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Redox Nanodomains are Induced by and Control Calcium Signaling at the ER-mitochondrial Interface

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Abstract

The ER-mitochondrial interface is central to calcium signaling, organellar dynamics and lipid biosynthesis. The ER and mitochondrial membranes also host sources and targets of reactive oxygen species (ROS) but their local dynamics and relevance remained elusive since measurement and perturbation of ROS at the organellar interface has proven difficult. Employing drug-inducible synthetic ER-mitochondrial linkers, we overcame this problem and demonstrate that the ER-mitochondrial interface hosts a nanodomain of H₂O₂, which is induced by cytoplasmic [Ca²⁺] spikes and exert a positive feedback on calcium oscillations. H₂O₂ nanodomains originate from the mitochondrial cristae, which are compressed upon calcium signal propagation to the mitochondria, likely due to Ca²⁺-induced K⁺ and concomitant water influx to the matrix. Thus, ER-mitochondrial H₂O₂ nanodomains represent a novel component of inter-organelle communication, regulating calcium signaling and mitochondrial activities.

Graphical Abstract

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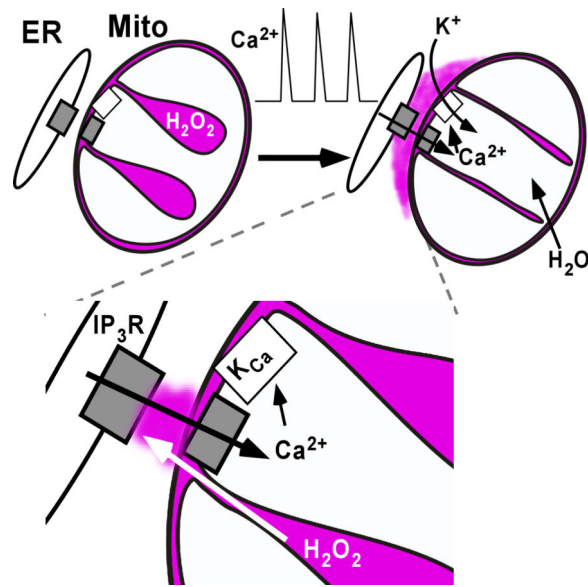
Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: D.B., and G.H.

Created new reagents: P.V., B.E., M.G.

Executed and analyzed the experiments: D.B.

Wrote the manuscript: D.B. and G.H.



Introduction

The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and mitochondria are tethered by robust physical linkages (Csordas et al., 2006), creating a nanometer-scale volume where sources of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and Ca^{2+} are gathered, supporting the formation of high Ca^{2+} microdomains during Ca^{2+} release events from channels residing in the ER membrane (Csordas et al., 2010; Giacomello et al., 2010; Rizzuto et al., 1993). Mitochondria require such microdomains to effectively uptake Ca^{2+} via the uniporter (Csordas et al., 1999; Kirichok et al., 2004; Rizzuto et al., 1998). Mitochondrial Ca^{2+} uptake controls both physiological and pathological processes, including aerobic metabolism (Duchen, 1992; Jouaville et al., 1999) and apoptosis (Szalai et al., 1999).

During ATP production, the electron transport chain (ETC) leaks electrons from complexes I/III forming ROS in the intermembrane space (IMS) where the oxidizing environment facilitates protein folding (Bader et al., 1999). Mitochondria-derived ROS were also measured in the cytoplasm and have been linked to both physiological and pathological mechanisms (Aon et al., 2003; Sena and Chandel, 2012; Umanskaya et al., 2014; Zorov et al., 2000). Like mitochondria, the ER hosts ROS production mechanisms which drive oxidative protein folding in the ER lumen (Araki et al., 2013) and cytoplasmic signaling pathways (Li et al., 2009). ROS are known to modulate ER Ca^{2+} transport mechanisms (Bansaghi et al., 2014; Bootman et al., 1992; Csordas and Hajnoczky, 2009; Prosser et al., 2011) but the role of mitochondrial or ER-derived ROS in local Ca^{2+} signaling remains elusive. A major reason for this is that measurement and manipulation of ROS at the close quarters of the ER-mitochondrial interface has been difficult.

Results

To overcome this problem, we used drug-inducible synthetic linkers to target fluorescent H_2O_2 sensors and ROS producers to the close associations of ER and mitochondria. This

strategy is based on drug-inducible linkers that we have recently created and validated for measuring $[Ca^{2+}]$ at the ER-mitochondrial close contacts (Csordas et al., 2010). Briefly, ER membrane (ER-M) and outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM) targeting sequences were linked to the 2 halves of the FKBP-FRB drug inducible heterodimerization system through a fluorescent protein each. The expressed constructs showed ER and mitochondrial distribution, respectively (Fig. 1A, upper). Upon addition of rapamycin the 2 linker halves became crosslinked and rapidly concentrated only at the sites where the 2 organelles are close to each other (Fig. 1A, lower). We have previously shown by FRET and ultrastructure analysis that linkers concentrate at the ER-mitochondrial interface without distorting ER morphology (Csordas et al., 2010). Here, we sought to further demonstrate the migration of the ER-M-targeted linker half molecules across the membrane surface to be trapped by OMM-targeted linker half molecules at pre-existing contact points in the presence of rapamycin. To this end, HepG2 cells were triple-transfected with ER-M-CFP-FRB, ER-lumen-GFP and OMM-RFP-FKBP and subjected to co-localization analysis by confocal microscopy (Fig. 1B&S1AB). Before rapamycin treatment, the ER-M linker half was mostly co-localized with the ER-lumen marker (Fig. 1B, cyan-green) and showed little co-localization with the OMM linker halves (cyan-red). Upon addition of rapamycin (for 4 min) the co-localization of the ER-M and ER-lumen probes decreased (Fig. 1B&S1B), whereas the co-localization between ER-M and OMM greatly increased (Fig. 1B) until rapamycin wash-out and further heterodimerization were blocked (FK506, 5 μ M). There was only a relatively small increase in the co-localization between the OMM-targeted linker half and the ER-lumen marker during rapamycin treatment (Fig. 1B, green-red). Quantitative analysis of the co-localization shows that the majority of the linkers became concentrated at the ER-mitochondrial associations and both the co-localization analysis and the images indicate that the ER morphology remained essentially unchanged during the rapamycin treatment (Fig. 1B upper vs. lower row, green). Images of the whole cell corresponding to the area shown in Fig. 1B and the rapamycin-induced separation of the ER-M linker half from the bulk ER marker are displayed in Fig. S1AB.

