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## Mitochondrial Free Calcium Regulation during Sarcoplasmic Reticulum Calcium Release in Rat Cardiac Myocytes

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### Abstract

Cardiac mitochondria can take up  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , competing with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transporters like the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR)  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase. Rapid mitochondrial  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  transients have been reported to be synchronized with normal cytosolic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  transients. However, most intra-mitochondrial free  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ ) measurements have been uncalibrated, and potentially contaminated by non-mitochondrial signals. Here we measured calibrated  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  in single rat myocytes using the ratiometric  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  indicator fura-2 AM and plasmalemmal permeabilization by saponin (to eliminate cytosolic fura-2). The steady-state  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  dependence on  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  (with 5 mM EGTA) was sigmoid with  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}} < [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  for  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  below 475 nM. With low [EGTA] (50  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and 150 nM  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  ( $\pm 15$  mM  $\text{Na}^+$ ) cyclical spontaneous SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release occurred (5–15/min). Changes in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  during individual  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  transients were small ( $\sim 2$ –10 nM/beat), but integrated gradually to steady-state. Inhibition SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  handling by thapsigargin, 2 mM tetracaine or 10 mM caffeine all stopped the progressive rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  and spontaneous  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients (confirming that SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  releases caused the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rise). Confocal imaging of local  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  (using rhod-2) showed that  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rose rapidly with a delay after SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (with amplitude up to 10 nM), but declined much more slowly than  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  (time constant  $2.8 \pm 0.7$  s vs.  $0.19 \pm 0.06$  s). Total  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake for larger  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  transients was  $\sim 0.5$   $\mu\text{mol/l}$  cytosol (assuming 100:1 mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffering), consistent with prior indirect estimates from  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  measurements, and corresponds to  $\sim 1\%$  of the SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake during a normal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transient. Thus small phasic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  transients and gradually integrating  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  signals occur during repeating  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  transients.

### Keywords

Mitochondria; calcium transport; cardiac myocytes; sarcoplasmic reticulum

### Introduction

In cardiac myocytes, cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ ) transiently increases during each heart beat, initiating cellular contraction, and decreases during diastole to allow relaxation. The majority of the energy needed for contraction and intracellular ion homeostasis is provided by mitochondria via oxidative phosphorylation. Mitochondrial ATP production is sensitive to intra-mitochondrial free  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ ) as several key enzymes of the Krebs cycle and the

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F<sub>1</sub>F<sub>0</sub>ATPase are activated by micromolar Ca<sup>2+</sup> [1]. [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> may therefore provide important feedback between cellular energy demand and supply, especially when increased cardiac inotropy is mediated by increased [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> (e.g. during beta-adrenergic stimulation) [2]. Numerous participants and regulators of mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> in- and efflux contribute to the complex regulation of [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> which is important to maintain cellular function [3].

Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx into mitochondria occurs via the mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> uniporter (mCU), a low affinity (K<sub>0.5</sub> ~tens of micromolar), high capacity uptake mechanism which utilizes the large electrochemical gradient for Ca<sup>2+</sup> across the inner mitochondrial membrane [3]. So far, the molecular entity of the mCU has not been identified, but was recently functionally characterized as an inwardly rectifying Ca<sup>2+</sup>-selective channel [4]. Additionally, mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake has been proposed to occur via a rapid mode of Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake (RaM) [5] and via mitochondrial ryanodine receptors [6]; however, the contribution of these putative mechanisms to the regulation of [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> in cardiomyocytes is unclear.

The low Ca<sup>2+</sup> affinity of the mCU may limit Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry during diastole and normal Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients (where spatially averaged [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> is 0.1 – 1 μM). However, because parts of mitochondria are in close spatial proximity to sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) Ca<sup>2+</sup> release sites, the local [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> near ryanodine receptors or IP<sub>3</sub>-receptors may greatly exceed bulk [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> allowing more rapid mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake via mCU [7].

Mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux occurs predominantly in a Na<sup>+</sup>-dependent manner (K<sub>0.5</sub>~4–10 mM) via the mitochondrial Na<sup>+</sup>/Ca<sup>2+</sup>-exchanger (NCX<sub>m</sub>) [8]. Mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> regulation is therefore sensitive to variations in cytosolic [Na<sup>+</sup>] ([Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>) which may occur during ischemia/reperfusion [9] or during heart failure [10]. Although Na<sup>+</sup>-independent mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux has been proposed [11], in the heart its contribution to [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> seems negligible [12].

It is well established that cardiac mitochondria can take up a small fraction of the cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> involved in excitation-contraction (EC) coupling [8,13], potentially shaping cellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals [14]. However, two aspects remain unclear and controversial. First, it is unresolved whether [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> rapidly follows the beat-to-beat variations of [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> or whether [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> changes slowly, integrating variations in [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> over many beats [8,15]. Second, [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> measurements have generally not been calibrated, making it difficult to know how large the [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> transients are and how important the phasic [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> signals are relative to Ca<sup>2+</sup> fluxes during EC-coupling.

In this study, we investigated calibrated mitochondrial [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] changes in response to both steady changes in [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> (in heavily buffered solution) and in response to SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release in permeabilized rat ventricular cardiomyocytes. During SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> release, [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> rises rapidly with a delay after the [Ca]<sub>i</sub> rise, but shows much slower decline, resulting in beat-to-beat integration. During steady-state SR Ca<sup>2+</sup> releases, mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> uptake is small and Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx and efflux are balanced. The amplitude of the [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>mito</sub> transient during an individual [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> transient is less than 10 nM. These data provide novel insights into mitochondrial Ca<sup>2+</sup> regulation in cardiac myocytes.

## Methods

### Cardiac myocyte preparation, dye loading and cell permeabilization

Cardiac ventricular myocytes were isolated from adult male Sprague-Dawley rats (250–300 g) using protocols approved by the UC Davis Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) (see Online Supplement for details). Freshly isolated cells were plated on laminin-

coated glass cover slips for at least 45 min before dye loading. All experiments were performed at room temperature (RT) (22–23°C).

Cells were loaded with 10  $\mu\text{M}$  fura-2 AM for 45 min or with rhod-2 AM for 30 min at RT in nominally  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free Tyrode's solution (in mM: HEPES 5, NaCl 140, KCl 4,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  1, glucose 10; pH adjusted to 7.4 with NaOH). 30 min were allowed for de-esterification. Before permeabilization the bath solution was changed to a  $\text{Na}^+$ -free/ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free Tyrode's solution (in mM: HEPES 10, tetraethylammonium chloride 140, KCl 4,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  1, EGTA 2, glucose 10; pH adjusted to 7.4 with Trisma base) for 3–5 min. The cell surface membrane was permeabilized with saponin by exposure to a solution containing 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  saponin and (in mM) HEPES 10, K-aspartate 135,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  0.7, EGTA 2, reduced glutathione 10, MgATP 5, glucose 10 for 30 s or less.

## Solutions

A highly  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -buffered,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free,  $\text{Na}^+$ -free internal solution contained (in mM): EGTA 5, HEPES 20, K-aspartate 100, KCl 40,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  1, maleic acid 2, glutamic acid 2, pyruvic acid 5,  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  0.5, BDM 15, pH 7.2 adjusted with trisma base. To control  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ , 1.00 M  $\text{CaCl}_2$  solution (Fluka, #21115) was added as calculated with Max-Chelator (<http://www.stanford.edu/~cpatton/maxc.html>). Free  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  was confirmed by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive electrode measurements.  $\text{Na}^+$ -free internal solution with low  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffering capacity and 150 nM free  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  contained (in mM): EGTA 0.05,  $\text{CaCl}_2$  0.0234, HEPES 20, K-aspartate 100, KCl 40,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  0.551, maleic acid 2, glutamic acid 2, pyruvic acid 5,  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  0.5, MgATP 5, reduced glutathione 10, pH 7.2 adjusted with trisma base. When NaCl was added to these solutions, equal amounts of KCl were omitted. Calibration solutions contain 2–3  $\mu\text{M}$  ionomycin, 10  $\mu\text{M}$  FCCP and 20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  oligomycin.

