

The inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor regulates autophagy through its interaction with Beclin 1

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The inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor (IP₃R) is a major regulator of apoptotic signaling. Through interactions with members of the Bcl-2 family of proteins, it drives calcium (Ca²⁺) transients from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) to mitochondria, thereby establishing a functional and physical link between these organelles. Importantly, the IP₃R also regulates autophagy, and in particular, its inhibition/depletion strongly induces macroautophagy. Here, we show that the IP₃R antagonist xestospongine B induces autophagy by disrupting a molecular complex formed by the IP₃R and Beclin 1, an interaction that is increased or inhibited by overexpression or knockdown of Bcl-2, respectively. An effect of Beclin 1 on Ca²⁺ homeostasis was discarded as siRNA-mediated knockdown of Beclin 1 did not affect cytosolic or luminal ER Ca²⁺ levels. Xestospongine B- or starvation-induced autophagy was inhibited by overexpression of the IP₃R ligand-binding domain, which coimmunoprecipitated with Beclin 1. These results identify IP₃R as a new regulator of the Beclin 1 complex that may bridge signals converging on the ER and initial phagophore formation.

Macroautophagy (herein referred to as autophagy) is the major catabolic pathway for entire organelles, long-lived/aberrant proteins and superfluous portions of the cytosol. It consists of the stepwise engulfment of substrate elements into distinctive multimembrated autophagosomes, which after fusion with lysosomes form single-membrated autolysosomes. Within the lumen of autolysosomes, macromolecules are enzymatically broken down into metabolites that cope with the bioenergetic and biosynthetic demands of the cell.^{1,2}

The molecular activation of autophagy is a complex process (reviewed in Yorimitsu and Klionsky³) that is regulated by the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), a protein kinase essential for nutrient-sensing signal transduction.⁴ Downstream of mTOR, a series of chain reactions are executed by several autophagy-related (Atg) proteins, allowing the pre-autophagosomal membrane structure (phagophore) to engulf a substrate material, to complete and close the sequestering vacuole in physical association with the microtubular network, and finally fuse autophagosomes with lysosomes to execute degradation. The autophagic functions of the phylogenetically

conserved family of *atg* genes have extensively been studied in yeast.^{5,6} One of the most important members of this family is *atg6*, whose mammalian ortholog is represented by the haploinsufficient tumor suppressor gene *beclin 1*.^{7,8} In mammalian cells, Beclin 1 acts concertedly with Vps34, Vps15, UVRAG, Bif1, Ambra1 and perhaps other proteins to form a multiprotein complex with class III phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) activity that generates phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate (PI3P). PI3P determines the curvature of the nascent phagophore and promotes the recruitment of other Atg proteins (including Atg5, Atg12, Atg10, Atg4, Atg3, Atg7, Atg8 and Atg16), which catalyze vesicle elongation and phagophore nucleation.^{6,9}

Although classically viewed as an essential mechanism of adaptation to stress, in particular to that imposed by the lack of nutrients, excessive or inefficient autophagy may be involved in autophagic cell death (ACD).⁹⁻¹¹ At a molecular level, the cross-talk between apoptosis and autophagy is beginning to be understood, and some factors have recently been identified as common regulators of both pathways.^{9,12,13} For

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Abbreviations: ACD, autophagic cell death; Ambra, activating molecule in Beclin 1-regulated autophagy; Atg, autophagy-related gene; Ca²⁺, calcium; [Ca²⁺]_i, cytosolic [Ca²⁺]_i; CFP, cyan fluorescent protein; cytAEQ, cytosolic aequorin; Cyto, cytosolic; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; FBS, fetal bovine serum; FRET, fluorescence resonance energy transfer; GFP, green fluorescent protein; GFP-LC3, GFP-coupled microtubule-associated protein light chain 3; IMP, inositol monophosphatase; IP₃, *myo*-inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; IP₃R, IP₃ receptor; LBD, ligand-binding domain; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin; OMM, outer mitochondrial membrane; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PI3P, phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate; RFP, red fluorescent protein; SERCA, sarco-endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ ATPase; tBHQ, 2,5-di(ter-butyl)-1,4 benzohydroquinone; UVRAG, UV irradiation resistance-associated tumor suppressor gene; Vps, vacuolar protein sorting; YFP, yellow fluorescent protein

instance, the activity of Beclin 1 is inhibited by the antiapoptotic proteins Bcl-2 and Bcl-X_L due to the interaction between the BH3 domain present in Beclin 1 and the BH3 receptor cleft of Bcl-2/X_L. This binding is competitively disrupted by proapoptotic BH3-only proteins, which therefore can promote autophagy.^{14–16}

Autophagy can also be induced through an mTOR-independent pathway by lowering *myo*-inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) levels.¹⁷ This effect can be achieved pharmacologically with drugs such as lithium or L-690 330, which disrupt inositol metabolism by inhibiting inositol monophosphatase (IMP).¹⁸ As IP₃ is a second messenger that mediates Ca²⁺ release from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), autophagy might also be regulated by Ca²⁺. This hypothesis has been addressed by a pioneering study, which concluded that Ca²⁺ fluxes are not necessary for autophagic stimulation and that autophagy would rather depend on the presence of Ca²⁺ within an intracellular storage compartment.¹⁹ Accordingly, cytosolic Ca²⁺ may even inhibit autophagy in a cyclical mTOR-independent pathway.¹⁸ Three recent studies have also explored the contribution of Ca²⁺ to autophagy,^{20–22} establishing that Ca²⁺ is required for autophagic induction, but showing some incongruities in whether increases in cytosolic [Ca²⁺],^{21,22} or modifications of ER Ca²⁺ levels,²⁰ are responsible for the induction of autophagy. Irrespective of such discrepancies, all these studies showed that a Bcl-2 variant that is specifically targeted to the ER inhibits autophagy.^{20,22}

