Zn²⁺ is Essential for Ca²⁺ Oscillations in Mouse Eggs

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Abstract

Changes in the intracellular concentration of free calcium (Ca^{2+}) underpin egg activation and initiation of development in animals and plants. In mammals, the Ca^{2+} release is periodical, known as Ca^{2+} oscillations, and mediated by the type 1 inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor (IP$_3$R1). Another divalent cation, zinc (Zn^{2+}), increases exponentially during oocyte maturation and is vital for meiotic transitions, arrests, and polyspermy prevention. It is unknown if these pivotal cations interplay during fertilization. Here, using mouse eggs, we showed that basal concentrations of labile Zn^{2+} are indispensable for sperm-initiated Ca^{2+} oscillations because Zn^{2+}-deficient conditions induced by cell-permeable chelators abrogated Ca^{2+} responses evoked by fertilization and other physiological and pharmacological agonists. We also found that chemically- or genetically generated eggs with lower levels of labile Zn^{2+} displayed reduced IP$_3$R1 sensitivity and diminished ER Ca^{2+} leak despite the stable content of the stores and IP$_3$R1 mass. Resupplying Zn^{2+} restarted Ca^{2+} oscillations, but excessive Zn^{2+} prevented and terminated them, hindering IP$_3$R1 responsiveness. The findings suggest that a window of Zn^{2+} concentrations is required for Ca^{2+} responses and IP$_3$R1 function in eggs, ensuring optimal response to fertilization and egg activation.

Introduction

Vertebrate eggs are arrested at the metaphase stage of the second meiosis (MII) when ovulated because they have an active Cdk1/cyclin B complex and inactive APC/C^{Cdc20} (Heim et al., 2018). Release from MII initiates egg activation, the first hallmark of embryonic development (Ducibella et al., 2002; Schultz and Kopf, 1995). The universal signal of egg activation is an increase in the intracellular concentration of calcium (Ca^{2+}) (Ridgway et al., 1977; Stricker, 1999). Ca^{2+} release causes the inactivation of the APC/C inhibitor Emi2, which enhances cyclin B degradation and induces meiotic exit (Lorca et al., 1993; Shoji et al., 2006; Suzuki et al., 2010a). In mammals, the stereotypical fertilization Ca^{2+} signal, oscillations, consists of transient but periodical Ca^{2+} increases that promote progression into interphase (Deguchi et al., 2000; Miyazaki et al., 1986). The sperm-borne Phospholipase C zeta1 (PLCζ) persistently stimulates the production of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP$_3$) (Matsu-ura et al., 2019; Saunders et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2001) that binds its cognate receptor in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), IP$_3$R1 and causes Ca^{2+} release from the egg's main Ca^{2+} reservoir (Wakai et al., 2019). The intake of extracellular Ca^{2+} via plasma membrane channels and transporters ensures the persistence of the oscillations (Miao et al., 2012; Stein et al., 2020; Wakai et al., 2019, 2013).

Before fertilization, maturing oocytes undergo cellular and biochemical
modifications (see for review (Ajduk et al., 2008)). The nucleus of immature oocytes,
known as the germinal vesicle (GV), undergoes the breakdown of its envelope marking
the onset of maturation and setting in motion a series of cellular events that culminate
with the release of the first polar body, the correct ploidy for fertilization, and re-arrest at
MII (Eppig, 1996). Other organelles are also reorganized, such as cortical granules
migrate to the cortex for exocytosis and polyspermy block, mitochondria undergo
repositioning, and the cytoplasm's redox state becomes progressively reduced to promote
the exchange of the sperm's protamine load (Liu, 2011; Perreault et al., 1988; Wakai et
al., 2014). Wide-ranging adaptations also occur in the Ca^{2+} release machinery to produce
timely and protracted Ca^{2+} oscillations following sperm entry (Fujiwara et al., 1993;
Lawrence et al., 1998), including the increase in the content of the Ca^{2+} stores, ER
reorganization with cortical cluster formation, and increased IP_3R1 sensitivity (Lee et al.,
2006; Wakai et al., 2012). The total intracellular levels of zinc (Zn^{2+}) also remarkably
increase during maturation, amounting to a 50% rise, which is necessary for oocytes to
proceed to the telophase I of meiosis and beyond (Kim et al., 2010). Remarkably, after
fertilization, Zn^{2+} levels need to decrease, as Emi2 is a Zn^{2+}-associated molecule, and
high Zn^2 levels prevent MII exit (Bernhardt et al., 2012; Shoji et al., 2014; Suzuki et al.,
2010b). Following the initiation of Ca^{2+} oscillations, approximately 10 to 20% of the Zn^{2+}
accrued during maturation is ejected during the Zn^{2+} sparks, a conserved event in
vertebrates and invertebrate species (Converse and Thomas, 2020; Kim et al., 2011;
Mendoza et al., 2022; Que et al., 2019; Seeler et al., 2021; Tokuhiro and Dean, 2018;
Wozniak et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2016). The use of Zn^{2+} chelators such as N,N,N,N-
tetrakis (2-pyridinylmethyl)-1,2-ethylenediamine (TPEN) to create Zn^{2+}-deficient
conditions buttressed the importance of Zn^{2+} during meiotic transitions (Kim et al., 2010;
Suzuki et al., 2010b). However, whether the analogous dynamics of Ca^{2+} and Zn^{2+} during
maturation imply crosstalk and Zn^{2+} levels modulate Ca^{2+} release during fertilization is
unknown.
IP_3Rs are the most abundant intracellular Ca^{2+} release channel in non-muscle
cells (Berridge, 2016). They form a channel by assembling into tetramers with each
subunit of ~270kDa MW (Taylor and Tovey, 2010). Mammalian eggs express the type I
IP_3R, the most widespread isoform (Fissore et al., 1999; Parrington et al., 1998). IP_3R1 is
essential for egg activation because its inhibition precludes Ca^{2+} oscillations (Miyazaki
and Ito, 2006; Miyazaki et al., 1992; Xu et al., 2003). Myriad and occasionally cell-
specific factors influence Ca^{2+} release through the IP_3R1 (Taylor and Tovey, 2010). For
example, following fertilization, IP_3R1 undergoes ligand-induced degradation caused by

the sperm-initiated long-lasting production of IP_3 that effectively reduces the IP_3R1 mass

(Brind et al., 2000; Jellerette et al., 2000). Another regulatory mechanism is Ca^{2+}, a

universal cofactor, which biphasically regulates IP_3Rs' channel opening (Iino, 1990; Jean

and Klee, 1986), congruent with several Ca^{2+} and calmodulin binding sites on the

channel's sequence (Sienaert et al., 1997; Sipma et al., 1999). Notably, Zn^{2+} may also

participate in IP_3R1 regulation. Recent studies using electron cryomicroscopy (cryoEM),

a technique that allows peering into the structure of IP_3R1 with a near-atomic resolution,

have revealed that a helical linker (LNK) domain near the C-terminus mediates the

coupling between the N- and C-terminal ends necessary for channel opening (Fan et al.,

2015). The LNK domain contains a putative Zinc-finger motif proposed to be vital for

IP_3R1 function (Fan et al., 2015; Paknejad and Hite, 2018). Therefore, the exponential

increase in Zn^{2+} levels in maturing oocytes, besides its essential role in meiosis

progression, may optimize the IP_3R1 function, revealing hitherto unknown cooperation

between these cations during fertilization.

Here, we examined whether crosstalk between Ca^{2+} and Zn^{2+} is required to

initiate and sustain Ca^{2+} oscillations and maintain Ca^{2+} store content in MII eggs. We

found that Zn^{2+}-deficient conditions inhibited Ca^{2+} release and oscillations without

reducing Ca^{2+} stores, IP_3 production, IP_3R1 expression, or altering the viability of eggs or

zygotes. We show instead that Zn^{2+} deficiency impaired IP_3R1 function and lessened the

receptor's ability to gate Ca^{2+} release out of the ER. Remarkably, resupplying Zn^{2+} re-

established the oscillations interrupted by low Zn^{2+}, although persistent increases in

intracellular Zn^{2+} were harmful, disrupting the Ca^{2+} responses and preventing egg

activation. Together, the results show that besides contributing to oocyte maturation, Zn^{2+}

has a central function in Ca^{2+} homeostasis such that optimal Zn^{2+} concentrations ensure

IP_3R1 function and the Ca^{2+} oscillations required for initiating embryo development.

Results

TPEN dose-dependently lowers intracellular Zn^{2+} and inhibits sperm-initiated Ca^{2+}

oscillations.

