ADP-Ribosyl Cyclases Regulate Early Development of the Sea Urchin

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ADP-ribosyl cyclases are multifunctional enzymes involved in the metabolism of nucleotide derivatives necessary for Ca²⁺ signalling such as cADPR and NAADP. Although Ca²⁺ signalling is a critical regulator of early development, little is known of the role of ADP-ribosyl cyclases during embryogenesis. Here we analyze the expression, activity and function of ADP-ribosyl cyclases in the embryo of the sea urchin— a key organism for study of both Ca²⁺ signalling and embryonic development. ADP-ribosyl cyclase isoforms (SpARC1-4) showed unique changes in expression during early development. These changes were associated with an increase in the ratio of cADPR:NAADP production. Over-expression of SpARC4 (a preferential cyclase) disrupted gastrulation. Our data highlight the importance of ADP-ribosyl cyclases during embryogenesis.

Keywords: ADP-Ribosyl Cyclase, Cyclic ADP-Ribose, NAADP, Early Development, Gastrulation.

INTRODUCTION

Changes in the concentration of cytosolic Ca²⁺ ions constitute a widespread and evolutionary conserved signalling pathway (Berridge et al., 2000). These signals regulate diverse cellular processes ranging from cell division to cell death (Berridge et al., 2000). It is perhaps not surprising then that Ca²⁺ plays a central role during early development (Slusarski and Pelegri, 2007; Whitaker, 2006). For example Ca²⁺ is necessary and sufficient for egg activation at fertilization (Whitaker, 2006) and is involved in later processes such as axis determination (Kume et al., 1997), convergent extension (Wallingford et al., 2001) and neural induction (Moreau et al., 2008). Ca²⁺ signals regulate a multitude of events including those during embryogenesis.

A major mechanism for generating Ca²⁺ signals is through the production of Ca²⁺ mobilizing messengers that release Ca²⁺ from intracellular Ca²⁺ stores (Berridge et al., 2000). Cyclic ADP-ribose (cADPR) and nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NAADP) are two such messengers that target the ER and acidic Ca²⁺ stores (such as lysosomes), respectively (Lee, 2012; Patel and Docampo, 2010). Interestingly, despite their different mechanisms of action, both are synthesized by the same family of enzymes, the ADP-ribose cyclases via cyclisation and base-exchange reactions (Lee, 2000; Malavasi et al., 2008). This family includes CD38 a well characterized cell surface antigen (Howard et al., 1993). Indeed, all identified ADP-ribose cyclases appear to have exo-cytoplasmic catalytic sites suggesting compartmentalized messenger synthesis (De Flora et al., 2004) although their topology might not necessarily be fixed (Zhao et al., 2012). In addition to synthesis, ADP-ribosyl cyclases can also metabolize cADPR (and NAD) to ADP-ribose to regulate Ca²⁺ influx (Perraud et al., 2001) and NAADP to ADP-ribose phosphate (Graeff et al., 2006) which together with dephosphorylation (Berridge et al., 2002; Schmid et al., 2012) may serve to terminate NAADP-mediated Ca²⁺ signals. ADP-ribosyl cyclases are important multifunctional Ca²⁺ signalling enzymes.

ADP-ribosyl cyclase activity was first inferred in sea urchin egg homogenates over three decades ago (Clapper et al., 1987). As a basal deuterostome, the sea urchin holds an important position in animal evolution and has been extensively used by both Ca²⁺ signallers and developmental biologists. But only relatively recently have molecular correlates of ADP-ribose cyclase activity been identified in this model organism. Four isoforms have been described in Strongylocentrotus purpuratus (SpARC1-4) (Churamani et al., 2007; Ramakrishnan et al., 2010). SpARC1, 2 and 3 were independently cloned and referred to as SpARCβ, α and γ, respectively (Davis et al., 2008). SpARC1/β is unusual in that it is intracellular although it precise subcellular location (cortical granules in eggs v the ER) is unclear (Churamani et al., 2007; Davis et al., 2008). SpARCs show differences in catalytic activity with respect to their ability to metabolize the NAD surrogate NGD.
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and the relative rates of cADPR versus NAADP production (Churamani et al., 2008; Ramakrishnan et al., 2010). SpARC2 for example preferentially produces NAADP over cADPR whereas SpARC4 preferentially produces cADPR over NAADP when assayed in parallel. These differences are likely attributable to a single residue within the active site because point mutation can convert the preference of SpARC4 to that of SpARC2 (Ramakrishnan et al., 2010). An ADP-ribosyl cyclase has recently been cloned from the sea star (Ramos et al., 2014) but its catalytic properties were not characterized and its relationship to other ADP-ribosyl cyclases is not clear at present. Our molecular understanding of these enzymes is advancing.