Ca²⁺ present in the ER lumen is released through specific channels. Two types of ER-resident Ca²⁺ release channels exist, namely the ryanodine receptors and the IP₃ receptors (IP₃R).²³ Diverse physiological processes, including the mitochondrial (or intrinsic) pathway of apoptosis, are controlled by Ca²⁺ fluxes from the ER to mitochondria, which occur in the context of specific microdomains allowing for the functional and physical interaction between these organelles.^{24,25} The IP₃R plays a critical role in this cross-talk and is currently considered as a major regulator of apoptotic signaling, which is also modulated by the members of the Bcl-2 family of proteins.^{24,26–28} The IP₃R has also been shown to regulate autophagy. Indeed, its pharmacological inhibition with xestospongins and its depletion by specific siRNAs, represents a strong stimulus for the induction of autophagy, an effect that can be reverted by ER-targeted Bcl-2 overexpression.^{29,30} Moreover, it has been shown that the *IP3R* gene is required for the induction of ACD in *Dyctostelium discoideum*.^{31,32}

On the basis of these pieces of evidence, IP₃R emerges as a possible key integrator of the cross-talk between apoptosis and autophagy. Here, we report that xestospongins B and nutrient starvation disrupt a molecular complex formed by the IP₃R, Beclin 1 and Bcl-2, and present evidence that the IP₃R represses autophagy through Bcl-2-mediated sequestration of Beclin 1.

Results and Discussion

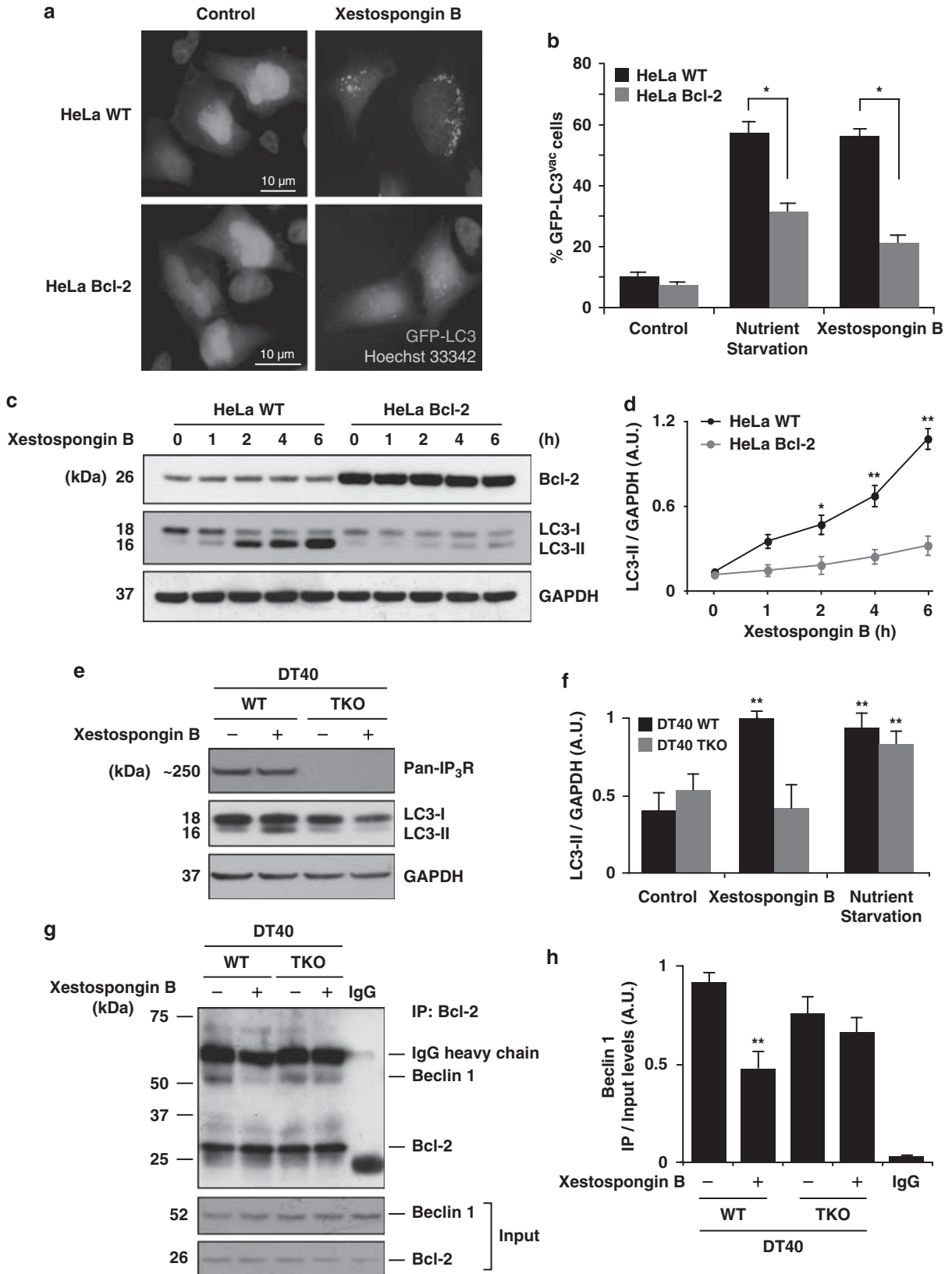
Xestospongins B induces autophagy by binding to the IP₃R in a Bcl-2-inhibitable fashion. The natural compound xestospongins B (purified from the marine sponge