TPEN is a cell-permeable, non-specific chelator with a high affinity for transition

metals widely used to study their function in cell physiology (Arslan et al., 1985; Lo et

al., 2020). Mouse oocytes and eggs have exceedingly high intracellular concentrations of

Zn^{2+} (Kim et al., 2011, 2010), and the TPEN-induced defects in the progression of meiosis

have been ascribed to its chelation (Bernhardt et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2010). In support

of this view, the Zn^{2+} levels of cells showed acute reduction after TPEN addition, as

reported by indicators such as FluoZin-3 (Arslan et al., 1985; Gee et al., 2002; Suzuki et

al., 2010b). Studies in mouse eggs also showed that the addition of low μM (40-100) concentrations of TPEN disrupted Ca^{2+} oscillations initiated by fertilization or $SrCl_2$ (Lawrence et al., 1998; Suzuki et al., 2010b), but the mechanism(s) and target(s) of the inhibition remained unknown. To gain insight into this phenomenon, we first performed dose-titration studies to determine the effectiveness of TPEN in lowering Zn^{2+} in eggs. The addition of 2.5 μM TPEN protractedly reduced Zn^{2+} levels, whereas 5 and 10 μM TPEN acutely and persistently reduced FluoZin-3 fluorescence (**Fig. 1A)**. These concentrations of TPEN are higher than the reported free Zn^{2+} concentrations in cells, but within range of those of found in typical culture conditions (Lo et al., 2020; Qin et al., 2011). We next determined the concentrations of TPEN required to abrogate fertilization-initiated oscillations. Following intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI), we monitored Ca^{2+} responses while increasing TPEN concentrations. As shown in **Fig. 1B**, 5 and 10 μM TPEN effectively blocked ICSI-induced Ca^{2+} oscillations in over half of the treated cells, and the remaining eggs, after a prolonged interval, resumed lower-frequency rises (**Fig. 1B**-center panels). Finally, 50 μM or greater concentrations of TPEN permanently blocked these oscillations (**Fig. 1B**-right panel). It is noteworthy that at the time of addition, TPEN concentrations of 5 μM or above induce a sharp drop in basal Fura-2 F340/ F380 ratios, consistent with Fura-2's high affinity for Zn^{2+} (Snitsarev et al., 1996).

We next used membrane-permeable and -impermeable chelators to assess whether TPEN inhibited Ca^{2+} oscillations by chelating Zn^{2+} from intracellular or extracellular compartments. The addition of the high-affinity but cell-impermeable Zn^{2+} chelators DTPA and EDTA neither terminated nor temporarily interrupted ICSI-induced Ca^{2+} oscillations (**Fig. 1C**), although protractedly slowed them down, possibly because of chelation and lowering of external Ca^{2+} (**Fig. 1C**). These results suggest that chelation of external Zn^{2+} does not affect the continuation of oscillations. We cannot determine that EDTA successfully chelated all external Zn^{2+}, but the evidence that the addition of EDTA to the monitoring media containing cell impermeable FluoZin-3 caused a marked reduction in fluorescence, suggests that a noticeable fraction of the available Zn^{2+} was sequestered (**Supplementary Fig. 1A**). Similarly, injection of m*Plcζ* mRNA in eggs incubated in Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}-free media supplemented with EDTA, to maximize the chances of chelation of external Zn^{2+}, initiated low-frequency but persistent oscillations, and addition of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} restored the physiological periodicity (**Supplementary Fig. 1B)**. Lastly, another Zn^{2+}-permeable chelator, TPA, blocked the ICSI-initiated Ca^{2+} oscillations but required higher concentrations than TPEN (**Fig. 1D**). Collectively, the data suggest that basal levels of labile internal Zn^{2+} are essential to sustain the fertilization-initiated Ca^{2+} oscillations in eggs.

We next evaluated whether Zn^{2+} depletion prevented the completion of meiosis
and pronuclear (PN) formation. To this end, ICSI-fertilized eggs were cultured in the
presence of 10 µM TPEN for 8h, during which the events of egg activation were examined
(**Fig. 1E and Table 1**). All fertilized eggs promptly extruded second polar bodies
regardless of treatment (**Fig. 1E**). TPEN, however, impaired PN formation, and by 4- or
7-h post-ICSI, most treated eggs failed to show PNs, unlike controls (**Fig. 1E and Table**
1). Together, these results demonstrate that depletion of Zn^{2+} terminates Ca^{2+} oscillations
and delays or prevents events of egg activation, including PN formation.
176
177   ***TPEN is a universal inhibitor of Ca^{2+} oscillations in eggs.***
178   Mammalian eggs initiate Ca^{2+} oscillations in response to numerous stimuli and
conditions (Miyazaki and Ito, 2006; Wakai and Fissore, 2013). Fertilization and its release
of PLCζ stimulate the phosphoinositide pathway, producing IP_3 and Ca^{2+} oscillations
(Miyazaki, 1988; Saunders et al., 2002). Neurotransmitters such as acetylcholine (Ach)
and other G-protein coupled receptor agonists engage a similar mechanism (Dupont et al.,
1996; Kang et al., 2003), although in these cases, IP_3 production occurs at the plasma
membrane and is short-lived (Kang et al., 2003; Swann and Parrington, 1999). Agonists
such as $SrCl_2$ and thimerosal generate oscillations by sensitizing IP_3R1 without producing
IP_3. The mechanism(s) of $SrCl_2$ is unclear, although its actions are reportedly directly on
the IP_3R1 (Hajnóczky and Thomas, 1997; Hamada et al., 2003; Nomikos et al., 2015,
2011; Sanders et al., 2018). Thimerosal oxidizes dozens of thiol groups in the receptor,
which enhances the receptor's sensitivity and ability to release Ca^{2+} (Bootman et al.,
1992; Evellin et al., 2002; Joseph et al., 2018). We took advantage of the varied points at
which the mentioned agonists engage the phosphoinositide pathway to examine TPEN's
effectiveness in inhibiting their effects. m*Plcζ* mRNA injection, like fertilization, induces
persistent Ca^{2+} oscillations, although m*Plcζ*'s tends to be more robust. Consistent with
this, the addition of 10 and 25 µM TPEN transiently interrupted or belatedly terminated
oscillations, whereas 50 µM acutely stopped all responses (**Fig. 2A**). By contrast, $SrCl_2$-
initiated rises were the most sensitive to Zn^{2+}-deficient conditions, with 2.5 µM TPEN
nearly terminating all oscillations that 5 µM did (**Fig. 2B**). TPEN was equally effective
in ending the Ach-induced Ca^{2+} responses (**Fig. 2C**), but curbing thimerosal responses
required higher concentrations (**Fig. 2D**). Lastly, we ruled out that downregulation of
IP_3R1 was responsible for the slow-down or termination of the oscillations by TPEN. To
accomplish this, we examined the IP_3R1 mass in eggs (Jellerette et al., 2004) with and
without TPEN supplementation and injection of m*Plcζ* mRNA. By 4h post-injection,
PLCζ induced the expected down-regulation of IP_3R1 reactivity, whereas was

insignificant in TPEN-treated and *Plcζ* mRNA-injected eggs, as it was in uninjected

control eggs (**Fig. 2F**). These findings together show that Zn^{2+} deficiency inhibits the

IP_3R1-mediated Ca^{2+} oscillations independently of IP_3 production or loss of receptor,

suggesting a role of Zn^{2+} on IP_3R1 function (**Fig. 2E**).

Zn^{2+} depletion reduces IP_3R1-mediated Ca^{2+} release.

210   To directly assess the inhibitory effects of TPEN on IP_3R1 function, we used caged

IP_3 (cIP_3) that, after short UV pulses, releases IP_3 into the ooplasm (Wakai et al., 2012;

Walker et al., 1987). To exclude the possible contribution of external Ca^{2+} to the responses,

we performed the experiments in Ca^{2+}-free media. In response to sequential cIP_3 release

5 min apart, control eggs displayed corresponding Ca^{2+} rises that occasionally

transitioned into short-lived oscillations (**Fig. 3A**). The addition of TPEN after the third

cIP_3 release prevented the subsequent Ca^{2+} response and prematurely terminated the in-

progress Ca^{2+} rises (**Fig. 3B and inset**). Pre-incubation of eggs with TPEN precluded

cIP_3-induced Ca^{2+} release, even after 5 sec UV exposure (**Fig. 3C**). The addition of excess

$ZnSO_4$ (100 μM) overcame TPEN's inhibitory effects only if added before (**Fig. 3E**) and

not after the addition of TPEN (**Fig. 3D**). Similar concentrations of $MgCl_2$ or $CaCl_2$ failed

to reverse TPEN effects (**Fig. 3F, G**). Together, the results show that Zn^{2+} is required for

IP_3R1-mediated Ca^{2+} release downstream of IP_3 production, appearing to interfere with

receptor gating, as suggested by TPEN's rapid termination of in-progress Ca^{2+} rises and

ongoing oscillations.

