

Luminal Ca^{2+} regulates passive Ca^{2+} efflux from the intracellular stores of hepatocytes

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Ca^{2+} uptake into the intracellular stores of permeabilized hepatocytes was entirely dependent on ATP and substantially inhibited by either ionomycin or thapsigargin, although both were required for complete inhibition. Unidirectional efflux of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ after removal of ATP from cells loaded to steady state (1.60 ± 0.12 nmol/ 10^6 cells) was monoexponential and occurred with a half-time of 103 ± 10 s. However, the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ content of the stores did not return to their pre-ATP level, but reached a plateau at 0.12 ± 0.04 nmol/ 10^6 cells. A similar amount of Ca^{2+} was trapped within the stores when Ca^{2+} uptake was prevented by thapsigargin and chelation of Ca^{2+} ; at all temperatures between 2 °C and 37 °C; and after stores had first been loaded with unlabelled Ca^{2+} . Simultaneous addition of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (InsP_3) and inhibition of Ca^{2+} uptake reduced the

amount of trapped Ca^{2+} to a level consistent with InsP_3 rapidly and more completely emptying a fraction of the stores that could be only partially emptied by the passive leak. After dilution of the specific activity of the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ under conditions that maintained the steady-state activities of the pumps and leaks, the stores rapidly lost their entire $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ content. We conclude that the channel responsible for mediating the leak of Ca^{2+} abruptly closes when the luminal $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ of the intracellular stores falls below a critical threshold corresponding to about 7% of their steady-state loading. Whereas InsP_3 is capable of completely emptying a fraction of the stores, regulation of the passive leak by luminal $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ is likely to prevent it from completely emptying them; such regulation may ensure that the many other functions of Ca^{2+} within the endoplasmic reticulum are not compromised.

INTRODUCTION

The initial response of many cells to stimuli that evoke an increase in cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ results from mobilization of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores [1]. The Ca^{2+} stores are also important in mediating the subsequent influx of Ca^{2+} across the plasma membrane, because it is the capacitative Ca^{2+} entry pathway, activated by depletion of the stores, that is commonly responsible for the Ca^{2+} entry evoked by receptors linked to InsP_3 formation [2,3]. The involvement of Ca^{2+} stores in both phases of the response evoked by Ca^{2+} -mobilizing stimuli, and the demonstration that Ca^{2+} waves and spikes usually reflect the periodic mobilization and re-uptake of Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores [4], has focused attention on the role of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (InsP_3) and its receptors in mediating the effects of hormones on intracellular Ca^{2+} stores [5]. Even within single cells, the Ca^{2+} stores themselves, probably largely within the endoplasmic reticulum, are functionally heterogeneous, with differing sensitivities to Ca^{2+} -mobilizing messengers, different Ca^{2+} -uptake mechanisms and different rates of Ca^{2+} leak [6–8]. The role of Ca^{2+} within the endoplasmic reticulum is not, however, restricted to Ca^{2+} signalling [9]: luminal Ca^{2+} is also implicated in protein folding and assembly [10] and in cell growth [11]. The Ca^{2+} content of the endoplasmic reticulum, reflecting the balance between Ca^{2+} leaks and active Ca^{2+} uptake, is therefore important in both allowing cells to respond to extracellular stimuli and in directly regulating various aspects of cell behaviour. Whereas the active Ca^{2+} -uptake mechanisms, mediated largely by a family of Ca^{2+} pumps, the sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} -ATPases (SERCAs) [8], have been characterized extensively, the means whereby Ca^{2+} leaks from

the endoplasmic reticulum under basal conditions is poorly understood. In the present study, we have examined the basal Ca^{2+} leak from the intracellular stores of permeabilized hepatocytes and suggest that it is mediated by a channel that abruptly closes as the luminal free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ falls below a critical level. This form of regulation may serve to protect cells from the potentially damaging effects of completely emptying the endoplasmic reticulum of Ca^{2+} [9].

