Localization of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} at the Plasma Membrane of Bullfrog Myocardial Cells

R. Meyer, M. Schmitz, W. Stockem,
Institut für Cytologie, Universität Bonn, Ulrich-Haberland-Str. 61 A, D-5300 Bonn
and H. G. Haas
Institut für Physiologie II, Universität Bonn, Wilhelmsr. 31, D-5300 Bonn

Z. Naturforsch. 37c, 1180–1190 (1982); received August 12, 1982

Bullfrog Myocardial Sarcolemma, Histochemistry, Cryofixation, X-ray Microanalysis, Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-Binding Sites

Cellular distribution and localization of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} in bullfrog myocardial cells was investigated on the light and electron microscopical level using different preparation procedures. Fixation and dehydration in glutaraldehyde and ethanol solutions containing increased amounts of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} (5–25 mM) cause the formation of numerous electron-dense deposits at the external face of the sarcolemma. X-ray microanalysis demonstrates that the deposits are mainly composed of calcium. Similar results were obtained in cryopreparations by quick-freezing of fresh myocardial tissue. Granules with a diameter of 16.6 nm, which clearly exceed all other cell constituents in contrast, are found at the entire myocardial cell surface. Besides an increased amount of calcium the granules contain potassium and phosphorus. Fluorescence microscopy on single cells obtained from bullfrog atrium by treatment with digestive enzymes and stained with chlorotetracycline (CTC) as a fluorescent probe for membrane-bound Ca\textsuperscript{2+} clearly support the observations made on the fine structural level. A strong fluorescence signal depending on the CTC- and Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-concentration of the incubation medium is observed at the sarcolemma and can be inhibited by addition of La\textsuperscript{3+}.

The results of the present investigation suggest that the surface coat of the sarcolemma of myocardial cells represents an important compartment for accumulation and release of external Ca\textsuperscript{2+}. The external lamina which partly covers the surface of myocardial cells seems not to be involved in the Ca\textsuperscript{2+} exchange.

Introduction

Contractile activity of heart muscle cells depends on Ca\textsuperscript{2+} derived from extra- and intracellular sources. One hundred years ago Ringer was the first to demonstrate that the contractile force of isolated heart tissue rapidly declines in Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-free solution, *i.e.* easily exchangeable Ca\textsuperscript{2+} is involved in the initiation of cardiac muscle contraction. In the past two decades, the existence of different rapidly and slowly exchangeable kinetic compartments for Ca\textsuperscript{2+} has been established [1–3]. A more rapidly exchangeable compartment participates in contractile activation and is inhibited by La\textsuperscript{3+} [3]. Experiments using the pyroantimonate method delivered evidence for the localization of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} along the sarcolemma [4]. Both, biochemical studies on isolated plasma membranes of heart tissue [5–8] and zeta potential measurements [9] confirmed the concept of a Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-binding function of the sarcolemma and a competition of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} with other cations for a common binding site [5, 10]. In addition to the extracellular calcium as a source of activator calcium, a Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-induced Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-release from intracellular compartments such as the sarcoplasmic reticulum and mitochondria is also regarded to take part in control of heart muscle contraction [11].

While many investigations supply indirect evidence for participation of the sarcolemma in Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-regulation, a direct demonstration of Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-binding sites or accumulated Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-ions at the myocardial plasma membrane is still lacking. In the present investigation amphibian heart tissue was used for the demonstration of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} at the cell surface, because the contractile response of this tissue is almost exclusively controlled by extracellular Ca\textsuperscript{2+} [11]. In a series of experiments we used the technique of Oschman and Wall [12] for the decoration of Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-binding sites and localized *in vivo*-bound Ca\textsuperscript{2+} on the electron and light microscopical level by cryo-preparations in connection with X-ray microanalysis and chlorotetracycline (CTC)-fluorescence in living cells, respectively. As both, the sarcolemma and the

Reprint requests to Prof. Dr. W. Stockem, Institut für Cytologie, Ulrich-Haberland-Str. 61 A, D-5300 Bonn, FRG.
0341-0382/82/1100–1180 $ 01.30/0
external lamina [13] are possible sites for Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-storage, a morphometrical evaluation was carried out to calculate the surface ratio of the two constituents.

