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Biophysical Chemistry 72 (1998) 123–129

Biophysical  
Chemistry

# $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ wave dispersion and spiral wave entrainment in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes overexpressing $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ATPases

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Revision received 12 January 1998; accepted 13 February 1998

## Abstract

Complex, spatiotemporal patterns of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release in *Xenopus* oocytes can be accounted for by the operation of two fundamental processes:  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) via the inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor ( $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$ ) with its inherent dependency on cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake via  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ATPases. Overexpression of sarco-endoplasmic reticulum  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ATPases (SERCAs) in *Xenopus* oocytes, increases  $\text{IP}_3$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave frequency and amplitude [1–3]. This effect can be attributed to an increased removal of cytoplasmic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and more efficient refilling of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores. By overexpressing SERCA isoforms, we report here that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves exhibit dispersion [4–6]. At wavelengths greater than 60  $\mu\text{m}$ , wave velocity is constant. However, wave velocity and amplitude progressively decreases at smaller wavelengths. Below  $\lambda \sim 20 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves disperse and fail to propagate. In oocytes exhibiting both spiral and target patterns of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release, spiral waves had higher frequencies and showed entrainment of the surrounding regions. These properties are characteristic of a classical excitable medium [4–6]. © 1998 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved

**Keywords:**  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations; Inositol; Oocytes; Excitable media

## 1. Introduction and background

Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate ( $\text{IP}_3$ )-induced intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release plays a key role in the action of many hormone and neurotransmitter pathways [7–10]. Cell growth, differentiation, secretion and contraction are processes controlled by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling. It is well established that the mechanism of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release begins with G-protein or tyrosine kinase mediated activation of phospholipase C (PLC). At the plasma membrane, PLC, stimulates production of  $\text{IP}_3$  which

diffuses into the cytosol where it binds to the  $\text{IP}_3$  receptor ( $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$ ), releasing  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stores.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals produced by hormone activation are complex in spatial and temporal domains [11]. Oscillations in the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  response have been suggested to encode cellular functions [12]. Gu and Spitzer [13] have demonstrated that developmental changes in a  $\text{K}^+$  current, neurite outgrowth, and secretion are dependent on the occurrence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves. Hajnoczky and Thomas [14] have shown that mitochondrial respiration depends on the frequency of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves in hepatocytes. Spatial control of gene expression has also been

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demonstrated in a mouse pituitary cell line (AtT20 cells) where transient increases in nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  control transcription of genes that contain the cyclic AMP responsive element (CRE), while cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients are necessary for the activation of transcription via the serum-response element (SRE) [15]. Thus, in many cases spatial and/or temporal transients in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , rather than a continuous global  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release are required to activate a cellular process.

## 2. $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ release is an excitable process

In *Xenopus* oocytes, we have described complex spatiotemporal patterns of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release using confocal microscopy [1–3,16–20]. Depending on the concentration of  $\text{IP}_3$ , we observe different patterns of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release. At low  $\text{IP}_3$  concentrations (10–50 nM), discrete sites of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release are observed and have been referred to as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ‘puffs’ [21]. In cardiac cells, where the analogous intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release channel is the ryanodine receptor, these discrete, elementary events are called  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ‘sparks’ [22]. At slightly higher concentrations of  $\text{IP}_3$  (50–100 nM), abortive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves propagate asymmetrically and travel only short distances (~10–50  $\mu\text{m}$ ). At high concentrations of  $\text{IP}_3$  (>1–10  $\mu\text{M}$ ), we typically observe a large tide of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release with no repetitive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves. It is only at intermediate concentrations of  $\text{IP}_3$  (100 nM to 1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) that repetitive complex  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave patterns are obtained [1,2]. Specifically, we observe propagating  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves originating at multiple focal sites and generating broken, circular and spiral waves [16,18]. However, the probability of observing these focal sites is higher in the animal pole of the oocyte.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves annihilate each other upon collision, revealing an underlying refractory period during which  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release is temporarily inhibited [2]. Furthermore, the waves propagate with undiminished amplitude, suggesting a regenerative mechanism. These fundamental observations are characteristic of an excitable medium [23]. An excitable process is one that undergoes a large excursion away from steady state in response to a suprathreshold stimulus, and returns to steady state before it can respond to a new suprathreshold stimulus. When individual excitable processes are coupled by a common diffusible catalyst, a set of mathematical rules accounts for very complex spatio-