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

InsP_3 was from American Radiolabeled Chemicals (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.), $^{45}\text{CaCl}_2$ was from ICN (Thame, Oxon, U.K.) and thapsigargin was from Alamone Laboratories (Jerusalem, Israel). Apyrase (from potato) and hexokinase (type V from baker's yeast) were from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). All other reagents were from suppliers reported previously [12].

Measurement of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux

Hepatocytes were isolated from livers of male Wistar rats [13] and then permeabilized by incubation with saponin (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) in cytosol-like medium (CLM) containing 140 mM KCl, 20 mM NaCl, 2 mM MgCl_2 , 1 mM EGTA, 20 mM Pipes (pH 7 at 37 °C). The cells were washed and resuspended (10^7 cells/ml) in CLM supplemented with CaCl_2 (free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}] = 200$ nM), ATP (7.5 mM), carbonyl cyanide *p*-trifluoromethoxyphenylhydrazone

Abbreviations used: CLM, cytosol-like medium; EC_{50} , half-maximally effective concentration; InsP_3 , inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; SERCA, sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} -ATPase; $t_{1/2}$, half-time; FCCP, carbonyl cyanide *p*-trifluoromethoxyphenylhydrazone.

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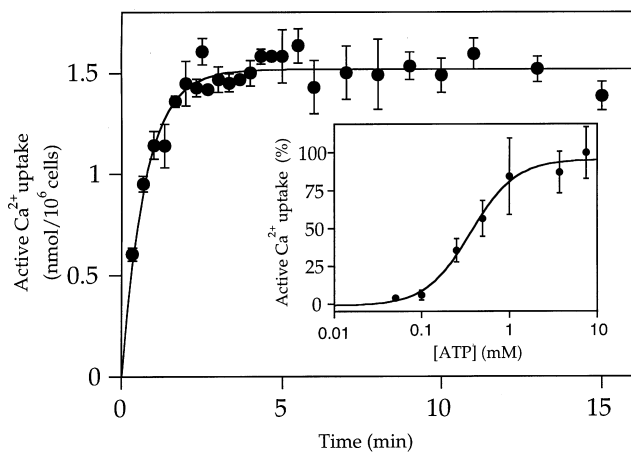


Figure 1 Effects of ATP, ionomycin and thapsigargin on $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake by the intracellular stores of permeabilized hepatocytes

Permeabilized hepatocytes were incubated in CLM containing 7.5 mM ATP for the periods shown, and their $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ contents expressed as that which could be released by addition of ionomycin (5 μM) and thapsigargin (1 μM). Results are means \pm S.E.M. of 5 independent experiments. The inset shows the effects of varying the ATP concentration on the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake measured 5 min after its addition. Results (% of uptake observed with 7.5 mM ATP) are means \pm S.E.M. of 3–9 independent experiments.

(FCCP, 10 μM) and $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ (7.5 $\mu\text{Ci}/\text{ml}$). After 5 min, the stores had loaded to steady state with $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ (Figure 1). To allow rapid enzymic removal of ATP in some experiments, the concentration of ATP was reduced to 1.5 mM; this reduction had no effect on the steady-state Ca^{2+} content of the cells (Figure 1). Unidirectional efflux of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ from the loaded stores was examined after rapid inhibition of further Ca^{2+} uptake using the methods described in the Results and discussion section. At intervals thereafter, the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ contents of the stores were determined by quenching the incubations with ice-cold medium containing sucrose (310 mM) and trisodium citrate (1 mM), and then rapidly filtering them through Whatman GF/C filters [13].

In order to measure unidirectional $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux from stores that retained their steady-state Ca^{2+} content, permeabilized cells loaded with $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ were diluted fivefold into CLM containing 20 mM EGTA and sufficient CaCl_2 to maintain the free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ at 200 nM. This method allowed a 100-fold dilution of the specific activity of the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ while otherwise preserving the composition of the CLM. The non-specific binding of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ to permeabilized cells attained its final level within 20 s of changing either the free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ or specific activity of the medium (results not shown); actively accumulated $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ was therefore calculated using different determinations of non-specific binding before and after the medium change (see Figure 3, below). For reasons described in the Results and discussion section, active $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake by the intracellular stores was defined as that which was inhibited by the combination of ionomycin (5 μM) and thapsigargin (1 μM).