Next, we replaced the fluorescent proteins in the linker halves with a fluorescent ROS sensor. We selected HyPer because it is a monomeric, ratiometric probe that specifically, directly and reversibly senses H_2O_2 with high temporal resolution. To simplify the interpretation of data, we made paired measurements in every location with the recommended negative control probe, SypHer (Bilan and Belousov, 2016). SypHer is identical to HyPer except for the replacement of C199 with S199 rendering the protein H_2O_2 insensitive. Since, SypHer and HyPer, both share an identical YFP fluorophore core which displays a decrease in short wavelength absorption (415 nm) and corresponding increase in long wavelength (495 nm) absorption in response to alkaline conditions owing to a deprotonation of the fluorophore core, SypHer can be used as control for pH artifacts. The images in Fig. 1C show the rapamycin induced rearrangement of the ER-M-targeted HyPer from a broad ER distribution to colocalization with the OMM marker. After validation of the proper distribution, HyPer (or SypHer) was inserted into both the ER-M and OMM linker components.

HyPer fluorescence ratio was acutely sensitive to oxidation by exogenously added H_2O_2 (200 μ M) and subsequent reduction with dithiothreitol (DTT; 5 mM) (Fig. 1D). Sensitivity

to low μM concentrations of H_2O_2 was also validated in permeabilized cells (Fig. S1C). The fluorescence ratio for SypHer was similar to that for HyPer in untreated cells but did not respond to H_2O_2 or DTT addition (Fig. 1D). Thus, SypHer was confirmed as a negative control for HyPer and was included in all experiments to isolate the effects of H_2O_2 . In the pairs of HyPer and SypHer experiments, elevated HyPer ratio indicated exposure of the probe to H_2O_2 . When linker pairs were targeted to the interface with a pulse of rapamycin (100 nM, 3 min, FK506 wash, 5 μM) we detected moderate but significantly elevated H_2O_2 in unstimulated cells (Fig. 1E). However, when the same probes distributed along the entire membrane surfaces of the ER-M or OMM we saw no difference under resting conditions (Fig. 1E). Similarly, H_2O_2 was undetectable within the cytosol or surprisingly, the mitochondrial matrix (Fig. 1E). Notably, both HyPer and SypHer ratios were high in the mitochondrial matrix due to the alkaline pH. When targeted to the ER-lumen, HyPer was almost completely oxidized, consistent with the oxidized redox potential of the compartment (Fig. 1E) (Bilan and Belousov, 2016). Thus, these results indicated that the ER-mitochondrial interface is continuously exposed to a low level of H_2O_2 .

To determine the influence of Ca^{2+} in shaping the interface redox environment, we stimulated cells with an IP_3 -linked agonist and a SERCA inhibitor, thapsigargin (Tg), to elicit ER Ca^{2+} release. The Ca^{2+} release resulted in a $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ transient measured with the Ca^{2+} sensitive fluorophore fura2 (Fig. 2A upper). Parallel recordings with interface HyPer and SypHer showed an increase in the HyPer ratio and a decrease in the SypHer ratio, which indicated that the $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ elevation was accompanied by a rise in H_2O_2 (Fig. 2A). The decrease in the SypHer ratio likely reflected acidification that could result from Ca^{2+} -induced dissociation of H^+ from Ca^{2+} binding species. The H_2O_2 elevation followed the rise of the $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ signal before decreasing toward the baseline. The agonist-induced rise in H_2O_2 was detected only when HyPer was targeted to the interface by rapamycin pretreatment, whereas the acidification appeared regardless of the rapamycin pretreatment (Fig. S2A). Comparison of the interface targeted HyPer/SypHer with probes distributed uniformly across the OMM and ER surfaces (either only OMM-targeted or ER-M-targeted probe was expressed) respectively, confirmed that the H_2O_2 elevation was confined to the ER-mitochondrial interface (Fig. 2B). To test the specific contribution of the IP_3 receptors, the effect of Tg alone was also evaluated. Tg elicited a slower, less pronounced elevation of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ consistent with ER- Ca^{2+} leak and no change in the interface H_2O_2 (Fig. 2C). We quantified the area under the curve response $\text{HyPer/SypHer}_{\text{Stimulation}} - \text{HyPer/SypHer}_{\text{Baseline}}$ for each condition, which confirmed that a significant H_2O_2 response occurred only at the interface and only when the IP_3 receptor-mediated Ca^{2+} release was activated (Fig. 2D; * $p = < 0.05$). Other compartments, cytosol, ER-lumen and mitochondrial matrix were without elevations upon stimulation (Fig. S2B–D). Notably, the addition of rapamycin did not alter the HyPer/SypHer responses when the probes were targeted to these compartments (Fig. S2B–D).

We next showed that interface H_2O_2 elevations could be evoked by multiple IP_3 -linked agonists and independently of SERCA inhibition (Fig. 3A&B). Furthermore, we confirmed that the elevations derived from the H_2O_2 -sensing thiol pair within HyPer, as demonstrated by DTT sensitivity (Fig. 3AB&D) and that the signal was mediated by H_2O_2 , based on the effects of the H_2O_2 scavenger, ebselen (Fig. 3C&D).

To dissect the mechanism underlying the interface H_2O_2 elevation, we selectively removed candidate components. When the agonist-evoked $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ rise was prevented, by pre-depletion of ER Ca^{2+} using Tg, the H_2O_2 rise was not observed (Fig. 3E&H). Similarly, blockade of the ETC at two points (Fig. 3F&H), or dissipation of the inner mitochondrial membrane (IMM) potential abolished the H_2O_2 elevation (Fig. 3G&H), whereas the $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ signal was not suppressed (Fig. S3). Thus, the $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ signal and the ensuing $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ rise enables H_2O_2 of mitochondrial ETC origin to form a spatiotemporally confined elevation of H_2O_2 at the ER-mitochondrial interface.

To understand how Ca^{2+} engages mitochondrial H_2O_2 , we first investigated whether the mitochondrial ultrastructure changes in response to agonist stimulation. Naive cells feature a cohort of narrow cristae and a second population of dilated (> 30 nm) cristae, indicating large intracristal volume (Fig. 4A,B left & S4A; *gray*). Following treatment with an IP_3 -linked agonist ATP, we observed fewer dilated cristae (Fig. 4B right & S4A; *black*). Since mitochondrial cross-sectional area or aspect ratio were unchanged (Fig. S4B), the decrease in cristae volume was likely due to a proportional increase in matrix volume. We reasoned that the $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ increase might activate mito K_{Ca} channels (Singh et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2002), to increase matrix volume through K^+ and parallel H_2O influx (Marchissio et al., 2012). Indeed, a mito K_{Ca} inhibitor, paxilline, abolished the agonist-induced collapse of dilated cristae (Fig. 4C&S4A; *purple*). Similarly, when we induced movement of K^+ into the matrix with low-dose valinomycin that does not cause depolarization (Liu and Hajnoczky, 2011), large-volume cristae were also absent (Fig. 4C&S4A; *pink*). When agonist-induced changes in cristae volume were prevented by pretreatment with paxilline or low-dose valinomycin, the interface H_2O_2 transient was absent (Fig. 4D, lower). This happened despite similar $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ elevations (Fig. 4D, upper), and no change in mitochondrial membrane potential (Liu and Hajnoczky, 2011) suggesting that the agonist-induced $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ rise induces mitochondrial matrix expansion that compresses the cristae. This also indicated the possibility that the content of the cristae might be of relevance for the agonist-induced H_2O_2 rise detected at the ER-mitochondrial interface.

