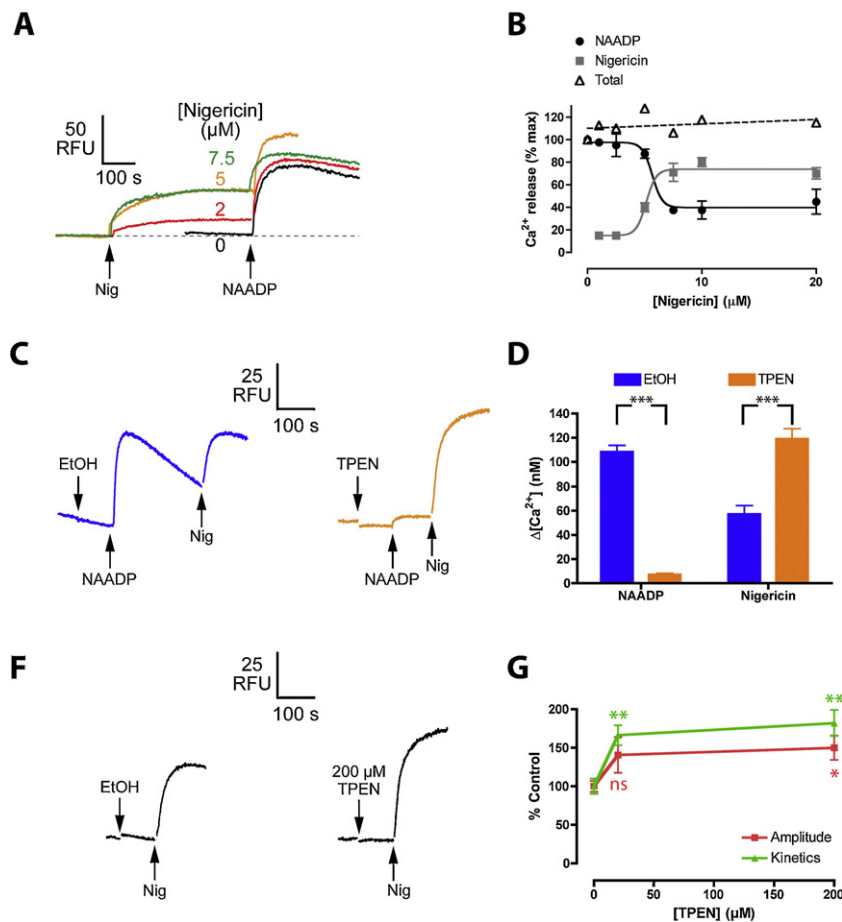
##### 4.1. TPEN and acidic Ca<sup>2+</sup> stores

To the best of our knowledge, TPEN has not been previously used to investigate NICR or indeed Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from any acidic store. The sea urchin egg homogenate has proven an excellent system in which to investigate fundamental properties of NICR owing to its

ease of use and access to the cell ‘cytosol’ [25]. TPEN exhibits a low affinity for Ca<sup>2+</sup> (40–130 μM [27,28]) that precludes its buffering the cytosol (nM to μM) but favours buffering the higher Ca<sup>2+</sup> range in internal stores (μM to mM) [11] and it has been used to manipulate the free [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] in the ER and given insights into RyR and IP<sub>3</sub>R gating [13,24] as well as store-operated Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry [28,37].

First, does TPEN actually enter the acidic vesicle lumen? The fact that it promptly and persistently increases pH<sub>L</sub> (acridine orange fluorescence) (Fig. 2) is consistent with such entry, and this pH<sub>L</sub> change could either be a direct result of TPEN acting as a base or a secondary consequence of its chelating luminal Ca<sup>2+</sup> (which disturbs the equilibrium between Ca<sup>2+</sup> and H<sup>+</sup> bound to the endogenous polyanionic matrix [26,30]). Moreover, we are confident that TPEN does not buffer extravesicular (“cytosolic”) Ca<sup>2+</sup>, not just because of its high  $K_d$  but also because (i) it does not alter basal [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]; (ii) it does not affect ionomycin- or nigericin-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release; (iii) the Ca<sup>2+</sup> calibration parameters  $F_{min}$  and  $F_{max}$  are unaffected. Therefore, the inhibition of NICR is not merely an artefact of “cytosolic” Ca<sup>2+</sup> buffering.

