A Unique Cytoskeleton Associated with Crawling in the Amoeboid Sperm of the Nematode, Ascaris suum

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Abstract. Nematode sperm extend pseudopods and pull themselves over substrates. They lack an axoneme or the actin and myosins of other types of motile cells, but their pseudopods contain abundant major sperm protein (MSP), a family of 14-kD polypeptides found exclusively in male gametes. Using high voltage electron microscopy, a unique cytoskeleton was discovered in the pseudopod of in vitro-activated, crawling sperm of the pig intestinal nematode Ascaris suum. It consists of 5-10-nm fuzzy fibers organized into 150-250-nm-thick fiber complexes, which connect to each of the moving pseudopodial membrane projections, villipodia, which in turn make contact with the substrate. Individual fibers in a complex splay out radially from its axis in all directions. The centripetal ends intercalate with fibers from other complexes or terminate in a thickened layer just beneath the pseudopod membrane. Monoclonal antibodies directed against MSP heavily label the fiber complexes as well as individual pseudopodial filaments throughout their length. This represents the first evidence that MSP may be the major filament protein in the Ascaris sperm cytoskeleton. The large fiber complexes can be seen clearly in the pseudopods of live, crawling sperm by computer-enhanced video, differential-interference contrast microscopy, forming with the villipodia at the leading edge of the sperm pseudopod. Even before the pseudopod attaches, the entire cytoskeleton and villipodia move continuously rearwards in unison toward the cell body. During crawling, complexes and villipodia in the pseudopod recede at the same speed as the spermatozoon moves forward, both disappearing at the pseudopod–cell body junction. Sections at this region of high membrane turnover reveal a band of densely packed smooth vesicles with round and tubular profiles, some of which are associated with the pseudopod plasma membrane. The exceptional anatomy, biochemistry, and phenomenology of Ascaris sperm locomotion permit direct study of the involvement of the cytoskeleton in amoeboid motility.

Amoeboid motility, generally defined as the crawling of cells over a substrate by means of pseudopods, is observed throughout the animal kingdom. Two types of force-generating systems have been proposed to explain this kind of motility in diverse cells: a cytoskeleton-based system and a membrane flow-based system. In the former, cytoplasmic actin–myosin interactions reminiscent of the model for vertebrate skeletal muscle are required for locomotion (see reviews by Clarke and Spudich, 1977; Pollard, 1981, 1986; Trinkhaus, 1984). In membrane-based models, the attachment and flow of membrane generate the necessary forces (see Ishihara et al., 1988). In this study we present a novel example, the crawling sperm of the nematode Ascaris suum, in which both cytoskeleton and membrane flow are involved in its locomotion. The cells are unusual because they contain only traces of actin (<0.5%), tubulin (one centriole), and no myosin (Nelson and Ward, 1981; reviewed by Roberts et al., 1989), yet crawl by means of a pseudopod at >70 μm/min on glass (Sepsenwol, S., and S. J. Taft, manuscript submitted for publication). The gametes’ most abundant protein is the 14-kD major sperm protein (MSP)‡ (Klass and Hirsh, 1981; Nelson and Ward, 1981). In the activated spermatozoon of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans, MSP is localized in the pseudopod (Ward and Klass, 1982). When the pseudopods of nematode sperm are examined in thin section by conventional transmission electron microscopy, they appear to contain unorganized masses of filaments as thin as 2 nm in diameter (Roberts et al., 1989; Foer et al., 1971; Foer, 1974; Wright and Sommerville, 1984, 1985; Burghardt and Foer, 1978; Abbas and Cain, 1984). By examining

1. Amoeboid movement is used here to describe any locomotion by which a cell crawls over a substrate. Some features of nematode sperm locomotion are quite different from those described in other crawling cells.

2. Abbreviations used in this paper: DIC, differential-interference contrast; HVEM, high voltage electron microscopy; MSP, major sperm protein.
whole mounts and semithick sections by high voltage electron microscopy (HVEM), however, we have discovered in the pseudopod of *Ascaris* sperm an elaborate, dynamic system of interconnected thin filaments which are organized into large units, the fiber complexes. The complexes can be visualized in living cells without staining or labeling, and their behavior in motile cells studied in real-time.