225   ERp44 is an ER luminal protein of the thioredoxin family that interacts with the

IP_3R1, reportedly inhibiting its ability to mediate Ca^{2+} release (Higo et al., 2005). The

localization of ERp44 in the ER-Golgi intermediate compartment of somatic cells

correlates with Zn^{2+}'s availability and changes dramatically after TPEN treatment (Higo

et al., 2005; Watanabe et al., 2019). To rule out the possibility that TPEN suppresses the

function of IP_3R1 by modifying the subcellular distribution of ERp44, we overexpressed

ERp44 by injecting HA tagged-*Erp44* mRNA into MII eggs and monitored the effect on

Ca^{2+} release. TPEN did not alter the localization of ERp44 (**Supplementary Fig. 2A**),

and overexpression of ERp44 modified neither the Ca^{2+} oscillations induced by agonists

(**Supplementary Fig. 2B**) nor the effectiveness of TPEN to block them (data not shown).

Thus, TPEN and Zn^{2+} deficiency most likely inhibits Ca^{2+} release by directly interfering

with IP_3R1 function rather than modifying this particular regulator.

Zn^{2+} depletion diminishes the ER Ca^{2+} leak and increases Ca^{2+} store content.

Our above cIP$_3$ results that TPEN inhibited IP$_3$R1-mediated Ca^{2+} release and
interrupted in-progress Ca^{2+} rises despite the presence of high levels of environmental IP$_3$
suggest its actions are probably independent of IP$_3$ binding, agreeing with an earlier report
showing that TPEN did not modify IP$_3$'s affinity for the IP$_3$R (Richardson and Taylor,
1993). Additionally, the presence of a Zn^{2+}-binding motif near the C-term cytoplasmic
domain of the IP$_3$R1's channel, which is known to influence agonist-induced IP$_3$R1 gating
(Fan et al., 2015), led us to posit and examine that Zn^{2+} deficiency may be disturbing Ca^{2+}
release to the cytosol and out of the ER. To probe this possibility, we queried if pre-
treatment with TPEN inhibited Ca^{2+} release through IP$_3$R1. We first used Thapsigargin
(Tg), a Sarcoplasmic/ER Ca^{2+} ATPase pump inhibitor (Thastrup et al., 1990) that unmasks
a constitutive Ca^{2+} leak out of the ER (Lemos et al., 2021); in eggs, we have demonstrated
it is mediated at least in part by IP$_3$R1 (Wakai et al., 2019). Treatment with TPEN for 15
min slowed the Tg-induced Ca^{2+} leak into the cytosol, resulting in delayed and lowered
amplitude Ca^{2+} responses (**Fig. 4A;** $P<0.05$). To test whether the reduced response to Tg
means that TPEN prevented the complete response of Tg, leaving a temporarily increased
Ca^{2+} content in the ER, we added the Ca^{2+} ionophore ionomycin (Io), which empties all
stores independently of IP$_3$Rs. Io-induced Ca^{2+} responses were 3.3-fold greater in TPEN-
treated cells, supporting the view that TPEN interferes with the ER Ca^{2+} leak (**Fig. 4A;** P
< 0.05). We further evaluated this concept using *in vitro* aged eggs that often display
reduced Ca^{2+} store content than freshly collected counterparts (Abbott et al., 1998). After
culturing eggs in the presence or absence of TPEN for 2h, we added Io during Ca^{2+}
monitoring, which in TPEN-treated eggs induced bigger Ca^{2+} rises than in control eggs
(**Fig. 4B;** $P<0.05$). We confirmed that this effect was independent of IP$_3$R1 degradation
because TPEN did not change IP$_3$R1 reactivity in unfertilized eggs (**Fig. 4C**; $P<0.05$).

Next, we used the genetically encoded FRET sensor D1ER (Palmer et al., 2004) to
assess the TPEN's effect on the ER's relative Ca^{2+} levels changes following the additions
of Tg or Ach. TPEN was added 10 min before 10 µM Tg or 50 µM Ach, and we
simultaneously monitored changes in cytosolic and intra-ER Ca^{2+} (**Fig. 4D, E**). For the
first three min, the Tg-induced decrease in Ca^{2+}-ER was similar between groups. However,
while the drop in Ca^{2+} content continued in control eggs, in TPEN-treated eggs, it came
to an abrupt halt, generating profound differences between the two groups (**Fig. 4D;** P
<0.05). TPEN had even more pronounced effects following the addition of Ach, leading
to a reduced- and prematurely terminated- Ca^{2+} release from the ER in treated eggs (**Fig.**
4E; $P<0.05$).

Lastly, we sought to use a cellular model where low labile Zn^{2+} occurred without
pharmacology. To this end, we examined a genetic model where the two non-selective

plasma membrane channels that could influx Zn^{2+} in maturing oocytes have been deleted
(Bernhardt et al., 2017; Carvacho et al., 2016, 2013), namely, the transient receptor
potential melastatin-7 (TRPM7) and TRP vanilloid 3 (TRPV3), both members of the TRP
superfamily of channels (Wu et al., 2010). We found that eggs from double knockout
females (dKOs) had lower levels of labile Zn^{2+} (**Fig. 4F**), and the addition of Tg revealed
an expanded Ca^{2+} store content in these eggs vs. control WT eggs (**Fig. 4G**). Remarkably,
in dKO eggs, the Ca^{2+} rise induced by Tg showed a shoulder or inflection point before
the peak delaying the time to peak (**Fig. 4G**, **inset**; P <0.001). These results in dKO eggs
show a changed dynamic of the Tg-induced Ca^{2+} release, suggesting that lower levels of
labile Zn^{2+} modify ER Ca^{2+} release independently of chelators.

Ca^{2+} oscillations in eggs occur within a window of Zn^{2+} concentrations.

We next examined if resupplying Zn^{2+} could restart the Ca^{2+} oscillations
terminated by Zn^{2+} depletion. Zn pyrithione (ZnPT) rapidly increases cellular Zn^{2+} upon
extracellular addition (Barnett et al., 1977; Robinson, 1964). Dose titration studies and
imaging fluorimetry revealed that 0.01 µM ZnPT caused subtle and protracted increases
in Zn^{2+} levels, whereas 0.1 µM ZnPT caused rapid increases in eggs' Zn^{2+} baseline (**Fig.**
5A). We induced detectable Ca^{2+} oscillations by injection of m*Plcζ* mRNA followed by
50 µM TPEN (**Fig. 5B**), which terminated them. After 30 min, we added 0.1 µM ZnPT,
and within 15 min the oscillations restarted in most TPEN-treated eggs (**Fig. 5C**). We
repeated this approach using Thimerosal (**Fig. 5D, E**). Adding 0.1 µM ZnPT did not
restore the Ca^{2+} oscillations retrained by TPEN, but 0.5 µM ZnPT did so (**Fig. 5E**). These
results demonstrate that Zn^{2+} plays a pivotal, enabling role in the generation of Ca^{2+}
oscillations in mouse eggs.

Excessive intracellular Zn^{2+} inhibits Ca^{2+} oscillations.

Zn^{2+} is necessary for diverse cellular functions, consistent with numerous amino
acids and proteins capable of binding Zn^{2+} within specific and physiological ranges (Pace
and Weerapana, 2014). Excessive Zn^{2+}, however, can cause detrimental effects on cells
and organisms (Broun et al., 1990; Hara et al., 2022; Sikora and Ouagazzal, 2021).
Consistent with the deleterious effects of Zn^{2+}, a previous study showed that high
concentrations of ZnPT, ~50 µM, prevented $SrCl_2$-induced egg activation and initiation
of development (Bernhardt et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2011). We examined how ZnPT and
excessive Zn^{2+} levels influence Ca^{2+} oscillations. Our conditions revealed that pre-
incubation or continuous exposure to 0.1 µM or 1.0 µM ZnPT delayed or prevented egg
activation induced by m*Plcζ* mRNA injection (**Supplementary Fig. 3**). We used these

ZnPT concentrations to add it into ongoing oscillations induced by ICSI and monitored
the succeeding Ca^{2+} responses. The addition of 0.05 to 10 µM ZnPT caused an immediate
elevation of the basal levels of Fura-2 and termination of the Ca^{2+} oscillations (**Fig. 6A-**
D). m*Plcζ* mRNA-initiated Ca^{2+} responses were also interrupted by adding 0.1 µM ZnPT,
whereas untreated eggs continued oscillating (**Fig. 6E, F**). ZnPT also inhibited IP₃R1-
mediated Ca^{2+} release triggered by cIP₃, suggesting that excessive Zn^{2+} directly inhibits
IP₃R1 function (**Fig. 6G**).