Xestospongia exigua) is an IP₃R antagonist that induces autophagy when added to a variety of animal cell lines, including human cervical adenocarcinoma HeLa cells (Figure 1a–d and Supplementary videos), Rat-1 fibroblasts (from *Rattus norvegicus*; data not shown) and DT40 B-cell lymphoma cells (from *Gallus gallus*; Figure 1d). This was assessed by determining the distribution of green fluorescent protein-coupled microtubule-associated protein light chain 3 (GFP-LC3) to cytoplasmic puncta (Figure 1a and b) or the lipidation of LC3, which leads to an increase in its electrophoretic mobility (from LC3-I to LC3-II; Figure 1c and d). Importantly, these effects were inhibited by overexpression of Bcl-2 (Figure 1a–d) and were lost in DT40 cells depleted for all three IP₃R isoforms through homologous recombination (Figure 1e and f). As a note, DT40 triple knockout cells remained responsive to nutrient starvation as their wild-type counterparts (Figure 1f), suggesting that at least two independent signaling pathways to autophagy – which are activated by distinct triggers – coexist in these cells. As described earlier,²⁹ xestospongins B caused the dissociation of the Beclin 1/Bcl-2 complex that normally inhibits autophagy. This effect could be detected in coimmunoprecipitation experiments when xestospongins B was added to control DT40 cells, yet was undetectable in IP₃R-deficient DT40 cells (Figure 1g and h).

The redistribution of GFP-LC3 to dots or the accumulation of LC3-II may be a sign of an enhanced formation of autophagosomes or a reduced removal of autophagosomes.^{33,34} To discriminate between these two possibilities, we blocked the fusion between autophagosomes and lysosomes (with bafilomycin A1) and/or inhibited lysosomal proteases (with pepstatin A). As an internal control of its efficacy, we ensured that bafilomycin A1 inhibited the colocalization of GFP-LC3 with the lysosomal marker Lamp 2A, which is an indicator of the autophagosome–lysosome fusion (Figure 2a and b). In these conditions, the addition of xestospongins B continued to induce an increase in GFP-LC3 puncta (Figure 2a and c) and in the generation of LC3-II (Figure 2d and e), which strengthens the notion that xestospongins B stimulates the initiation, rather than the late stages, of the autophagic flux.

Xestospongins B neither affected the basal levels nor the histamine-induced increase of IP₃ (Figure 3a). In conditions in which the IMP inhibitor L-690 330 reduced IP₃ levels, non-toxic doses of *myo*-inositol (which lead to an increase in IP₃ concentrations) inhibited L-690 330-induced autophagy, but failed to suppress autophagy induced by xestospongins B (Figure 3b). From these results, we conclude that xestospongins B induces autophagosome formation through a Bcl-2-inhibitable effect on IP₃R that does not involve major perturbations of inositol metabolism.

A molecular complex involving the IP₃R and Beclin 1 regulates autophagy in response to xestospongins B or starvation. Driven by the observation that Bcl-2 overexpression can inhibit xestospongins B-induced autophagy, we monitored the molecular interaction between the IP₃R and Beclin 1, which so far has been indicated as the main target for Bcl-2-mediated autophagy inhibition.^{14,15} In unstimulated cells, IP₃R could be immunoprecipitated with



Beclin 1 and *vice versa*. Shortly after addition of xestospongine B (usually within 3 h), this interaction was reduced (Figure 4a and b). As described earlier by our group, xestospongine B disrupted the interaction between Beclin 1 and Bcl-2,²⁹ whereas it did not affect the co-immunoprecipitation between the IP₃R and Bcl-2 (Figure 4c). This suggests that xestospongine B disrupts the interaction between Beclin 1 and the IP₃R/Bcl-2 complex. Similar results were found when xestospongine B treatment was replaced by the most physiological inducer of autophagy, nutrient starvation (Figure 4d), and could also be detected in different cell lines, including human colon cancer HCT116 cells and Rat-1 fibroblasts (not shown). In cells that overexpress Bcl-2, the capacity of xestospongine B to disrupt the IP₃R/Beclin 1 complex was reduced and delayed (Figure 4e). Importantly, when Bcl-2 was depleted by specific siRNAs (Figure 4f), the IP₃R/Beclin 1 complex was disrupted in resting conditions (Figure 4g), further corroborating the notion that the interaction between IP₃R and Beclin 1 is mediated by Bcl-2. Although mTOR phosphorylation and mTOR-mediated phosphorylation of p70^{S6K} were inhibited by rapamycin, xestospongine B did not affect mTOR phosphorylation or p70^{S6K} phosphorylation (Figure 5a). Moreover, mTOR inhibition with rapamycin, which induces autophagy, failed to disrupt the IP₃R/Beclin 1 complex (Figure 5b). Altogether, these results strongly suggest that the inhibition of mTOR and that of the IP₃R induce autophagy through mechanisms that can be fully separated.