## Fluorescence microscopy

Fura-2 fluorescence was measured (Nikon DIAPHOT 200, 40 $\times$  oil-immersion objective) with excitation at 345 $\pm$ 10 and 380 $\pm$ 5 nm ( $F_{340}$  and  $F_{380}$ ), with emission at 505 $\pm$ 50 nm. The signals were corrected for background and autofluorescence by subtracting averaged signals from unloaded cells ( $n=6$ , determined every day). Autofluorescence (unloaded cell signal minus empty field signal) is  $\leq 10\%$  of background corrected Fura-2 signals. Laser scanning confocal microscopy (Zeiss, LSM5 Pascal, 40 $\times$  water immersion objective) was used for imaging. For mitochondrial localization Fura-2 was loaded as above and 500 nM Mitotracker Orange was included during de-esterification. Fura-2 and Mitotracker Orange were excited sequentially at 405 nm (diode laser) and 453 nm (helium-neon laser) with emission at 505–530 nm and 560–615 nm bandpass filters, respectively. Mitochondrial Rhod-2 fluorescence was measured with the same confocal microscope (543 nm excitation, emission  $>560$  nm) as 2-dimensional images or in line-scan mode (786 ms/frame and 3–26 ms/line). In some rhod-2 experiments,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  was measured simultaneously with  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  using 2 or 5  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{K}_5\text{fura-2}$  in the internal solution (405 nm excitation, 505–530 nm emission). In permeabilized cells not loaded with rhod-2/AM, 50% of the fura-2 fluorescence intensity measured at 505–530 nm was detected in the rhod-2 window ( $>560$  nm), contaminating the rhod-2 signal. The corrected rhod-2 signal is  $F_{543}^{\text{corr}} = F_{543} + (F_{405}^0 - F_{405})/2$ , where  $F_{543}$  is the raw rhod-2 fluorescence,  $F_{405}^0$  is the resting fura-2 signal and  $F_{405}$  is the fura-2 signal (which decreases during  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients).

A  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -insensitive, isosbestic signal ( $F_c$ ) was calculated from the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive fluorescence signals as described by Zhou & Neher [16] (see Results and Online Supplement). In situ calibration of mitochondrial fura-2 was performed (see Fig. 2C-D and Online Supplement for details) using 2–3  $\mu\text{M}$  ionomycin, 10  $\mu\text{M}$  FCCP and 20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  oligomycin to allow  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  -  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  equilibration. This allowed transformation of mitochondrial fura-2 signals to  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ .

## Drugs and Statistics

Indicators were obtained from Invitrogen (Eugene, OR), Ru360, CGP-37157 from CALBIOCHEM (La Jolla, CA) and other chemicals from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD of *n* measurements. Comparison between groups was performed with One-Way ANOVA (significant at  $P < 0.05$ ).

## Results

### Mitochondrial free $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ measurements in rat myocytes

To measure calibrated  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  in isolated ventricular rat cardiomyocytes we used the ratiometric  $Ca^{2+}$  indicator fura-2 under conditions promoting mitochondrial fura-2 loading, and removed cytosolic indicator by permeabilization. Saponin-induced permeabilization allows tight control of the cytosolic milieu (e.g. free  $[Ca^{2+}]$ ,  $[Na^+]$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ -buffering capacity) while allowing periodic SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release when desired.

Figure 1A shows confocal images of an intact cardiomyocyte after loading with fura-2 (Fig. 1Aa, green) and mitochondrial staining with Mitotracker Orange (Fig. 1Ab, red). Saponin permeabilization (Fig. 1B) did not appreciably alter the characteristic mitochondrial pattern with Mitotracker Orange, but washed out most of the fura-2, leaving residual fura-2 matching the mitochondrial pattern.

To measure the fraction of total fura-2 loading that was mitochondrial, we used the  $Ca^{2+}$ -insensitive fura-2 fluorescence ( $F_c$ ) before and after permeabilization (Fig. 2A).  $F_c$  was calculated  $F_c = F_{340} + \alpha F_{380}$ , where  $-\alpha$  is the slope of the  $F_{340}$  vs.  $F_{380}$  curve when  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  changes (top parts of Fig. 2A, where  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  was altered by raising  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  from 0 to 429 nM). The  $F_c$  trace in Fig. 2A shows that saponin permeabilization released 70% of the total fura-2 loaded into the intact myocyte (note that  $F_c$  did not change with  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ ). The remaining 30% of fura-2 was compartmentalized in mitochondria. The stability of  $F_c$  after permeabilization indicates no substantial mitochondrial fura-2 leakage over 30 min.

To confirm that the measured fura-2 fluorescence reflect  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ , we applied the protonophore FCCP (2.5  $\mu$ M) to dissipate the mitochondrial membrane potential ( $\Psi_m$ ) and therefore the driving force for the mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uniporter (the main mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  influx pathway). Figure 2B shows that FCCP abolished the rise in fura-2 ratio induced by raising  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  to 800 nM (in  $Na^+$ -free solution). This demonstrates that the fura-2 fluorescence changes under our conditions depend on an intact  $\Psi_m$  and are therefore a valid measure of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ .

Since fluorescent indicator properties can depend on environment [17] we performed in situ calibration of mitochondrially compartmentalized fura-2 in rat ventricular myocytes (Fig. 2C–D). Myocytes were equilibrated with solutions of different  $[Ca^{2+}]$  (0–95  $\mu$ M containing  $Ca^{2+}$  ionophore ionomycin (3  $\mu$ M), the protonophore FCCP (10  $\mu$ M) to collapse  $\Psi_m$ , and oligomycin (20  $\mu$ g/mL) to inhibit the  $F_1F_0$ ATP-synthase). We found an in situ  $K_d$  of 170 nM in this experiment and results were very consistent among cells ( $K_d = 170 \pm 0.3$  nM,  $n = 3$ ).

### Steady-state dependence of $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ on cytosolic $[Ca^{2+}]$

Next, we determined the steady-state dependence of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  on the  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  in the presence of 10 mM  $[Na^+]_i$  with  $Ca^{2+}$  buffered by 5 mM EGTA. This EGTA concentration allows the precise control of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  and prevents spontaneous SR  $Ca^{2+}$  releases (which are examined below). The internal solution contained no ATP or ADP and contained 15 mM BDM to avoid cell contraction at high  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ .

Fig. 3A shows background corrected  $F_{340}$  and  $F_{380}$  immediately after permeabilization (at 3 min in Fig. 3A), in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free internal solution (10 min) followed by 10 min at 429 nM  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ . After reaching steady-state, a two point calibration was performed using  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free and high  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  solution (50–100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) with ionomycin (3  $\mu\text{M}$ ), oligomycin (20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), and FCCP (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) to determine  $R_{\min}$ ,  $R_{\max}$ ,  $F_{380-\max}$  and  $F_{380-\min}$ . Using these and the measured in situ  $K_d$ , the fura-2 fluorescence was transformed into  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  (Fig. 3B; using the equation in Fig. 2D legend). Figure 3C shows the steady-state  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  vs.  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  relationship. Below an apparent threshold of  $\sim 300$  nM  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ ,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  had a very shallow dependence on  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  and increased only very little as  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  increased. At cytosolic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i > \sim 300$  nM,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  showed a steep dependence on  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  and exceeded  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  for  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i > 500$  nM.

### Mitochondrial $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ uptake during spontaneous SR $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ release

While these steady-state measurements provide a solid foundation, we next sought to test how  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  changes during phasic SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events which may better mimic mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  regulation *in vivo*. By reducing [EGTA] to 50  $\mu\text{M}$  and with  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i = 150$  nM (and physiological internal solution) spontaneous SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves) occurred at a regular frequency of 5–15  $\text{min}^{-1}$ .

Fig. 4A shows a typical continuous  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  recording (gray trace) and cell contraction (black trace) starting after permeabilization. For this experiment,  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$  was 15 mM and 40  $\mu\text{M}$  Cytochalasin-D was added to reduce, but not abolish cell contraction during cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves. The small residual contractions were used to measure SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave occurrence. The inset in Fig. 4A shows a  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  transient with curve-fit and cell contraction. Because the fura-2 loaded cardiomyocytes were incubated in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free solution before permeabilization and permeabilized in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free internal solution,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  was very low at the beginning of the measurement.  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  was stable at  $\sim 57$  nM during the first 10 sec before the first  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave occurred. The first 3 contractions after permeabilization in Fig. 4A were associated with step-wise increases in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  without substantial mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  extrusion. Only in subsequent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients did mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  extrusion become evident (as a declining phase of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ ).  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  gradually increased to  $\sim 110$  nM after 8 waves and to 216 nM after 20 waves. Control experiments using TMRM to assess  $\Psi_m$ , showed no appreciable change in  $\Psi_m$  during the phasic or integrated rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ .

To test whether SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release was responsible for this dynamic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  uptake we inhibited SR function (Fig. 4B–D). To limit cellular photo damage and allow long-term  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  measurements over 20 min, we measured  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  every 15 s for a duration of 2 s (each point in Fig. 4B–E is average  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  during the 2 s).

Fig. 4B shows that blocking SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake by pretreatment with the specific SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ATPase (SERCA) inhibitor thapsigargin (1  $\mu\text{M}$  for 30 min before permeabilization to deplete SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) nearly abolished the rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ . Under these conditions no spontaneous SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release events occurred and the small residual rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  to  $\sim 54$  nM is explained by the slow steady-state equilibration at the ambient 150 nM  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  (in this case with  $[\text{Na}^+]_i = 0$  which inhibits  $\text{NCX}_m$ ). Figure 4C–D shows that either acute SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  depletion with 10 mM caffeine or inhibition of SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release by 2 mM tetracaine terminated the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rise abruptly. Notably, in both cases  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves ceased, but  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  failed to decline in the  $\text{Na}^+$ -free solution ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  declines less than 5 nM/min,  $n=3$ ), consistent with a dominant role of  $\text{NCX}_m$  in mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  extrusion. Selective blockade of the mitochondrial uniporter with Ru360 (Fig. 4E) also stopped the rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ , although spontaneous cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves continued.

These results demonstrate that the observed mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake occurs as a direct consequence of SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release (we maintain the structural organization of the cardiac

myocyte regarding the crosstalk between the SR and mitochondria), and that the major  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx pathway under these conditions is the mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uniporter.

### Quantitative analysis of the rise of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ per beat

In Figures 4C and 4D  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  failed to decline in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free solution after  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients were blocked by caffeine or tetracaine. Figure 5A shows that with 15 mM  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$ , caffeine still abruptly stopped the rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  (filled circles), but  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  then declined exponentially ( $\tau=3.4$  min) to reach the same level as seen in the steady-state measurement protocol (with the same  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$ , open circles). This shows that mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is removed effectively via a  $\text{Na}^+$ -dependent pathway when mitochondrial  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake is stopped.

Figure 5B shows representative experiments monitoring the rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  and the number of spontaneous contractions ( $\pm 15$  mM  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$ ). In the absence of  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$  the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rose linearly until the calibration was initiated. In contrast, with 15 mM  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$ , the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  increased linearly initially, but then reached a steady-state within  $\sim 15$  min. This demonstrates that  $\text{Na}^+$ -dependent  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  removal is required to allow  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  to reach a steady-state during regular SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release. The rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  per SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release ( $\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}/\text{wave}$ ) can be calculated from the linear part of the uptake measurements. The rate of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rise in the absence and presence of  $\text{Na}^+$  during the indicated 35 and 17 beats in Fig. 5B was 3.1 and 1.8 nM/wave, respectively. Mean data in Fig. 5C show this rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}/\text{wave}$  to be  $3.6 \pm 1.5$  nM ( $n=16$ ) and  $2.2 \pm 1.1$  nM ( $n=19$ ) in the absence and presence of 15 mM  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$ , respectively.

Figure 5D shows that abrupt block of the  $\text{NCX}_m$  with 5  $\mu\text{M}$  CGP-37157 during the rising phase of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  with 15 mM  $[\text{Na}^+]_i$  increased the rate of rise of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  per wave. The mean acceleration induced by CGP-37157 in 4 cells was 74%, similar to the 63% higher rate of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rise per wave in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free solution in Fig. 5C.

### Spatially resolved $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ measurements during SR $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ release

The above calibrated  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  measurements with fura-2 and measures of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rise per  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave allows us to extend these studies with additional spatio-temporal detail using confocal microscopy and the cationic fluorescent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  indicator rhod-2 (which is less readily calibrated). Figure 6A shows a rhod-2 loaded cardiomyocyte 5 min after permeabilization after  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  has risen by  $\sim 50$  nM (see Fig. 6B). The movie (in Online Supplement) shows the pulsatile emergence of the clear mitochondrial pattern as  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  and rhod-2 fluorescence rise. We focused our analysis on intermyofibrillar mitochondria because some subsarcolemmal mitochondria were less consistent.

Figure 6B shows mitochondrial fluorescence during  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  waves ( $5\text{--}6$  min $^{-1}$ ) from two large regions of interest (ROI1 and 2 in Fig. 6A) at opposite ends of the cell. As in Fig. 4A,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  increased during the first transients in a step-like manner without appreciable  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  decay. The rhod-2 fluorescence changes in ROI 1 and ROI 2 were very similar (and like the whole cell), suggesting that  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  is relatively homogeneous when a large fraction of the cellular mitochondria is compared. Additionally, the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  peaks in ROI 1 and 2 were within 1 s of each other, indicating relatively homogeneous cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  changes.

Using the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  gain per  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  wave measured with fura-2 (2.2 nM/wave; Fig. 5C), we infer that the  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  rise for the 13 transients indicated was 28.6 nM for both ROI 1 and ROI 2. This indicates that one fluorescence unit reflects a  $\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  of  $\sim 1.44$  nM  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ . Next, we used this approximation to estimate  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  changes in two smaller ROIs (Fig. 6C, ROI 3 and 4 shown in Fig. 6A). These smaller ROIs (with only 3 mitochondria) differed slightly. ROI 3 showed a linear increase much like ROI 1 and 2, whereas  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$

in ROI4 reached a plateau after gaining ~60 nM in 3 min. The upstroke amplitudes of individual  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients in the inset of Fig. 6C were ~10–12 nM (for the 3 indicated transients). These results suggest that individual mitochondria or small clusters of mitochondria can respond differently to a homogenous cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  transient and that the amplitudes of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients are much smaller (~100x) than the amplitude of bulk cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  transients.

### Kinetics of $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ changes during SR $Ca^{2+}$ release

To enhance temporal resolution, we used line-scan confocal microscopy along a 40.5  $\mu$ m line (~20 mitochondria). Figure 7A shows  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  which rose to a steady-state within a small number of  $Ca^{2+}$  waves (expanded time scale in Fig. 7B; typical of 5 other cells). Figure 7Ab shows the  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  rise and fall amplitudes for each beat. The first  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transient had a large upstroke and small decline amplitude, leading to a large rise in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  with little decay in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  (Fig. 7B#1). As mitochondria gained  $Ca^{2+}$  (Fig. 7Ad), upstroke amplitudes decreased and decline amplitudes increased until influx and efflux balanced (Fig. 7B#6 and #11) and  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  stopped increasing. The time constant of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  decay was typically 2.5–5 s (Fig. 7B). At steady-state,  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients were very small. Thus, mitochondria can rapidly follow cytosolic  $[Ca^{2+}]$  changes when  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  is low, but during steady-state,  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  does not change appreciably in response to cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  transients.

In the next experiments, we compared the kinetics of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  and  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  transients, simultaneously measured with mitochondrial rhod-2 and cytosolic fura-2 using the confocal line-scan mode (fura-2 salt was in the cytosolic solution). Figure 8A shows a typical experiment starting 40 s after permeabilization (with expanded traces in Fig. 8B with fura-2 signal inverted). The  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  signals in Fig. 8 were not calibrated, but parallel calibrated experiments with the same protocol showed Ca transients of 1.3–2.5  $\mu$ M (i.e. typical of spontaneous waves in intact myocytes). Time-to-peak for  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  and  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  transients is shown in Fig. 8Ab (note that this is the rise time for each trace independently). The delay between the  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  and  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  peaks (peak-to-peak) and start-to-start delays are shown in Fig. 8Ac.

