ARTICLE IN PR

BBABIO-47469; No. of pages: 11; 4C:

Biochimica et Biophysica Acta xxx (2015) xxx-xxx



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Biochimica et Biophysica Acta

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/bbabio



Involvement of mitochondrial proteins in calcium signalling and cell death induced by staurosporine in Neurospora crassa

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

- Received 27 December 2014
- Received in revised form 23 April 2015 10
- Accepted 15 May 2015
- Available online xxxx

13 Keywords: 14

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- Cell death
- Ca²⁺ dynamics
 - Mitochondrion
 - Alternative NAD(P)H dehydrogenase
- 18
- Complex I 19

ABSTRACT

Staurosporine-induced cell death in Neurospora crassa includes a well defined sequence of alterations in cytosolic 20 calcium levels, comprising extracellular Ca²⁺ influx and mobilization of Ca²⁺ from internal stores. Here, we show 21 that cells undergoing respiratory stress due to the lack of certain components of the mitochondrial complex I (like 22 the 51 kDa and 14 kDa subunits) or the Ca²⁺-binding alternative NADPH dehydrogenase NDE-1 are hypersensi- 23 tive to staurosporine and incapable of setting up a proper intracellular Ca²⁺ response. Cells expressing mutant 24 forms of NUO51 that mimic human metabolic diseases also presented Ca²⁺ signalling deficiencies. Accumulation 25 of reactive oxygen species is increased in cells lacking NDE-1 and seems to be required for Ca²⁺ oscillations in 26 response to staurosporine. Measurement of the mitochondrial levels of Ca²⁺ further supported the involvement 27 of these organelles in staurosporine-induced Ca²⁺ signalling. In summary, our data indicate that staurosporine- 28 induced fungal cell death involves a sophisticated response linking Ca²⁺ dynamics and bioenergetics.

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1. Introduction

An outstanding variety of intracellular organelles are able to accumulate Ca²⁺ including the Golgi apparatus, endosomes, secretory granules, lysosomes and nuclei though the classical Ca²⁺ reservoirs are the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), vacuoles and mitochondria [1]. Recent investigations shed light on the molecular identity of the machinery responsible for the transport of Ca²⁺ into and from the mitochondria (reviewed in [2]). In mammalian cells, accumulation of Ca²⁺ by the mitochondrial matrix occurs mainly through the calcium uniporter (MCU) at the inner mitochondrial membrane [3,4], although there is some evidence indicating the presence of supplementary molecules with the ability to move Ca²⁺ into the mitochondria, namely the mitochondrial ryanodine receptor type 1 [5], leucine zipper-EF-hand containing transmembrane protein 1 [6], and coenzyme Q10 [7]. The voltage-dependent anionselective channels (VDACs) are involved in Ca²⁺ transport across the outer mitochondrial membrane. More specifically, VDAC1 seems to be accountable for the mitochondrial import of cell death-related Ca²⁺ signals from the ER [8]. Ca²⁺ release from the mitochondria may occur through the Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchanger (mNCX) [9] or the unspecific aperture known as the permeability transition pore [10]. In the fungus Neurospora crassa, the importance of mitochondria as Ca^{2+} stores is supported by 55the evidence that the accumulation of Ca²⁺-containing mitochon- 56 dria at the tip of hyphae is significant for the maintenance of a 57 Ca²⁺-gradient required for cell growth [11].

Apart from Ca²⁺ storage, mitochondria are well-known for their role 59 in energy production. In most eukaryotes, energy production occurs at 60 the inner mitochondrial membrane following the activity of specialized 61 complexes of proteins (complexes I, II, III and IV) that comprise the elec- 62 tron transport chain. The proton pumping activity of these oligomeric 63 complexes (except complex II) generates an electrochemical gradient 64 used by the ATP synthase (complex V) to produce ATP [12]. In some 65 fungi, plants, protists and bacteria, the electron transport chain is 66 branched into single peptide alternative systems without proton trans- 67 location activity. The alternative oxidase (AOX) constitutes a detour for 68 complexes III and IV whereas type II NAD(P)H dehydrogenases bypass 69 complex I [13]. Alternative NAD(P)H dehydrogenases are particularly 70 important not only because they oxidize NAD(P)H and reduce quinone 71 but also because they serve as entry points for electrons into the respiratory chain [14–16]. Their importance is firmly demonstrated in Sac- 73 charomyces cerevisiae, where complex I is absent [17] and type II 74 NAD(P)H dehydrogenases are the only existing NAD(P)H oxidases [18, 75 19]. In N. crassa, four alternative rotenone-insensitive NAD(P)H dehy- 76 drogenases associated with the inner mitochondrial membrane have 77 been characterized in addition to complex I [14,15]. NDI-1 [20] is local- 78 ized at the matrix side of the membrane (internal enzyme), whereas 79 NDE-1 [21], NDE-2 [22] and NDE-3 [23] are facing the intermembrane 80

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbabio.2015.05.011 0005-2728/© 2015 Published by Elsevier B.V.