ADP-ribosyl cyclases play established roles in adult tissues which range from immune responses (Partida-Sanchez et al., 2001) to social behaviour (Jin et al., 2007). We know little however about the part played by ADP-ribosyl cyclases during development. We showed that CD38 is critical for development of Xenopus skeletal muscle (Churamani et al., 2012). Like mammals, Strongylocentrotus purpuratus possesses two ADP-ribosyl cyclases (CD38 and Bst1/CD157). Here we begin to define the role of ADP-ribosyl cyclases in development of the sea urchin, which possess an expanded ADP-ribosyl cyclase gene portfolio (Churamani et al., 2007; Ramakrishnan et al., 2010).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Embryology. Strongylocentrotus purpuratus eggs were fertilized and embryos grown as 0.5% (v/v) suspensions in filtered sea water (FSW) at 16 °C. The embryos were then collected at various time points (egg, 2, 3, 10, 21, 27.5, 33.5, 46, 58 and 63 h post-fertilization) according to standard protocols (Ettensohn et al., 2004). For RT PCR and activity measurements, the suspensions were gently centrifuged, the FSW aspirated and the pellets (∼250 µL packed volume) flash frozen and stored at −80 °C prior to use.

Semi-quantitative RT-PCR. Total RNA was isolated from the frozen egg/embryo samples using the RNeasy kit (Qiagen), according to manufacturer’s instructions. The samples were treated with on-column DNase to eliminate genomic DNA contamination. cDNA was synthesized from 2 µg of RNA from each embryo sample with oligo-dT primers using the ImProm-II kit (Promega) according to manufacturer’s instructions. Water was added in place of reverse transcriptase in control reactions. PCR was performed using Platinum Taq Polymerase (Invitrogen) and the primers listed in Table I. Cycle numbers for SpARC1-4 (35, 27, 33, 35, respectively) and ubiquitin (27) were determined empirically such that the amplification was in the exponential phase. Amplified products were resolved on 1% agarose gels, stained with ethidium bromide (5 µg/ml) and visualized on an UV transilluminator. Images were captured using Image Quant software (GE Healthcare).

ADP-ribosyl cyclase activity measurement. Frozen egg/embryo samples were thawed, homogenized in a buffer comprising 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.2) supplemented with complete™ EDTA free protease inhibitors and sonicated (5 × 5s) to form a 25% v/v homogenate. Homogenates were diluted 10-fold in to a reaction mix containing a final concentration of either 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.2) and 1 mM NAD (for cyclase activity measurements) or 50 mM nicotinic acid (pH 4.8) and 1 mM NADP (for base-exchange activity measurements). The reactions were allowed to proceed for up to 3 h. To terminate the reactions, samples were diluted 10-fold with water and heated at 60 °C for 5 min. Samples were then centrifuged for 3 min at 21000 × g to remove particulate matter. The products in the supernatants were resolved on an AG MP1 anion exchange HPLC column using a concave-up gradient of trifluoroacetic acid as described in (Churamani et al., 2007). Protein concentration was measured using the bicinchoninic acid protein assay kit (Pierce) and bovine serum albumin as the standard according to manufacturer’s instructions.

Generation of SpARC4 mCherry. A construct encoding SpARC4 tagged with mCherry at its N-terminus was generated by replacing the sequence of the myc tag of pcS2+ encoding N-terminally myc-tagged SpARC4 myc described in (Ramakrishnan et al., 2010) with that of mCherry. To achieve this, the coding sequence of mCherry was amplified by PCR using the primers listed in Table I and cloned into the ClaI and EcoRI sites of pcS2+ SpARC4 myc. Capped mRNA for SpARC4-mCherry was generated from the SP6 promoter of pcS2+ using the mMessage mMachine kit (Ambion).

Microinjection. Eggs were arranged in rows on dishes coated with protamine sulfate (1% w/v) in FSW supplemented with 4 mM para amino benzoic acid (PABA). The eggs were fertilized and immediately microinjected with SpARC4 mRNA (2 mg/ml) according to standard protocols (Ettensohn et al., 2004). Following microinjection, the embryos were gently washed ten times with FSW to

### Table I. Sequence of primers used in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primer</th>
<th>Sequence</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SpARC1 1F</td>
<td>ATGGGCATCTACCATATTCA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpARC1 1R</td>
<td>TAGGGTAGTAGATATTCTTCCAAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpARC2 1F</td>
<td>GCCGATGCACTGGTGAAGCT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpARC2 1R</td>
<td>CTCACAAGTGTTGCTGAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpARC3 1F</td>
<td>CACCGGATCCCGCTGATTATCATGTAAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpARC3 1R</td>
<td>ACCCTTTAGCGAACCCACAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpARC4 1F</td>
<td>ACAACTGTTCGGGTCTGTGGA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpARC4 1R</td>
<td>CAACGTGCGAAGCTCGGA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpUQ 1F</td>
<td>CCAGATGAAACCCACTTTCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SpUQ 1R</td>
<td>TTTGCCCTGCACTTCCATAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mCherry 1F</td>
<td>CACCATCGATTTGAGGAGCAAGGGCGAG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mCherry 1R</td>
<td>TGAATTCACATTGACGTGCAGC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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remove PABA and incubated in a humidified chamber at 12 °C for approximately 15 h before inspection.