Figure 8B shows that  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  transients preceded  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients. On average,  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  started to rise  $111 \pm 60$  ms before  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ .  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  rose to peak in  $213 \pm 59$  ms, whereas  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  rose slightly slower (in  $275 \pm 86$  ms,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 25$  transients, 3 cells, Fig. 8C). Due to the later start and the slower upstroke,  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  peaked  $177 \pm 72$  ms after  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  (Fig. 8C).  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  decline was dramatically slower than  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  decline (time constant were  $2.8 \pm 0.7$  s vs.  $0.19 \pm 0.06$  s, respectively, Fig. 8C). Additionally, the time constant of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  decline was relatively constant from transient-to-transient suggesting that extrusion was not activated by increasing  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  (Fig. 8Ad).

## Discussion

Cardiac mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake may be important in controlling energy supply-demand balance (via activation of mitochondrial dehydrogenases), protecting myocytes from transient  $Ca^{2+}$  overload and mediating cell death pathways (necrosis or apoptosis) [14,18–20]. Mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake occurs in response to elevated  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  (which in heart occurs transiently with each beat) and it is increasingly clear that some  $Ca^{2+}$  enters the mitochondria with each heartbeat [21–25]. However, most prior studies of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  in cardiac myocytes lack calibration, and in some cases contamination of the  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  signal by cytosolic indicator has not been completely ruled out. These aspects limit the quantitative understanding of mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  regulation, and motivated the present study. Here we show carefully calibrated  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  signals in permeabilized cardiac myocytes both at rest (where we characterized the steady-state  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  vs.  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  relationship) and during regular SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release events. We find that the largest rise in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  during a local SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release

is ~10 nM (e.g. when  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  begins very low), and the rise occurs rapidly (275 ms time to peak) within a 100–200 ms delay of the rise in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ . However, the  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  decline is ten times slower than that of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  (2.8 vs. 0.19 s time constant). The slow  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  decline between beats leads to integration of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  (even at the low frequency of spontaneous  $Ca^{2+}$  waves here) to a level many times higher than the amplitude of a single  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transient. While we acknowledge that these myocytes are not in a truly physiological setting, these results provide useful novel quantitative data to help understanding mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  balance in cardiac myocytes.

### Limitations

We have measured  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  in quantitative detail in a relatively physiological mitochondrial environment using saponin-permeabilized myocytes, selective mitochondrial ratiometric  $Ca^{2+}$  indicator and intrinsic spontaneous large SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release events [26–28]. However, the control gained by permeabilization makes the situation less physiological in several ways. First, small diffusible molecules may be lost by the myocyte, and we cannot rule out that this could alter regulation of mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  transport mechanisms (although the impact of this is unknown). Second, it is possible that the saponin exposure changes the physical geometry between the SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release junctions and the mitochondria. While we have no reason to expect this, it also cannot be ruled out. Third, and perhaps most important, we are limited in the frequency of SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release events, to that which occurs spontaneously (up to ~0.2 Hz). This is much lower than the frequency of the normal heartbeat (even at our sub-physiological 23°C). At higher frequencies, we would expect more dramatic  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  integration (i.e.  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  would rise higher at steady-state), but we do not expect that would increase the transient  $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  associated with a single SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release. Indeed, the phasic components might be expected to be smaller at higher  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  in the steady-state (as in cases here as the steady-state is approached in Fig. 7 and 8). Fourth, the spontaneous SR  $Ca^{2+}$  releases occur as propagated waves (which travel at ~100  $\mu\text{m/s}$ ) through the cytosol. While this will spread out the time course of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  and  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  kinetics, it should do so in a parallel manner, such that relative comparisons are still well justified. Furthermore, our most critical kinetic analysis is done in local regions containing 3–30 mitochondria, where this concern is less of a limitation. One might also wonder if the local SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release during these waves may be less than during physiological  $Ca^{2+}$  transients. However, these events occur only at high SR  $Ca^{2+}$  loads, and if anything are likely to be higher at the local level than the normal physiological  $Ca^{2+}$  transient [29]. On the other hand, using permeabilized cells allows the measurement of purely mitochondrially derived fluorescence without having to deal with potential problems associated with  $Mn^{2+}$ -quench (e.g. inhibition of the mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  transport or inhibition of oxidative phosphorylation by  $Mn^{2+}$ ) [3,30], an approach which has been used to minimize cytosolic fluorescence [31,32]. Thus, while trade-offs are required for the quantitative confidence we have in our results, this work is highly relevant for understanding physiological mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  regulation.

### Quantitative changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$

Our experiments start from  $Ca^{2+}$  depleted mitochondria, because of pre-incubation in low  $[Ca^{2+}]_o$  prior to permeabilization and permeabilization in  $Ca^{2+}$ -free solution. Starting from this low level, we see the largest increases of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  during the first several  $Ca^{2+}$  transients. Note that the  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  signals usually do not change appreciably (see Fig. 8A), so the change in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients is not secondary to  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  transient differences. The first few  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients have the largest rising phases and often exhibit little decline (consistent with little  $Ca^{2+}$  efflux at very low  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ ). Indeed, some of the slight decline in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  in the first transient in Fig. 8 might be due to buffering of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ . Notably, the rising phase of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  becomes much smaller (almost 10 times, Fig. 8Ab) as integrated  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  approaches steady-state. This might be partly due to faster  $Ca^{2+}$  extrusion as



$[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  rises. However, because the  $Ca^{2+}$  efflux kinetics are so slow ( $\tau=2.8$  s even at higher  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ ; Fig. 8Ad), speeding efflux by 2-fold should only reduce amplitude <10%. Thus the reduced amplitude may also reflect reduced  $Ca^{2+}$  influx (although the mechanism is not obvious). We also showed that  $NCX_m$  is required for  $Ca^{2+}$  efflux from mitochondria.  $[Na^+]_i$  was held constant here at 15 mM, but when  $[Na^+]_i$  changes physiologically this would be expected to alter the steady-state  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  and rate of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  decline [23,33]. In any event, at steady-state (where  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  stops rising) influx and efflux must be the same and both appear to be much lower than the maximal rising phase of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  when influx starts.

The maximal rise of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  during a single SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release is  $\sim 10$  nM (Fig. 6C) with typical rise values of 2–4 nM (Fig. 5D). If we assume that intra-mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  buffering is 100:1 (as in cytosol), and use the highest value (10 nM) this would translate to 1  $\mu$ M rise in total mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  content, which corresponds to removal of 0.5  $\mu$ mol/l cytosol. Surprisingly, this agrees well with Bassani et al. estimates of the quantitative contribution of mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake to removal of cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  during E-C coupling by analysis of  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  decline by different  $Ca^{2+}$  transporters in intact rat ventricular myocytes [13]. They found that  $\sim 75$   $\mu$ mol/l cytosol of  $Ca^{2+}$  were added and removed to the cytosol at a normal  $Ca^{2+}$  transient, and that about 1% was removed by the combination of mitochondria plus sarcolemmal  $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPase (0.8  $\mu$ mol/l cytosol) which contribute about equally with each other [34]. Given the completely different methods and limitations, the quantitative agreement encourages us to think we are close to correct.

### Local vs. global $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ drives mitochondrial $Ca^{2+}$ uptake

Several studies have suggested that mitochondria are in close physical proximity to the sites of SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release and consequently that SR (or endoplasmic reticulum)  $Ca^{2+}$  release has preferential access to drive mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake [7,35–39]. Indeed, Sharma *et al.* [36] showed that 1 mM BAPTA (a fast  $Ca^{2+}$  buffer), which reduced the caffeine-induced rise in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  by 90% in permeabilized rat myocytes, only decreased the mitochondrial rhod-2 signal by 23%. Our results are consistent with this general idea and provide some quantitative context in terms of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ . Note that when we abruptly switch bath  $[Ca^{2+}]$  from 0 to 429 nM (heavy  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  buffering; Fig. 3B) or pretreat myocyte with thapsigargin (Fig. 4B) the rate of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  rise is linear over several minutes (0.1–0.7 nM/s). This is much slower than during an SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release 36 nM/s (10 nM/0.275 s), where global  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  is only transiently raised to a slightly higher level (0.5–1  $\mu$ M  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ ). This suggests that phasic mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  influx must be driven in large part by the higher local (vs. global)  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  during SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release. This makes sense with the high  $K_{0.5}$  for  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  of the mCU [3], which is required for the observed mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake seen here. We can look at this another way. The 20  $Ca^{2+}$  waves during the 2 min in Fig. 4A only raise average  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  from 150 to 200 nM (assuming each has peak  $[Ca^{2+}]_i \sim 1$   $\mu$ M with kinetics as in Fig. 8). Based on the data in Fig. 3C and with thapsigargin in Fig. 4B, this small rise in global  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  alone could not increase  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  to 200 nM. So the SR Ca release events are clearly important drivers of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  rise.