As several IP₃R-interacting proteins, including Bcl-2, have major effects on Ca²⁺ signaling,²⁷ we tested whether Beclin 1 might also affect Ca²⁺ homeostasis, which reportedly has an important impact on autophagy.^{18–22} However, we did not detect any tangible effect of Beclin 1 depletion on IP₃R agonist-induced Ca²⁺ fluxes (Figure 6a and b), steady state levels of Ca²⁺ in the ER lumen, thapsigargin-induced Ca²⁺ depletion from the ER (Figure 6c), or increases in cytosolic [Ca²⁺] upon inhibition of the sarco-ER Ca²⁺ ATPase (SERCA) with 2,5-di(ter-butyl)-1,4 benzohydroquinone (tBHQ; Figure 6d and e). This was assessed by using state-of-the-art aequorin-based Ca²⁺ sensors (Figure 6a and b), ERD1 cameleon Ca²⁺ sensor (Figure 6c) or a chemical Ca²⁺ probe (Figure 6d and e). Collectively, these data indicate that the IP₃R can affect the autophagy-inducing function of Beclin 1, yet suggest that Beclin 1 itself does not play a major role in regulating Ca²⁺ fluxes governed by the IP₃R.

The IP₃R ligand-binding domain (IP₃R-LBD) inhibits autophagy through an effect on the Beclin 1/Bcl-2 complex. A target for xestospongine B is the IP₃R-LBD

(aa 224–604), which is engaged in several protein–protein interactions,^{35,36} and has a major effect on the regulation of ER-mitochondrial microdomains that affect Ca²⁺ signaling and the physical contact between ER and mitochondria.²⁴ The transfection-enforced expression of the IP₃R-LBD coupled to red fluorescent protein (RFP) strongly inhibited autophagy induced by xestospongine B or nutrient starvation (Figure 7a and b). This held so for either ER-targeted, outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM)-targeted and cytosolic (Cyto) variants of the IP₃R-LBD coupled to RFP, all of which affect the ER–mitochondrial cross-talk.²⁴ As negative controls, equally targeted versions of RFP (namely Cyto-ER- and OMM-RFP) failed to inhibit autophagy in this system, as assessed by measuring GFP-LC3 puncta (Figure 7a and b) or the accumulation of LC3-II (Figure 7e). Moreover, an inactive IP₃R-LBD mutant (IP₃R-LBD-9aaER-RFP) in which the insertion of a nonapeptide linker abolishes the interaction with endogenous IP₃R,³⁷ failed to affect xestospongine B-induced autophagy (Figure 7b). All the functional variants of the IP₃R-LBD-RFP (Cyto-, OMM- and ER-targeted) but not IP₃R-LBD-9aaER-RFP, interacted with Beclin 1 (not shown), and this interaction was reduced in the ER by depletion of Bcl-2 (Figure 7c and d). Altogether, these results indicate that IP₃R-LBD is the moiety of the IP₃R that mediates its interaction with Beclin 1 (through Bcl-2), and accounts for IP₃R-mediated inhibition of autophagy.

Conclusions

The results from this and several earlier studies,^{17,18,29,30} indicate that IP₃R agonists (such as IP₃ itself) and IP₃R antagonists (such as xestospongines) act as inhibitors and inducers of autophagy, respectively, through an effect on the IP₃R. Thus, xestospongine B, which reportedly competes with IP₃ for IP₃R binding,^{38,39} induces autophagy through the IP₃R (in the sense that this effect is lost in IP₃R knockout cells) rather than through an off-target effect. Although acute depletion of the IP₃R by RNA interference is sufficient to induce autophagy in HeLa cells,²⁹ permanent IP₃R knockout by homologous recombination does not induce autophagy, at least in DT40 cells, presumably because these cells have adapted to the absence of the IP₃R in a long-term selection process and express a truncated version of IP₃R.⁴⁰ Conversely, plasmid-driven overexpression of the IP₃R-LBD inhibits autophagic vacuolization induced by both xestospongine and nutrient starvation, further confirming the major impact of the IP₃R on the regulation of autophagy.

Although accumulating evidence point to the modulation of autophagy by the IP₃R, the underlying mechanisms are still

Figure 1 Induction of autophagy by xestospongine B is dependent on the IP₃R and Bcl-2. Bcl-2 inhibits xestospongine B-induced autophagy (a–d). Wild-type (WT) or Bcl-2 overexpressing HeLa cells transfected with GFP-LC3 were treated with xestospongine B (2 μM) for 4 h. Autophagy was monitored by assessing the intracellular redistribution of GFP-LC3 (a), and the percentage of vacuolized cells was quantified (b). LC3 lipidation was compared between WT and Bcl-2 overexpressing HeLa cells by immunoblotting (c), and quantified (d) at the times indicated. The IP₃R was necessary for xestospongine B-(4 h), but not starvation-mediated (2 h) LC3 lipidation, as observed in WT DT40 chicken B lymphocytes *versus* a triple knockout (TKO) DT40 cell line deficient for all IP₃R isoforms (e and f). Bcl-2 and Beclin 1 interaction was monitored after 6 h of xestospongine B treatment in WT *versus* TKO DT40 cells (g), and the coimmunoprecipitated levels of Beclin 1 were normalized to input levels (h). Results are representative of at least three independent experiments. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01 as indicated for WT compared with genetically modified cells. The colour reproduction of this figure is available on the html full version of the manuscript

