Inositol trisphosphate stimulates the release of calcium from intact vacuoles isolated from *Acer* cells

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On addition of inositol trisphosphate, intact vacuoles isolated from *Acer pseudoplatanus* cell suspension cultures release part of their calcium content. The process was specific, dose-dependent ($IC_{50} = 0.2 \mu M$) and was inhibited by an intracellular calcium antagonist. The calcium efflux elicited by inositol trisphosphate increased with the age of the cell suspension cultures, the maximum effect being obtained when the cultures reached the stationary phase. It is suggested that vacuoles play a role as an endocellular calcium store that is responsive to inositol trisphosphate in plants.

Phosphoinositol; Second messenger; Ca2+; Vacuole

1. INTRODUCTION

Calcium is now accepted to play a central role in the cascade of events that allows plant cells to convert an external stimulus into the adapted biological response [1,2]. Therefore, its mobilization, namely the control of the entry of external calcium through the plasma membrane and the release of Ca²⁺ from potential intracellular stores is crucial to modulate cytosolic concentrations. In higher plants, various Ca²⁺ transport mechanisms have been shown to occur including calcium channels and Ca²⁺-ATPase on plasmalemma-enriched fractions and protoplasts [3,5], or in organelles such as mitochondria, plastids and vacuoles [6]. However, the role of the vacuole, the largest plant cell organelle that may accumulate up to 10 mM

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Abbreviations: IP₃, inositol trisphosphate; Quin 2, 2-[[2-[bis-(carboxymethyl)amino]-5-methylphenoxy]methyl]-6-methoxy-8-bis(carboxylmethyl)amino]quinoline; TMB8, 8-(N,N-dimethylamino)octyl 3,4,5-trimethoxybenzoate

Ca²⁺ [7,8], has to be considered more specifically in terms of Ca²⁺ mobilization. Recent works have established that Ca²⁺-loaded vesicles derived from the tonoplast (the vacuolar membrane) release Ca²⁺ on addition of IP₃ [9]. The present paper reports results that extend the above-mentioned data to intact organelles, points out some characteristics of the calcium efflux and demonstrates the role of the vacuole as a reservoir for second messenger.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Chemicals and biochemicals

All the chemicals and biochemicals were analytical grade. IP₃, Quin 2, TMB8 and diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Other chemicals were from Merck (Darmstadt, FRG).

2.2. Vacuoles preparation

Vacuoles were isolated from protoplasts derived from cell suspension cultures of *Acer pseudoplatanus* as described [10]. Unless stated otherwise, the isolated organelles were suspended in 25 mM Tris-Mes buffer, pH 6.5, supplemented with 0.7 M mannitol and 8% ficol.

2.3. Measurements of calcium efflux

The standard assays contained: 100 μ M Quin 2 and 10⁶ vacuoles in 2 ml final volume. The fluorescence was measured

(Kontron SFM 25 model) at $\lambda_{ex} = 339$ nm and $\lambda_{em} = 492$ nm (5 nm band width) [11]. Changes in fluorescence in response to the addition of the specified compounds were recorded at 25°C.

Where indicated, the concentrations of calcium released were calculated as:

[Ca] =
$$K_d \times \frac{F_{\text{max}} - F}{F - F_{\text{min}}}$$

with $K_{\rm d}$ (dissociation constant), 115 nM; F, measured fluorescence of the sample; $F_{\rm max}$, maximum fluorescence measured after lysis of the vacuoles by 1% Triton in the presence of 1 mM CaCl₂ and 100 μ M diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid to trap heavy metals [12]. $F_{\rm min}$, minimum fluorescence measured after the subsequent addition of 5 mM EGTA at pH 9.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

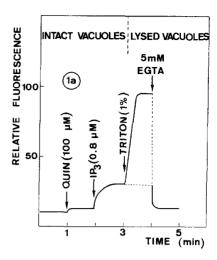
Fig.1a depicts the changes of the relative fluorescence on sequential addition of various compounds to a suspension of vacuoles from Acer. Quin 2 itself led to a signal which was stable for at least 4 min and may be nullified manually. The addition of $0.8 \, \mu M$ IP₃ elicited an increase in fluorescence that reached a steady state within 1 min. On lysis of vacuoles by 1% Triton, a dramatic increase of the fluorescence was observed, that may be quenched by an excess of alkaline solution of EGTA.