**Materials and Methods**

For morphometrical and histochemical investigations muscle strips dissected from bullfrog (*Rana catesbeiana*) auricles in Ringer's solution (111 mM NaCl, 5.4 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl\textsubscript{2}, 1.8 mM KHCO\textsubscript{3}) were placed in dishes with paraffin-covered bottom and attached to the ground with small needles to avoid contraction during fixation and dehydration. Muscle strips used for morphometry were fixed according to Dalton [14] and Wohlfarth-Bottermann [15]:

1. Fixation with 2% OsO\textsubscript{4} and 1% K\textsubscript{2}Cr\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{7} in 0.15 M PIPES-buffer (pH 7.2) for 1 h; washing for 2 h in 0.15 M PIPES-buffer; postfixation with 1% OsO\textsubscript{4} in 0.15 M PIPES-buffer for 1 h; washing in 0.15 M PIPES-buffer for 1 h; dehydration in a graded series of ethanol; embedding in Spurr's low viscosity epoxy resin [16].

Muscle strips used for histochemistry were fixed with Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-containing fixation solutions according to Oschman and Wall [12]:

1. Fixation with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.05 M cacodylate-buffer (pH 7.2) for 1 h, or
2. 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.15 M PIPES-buffer (pH 7.2) for 1 h.

The fixation media were removed by washing in the corresponding buffer for 2 h. Specimens were dehydrated and embedded as described above. All solutions up to 90% ethanol contained different concentrations of CaCl\textsubscript{2}, i.e. 5 mM, 10 mM or 25 mM. Control tissue was prepared without CaCl\textsubscript{2} or with 2 mM EGTA instead of CaCl\textsubscript{2}.

For freeze-drying single trabeculae (diameter about 100 μm) were positioned in aluminium sandwichs (Fig. 1), mounted at the tip of small projectiles and shut by means of a crossbow-like apparatus into a tube filled with liquid propane [17] cooled with liquid nitrogen. The specimens were then transferred to liquid nitrogen, removed from the projectile, and stored after opening of the sandwich in a cooled-container at −190 °C for freeze-drying and embedding. Specimens were dried in a Leybold-Heraeus freeze-drying unit (GT1) for three days at −110 °C and a pressure below 10\textsuperscript{-4} mbar. Temperature was then slowly raised to −10 °C without increase of pressure, and Spurr's low viscosity epoxy resin was directly conducted from an evacuated prechamber into the storage container. Specimens were kept under these conditions (−10 °C, 10\textsuperscript{-4} mbar) until infiltration with resin was completed and were then conventionally embedded.

Ultrathin sections cut with LKB-ulrotomes were usually stained with 1% uranyl acetate in 70% ethanol at 4 °C for 30 min. Some sections (for histochemical preparations) were stained with 3% uranyl acetate in 70% ethanol at room temperature for 1 min. Sections for X-ray microanalysis were cut without floating on water, i.e. dry to avoid solvation of ions, and remained always unstained. Sections were observed with a Philips 200 electron microscope at 40 kV or 60 kV or with a Philips 301 electron microscope at 80 kV. X-ray microanalysis was carried out with a Philips 300 electron microscope at 80 kV equipped with a STEM unit and an EDAX-microprobe analyser. X-ray spectra were detected in STEM-mode.

For fluorescence microscopy small pieces of tissue were disaggregated into single cells by incubation in Ringer's solution containing low concentrations of Ca\textsuperscript{2+} (i.e. 10\textsuperscript{-5} M free Ca\textsuperscript{2+}), 0.1% collagenase and 0.1% trypsin [18]. Single living cells were attached to microscopical slides coated with poly-L-lysine [19] and washed with Ringer's solution con-
taining $10^{-5}$ m Ca$^{2+}$. Ringer's solution was then replaced by the same solution containing in addition 250 $\mu$m chlorotetracycline (CTC, Serva, Heidelberg, FRG), i.e. a fluorescent dye for membrane-bound Ca$^{2+}$ [20]. After staining for about 5 min the Ca$^{2+}$-concentration was raised to the usual level of 2 mM. In some experiments 200 $\mu$m La$^{3+}$ as an additive to Ringer's solution without KHCO$_3$ was applied.