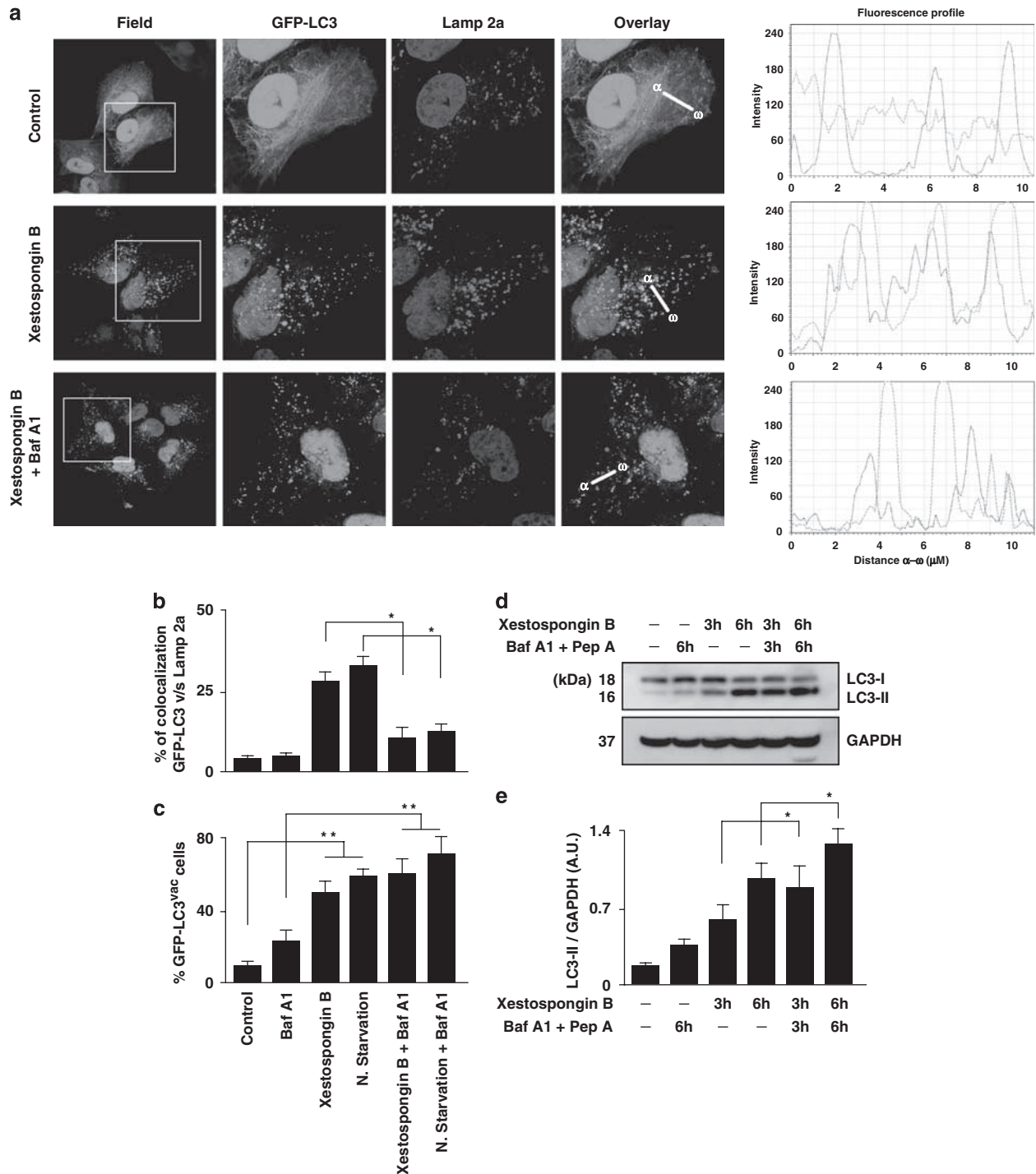


Figure 2 On-rate autophagic flux induced by xestospongins B. HeLa cells transiently expressing GFP-LC3 were preincubated (30 min) with bafilomycin A1 and then subjected to xestospongins B treatment (4 h) or to nutrient starvation (2 h). Confocal images were acquired, the degree of colocalization between GFP-LC3 and the lysosomal marker Lamp 2a was quantified (a and b), and the percentage of cells with GFP-LC3 puncta was determined (c). A mixture of bafilomycin A1 (1 nM) and pepstatin A1 (10 μ g/ml) was employed to inhibit the lysosomal degradation of LC3-II (d). LC3-II relative to GAPDH levels were quantified (e). * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$ as indicated. The colour reproduction of this figure is available on the html full version of the manuscript

unclear. IP₃R controls the agonist-induced release of Ca²⁺ from the ER lumen to the cytosol,³⁵ and elevations of cytosolic Ca²⁺ have been involved in pharmacologically induced autophagy, as occurred in response to vitamin D analogs.²² Hence, the finding that IP₃R inhibition with xestospongins

induces autophagy (although it should reduce³⁹ cytosolic Ca²⁺) suggests that the effects of the IP₃R and/or IP₃R ligands on autophagy cannot be explained only by a modulation of Ca²⁺ levels. Here, we show that the IP₃R coimmunoprecipitates with Beclin 1, suggesting another