Fig.1b shows that the addition of buffer, after IP₃ led either to no change (10 μ l buffer) or a slight decrease in fluorescence due to the dilution afforded by the buffer (50 μ l). In contrast to IP₃, the compounds listed in table 1 were without effects on the Ca²⁺ release.

Fig.2 shows that the effects of IP₃ may be inhibited by the intracellular Ca²⁺ antagonist, TMB8 [13]. The inhibition was dose-dependent and led maximally to 80% decrease with respect to the control value.

From these various experiments it is concluded that the vacuoles are rather stable in the experimental conditions used and exhibit minor alteration (if any). More importantly, IP₃ appears to elicit calcium release from vacuole suspensions and to act in a specific manner when compared to non-substituted *myo*-inositol or to other phosphorylated compounds including inositol 1-phosphate.

Different characteristics of the process have been further examined. Thus, the IP₃-released Ca²⁺ was dependent upon IP₃ concentrations



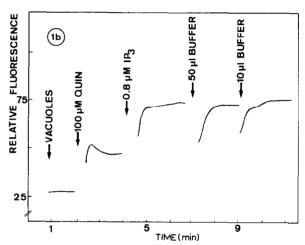


Fig.1. Effects of IP₃ on the calcium release from vacuoles isolated from *Acer pseudoplatanus*. (a) Kinetics of the process. 9-day-old cell suspension cultures of *Acer* were used as vacuole source. (b) Effects of sequential additions of IP₃ and buffer.

Table 1

Effect of different compounds on the efflux of calcium

| Compounds | Maximal concentration used (µM) | Relative effect |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| Inositol trisphosphate | 1 | 100 |
| Ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate | 10 | 0 |
| Glucose 6-phosphate | 100 | 0 |
| Inositol | 100 | 0 |
| Inositol 1-phosphate | 10 | 0 |
| Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate | 20 | 0 |

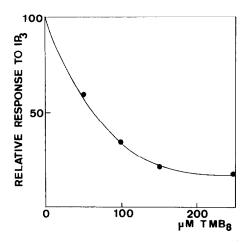


Fig. 2. Effect of TMB8 on the IP₃-dependent Ca²⁺ release. Quin 2 (100 μM) was added to a suspension of vacuoles as for fig. 1. Then, the preparation was supplemented with increasing concentrations of TMB8 and allowed to equilibrate for 2 min. Finally, IP₃ (1 μM) was added and the resulting increase in fluorescence recorded. The data are expressed as a percentage of Ca²⁺ efflux in the absence of TMB8.

(fig.3). The process was saturable with apparent $IC_{50} = 0.2 \,\mu\text{M}$. Moreover, the osmotic pressure influenced the efflux of Ca^{2+} without changing the affinity constant. In this way, on decreasing the concentration of osmoticum (mannitol), the rate of Ca^{2+} release was stimulated in parallel. The lower limit (0.6 M mannitol) has been chosen to avoid any lysis of the vacuoles due to the osmotic shock.

The rate of IP₃-dependent calcium efflux changed with the age of the cell suspension cultures (fig.4). It clearly appears that IP₃ was essentially ineffective on vacuoles isolated from young cells (up to 5 days) which contain more than one vacuole per cell (not shown). The release of calcium dramatically increased with the age of the cultures, reached a maximum value (day 10) and decreased slightly (up to day 13), whereas the IC₅₀ remains essentially constant throughout the culture period (not shown). The maximum effect was observed when the cell cultures reached the stationary phase. No efforts have been made to study vacuoles from cells older than 13 days due to the fragility of the organelles at these later stages. Moreover, IP₃ was without effect on the transtonoplastic pH gradient which may be involved in the Ca2+/H+ exchange as judged by

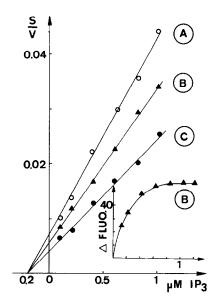


Fig. 3. Effects of increasing concentrations of IP₃ in various osmotic conditions on the efflux of vacuolar Ca²⁺. The osmolarity was obtained by manipulating the concentrations of mannitol in the assay media (10⁶ vacuoles). The rate of release was expressed as changes in fluorescence (Δ fluo) per min. (A) 0.75 M mannitol; (B) 0.7 M mannitol; (C) 0.65 M mannitol.

measurements with the quinacrine probe (not shown).

