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5	Regulation and roles of Ca ²⁺ stores in human sperm.
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11 Abstract.

 $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signalling is a key regulatory mechanism in sperm function. In mammalian sperm the Ca²⁺-12 permeable, plasma membrane ion channel CatSper is central to $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signalling but there is good 13 evidence that Ca²⁺ stored in intracellular organelles is also functionally important. Here we briefly 14 review current understanding of the diversity of Ca²⁺ stores and the mechanisms for the regulation 15 of their activity. We then consider the evidence for the involvement of these stores in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ 16 17 signalling in mammalian (primarily human) sperm, the agonists that may activate these stores and their role in control of sperm function. Finally we consider the evidence that membrane Ca²⁺ 18 channels and stored Ca²⁺ may play discrete roles in the regulation of sperm activities and propose a 19 mechanism by which these different components of the sperm Ca²⁺-signalling apparatus may 20 interact to generate complex and spatially diverse $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signals. 21

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23 1. <u>Ca²⁺ signalling in sperm</u>

Cellular activity is constantly regulated by environmental cues and signals from other cells. Long 24 25 term regulation of cell function is normally achieved by control of gene expression, changing the 26 complement and levels of proteins in the cell, but rapid or short-term changes are achieved by 'post-27 translational' protein modification, such as phosphorylation, sumoylation and nitrosylation, which alter the function/activity of proteins already present. Ca²⁺-signalling is a key regulator of such post-28 translational modifications, with changes in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) controlling the 29 activities of key enzymes and proteins. Large changes in [Ca²⁺]_i can be achieved 'instantaneously' by 30 flux of Ca²⁺ into the cytoplasm from the extracellular fluid or from storage organelles (primarily the 31 endoplasmic reticulum) within the cell (fig 1a). The rapidity with which [Ca²⁺]i-signals can be 32 33 generated is crucial for 'instantaneous' cellular responses such as activation of muscle contraction 34 and secretion of neurotransmitter, that are achieved by rapid post-translational-modification of protein function. 35

36 The highly-condensed nucleus of sperm is transcriptionally silent (Miller and Ostermeier 2006,

37 Miller, et al. 2005) and translational activity is also negligible [though evidence has been presented

38 for translation occurring at mitochondrial ribosomes (Chandrashekran, et al. 2014a,

39 Chandrashekran, et al. 2014b, Gur and Breitbart 2007, Zhao, et al. 2009)]. Regulation of sperm function is therefore dependent primarily on post-translational processes. [Ca²⁺]_i signalling is pivotal 40 to this regulation and in mammalian sperm it plays a central role in controlling the cell's behaviour 41 42 (motility type and potentially chemotaxis), the induction of acrosome reaction and the process of capacitation (Darszon, et al. 2011, Darszon, et al. 2007, Publicover, et al. 2007). The importance for 43 sperm function of membrane Ca²⁺-channels and Ca²⁺-influx is well-established (Darszon, et al. 2011) 44 but there is also good evidence for the existence and functional importance of intracellular Ca²⁺-45 storage organelles in sperm (Darszon, et al. 2007, Publicover, et al. 2007). Previously we reviewed 46 the identities and functions of Ca²⁺ stores in sperm, focussing on the evidence for the existence of 47

48 such stores, their components (pumps and channels) and their possible roles in the regulation of function in the mature sperm cell (Costello, et al. 2009). Since then considerable progress has been 49 made in understanding the central role of Ca²⁺ signalling in the regulation of mammalian and non-50 mammalian sperm function and the mechanisms by which sperm $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signals are generated. In 51 particular successful application of whole cell patch clamp technique, in human as well as mouse 52 sperm, has revealed the central importance of Ca²⁺ influx through CatSper, a sperm specific, Ca²⁺-53 54 permeable channel in the membrane of the flagellar principal piece. Male mice null for CatSper are 55 infertile (Ren, et al. 2001) and their sperm show defective motility (Carlson, et al. 2003). Here we review recent progress in understanding the diversity of mechanisms for the regulation of Ca²⁺ store 56 activity and the evidence for their involvement in controlling sperm function. 57

58 <u>2. Ca²⁺ stores and their regulation</u>

The importance of Ca²⁺ stores in generating complex Ca²⁺ signals in somatic cells has long been 59 recognized. Until relatively recently the endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ store has been the major focus 60 for research as this was the first organelle to show controllable mobilization of Ca²⁺ through second 61 messengers acting upon intracellular Ca²⁺ channels, as well as being able to be refilled via Ca²⁺ 62 pumps. Additionally, these Ca²⁺ signals could also be re-modelled through the regulation of these 63 Ca²⁺ transporters to generate complex spatial and temporal Ca²⁺ transients (Berridge, et al. 2003). It 64 has now become clear that many other organelles such as mitochondria, endosomes, lysosomes and 65 Golgi complexes also contribute to the generation and propagation of these complex Ca²⁺ signals 66 within cells (Michelangeli, et al. 2005). Furthermore, novel Ca²⁺ transporters have also been 67 identified within these other organelles and several have recently been identified in sperm (Costello, 68 et al. 2009). 69