Computer-assisted curve-fitting (Kaleidagraph) was used to fit exponential equations. For statistical analyses requiring comparison of ratios of two observations, S.E.M. values were determined according to [14].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

ATP-dependent Ca^{2+} uptake by intracellular stores

Addition of ATP to permeabilized hepatocytes stimulated $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ accumulation by the intracellular stores: the half-time ($t_{1/2}$) for

Table 1 Effects of ionomycin and thapsigargin on ATP-dependent $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake

Permeabilized hepatocytes were incubated for 5 min in CLM with the indicated additions of ionomycin (5 μM), thapsigargin (1 μM), ATP (7.5 mM) or GTP (7.5 mM). Both the total amount of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ associated with the cells and the active $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake (that which was prevented by ionomycin and thapsigargin) are shown as means \pm S.E.M. of n independent experiments (shown in parentheses).

	Total $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ content (nmol/ 10^6 cells)	Active $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake (nmol/ 10^6 cells)
No additions	0.21 \pm 0.01 (54)	–
ATP	1.90 \pm 0.1 (30)	1.60 \pm 0.20
ATP + ionomycin	0.54 \pm 0.03 (29)	0.24 \pm 0.03
ATP + thapsigargin	0.40 \pm 0.02 (30)	0.10 \pm 0.01
ATP + thapsigargin + ionomycin	0.30 \pm 0.02 (23)	0
Thapsigargin + ionomycin	0.18 \pm 0.02 (4)	–
GTP + thapsigargin + ionomycin	0.34 \pm 0.04 (3)	–

loading was 46 ± 3 s ($n = 23$) and, under the conditions used for our experiments, the half-maximal effect (EC_{50}) of ATP occurred when its concentration was 360 μM (Figure 1). In the absence of ATP, the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ content of permeabilized hepatocytes was the same after 20 s and 10 min (results not shown), and was unaffected by thapsigargin (1 μM) or ionomycin (5 μM) (Table 1). In the presence of ATP, ionomycin and thapsigargin $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake was reduced to the non-specific $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ binding observed when GTP replaced ATP (Table 1). We conclude that all $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake into the intracellular stores is ATP dependent.

Either thapsigargin (1 μM) or ionomycin (5 μM) substantially attenuated ATP-dependent $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake, but neither alone entirely prevented it (Table 1): $\approx 6\%$ and $\approx 15\%$ of the active $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake persisted in the presence of thapsigargin and ionomycin, respectively. These results indicate that even in the presence of FCCP, a protonophore, ATP stimulates Ca^{2+} uptake into stores, some of which are resistant to ionomycin and some to thapsigargin. The latter may reflect the existence of a thapsigargin-insensitive Ca^{2+} -uptake mechanism [7,8]. Alternatively, since thapsigargin completely inhibits the SERCA only after addition of ATP allows it to complete its catalytic cycle [15], the small amount of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake ($\approx 6\%$ of active uptake) that persisted in the presence of thapsigargin may result from Ca^{2+} accumulated before inhibition was complete becoming trapped within the stores (see below). We have no simple explanation for the Ca^{2+} uptake ($\approx 15\%$ of active uptake) that persisted in the presence of ionomycin; it is unlikely to reflect the behaviour of an acidic pool [16], because FCCP was present throughout. The important point is that in all subsequent experiments, we focused exclusively on the stores that were sensitive to both thapsigargin and ionomycin, and defined active $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ sequestration as that released by the combination of both inhibitors (see the Materials and methods section).