The structure and composition of filaments that form the complexes have been examined by immunolabeling at the light and electron microscopic levels. Entire fiber complexes as well as individual fibers fixed in situ label strongly with antibodies against MSP, indicating that this protein is a major constituent of the *Ascaris* sperm pseudopod cytoskeleton.

**Materials and Methods**

Unless otherwise specified, all biochemical reagents were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO).

**Collection of Ascaris**

Male *Ascaris* worms were expressed from the small intestine of freshly killed pigs, rinsed, and transported in PBS (0.15 M NaCl, 7.5 mM MgCl₂, 1.5 mM CaCl₂ in 0.1 M phosphate, pH 7.2-7.4) at 37-4°C. Worms were maintained in the laboratory in PBS gassed with 15% CO₂ in N₂.

**Vas Deferens Extract**

An ultraltrifuge (0.2-μm pore size) of a 25,000 g supernatant of an homogenate of the glandular male vas deferens was prepared as described in Sepsenwol et al. (1986).

**Sperm Preparation for Electron Microscopy**

The contents of the seminal vesicle from one adult male (~10⁷ spermatozoa) was emplaced into 8-15 ml 0.15 M NaCl in 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.2 (Hepes-saline buffer), preheated to 40°C, and gassed with 15% CO₂ in N₂.

**Whole Mounts.** 30 μl of vas deferens extract was added to 6 ml spermated suspension in a 60-mm plastic dish containing acid-washed glass coverslips and 150-mesh gold grids which had been formvar-carbon-coated with 4% paraformaldehyde in Hepes buffer. Grids and coverslips were rinsed and activated in polypropylene test tubes, fixed with glutaraldehyde-saponin complex and made hydrophilic by glow discharge. The dish was transferred to a 40°C incubator and gassed with 15% CO₂ throughout incubation and fixation.

**Semithick Sections.** For plastic embedment spermatid suspensions were centrifuged at 100,000 g 30 min at 4°C. The resultant supernate was dialyzed against 50 mM acetate buffer, pH 4.5, at 4°C overnight. Acid-precipitable material was removed by centrifugation and the supernate, designated AS-S100, was concentrated by vacuum dialysis against PKM buffer (20 mM Pipes, 25 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, pH 7.6).

**Crude MSP Immunogen Protein Preparation**

Spermatozoa from 25-50 males were frozen at ~70°C, thawed, glass homogenized, and the crude debris was pelleted at 1,000 g. The supernate was centrifuged at 100,000 g 30 min at 4°C. The resultant supernate was dialyzed against 50 mM acetate buffer, pH 4.5, at 4°C overnight. Acid-precipitable material was removed by centrifugation and the supernate, designated AS-S100, was concentrated by vacuum dialysis against PKM buffer (20 mM Pipes, 25 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, pH 7.6).

**Monoclonal Antibodies**

Antibodies against MSP were generated by standard hybridoma procedures using AS-S100 *Ascaris* sperm protein fraction (above) as immunogen in Balb/c mice. Antibody was purified from mouse ascites fluid by affinity chromatography against immobilized anti-mouse IgG (Cappel Laboratories, Cochranville, PA). Their antigen recognition patterns were tested by immunoblottting against AS-S100, separated on a 10-20% gradient polyacrylamide gel (Laemmli, 1970), and electrophotographically transferred to nitrocellulose (Towbin et al., 1979; as modified by Ward et al., 1986). Antibody-labeled bands were visualized using horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Jackson Immunoresearch Laboratories, Inc., Avendale, PA), followed by 4-chloro-l-naphthol reagent.

**Cell Labeling for Light Microscopy**

Activated sperm were pipetted onto glass coverslips, allowed to settle 5-10 min, and fixed 30 min in 2% glutaraldehyde, 0.5% Triton X-100 in PKM buffer. Cells were washed in buffer, treated three times for 10 min with 10 mM NaBH₄ in PKM buffer, washed in PKM buffer, and incubated with anti-MSP antibody (20-30 μg/ml) in PKM buffer for 2 h. The cells were washed in buffer, the cells were incubated in FITC-conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Jackson Immunoresearch Laboratories, Inc., Avendale, PA), followed by 4-chloro-l-naphthol reagent.