By targeting HyPer and SypHer to the mitochondrial intermembrane space (IMS), where its location was confirmed using trypan blue quenching (Fig. S4D), we showed that the resting HyPer/SypHer ratio was higher than the OMM, and that DTT addition decreased the HyPer/SypHer ratio (Fig. S4D), indicating the presence of H_2O_2 . HyPer/SypHer recordings revealed that agonist stimulation did not change the concentration of H_2O_2 in the IMS (Fig. S4E). Thus, concentration change of H_2O_2 at the interface likely originates from the IMS, involving a volume increase in the mitochondrial matrix and the ensuing compression of the cristae that forces the H_2O_2 -rich cristae content to the OMM surface. Since matrix volume expansion might be greatest in the region of mitochondrial Ca^{2+} uptake, the $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$ rise can be concentrated to the region of the Ca^{2+} -transfer represented by the ER-mitochondrial interface. Furthermore, ultrastructural analysis revealed a significant clustering of cristae openings juxtaposed to the ER-mitochondrial interface (Fig 4A, Fig. S4C, left; *gray*) compared to the frequency predicted if cristae were uniformly distributed (Fig. S4C, left; *white*). Conversely, cristae openings were not enriched in mito-mito interactions in HepG2 cells (Fig. S4C right) as reported in other cells (Picard et al., 2015).

To explore the functional consequences of the H₂O₂ nanodomain, we first, artificially produced ROS at the interface using Killer Red (KR) targeted with the ER-mitochondrial linker. Illumination at the excitation wavelength of KR sensitized cells to threshold concentrations of IP₃-linked agonist (loATP, ATP, 1 μM) as reflected in the cytoplasmic [Ca²⁺] signal (Fig. 5A, control; *black*, illuminated; *red*). The presence of ebselen abolished this effect (Fig. 5A; *orange*). Furthermore, no sensitization was observed when KR was targeted to the nucleus, far from the ER-mitochondrial interface (Fig. 5A; *blue*). Supramaximal agonist, hiATP, (ATP, 100 μM) was used in each condition to ensure cells were capable of Ca²⁺ release (Fig. 5A). After we demonstrated the sensitivity of IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release to artificial oxidation of the interface, we turned to the role of the H₂O₂ originating from the mitochondrial cristae. Using sensitivity to suboptimal ATP (loATP) as our assay, we observed repetitive calcium oscillations, in approximately 40% of cells (Fig. 5B, left). When compression of the cristae was prevented by inhibiting K⁺ influx with paxilline only 20% of the total cells exhibited repetitive Ca²⁺ spikes (Fig. 5B, right). Furthermore, when we disrupted the ER-mitochondrial interface by relocating mitochondria close to the plasma membrane, using constitutive mitochondria-plasma membrane linkers, sensitivity of the cytoplasmic [Ca²⁺] signal to loATP agonist fell significantly (Fig. 5C).

Discussion

Our results demonstrate the existence of a dynamic H₂O₂ nanodomain at the ER-mitochondrial interface that is induced by and influences Ca²⁺ signals (see scheme in Fig. 5D). The H₂O₂ likely originates from within the cristae where elevated H₂O₂ generated by ETC activity was measured (Fig. S4E). Since the IMS displays permanently elevated H₂O₂ as compared to the matrix or OMM surface (Fig. S4E), we think that H₂O₂ is continually produced in the IMS and its elimination by degradation and diffusion to the matrix and cytoplasm is slower than the production. During the interface [H₂O₂] rise the IMS [H₂O₂] did not change (Fig. S4F) but the IMS volume decreased (Fig. 4), thus we propose that H₂O₂ dissolved within the IMS content is forced to the ER-mitochondrial interface.

Previously, localized ROS elevations have been claimed but their origin was either extra-mitochondrial (Prosser et al., 2011) or were observed in the mitochondrial matrix isolated from and independent of Ca²⁺-release proteins (Wang et al., 2008). We considered the possibility of a burst of *de novo* H₂O₂ generation mediated by Ca²⁺-stimulated acceleration of ETC. However, we did not detect agonist-evoked H₂O₂ in the IMS (Fig. S4F) or matrix (Fig. S2C). Furthermore, during treatment with paxilline or low concentration valinomycin, the IP₃-linked [Ca²⁺]_m signal was maintained, and therefore the Ca²⁺-induced increase in ETC likely occurred but the H₂O₂ nanodomain was abolished. Thus, Ca²⁺-stimulated acceleration of ETC activity is unlikely to be the primary reason for the H₂O₂ nanodomain. Rather, our data support that mitochondrial respiration generates H₂O₂ in the IMS/cristae space, Ca²⁺ uptake induces compression of the dilated cristae to force their volume through aligned cristae junctions to the ER-mitochondrial interface, causing a transient elevation of H₂O₂ (Fig. 5D). We point out that a small % increase in the matrix volume results in a large-scale change in the cristae volume. Mechanistically, uptake of Ca²⁺ to the matrix likely stimulates mitoK_{Ca}-mediated influx of K⁺ instigating rapid osmotic changes in the matrix, compensated by H₂O influx. A similar mechanism has been linked to the matrix swelling

observed in isolated mitochondria and hepatocytes (Halestrap et al., 1986; Quinlan et al., 1983). We propose that H₂O₂ generated by the ETC accumulates within the lumen of cristae, consistent with the concentration of ETC components on cristae membranes (Cogliati et al., 2013). Our data also show that the cristae openings are preferentially oriented towards the ER-mitochondrial interface (Fig. 4A&S4C) and thus, inform a model where H₂O₂-enriched cristae content is forced to the ER-mitochondrial interface upon mitochondrial Ca²⁺ and K⁺ induced matrix expansion (Fig. 5D). The restricted volume of the ER-mitochondrial interface suggests limited antioxidant capacity that is overwhelmed by focused elevations of H₂O₂. We used ebselen as an enhancement to the catalytic potential of the interface redox environment. Since ebselen and glutathione share limited direct reactivity with H₂O₂, it is likely that ebselen acts to increase the catalytic rate by enhancing the reaction of H₂O₂ with the existing thioredoxin reductase and glutathione systems (Dickinson and Forman, 2002; Zhao et al., 2002). Ebselen suppressed the IP₃-linked interface HyPer signal but failed to abolish the effect of the exogenously added H₂O₂. We think that increasing the catalytic potential can be effective to counteract the agonist-induced local H₂O₂ response but it cannot suppress the exogenous H₂O₂'s effect that homogeneously increases H₂O₂ in the entire cellular volume.