Incomplete emptying of intracellular Ca^{2+} stores after inhibition of Ca^{2+} uptake

Addition of apyrase (50 units/ml), glucose (10 mM) and hexokinase (50 units/ml) to CLM to hydrolyse the ATP before addition of the permeabilized cells prevented active $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake, confirming that the enzyme mixture reduced the ATP level to below that required to support $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ accumulation (Figure 2). Pre-incubation with glucose and hexokinase alone did not fully prevent active Ca^{2+} uptake, even when their respective concentrations were increased to 20 mM and 75 units/ml. Addition of

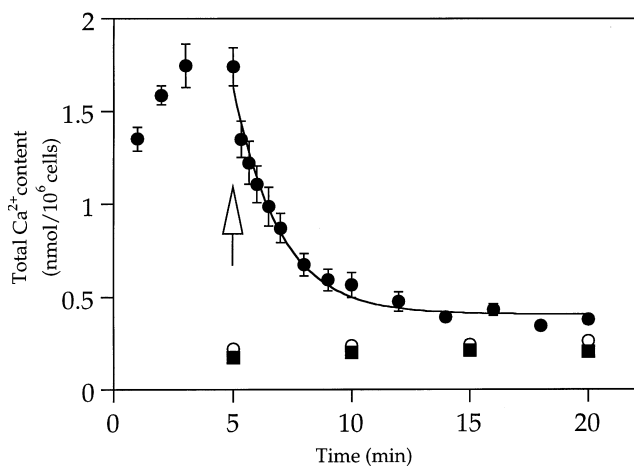


Figure 2 Incomplete loss of actively accumulated ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ after removal of ATP from permeabilized cells

Permeabilized cells were loaded to steady state (5 min) with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺, and ATP (1.5 mM) was then rapidly removed by addition of the hexokinase/apyrase/glucose mixture (arrow; see the Results and discussion section). The subsequent decline in the actively accumulated ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ content of the cells (●) was fitted to a monoexponential equation. In parallel experiments, ATP was omitted (■) or removed by the enzyme mixture before addition of the cells (○). Results are means ± S.E.M. of 6 independent experiments (most error bars are smaller than the symbols).

the full enzyme mixture to cells loaded to steady state with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ in the presence of ATP (1.5 mM) caused their Ca²⁺ content to monoexponentially decline ($t_{1/2} = 103 \pm 10$ s, $n = 6$) to a level (0.12 ± 0.04 nmol/10⁶ cells) that remained elevated above that recorded in cells that had not been incubated with ATP (Figure 2). This incomplete emptying of the Ca²⁺ stores occurred despite recording ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ efflux over an interval (15 min) corresponding to almost 9 half-times, during which we would have expected the ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ content of the stores to fall to $\approx 0.2\%$ of their final level (Figure 2). Increasing the period during which the stores were allowed to actively load with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ had no effect on their steady-state Ca²⁺ content, which in parallel experiments was 2.58 ± 0.09 nmol/10⁶ cells ($n = 6$) after 5 min, 2.57 ± 0.06 nmol/10⁶ cells after 10 min, and 2.30 ± 0.15 nmol/10⁶ cells after 15 min. Furthermore, the residual Ca²⁺ content was similar whether stores had first been allowed to load to steady state for 5 min (residual content = 0.14 ± 0.1 nmol/10⁶ cells), 10 min (0.17 ± 0.01 nmol/10⁶ cells), or 15 min (0.16 ± 0.02 nmol/10⁶ cells), indicating that it did not result from Ca²⁺ slowly accumulating within a store. These results suggest that $\approx 7\%$ of the ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ that was rapidly accumulated in response to addition of ATP was not readily released from the stores when ATP was subsequently removed. Similar results were obtained when further ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ uptake into the stores was inhibited by addition of thapsigargin (1 μ M) with or without simultaneous fivefold dilution of the cells into medium containing EGTA (final, 8 mM) to reduce the free [Ca²⁺] to ≈ 3 nM (Table 2). The latter results confirm that Ca²⁺ trapped within stores after ATP removal is not a consequence of compartmentalization of ATP [17]. We conclude that all Ca²⁺ uptake by the intracellular stores is ATP-dependent, but a fraction of that Ca²⁺ cannot be released when further Ca²⁺ uptake is prevented.