temporal pattern formations. Spiral and circular waves are the trademark patterns of excitable media, and are observed in systems ranging from the classic Belousov–Zhabotinsky chemical reaction, to aggregating slime mold in *Dictyostelium discoideum* and electrical activity in neuronal and cardiac tissue [24–27]. Our original discovery [16] of propagating and annihilating spiral  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves in *Xenopus* oocytes extended the framework of excitability to intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling. Importantly, this concept of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  excitability can also be successfully applied to other cell types as well as to intercellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in tissues such as heart, liver, brain and more recently, in the retina [28–32,55].

## 3. $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ release (CICR) is the elementary excitable event

The fundamental property responsible for excitability is the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dependency of the  $\text{IP}_3$ -bound  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  [18]. At low  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations, the  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  ion channel is closed, however, its probability of opening increases with increasing cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations [33–36]. Consequently,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions released from the open  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  act to further increase the open probability of the channel. This positive feedback loop is referred to as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (CICR). At high  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations, the probability of channel opening decreases leading to inactivation [33–36]. It has been suggested that inhibition of the  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  may be mediated by an accessory protein called calmodulin [37,38]. Both activation (channel opening) and inactivation (channel closing) of the  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  are faster at higher  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels [35]. These strongly non-linear properties of the  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  constitute fundamental feedback mechanisms ultimately responsible for complex  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave activity.

$\text{Ca}^{2+}$  diffusion, together with the process of CICR serves to couple individual  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release sites ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  puffs or sparks) into an excitable medium which can propagate  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves. However, wave propagation is only successful when the density of  $\text{IP}_3$ -bound  $\text{IP}_3\text{Rs}$  (excitable sites) is sufficiently high so that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  released from one receptor can diffuse to neighboring receptors. The amount of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  released and the distance to the nearest excitable  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  are rate limiting steps in this process. Reducing  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  channel inactivation will increase the amount of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  released and will

thereby increase the likelihood of continuous wave propagation. The distance to the nearest IP<sub>3</sub>-bound IP<sub>3</sub>R can also be decreased by increasing the concentration of IP<sub>3</sub> (assuming that the channels are not saturated). We suggest that the increasing occupation of IP<sub>3</sub>Rs by IP<sub>3</sub> underlies the continuous progression from Ca<sup>2+</sup> sparks/puffs to asymmetric abortive Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves, and from the later to a continuous Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave. The amount of Ca<sup>2+</sup> released during a Ca<sup>2+</sup> spark/puff appears to be too large to be attributed to Ca<sup>2+</sup> release through a single receptor protein [39,40]. Thus, these events are presumably due to the activation of a few receptors in a cluster acting as a functional unit. Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from single IP<sub>3</sub>Rs or ryanodine receptors are referred to as blips and quarks, respectively [40]. If the Ca<sup>2+</sup> release which initiates a Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave originates from a cluster of receptors, then the distance between IP<sub>3</sub>R clusters and the activation state of neighboring clusters will be important in determining whether wave propagation is successful.