**Cell Labeling for Electron Microscopy**

5-nm colloidal gold particles prepared by the tannic acid-citrate method (Slot and Geuze, 1985) were conjugated to affinity-purified anti-MSP antibody as previously described (Roberts et al., 1986); gold-antibody was diluted to a light pink in PKM buffer. Sperm were prepared and labeled as above, incubating with the gold-antibody for 2 h. Labeled cells were washed in buffer, postfixed 30 min in 0.1% OsO₄ in PKM buffer, washed in distilled H₂O, dehydrated in graded ethanol to propylene oxide, and embedded in Polybed 812 (Polysciences, Inc., Warrington, PA). Thin sections were mounted on Formvar-carbon-coated copper grids, stained with 1% aqueous uranyl acetate, and examined by high voltage electron microscopy (HVEM).

**Scanning Electron Microscopy**

Critical point dried cells on coverslips were ion beam sputter coated with a thin layer of platinum and examined with a low voltage scanning electron microscope (model S-900; Hitachi Ltd., Tokyo) operating at 2 kV.

**High Voltage Electron Microscopy (HVEM)**

Electron micrographs of whole mounts and semithick sections were prepared at 1 MV with the AEI EM7 HVEM at the Madison Integrated Microscopy Resource.

**Enhanced Video Differential-Interference Contrast (DIC) Microscopy**

Crawling cells activated as above were observed on a Universal microscope (Carl Zeiss, Inc., Thornwood, NY) with Nomarski DIC optics using a Zeiss 63× plan apochromat objective and a Sierra Scientific (Mountain View, CA) LSN-1 Newvicon video camera. The video signal was processed directly with a (model 9200EX; Quantex, Sunnyvale, CA) real-time image processing system. An out of focus image was stored and digitally subtracted from a frame-averaged image to reduce background. Image contrast was enhanced and processed images were recorded on a Sony (model 5800) 3/4 inch videotape recorder, then played back through the Quantex system to freeze individual frames. Frames were photographed directly from the screen of a Conrac high-resolution black and white monitor onto Panatomic-X black and white film (Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester, NY). (A preliminary report on imaging techniques used to study *Ascaris* sperm appears in a presentation summary by Pawley et al., 1986.)
Results

General Morphology and Surface Features of the Pseudopod

Fig. 1 is a scanning electron micrograph of an activated Ascaris spermatozoon attached to glass. It is the largest reported among the nematodes; in vitro–activated, motile sperm possess an hemispherical cell body 10–12 μm in diameter positioned above a pseudopod extending up to 15 μm beyond the cell body. Ascaris sperm are permanently and distinctly bipolar. When examined in sections of sperm fixed in situ, the cell body contains all of the cell’s membrane-bound organelles: mitochondria, condensed nucleus, a large refringent body, and numerous membranous organelles which fuse with the cell membrane during activation. The pseudopod contains filaments. The membrane over the cell body has no protrusions and contains numerous pits where the membranous organelles have fused with it. The pseudopod membrane, on the other hand, has no pits, but many finger-like projections, the villipodia, which cover the pseudopod from tip to base. On the ventral surface, the villipodia are flattened where they come into contact with the substrate. These membrane specializations can be observed in living cells with phase-contrast and DIC optics. They form continuously at the tip of the pseudopod, move rapidly rearwards over the surface and disappear at the junction of pseudopod and cell body. In Fig. 1, two villipodia can be seen tucking under an infolding, or lip, where the cell body and pseudopod membranes meet. About 20 min after activation in vitro, these moving villipodia form broad areas of attachment to the substrate and pull the cell body along as they move rearwards beneath the pseudopod. The cells crawl at a rate identical to the movement of the villipodia (25–75 μm/min on glass).

The Pseudopod Cytoskeleton: Fiber Complexes

Cells were activated on electron microscopy grids and fixed with glutaraldehyde in the presence of the nonionic detergent, Triton X-100. This fixative prevents rapid changes in overall cell morphology. The detergent removes the pseudopod membrane, revealing its fibrous cytoskeleton. The plasma membrane over the cell body does not solubilize under these conditions. The cells and exposed cytoskeleton were examined whole with HVEM. Fig. 2 is a low magnification stereo view showing the entire cell. The thick cell body is electron opaque. The pseudopod, however, contains a striking array of 150–250-nm-wide branched assemblages, the fiber complexes, made up of much smaller fibers. The complexes extend from the leading edge through the length of the pseudopod and stop at the pseudopod–cell body junction. Each branch of the complex terminates in finger-like projections of fibers congruent with the villipodia which arise at the leading edge and cover the surface of the pseudopod. In stereo, it can be seen that some complexes along the base of the pseudopod branch vertically and end in villipodia on the dorsal surface. In sperm that are not attached to substrate, the pseudopod is more cylindrical with a blunt tip. Its complexes fill the entire volume, generating villipodia at the tip which move rearwards over the entire surface of the pseudopod membrane. When attached, the pseudopod is more flattened and complexes spread out mainly, but not exclusively, along the attached plane of the pseudopod. In crawling cells, complexes form a continuous mat of fibers along the base of the pseudopod (see Fig. 2), or send projections 1 or 2 μm into the upper pseudopod membrane to form nonadherent villipodia.