Confocal microscopy. After hatching, the free-floating embryos were gently trapped on a clean glass slide using a cover slip and clay feet. Microscopy was performed at 12 °C using a Zeiss LSM 700 confocal microscope. Both bright field and DIC mode were used to capture images of whole embryos. Fluorescence images of embryos expressing SpARC4-mCherry were captured upon excitation at 555 nm.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

ADP-ribosyl cyclase expression is developmentally regulated. In previous studies, transcripts for SpARC2 (Churamani et al., 2008) and SpARCα, β and γ (Davis et al., 2008) were detected in sea urchin eggs. To extend these studies, we systematically analyzed the expression of all known SpARC isoforms including SpARC4 during early development by semi-quantitative PCR. Amplions of the expected size for SpARC1 (972 bp), SpARC2 (638 bp) and SpARC3 (619 bp) were detectable in the egg (Fig. 1) in accord with earlier reports (Churamani et al., 2008; Davis et al., 2008). SpARC4 transcripts (expected amplicon size: 298 bp) were also detectable. The results indicate that all SpARCs are maternally expressed.

Figure 1. ADP-ribosyl cyclase expression is developmentally regulated. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis for SpARC1 (A), SpARC2 (B), SpARC3 (C), SpARC4 (D) and ubiquitin (SpUQ, E). Analyses was performed using cDNA synthesised from egg and embryos at the indicated time post-fertilization either in the presence (top lanes; +) or absence (bottom lanes; −) of reverse transcriptase. Size of the molecular weight markers are indicated to the right. Results are representative of 3 independent fertilizations. Embryos were developed at 16 °C.

Figure 2. ADP-ribosyl cyclase activity is developmentally regulated. HPLC analyses of cADPR (A) and NAADP (B) production by egg and embryo homogenates prepared at the indicated time post-fertilization. (C) Ratio of cADPR/NAADP production. Data are presented as mean ± S.E.M of 3 independent fertilizations. The embryos were developed at 16 °C.
SpARC expression showed marked changes during subsequent development (up to 58 h). Transcript levels for SpARC1 were low in eggs and early embryos but increased from 27.5 h post-fertilization corresponding to the gastrula transition (Fig. 1(A)). Conversely, SpARC2 levels were relatively high in eggs and early embryos but decreased during the gastrula transition (Fig. 1(C)). For SpARC3, the transcript levels in the egg were low, decreasing further to almost negligible levels by 10 h (Fig. 1(C)). But at 21 h (corresponding to late blastula stage), SpARC3 expression increased (Fig. 1(C)). Finally, for SpARC4, the expression was low in the egg and early embryos but increased

Figure 3. Over-expression of SpARC4 disrupts gastrulation. Morphology of control embryos (left) or embryos injected with SpARC4-mCherry mRNA (right) at the indicated time post-fertilisation corresponding to blastula (A), gastrula (B) and prism/pluteus (C) stages. Images on the right are overlaid with confocal images of mRFP. Results are representative of 3 independent fertilizations. Embryos were developed at 12 °C.
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significantly from 27.5 h post-fertilization, again corresponding to the gastrula transition (Fig. 1(D)).

Taken together, these results suggest that expression of each SpARC isoform is uniquely regulated during sea urchin embryogenesis. The presence of SpARC1 transcripts in embryos potentially reconciles previous discrepancies regarding the subcellular location of SpARC1/β. Davis et al concluded that SpARC/β is located within cortical granules in eggs (Davis et al., 2008) but these structures undergo exocytosis at fertilization and thus are absent in somatic cells. This isoform must therefore reside elsewhere during later development possibly in the ER as reported for SpARC1 by Churamani et al. (Churamani et al., 2007).

ADP-ribosyl cyclase activity is developmentally regulated. Previous studies have identified ADP-ribosyl cyclase activities in the sea urchin egg (Graeff et al., 1998; Wilson and Galione, 1998). Little however is known regarding ADP-ribosyl cyclase activities in developing sea urchin embryos. We therefore measured endogenous cyclisation activity by HPLC using NAD as a substrate. cADPR production was observed at all the developmental time points tested (Fig. 2(A)). Cyclisation activity was 2 ± 0.6 nmol/mg/h in the egg. Activity decreased during subsequent development reaching a minimum by ∼20 h. Activity then recovered to that measured in the egg by ∼50 h (advanced prism stages) and further increased at ∼70 h (pluteus stage). At this point the production of cADPR was approximately two-fold higher than in eggs (Fig. 2(A)).