#### 4. The role of Ca<sup>2+</sup> ATPases (SERCAs)

Once Ca<sup>2+</sup> is released into the cytosol, resting Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels are restored by pumping Ca<sup>2+</sup> either across the plasma membrane [41] or back into the sarco-endoplasmic reticulum stores [42]. Here, we focus on the sarco-endoplasmic reticulum Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPases (SERCAs). Three distinct genes have been cloned (SERCAs 1, 2 and 3) with alternatively spliced variants (SERCA 1a and 1b; SERCA 2a and 2b) [43–48]. Lytton et al. [49] have studied the Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensitivity and transport capacities of all SERCAs by overexpression in COS cells. The SERCA 2b isoform is expressed in non-muscle and has the highest affinity for Ca<sup>2+</sup> ( $K_D \sim 200$  nM) while having also the lowest transport capacity of all ATPases. SERCAs 1 and 2a have comparable Ca<sup>2+</sup> affinities ( $K_D \sim 400$  nM) and are expressed in fast skeletal muscle and cardiac/slow twitch muscles, respectively. Finally, SERCA 3 which is particularly abundant in thymus, intestine and cerebellum, has the lowest sensitivity to cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> ( $K_D \sim 1$   $\mu$ M). SERCA 3 has a unique ER signaling target which is not shared by other isoforms and has been suggested to reside in a ER subcompartment which is chronically elevated with Ca<sup>2+</sup> [50]. Preli-

minary experiments suggest that SERCA 2b and SERCA 3 are the isoforms endogenously expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (J. Lytton, pers. commun.).

#### 5. Overexpression of SERCA isoforms in *Xenopus* oocytes

As we mention above, injections of IP<sub>3</sub> at intermediate concentrations ( $\sim 100$ – $300$  nM) elicit distinctive Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave patterns. This activity is characterized by the appearance of an initial tidal wave of Ca<sup>2+</sup> which is followed by oscillatory waves with a periodicity of  $\sim 10$  s (Fig. 1). Overexpression of the fast twitch skeletal muscle SERCA1 isoform results in Ca<sup>2+</sup> oscillations of higher frequency without a preceding tidal wave [1]. Two-three days following mRNA injections, a two–three-fold increase in frequency is observed (wave period  $\sim 4$  s). In addition to changes in wave frequency, SERCA1 overexpression resulted in an  $\sim$ two-fold increase in the amplitude of individual waves at peak activity [1].

#### 6. Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave dispersion and spiral entrainment in oocytes overexpressing SERCAs

In an excitable medium, wave dispersion occurs when consecutive waves propagate into regions which have recently been excited and hence are still refractory [4–6]. The frequency at which dispersion begins to occur provides an estimate of the refractory period of the underlying excitatory event. As the wave frequency increases beyond this value, an increasing number of refractory Ca<sup>2+</sup> release sites is encountered and more time is needed to reach the excitation threshold. This leads to a continual decrease in wave velocity and amplitude as the frequency increases. Eventually, the number of active receptors decreases to a point where wave propagation cannot be supported and dispersion occurs.

The Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave frequency in oocytes uninjected with mRNA is not sufficiently high to affect wave velocity. Fig. 1 shows a control oocyte in which the velocity of wave propagation remained constant at  $\sim 19.0$   $\mu$ m/s as the wavelength decreased from  $\sim 100$  to  $60$   $\mu$ m (average periodicity of  $\sim 10$  s). Similar results were obtained in other oocytes ( $n = 48$ ),

where the period between consecutive waves varied between 6–13 s and the wave velocity remained constant at  $\sim 20 \mu\text{m/s}$ . The wavelength in these oocytes varied from  $60 \mu\text{m}$  to over  $200 \mu\text{m}$ . Similarly, when  $\text{IP}_3$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave activity is measured 2–3 days after SERCA1 mRNA injections, we also observed no variance in velocity over the measured wave frequencies. The wave velocity averaged  $21.5 \mu\text{m/s}$  with period of  $\sim 4 \text{ s}$  [1]. These data indicated that the underlying refractory period must be less than 4 s.