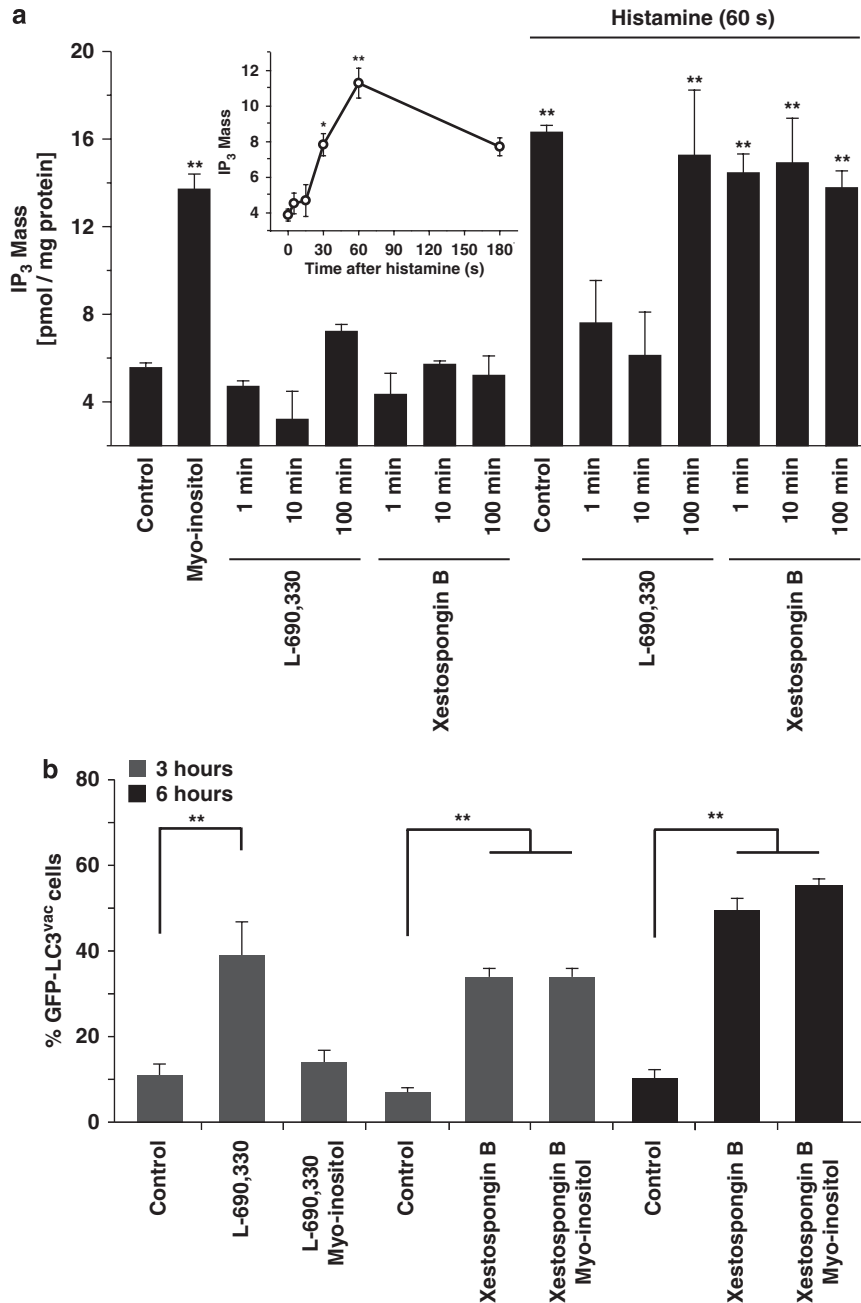


Figure 3 Autophagy induced by xestospongine B is IP₃-independent. Intracellular levels of the transient messenger IP₃ were measured with a radioreceptor assay under basal or histamine-induced peak conditions (a). The inset graphic depicts a typical time-response to identify the time of IP₃ peak concentrations, as induced by histamine (100 μ M) stimulation. Treatment with *myo*-inositol (10 μ M, 10 min), L-690330 (100 μ M) and xestospongine B (2 μ M) were compared under basal as well as peak conditions evoked by histamine (a). HeLa cells transiently expressing GFP-LC3 were treated with xestospongine B in the presence or absence of *myo*-inositol. The percentage of vacuolated cells was determined at the indicated times (b). Data are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. of three independent triplicates. * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$ versus unstimulated control (a) or as indicated (b)

mechanism through which the IP₃R might act as an endogenous inhibitor of autophagy. Indeed, we found that IP₃R binding by its antagonist xestospongine B, as well as physiological induction of autophagy by nutrient starvation, disrupted the interaction between the IP₃R and Beclin 1. As this interaction was abolished by the knockdown of Bcl-2, it is likely that the IP₃R and Beclin 1 interact through an indirect link established by Bcl-2.