Fluorescence and bright field microscopy were carried out with Zeiss Photomikroskop I equipped with Zeiss Plan-Neofluar objectives. An image intensification system (TV-compact camera K5B, Siemens) allowed the application of excitation light at low intensities (exciter filter: 405 nm; cut-off filter: 460 nm). The cells were photographed from pictures displayed on a TV-screen.

Results

1. Morphometry

Two separate systems of external laminas (Fig. 2b, EL$_1$ and EL$_2$) encircling myocardial trabeculae were detected in thin sections of conventionally fixed material (Fig. 2c) and evaluated by morphometrical methods (see Table I). The EL$_1$-system follows as a continuous sheet the course of the endocardium thus surrounding the complete outer surface of the trabeculum (Fig. 2b and c, EL$_1$). The EL$_2$-system is in close contact to the sarcolemma of myocardial cells (Fig. 2b and c, EL$_2$). But comparing the expansion of the intercellular space (Fig. 2a, hatched area) between single myocardial cells (Fig. 2a, white areas) with the two-dimensional pattern of the EL$_2$-system (Fig. 2b, EL$_2$) reveals clear differences in the topographic appearance. The EL$_2$-system exclusively invades wide clefts (Fig. 2c, arrow) and is absent in narrow ones (Fig. 2c, arrow-head), i.e. large parts of the sarcolemma are devoid of an external lamina. Morphometric data (Table I) demonstrate that the EL$_2$-system covers altogether 41.1% (SD ± 7.43) of the myocardial cell surface. The extension of the external EL$_1$-system beneath endocardial cells was not evaluated quantitatively.

2. Histochemistry

Heart muscle cells prepared for the visualization of Ca$^{2+}$-binding sites in different fixation solutions containing 5 mM, 10 mM or 25 mM Ca$^{2+}$ regularly exhibit numerous small electron-dense deposits along the entire sarcolemma (Fig. 3). A distinct influence of the Ca$^{2+}$-concentration during fixation and post-treatment exists in so far as both, number and size of the deposits increase with rising Ca$^{2+}$-content of the medium, i.e. best results are obtained with 25 mM Ca$^{2+}$ (Fig. 3a and b). The electron-dense deposits are arranged at the cell surface in more or less regular distances of about 30–40 nm and can be easily dissolved in water. In contrast to myocardial cells other cell types also present in trabeculae such as endocardial cells (Fig. 3c), white blood cells, and fibroblasts always show a negative reaction. The deposits are of characteristic shape with a flat face attached to the external surface of the sarcolemma and a convex face at the opposite site. This can be concluded from thin sections gently poststained with uranyl acetate in 70% ethanol to avoid complete dissolution of the deposits (Fig. 3c, arrows).

X-ray microanalysis demonstrates that calcium is the main element forming the deposits (Fig. 3d and e), whereas calcium in other compartments (myoplasm, intercellular space) is largely lacking (Fig. 3d and f). This is also in agreement with control experiments using Ca$^{2+}$-free (0.01 mM Ca$^{2+}$) or EGTA-containing incubation media.

3. Cryopreparations

Quick-freezing of fresh myocardial tissue in liquid propane results in a reliable quality of morphological preservation within a peripheral region of 10–20 $\mu$m thickness (Fig. 2d). Main cell organelles such as mitochondria are distinctly visible by the electron-transparent appearance of the membrane systems after staining with uranyl acetate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direction of sectioning</th>
<th>Number of cells</th>
<th>Measured cell membrane [\mu m]</th>
<th>% Covered with external lamina (EL$_2$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>longitudinal</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1445</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>longitudinal</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1447</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>longitudinal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>46.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>1285</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>322</td>
<td>5053</td>
<td>$\bar{x} = 41.1%$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$s = 7.43$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 2
solution (Fig. 2 e). In unstained sections rows of electron-dense deposits at the cell periphery represent the most prominent structures clearly exceeding all other cell constituents in contrast (Fig. 4a and b, arrows). They measure 16.6 nm in diameter (SD ± 5; n = 50) and are attached to the sarcolemma. A comparison of thin sections photographed under conventional transmission (TEM, Fig. 4c) and scanning transmission conditions (STEM, Fig. 4d) demonstrates the possibility to visualize the deposits with the STEM-technique and hence to apply X-ray microanalysis (Fig. 4e–k).