We were able to further increase the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave frequency up to five-fold over control oocytes when

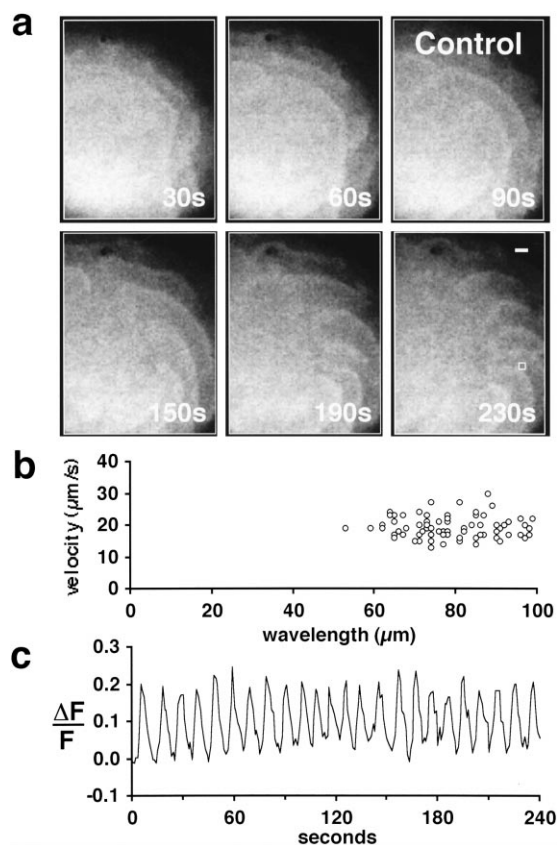


Fig. 1.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave activity in a control oocyte does not show the dispersion phenomenon. (a)  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  activity was induced by a 50 nl bolus injection of  $\text{IP}_3$  (final concentration  $\sim 300 \text{ nM}$ ). Confocal images of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves are shown for images taken at times indicated. The scale bar in frame 230 s is  $50 \mu\text{m}$ . (b) Scatter plot of wave velocities as a function of wavelength. Average velocity is  $18.8 \mu\text{m/s}$ . (c) Line plot of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave intensity for the  $5 \times 5$  pixel square shown in frame 230 s.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration is expressed as  $\Delta F/F_{\text{rest}}$  where  $\Delta F = F - F_{\text{rest}}$ . The wave period during these measurements averaged  $\sim 10 \text{ s}$ .