70 (i) Intracellular Ca²⁺ Channels

The major intracellular Ca²⁺ channels that have been identified and appear to be almost ubiquitously 71 72 distributed within mammalian cells, especially on the endoplasmic reticulum, include the inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate-(IP_3)-sensitive Ca²⁺ channel (or IP_3 receptor; IP_3R) and the ryanodine receptor 73 74 (RyR) (Michelangeli, et al. 2005) (fig 1a). The IP₃ receptor, as the name implies, is activated by the 75 second messenger IP₃ that is generated through the hydrolysis of phosphatidylinositol-4,5-76 bisphosphate. This channel has a specific IP₃ binding site that is located towards the N-terminus of the protein (Seo, et al. 2012) and also has a requirement for Ca²⁺ which acts as a co-agonist in order 77 78 for the channel to open (Bezprozvanny, et al. 1991). The activation of RyR is likely to be through a mechanism involving Ca²⁺ induced Ca²⁺ release (CICR) and by the action of the putative second 79 80 messenger cyclic-adenosine diphospho-ribose (cADPR) (Ogunbayo, et al. 2011) (fig 1a). cADPR is 81 made from nicotinamide-adenine-dinucleotide (NAD) by the action of an ADP-ribosyl cyclase enzyme 82 such as CD38 (Cosker, et al. 2010), although other as yet unidentified enzymes may also be involved 83 in catalysing this reaction (Guse 2014). It is as yet unclear whether, unlike the IP₃R, cADPR binds 84 directly to RyR or whether it binds to accessory proteins such as calmodulin or FK506-binding 85 protein, that then interact with the RyR (Guse 2014).

Another metabolite of NAD which is believed to have Ca²⁺ mobilizing ability is nicotinic acid adenine 86 dinucleotide phosphate (NAADP) (Genazzani, et al. 1997). NAADP is made from NADP through the 87 88 action of either CD38 acting as a base-exchanger, swapping the nicotinamide group for nicotinic acid or via an unidentified NADP-deaminase (Guse 2014). NAADP is believed specifically to mobilize Ca²⁺ 89 90 from acidic stores such as lysosomes (Churchill, et al. 2002, Menteyne, et al. 2006), which can then 91 induce CICR at RyRs and IP₃Rs in mammalian cells (Cancela et 1999) (fig 1a). Results initially 92 presented by Calcraft and colleagues (Calcraft, et al. 2009), indicated that NAADP specifically activates Ca²⁺ specific 'two-pore' channels (TPC) within the acidic organelles, these channels being 93 94 first described in plants (Peiter, et al. 2005). However, in kinetic studies there is a prominent lag between addition of NAADP and Ca²⁺ mobilization (Genazzani, et al. 1997). Combined with the 95 96 observation that photo-affinity labelling with azido-NAADP (Lin-Moshier, et al. 2012) showed

97 labelling of only low molecular weight proteins, not consistent with TPCs, this suggests that NAADP 98 might function by binding to accessory proteins rather than directly to the channel. More recently two studies (Cang, et al. 2013, Wang, et al. 2012) have raised considerable controversy as whether 99 the NAADP-sensitive Ca²⁺ channel is a TPC. Both studies suggest that TPCs are in fact Na²⁺-specific 100 channels with very low Ca²⁺ selectivity that are activated by phosphoinositide lipids and modulated 101 102 by mTOR, but not by NAADP. More work is currently being undertaken to clarify this and a number of possible theories as to what role TPCs play in NAADP-induced Ca²⁺ mobilization are being explored 103 104 (see Morgan and Galione (2014).

Numerous kinases have been shown to modulate the activity of both the IP₃Rs and RyRs, these include several ubiquitous ser/thr kinases such as PKA, PKG and CaMKII (Camors and Valdivia 2014, Yule, et al. 2010). Indeed some of these kinases such as PKA appear to have both stimulatory and inhibitory effects on the IP₃R dependent upon isoform subtype and the presence of multiple kinasedependent phosphorylation sites on the same receptor (Dyer, et al. 2003). Less ubiquitous ser / thr kinases such as Akt and polo kinases as well as tyrosine kinases such as fyn kinase have also been shown to affect these channels (Camors and Valdivia 2014, Yule, et al. 2010).

112 Both the RyRs and the IP₃Rs are modulated by changes in their oxidation states caused by reactive 113 oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) and this occurs mainly through 114 modification of specific cysteine (cys) amino acid residues. Oxidation of these cys residues in RyRs occurs both by s-glutathionylation as well as s-nitrosylation by the second messenger nitric oxide 115 (NO) (Csordas and Hajnoczky 2009) and promotes the activity of the channel by enhancing RyR 116 117 subunit interactions and also by reducing the efficacy of inhibitory modulators (Hamilton and Reid 118 2000). In IP₃Rs the effects of oxidative stress are complex: low levels of cys oxidation caused by low concentrations of thimerosal (a cys-modifying mercuric compound) and naturally generated ROS 119 120 cause sensitization of this channel, while higher concentrations of thimerosal inhibit channel activity 121 (Missiaen, et al. 1991, Sayers, et al. 1993). Currently, however, there is little evidence that NO can
122 affect the activity of the IP₃Rs.

123 (ii) Intracellular Ca²⁺ pumps

The major transporter involved in refilling Ca²⁺ stores within the endoplasmic reticulum is the 124 sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} ATPase (SERCA) (fig 1a) and these pumps occur abundantly 125 in all somatic cells. Their role is to pump Ca^{2+} back into the storage organelles to help terminate Ca^{2+} 126 signals (Michelangeli and East 2011, Michelangeli, et al. 2005). There are 3 isoforms of this 127 Ca²⁺ATPase, each encoded by a different gene and each isoform can exist in a variety of spliced 128 129 variants that differ in size and regulatory properties (Michelangeli and East 2011). SERCA1 is mainly 130 confined to skeletal muscle, while SERCA2 is widely distributed in most other tissues and organs and type 3 has a limited expression. Another related Ca²⁺ATPase that is also found ubiquitously within 131 somatic cells is the secretory pathway Ca²⁺ ATPase (SPCA) which is localized to the Golgi apparatus 132 133 (Wootton, et al. 2004). SPCA exists in 2 isoforms with the expression of type 1 being far more widespread than type 2, which appears to be mainly located within glandular tissues (Vanoevelen, et 134 135 al. 2005). Recently there has been evidence to suggest the SPCA2 can interact with and regulate the plasma membrane located Orai Ca²⁺ channels that are implicated in store-operated Ca²⁺ entry (Feng, 136 et al. 2010), which may indicate a dual function for this Ca²⁺ ATPase in cells that express it. 137