We were concerned that fragmentation of the endoplasmic reticulum during permeabilization [18] might have created a Ca²⁺ pool lacking the pathway through which Ca²⁺ leaks, or that a very high affinity Ca²⁺-binding site within the stores might lose

Table 2 Incomplete emptying of the stores after inhibition of ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ uptake

Permeabilized hepatocytes were loaded to steady state with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ and further ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ uptake was then prevented by addition of thapsigargin (1 μ M), removal of ATP (1.5 mM) using apyrase/glucose/hexokinase, or by addition of thapsigargin (1 μ M) and chelation of Ca²⁺. In the final experiment, the cells were loaded to steady state with unlabelled Ca²⁺ before loading with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺, and then further Ca²⁺ uptake was prevented by addition of thapsigargin and chelation of Ca²⁺. The ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ contents of the cells were measured at intervals over the next 15 min, and the resulting unidirectional ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ efflux curves were fitted to monoexponential equations from which the $t_{1/2}$ and residual Ca²⁺ contents at infinite time were calculated. Results are means ± S.E.M. n independent experiments (shown in parentheses).

	$t_{1/2}$ (s)	Residual actively accumulated ⁴⁵ Ca ²⁺ (nmol/10 ⁶ cells)
Apyrase/glucose/hexokinase (6)	103 ± 10	0.12 ± 0.04
Thapsigargin and chelation of Ca ²⁺ (5)	111 ± 8	0.10 ± 0.03
Thapsigargin alone (10)	119 ± 6	0.11 ± 0.02
Thapsigargin and chelation of Ca ²⁺ after pre-loading with ⁴⁰ Ca ²⁺ (6)	121 ± 18	0.10 ± 0.01

its Ca²⁺ during the permeabilization protocol and then avidly bind the first Ca²⁺ to be transported into the stores. These possibilities were discounted by the results from two further series of experiments.

The amount of Ca²⁺ actively accumulated by the intracellular stores at steady state was similar whether the cells were loaded for 5 min in CLM containing ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ (1.15 ± 0.09 nmol/10⁶ cells, $n = 3$) or first allowed to load (5 min) with unlabelled Ca²⁺ and then loaded for a further 5 min with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ (1.15 ± 0.11 nmol/10⁶ cells, $n = 3$). In the stores preloaded with unlabelled Ca²⁺, both the kinetics of unidirectional ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ efflux and the residual Ca²⁺ remaining within the stores were similar to the values determined without preloading, but using the same method to inhibit Ca²⁺ uptake (Table 2). We conclude that a fraction of the Ca²⁺ actively accumulated into intracellular stores becomes trapped within them as their Ca²⁺ content falls, and that the trapped Ca²⁺ is not simply bound to slowly exchanging sites within the stores.

To measure ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ efflux from stores that remained loaded with Ca²⁺, permeabilized cells were loaded to steady state with ⁴⁵Ca²⁺, the specific activity of the ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ in the CLM was then diluted 100-fold while maintaining the composition of the CLM, including its free [Ca²⁺] and ATP concentration (see the Materials and methods section). Under these conditions, the ⁴⁵Ca²⁺ content of the stores declined monoexponentially ($t_{1/2} = 41 \pm 1$ s, $n = 6$) to a level corresponding to $1.1 \pm 0.4\%$ of their steady-state loading (Figure 3). Since the specific activity of the CLM was reduced to 1% of its initial value, these results indicate that under steady-state conditions, all of the Ca²⁺ within the stores was rapidly exchangeable. We suggest that luminal Ca²⁺ regulates the rate at which Ca²⁺ leaks from the intracellular stores and that when the luminal [Ca²⁺] falls below a critical threshold, the leak abruptly stops.