Please cite this article as: A.P. Gonçalves, et al., Involvement of mitochondrial proteins in calcium signalling and cell death induced by staurosporine in Neurospora crassa, Biochim. Biophys. Acta (2015), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbabio.2015.05.011

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space (external enzymes). NDE-1 stands out because of its NADPH selectivity and regulation by pH and Ca²⁺ [24], being equivalent to the external NDB-1 of plants in this respect [25,26].

A rise in the intracellular levels of Ca²⁺ is a common cellular signalling mechanism in response to cell death stimuli. We showed recently that treatment of N. crassa cells with the cell death inducer staurosporine promotes a precise sequence of cytosolic Ca²⁺ transients (termed the staurosporine-induced Ca²⁺-signature) fed by the release of Ca²⁺ from internal stores as well as by the influx from the extracellular milieu [27]. This is regulated through phospholipase C and involves activation of a cell membrane transient receptor potential (TRP)-like channel. Here we investigated the contribution of the mitochondria bioenergetics system for the development of the staurosporine-induced Ca²⁺-signature. Our data revealed that components of the NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase (complex I) and at least one alternative NAD(P)H dehydrogenase (NDE-1) are crucial mediators of the fungal response to cell death and associated Ca²⁺ dynamics.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Strains, culture media and chemicals

N. crassa was handled according to standard procedures. Vogel's minimal medium plus 1.5% (w/v) sucrose was used in all experiments [28]. Wild type and other strains were obtained from the Fungal Genetics Stock Center [29] or previously generated in the laboratory like the deletion strains for alternative NAD(P)H dehydrogenases [20,22-24], Δnuo51 [30] nuo51 rescued strain, nuo51 A353V, nuo51 T435M [31], $\Delta nuo14$ [32], $\Delta nuo78$ [33] and $\Delta nuo24$ [34]. The following chemicals were used during this study: staurosporine (LC Laboratories), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), rotenone, oxaloacetic acid, antimycin A, potassium cyanide, oligomycin, carbonyl cyanide *m*-chlorophenylhydrazone (CCCP), diphenyleneiodonium (DPI), reduced glutathione (GSH) and N-acetylcysteine (NAC) (Sigma-Aldrich), thapsigargin, 1,2bis(orthoaminophenoxy)ethane-N,N,N',N'-tetrasodium (BAPTA) and Ru360 (Merck Millipore) and bafilomycin A1 (Wako Chemicals).

2.2. Intracellular Ca²⁺ measurement with aequorin

An aequorin-based luminescence method for the measurement of cytosolic Ca²⁺ optimized for filamentous fungi [35] was employed as described [27]. Briefly, aequorin-expressing conidia (transformed by electroporation with an Eppendorf Multiporator at 1800 V, 5 ms) at a concentration of 2×10^6 cells/ml were incubated in white opaque 96well plates (100 μl/well) containing minimal medium with 5 μM coelenterazine (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) for 6 h at 26 °C, in the dark, without agitation. After treatment with the indicated drugs, luminescence (RLU, relative light units) of triplicates to hexaplicates was captured over time on a Bio-Tek Synergy HT microplate reader. Extra wells were prepared in order to check total emitted luminescence of each strain in each experiment using 100 µl of 3 M CaCl₂ in 20% ethanol. Total luminescence was used to normalize the experimental RLU. The values from control DMSO samples were subtracted from staurosporine-treated samples to obtain the "staurosporineinduced amplitude of response". Quantifications were obtained by summing the normalized experimental values. When specified, a pre-incubation step of 15 min with a pharmacological agent was applied before staurosporine. In all instances, the volume of chemical added to the wells was 10 µl (from an appropriate stock solution).