A noticeable feature of ZnPT is the increased basal ratios of Fura-2 AM. These
changes could reflect enhanced IP₃R1 function and increased basal Ca^{2+} concentrations
caused by Zn^{2+} stimulation of IP₃R1. This seems unlikely, however, because extended
elevated cytosolic Ca^{2+} would probably induce cellular responses, such as the release of
the second polar body, egg fragmentation, or cell death, neither of which happened. It
might reflect, instead, Fura-2's ability to report changes in Zn^{2+} levels, which seemed the
case because the addition of TPEN lowered fluorescence without restarting the Ca^{2+}
oscillations (**Fig. 6F**). To ensure the impact of ZnPT abolishing Ca^{2+} oscillations was not
an imaging artifact obscuring ongoing rises, we simultaneously monitored cytoplasmic
and ER Ca^{2+} levels with Rhod-2 and D1ER, respectively. This approach allowed
synchronously observing Ca^{2+} changes in both compartments that should unfold in
opposite directions. In control, uninjected eggs, the fluorescent values for both reporters
remained unchanged during the monitoring period, whereas in m*Plcζ* mRNA-injected
eggs, the reporters' signals displayed simultaneous but opposite changes, as expected (**Fig.**
6H, I). The addition of ZnPT in uninjected eggs rapidly increased Rhod-2 signals but not
D1ER's, which was also the case in oscillating eggs, as the addition of ZnPT did not
immediately alter the dynamics of the ER's Ca^{2+} release, suggesting D1ER faithfully
reports in Ca^{2+} changes but cannot detect changes in Zn^{2+} levels, at least to this extent;
ZnPT progressively caused fewer and lower amplitude changes in D1ER fluorescence,
consistent with the diminishing and eventual termination of the Ca^{2+} oscillations.
Noteworthy, in these eggs, the basal D1ER fluorescent ratio remained unchanged after
ZnPT, demonstrating its unresponsiveness to Zn^{2+} changes of this magnitude. The ZnPT-
induced increases in Rhod-2 fluorescence without concomitant changes in D1ER values
suggest that the changes in the dyes' fluorescence do not represent an increase in basal
Ca^{2+} and, more likely, signal an increase in intracellular Zn^{2+}. We confirmed that both
reporters were still in working order, as the addition of Io triggered Ca^{2+} changes detected
by both reporters (**Fig. 6H, I**).

Discussion

The present study demonstrates that appropriate levels of labile Zn^{2+} are essential
for initiating and maintaining IP$_3$R1-mediated Ca^{2+} oscillations in mouse eggs regardless
of the initiating stimuli. Both deficient and excessive Zn^{2+} compromise IP$_3$R1 sensitivity,
diminishing and mostly terminating Ca^{2+} oscillations. The results demonstrate that IP$_3$R1
and Zn^{2+} act in concert to modulate Ca^{2+} signals, revealing previously unexplored
crosstalk between these ions at fertilization (**Fig. 7**).

Zn^{2+} is an essential micronutrient for living organisms (Kaur et al., 2014) and is
required for various cellular functions, such as proliferation, transcription, and
metabolism (Lo et al., 2020; Maret and Li, 2009; Yamasaki et al., 2007). Studies using
Zn^{2+} chelators have uncovered what appears to be a cell-specific, narrow window of Zn^{2+}
concentrations needed for cellular proliferation and survival (Carraway and Dobner,
2012; Lo et al., 2020). Further, TPEN appeared especially harmful, and in a few cell lines,
even low doses provoked oxidative stress, DNA fragmentation, and apoptosis (Mendivil-
Perez et al., 2012). We show here that none of the Zn^{2+} chelators, permeable or
impermeable, affected cell viability within our experimental observations, confirming
findings from previous studies that employed high concentrations of TPEN to interrupt
the Ca^{2+} oscillations (Lawrence et al., 1998) or inducing egg activation of mouse eggs
(Suzuki et al., 2010b). Our data demonstrating that ~2.5 µM is the threshold concentration
of TPEN in eggs that first causes noticeable changes in basal Zn^{2+}, as revealed by FluoZin,
is consistent with the ~2 to 5-µM Zn^{2+} concentrations in most culture media without
serum supplementation (Lo et al., 2020), and with the ~100 pM basal Zn^{2+} in cells (Qin
et al., 2011). Lastly, the effects on Ca^{2+} release observed here with TPEN and other
chelators were due to the chelation of Zn^{2+}, as pretreatment with ZnSO$_4$ but not with equal
or greater concentrations of MgCl$_2$ or CaCl$_2$ rescued the inhibition of the responses, which
is consistent with results by others (Kim et al., 2010; Lawrence et al., 1998).

To identify how Zn^{2+} deficiency inhibits Ca^{2+} release in eggs, we induced Ca^{2+}
oscillations using various stimuli and tested the effectiveness of membrane-permeable
and impermeable chelators to abrogate them. Chelation of extracellular Zn^{2+} failed to
terminate the Ca^{2+} responses, whereas membrane-permeable chelators did, pointing to
intracellular labile Zn^{2+} levels as essential for Ca^{2+} release. All agonists used here were
susceptible to inhibition by TPEN, whether their activities depended on IP$_3$ production or
allosterically induced receptor function, although the effective TPEN concentrations
varied across stimuli. Some agents, such as m*Plcζ* mRNA or thimerosal, required higher
concentrations than SrCl$_2$, Ach, or cIP$_3$. The reason underlying the different agonists'
sensitivities to TPEN will require additional research, but the persistence of IP$_3$
production or change in IP$_3$R1 structure needed to induce channel gating might explain

it. However, the universal abrogation of Ca^{2+} oscillations by TPEN supports the view

drawn from cryo-EM-derived IP$_3$R1 models that signaling molecules can allosterically

induce channel gating from different starting positions in the receptor by mechanically

coupling the binding effect to the ion-conducting pore in the C-terminal end of IP$_3$R (Fan

et al., 2015). The cytosolic C-terminal domain of each IP$_3$R1 subunit is alongside the IP$_3$-

binding domain of another subunit and, therefore, well positioned to sense IP$_3$ binding

and induce channel gating (Fan et al., 2015). Within each subunit, the LNK domain, which

contains a Zn^{2+}-finger motif (Fan et al., 2015), connects the opposite domains of the

molecule. Although there are no reports regarding the regulation of IP$_3$R1 sensitivity by

Zn^{2+}, such evidence exists for RyRs (Woodier et al., 2015), which also display a conserved

Zn^{2+}-finger motif (des Georges et al., 2016). Lastly, mutations of the two Cys or two His

residues of this motif, without exception, resulted in inhibition or inactivation of the IP$_3$R1

channel (Bhanumathy et al., 2012; Uchida et al., 2003). These results are consistent with

the view that the C-terminal end of IP$_3$Rs plays a dominant role in channel gating

(Bhanumathy et al., 2012; Uchida et al., 2003). We propose that TPEN inhibits Ca^{2+}

oscillations in mouse eggs because chelating Zn^{2+} interferes with the function of the LNK

domain and its Zn^{2+}-finger motif proposed role on the mechanical coupling induced by

agonist binding to the receptor that propagates to the pore-forming region and required to

gate the channel's ion-pore (Fan et al., 2022, 2015).

In support of this possibility, TPEN-induced Zn^{2+} deficient conditions altered the

Ca^{2+}-releasing kinetics in resting eggs or after fertilization. Tg increases intracellular Ca^{2+}

by inhibiting the SERCA pump (Thastrup et al., 1990) and preventing the reuptake into

the ER of the ebbing Ca^{2+} during the basal leak. Our previous studies showed that the

downregulation of IP$_3$R1 diminishes the leak, suggesting it occurs through IP$_3$R1 (Wakai

and Fissore, 2019). Consistent with this view, TPEN pre-treatment delayed the Ca^{2+}

response induced by Tg, implying that Zn^{2+} deficiency hinders Ca^{2+} release through IP$_3$R1.

An expected consequence would be increased Ca^{2+} content in the ER after Tg. Io that

mobilizes Ca^{2+} independently of IP$_3$Rs (Toeplitz et al., 1979) induced enhanced responses

in TPEN-treated eggs vs. controls, confirming the accumulation of Ca^{2+}- ER in Zn^{2+}

deficient conditions. We demonstrated that this accumulation is due to hindered emptying

of the Ca^{2+} ER evoked by agonists in Zn^{2+}-deficient environments, resulting in reduced

cytosolic Ca^{2+} increases, as IP$_3$R1 is the pivotal intermediary channel between these

compartments. Noteworthy, the initial phase of the Tg-induced Ca^{2+} release out of the ER

did not appear modified by TPEN, as if it was mediated by a Zn^{2+}-insensitive Ca^{2+}

channel(s)/transporter, contrasting with the abrogation of Ach-induced ER emptying from

the outset. Remarkably, independently of Zn^{2+} chelators, emptying of Ca^{2+} ER was

modified in a genetic model of Zn^{2+}-deficient oocytes lacking two TRP channels,
confirming the impact of Zn^{2+} on Ca^{2+} release. It is worth noting that TPEN did not reduce
but maintained or increased the mass of IP_3R1, which might result in the inhibition of
Zn^{2+}-dependent ubiquitin ligase Ubc7 by the Zn-deficient conditions (Webster et al.,
2003). We cannot rule out that these conditions may undermine other conformational
changes required to trigger IP_3R1 degradation, thereby favoring the accumulation of
IP_3R1.