The basal Ca²⁺ leak is through neither the InsP₃ receptor nor the Ca²⁺ pump

InsP₃ (10 μ M, 60 s) rapidly released $41 \pm 3\%$ ($n = 3$) of the fully loaded Ca²⁺ stores, but in efflux experiments, addition of InsP₃ (10 μ M, 60 s) to cells that had essentially reached the residual Ca²⁺ content invariably failed to evoke Ca²⁺ release (results not shown). These results are consistent with previous reports in which stores substantially depleted of Ca²⁺ failed to respond to InsP₃ [19]. However, when InsP₃ (10 μ M) was added at the same

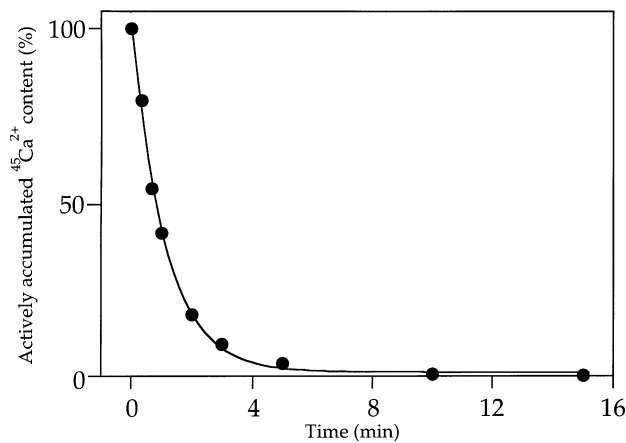


Figure 3 Effect of continued Ca^{2+} pumping on the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ content of the stores

Cells loaded to steady state with $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ were diluted into CLM such that the specific activity of the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ was reduced 100-fold (see the Materials and methods section). The actively accumulated $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ content was determined at intervals, and the results (from a single experiment, typical of 6 independent experiments) fitted to a monoexponential equation.

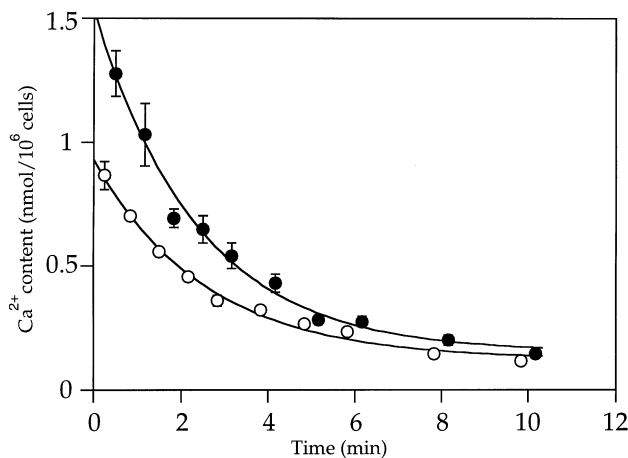


Figure 4 Passive leaks of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ in the presence and absence of InsP_3

Cells loaded to steady state with $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ were diluted into Ca^{2+} -free CLM containing thapsigargin ($1 \mu\text{M}$) in the presence (\circ) or absence (\bullet) of InsP_3 ($10 \mu\text{M}$) and the subsequent decline in the $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ contents of the cells was recorded (means \pm S.E.M. of 3 independent experiments). The lines were fitted to monoexponential equations and show that after the initial rapid release of Ca^{2+} by InsP_3 , passive Ca^{2+} efflux occurs at similar rates from unstimulated cells and those in which the InsP_3 -sensitive stores had been completely emptied.