In the triangular game among the IP₃R, Beclin 1 and Bcl-2, the IP₃R-LBD (which is the site of interaction with IP₃ and xestospongins) appears as the most important domain for the regulation of autophagy. Thus, the IP₃R-LBD (which itself has no function as a Ca²⁺ channel)⁴¹ can inhibit autophagy irrespective of its precise subcellular localization or topology, once more arguing against the idea that modified Ca²⁺ fluxes account for the effects of IP₃R on autophagy. We were unable

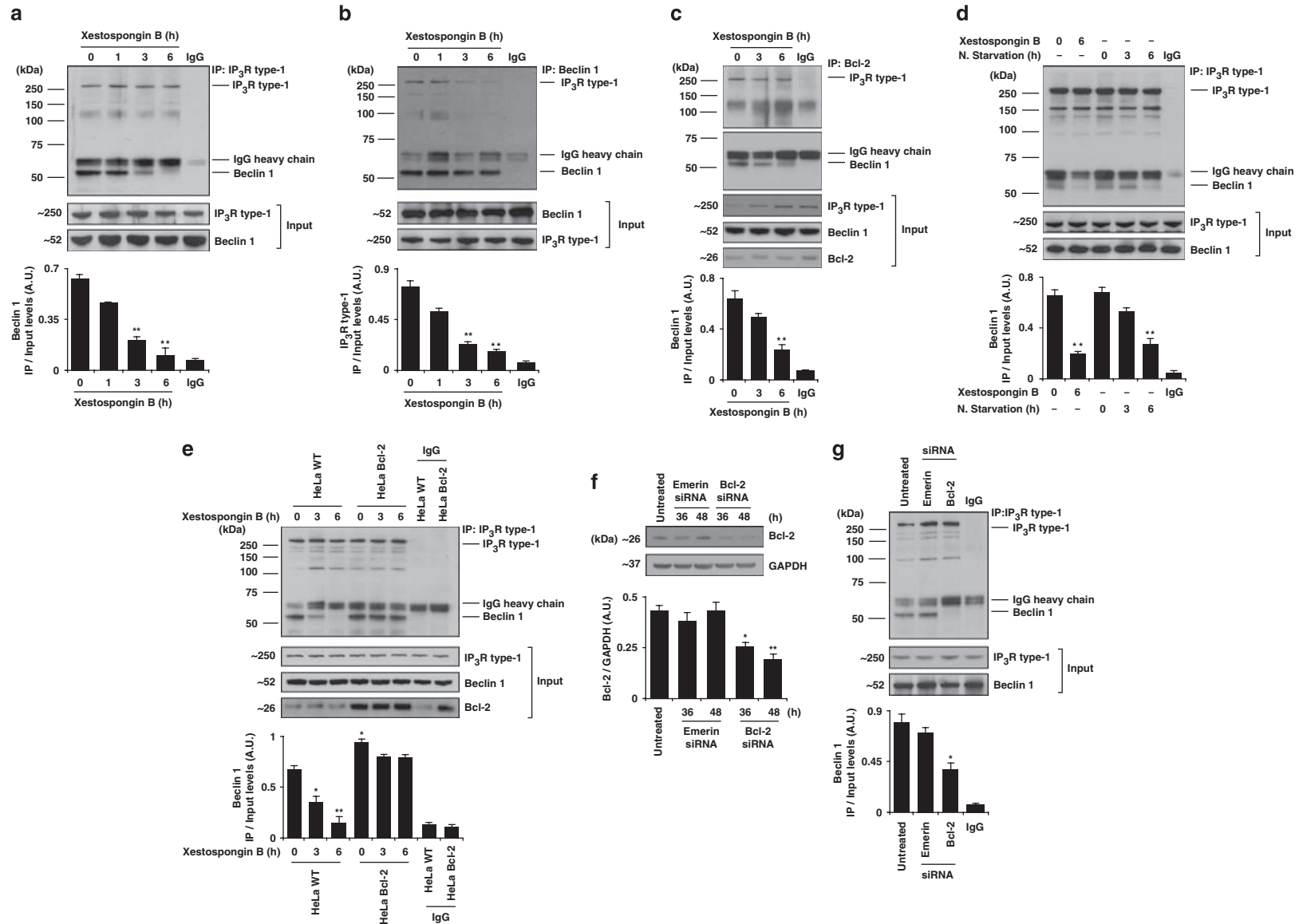


Figure 4 A Bcl-2-dependent molecular complex comprising the IP₃R and Beclin 1 regulates autophagy. Immunoprecipitation assays were carried out as indicated in Materials and Methods using wild-type (WT) (a–d) and Bcl-2 overexpressing HeLa cells (e), as well as HeLa cells in which Bcl-2 was depleted by specific siRNAs (g). Xestospongins B induces the dissociation of Beclin 1 from the IP₃R (a) and vice versa (b), as well as the separation of Beclin-1 from Bcl-2, without affecting the interaction between the IP₃R and Bcl-2 (c). Under nutrient starvation conditions, the interaction between Beclin 1 and the IP₃R was also lost (d). In HeLa cells, stably overexpressing Bcl-2, the xestospongins B-mediated dissociation of Beclin 1 from the IP₃R was reduced, compared with WT HeLa cells (e). Conversely, in HeLa cells depleted of Bcl-2 (f), the interaction between Beclin 1 and the IP₃R was already lost in unstimulated conditions (g). In all experiments, coimmunoprecipitated protein levels were quantified relative to input protein levels. Data are presented as mean ± S.E.M. of three independent triplicate assessments. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01 versus untreated controls