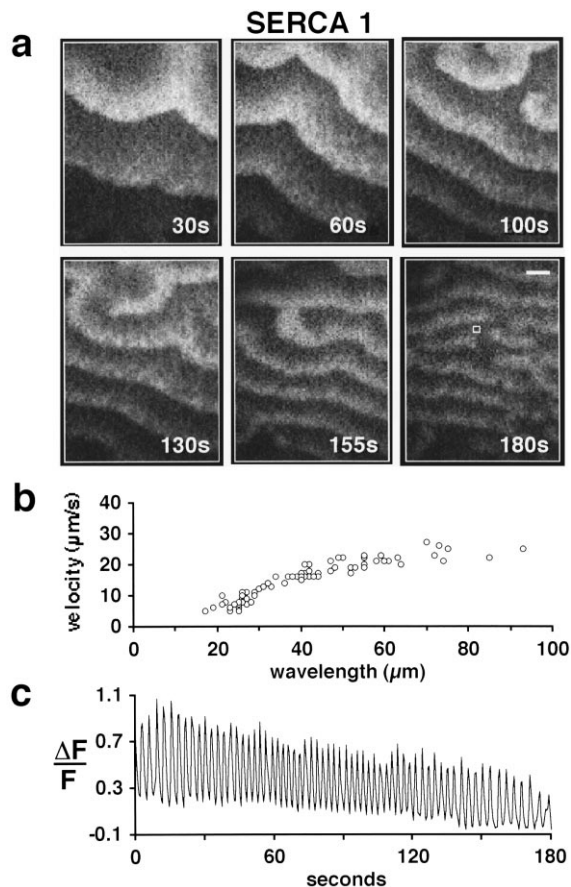


Fig. 2. Repetitive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave activity in an oocyte overexpressing SERCA 1 shows wave dispersion. (a) Images of repetitive  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves at high magnification ( $40\times$  objective lens).  $\text{IP}_3$  concentration is  $\sim 300 \text{ nM}$  (final). Scale bar is  $20 \mu\text{m}$ . (b) Scatter plot of wave velocities shows a decrease in velocity as the wavelength decreases. (c) Line plot of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration for the  $5 \times 5$  pixel square shown in frame 180 s. The wave period is  $\sim 2.8 \text{ s}$  during the first 60 s and  $\sim 3.1 \text{ s}$  during the final 60 s.

we changed the expression vector for the SERCA1 to include the 5' and 3' untranslated regions of *Xenopus*  $\beta$ -globin gene [3]. In addition, we waited longer (5–7 days after mRNA injections) before  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave activity was induced by  $\text{IP}_3$  injections and analyzed. These procedures increased oocyte SERCA1 expression such that the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave periods decreased to between 1.5 and 3 s. At these wave frequencies, we observed a progressive reduction in both wave amplitude and velocity (Fig. 2), which is indicative of wave dispersion. It has previously been reported that SERCA 1 and SERCA 2a have similar biophysical properties

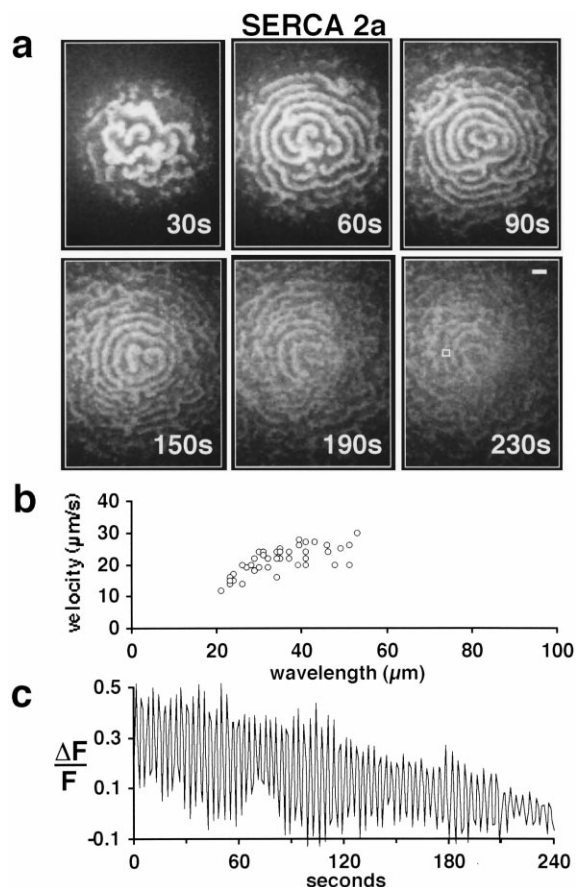


Fig. 3. Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave dispersion in an oocyte overexpressing SERCA 2a. (a) Individual confocal images of Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave activity. IP<sub>3</sub> concentration is ~300 nM (final). Scale bar is 50 μm. (b) Scatter plot of wave velocities. (c) Line plot of Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration for the 5 × 5 pixel square shown in frame 230s. The wave period is 3.3 s during the first 120 s and 3.5 s during the final 120 s.

when overexpressed in COS cells [49]. Similar to SERCA1 expressing oocytes, Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave dispersion was detected (Fig. 3). These data indicate that the refractory period value of the underlying excitatory event is approximately 3 s.