While HyPer is H₂O₂ specific, it might be possible that the H₂O₂ increase reflects accumulation of superoxide anion. In this model, superoxide may be dismutated in the IMS or the interface itself to be detected as H₂O₂ by HyPer, however, the half-life of superoxide and cytochrome c activity in the IMS make this unlikely (Zhao et al., 2003). H₂O₂ derived from the cristae have multiple means to traverse the OMM at the ER-mitochondrial interface. Previously, IP₃ receptors have been reported to form a complex with VDAC proteins, the major pore proteins of the OMM (Szabadkai et al., 2006). Therefore, VDACS are likely to be abundant at the relevant OMM area. Also, a collection of other mitochondrial and ER proteins have been localized to the ER-mitochondrial associations, which might also facilitate the passage of H₂O₂. The lipid composition of the ER-associated mitochondrial membranes is also likely to be distinctive but the involvement of specific lipids in H₂O₂ membrane transfer remains to be addressed.

We hypothesized that the H₂O₂ transient would modulate Ca²⁺ release, and isolated the effect by artificially producing ROS at the interface in the absence of Ca²⁺ elevation. This experiment confirmed that ROS specific to the interface sensitized cells to agonist-induced Ca²⁺-release and that H₂O₂ acts locally since ROS production at the distant nucleus was without effect. We suggest that the H₂O₂ transient regulates the IP₃ receptor via the oxidation of specific thiol groups (Bansaghi et al., 2014). When the H₂O₂ transient was prevented, Ca²⁺ oscillations were inhibited, implying that a Ca²⁺-release event makes subsequent events more likely using mitochondrial H₂O₂ as a feed-forward sensitizing agent. However, this does not produce a vicious cycle, since the cristae pool is finite. Instead, the interface will not be oxidized by subsequent Ca²⁺ elevations until mitochondria have “reset” their matrix volume. In this way, mitochondria may protect themselves against Ca²⁺ overload during IP₃-linked [Ca²⁺]_c oscillations. Conversely, “rested” mitochondria signal their readiness to accept further Ca²⁺. We predict that mitochondria can regulate both IP₃ and ryanodine receptor-mediated [Ca²⁺]_c oscillations via ROS nanodomains since

ryanodine receptors also transfer Ca^{2+} locally to the mitochondria (Pacher et al., 2002) and display H_2O_2 -mediated sensitization (Favero et al., 1995).

Links between $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{K}^+$ matrix volume and mitochondrial metabolism were made long ago (Halestrap, 1994), but changes in the cristae/IMS volume were not addressed. That this volume may be physically exchanged with the interface implies that all solutes enriched or depleted by ETC activity, such as ATP, are exchanged. Our data show that the ER-mitochondrial interface hosts concentrations of signaling molecules which are extreme compared to those found in the bulk cytosol. Such concentrations deliver excellent signal-to-noise ratio, but are confined to prevent the consequences of Ca^{2+} or H_2O_2 overload in the whole cell. Our model constitutes a new mechanism by which mitochondrial metabolism and the intensity and shape of Ca^{2+} signals are linked and controlled. These mechanisms regulate and initiate diverse processes. Conversely, deregulation of this system may be a crucial component of subcellular pathology.

Experimental Procedures

Targeting of proteins to the ER-mitochondrial interface

The selective targeting of proteins to the ER-mitochondrial interface was achieved by targeting one half of the rapamycin binding protein heterodimers (FKBP12) to the cytosolic surface of the OMM with the N-terminal sequence of the mAKAP1 (34–63). The two were joined by fusion proteins tagged with mRFP, HyPer (Belousov et al., 2006), SypHer (Poburko et al., 2011) or Killer Red (Bulina et al., 2006) in the pEGFP-N1 plasmid backbone. The constructs used for targeting the mRFP-tagged FRB protein to the cytoplasmic surface of the ER were described elsewhere (Varnai and Balla, 2007) and were adapted by replacing mRFP with HyPer, SypHer or Killer Red. Proteins were concentrated/trapped at the ER-mitochondrial interface by the induction of heterodimerization using rapamycin (100 nM, 3–5 mins). Dimerization was halted by blocking FKBP with FK506 (1 μM).

Live cell imaging

For imaging experiments, HepG2 cells were pre-incubated in a serum-free extracellular medium (ECM, 121 mM NaCl, 5 mM NaHCO_3 , 10 mM Na-HEPES, 4.7 mM KCl, 1.2 mM KH_2PO_4 , 1.2 mM MgSO_4 , 2 mM CaCl_2 , 10 mM glucose, pH7.4) containing 2% BSA. For measurements of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$, cells were loaded with fura2-AM together with 0.003% pluronic F127 and 100 μM sulfinpyrazone for 30 min at room temperature. At the end of the preincubation or dye-loading period the cells were washed into a fresh ECM containing 0.25% BSA and transferred to the temperature-regulated stage (37°C) of the microscope.

Fluorescence wide-field imaging of H_2O_2 , pH, $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$, and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_m$ was carried out using a back-illuminated EMCCD camera (Photometrics). HyPer/SypHer were imaged with 495/20 nm and 415/30 nm excitation filters and a 500 nm long-pass beam splitter, and an image pair was obtained every 2.5 s to minimize photodamage. Fluorescence is presented as 495/415 nm ratios calculated following background subtraction of the individual wavelengths. $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ measured with fura2 in intact cells (excitation 340/30 nm, 380/20 nm) was

calibrated as described (Csordas et al., 2006). $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ was measured simultaneously with $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ using RCaMP (excitation 545/20 nm, dual-band dichroic and emission: 73100, Chroma) image series were collected every 1.0 s for accurate kinetic information and data was expressed as $F/F_0 \pm SEM$.

Confocal imaging was carried out using a Zeiss LSM 780 system using 405, 488 and 561 nm lines for cyan, green and red fluorescent probes, respectively. High-resolution images were taken using a 60 \times oil objective (NA 1.40). Contrast and brightness were optimized in the brightest slice of the stack, and the same settings were applied to the rest of the sections. Co-localization image acquisition and analysis using Zen 2010 (Carl Zeiss, Jena) were performed to calculate changes in Pearson's coefficients (R^2).

Transmission electron microscopy

HepG2 cells grown in T25 flasks were preincubated in 2% BSA-ECM (60 min, 37°C), and subsequently, were pre-treated with paxilline (25 μ M) or valinomycin (0.5 nM) followed by stimulation with agonist (ATP, 100 μ M) in 0.25% BSA-containing ECM for 1min. Samples were fixed, processed and visualized as described before (Pacher et al., 2000). Image analysis was as described (Csordas et al., 2006). Measurements of mitochondrial cross sectional area were made of sections containing complete and partial mitochondria. Measurements are therefore a likely underestimate of actual mitochondrial size. Tomogram was obtained from a tilt series. A 150 nm section was imaged through 116° at one image per degree. The tomogram was aligned and reconstructed using FEI Inspect3d software and visualized using Amira.

A full description of the experimental procedures is within the supplementary material.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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Highlights

- The ER-mitochondrial interface hosts a dynamic H₂O₂ nanodomain.
- ER-mitochondrial Ca²⁺ transfer stimulates ROS mobilization from mitochondria.
- The oxidized cristae volume is the source of interface H₂O₂ transients.
- H₂O₂ transients sensitize ER Ca²⁺-release to maintain Ca²⁺ oscillations.