Data obtained with different plant systems suggest that phosphoinositides play a role in the transduction of stimuli. Such a conclusion has been drawn from the following observations: (i) phospholipase C and different inositol phosphates derived from phospholipids exist in plants [14–16]; (ii) the amounts of IP₃ may vary in response to different stimuli, including light [17] and auxin [18]; (iii) IP₃ evokes Ca²⁺ release from Ca²⁺-loaded vesicles [9,19,20].

This experimental evidence is in line with the observed situation in animal cells where IP₃ is an important link between the receptor-activated phosphoinositide breakdown and Ca²⁺ mobilization from internal stores. In animal cells, as far as Ca²⁺ mobilization is concerned, experiments have been essentially performed through the addition of IP₃ to permeabilized cells and microsomal fractions. These treatments triggered the rapid release of Ca²⁺ [21]. In plant cells, the large central vacuole is one of the major intracellular Ca²⁺ stores [7] namely up to 85% of the protoplasmic

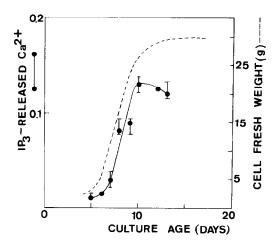


Fig. 4. Effects of $1P_3$ at saturating concentrations on the Ca^{2+} efflux with the age of the cell cultures. The amount of calcium released was expressed as 10^{-2} nmol calcium per 10^6 vacuoles.

 Ca^{2+} is trapped in these organelles in *Acer* cells [8]. The results described in this paper along with data already obtained with tonoplast vesicles [9] show that some of the vacuolar Ca^{2+} may be mobilized in response to IP_3 .

Despite their fragility, isolated intact vacuoles display major advantages: (i) the membrane is right-side out; (ii) they have not to be artificially loaded with radioactive solutes. However, the most important advantage in the present study lies in the fact that they keep their endogenous content. Therefore any registered efflux of solutes reveals that the corresponding compound is present in the vacuole in a releasable form and then can be potentially mobilized in the cytoplasm.

Non-permeant fluorescent indicators may be used to test Ca²⁺ efflux from these natural membrane vesicles in a non-invasive and non-destructive way. The Ca²⁺ chelator Quin 2 is a convenient probe in this respect as it does not cross membranes and therefore reports on extravacuolar Ca²⁺. Consequently quantitative estimates in different conditions are possible including physiological age and physical constraints.

From the data reported in this paper, the half-maximal Ca^{2+} release is obtained at $0.2 \,\mu\mathrm{M}$ IP₃ (compare with $0.6 \,\mu\mathrm{M}$ for tonoplast vesicles [9] and $10 \,\mu\mathrm{M}$ for crude membranes [18,19]). Moreover, at day 10, IP₃ elicits the release of 140 pmol calcium within 1 min from 10^6 vacuoles

 $(7 \mu l)$. Assuming an average volume of $0.7 \mu l$ for the corresponding cytoplasm, it means that within 1 min the cytosolic Ca²⁺ may reach 2×10^{-4} M which is more than enough to trigger Ca²⁺-dependent events. Thus the mobilized Ca²⁺ may potentially play a role in signal transduction.

In our experiments, the effect of osmotic pressure on the rate of IP₃-evoked calcium is of particular interest. Since the efficiency of the inositol phosphate increases with the surface of the vacuole without any change in affinity it can be suggested that the number of accessible IP₃ sites of action increases as a function of turgor.

As in animal cells the release of Ca²⁺ is rapid and occurs at less than micromolar concentrations of IP₃. It seems clear therefore, that the vacuole is one major source of IP₃-released Ca²⁺ in plant cells and can be compared in this way to the endoplasmic reticulum in animal cells. The identification of the vacuoles as a Ca²⁺ internal store sensitive to IP₃ appears however more direct than in the case of endoplasmic reticulum which has only been characterized by fractionation studies and autoradiography.

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