In the stereo micrograph, Fig. 3, some complexes are shown at higher magnification in a more dispersed state. They consist of nonuniform or “fuzzy” fibers whose overall diameter in whole mounts ranges from 5 to 10 nm. The arrangement of the fibers in complexes varies; some of them are oriented parallel to and concentrate about a central core of the complex (Fig. 3, small arrow). Most fibers splay out radially from the core (Fig. 3, large arrowhead), at an angle of 10–90° to its axis and tipped toward the forward end of the cell. As also seen in Fig. 2, the radial fibers interweave with those from adjacent complexes with one end always anchored in a complex. The fiber complexes are thus interconnected into one continuous unit filling the entire pseudopod. The tips of the complexes, normally much more dispersed when associated with intact membrane, are collapsed in whole-mounted, detergent-treated sperm (compare to Fig. 5). Fig. 4 is a semithick cross section through several fiber complexes and illustrates the amorphous dense 20-nm cores which identify individual complexes and the aster of fibers.

3. While the moving membrane specializations in Ascaris sperm resemble microvilli, they are generally stubbier and are not associated with actin filaments. The term “filipodia” used by others does not seem appropriate to describe short stubby projections, hence, “villipodia.”

4. Stereo figures should be viewed with a standard 2× stereo print viewer.
Figure 2. Low power stereo electron micrograph of whole mount of *Ascaris* spermatozoon prepared with glutaraldehyde-Triton X-100 detergent fixative. Note how numerous fiber complexes branch and terminate in villipodia, arising over the upper and lower surfaces of the pseudopod. The spaces between complexes are filled with splayed fibers. The region in which the complexes terminate is obscured by the electron-dense cell body, which contains the nucleus, mitochondria, membranous organelles, and refringent granules. 15-20 complexes are in close apposition to the cell body. Bar, 5 μm; \( V_{accell} \), 1 MV.

Radiating from them. The cores do not appear to be separate structures but common attachment points of the ends of several individual fibers. The dense varicosities are cross sections of fibers. In cells allowed to become aerobic, the terminal branches of all but a few of the complexes and their villipodia disappear. The remaining complexes become rigid and rodlike with densely packed fibers all oriented parallel to the long axis of the complexes (not shown). These rigid complexes form long spikes instead of villipodia and move side to side, but there is no evidence of rearward membrane flow. This and Fig. 3 suggest that the fibers in complexes of crawling sperm are able to splay out much like the ribs of an umbrella and, in similar fashion, tend to collapse to a position parallel to the axis of the complex. Fig. 5a is a longitudinal semithick section of a fiber complex as it ends in a villipodium. The fibers inside each villipodium are more highly dispersed than the rest of the complex, emerging in all directions toward the villipodial membrane. In the villipodium, the radiating filaments appear to make numerous contacts with the electron-opaque region apposed to the inner layer of the plasma membrane (Fig. 5b, arrow). The dense submembrane layer is a constant feature over both the pseudopod and cell body, as is the fibrous material on the outer surface. Where the membrane is cut perpendicularly, the dense lamina apposed to the inner face of the cell membrane appears as a "carpet" of fibrillar material (Fig. 5a, bracket).
Villipodia and Fiber Complex Translocation in Live Sperm