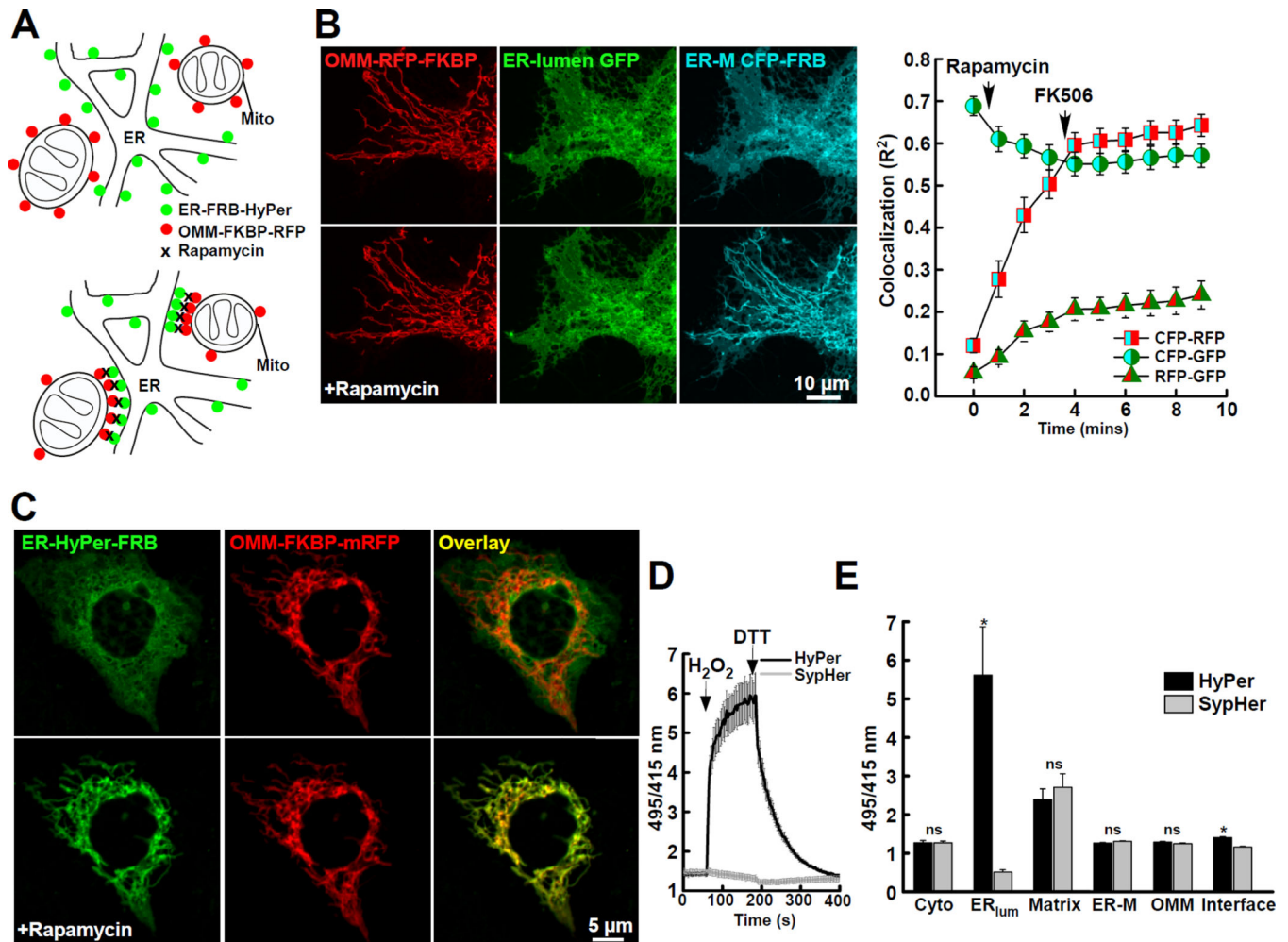


Fig. 1. Measurement of H₂O₂ Nanodomains with Inducible Targeting

(A) Scheme depicting the targeting of fluorescent proteins to the surface of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER-M; green) and the OMM (red) with FRB and FKBP linker halves linked to the targeting sequences sac1(521–587) and mAKAP1(34–63), respectively (upper). Rapamycin-induced heterodimerization of linker halves causes concentration of the dimers at the ER-mitochondrial interface (lower). For further details see (Csordas et al., 2010).

(B) Images of HepG2 cells and co-localization analysis showing that heterodimerization of linker halves progressively changes the distribution of the ER-surface targeted probe (ER-M CFP-FRB; cyan) to co-localize (right; CFP-RFP, squares) with OMM targeted probes (OMM-mRFP-FKBP; red) and separate from ER-lumen targeted GFP (ER-lumen GFP; green) in response to rapamycin (ER-M CFP-FRB; cyan, lower). Further changes in probe distribution are blocked by rapamycin removal and addition of FK506 (5 μ M). The overall ER structure (green) remains essentially unchanged by rapamycin treatment.

(C) Distribution of ER-surface H₂O₂-sensor HyPer (ER-HyPer-FRB; green) before and after heterodimerization with OMM-mRFP-FKBP (red). Images collected before (upper) and after rapamycin (100 nM for 5min; lower).

(D) Response of interface-targeted HyPer (black) and H₂O₂ insensitive derivative SypHer (gray), to H₂O₂ (200 μ M) and dithiothreitol (DTT; 5 mM) (mean \pm SEM, n = 48 cells).

(E) Measurements using HyPer and SypHer targeted to the cytosol, ER lumen, mitochondrial matrix, cytosolic surface of the ER (ER-M) and OMM. (* = $p < 0.05$; $n = 3$ experiments >50 cells/condition).
See also Figure S1.