Sections shortly floated on water before they were mounted on grids deliver a distinct calcium-peak derived from spot analysis of single deposits (Fig. 4e), whereas the cytoplasm (Fig. 4f) and the intercellular space (Fig. 4g) are devoid of detectable amounts of calcium. Sections mounted without any contact to water yield diagrams with increased calcium-peaks and, in addition, significant amounts of potassium and phosphorus (Fig. 4h). Under these conditions potassium and, to a lower extent, phosphorus, are also present in the cytoplasm (Fig. 4i) but not in the intercellular space (Fig. 4k).

4. Fluorescence microscopy

Single cells obtained from bullfrog atrium by treatment with trypsin and collagenase (see material and methods) are spindle-shaped or slightly branched and measure 2–10 μm in diameter and 200–400 μm in length (Fig. 5a and c). They can be stained with CTC as a fluorescent probe for membrane-boundCa2+. The brightness of the resulting CTC-fluorescence signal depends on both, the CTC- and Ca2+-concentration in the incubation medium. A strong fluorescence is obtained with 250 μM CTC and 2 mM Ca2+ in Ringer’s solution (Fig. 5b), whereas cells treated with 250 μM CTC and 0.01 mM Ca2+ show a rather weak fluorescence. Similar results are gained with varying CTC-concentrations at constant Ca2+ values.

Regardless of changes in intensity, a distinct fluorescence signal always follows to course of the sarcolemma (Fig. 5b, arrow-heads). A comparison of thin sections photographed under conventional transmission (TEM, Fig. 4d) demonstrates the possibility to visualize the deposits with the STEM-technique and hence to apply X-ray microanalysis (Fig. 4e–k).
The CTC-Ca\(^{2+}\)-fluorescence is inhibited by lanthanum (Fig. 5c–f). Application of a solution containing 2 mM Ca\(^{2+}\) and 200 μM La\(^{3+}\) to a myocardial cell stained previously with 0.01 mM Ca\(^{2+}\) and 250 μM CTC (Fig. 5d) causes a rapid decrease in fluorescence intensity until the signal is nearly vanished (Fig. 5e). Substitution of La\(^{3+}\) by a solution containing exclusively 2 mM Ca\(^{2+}\) causes recovery of fluorescence (Fig. 5f). This demonstrates that substitution of Ca\(^{2+}\) bound to the sarcolemma by La\(^{3+}\) is reversible. However, reversibility is only observed if treatment with La\(^{3+}\) does not exceed 5 min.

**Discussion**

Both, the internal and external faces of the plasma membrane are involved in Ca\(^{2+}\)-regulation. Binding sites for Ca\(^{2+}\) at the internal face were detected histochemically in a variety of tissues and single cells, e.g. insect intestine [12], nerves [21–23], amphibian glial cells [24], insect oocytes [25], electrophores [26], root tip cells [27], cellular slime molds [28], human platelets [29], liver hybrid cells [30], ciliates [31, 32] and amebas [33, 34]. The ability of the plasma membrane to adsorb and release free cytoplasmic Ca\(^{2+}\) is of general significance for the control of contractility and cell motility.

Binding sites for Ca\(^{2+}\) at the external cell surface are mostly restricted to the existence of negatively charged groups bound to sulphated or phosphorylated sugar components of the glycocalyx [35–39]. In heart muscle cells, the glycocalyx is composed of two layers [13]: (i) a surface coat of 20 nm thickness in close contact to the sarcolemma and (ii) an external lamina of 30 nm thickness bordering the interstitial space. The surface coat and external lamina are separate entities. In bullfrog myocardial cells the external lamina (EL\(_2\)) covers only 41% of the sarcolemmal surface (see Table 1).