time as inhibition of further Ca^{2+} uptake, there was the expected rapid decrease in the Ca^{2+} content of the stores (by $34 \pm 1\%$, $n = 3$) and thereafter the rate of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux was similar in the presence ($t_{1/2} = 108 \pm 13 \text{ s}$, $n = 3$) or absence ($t_{1/2} = 99 \pm 2 \text{ s}$, $n = 3$) of InsP_3 (Figure 4). In the cells treated with InsP_3 , the residual Ca^{2+} content of the stores was, however, reduced to $79 \pm 7\%$ ($n = 3$) of that of control cells. The results confirm [20] that Ca^{2+} leaks passively at similar rates from stores with and without InsP_3 receptors, and that Ca^{2+} remains trapped within both InsP_3 -sensitive and InsP_3 -insensitive stores. Therefore, in permeabilized hepatocytes, the basal Ca^{2+} leak is not mediated by InsP_3 receptors opening either spontaneously or in response to InsP_3 . Whereas endogenous InsP_3 is unlikely to be sufficient to stimulate InsP_3

Table 3 Effects of temperature on $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux from intracellular stores

$^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux was measured at various temperatures after dilution of cells into Ca^{2+} -free CLM containing thapsigargin ($1 \mu\text{M}$). The $t_{1/2}$ and residual Ca^{2+} contents were determined from monoexponential curve fits derived from data spanning at least 6 half-times. Results are means \pm S.E.M. of 4–10 independent determinations.

Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	$t_{1/2}$ (s)	Residual $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ (nmol/ 10^6 cells)
2	589 ± 54	0.14 ± 0.02
10	259 ± 18	0.19 ± 0.02
20	208 ± 9	0.12 ± 0.02
30	138 ± 26	0.10 ± 0.02
37	111 ± 8	0.10 ± 0.03

receptors in permeabilized hepatocytes, levels of InsP_3 in unstimulated intact cells may be sufficient to ensure that a component of the basal Ca^{2+} leak from their intracellular stores is mediated by InsP_3 receptors stimulated by InsP_3 [21]. Since the rates of Ca^{2+} leak were similar whether Ca^{2+} uptake was inhibited by removal of ATP, addition of thapsigargin, or the combination of thapsigargin and Ca^{2+} chelation (Table 2), the leak is neither regulated by ATP [22] nor mediated by the Ca^{2+} pump [23]. The effects of temperature (see below) were consistent with the leak occurring through a channel.

Temperature effects on Ca^{2+} efflux from intracellular stores

If, as we suggest, luminal Ca^{2+} regulates the permeability of the Ca^{2+} leak pathway, we might have expected the rate constant for Ca^{2+} efflux to decrease as the Ca^{2+} content of the stores fell, yet Ca^{2+} efflux was invariably monoexponential (Figure 1, Table 2). The abrupt closure of the Ca^{2+} leak would be explained if its regulation operated over a narrow range of luminal $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$. In order to slow the fall in luminal Ca^{2+} , and so increase the likelihood of detecting any change in the Ca^{2+} permeability of the stores as their Ca^{2+} content fell, efflux experiments were repeated at lower temperatures. Permeabilized cells loaded to steady state with $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ at 37°C were diluted five-fold into CLM at various temperatures in which the free $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ was $\approx 3 \text{ nM}$. At 2°C , $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux was again monoexponential and even when the incubation was extended to 60 min (≈ 7 half-times), Ca^{2+} remained within the stores (Table 3). At all temperatures (2 – 37°C), the kinetics of $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux were best fitted by monoexponential equations, although the half-times increased as the temperature decreased. The activation energy (32.4 kJ/mol) derived from the Arrhenius plot of the first-order rate constants for $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ efflux is consistent with Ca^{2+} leaking through a channel [24]. At all temperatures, the residual Ca^{2+} content of the stores (calculated by extrapolation of efflux curves collected over a period spanning at least 6 half-times), was similar (Table 3). Even when the fall in luminal $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ was slowed fivefold by reducing the temperature, Ca^{2+} efflux from the stores terminated abruptly when their Ca^{2+} content fell to $\approx 0.1 \text{ nmol}/10^6$ cells. We suggest that the effects of luminal Ca^{2+} on the channel through which Ca^{2+} leaks passively occur within a narrow range of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$.