We also investigated IP<sub>3</sub>-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves in oocytes expressing high levels of SERCA 2b, using the same protocols as for SERCAs 1 and 2a. Interestingly, the IP<sub>3</sub>-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave frequencies were not as high as those observed in SERCA 1 or 2a expressing oocytes, consistent with the lower transport capacity of SERCA 2b [49]. Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave periods varied between 2 and 4 s. However, SERCA 2b expressing oocytes still exhibited Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave dispersion with

interwave periods as high as 4 s (Fig. 4). These data suggest that the refractory period may be as long as 4 s. One explanation of these data is that the underlying refractory event cannot begin to reset until Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels return to baseline levels. Since SERCA 2b has a lower transport capacity, cytoplasmic Ca<sup>2+</sup> following a wave returns to baseline more slowly. Hence, the overall time that is needed for recovery is longer. Alternatively, the higher amplitude of SERCA 2b vs. SERCA 2a and 1 Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves (cf Figs. 2, 3 and 4) may cause IP<sub>3</sub>Rs to inactivate for longer periods of

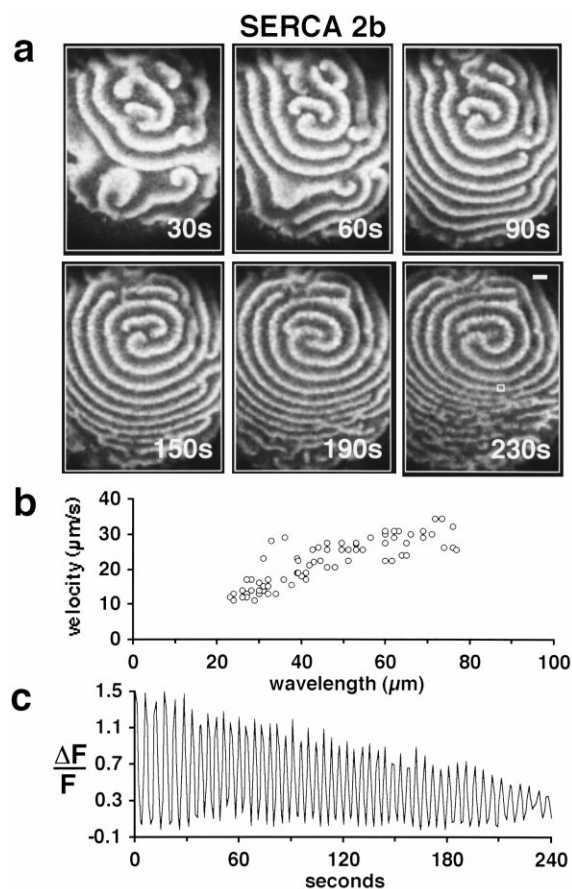


Fig. 4. Ca<sup>2+</sup> wave dispersion in an oocyte overexpressing SERCA 2b. (a) Images of repetitive Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves are collected under the same conditions in Fig. 3. (b) Scatter plot of wave velocities shows a reduction in wave velocity as the wavelength decreases. (d) Line plot of Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration (5 × 5 pixel square shown in frame 230 s) shows a decrease in wave amplitude as a function of time. The wave period is 4.6 s during the first 120 s and 4.8 s during the final 120 s.

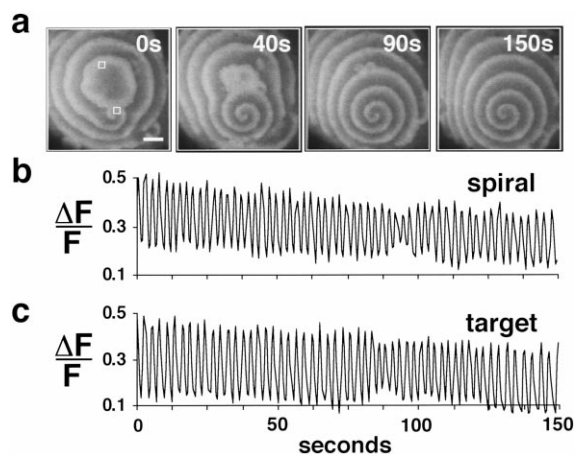


Fig. 5. Spiral wave entrainment in an oocyte overexpressing SERCA 2b. (a) Images of  $\text{IP}_3$ -induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave activity. Oocyte was injected with  $\text{IP}_3$  (300 nM final) 3 min before the first image shown (labeled at time = 0 s). Scale bar is 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . (b) Line plots of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave intensity at the  $5 \times 5$  pixel squares shown in frame 0 s for the spiral pattern (b, period  $\sim 2.56$  s) and for the target pattern (c, period  $\sim 2.68$  s).  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  intensity is expressed as  $\Delta F/F$ . Intensity measurements were made at 0.5-s intervals.