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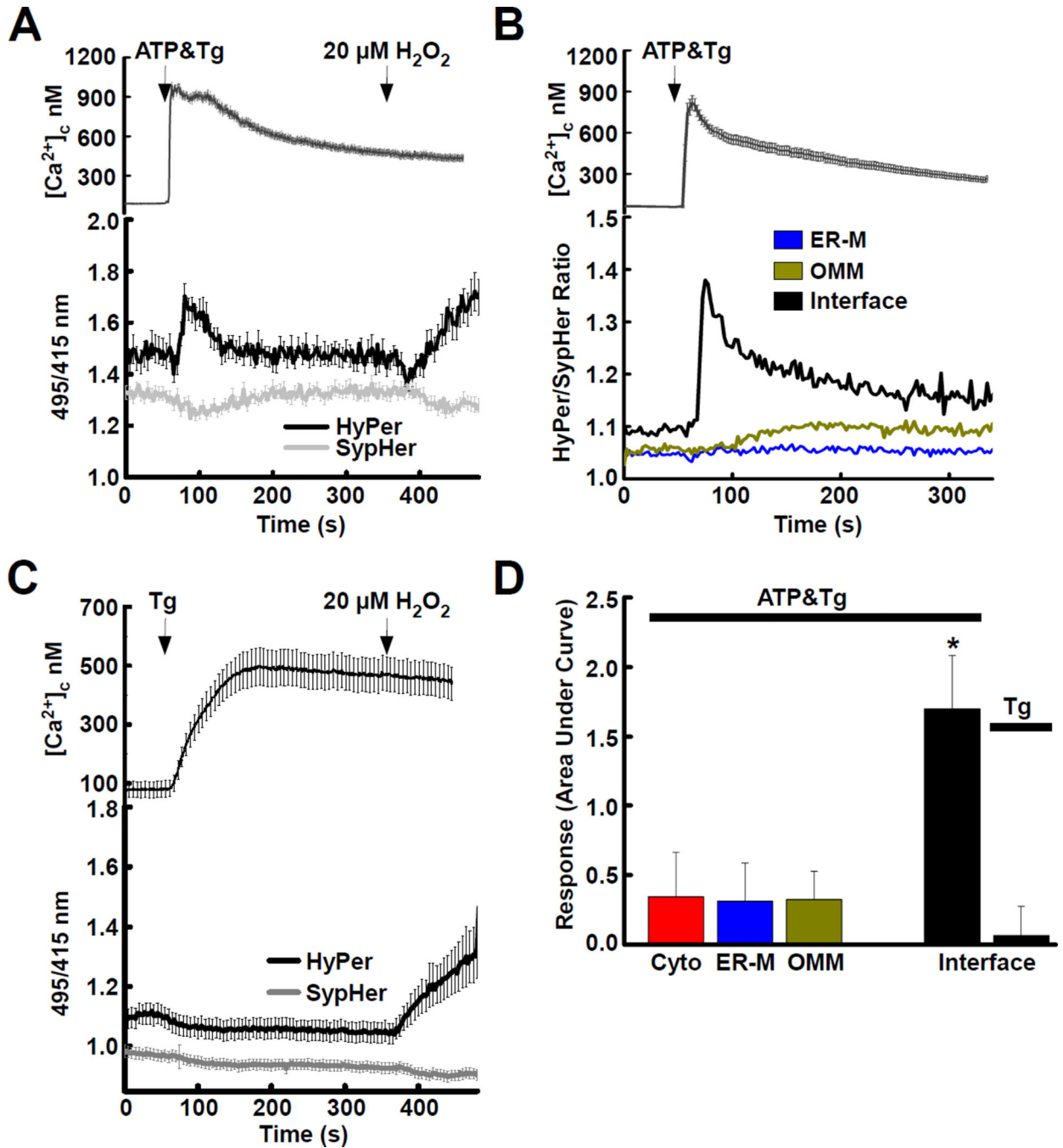


Fig. 2. ER-mitochondrial H₂O₂ nanodomains are induced by agonist stimulation
 (A) Global $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ rise (top) and ratio changes of interface-targeted HyPer (black) and SypHer (gray) (bottom) evoked by simultaneous stimulation with an IP₃-linked agonist, (ATP, 100 μ M) and the SERCA pump inhibitor, thapsigargin (Tg, 2 μ M) are shown (mean \pm SEM). H₂O₂ is added as a positive control (20 μ M). Both HyPer and SypHer respond to pH changes that accompany $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ signals: changes common to both probes are attributable to pH, changes seen in HyPer only are caused by H₂O₂. Based on the study of Poburko et al. (Poburko et al., 2011) and our results we conclude that an acidification

followed by an alkalization occurred during stimulation. Such changes underscore the need for parallel fluorescence recordings using HyPer and SypHer when one wants to measure H_2O_2 .

(B) (top) $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ rise and (bottom) mean HyPer/SypHer ratios of probes concentrated at the interface (black, $n = 59$) or diffused along the entire OMM (*yellow*, $n = 41$) or ER-M (*blue*, $n = 41$). (C) (top) Global $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_c$ rise and (bottom) HyPer (*black*) and SypHer (*gray*) ratio changes evoked by stimulation with Tg ($2 \mu\text{M}$) alone, shown (mean \pm SEM).

(D) Quantitation of H_2O_2 increase as the area under curve (AUC) $((\text{HyPer/SypHer} \times \text{time})_{\text{response}} - (\text{HyPer/SypHer} \times \text{time})_{\text{baseline}})$; * $p = < 0.05$. From cells treated with ATP&Tg or Tg alone.

See also Figure S2.

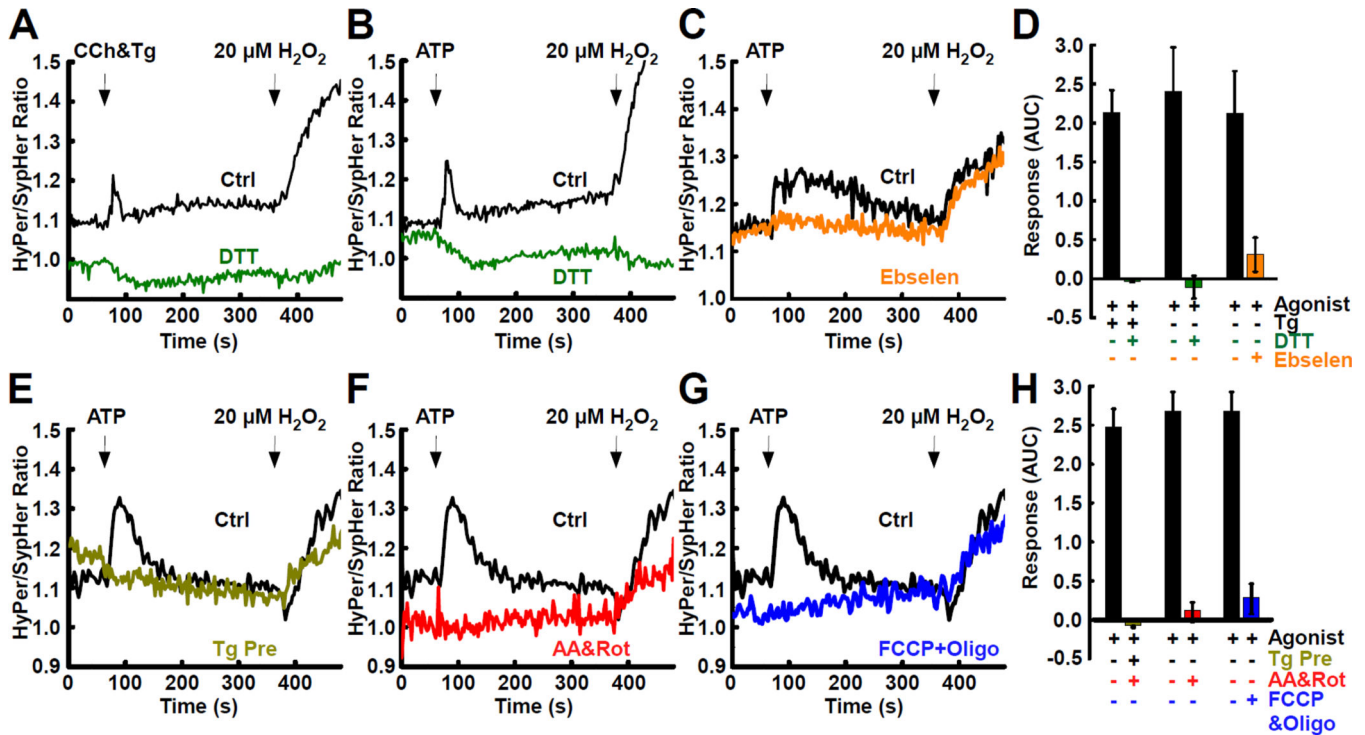


Fig. 3. IP₃ Receptor-mediated ER Ca²⁺ Mobilization and Mitochondrial Respiratory Chain Cuncion are Required for the Generation of H₂O₂ Nanodomains