Despite accruing Zn^{2+} during oocyte maturation, fertilization witnesses a
necessary Zn^{2+} release into the external milieu, known as "Zn^{2+} sparks" (Converse and
Thomas, 2020; Kim et al., 2011; Mendoza et al., 2022; Que et al., 2019, 2015; Seeler et
al., 2021). This release of Zn^{2+} is a conserved event in fertilization across species and is
associated with several biological functions, including those related to fending off
polyspermy (Kim et al., 2011; Que et al., 2019; Wozniak et al., 2020). The concomitant
decrease in Zn^{2+} facilitates the resumption of the cell cycle and exit from the MII stage
(Kim et al., 2011). Congruent with this observation, artificial manipulation that maintains
high Zn^{2+} levels prevents egg activation (Kim et al., 2011), whereas lowering Zn^{2+} with
chelators leads to egg activation without Ca^{2+} mobilization (Suzuki et al., 2010b). As
posed by others, these results suggest that meiosis completion and the early stages of
fertilization unfold within a narrow window of permissible Zn^{2+} (Kim et al., 2011, 2010).
Here, we extend this concept and show that IP_3R1 function and the Ca^{2+} oscillations in
mouse eggs require this optimal level of labile Zn^{2+} because the Ca^{2+} responses
interrupted by TPEN-induced Zn^{2+}-insufficiency are rescued by restoring Zn^{2+} levels with
ZnPT. Furthermore, unopposed increases in Zn^{2+} by exposure to ZnPT abrogated
fertilization-initiated Ca^{2+} oscillations and prevented the expected egg activation events.
It is unclear how excess Zn^{2+} disturbs the function of IP_3R1. Nevertheless, IP_3R1s have
multiple cysteines whose oxidation enhances the receptor sensitivity to IP_3 (Joseph et al.,
2018), and it is possible that excessive Zn^{2+} aberrantly modifies them, disturbing IP_3R1
structure and function or, alternatively, preventing their oxidation and sensitization of the
receptor. Lastly, we cannot rule out that high Zn^{2+} levels directly inhibit the receptor's
channel. These results reveal a close association between the Zn^{2+} levels controlling
meiotic transitions and the Ca^{2+} release necessary for egg activation, placing the IP_3R1 at
the center of the crosstalk of these two divalent cations.

Abrupt Zn^{2+} changes have emerged as critical signals for meiotic and mitotic
transitions in oocytes, eggs, embryos, and somatic cells (Kim et al., 2011, 2010; Lo et al.,
2020). Fertilization relies on prototypical Ca^{2+} rises and oscillations, and Zn^{2+} sparks are
an egg activation event downstream of this Ca^{2+} release, establishing a functional

association between these two divalent cations that continues to grow (Kim et al., 2011).
Here, we show that, in addition, these cations actively crosstalk during fertilization and
that the fertilization-induced Ca^{2+} oscillations rely on optimized IP_3R1 function
underpinned by ideal Zn^{2+} levels set during oocyte maturation. Future studies should
explore if artificial alteration of Zn^{2+} levels can extend the fertile lifespan of eggs,
improve developmental competence, or develop methods of non-hormonal contraception.
461
462 **Materials and Methods**
463 **Key resources table**

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Genetic reagent (*Mus musculus*)	CD1	Charles River	022	
Genetic reagent (*Mus musculus*)	C57BL/6J	JAX	JAX: 000664	
Genetic reagent (*Mus musculus*)	*Trpm7*-floxed	A generous gift from Dr. Carmen P. Williams (NIEHS) (PMID: 30322909)		C57BL6/J and 129s4/SvJae mixed background
Genetic reagent (*Mus musculus*)	*Gdf9-cre*	JAX	JAX: 011062	
Genetic reagent (*Mus musculus*)	*Trpv3*$^{-/-}$	A generous gift from Dr H. Xu (PMID: 20403327)		C57BL/6J and 129/SvEv mixed background
Biological sample (mouse oocyte)	*Mus musculus*	this paper		Eggs at the metaphase of the second meiosis
Biological sample (mouse	*Mus musculus*	this paper		Matured sperm from

sperm)				cauda epididymis
Recombinant DNA reagent	pcDNA6-mouse *Plcz1-venus* (plasmid used as a template for mRNA synthesis)	Published in previous Fissore lab paper PMID: 34313315. Mouse *Plcz1* sequence was a generous gift from Dr. Kiyoko Fukami (PMID:18028898)		mouse *Plcz1* mRNA was fused with Venus and inserted in pcDNA6 vector
Recombinant DNA reagent	pcDNA6-CALR-D1ER-KDEL (plasmid used as a template for mRNA synthesis)	Published in previous Fissore lab paper PMID: 24101727. Original D1ER vector was a generous gift from Dr. Roger Y Tsien (PMID: 15585581)		FRET construct D1ER was inserted between ER-targeting sequence of calreticulin and KDEL ER retention signal in pcDNA6 vector
Recombinant DNA reagent	pcDNA6-human *ERp44-HA* (plasmid used as a template for mRNA synthesis)	This paper. Original human ERp44 sequence was a generous gift from Dr. Roberto Sitia (PMID: 11847130)		human *ERp44* mRNA fused with HA in pcDNA6/ Myc-His B vector
Antibody	Monoclonal HA (Mouse monoclonal)	Roche	11581816001	Dilution: 1:200
Antibody	Polyclonal IP$_3$R1 (Rabbit polyclonal)	(Parys et al., 1995)		Dilution: 1:1000
Antibody	Monoclonal α-tubulin	Sigma-Aldrich	T-9026	Dilution:

	(Mouse monoclonal)			1:1000
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 488 (goat anti mouse)	Invitrogen	Invitrogen: A32723	Dilution: 1:400
Commercial assay or kit	T7 mMESSAGE mMACHINE Kit	Invitrogen	Invitrogen: AM1344	Used for *in vitro* mRNA synthesis
Commercial assay or kit	Poly(A) Tailing Kit	Invitrogen	Invitrogen: AM1350	Used for poly (A) tailing of synthesized mRNA
Chemical compound, drug	Hyaluronidase from bovine testes	Sigma-Aldrich	H3506	
Chemical compound, drug	3-Isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX)	Sigma-Aldrich	I5879	
Chemical compound, drug	Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) (average molecular weight: 360,000)	Sigma-Aldrich	PVP360	Used for mRNA microinjection and ICSI
Chemical compound, drug	N,N, N′,N′-Tetrakis (2-pyridylmethyl) ethylenediamine (TPEN)	Sigma-Aldrich	P4413	Prepared in DMSO and kept at −20 °C until use
Chemical compound, drug	Zinc Pyrithione (ZnPT)	Sigma-Aldrich	PHR1401	Prepared in DMSO and kept at −20 °C until use
Chemical compound, drug	Strontium chloride hexahydrate ($SrCl_2$)	Sigma-Aldrich	255521	Freshly dissolved in water on the day of experiment
Chemical compound, drug	Calcium chloride dihydrate ($CaCl_2$)	Sigma-Aldrich	C3881	Freshly dissolved in water on the day of experiment

Chemical compound, drug	Magnesium chloride hexahydrate (MgCl$_2$)	Sigma-Aldrich	M2393	Freshly dissolved in water on the day of experiment
Chemical compound, drug	Zinc sulfate monohydrate (ZnSO$_4$)	Acros Organics	389802500	Freshly dissolved in water on the day of experiment
Chemical compound, drug	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid sodium dihydrate (EDTA)	LabChem	LC137501	Prepared as 0.5M aqueous solution with pH 8.0 adjusted by NaOH
Chemical compound, drug	Diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA)	Sigma-Aldrich	D6518	
Chemical compound, drug	Tris (2-pyridylmethyl) amine (TPA)	Santa Cruz	sc-477037	
Chemical compound, drug	Dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO)	Sigma-Aldrich	D8418	Used as a solvent
Chemical compound, drug	Acetylcholine chloride	Sigma-Aldrich	A6625	
Chemical compound, drug	Thimerosal	Sigma-Aldrich	T5125	Freshly dissolved in water on the day of experiment and kept on ice until use
Chemical compound, drug	Ionomycin calcium salt	Tocris	1704	Working concentration: 2.5