Two points should be borne in mind here. First, while high local SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release accelerates mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake, the total amount is still small compared to SR  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake or  $Na^+/Ca^{2+}$  exchange in cardiac myocytes [13]. Second, while one end of a large mitochondrion may be close to the site of SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release (e.g. 37–270 nm; [36]) the other end of a typical intramyofibrillar mitochondrion is  $\sim 1$   $\mu$ m away, at the middle of the sarcomere. Considering the overall mitochondrial geometry, the average place on the mitochondrion within the sarcomere probably senses a similar local  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  as does the cytosol. Thus, there may be preferential local  $Ca^{2+}$  influx on the end of a mitochondrion that is very close to an SR  $Ca^{2+}$

release unit, but this may be diluted and buffered strongly in the whole mitochondrion. Sub-mitochondrial  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  gradients might even exist, at least transiently.

### Phasic vs. integrative signaling

Our  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  dependence on  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  in highly buffered solutions agrees fairly well with and validates the classical studies in isolated mitochondria [40] and of Miyata *et al.* [31] who used  $Mn^{2+}$  to quench cytosolic indo-1 during slow  $Ca^{2+}$  transients mediated by  $Na^+/Ca^{2+}$  exchange (rather than SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release; compare our Fig. 3C with their Fig. 7B). Thus, Fig. 3C represents well the static quasi-equilibrium relationship. It seems clear that Fig. 3C is a good representation of the static quasi-equilibrium relationship. While helpful, this alone does not inform the question of dynamic  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  regulation during SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release.

Experimental data in favor of both “slow integrating” and “phasic” theories of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  changes during Ca transients were summarized by Dedkova and Blatter [8]. Among recent studies, rapid switches in  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  simulating  $Ca^{2+}$  transients in permeabilized cat ventricular myocytes by Sedova *et al.* [12] supports a “slow integrating” model, whereas in guinea-pig cardiomyocytes Maack *et al.* [23] observed rapid mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  transients during every cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  transient elicited by voltage clamp pulses to initiate SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release. While these were both uncalibrated  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  measurements they indicate extremes. Sometimes phasic  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients have not been detected [12,31,32]. This could be either because the very small  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients were simply below the detection limit, or because local SR Ca release events were not used (and may be essential as above). There may also be species differences in resting  $[Na^+]_i$  or mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  transport, such that beat-to-beat changes in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  have been seen in guinea-pig [41,42], but not in rat [22,43] and hamster [44,45]. The apparently large  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients observed by Maack *et al.* [23] in guinea-pig myocytes (which seem to even limit  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  transients) are convincing, but seem to require PKA activation and strong cellular  $Ca^{2+}$  loading. We were unable to demonstrate substantially larger  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients here by including cAMP to activate PKA (not shown).

Our work suggests that both phasic and integrative changes in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  occur, and we have added some quantitative framework to better understand the amplitude and kinetics of these components of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  control.

### Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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### Abbreviations

SR	Sarcoplasmic reticulum
$[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$	Intra-mitochondrial free $Ca^{2+}$ concentration
$[Ca^{2+}]_i$	Cytosolic $Ca^{2+}$ concentration
mCU	Mitochondrial $Ca^{2+}$ uniporter

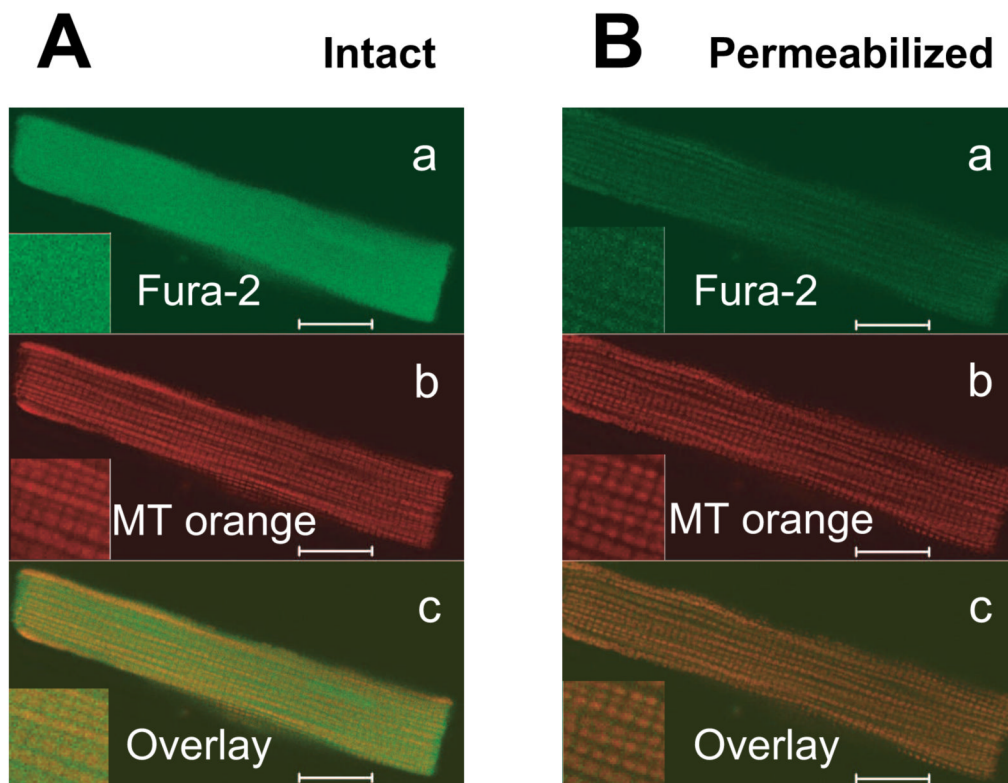
<b>RaM</b>	Rapide mode of $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ uptake
<b>NCX<sub>m</sub></b>	Mitochondrial $\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -exchanger
<b>[Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub></b>	Cytosolic $\text{Na}^+$ concentration
<b>EC</b>	Excitation-contraction
<b>RT</b>	room temperature
<b>F<sub>c</sub></b>	$\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -insensitive, isosbestic signal