time. Finch et al. [35] have reported a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dependence for  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  inactivation.

In some oocytes overexpressing SERCAs,  $\text{IP}_3$  injections resulted in the simultaneous presence of both spiral and target patterns of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves. For the oocyte shown in Fig. 5, the spiral wave had a periodicity of  $\sim 2.564$  s while the target pattern had a period of  $\sim 2.679$  s. Over time, the spiral wave in this oocyte spatially dominated the entire area. The same phenomenon, called entrainment, was observed and analyzed in a second oocyte with slightly slower wave frequencies. In this oocyte, the spiral and target patterns had periods of 3.278 s and 3.448 s, respectively. As with the first oocyte (Fig. 5), the spiral pattern enveloped the entire oocyte within 3 min. This entrainment can be attributed to the slightly higher frequency of the spiral wave over the target wave pattern.

## 7. Discussion

The classic role attributed to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ATPases has been that of refilling and maintaining intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores. Our data demonstrate that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pumps also dynamically mod-

ulate the release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  into the cytosol. Overexpression of SERCA isoforms in the oocyte, increased wave amplitudes and frequencies for SERCAs 1, 2a and 2b when compared to control oocytes (non-mRNA injected). We suggest that the increase in wave amplitude is due to an increase in the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  store content. Thus, when an  $\text{IP}_3\text{R}$  channel opens, the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  flux is larger due to a larger driving force. This increased  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  flux contributes to an increase in wave frequency since less time is now required for cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels to exceed excitation threshold levels. We previously defined excitation threshold as the point at which more  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is released via CICR than is re-sequestered by the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ATPases into the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores. Hence, the positive feedback of CICR results in a large non-linear increase in cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [2].

An interesting consequence of increased wave frequencies is that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave dispersion can now be observed in oocytes. For all three SERCA subtypes (1, 2a and 2b), we observed a dependence of wave velocity on wave spacing. The minimal distance between waves that we observe is  $\sim 20$   $\mu\text{m}$ . Interestingly, the drop off in wave velocity appears linear for some oocytes (Figs. 3 and 4). This may be due to the limitation in spatial resolution since higher magnification shows a non-linear fall off (Fig. 2). Alternatively, a linear relationship between wavelength and velocity is suggestive of the kinematic waves described by Jafri and Keizer [51]. Model simulation by these authors indicate that the diffusion of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  may play only a minor role in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave propagation and under certain conditions,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves may be primarily kinematic in nature, dependent on the phase differences between oscillators at different spatial points. Consistent with this model, Hagan [52] theoretically proved the existence of spiral wave solutions for reaction-diffusion systems close to a Hopf bifurcation. Finally, we have determined experimental boundaries in which  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave dispersion occurs. In *Xenopus* oocytes, it is clear that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave dispersion is supported when the system oscillates with a periodicity lower than 4 s.

The existence of a refractory period leads to the prediction of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave entrainment. In this phenomenon, high frequency waves overtake low frequency waves (Fig. 5). Spiral entrainment has potentially important implications for the encoding of signals in biological systems. Specifically, a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signal

encoded in the temporal domain (frequency) can be transduced into a spatial domain. Consequently, mechanisms which alter the expression levels of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPases [53,54] are predicted to greatly affect  $\text{IP}_3$ -mediated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) with grants to JL (GM48451) and to PC (GM55372)

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