				μM
Chemical compound, drug	Thapsigargin	Calbiochem	#586500	Working concentration: 10 μM
Other	Pluronic F-127 (20% solution in DMSO) (Pluronic acid)	Invitrogen	P3000MP	
Other	Fura-2 AM	Invitrogen	F1221	Used at 1.25 μM in TL-HEPES containing 0.02% Pluronic acid
Other	FluoZin-3 AM	Invitrogen	F24195	Used at 1.25 μM in TL-HEPES containing 0.02% Pluronic acid
Other	Fluo-4 AM	Invitrogen	F14201	Used at 1.25 μM in TL-HEPES containing 0.02% Pluronic acid
Other	Rhod2-AM	Invitrogen	R1244	Used at 2.2 μM in TL-HEPES containing 0.02% Pluronic acid.
Other	ci-IP3/ PM	Tocris	6210	Dissolved in DMSO and kept at –20 °C. Before use, the stock was

				diluted with water to make a final concentration of 0.25 mM.
Other	Pme1	New England BioLabs	R0560S	Used to linearize pcDNA6 vectors for mRNA synthesis
Software, algorithm	Prism	GraphPad Software		Version 5.01

N,N,N′,N′-tetrakis (2-pyridinylmethyl)-1,2-ethylenediamine (TPEN) and Zinc pyrithione

(ZnPT) were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at 10 mM and stored at -20°C until

use. $SrCl_2$, $CaCl_2$, $ZnSO_4$, and $MgCl_2$ were freshly dissolved with double-sterile water at

1M and diluted with the monitoring media just before use. Ethylenediaminetetraacetic

acid (EDTA) and diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA) were reconstituted with

double-sterile water at 0.5M and 10 mM, respectively, and the pH was adjusted to 8.0.

Tris(2-pyridylmethyl) amine (TPA) was diluted in DMSO at 100 mM and stored at -20°C

until use. Acetylcholine chloride and Thimerosal were dissolved in double-sterile water

at 550 mM and 100 mM, respectively. Acetylcholine was stored at -20°C until use,

whereas Thimerosal was made fresh in each experiment.

Mice

The University of Massachusetts Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)

approved all animal experiments and protocols. *Trpm7*-floxed (*Trpm7*^{fl/fl}) *Gdf9-Cre* and

Trpv3^{−/−} mice were bred at our facility. *Trpm7*^{fl/fl} mice were crossed with *Trpv3*^{−/−} to

generate *Trpm7*^{fl/fl}; *Trpv3*^{−/−} mouse line. Female *Trpm7*^{fl/fl}; *Trpv3*^{−/−} mice were crossed

with *Trpm7*^{fl/fl}; *Trpv3*^{−/−}; *Gdf9-cre* male to generate females null for *Trpv3* and with

oocyte-specific deletion for *Trpm7*. Ear clips from offspring were collected prior to

weaning, and confirmation of genotype was performed after most experiments.

Egg Collection

All gamete handling procedures are as previously reported by us (Wakai and Fissore,

2019). MII eggs were collected from the ampulla of 6- to 8-week-old female mice.

Females were superovulated via intraperitoneal injections of 5 IU pregnant mare serum

gonadotropin (PMSG, Sigma, St. Louis, MO) and 5 IU human chorionic gonadotropin

(hCG, sigma) at 48hr. interval. Cumulus-oocyte-complexes (COCs) were obtained 13.5

hr. post-hCG injection by tearing the ampulla using forceps and needles in TL-HEPES

medium. COCs were treated with 0.26% (w/v) of hyaluronidase at room temperature (RT)

for 5 min to remove cumulus cells.

Intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI)

ICSI was performed as previously reported by us (Kurokawa and Fissore, 2003) using

described setup and micromanipulators (Narishige, Japan). Sperm from C57BL/6 or CD1

male mice (7-12 weeks old) were collected from the cauda epididymis in TL-HEPES

medium, washed several times, heads separated from tails by sonication (XL2020; Heat

Systems Inc., USA) for 5 s at 4°C. The sperm lysate was washed in TL-HEPES and

diluted with 12% polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP, MW = 360 kDa) to a final PVP

concentration of 6%. A piezo micropipette-driving unit was used to deliver the sperm into

the ooplasm (Primetech, Ibaraki, Japan); a few piezo-pulses were applied to puncture the

eggs' plasma membrane following penetration of the zona pellucida. After ICSI, eggs

were either used for Ca^{2+} monitoring or cultured in KSOM to evaluate activation and

development at 36.5°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO_2.

Preparation and microinjection of mRNA

pcDNA6-m*Plcζ-mEGFP*, pcDNA6-CALR-D1ER-KDEL, and pcDNA6-*humanERp44-*

HA were linearized with the restriction enzyme PmeI and *in vitro* transcribed using the

T7 mMESSAGE mMACHINE Kit following procedures previously used in our

laboratory (Ardestani et al., 2020). A poly(A) tail was added to the *in vitro* synthesized

RNA (mRNA) using Tailing Kit followed by quantification and dilution to 0.5 μg/μL in

nuclease-free water and stored at -80°C until use. Before microinjection, m*Plcζ*, D1ER,

and *ERp44* mRNA were diluted to 0.01, 1.0, and 0.5 μg/μL, respectively, in nuclease-free

water, heated at 95°C for 3 min followed by centrifugation at 13400×*g* for 10 min at 4°C.

Cytoplasm injection of mRNA was performed under microscopy equipped with

micromanipulators (Narishige, Japan). The zona pellucida and the plasma membrane of

MII eggs were penetrated by applying small pulses generated by the piezo

micromanipulator (Primetech, Ibaraki, Japan). The preparation of the injection pipette

was as for ICSI (Kurokawa and Fissore, 2003), but the diameter of the tip was ~1 μm.

Ca^{2+} and Zn^{2+} imaging

Before Ca^{2+} imaging, eggs were incubated in TL-HEPES containing 1.25 μM Fura2-AM, 1.25 μM FluoZin3-AM, or 2.2 μM Rhod2-AM and 0.02% Pluronic acid for 20 min at room temperature and then washed. The fluorescent probe-loaded eggs were allowed to attach to the bottom of the glass dish (Mat-Tek Corp., Ashland, MA). Eggs were monitored simultaneously using an inverted microscope (Nikon, Melville, NY) outfitted for fluorescence measurements. Fura-2 AM, FluoZin3-AM, and Rhod2-AM fluorescence were excited with 340 nm and 380 nm, 480 nm, and 550 nm wavelengths, respectively, every 20 sec, for different intervals according to the experimental design and as previously performed in the laboratory. The illumination was provided by a 75-W Xenon arc lamp and controlled by a filter wheel (Ludl Electronic Products Ltd., Hawthorne, NY). The emitted light above 510 nm was collected by a cooled Photometrics SenSys CCD camera (Roper Scientific, Tucson, AZ). Nikon Element software coordinated the filter wheel and data acquisition. The acquired data were saved and analyzed using Microsoft Excel and GraphPad using Prism software (Ardestani et al., 2020). For Figures 1A, 4A-C, 5A, and 6H-I, values obtained from FluoZin3-AM, Fura2-AM, or Rhod2-AM recordings were divided by the average of the first five recordings for each treatment that was used as the F_0.

To estimate relative changes in Ca^{2+}-ER, emission ratio imaging of the D1ER (YFP/CFP) was performed using a CFP excitation filter, dichroic beamsplitter, CFP and YFP emission filters (Chroma technology, Rockingham, VT; ET436/20X, 89007bs, ET480/40m, and ET535/30m). To measure Ca^{2+}-ER and cytosolic Ca^{2+} simultaneously, eggs that had been injected with D1ER were loaded with Rhod-2AM, and CFP, YFP, and Rhod-2 intensities were collected every 20 sec.

Caged IP_3

Caged-IP_3/PM (cIP_3) was reconstituted in DMSO and stored at -20°C until use. Before injection, cIP_3 stock was diluted to 0.25 mM with water and microinjected as above. After incubation in KSOM media at 37°C for 1-hr., the injected eggs were loaded with the fluorophore, 1.25 μM Fluo4-AM, and 0.02% Pluronic acid and handled as above for Fura-2 AM. The release of cIP_3 was accomplished by photolysis using 0.5 to 5-sec pulses at 360 nm wavelengths. Ca^{2+} imaging was as above, but Fluo4 was excited at 488 nm wavelength and emitted light above 510 nm collected as above.

Western blot analysis

Cell lysates from 20-50 mouse eggs were prepared by adding 2X- Laemmli sample buffer.