Many of the features of fiber complexes in the pseudopod, how they form and move, can be clearly observed in living fully activated Ascaris sperm using the higher resolution and contrast of computer-enhanced video DIC. Fig. 6 is a time-lapse sequence of enhanced video DIC images of a motile spermatozoon on glass. The cell in this sequence is activated and its pseudopod is flattened but not attached (i.e., not crawling) so that the relative movement of structures in the pseudopod can be easily followed at high magnification. The fiber complexes appear as large, refringent fibers 0.2–0.3 μm in diameter. They can be seen as early as 6 min into activation, before the pseudopod is fully extended and attached. The unusual behavior of the cytoskeletal complexes is shown in the low power sequence (Fig. 6, a–c). A group of five branched refringent fibers oriented roughly parallel to the cell’s long axis is identified in Fig. 6 a and located ~10 s later in Fig. 6 c; the entire array moves as a unit toward the rear of the pseudopod (rate, ~25 μm/min). At the same time, a group of villipodia can be seen above and to the left of the area (Fig. 6, asterisk) moving the same distance as the group of complexes. The overall length of the pseudopod remains constant. A sequence of images at higher magnification (Fig. 6, d–g) shows the continuous formation of individual villipodia at the leading edge in association with fiber complexes.
Figure 6. Time lapse, video-enhanced, DIC images of living, in vitro-activated Ascaris spermatozoa on glass; contrast-enhanced, background-subtracted, four-frame (1/15 sec) averaged image shown. (a–c) Low magnification sequence, showing overall bipolar morphology of a fully motile cell with its extended pseudopod and large refractile cell body. (a) One set of fiber complexes in b (*) is drawn for clarity in the first panel. (c) The same cell 10 s after b, showing the same set of complexes after it has migrated near the junction of pseudopod and cell body. Their relative positions are unchanged. (d–g) Higher magnification sequence showing the association of fiber complexes with villipodia at feature 1, 2, and 3 as they progress rearward and a new villipodium formed at feature 4. d is a drawing of representative features found in e. Feature 1 can be seen in g disappearing at the cell body-pseudopod junction. f follows e by ~10 s; g follows f by ~3 s. Bars, 5 μm.
The complexes may branch as they are formed, migrate rearward toward the cell body, and disappear at the cell body–pseudopod junction. At Fig. 6 d, position 2, a villipodium forms at the leading edge from a previously assembled fiber complex and both migrate rearwards in succeeding frames. Some of the branches appear to join (see position 2 in Fig. 6, f and g), but HVEM whole mounts show that villipodia form on only one of the apposing complexes (Fig. 2). In all cases examined, the entire assembly of fibers moves rearward as a unit in concert with the villipodia. Once assembled at the leading edge, the interconnected fiber complexes form a semirigid framework which does not change shape. When a cell turns, new branched complexes are formed to the side of the turn, established complexes maintain the same relative positions, and the cell body is pulled around in the new direction. The movement of fiber assemblies occurs in activated cells whether or not they are attached to the substrate (i.e., crawling) and is always associated with rapid retrograde membrane flow.

Both villipodia and fiber complexes disappear at the “lip” formed by the cell body where it joins the base of the pseudopod. Fig. 7 shows semithick sections of this region. In Fig. 7 a, the complexes are not tethered to any obvious structures within the cell body. There is, however, a dense aggregation of smooth membrane vesicles just inside the cell body, packed around the mitochondria and membranous organelles at the junction (Fig. 7 a, dotted line). Farther into the cell body, the vesicles are more dispersed. At higher magnification (Fig. 7 b), most vesicle profiles within the band are round, but unusual tubular or flattened forms are also seen. Toward the center of the junction of pseudopod and cell body, the tubular vesicles are oriented with their long axes parallel to the plane of the junction. Those apposed and near to the plasma membrane are aligned parallel to it. Because of the submembrane dense layer, it is not possible to determine if there are vesicles continuous with the plasma membrane itself. In some sections, a few round vesicles can be seen near the lip in contact with the cell membrane (Fig. 7 a, arrow).

**Immunocytochemistry of the Fiber Complexes**

**Antibody Characterization.** The labeling pattern obtained by probing nitrocellulose blots of the AS-S100 MSP-enriched fraction of sperm homogenate with anti-MSP antibody AZ10 is shown in Fig. 8. The antibody reacts strongly and exclusively with the MSP band which runs at ~15 kD on SDS–polyacrylamide gels.

**Labeling Patterns in Fixed, Permeabilized Sperm.** Fig. 9 a shows that the fiber complexes are visible in unstained sperm fixed in glutaraldehyde–Triton. When incubated with antibody AZ10, filament complexes label heavily by indirect immunofluorescence (Fig. 9 b). Complexes in negative-control cells, incubated without first antibody, do not (Fig. 9, c and d). Some fluorescence found in the cell bodies of both negative controls and anti–MSP-stained cells may be due to autofluorescence of residual glutaraldehyde. The much brighter fluorescence of antibody AZ10–stained cells indicates there is some MSP in the cell bodies of activated cells.