2.3. Expression of aequorin in mitochondria

A 207 bp cDNA fragment corresponding to the N-terminal mitochondria-targeting sequence of subunit 9 of N. crassa ATP synthase (NCU02250) was amplified by PCR using primers AACTA GTATGGCCTCCACTCGTGTCCTC and CCCCGGGGGAAGAGTAGGCGC 140 GCTTCTG (introducing the underlined Spel and Smal sequences, 141 respectively) and cloned in the pCRII-TOPO vector (Invitrogen). 142 The aequorin gene was cloned into the Smal restriction site (in 143 front of the mitochondrial presequence) following its amplification 144 from the pAB19 plasmid [36] by PCR using primers TCCCGGGATG 145 ACCTCCAAGCAGTACTCC and CCCGGGTTAATTAATTAGGGGACGGCAC 146 CGCCGTA. The aequorin gene fused to the mitochondrial presequence 147 (mitoAeq) was amplified by PCR using primers CTGGCCGTCGTTTTAC 148 and ATAGGATCCTTAGGGGACGGCA (introducing the underlined 149 BamHI sequence) and cloned back into pCRII-TOPO. After verification 150 that the DNA sequence was correct, mitoAeg was excised from 151 pCRII-TOPO using SpeI and BamHI and cloned in the N. crassa 152 pMF272 expression vector. The N. crassa his strain (FGSC #6103) 153 was transformed by electroporation with an Eppendorf Multiporator 154 at 1800 V for 5 ms.

The correct targeting of the mitoAeq fusion protein to mitochondria 156 was verified by Western blot. N. crassa hyphae were homogenized 157 with a pestle and mortar using quartz sand and mitochondrial isolation 158 buffer (0.44 M sucrose, 2 mM EDTA, 30 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6). Crude mi- 159 tochondria and cytosol extracts were obtained by differential centrifuga- 160 tion as previously described [37] with an extra step of washing of the 161 mitochondrial pellet. After denaturation at 95 °C for 5 min, 50 µg of the 162 mitochondrial and cytosolic protein extracts were separated by SDS- 163 PAGE using Criterion SFX 4-20% gels (Bio-Rad) and transferred to a ni- 164 trocellulose membrane. The membrane was blocked for 1 h using 5% 165 non-fat dry milk and immunoblotted using an anti-aequorin antibody 166 (Acris Antibodies). Proteins were detected by chemiluminescence 167 using ChemiDoc (Bio-Rad).

2.4. Mitochondrial Ca²⁺ uptake

Reactions of 250 µl containing 200 µg mitochondria, 5 mM gluta- 170 mate, 5 mM malate, 1 µM calcium green-5N (Life Technologies) in 171 KCl media (125 mM KCl, 2 mM K₂HPO₄, 1 mM MgCl₂, 20 mM 172 HEPES, pH 7.4) were incubated for 1 min at 26 °C in opaque 96- 173 well plates. CaCl₂ was injected into the wells to a final concentration 174 of 50 µM and emission of fluorescence was followed over time using 175 a Bio-Tek Synergy HT microplate reader (excitation: 485/20 nm; 176 emission: 528/20 nm). When indicated, 1 µM Ru360 or 4 µM CCCP 177 or 0.5 mM BAPTA was added. The difference in fluorescence after 178 the addition of 50 µM CaCl₂ was calculated for quantification 179 purposes. 180

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2.5. Other assays 181

For the spot growth assay, nine successive three-fold dilutions 182 were prepared for each strain starting with 6.6×10^7 cells/ml. Five 183 µl from each dilution was spotted on plates containing glucose-fruc- 184 tose-sorbose (GFS) medium with agar (to produce compact conidia) 185 supplemented with the indicated chemicals. Cells were incubated at 186 26 °C and pictures taken ~72 h after inoculation. For the measure- 187 ment of reactive oxygen species (ROS), conidia at 2×10^6 cells/ml 188 were grown for 4 h in minimal medium at 26 °C. Dihydrorhodamine 189 123 (Sigma-Aldrich) at 20 μg/ml and staurosporine were then added 190 during 30 min. Samples were harvested by centrifugation and 191 washed twice with PBS before running on a BD FACS Calibur flow 192 cytometer. Data were analyzed with FlowJo (Tree Star).

2.6. Statistical analysis

At least three independent experiments were performed in all in- 195 stances and quantifications are expressed as mean \pm SEM. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney test was used for comparisons between 197 two groups using SPSS 20 (SPSS Inc.). p-values ≤ 0.05 were considered 198 statistically significant. 199

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