HepG2 cells expressing ER-M HyPer and OMM HyPer or ER-M SypHer and OMM SypHer were all subjected to a pulse of rapamycin (100 nM, 5 mins) and an FK506 wash (5 μM) to target the probes to the ER-mitochondrial interface. Traces are presented as HyPer/SypHer ratios. (A) Carbachol (CCh, 100 μM) plus thapsigargin (Tg, 2 μM) or (B) ATP (100 μM) alone, in control cells (*black*, *n* = 108 and 78, respectively) and DTT pre-treated cells (5 mM, *green*, *n* = 44 and 50, respectively) on the time course of interface-targeted HyPer/SypHer ratios.

(C) Pre-incubation with Gpx analog Ebselen (25 μM; orange, *n* = 68) abolishes agonist-induced response (black, *n* = 231).

(D) Area under curve (AUC) quantification of interface H₂O₂ in response to agonist ±Tg,

DTT and ebselen. Prevention of the interface H₂O₂ nanodomains by (E) discharge of ER Ca²⁺ using 0 Ca²⁺ extracellular medium supplemented with Tg (2 μM) (*yellow*, *n* = 87), (F) antimycin A (5 μM) and rotenone (5 μM 10 mins; *red*, *n* = 121) or (G) FCCP (5 μM) and oligomycin (10 μM; *blue*, *n* = 133). All were compared to control (*black*, *n* = 132).

(G) AUC quantification of interface H₂O₂ following pre-treatment with 0 Ca²⁺ & Tg (*yellow*), antimycin A & rotenone (*red*) and FCCP & oligomycin (*blue*).

See also Figure S3.

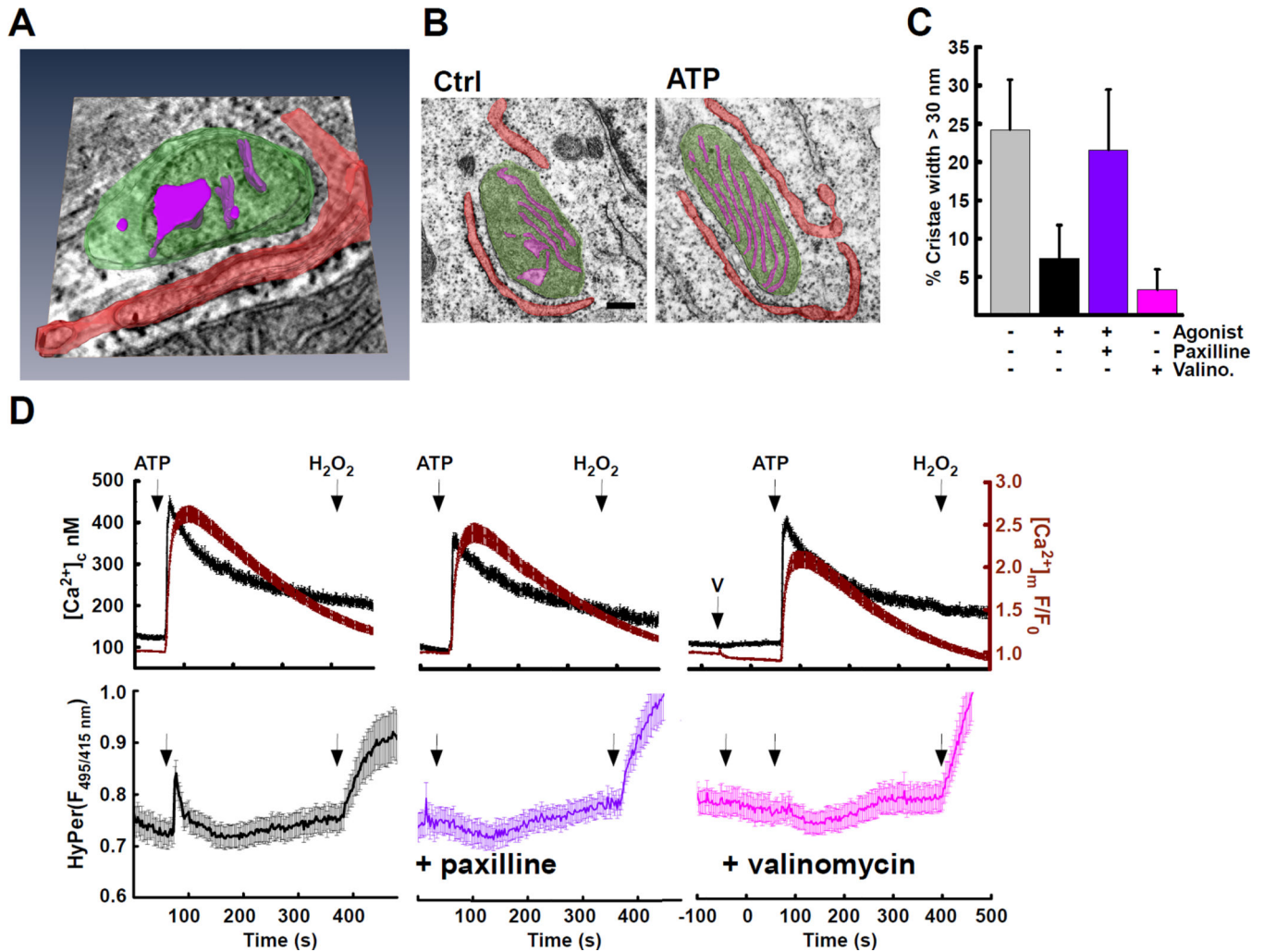


Fig. 4. Matrix and Cristae Volume Changes in Response to Agonist Stimulation

(A) Electron tomography of a HepG2 cell. Mitochondrial volume (*green*), cristae (*magenta*) and ER (*red*). Both dilated and collapsed cristae are shown. Note orientation of several cristae openings to the ER-mitochondrial interface. Representative of 7 datasets.