Proteins were separated on 5% SDS-PAGE gels and transferred to PVDF membranes
(Millipore, Bedford, MA). After blocking with 5% fat-free milk + TBS, membranes were
probed with the rabbit polyclonal antibody specific to IP$_3$R1 (1:1000; a generous gift from
Dr. Jan Parys, Katholieke Universiteit, Leuven, Belgium; Parys et al., 1995). Goat anti-
rabbit antibody conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (HRP) was used as a secondary
antibody (1:5000; Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody,
HRP; Invitrogen, Waltham, Ma). For detection of chemiluminescence, membranes were
developed using ECL Prime (Sigma) and exposed for 1–3 min to maximum sensitivity
film (VWR, Radnor, PA). Broad-range pre-stained SDS–PAGE molecular weight
markers (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) were run in parallel to estimate the molecular weight
of the immunoreactive bands. The same membranes were stripped at 50°C for 30 min
(62.5 mM Tris, 2% SDS, and 100 mM 2-beta mercaptoethanol) and re-probed with anti-
α-tubulin monoclonal antibody (1:1000).
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Immunostaining and confocal microscopy
Immunostaining was performed according to our previous study (Akizawa et al., 2021).
After incubation with or without TPEN, MII eggs were fixed with 4% (w/v)
paraformaldehyde in house-made phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) for 20 min at room
temperature and then permeabilized for 60 min with 0.2% (v/v) Triton X-100 in PBS.
Next, the eggs were blocked for 45 min with a blocking buffer containing 0.2% (w/v)
skim milk, 2% (v/v) fetal bovine serum, 1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin, 0.1% (v/v)
TritonX-100, 0.75% (w/v) glycine in PBS. Eggs were incubated overnight at 4°C with
mouse anti-HA antibody (1:200) diluted in blocking buffer. Eggs were washed in blocking
buffer 3X for 10 min, followed by incubation at room temperature for 30 min with a
secondary antibody, Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG (H + L) (1:400) diluted in
blocking buffer. Fluorescence signals were visualized using a laser-scanning confocal
microscope (Nikon A1 Resonant Confocal with six-color TIRF) fitted with a 63×, 1.4 NA
oil-immersion objective lens.
587
Statistical analysis
Comparisons for statistical significance of experimental values between treatments and
experiments were performed in three or more experiments performed on different batches
of eggs in most studies. Given the number of eggs needed, WB studies were repeated
twice. Prism-GraphPad software was used to perform the statistical comparisons that
include unpaired Student's t-tests, Fisher's exact test, and One-way ANOVA followed by
Tukey's multiple comparisons, as applicable, and the production of graphs to display the

data. All data are presented as mean±s.d. Differences were considered significant at $P <$
0.05.
597

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Table

Table 1. Addition of TPEN after ICSI does not prevent extrusion of the second polar

body but precludes pronuclear (PN) formation.

Group*	No. of zygotes	2nd polar body (2.5h)	PN	
			4h	7h
Untreated	26	25 (96.1%)	23 (88.5%)	23 (88.5%)
TPEN (10μM)	27	24 (88.9%)	1 (3.7%)***	2 (7.4%)***

971 ***$P < 0.001$

972 *Data from three different replicates for each group.

 Figures Legends

Figure 1. TPEN-induced Zn^{2+} deficiency inhibits fertilization-initiated Ca^{2+}

oscillations in a dose-dependent manner.

(**A**) (Left panel) Representative normalized Zn^{2+} recordings of MII eggs loaded with

FluoZin-3AM following the addition of increasing concentrations of TPEN (0 µM,

DMSO, black trace; 2.5 µM, sky blue; 5 µM, blue; 10 µM, navy). TPEN was directly

added to the monitoring media. (Right panel) Representative fluorescent images of MII

eggs loaded FluoZin-3AM supplemented with 0, 2.5, and 10 µM of TPEN. Scale bar: 10

µm. (**B-D**). (**B**) Representative Ca^{2+} oscillations following ICSI after the addition of 0, 5,

10, or 50 µM TPEN (arrowheads). Insets show representative traces for eggs that resumed

Ca^{2+} oscillations after TPEN. (**C**) As above, but following the addition of 100 µM EDTA,

100 or 500 µM DTPA (time of addition denoted by arrowheads). (**D**) Ca^{2+} oscillations

following ICSI after the addition of 50, 100, and 500 µM TPA (horizontal bars of

increasing thickness). (**E**) Representative bright field images of ICSI fertilized eggs 2.5,

4, and 7 h after sperm injection. Arrows and arrowheads denote the second polar body

and PN formation, respectively. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Figure 2. TPEN dose-dependently inhibits Ca^{2+} oscillations in eggs triggered by a

broad-spectrum of agonists that stimulate the PI pathway or IP_3R1.

(**A-D**) Representative Ca^{2+} responses induced by (**A**) m*Plcζ* mRNA microinjection (0.01

µg/µl, black traces), (**B**) strontium chloride (10 mM, green), (**C**) acetylcholine chloride

(50 µM, orange), and (**D**) thimerosal (25 µM, purple) in MII eggs. Increasing

concentrations of TPEN were added to the monitoring media (arrowheads above traces

denotes the time of adding). Insets in the upper row show representative traces of eggs

that stop oscillating despite others continuing to oscillate. (**E**) Each bar graph summarizes

the TPEN effect on Ca^{2+} oscillations at the selected concentrations for each of the agonists

in A-D. (**F**) Western blot showing the intensities of IP_3R1 and alpha-tubulin bands in MII

eggs or in eggs injected with m*Plcζ* mRNA and incubated or not with TPEN above ($P <$

0.01). Thirty eggs per lane in all cases. This experiment was repeated twice, and the mean

relative intensity of each blot is shown in the bar graph below.

1003

1004 **Figure 3. TPEN inhibition of cIP_3-induced Ca^{2+} release is precluded by $ZnSO_4$**

1005 **supplementation before TPEN exposure.**

1006 (**A-G**) Representative Ca^{2+} responses in MII eggs triggered by the release of caged IP_3

1007 (cIP_3) induced by UV light pulses of increasing duration (arrows). (**A**) A representative

1008 control trace without TPEN, and (**B**) following the addition of 10 µM TPEN between the

third and the fourth pulses. The broken line rectangle is magnified in the inset, farthest right side of the panel displaying the near immediate termination of an ongoing rise. (**C, D**) Recordings started in the presence of 10 μM TPEN but in (**D**) 100 μM ZnSO$_4$ was added between the second and the third pulses. (**E**) Recording started in the presence of 100 μM ZnSO$_4$ followed by the addition of 10 μM TPEN between the third and the fourth pulses. (**F, G**) Recording started in the presence of 100 μM MgSO$_4$ (**F**) or 100 μM CaCl$_2$ (**G**) and 10 μM TPEN added as above. Arrowheads above the different panels indicate the time of TPEN or divalent cation addition. (**H**) Bar graphs summarizing the number and percentages of eggs that responded to a given duration of UV pulses under each of the TPEN±divalent ions.

Figure 4. Zn^{2+} depletion alters Ca^{2+} homeostasis and increases Ca^{2+} store content independent of IP$_3$R1 mass.

(**A, B**) Representative Ca^{2+} traces of MII eggs after the addition of Tg and Io in the presence or absence of TPEN. Blue trace recordings represent TPEN-treated eggs whereas gray traces represent control, untreated eggs. (**A**) Io was added to fresh MII eggs once Ca^{2+} returned to baseline after treatment with Tg. Comparisons of mean peak amplitudes after Tg and Io are shown in the bar graphs in the right panel ($P < 0.001$). (**B**) MII eggs were aged by 2h. incubation supplemented or not with TPEN followed by Io addition and Ca^{2+} monitoring ($P < 0.001$). (**C**) Western blot showing the intensities of IP$_3$R1 bands in MII eggs freshly collected, aged by 4h. incubation without TPEN, and with TPEN. Thirty eggs per lane in all cases. This experiment was repeated three times. (**D, E**) (Left panels) Representative traces of Ca^{2+} values in eggs loaded with the Ca^{2+}-sensitive dye Rhod-2 AM and the ER Ca^{2+}reporter, D1ER (1 μg/μl mRNA). TPEN was added into the media followed 10 min later by (**D**) 10 μM Tg and (**E**) 50 μM Ach. (Right panel) Bars represent the difference of FRET value between at the time of Tg/ Ach addition and at 3 and 5 min later of the addition ($P < 0.05$). Experiments were repeated two different times for each treatment. Black and green traces represent cytosolic Ca^{2+} and Ca^{2+}-ER, respectively. Blue and black arrowheads indicate the time of addition of TPEN and Tg/ Ach, respectively. (**F**) Basal Zn^{2+} level comparison in WT (open bar) and *Trpv3$^{-/-}$/Trpm7$^{-/-}$* (dKO, orange bar) MII eggs. Each plot represents the Fluozin3 measurement at 5 min after starting monitoring. (**G**) (Left panel) Representative Ca^{2+} traces of WT (black trace) and dKO (orange trace) MII eggs after adding Tg. Insets represent the magnified traces at the peak of Ca^{2+} spike from different sets of eggs. (Middle panel) Individual traces of WT and dKO eggs after Tg addition. Dashed circles represent the flection point in dKO traces. (Right panel) Comparisons of

1045   mean peak amplitudes after Tg and the time between Tg addition and the Ca^{2+} peak are

1046   shown in the bar graphs in the right panel ($P < 0.001$).