There is currently some debate as to which type of intracellular Ca²⁺ ATPase is expressed in mature 138 139 sperm. We have highlighted that SPCA1 is present in human sperm, where it appears to be mainly 140 localized to the neck region of the cell where the redundant nuclear envelope (RNE) and calreticulincontaining vesicles are situated (Harper, et al. 2005). This study also found no evidence for 141 142 expression of SERCA in human sperm as no cross-reactivity was observed with a pan-isoform SERCA antibody and no effects on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ were observed with specific but saturating concentrations of the 143 144 SERCA-inhibitor thapsigargin. However, a more recent study (Lawson, et al. 2007) detected SERCA2, 145 mainly localized to the acrosome and mid-piece, using a SERCA2-specific antibody.

Unlike the intracellular Ca²⁺ channels, there is no strong evidence to suggest that either SERCA or 146 SPCA can be directly phosphorylated and regulated by protein kinases, although some Ca²⁺ ATPase 147 modulatory proteins like phospholamban (that is found almost exclusively in heart) are regulated 148 149 through phosphorylation by PKA, PKG and CamKII (Colyer 1998). There is considerable evidence 150 indicating that oxidative stress can modulate SERCA activity (although no studies have yet been 151 undertaken on SPCA). Again a number of critical cys residues such as cys674 can be sglutathionylated to cause an increase in SERCA pump activity (Adachi, et al. 2004). Modifications of 152 other cys residues on the Ca²⁺ ATPase, however, can have inhibitory effects (Csordas and Hajnoczky 153 2009, Sayers, et al. 1993, Sharov, et al. 2006). 154

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156 <u>3. Ca²⁺ stores, mechanisms for store mobilisation and store-operated Ca²⁺ channels in sperm</u>

157 During the later stages of their development spermatozoa shed much of their cytoplasm including 158 intracellular organelles. Thus mammalian sperm contain no organised endoplasmic reticulum. However, studies on the expression of Ca^{2+} store components and on the generation $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signals 159 suggest that the remaining intracellular organelles function as Ca²⁺-stores and play a significant role 160 161 in the regulation of cellular function (Costello, et al. 2009). In particular, the acrosomal vesicle at the apex of the head and the collection of vesicular membranous structures that occur at the sperm 162 163 neck and anterior midpiece (including the cytoplasmic droplet of human sperm) appear to be functionally important Ca²⁺-stores (fig 1b; shown in green). At both these locations IP₃Rs have been 164 165 detected in human and in bovine sperm by immuno-staining (Dragileva, et al. 1999, Ho and Suarez 166 2001, 2003, Kuroda, et al. 1999, Naaby-Hansen, et al. 2001). Ryanodine receptors (RyRs) have also 167 been detected in human and rodent sperm (Lefievre, et al. 2007, Trevino, et al. 1998). Staining of human sperm with anti-RyR1, anti-RyR2, pan-RyR and BODIPY-FLX ryanodine is localised primarily to 168 169 the neck region, though some acrosomal staining was also observed (Harper, et al. 2004, Lefievre, et 170 al. 2007, Park, et al. 2011). In contrast, other authors (Ho and Suarez 2001) have reported no 171 staining of bovine sperm with BODIPY-FLX ryanodine (see (Costello, et al. 2009) for further

discussion). Thus mobilisation of stored Ca²⁺ in mammalian sperm may occur in response to
generation of IP₃ by activity of phospholipase C and by Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release (CICR) at IP₃Rs or
RyRs. These processes can be sensitised by effects such as oxidative stress and S-nitrosylation (see
section 2). For instance, exposure of human sperm to NO· at levels equivalent to those produced by
explants of reproductive tract lining mobilises store Ca²⁺ and modifies flagellar activity (Lefievre, et
al. 2007, Machado-Oliveira, et al. 2008).

In addition to generation of IP₃ in sperm, there is evidence that other Ca²⁺ mobilising messengers 178 179 (NAADP and cADPR) are synthesised in sperm and/or produced in response to stimulation. Sea 180 urchin sperm contain significant levels of both cADPR and NAADP, which may contribute to oocyte 181 activation (Billington, et al. 2002, Chini, et al. 1997). Human sperm have been shown to contain 182 cADPR at micromolar concentrations but NAADP was not detected (Billington, et al. 2006). 183 Interestingly, this study also demonstrated synthesis of cADPR by human sperm but the ectoenzyme CD38 (an enzyme present on mammalian cells that synthesises both cADPR and NAADP; see 184 185 section 2) could not be detected by western blotting. In contrast, Park and colleagues (Park, et al. 186 2011), reported detection of CD38 in human sperm after co-incubation with prostasomes (prostate-187 derived membrane vesicles; see below). Furthermore, the presence of a novel NAADP synthase, which lacks the cyclase activity of CD38, has been described both in sea urchin (Vasudevan, et al. 188 189 2008) and human sperm (Sánchez-Tusie et al, 2014). In sea urchin sperm this enzyme is strongly Ca²⁺-regulated and most active at acid pH whereas the human enzyme shows only weak Ca²⁺-190 191 regulation and activity is maximal at pH 7 to 8 (Sanchez-Tusie, et al. 2014, Vasudevan, et al. 2008). 192 Recent findings have supported the idea that NAADP is functional in human sperm. Sanchez-Tusie et al. (2014) investigated the effects of cell-permeant (AM-ester) derivatives of NAAPD and cADPR. No 193 194 effects were observed with cADPR, consistent with previous pharmacological investigation by 195 Billington et al. (2006), but NAADP caused elevation of [Ca²⁺], both in cells incubated under standard conditions and also when $[Ca^{2+}]_0$ was buffered to 100 nM, conditions under which Ca^{2+} influx is 196