(B) Transmission electron microscopy images of single HepG2 mitochondria false colored to highlight ER (*red*) mitochondrial matrix (*green*) and cristae (*magenta*) \pm ATP stimulation (100 μ M for 1 min). The scale bar is 100 nm.

(C) Frequency of wide cristae (>30 nm) were measured in control (*gray*) and ATP-stimulated conditions (*black*). Agonist stimulation was applied to cells pre-incubated with an inhibitor of mitoBK_{Ca} (paxilline 25 μ M; *purple*) or treated with a non-depolarizing concentration of the K⁺-ionophore (valinomycin 0.5 nM; *pink*) alone. Ctrl vs ATP and Ctrl vs Valino are $p < 0.05$, ANOVA.

(D) (top) [Ca²⁺]_c (*black*), was measured simultaneously with [Ca²⁺]_m (*dark red*). (bottom) In parallel, measurements were made with interface-targeted HyPer (mean \pm SEM). Cells were stimulated with agonist (ATP; 100 μ M) in control conditions (*black*, $n = 116$) after pre-treatment with mitoBK_{Ca} inhibitor (paxilline; 25 μ M, *purple*, $n = 98$) after K⁺ ionophore

("V" valinomycin; 0.5 nM, 60 s, *pink*, n = 91). H₂O₂ is added at the end of the experiment as a positive control (20 μM).
See also Figure S4.

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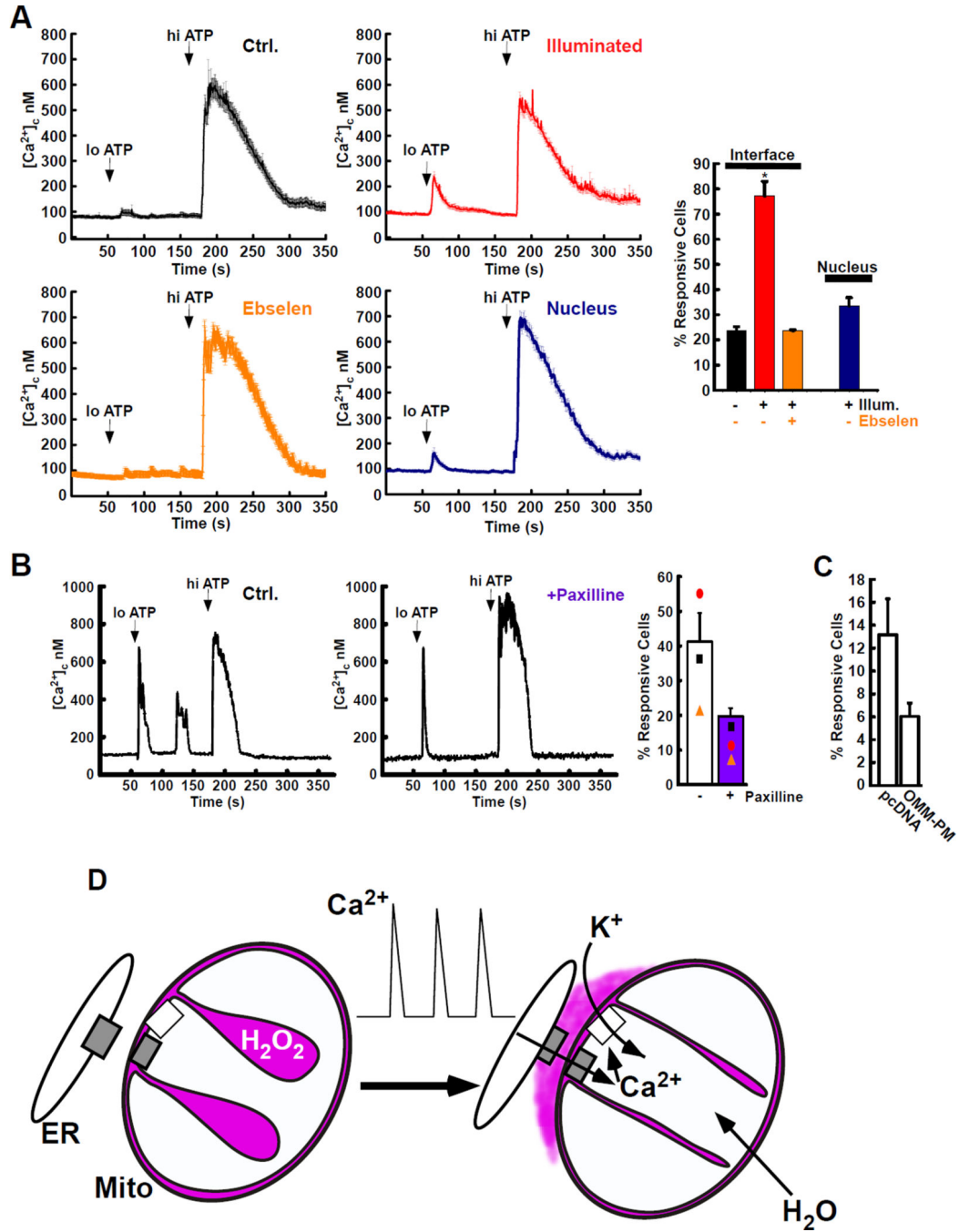


Fig. 5. Cristae-derived ROS modulates Ca^{2+} -release

(A) Cells expressing Killer Red (KR) targeted to the interface with drug-inducible linker (*black, red & orange*; mean \pm SEM) or to the nucleus (*blue*) were stage-incubated in the dark (300 s, Ctrl, *black*) or with green light (545/25 nm, 300 s, *red, orange* and *blue*) to induce KR-derived ROS. $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ was assessed in response to stepwise increase in IP₃-linked agonist concentration (loATP, 1 μ M; hiATP, 100 μ M) in the absence of external Ca^{2+} . Cells were assessed for response to loATP, after illumination and pre-incubation with the ebselen (25 μ M, *orange*). Responses to loATP were quantified (right panel, % response loATP; Ctrl,

black, n = 61; Illuminated, *red*, n = 64). Ebselen, (*orange*, n = 62). Nucleus, (*blue*, n = 122) (* p = < 0.05).

(B) Sample traces of cells assessed for repetitive $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ spiking without treatment (Ctrl., left) or pre-incubated with mitoBK_{Ca} inhibitor (paxilline, 25 μ M, center). Quantification of responsive cells ($[Ca^{2+}]_c$ spikes ≥ 1 following loATP) demonstrating repetitive (>1) $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ spikes in response to loATP, (right, Mean \pm SEM and means of individual experiments).

(C) Percent of cells showing $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ response to loATP when transfected with pcDNA (n = 106) or a constitutive OMM-plasma membrane linker (AKAP-RFP-CAAX, n = 94).

(D) Scheme of hypothesis; IMS and cristae volume (purple), Ca^{2+} transport proteins (gray) and mitoBK^{Ca} (white). ER Ca^{2+} release events (center) increase matrix Ca^{2+} , activate K⁺-uptake and increase matrix volume. H₂O₂-rich cristae volume is forced to the ER-mitochondrial interface.