Logically, it follows that TPEN must be interfering with the NAADP-regulated TPC itself or with the electrochemical driving force for Ca<sup>2+</sup> release. Dealing with the latter, if the components of



**Fig. 4.** TPEN does not inhibit the acidic store  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leak pathway. (A) Nigericin evokes  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from the NAADP-sensitive store. Increasing concentrations of nigericin evoke  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release that progressively depletes the store released by 250 nM NAADP as indicated by the reduced response. (B) Summary of peak data. 'Total' refers to the summation of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release evoked by NAADP plus that evoked by nigericin ( $n=3$ ). (C and D) Effect of 200  $\mu\text{M}$  TPEN upon the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  responses to sequential addition of 50 nM NAADP and 20  $\mu\text{M}$  nigericin (nigericin).  $N=9$ . Ethanol vehicle (EtOH). (E) Effect of TPEN upon the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  leak unmasked by 20  $\mu\text{M}$  nigericin. (F) Summary of the effect of different TPEN concentrations upon the amplitude or kinetics of the nigericin-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  responses ( $n=5-6$ ). ns, not significant.

the electrochemical potential (free luminal  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  or  $\Delta\psi$ ) are substantially altered by TPEN, this would abrogate  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  egress from the store. Our data suggest that this is not the case because  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release by ionophores would also be subject to the same thermodynamic constraints and yet the responses to ionomycin (neutral stores) and nigericin (acidic stores) were not reduced by TPEN.

#### 4.2. Mechanism of action

We presented evidence that TPEN does not act by altering  $\text{pH}_i$  or heavy metals, but TPEN has also been reported to inhibit SERCA [38], as well as to activate [38,39] or inhibit [24] RyRs (depending on the TPEN concentration). However, these sites of action cannot underlie the TPEN effect on NICR because agents that selectively affect RyRs or SERCA do not alter NICR in egg homogenate [8,40], and besides, the affinity of SERCA for TPEN is  $\sim 30$ -fold lower than towards NICR [39].

To offset concerns about TPEN pharmacology, we attempted to use a chemically dissimilar  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -binding agent, oxalic acid, which also loads into the lumen of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores [41]. Like TPEN, oxalate inhibited NICR (data not shown). Unfortunately, oxalate also inhibited ionomycin-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dye calibration (data not shown) and so we could not differentiate between potentially real luminal effects upon NICR and increased 'cytosolic'  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffering by high concentrations of oxalate.

The fact that TPEN also altered  $\text{IP}_3$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (albeit with a lower sensitivity) indicated that the effect is not peculiar to NAADP-regulated channels. Since TPEN does not directly block  $\text{IP}_3$ Rs [42], it is consistent with an effect via luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [13]. Nevertheless, the details of any effect of luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  upon  $\text{IP}_3$  receptor gating remain unclear (reviewed in [12]) and so our conclusion that luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  modulates  $\text{IP}_3$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release without altering  $\text{IP}_3$  sensitivity is not without precedent. We propose that this mechanism is shared by NAADP-gated channels.

Since TPEN did not grossly alter the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  electrochemical gradient in either neutral or acidic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores (as concluded from the ionomycin/nigericin experiments), there would have to be a steep relationship between luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and channel ( $\text{IP}_3$ R or TPC) opening, i.e. chelating  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  over a narrow range alters channel function. Furthermore, modulation by luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  would have to be different between sea urchin and human because NAADP affinity was shifted by luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in human TPC2 [17] whereas TPEN did not change the affinity in sea urchin. Clearly, only lipid bilayer studies will be able to unequivocally determine whether the sea urchin TPCs are regulated by luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (as are human TPC1 [18] and human TPC2 [17]) and we cannot formally exclude the possibility that TPEN affects TPCs directly.

In summary, we show that the luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelator, TPEN, is a potent and effective inhibitor of NAADP-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release. At the very least, this demands caution in interpreting effects of TPEN

in biological systems, but it is also consistent with luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  being an important cofactor for NAADP-regulated TPCs. The regulation of  $\text{IP}_3$ Rs and RyR by luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  priming sets a precedent for TPCs: perhaps TPC gating by NAADP could likewise be dynamically set by the luminal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration which opens up the possibility of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake from other sources (e.g. ER or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx) priming NAADP-sensitive stores.

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