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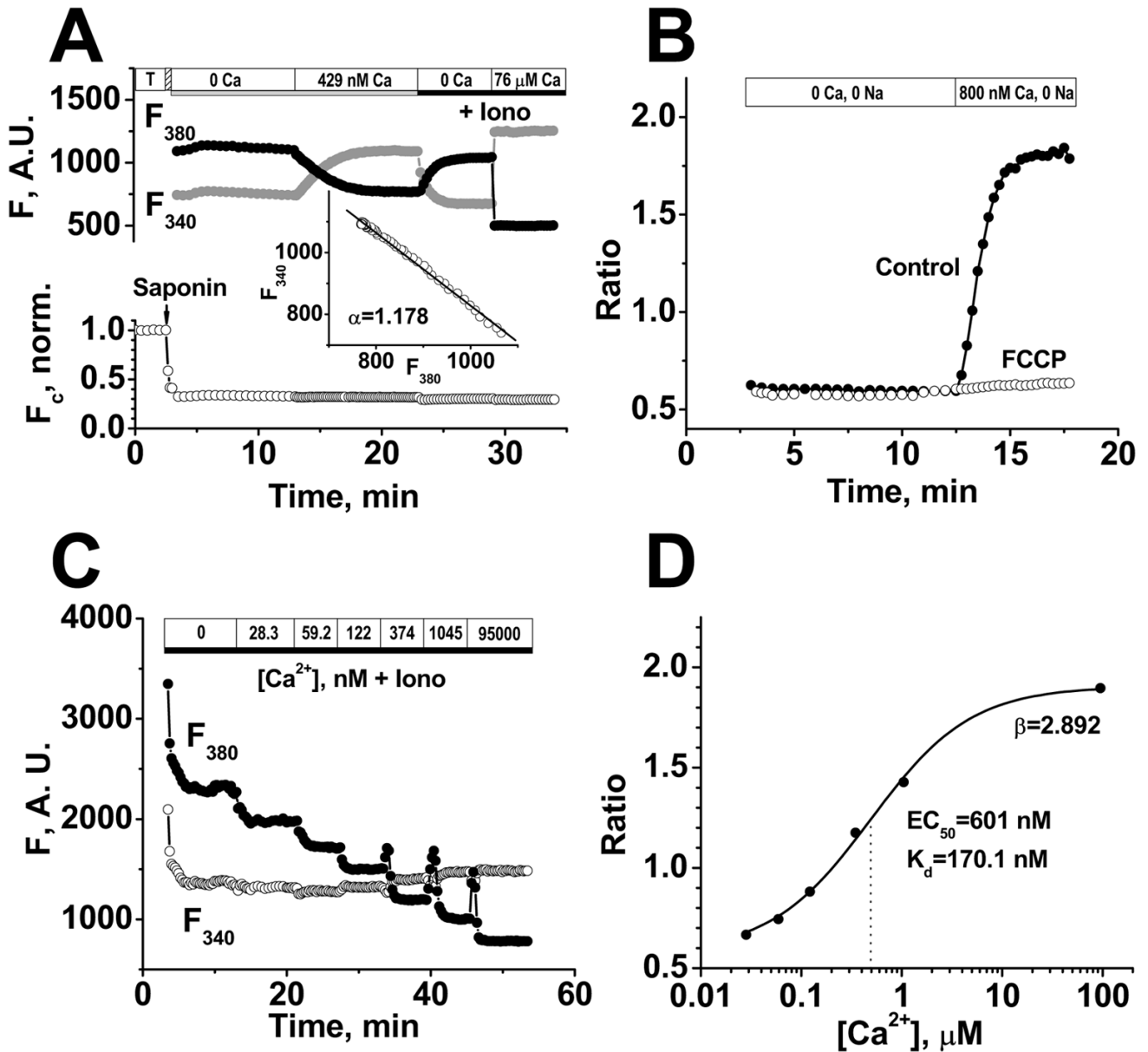
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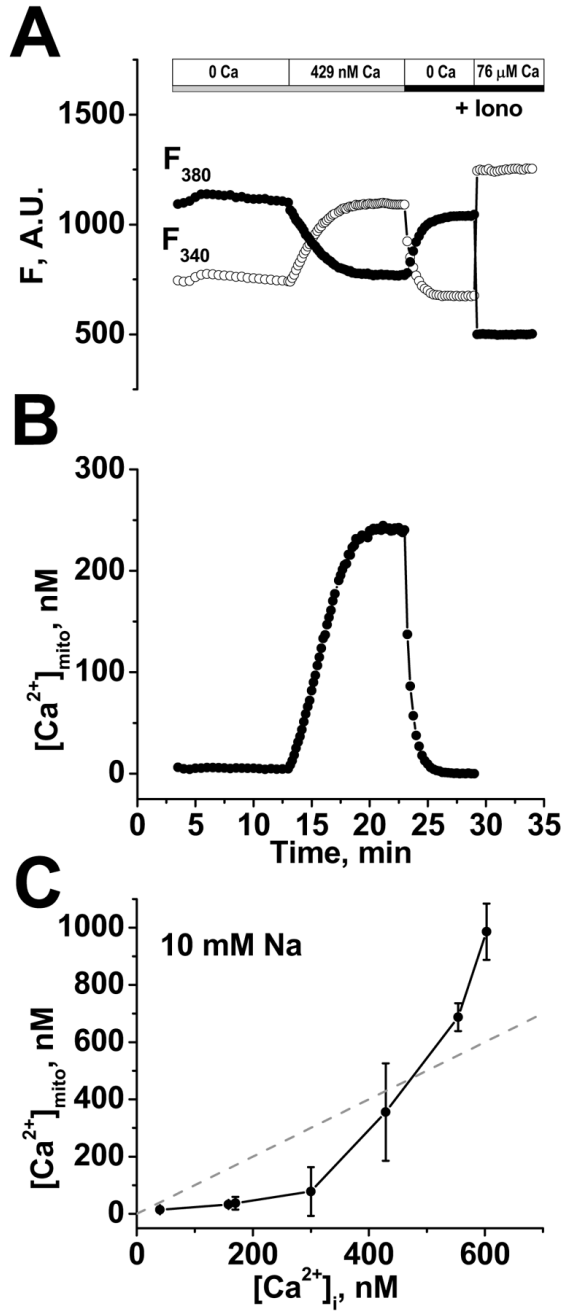
**Figure 1. Mitochondrial localization of fura-2 in permeabilized myocytes**

Confocal images of intact rat ventricular cardiomyocyte simultaneously loaded with fura-2 and Mitotracker Orange before (A) and after sarcolemmal permeabilization by saponin (B). Top panels (a) are fura-2 signals, middle panels (b) are Mitotracker Orange, showing typical mitochondrial pattern and lower panels (c) show merged images. Fura-2 only colocalizes with mitochondria after permeabilization. Scale bars are equal 10  $\mu\text{m}$ .



**FIGURE 2. Mitochondrial free  $[Ca^{2+}]$  measurements with fura-2**

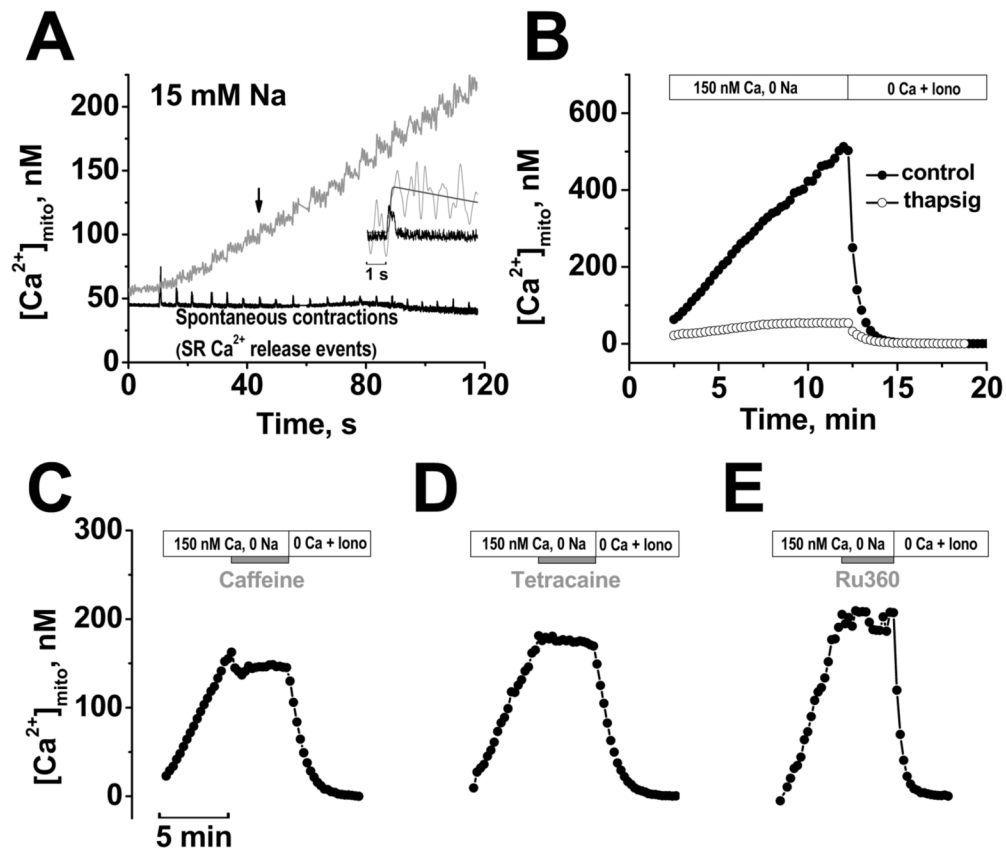
A, Top traces show background-corrected fura-2 fluorescence at 340 and 380 nm excitation after permeabilization. The inset shows plot of  $F_{340}$  vs.  $F_{380}$  as  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  varies to determine  $\alpha$  and allows measurement of  $F_c$  ( $Ca^{2+}$ -independent fura-2 fluorescence) in bottom normalized trace showing loss of 70% of fura-2 upon permeabilization. B, Rise in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  in the presence of 800 nM  $Ca^{2+}$  and in the absence of  $Na^+$  ( $\pm 2.5 \mu M$  FCCP added 2 min prior to increasing  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ ). C, *In situ* calibration of background subtracted fura-2 fluorescence in permeabilized cells in the presence of 3  $\mu M$  ionomycin (Iono), 10  $\mu M$  FCCCP and 20  $\mu g/mL$  oligomycin. D, Fura-2 ratio dependence on  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  for data in C fit to  $[Ca^{2+}] = K_d\beta(R-R_{min})/(R_{max}-R)$ , where  $EC_{50} = K_d\beta$  and  $\beta = F_{380-max}/F_{380-min}$ .