negligible and [Ca²⁺]; signalling depends solely on mobilisation of stored Ca²⁺. Staining of NAADP
receptors using the fluorescent NAADP receptor ligand Ned-19 and identification of acidic organelles
using lysotracker highlighted both an anterior store (potentially the acrosome) and a store at the
sperm neck (fig 1b). Consistent with these findings, Arndt et al. (2014), studying acrosome reaction
(see below), provided evidence for involvement in this process of NAADP and two-pore channels
(TPCs), which have been proposed to be the NAADP receptor/Ca²⁺ channel of acidic Ca²⁺ storage
organelles (Calcraft, et al. 2009) (Fig 1a; see section 2).

204 (Park et al. (2011) investigated the incorporation into human sperm of proteins from prostasomes 205 (prostate-derived vesicles which are normally added to sperm during ejaculation) and their effects on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signalling. They concluded that CatSper channel proteins were present in the differentiated 206 sperm, but other Ca²⁺ signalling 'tools' including RyRs and CD38 were added to the freshly-ejaculated 207 sperm upon mixing with prostasomes, by fusion with the membrane of the midpiece. They also 208 examined the effects of stimulation with progesterone on [Ca²⁺]_i and motility of sperm exposed to 209 210 prostasomes and sperm that had been rapidly removed from semen to minimise mixing with prostasomes. Their data suggest that the generation of sustained [Ca²⁺]_i signals (such as the second 211 component of the biphasic progesterone-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signal) and consequent effects on motility 212 213 may depend, at least partly, upon generation of cADPR by prostasome-derived enzymes. 214 Interestingly, CD38-null mice proved to be fertile, but analysis showed that 20% of normal ADPR cyclase activity remained in prostasomes from these animals, indicating the presence of a non-CD38 215 ADPR-cyclase, potentially that described by Sánchez-Tusie et al (2014). Thus both NAADP and cADPR 216 are potentially synthesised by sperm and involved in regulation of sperm Ca²⁺ store activity but their 217 roles are not yet clear. 218

In somatic cells mobilisation of stored Ca²⁺ induces secondary Ca²⁺ influx through channels at the cell
 membrane (store-operated channels; SOCs) by the process of capacitative Ca²⁺ entry (CCE) (fig 1a).
 CCE both prolongs Ca²⁺ signals that are induced by store mobilisation and provides Ca²⁺ for re-

222 charging of the storage organelles. Recently great progress has been made in elucidating the key 223 players and mechanisms in this process. STIM (stromal interaction molecule) has been identified as the sensor molecule present in the membrane of the Ca²⁺ store. The intraluminal part of STIM 224 includes a Ca^{2+} -binding EF hand that detects depletion of stored Ca^{2+} . STIM then redistributes, 225 226 moving to a position adjacent to the plasma membrane where it activates channel proteins (Orai and possibly members of the TRPC [transient receptor potential canonical] family; Cahalan 2009). 227 [Ca²⁺]_i signals in human and other mammalian sperm induced by agonists and by treatments 228 designed to mobilise stored-Ca²⁺ show characteristics consistent with the occurrence of CCE 229 (Blackmore 1993, Dragileva, et al. 1999, Lefievre, et al. 2012, O'Toole, et al. 2000, Park, et al. 2011). 230 STIM1, Orai and TRPC proteins have been detected in human sperm (Castellano, et al. 2003, 231 Darszon, et al. 2012, Lefievre, et al. 2012), STIM1 being localised primarily to the neck 232 region/midpiece and the acrosome where Ca²⁺ stores are present (Lefievre, et al. 2012). To date the 233 234 application of whole-cell patch clamp has not provided evidence for the occurrence of CCE in human sperm (Lefievre, et al. 2012) so these findings must be interpreted cautiously, but $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signals 235 generated by mobilisation of Ca²⁺ stores in sperm may be amplified by activation of CCE. Induction of 236 237 CCE in somatic cells can have a latency of 10s of seconds due to the need for STIM to migrate to the peripheral portions of the endoplasmic reticulum where it can interact with SOC proteins (Luik, et al. 238 239 2006, Wu, et al. 2006), but in sperm the storage organelles are close to the plasma membrane and 240 STIM proteins are localised here, such that CCE could be near 'instantaneous'. Pre-treatment of 241 human sperm with low concentrations of 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate (2-APB), which potentiates CCE by promoting the interaction of STIM with SOCs (Navarro-Borelly, et al. 2008, Wang, et al. 2009, 242 Yamashita, et al. 2011) significantly enhances the amplitude of the progesterone-induced Ca²⁺ 243 transient at the sperm neck (where secondary release of stored Ca²⁺ may occur; fig 1b; see section 6) 244 but does not affect the response in the flagellum, where progesterone activates CatSper channels 245 (fig 1b), or the kinetics of the signal at either location (Lefievre, et al. 2012). Conversely, when sperm 246 247 were pre-treated with a cell-penetrating peptide that mimics part of the key SOAR region of STIM1

(potentially preventing auto-inhibitory folding of STIM upon store-refilling) there was a marked
 prolongation of the progesterone-induced [Ca²⁺]_i transient in a subset of cells (Morris, et al. 2015).