All three methods used in this investigation to localize Ca\(^{2+}\) and Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding sites revealed the surface coat to be the most important compartment for extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\)-exchange. This confirms and extends earlier observations, in which extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding sites at the sarcolemma were indirectly detected by the application of La\(^{3+}\) [3, 41–43]. However, as La\(^{3+}\) exhibits a higher affinity to Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding sites than Ca\(^{2+}\) itself [2], such experiments are less conclusive than the direct localization of Ca\(^{2+}\) by means of cryofixation and freeze-drying (Fig. 4) or by CTC-fluorescence (Fig. 5).

The cryotechnique succeeds in Ca\(^{2+}\)-localization under approximate *in vivo*-conditions. Since the pattern of Ca\(^{2+}\)-deposits along the sarcolemma in cryofixed specimens is very similar to that determined by the method of Oschman and Wall [12], it seems reasonable to assume that the Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding sites demonstrated histochemically are also occupied by Ca\(^{2+}\) in living cells.

The demonstration of membrane-bound Ca\(^{2+}\) in myocardial cells by CTC as a fluorescent probe is in agreement with observations on other tissues [44–49]. The possibility to displace external Ca\(^{2+}\) by La\(^{3+}\) (Fig. 5) indicates that the exchangeable Ca\(^{2+}\) is bound superficially [42] as already shown in similar experiments with amebas [40]. A significant correlation between the fluorescence intensity of isolated cells on the one hand and the Ca\(^{2+}\)-concentration in the perfusing medium on the other hand strongly suggests a participation of the myocardial surface coat in Ca\(^{2+}\)-accumulation and release.

The chemical nature of Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding sites in the bullfrog myocardial sarcolemma is still obscure. Howse et al. [50] as well as Gross and Challice [51] pointed to the anionic nature of the surface coat which is especially rich in sialic acid [42, 52]. Sialic acid is able to bind Ca\(^{2+}\), thereby affecting the physiological properties of the sarcolemma [42, 8]. It should be noted, however, that sialic acid as a common constituent of the glycocalyx in a variety of species [38] has not been identified in amphibian myocardial sarcolemma.

Although the functional significance of externally bound Ca\(^{2+}\) is not well understood in detail, a wide range of cellular activities is affected by extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\). According to Langer [53] Ca\(^{2+}\)-influx from sarcolemmal binding-sites is of major importance in the control of myocardial contractility, *i.e.* membrane-bound Ca\(^{2+}\) is involved in excitation-contraction coupling. In amphibian myocardium a Ca\(^{2+}\)-release from internal stores does not seem to be important. But Ca\(^{2+}\) originating from external sites may act as direct activator of myofilaments. Moreover, Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding to the cell surface seems to be a prerequisite for structural integrity of the glycocalyx which in turn is important for maintenance of selective membrane permeabilities [42]. When the Ca\(^{2+}\)-level of the perfusion-medium is
reduced to a very low level by use of chelating agents, the cardiac action potential is extremely prolonged [54] and the kinetics of the slow inward channel are distinctly delayed [55]. A "stabilizing" effect of external Ca\(^{2+}\) on the cell membrane of heart muscle and nerve is well established [56, 57]. The effect was interpreted in terms of an adsorption of Ca\(^{2+}\) to the external surface of the membrane which produces a local hyperpolarization and a shift of the current-voltage relations for sodium and potassium to more positive potentials. Observations on amebas [37, 39, 58] have shown that extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) is also necessary to maintain membrane permeability at physiological levels and to provide controlled locomotion and electrical activity in protozoa. In summary, extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\)-binding and release constitutes a possible mechanism for the basic control of a number of regulatory processes on the cellular level.

**Acknowledgements**

The authors wish to thank Dr. C. Achenbach for reading the manuscript and Frl. U. Spies for technical assistance. The investigation was supported by a grant of the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft and a fellowship of the Konrad-Adenauer-Stiftung.