1047

Figure 5. Restoring Zn^{2+} levels with ZnPT rescues oscillations interrupted by TPEN-

induced Zn^{2+} deficiency.

(**A**) Representative traces of Zn^{2+} in MII eggs following the addition of 0.01 to 0.1 µM

concentrations of ZnPT. The broken rectangular area is amplified in the next panel to

appreciate the subtle increase in basal Zn^{2+} caused by the addition of ZnPT. (**B, C**) m*Plcζ*

mRNA (0.01 µg/µl)-induced oscillations followed by the addition of TPEN (black

arrowhead) (**B**), or after the addition of TPEN followed by ZnPT (red arrowhead) (**C**). (**D,**

E) Thimerosal (25 µM) induced oscillations using the same sequence of TPEN (**D**) and

ZnPT (**E**), but higher concentrations of ZnPT were required to rescue Thimerosal-initiated

oscillations (**E**). These experiments were repeated at least two different times.

1058

Figure 6. Excess Zn^{2+} hinders Ca^{2+} oscillations.

(**A-D**) ICSI-initiated Ca^{2+} response without (**A**) or following the addition of ZnPT (**B, C**)

(the time of ZnPT addition and concentration are denoted above the tracing). (**E, F**)

Representative Ca^{2+} responses induced by injection of 0.01 µg/µl m*Plcζ* mRNA in

untreated eggs (**E**) or in eggs treated with 0.1 µM ZnPT followed by 10 µM TPEN first

and then 50 µM (**F**). (**G**) cIP$_3$-induced Ca^{2+} release as expected when the UV pulses in

the absence but not in the presence of 0.05 µM ZnPT (the time of addition is denoted by

a bar above the tracing). (**H, I**) Representative traces of Ca^{2+} values in eggs loaded with

the Ca^{2+}-sensitive dye Rhod-2 AM and the ER Ca^{2+}reporter, D1ER (1 µg/µl mRNA).

Uninjected and 0.01 µg/µl m*Plcζ* mRNA-injected eggs were monitored. After initiation

and establishment of the oscillations, 0.1 µM ZnPT was added into the media followed

30 min later by 2.5 µM Io. Experiments were repeated two different times. Red and black

arrowheads indicate the time of addition of ZnPT and Io, respectively.

1072

Figure 7. Schematic of proposed regulation of IP$_3$R1 function by Zn^{2+} in eggs and

fertilized zygotes.

In MII eggs, left panel, IP$_3$R1s are in a Ca^{2+}-release permissive state with optimal levels

of cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} and Zn^{2+} and maximum ER content, but Ca^{2+} is maintained at resting

levels by the combined actions of pumps, ER Ca^{2+} leak, and reduced influx. Once

fertilization takes place, left center panel, robust IP$_3$ production induced by the sperm-

borne PLCζ leads to Ca^{2+} release through ligand-induced gating of IP$_3$R1. Continuous IP$_3$

production and refilling of the stores via Ca^{2+} influx ensure the persistence of the

oscillations. Zn^{2+} release occurs in association with first few Ca^{2+} rises and cortical

granule exocytosis, Zn^{2+} sparks, lowering Zn^{2+} levels but not sufficiently to inhibit IP_3R1

function. Zn^{2+} deficiency caused by TPEN or other permeable Zn^{2+} chelators, right center

panel, dose-dependently impairs IP_3R1 function and limits Ca^{2+} release. We propose this

is accomplished by stripping the Zn^{2+} bound to the residues of the zinc-finger motif in the

LNK domain of IP_3R1 that prevents the allosteric modulation of the gating process

induced by IP_3 or other agonists. We propose that excess Zn^{2+}, right panel, also inhibits

IP_3R1-mediate Ca^{2+} release, possibly by non-specific binding of thiol groups present in

cysteine residues throughout the receptor (denoted by a ?). We submit that optimal Ca^{2+}

oscillations in mouse eggs unfold in the presence of a permissive range of Zn^{2+}

concentration.

Supplementary Figure Legends

Supplementary Figure 1. Cell-impermeable chelators effectively reduce Zn^{2+} levels in external media but do prevent initiation or continuation of Ca^{2+} oscillations.
(**A**) A representative trace of FluoZin3 fluorescence in replete monitoring media (TL-HEPES). The media was supplemented with cell-impermeable FluoZin-3, and after initiation of monitoring, the addition of EDTA (100 μM) occurred at the designated point (triangle). (**B**) The left black trace represents Ca^{2+} oscillations initiation by injection of $mPlc\zeta$ mRNA (0.01 μg/μl). The oscillations were monitored in Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}-free media and in the presence of EDTA (110 μM) to chelate residual divalent cations derived from the water source or reagents used to make the media. The right red trace represents the initiation of oscillations as above, but after a period indicated by the black and green bars, Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} were sequentially added back.

Supplementary Figure 2. Overexpression of ER accessory protein ERp44 did not change the Ca^{2+} responses initiated by m$Plc\zeta$ mRNA microinjection, Actylcholine, or $SrCl_2$.
(**A**) Representative immunofluorescent images of MII eggs with overexpression of ERp44. At 5 hr. post microinjection, eggs were treated with 10 or 50 μM of TPEN and incubated for 1 hr, after which they were fixed and stained. An anti-HA antibody was used. Scale bar: 10 μm. (**B**) Representative Ca^{2+} responses induced by m$Plc\zeta$ mRNA microinjection (0.01 μg/ μl-left column), $SrCl_2$ (10 mM-center column), and acetylcholine (50 μM-right column) in eggs with (top panels) or without (bottom panels) ERp44 overexpression.

Supplementary Figure 3. Elevated Zn^{2+} impairs egg activation and the subsequent embryo development.
(**A**) MII eggs were incubated in TL-HEPES containing 0, 0.1, or 1.0 μM ZnPT at room temperature for 10 min and washed several times with fresh TL-HEPES and injected with m$Plc\zeta$ mRNA. After it, eggs and zygotes were cultured in KSOM for 24h. PN formation and 2-cell development were checked at 7 and 24h post-microinjection. Bars represent the percentages of injected eggs that reached the PN and the 2-cell stage. Scale bar: 50 μm. (**B**) MII eggs injected with m$Plc\zeta$ mRNA were incubated in KSOM without ZnPT for an hr. and then incubated in KSOM with 0 or 0.1 μM ZnPT for 24h. The second polar body extrusion, PN formation, and 2-cell development were checked at 2.5-, 7- and 24h. post-microinjection. Bars represent the percentages of injected eggs that reached the PN and the 2-cell stage. Scale bar: 50 μm.

Figure 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Figure6.

Figure 7.

Supplementary Figure 1.

A

EDTA 100 µM
▼

TL-HEPES (2 mM Ca²⁺, 0.5 mM Mg²⁺)

B

0 mM Ca²⁺, 0 mM Mg²⁺,
110 µM EDTA

+0.5 mM Mg²⁺
+2 mM Ca²⁺

Supplementary Figure 2.

A

control   TPEN 10 µM   TPEN 50 µM

ERP44-HA

DIC

B

uninjected

Ca²⁺ 1.7mM
m*PLCζ*
(n=4)

Ca²⁺ 0mM
SrCl₂ 10mM
SrCl₂
(n=2)

Ca²⁺ 1.7mM
Acetylcholine 50 µM
(n=9)

Erp44 OE

Ca²⁺ 1.7mM
(n=6)

Ca²⁺ 0mM
SrCl₂ 10mM
(n=8)

Ca²⁺ 1.7mM
Acetylcholine 50 µM
(n=13)

F340/ F380

Time (min)

Supplementary Figure 3.

A

ZnPT pre-treated

10 min ZnPT | ~30 min m*Plcζ* injection | *In vitro* culture w/o ZnPT

Legend: 2PB (black), PN (gray), 2-cell (white)

% eggs proceeded to — ZnPT (μM)

0 μM: 7/8, 15/17, 16/17
0.1 μM: 8/9, 16/19, 17/19
1.0 μM: 0/8, 0/17, 1/17

Images: 0 μM, 0.1 μM, 1.0 μM at 3 h, 7 h, 24 h

B

ZnPT in culture

~30 min m*Plcζ* injection | 1 hour w/o ZnPT | ZnPT

In vitro culture

Legend: 2PB (black), PN (gray), 2-cell (white)

% eggs proceeded to — ZnPT (μM)

0 μM: 17/18, 17/18, 18/18
0.1 μM: 26/27, 15/27, 0/27

Images: 0 μM, 0.1 μM at 3 h, 7 h, 24 h