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252 <u>4. Mobilisation of sperm Ca²⁺ stores by agonists</u>

In the majority of somatic cells mobilisation of stored Ca²⁺ is induced by agonist-induced synthesis of
Ca²⁺ mobilising intracellular messengers. Thus agonist-induced synthesis of inositol trisphosphate,
cADPR and NAADP can lead to rapid release of stored Ca²⁺ and generation of local, global and
complex spatio-temporal signals (fig 1a). Is there evidence that such processes occur and are
functionally significant in responses to agonist stimulation of sperm?

The best-characterised agonist-induced [Ca²⁺]_i signals in sperm are responses to solubilised zona 258 259 pellucida/zona proteins in mouse cells and progesterone in human. Application of patch clamp has 260 clearly shown that the primary action of progesterone in human sperm is to activate CatSper channels, leading to Ca²⁺-influx (Lishko, et al. 2011, Strunker, et al. 2011). Strunker and colleagues 261 (Strunker, et al. 2011) investigated the $[Ca^{2+}]_{o}$ dependence of progesterone-induced $[Ca^{2+}]_{i}$ signals in 262 rapid-mixing experiments on human sperm and reported that buffering of $[Ca^{2+}]_0$ to ≤ 100 nM 263 abolished the response (though see Espino et al.(2009)), suggesting that any mobilisation of stored 264 Ca²⁺ is a secondary response. Synthesis of IP₃ is reported to occur downstream of progesterone-265 induced Ca²⁺ influx (Thomas and Meizel 1989), an important observation that should be pursued. 266 267 Stimulation of mouse sperm with zona proteins induces acrosome reaction, which requires elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the sperm head (Florman, et al. 2008) and is dependent on mobilisation of Ca^{2+} from the 268 269 acrosomal store ((De Blas, et al. 2002); see below). The nature of the Ca²⁺ influx following 270 stimulation is not clear and several channels may be involved (Cohen, et al. 2014, Florman, et al. 2008, Xia and Ren 2009), but Ca²⁺ signals are sensitive to inhibition of G-protein signalling (using 271 272 pertussis toxin) and inhibition of PLC (Florman, et al. 2008, Ren and Xia 2010). Furthermore, in sperm from mice null for PLC δ 4 (in which males fertility is 'severely impaired') the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ response is 273

reduced and zona-induced AR does not occur (Fukami, et al. 2001, Fukami, et al. 2003). Thus
 conventional IP₃-induced mobilisation of stored Ca²⁺ is apparently central to this essential aspect of
 mammalian sperm physiology.

277 Evidence for the existence of other store-mobilising agonists is largely preliminary, but there are a 278 number of candidates, of which the best-studied is vitamin D (Blomberg Jensen 2014). Human sperm 279 have been shown to express vitamin D receptor (VDR) (Aquila, et al. 2009, Blomberg Jensen, et al. 280 2011, Blomberg Jensen, et al. 2010), the enzymes CYP2R1 and CYP27B (which produce the active 281 compound $(1,25(OH)_2D_3)$ cholcalciferol) and the inactivating enzyme CYP24A1 (Blomberg Jensen, et 282 al. 2011, Blomberg Jensen, et al. 2010). All are expressed in the neck region of the sperm and 283 staining of cells for VDR and CYP24A1 shows a strong association. In sub-fertile patients the 284 proportion of cells expressing CYP24A1 varies greatly and is significantly correlated with semen 285 quality (sperm count, concentration, morphology and motility) (Blomberg Jensen, et al. 2011, 286 Blomberg Jensen, et al. 2012). Stimulation of human sperm with $1,25(OH)_2D_3$ (100 pM-1 uM) induced a [Ca²⁺]_i response, including a transient and plateau, that was blocked by pre-treatment with 287 288 the non-genomic VDR antagonist $1b_25(OH)_2D_3$ but was insensitive to blockade of the nuclear VDR antagonist ZK159222 (Blomberg Jensen, et al. 2011). This effect was greatly reduced by pre-289 290 treatment with the phospholipase C inhibitor U73122 (2 µM) but was inhibited by incubation in 291 EGTA-buffered medium for up to 20 min prior to stimulation. Both motility and AR were significantly 292 increased upon stimulation with $1,25(OH)_2D_3$ (Blomberg Jensen, et al. 2011).

Kisspeptin, a peptide agonist of the G-protein coupled receptor GPR54/KISS1R has also been shown to cause sustained, dose-dependent elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in human and in mouse sperm (Hsu, et al. 2014, Pinto, et al. 2012). In neurons binding of kisspeptin to its receptor activates PLC and results in generation of IP₃ and diacyglycerol, leading to mobilisation of stored Ca²⁺ and also depolarisation (Beltramo, et al. 2014, Liu, et al. 2008, Pielecka-Fortuna, et al. 2008). In human sperm the effect of kisspeptin on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ did not occlude the response to stimulation with the CatSper agonist 299 progesterone and was not reduced when applied in the presence of progesterone (Pinto, et al. 300 2012). Both KISS1R and kisspeptin itself were detected in the head of human sperm, suggesting that 301 an autocrine action of the peptide may occur. Motility parameters of kisspeptin-treated cells were 302 significantly altered, including an increase in lateral movement of the head and a decrease in 303 linearity of the sperm path, characteristics of hyperactivated sperm (Pinto, et al. 2012). Ghrelin, another peptide hormone which also acts through mobilisation of stored Ca²⁺ (Camina, et al. 2003), 304 305 has also been detected in human sperm (Moretti, et al. 2014). Micromolar concentrations of ghrelin have been shown to increase $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and motility in rat sperm (Lukaszyk, et al. 2012) but expression 306 of ghrelin receptors or effect of ghrelin on human sperm $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ have not been investigated. 307