Phalloidin staining was used to determine if the small amount of actin known to exist in *Ascaris* sperm (<0.5% total protein) forms F-actin assemblies in the pseudopod cyto-
Figure 8. Immunoblot pattern of antibody AZI0 against *Ascaris* sperm protein fraction AS-S100. The left lane (COOM) shows the Coomassie Blue-staining pattern of AS-S100 sperm proteins on a 10–20% gradient polyacrylamide gel. MSP is the most abundant protein. The right lane (AZI0) is a nitrocellulose immunoblot of *Ascaris* sperm proteins probed with antibody AZI0 followed by horseradish peroxidase-anti-mouse IgG.

skeleton. Fig. 9, e and f, show that pseudopods of permeabilized spermatozoa fail to label with phalloidin, whereas the mouse peritoneal fibroblast-positive controls show heavy labeling of their actin filament bundles (Fig. 9, g and h).

At the ultrastructural level (Fig. 10), colloidal gold-labeled antibody AZI0 is shown to decorate the entire fiber complex, including the core as well as individual fibers. Both the preservation of the fibers and permeability to antibody–gold conjugates varied considerably among cells. Fig. 10 a shows a thin section through a labeled cell in which the pseudopod remains packed with filaments. Filaments just beneath a disrupted portion of plasma membrane decorate heavily with gold particles, but those within the core of a nearby fiber complex do not. We suspect the nonuniform labeling reflects the failure of gold particles to penetrate areas where filaments are tightly packed, especially at the cores of complexes. In more thoroughly dispersed cells (Fig. 10 b), however, some filaments at the core of the fiber complexes were also labeled. Profiles of sperm probed with anti–mouse IgG-gold (Fig. 10 c) or BSA-gold (not shown) contained only a few bound gold particles.

**Discussion**

**Summary of Anatomy and Behavior of Ascaris Sperm Cytoskeleton and Pseudopod Membrane Specializations**

This work has demonstrated that a coherent, dynamic cytoskeleton exists in the pseudopod of *Ascaris* sperm whose behavior suggests its direct participation in the cell's amoeboid locomotion. The drawing in Fig. 11 summarizes the features of *Ascaris* sperm which have made it an excellent model for studying nematode sperm amoeboid motility: it is relatively large and bipolar with a permanent pseudopod. In sections of cells fixed in situ, all of the membrane-bound organelles (nucleus, mitochondria, membranous organelles, and refractile body) are confined to the cell body; the pseudopod contains fibers. The fibers are organized into superstructures, the fiber complexes, which are visible in living, unstained, unlabeled cells. Radiating fibers from the complexes, shown in the detail, insert into the dense layer of material lining the inside of the pseudopod membrane. The membrane puckers into villipodia as it associates with fibers from the terminations of complexes at the leading edge. The villipodia, the pseudopod's membrane–cytoskeleton unit, appear to be adhesion sites, and spread out as they make contact with substrate or move along, unused, to the cell body where their components are recycled.

Because the fiber complexes can be seen inside the pseudopod of living cells with DIC-light microscopy, the behavior of this system—membrane and cytoskeleton together—can be studied without the ambiguities associated with in-
Figure 10. Thin sections of immunogold-labeled *Ascaris* sperm. (a) Gold-antibody AZ10-labeled pseudopod with its cytoskeleton largely intact. Filaments beneath the disrupted plasma membrane are heavily decorated; those within the thick mesh of the filament complex in the center are lightly labeled. (b) The same antibody-gold labeling of a more dispersed pseudopod cytoskeleton with the cores of the filament complexes exposed; the filaments within are heavily decorated. (c) Control cell incubated with gold-anti-mouse IgG alone. Few gold particles are present. Bar, 200 nm; $V_{accel}$, 80 kV.