**FIGURE 3. Steady-state dependence of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  on  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$**

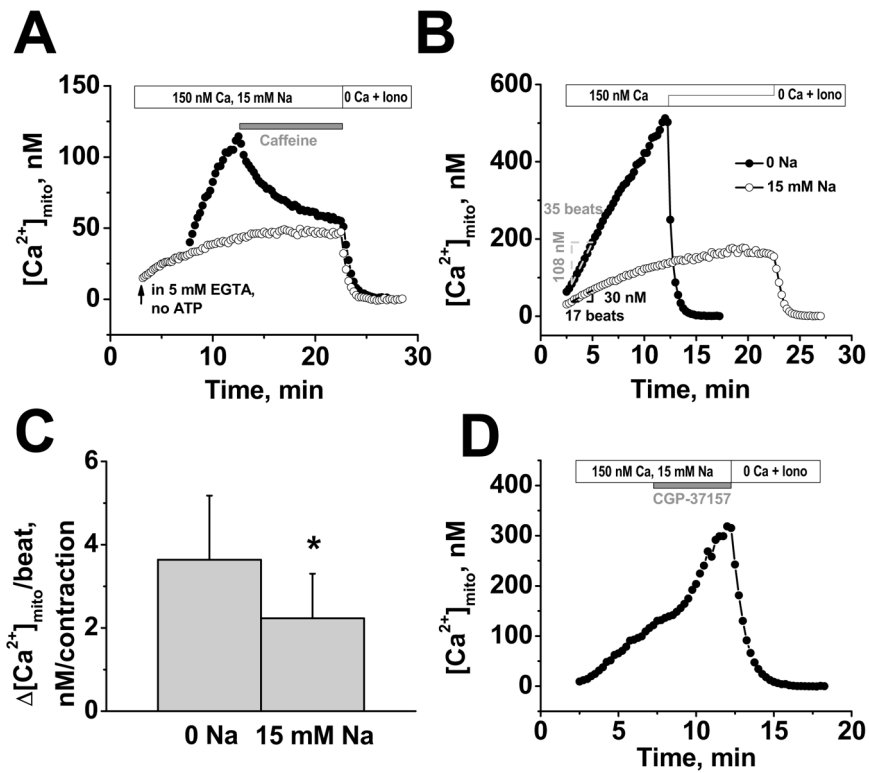
A, example of background-corrected raw  $F_{340}$  and  $F_{380}$  380 nm signals, where  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  was raised from 0 to 429 nM, with  $R_{min}$  and  $R_{max}$  measured at the end using ionophores (Iono). B, calibrated  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  calculated from A. C, Steady-state dependence of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  on  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  in the presence of 10 mM  $Na^+$  (Mean  $\pm$ SD, n=3–7 myocytes).





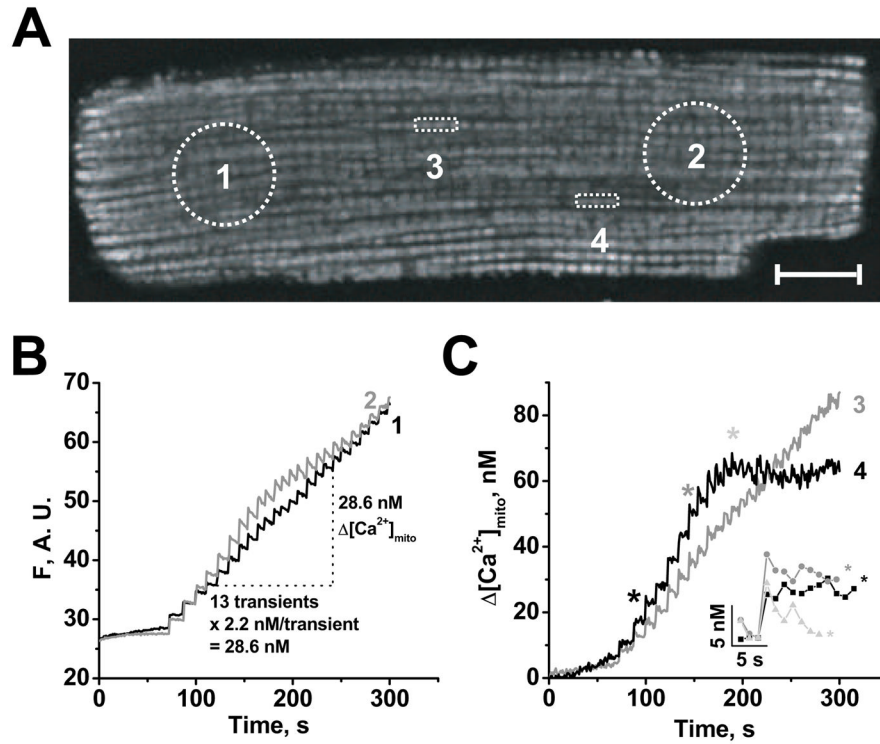
**FIGURE 4.  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  during cyclical SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release**

A, Simultaneous recording of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  (grey) and contractions (black) in the presence of 150 nM  $Ca^{2+}$  and 15 mM  $Na^+$ . 40  $\mu$ M cytochalasin D was included to limit contraction. Inset shows expanded superimposed traces for the 7<sup>th</sup> contraction (traces smoothed by fast Fourier transform). B,  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  under control conditions and after pretreated with 1  $\mu$ M thapsigargin for 30 min. Mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake was halted by acute application of 10 mM caffeine (C), 2 mM tetracaine (D), or 1  $\mu$ M Ru360 (E). Each experiment ended with  $Ca^{2+}$ -free solution with ionophores (Iono) to start calibration.