308 <u>5. Functional significance of Ca²⁺-stores</u>

309 <u>The acrosome</u>

310 Acrosome reaction (AR) is the fusion between the outer acrosomal membrane and the overlying 311 plasma membrane. Fusion occurs at multiple points, resulting in vesiculation and loss of the fused 312 outer acrosomal membrane/plasmalemma so that the acrosomal content is released and the inner 313 acrosomal membrane becomes the new cell surface. Membrane fusion proteins from the SNARE family are present in the acrosomal region and may be integrated into microdomains that facilitate 314 315 Ca²⁺-regulated membrane fusion in a manner that has been compared with events at presynaptic 316 terminals (De Blas, et al. 2005, Mayorga, et al. 2007, Zitranski, et al. 2010). Zona pellucida proteins 317 interact with sperm surface receptors to activate a signalling cascade leading to AR (Florman, et al. 318 2008) and release of acrosomal content at the surface of the zona may, in combination with 319 hyperactivated motility, facilitate zona penetration. However, observation of mouse IVF using sperm 320 with GFP-labelled acrosomes showed that, in addition to cells that undergo AR at the surface of the 321 zona, sperm which arrive having already lost their acrosome (probably within the cumulus) may go 322 on to penetrate the zona and fertilise (Jin, et al. 2011). Physiological inducers of AR that have been studied (primarily mouse ZP3 and progesterone) induce Ca²⁺ influx across the plasma membrane and 323 a sustained rise in [Ca²⁺]_i. O'Toole, et al (2000) provided pharmacological evidence that ZP3-induced 324

AR in mouse sperm involved activation of store operated Ca²⁺ influx downstream of Ca²⁺ store 325 326 mobilisation and De Blas, et al (2002) showed that in streptolysin-permeabilised human sperm, mobilisation of the acrosomal Ca²⁺ store was a requirement for acrosome reaction even when it was 327 'directly' induced by introduction of Rab3A into the cytoplasm. Further studies using this 328 329 permeabilised sperm model have provided information about the mechanisms by which fusion of the plasma and outer acrosomal membranes is regulated, resulting in a detailed model in which 330 331 mobilisation of the acrosomal store is a central and necessary event (Ruete, et al. 2014). Stimulation 332 of PLC, leading to generation of IP₃ and activation of IP₃Rs in the outer acrosomal membrane may be key to this process (Fukami, et al. 2001, Fukami, et al. 2003), but there is also evidence that the 333 acrosomal membrane contains the NAADP-sensitive, Ca²⁺-permeable two-pore channels (Calcraft, et 334 al. 2009) and that NAADP mobilises acrosomal Ca^{2+} in mouse sperm (Arndt, et al. 2014). 335 Interpretation of this finding is complex since the regulation and Ca²⁺-permeability of TPCs have 336

recently been questioned (Cang, et al. 2013, Wang, et al. 2012) (see section 2).

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339 The redundant nuclear envelope and calreticulin-containing vesicles

A second area where Ca²⁺ storage organelles have been identified in mammalian sperm is at the 340 341 sperm neck and midpiece (fig 1b). Mitochondria have mechanisms for accumulation and release of Ca²⁺ (Drago, et al. 2011, Pizzo, et al. 2012) and therefore may contribute to Ca²⁺ buffering and 342 343 signalling in this part of the sperm. Inhibition of mitochondrial function in sea urchin sperm, using respiratory inhibitors or uncouplers, causes a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and leads to activation of Ca^{2+} influx that 344 345 has characteristics consistent with store-operated channels (Ardon, et al. 2009). Treatment with mitochondrial uncouplers (2,4 dinitrophenol [2,4 DNP], carbonyl cyanide-4-346 (trifluoromethoxy)phenylhydrazone [FCCP]) also increases [Ca²⁺]_i in human sperm (Morris and 347 Publicover, unpublished). Mitochondria may thus contribute to shaping of Ca²⁺ signals in sperm. 348 However, the primary stimulus-regulated Ca²⁺ storage in this part of the sperm is in the redundant 349 350 nuclear envelope and/or a second, apparently separate group of calreticulin-containing vesicular

351 structures, both of which are sited at the sperm neck region and cytoplasmic droplet (Ho and Suarez 2001, 2003, Naaby-Hansen, et al. 2001). Mobilisation of Ca²⁺ stored in these compartments regulates 352 flagellar activity and treatment of mouse sperm with thimerosal stimulates hyperactivated motility 353 by activating Ca²⁺ release from these organelles (Ho and Suarez 2001, Marguez, et al. 2007). This 354 effect occurs in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺ and can be induced in sperm that are null for 355 356 CatSper (Marquez, et al. 2007). In mouse sperm the direction of the major, high-amplitude flagellar 357 bend of hyperactivated sperm can be clearly characterised by reference to the hooked acrosomal 358 cap (pro-hook or anti-hook). Sperm that became hyperactivated during capacitation in vitro (due to 359 activation of CatSper) show pro-hook bends whereas those activated by store mobilisation (using 360 thimerosal) show anti-hook bends (Chang and Suarez 2011). When sperm were observed interacting 361 with the lining of isolated mouse oviducts, most hyperactivated cells showed anti-hook bending of 362 the type which is elicited by store mobilisation (Chang and Suarez 2012).