direct labeling and bleaching. As shown, the cytoskeleton is being continuously formed at the leading edge of the cell. The membrane specializations and the fiber complexes both move rearwards in unison and both disappear at the junction of pseudopod and cell body. This junction represents a boundary between two very different types of membrane: the highly mobile Triton-extractable pseudopod membrane, and the stable detergent-resistant cell body membrane. (There is also evidence for this difference in the sperm of the nematode *C. elegans*; see below.) In this model, both membrane and...
complexes are assumed to recycle, with the processes of assembly and disassembly being independent and proceeding at the same rate. To crawl, assembly and attachment of membrane and complexes at the tip is required to extend the pseudopod front. As they move rearwards, complexes and their associated villipodia may move either dorsally or ventrally. Disassembly of membrane and complexes at the base is required to pull the cell body forward. This is derived from two observations: (a) the pseudopod length remains relatively constant during normal crawling; and (b) it can be shown in “aging” crawling cells that even when the assembly of new villipodia at the leading edge of the pseudopod ceases, the cell body continues to be pulled forward (Sepsenwol, S., and S. J. Taft, manuscript submitted for publication). As villipodia reach the base of the pseudopod, it is proposed that pseudopodial membrane and membrane adhesion proteins are internalized and filaments forming the complexes disaggregate (Fig. 11, curved arrows at base of pseudopod). The abundant vesicles at the base of the pseudopod and association of vesicles with the cell membrane is consistent with active endocytosis, but direct evidence is lacking. (See discussion of endocytosis in C. elegans below.) Whether the filaments exert force (i.e., push or pull) on the attached membrane is not known.

Identification of MSP in the Fiber Complexes of Ascaris Sperm

In the absence of actin, myosins, and/or tubulins in Ascaris sperm, the search for new types of cytoskeletal proteins has become central to understanding how this system of locomotion might work. MSP is an obvious candidate for a pseudopod cytoskeletal protein because it is present in the quantity needed to form the mass of filaments that pack the pseudopod. In sperm of both Ascaris and C. elegans, MSP comprises >15% of the total protein. In C. elegans, anti-MSP antibodies had been shown to localize in the pseudopod of activated sperm (Ward and Klass, 1982). Localization at the ultrastructural level, however, has been frustrated by the lack of an identifiable filamentous superstructure in their pseudopods distinguishable from background granular material (Roberts, 1983). The ordered arrangement of filaments in Ascaris sperm allows an unequivocal localization of MSP antibodies to the fiber complexes and to the individual filaments that comprise them. This is the first evidence that MSP may be a filament protein in the sperm’s pseudopod. This immunocytochemical identification does not preclude the involvement of other proteins in the assembly of fiber complexes. However, the abundance of MSP, its segregation into the pseudopods of motile sperm, and the anti-MSP labeling over all the parts of the complex suggests that it is the major species in this fibrous cytoskeleton. The absence of phalloidin staining indicates that the very low concentration of actin is not in the form of F-actin aggregates in the pseudopod. This result does not exclude copolymerization of whatever actin might be present with other major components of the fibrous cytoskeleton. Indeed, the heterogeneity of fuzzy fibers in Ascaris sperm and their unique associations with cell membranes and each other suggests that proteins in addition to MSP may be required to assemble functional fiber complexes.

An antibody generated against C. elegans MSP, TR20 (Roberts et al., 1986; Ward et al., 1986), shows the same selectivity for Ascaris MSP on Western blots, and stains Ascaris sperm fiber complexes in the same pattern as antibody AZ10 (see cover photo). This antibody cross-reactivity confirms molecular studies showing strong similarity between Ascaris and C. elegans MSP. MSP cDNAs from both species have been cloned and sequenced (Burke and Ward, 1983; Bennett and Ward, 1986) and nucleotide homology is 72%; the predicted proteins both consist of 127 amino acids with 82% homology.

The C. Elegans Spermatozoon: Similarities and Differences

Previous work done on the sperm of the nematode C. elegans provides valuable insights into Ascaris sperm behavior. Their strong similarities give us reason to believe that they both crawl by the same mechanism. C. elegans sperm cells are rich in MSP (see above). Like Ascaris sperm, C. elegans spermatids can be activated to full motility in vitro (Nelson and Ward, 1980; Ward et al., 1983). The spermatids and activated sperm are three times smaller than Ascaris male gametes, but morphologically similar: they show the same permanent compartmentation of organelles. The pseudopod of a crawling C. elegans spermatozoon is covered with stubby projections, which form at the tip, move centripetally, and disappear at the pseudopod–cell body junction (see scanning electron micrograph in Nelson et al., 1982, Fig. 1). When attached, these make extensive contacts with the substrate and pull the cell along (Roberts and Streitmatter, 1984). C. elegans sperm possess a region of laminar membranes just inside the cell body at its border with the pseudopod, the site of the band of smooth vesicles in Ascaris sperm (see Ward et al., 1981; Fig. 4).