Base-exchange activity was also measured in parallel. For these experiments, homogenates were incubated with NADP and nicotinic acid at acidic pH to favour NAADP production. Like cADPR, NAADP was produced at all the developmental time points analysed (Fig. 2(B)). Base-exchange activity in the egg (5.3 ± 0.6 nmol/mg/h) was higher than cyclisation activity. Activity then decreased reaching a minimum at the blastula stage (27 h) and remaining relatively constant through gastrula (33 h), prism (46 h), and the advanced prism (53 h) stages. NAADP production rebounded at the pluteus stage (68 h) but remained lower than that in eggs (Fig. 2(B)).

cADPR and NAADP production are therefore differentially regulated during embryogenesis. This is highlighted in Figure 2(C) where the ratio of cyclisation and base-exchange is calculated at each developmental time point. The analysis shows that in eggs and early embryos, NAADP production is favoured (ratio < 1) whereas later in development NAADP and cADPR production are more comparable (ratio ∼ 1).

ADP-ribosyl cyclases regulate gastrulation. We have previously shown that recombinant SpARC isoforms have unique catalytic properties (Churamani et al., 2007; Churamani et al., 2008; Ramakrishnan et al., 2010). Notably, SpARC4 preferentially produces cADPR over NAADP (Ramakrishnan et al., 2010) whereas SpARC1 and SpARC2 show the opposite preference (Churamani et al., 2007; Churamani et al., 2008). The increase during early development of both the endogenous cyclisation:base exchange activity ratio (Fig. 2(C)) and expression of SpARC4 (Fig. 1(D)) prompted us to probe the role of SpARC4 in embryogenesis. To achieve this, development of embryos over-expressing SpARC4 was compared with control embryos from the same batch. The control embryos developed as expected. Ciliated blastula stage embryos with intact fertilization envelopes were observed 15 h post-fertilization (Fig. 3(A)). The embryos hatched between 20–21 h. The free-swimming embryos initiated gastrulation after 46 h (Fig. 3(B)). The archenteron was fully developed and a pair of tri-radiate spicules were seen at the end of 3 d. By 5 d, the pluteus stage of the elongated larva with arms and tri-partitioned stomach was visible (Fig. 3(C)).

Confocal microscopy of embryos injected with mRNA encoding SpARC4 tagged with mCherry confirmed expression of the construct at 14 h post-fertilization. Expression persisted for at least 6 days of development. SpARC4-mCherry expressing embryos developed similarly to the control embryos up to the ciliated blastula stage (Fig. 3(A)). Importantly, most SpARC4-mCherry expressing embryos failed to gastrulate (Fig. 3(B)). Some embryos underwent delayed but abnormal gastrulation, such that the archenteron was curved and fused to the embryo wall at an abnormal angle with evidence of abnormal spicule formation (data not shown). These effects are likely specific to SpARCs, and unrelated to overexpression, since many proteins can be expressed in the embryo without deleterious consequences (for example see (Gokirmak et al., 2012)). Interestingly, a recent study showed that knockdown of sea star ADP-ribosyl cyclase caused lethality at the gastrula stage consistent with a conserved role for ADP-ribosyl cyclases in echinoderm development (Ramos et al., 2014). Thus, both overexpression and knockdown of ADP-ribosyl cyclases disrupts gastrulation pointing to a precise level of enzyme activity for sustaining echinoderm development.

CONCLUSION

In summary, we provide an analysis of ADP-ribosyl cyclase expression, activity and function during sea urchin development. Our results identify a potential role for ADP-ribosyl cyclases during gastrulation. Ca2+ signalling during this critical period has been previously described in vertebrate embryos (Webb and Miller, 2006). Sea urchins are unique in their expanded ADP-ribosyl cyclase complement even within echinoderms given that sea stars appear to possess only a single ADP-ribosyl cyclase (Ramos et al., 2014). Both cADPR and NAADP contribute to Ca2+ signals at fertilization of sea urchin eggs (Galione et al., 1993; Lee et al., 1993) which contrasts to mammalian
eggs which are driven primarily by IP$_3$ generated by a sperm-specific phospholipase C (Saunders et al., 2003). We suggest that whilst the role of Ca$^{2+}$ in regulating developmental events is likely conserved in deuterostomes, the underlying mechanisms for generating Ca$^{2+}$ signals may differ. Further analysis of ADP-ribosyl cyclases during sea urchin development is thus warranted.

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