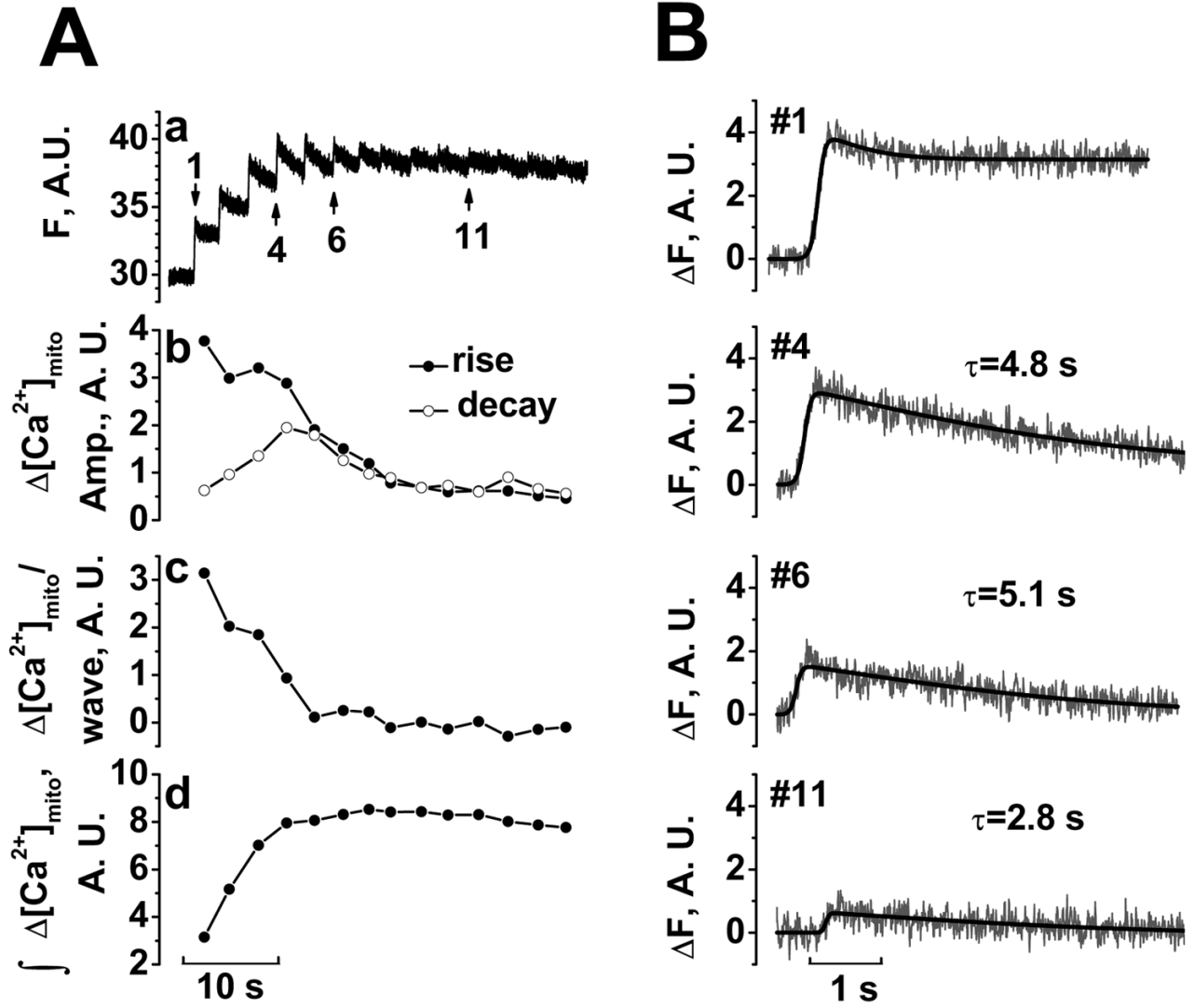
**FIGURE 5. Calibrated rise in  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  per beat and  $[Na^+]_i$ -dependence**

A, 10 mM caffeine stops  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$ , but with 15 mM  $Na^+$   $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  declines (filled symbols); mitochondrial  $Ca^{2+}$  uptake in presence of 5 mM EGTA (empty symbols). B, examples of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  increase per contraction ( $\pm 15$  mM  $Na^+$ ). C, Average increase of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  per contraction ( $\pm 15$  mM  $Na^+$ ). D, Blockade of  $NCX_m$  (5  $\mu$ M CGP-37157) increases rate of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  rise in presence of 15 mM  $Na^+$ . Each experiment ended with  $Ca^{2+}$ -free solution with ionophores (Iono) to start calibration.



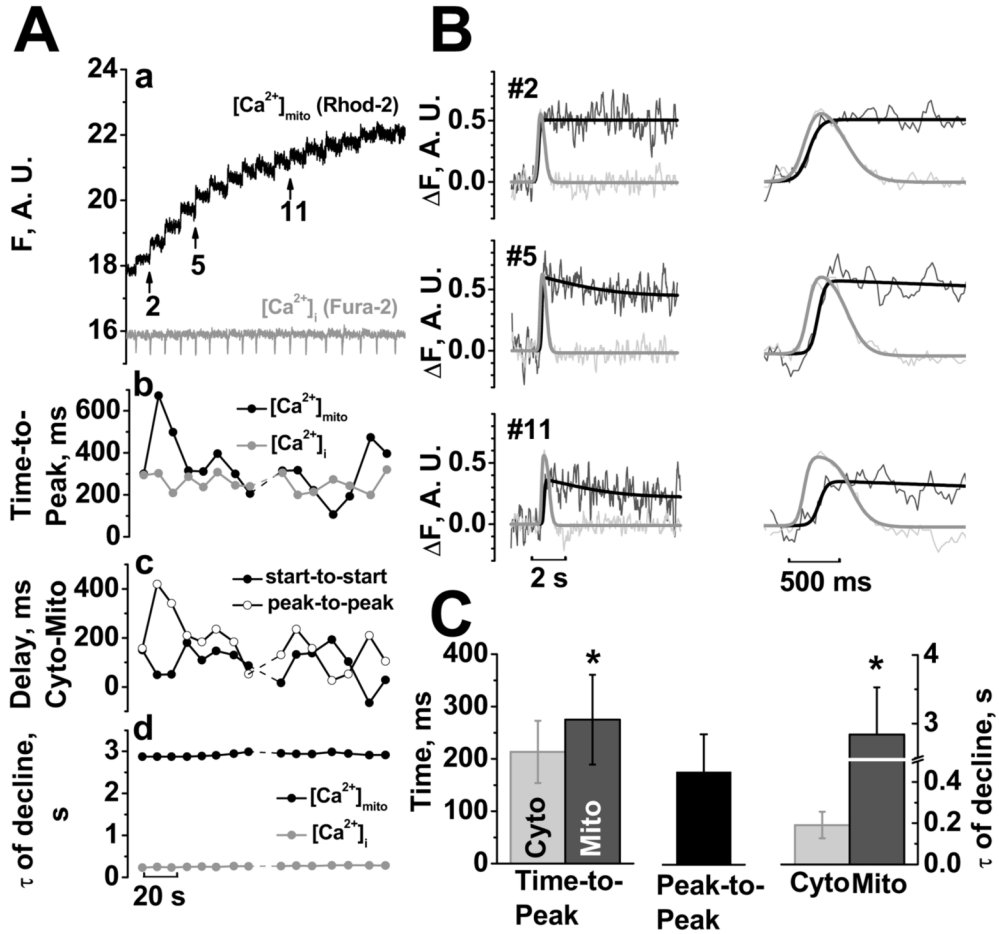
**FIGURE 6. Spatially resolved  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  during SR  $Ca^{2+}$  release**

A, confocal image of permeabilized rat ventricular myocyte loaded with 10  $\mu$ M rhod-2 AM, after 5 min of spontaneous  $Ca^{2+}$  transients in 15 mM  $Na^+$  (with 80  $\mu$ M cytochalasin D) with 4 regions of interest (ROI) indicated. Scale bar is equal 10  $\mu$ m. B-C, Time courses of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  in 4 ROIs, either as fluorescence (F in arbitrary units, B) or calibrated  $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  (C) using averaged  $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}/beat$  from Fig. 5C (see B and text). C, ROI 3 and 4 contain 3 mitochondria and inset shows the indicated  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  transients expanded.



**FIGURE 7. Mitochondrial  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  balance during SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release**

Aa,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  measured in line-scan images in permeabilized myocyte loaded with  $5 \mu\text{M}$  rhod-2 AM in  $15 \text{ mM Na}^+$  (with  $80 \mu\text{M}$  cytochalasin D; subjected to 5 point smoothing). Ab, Amplitudes of rise (filled symbols) and decay phase (empty symbols). Ac, Net gain in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$  per wave. Ad, Integral of change in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{\text{mito}}$ . B, Expanded and curve fitting for the transients indicated in A.



**FIGURE 8. Kinetics of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  vs.  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  signals**

Aa,  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  and  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  measured in line-scan images in permeabilized myocyte with mitochondrial rhod-2 and 5  $\mu$ M cytosolic fura-2 salt (15 mM  $Na^+$ , 80  $\mu$ M cytochalasin D, 5 point smoothing). Ab, Time-to-Peak (rise time for either  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  or  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ ). Ac, Delay of  $[Ca^{2+}]_{mito}$  after  $[Ca^{2+}]_i$  as start-to-start and peak-to-peak, Ad, time constant  $\tau$  of decline. B, Curve fitting and expanded mitochondrial (black) and cytosolic (grey) transients indicated in Aa. C, Difference in mitochondrial and cytosolic kinetics (n=3 cells, 25 transients).