363 In human sperm a similar effect of store mobilisation is seen. Thimerosal greatly increases the 364 proportion of cells showing hyperactivated motility and 4-aminopyridine, which both alkalinises the cytoplasm (and will thus activate CatSper) and mobilises stored Ca²⁺, is similarly potent (Alasmari, et 365 al. 2013a, Alasmari, et al. 2013b). In contrast, manipulations that should activate CatSper (elevation 366 of pH_i, stimulation with progesterone or prostaglandin E_1) elevate $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ but have only minor 367 stimulatory effects on the proportion of hyperactivated cells. Instead, these manipulations 368 369 significantly increase penetration into viscous media (Alasmari, et al. 2013a, Alasmari, et al. 2013b, 370 Luo, et al. 2014).

371

372 <u>6. Model for interaction of CatSper channels and Ca²⁺-stores</u>

373 Patch clamp recordings have provided no evidence that conventional voltage-operated Ca²⁺ channels

374 contribute to Ca²⁺ influx in mature mammalian sperm. In mouse sperm null for CatSper1 and the K⁺

375 channel Slo3 only a small leak current was recorded even at high intracellular pH and strong

376 depolarisation (Zeng, et al. 2013). CatSper channels in mouse and human sperm are pH- and 377 (weakly) voltage-sensitive but in human sperm the channel is also ligand-sensitive. Established Ca²⁺-378 mobilising agonists of human sperm such as progesterone and prostaglandin E_1 have been shown to 379 activate CatSper but also a range of other small molecules including environmental pollutants such 380 as 1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-bis(4-chlorophenyl)ethane, 1,1-bis(4-chlorophenyl)-2,2,2-trichloroethane 381 (4,4'-DDT), p,p'-dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene (p,p'-DDE) and 4-methylbenzylidene camphor (4-382 MBC) are potent agonists (Schiffer, et al. 2014, Tavares, et al. 2013). In addition, agents used to demonstrate cyclic-nucleotide-activated Ca^{2+} influx (such as 8-Br-AMP) have been shown directly to 383 activate CatSper by binding at the extracellular surface (Brenker, et al. 2012). Thus it is possible that 384 385 a significant proportion of the pharmacological data that apparently support the existence of multiple Ca²⁺ influx pathways in sperm are misleading and in fact reflect actions of the drugs on Ca²⁺ 386 387 flux through CatSper channels (Brenker, et al. 2012). Furthermore, experiments using CatSper null mice provide strong evidence that $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation induced by solubilised ZP is dependent on Ca^{2+} 388 389 influx through the CatSper channel in the flagellum, which then propagates to the head (Xia and Ren 390 2009) (though see (Cohen, et al. 2014)). Interestingly, the ability of solubilised zona to induce 391 acrosome reaction was not diminished in CatSper-null sperm. These findings not only suggest that CatSper is the primary Ca²⁺ influx pathway in mammalian sperm, but also that in human sperm it 392 may act as a Ca²⁺-signalling 'hub' or 'node', such that the effects of diverse agonists are 393 394 summated/integrated in the rate of Ca²⁺ influx into the flagellum (Brenker, et al. 2012). This is an 395 elegant and simple model for which there is already a significant body of data, but in its basic form it does not address the question of how a sperm can generate and use diverse [Ca²⁺]_i signals to control 396 diverse Ca²⁺-sensitive functions. 397

Mouse sperm null for CatSper are unable to hyperactivate (Carlson, et al. 2003) and evidence from clinical cases suggests that CatSper is also required for normal levels of motility in human sperm (Avenarius, et al. 2009, Smith, et al. 2013). Why then, is manipulation of Ca²⁺ stores more effective in inducing hyperactivated motility than treatments targeted to CatSper (Alasmari, et al. 2013b)? We

have proposed that CatSper activation acts as a trigger and consequent elevation of flagellar $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ 402 stimulates secondary release of stored Ca^{2+} at the sperm neck, either by stimulating synthesis of IP₃ 403 or by CICR, leading to hyperactivation (Alasmari, et al. 2013b). Mathematical modelling of the Ca²⁺ 404 signals induced by CatSper activation in mouse sperm suggests that forward diffusion of Ca²⁺ from 405 the flagellum cannot explain the [Ca²⁺]_i that occurs at the sperm head upon activation of CatSper and 406 that such a secondary Ca²⁺ release at the neck region occurs (Li, et al. 2014, Olson, et al. 2011, Olson, 407 408 et al. 2010). Recently we have investigated the occurrence of such secondary responses in human sperm by uncaging Ca^{2+} in the principal piece of the flagellum. Uncaging induces a clear $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ 409 transient in the flagellum that decays within 5-10 s. At the neck region of the sperm the transient is 410 truncated and rises more slowly, consistent with diffusion of Ca²⁺ from the uncaged pool, but in a 411 small proportion of cells ($\approx 10\%$) we have observed a late $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ response at the neck region, often 412 including multiple peaks (fig 2). The low incidence of this secondary Ca²⁺-mobilisation is consistent 413 with our observation that, though direct release of stored Ca^{2+} can induce hyperactivated motility in 414 the majority of human sperm, only a small proportion of cells hyperactivate upon activation of 415 416 CatSper (Alasmari, et al. 2013a, Alasmari, et al. 2013b).