Conclusions

We have demonstrated that the passive leak of Ca^{2+} from the intracellular stores of permeabilized hepatocytes is mediated by neither InsP_3 receptors nor the Ca^{2+} pump; it is not regulated by ATP or cytosolic Ca^{2+} ; but it does appear to be mediated by an

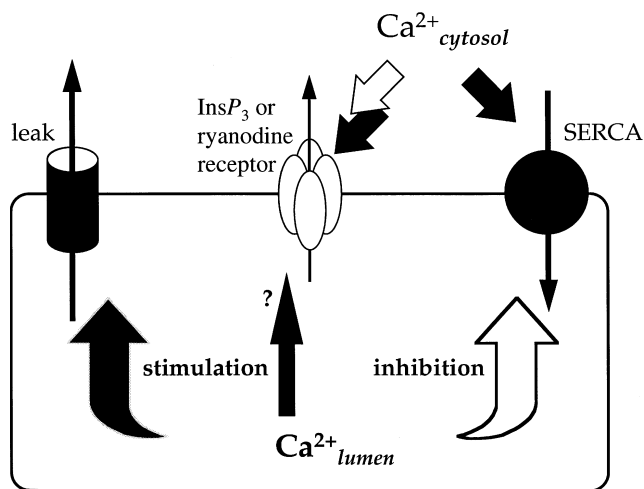


Figure 5 Regulation of the Ca²⁺ content of the endoplasmic reticulum

The diagram summarizes results from several cell types to illustrate the many mechanisms that may be involved in regulating the luminal [Ca²⁺] of the intracellular Ca²⁺ stores, assumed to reside largely within the endoplasmic reticulum [8]. Changes in cytosolic [Ca²⁺] affect the rate of Ca²⁺ uptake, because most SERCA have Ca²⁺ affinities similar to the normal cytosolic [Ca²⁺] [8]. Our results suggest that luminal [Ca²⁺] co-operatively stimulates the channel through which Ca²⁺ passively leaks from the intracellular Ca²⁺ stores. In other cell types, luminal Ca²⁺ has also been proposed to inhibit the SERCA in a very co-operative fashion [27]. Finally, ryanodine and InsP₃ receptors are each sequentially stimulated and inhibited by cytosolic Ca²⁺ and both may also be stimulated by luminal Ca²⁺.

ion channel. We [25] and others [6,26] observed previously that a small fraction (< 10%) of the Ca²⁺ actively accumulated into intracellular stores by means of the SERCA was not readily released after inhibition of further Ca²⁺ uptake. We confirmed that observation and now suggest that it results from a steeply co-operative effect of luminal Ca²⁺ on the leak pathway, such that Ca²⁺ becomes trapped within the stores when their luminal [Ca²⁺] falls to a critical level (Figure 5). This form of regulation may have important physiological consequences. First, in concert with the effects of cytosolic [Ca²⁺] and the steeply co-operative effects of luminal Ca²⁺ on the activity of the Ca²⁺ pump [27], it provides part of a powerful homeostatic machinery to regulate the Ca²⁺ content of the endoplasmic reticulum. Such luminal Ca²⁺ homeostasis may be important to allow the endoplasmic reticulum and the nuclear envelope with which it is continuous to effectively execute other roles, including protein folding and trafficking, cell growth and nucleo-cytoplasmic transport [9].

Secondly, because a maximally effective concentration of InsP₃ empties the InsP₃-sensitive stores more completely than even a very sustained passive leak, the physiological effects of depleting the stores by these different pathways may be different. It has, for example, been suggested [28,29] that the capacitative Ca²⁺-entry pathway may be activated only after near-complete depletion of the stores and, that in patch-clamped cells, InsP₃ is more effective than thapsigargin in activating capacitative Ca²⁺ entry [28]. Tight regulation of the luminal [Ca²⁺] of the endoplasmic reticulum by, among other mechanisms, the effect of luminal Ca²⁺ on the passive leak (Figure 5), may therefore serve both to maintain an appropriate environment within the endoplasmic reticulum and to ensure that capacitative Ca²⁺ entry is not activated inappropriately.

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