Roberts and Ward (1982a,b) showed that cationic latex beads, ferritin-labeled lectins, and fluorescent-labeled phospholipids all migrated away from the tip of the pseudopod and either accumulated on the surface (beads and lectins) or disappeared (phospholipid) at the pseudopod–cell body junction. Labels over the cell body were stationary in motile sperm. Pavalko and Roberts (1987) have shown that new membrane proteins insert at the tip of the pseudopod and move to the base. The pseudopod labels (colloidal gold and antibody) accumulate at the base. This is direct evidence for incorporation of new membrane proteins at the leading edge of the pseudopod; however, there is as yet no evidence that they are internalized. This lack of direct information about how or whether membrane components are recycled is an important caveat for the Ascaris sperm model.

There are differences between these two species of nematode sperm as well. Most importantly, there is no evidence of a higher order fiber structure in the pseudopod of C. elegans sperm, even when examined in whole mount and semithick sections with HVEM (for review see Roberts et al., 1989; an exception is the nonmotile fer-3 sperm mutant, see Ward et al., 1981; Fig. 11, c and d). The pseudopod is filled entirely with a dense mass of granular material and relatively uniform interconnected 2–3 nm filaments, thought to be polymers of MSP (reviewed in Roberts et al., 1989). It is possible that any filamentous superstructure in C. elegans sperm pseudopod might be obscured by the high density of granular cytoplasm. The worms’ metabolic systems are also quite different and affect the stability of the pseudopod: C. elegans spermatids form pseudopods and crawl under aero-
bic conditions; *Ascaris* sperm require anaerobiosis for activation and locomotion, fully formed cytosekeletal becomes unstable when the cell is exposed to oxygen. It is not clear if this oxygen toxicity is a direct effect on the *Ascaris* sperm fiber complexes (by peroxide formation, for example) or the consequence of blocking its anaerobic mitochondrial ATP synthesis (for review see Kohler and Bachman, 1980).

**Relation of *Ascaris* Sperm Motility to Other Models for Amoeboid Motility**

It would be a mistake to generalize the specialized amoeboid sperm of *Ascaris* into a universal model for all cells that crawl; there are even significant differences among families of nematodes. (The sperm of *Nippostrongylus brasiliensis* creep by means of transverse waves of constriction passing rearwards over their short pseudopods rather than individual villipodia [Wright and Sommerville, 1984].) As a counter example, however, *Ascaris* sperm are useful for testing the heuristic value of some models now proposed for amoeboid locomotion in actin-based cells. For example, two competing models for fibroblast motility are based on bulk membrane flow and discount a direct role for the cytoskeleton in membrane flow (see Ishihara et al., 1988). Bulk membrane flow theory supposes that the retrograde flow of membrane lipids assembled at the leading edge alone generates a motile force and sweeps membrane protein constituents, including adhesion proteins, rearwards (Bretscher, 1983). It is presumed that tethered transmembrane proteins are bound to fixed cytoplasmic elements. After observing the comigration of villipodia and fiber complexes, we have reservations about using bulk membrane flow models to describe *Ascaris* sperm motility. In such a system, in which both membrane and cytoplasmic proteins are moving, it is not clear whether bulk membrane flow is the force or consequence of the continuous assembly and disassembly of the fiber complexes. Regarding the actomyosin–cytoskeleton model, recent reports have demonstrated that myosin I, the most abundant species in amoeba of the slime mold, *Dictyostelium*, is not absolutely required for crawling (De Lozanne and Spudich, 1987; Knecht and Loomis, 1987). (Interestingly, these data have been cited as evidence for the irrelevance of the cytoskeleton to the engine for crawling [Bretscher, 1988].) While *Ascaris* sperm are neither amoeba nor fibroblasts and do not contain significant actin, their fiber complexes clearly represent a new type of cytoskeleton intimately involved in membrane/cell movement. These kinds of unexpected results should encourage the search for new mechanisms by which cytoskeletal elements such as actin or MSP might participate in amoeboid locomotion.

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