417 Ca²⁺-store-mediated [Ca²⁺]_i oscillations occur more readily in sperm incubated for a prolonged period (>24 h) under capacitating conditions (Kirkman-Brown, et al. 2004). Capacitation involves generation 418 419 of reactive oxygen and reactive nitrogen species (Aitken and Nixon 2013, Herrero, et al. 1999, 2001) 420 and we have observed that store mobilisation is sensitised and induced by low concentrations of NO-421 donors, through a mechanism that involves protein S-nitrosylation (Machado-Oliveira, et al. 2008). 422 RyRs were detected in the human sperm nitrosoproteome (Lefievre, et al. 2007) and it is wellestablished that IP₃Rs and RyRs are sensitised by oxidative stress (Bansaghi, et al. 2014, Bootman, et 423 424 al. 1992, Meissner 2004, Sayers, et al. 1993, Stoyanovsky, et al. 1997) (see section2). We propose that CICR from the sperm neck Ca²⁺-store is regulated during capacitation, perhaps through the 425 effects of oxidative stress on Ca²⁺ release channels (Alasmari, et al. 2013b) (fig 3). 426

427 <u>7. Final remarks</u>

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429 importance of CatSper in this process are well established - mice null for CatSper are infertile (Ren, 430 et al. 2001) and in men CatSper lesions are associated with impaired sperm function (Avenarius, et al. 2009, Avidan, et al. 2003, Smith, et al. 2013, Zhang, et al. 2009). The available evidence suggests 431 432 that Ca²⁺-stores also play important roles in both acrosome reaction and the regulation of motility. 433 Future studies should address the mechanisms by which store mobilisation is achieved (both by CICR and by direct activation by agonist-induced generation of Ca²⁺-mobilising 2nd messengers) and 434 regulated, particularly the significance of capacitation in Ca^{2+} -store filling and in sensitising Ca^{2+} 435 436 release mechanisms. Also, similarly to the important species differences in expression and function 437 of sperm ion channels between human and mouse sperm (Brenker, et al. 2014, Miller, et al. 2014), 438 there may also be differences in store-regulation and/or function between species. An intriguing 439 possibility is that, at least in human sperm, it may prove possible to bypass the effects on motility of 440 lesions in the expression, function or regulation of CatSper channels by pharmacological activation of store Ca²⁺ release. 441

The central role of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signalling in the physiology of mammalian sperm and the pivotal

442 Declaration of interest

443

There is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality of the researchreported

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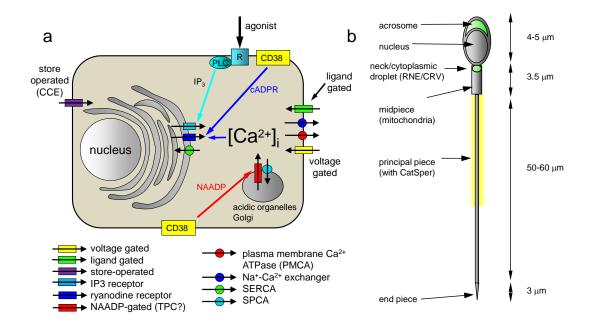
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801 Figure legends

Fig.1 a: Simplified diagrammatic summary of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signalling toolkit in a somatic cell. Ion channels 802 are shown as rectangles with arrow indicating normal direction of Ca²⁺ flow (yellow=voltage gated; 803 804 green=ligand gated; purple=store-operated; light blue=IP₃ receptor; dark blue=ryanodine receptor; red=NAADP-gated. Pumps are shown as circles with arrows indicating normal direction of Ca²⁺ 805 movement (red=PMCA'; blue=Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger; green=SERCA; blue=SPCA). Activation of IP3 806 807 receptors by membrane receptor activation and phosphoplipase C is shown in light blue. Generation of cADPR and NAADP by CD38 and possibly other enzymes (leading to mobilisation of Ca²⁺ from 808 809 intracellular stores) is shown by yellow boxes. b: Structure of human sperm showing positions of CatSper channels (yellow shading around anterior flagellum) and Ca²⁺ stores in the acrosome and at 810 811 the sperm (neck redundant nuclear envelope and calreticulin-containing vesicles) (shown in green). **Fig. 2.** Ca^{2+} responses evoked in human sperm by uncaging of Ca^{2+} in the flagellum. Cells were 812 labelled with fluo-4 and loaded with 'caged' Ca²⁺ (NP-EGTA), then stimulated by an uncaging flash 813 814 (360 nm laser) at the central flagellum (shown by arrow) whilst collecting images at 33 Hz. Changes 815 in fluorescence, assessed at each of the positions shown by coloured circles in panel 'a', are plotted 816 (normalised to minimum and maximum) in panel 'b' using the same colour code. Green=neck; 817 yellow-midpiece; red=proximal flagellum; light blue=mid-distal flagellum; dark blue=distal flagellum. 818 Fig. 3. Model for triggering/regulation of CatSper-activated hyperactivation. CatSper channels in the 819 flagellum (yellow box; shown by yellow shading on sperm flagellum) are activated by diverse stimuli 820 including intracellular pH (pH_i), membrane potential (E_m), progesterone, prostaglandins and other organic molecules. Ca²⁺ from the flagellum diffuses forward, raising [Ca²⁺]_i at the sperm neck and can 821 mobilise stored Ca²⁺ by Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release (CICR). Susceptibility of the store to CICR is 822 potentially regulated/sensitised by processes occurring during capacitation including cAMP 823 signalling, oxidative stress, S-nitrosylation as well as Ca²⁺ store filling and effects of agonists on Ca²⁺-824 825 store release channels.





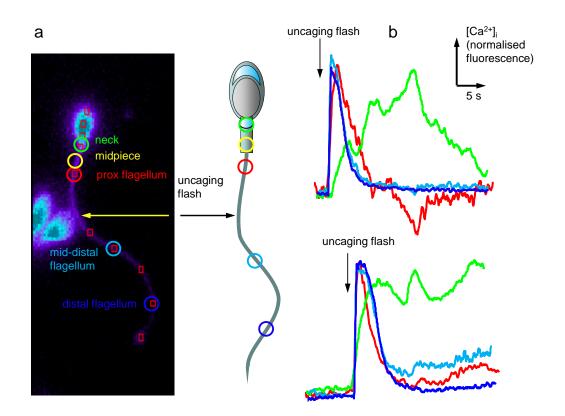


Figure 2