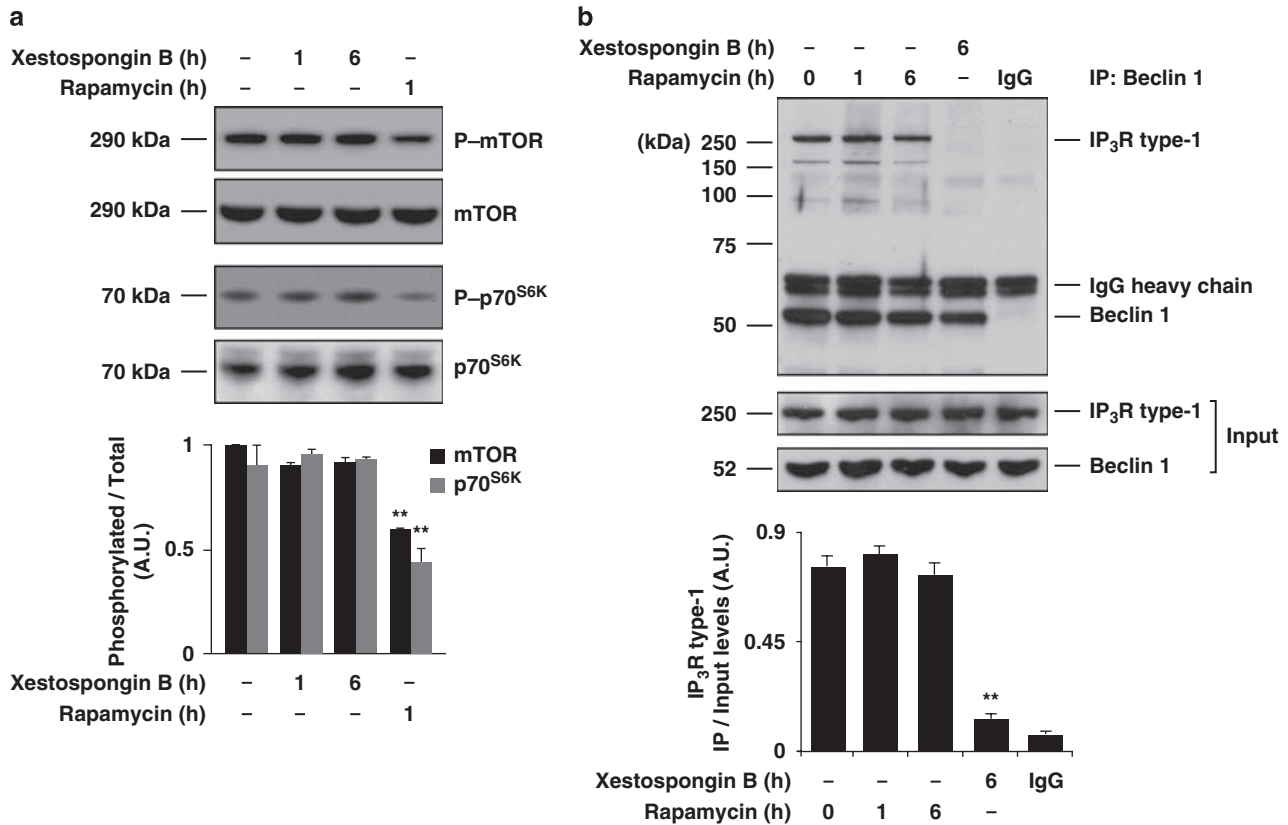


Figure 5 Xestospongins B effects are mTOR-independent. HeLa cells were treated with xestospongins B (2 μ M) or rapamycin (1 μ M) for the indicated periods and the levels of mTOR and p70^{S6K} phosphorylation were assessed by immunoblotting (a). The Beclin 1/IP₃R interaction was not modified by rapamycin treatment, in conditions in which xestospongins B caused its dissociation (b). Results are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. of three independent triplicate assessments. ** $P < 0.01$ versus untreated controls

to detect any effects of Beclin 1 knockdown on Ca²⁺ fluxes at the ER membrane, which suggests that Beclin 1 affects autophagy regulation mainly as an allosteric regulator of Vps34 (and perhaps other yet-to-be-discovered enzymatic activities and molecular motors), rather than through gross effects on Ca²⁺ handling.

In synthesis, the results contained in this study identify the IP₃R as a new, unsuspected regulator of the Beclin 1 complex that bridges signals converging on the ER and initial phagophore formation. Although the molecular details of this cross-talk require further exploration, our data point to the presence of an intriguing regulatory network in which the conformation of the IP₃R, as influenced by agonists and/or antagonists acting on its LBD, regulates the initiation of autophagy through an effect on Beclin 1.

Materials and Methods

Cells and treatments. Wild-type, Bcl-2 overexpressing and GFP-LC3 overexpressing derivatives of the human cervix adenocarcinoma HeLa cell line, as well as the rat fibroblast cell line Rat-1, were grown in Glutamax-containing Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 10 mM HEPES buffer. Wild-type and IP₃R-triple deficient chicken lymphoma DT40 cells were maintained in Glutamax-containing RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% chicken serum, 10 mM HEPES buffer and 10 μ M 2-mercaptoethanol. All cell lines were cultured in the presence of 100 U/ml penicillin G and 100 μ g/ml streptomycin, at 37 °C (5% CO₂). All media and supplements for cell culture were purchased from Gibco-Invitrogen (Carlsbad, USA). For serum and amino-acid starvation, cells were cultured in serum-free

Earle's Balanced Salt Solution medium (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), a condition that we refer to as 'nutrient starvation'. All cell lines were seeded in 6-, 12- or 24-well plates and grown for 24 h before treatments. Unless otherwise indicated, chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Bafilomycin A1 (1 nM), histamine (1–100 μ M), L-690 330 (100 μ M; Tocris, Bristol, UK), myo-inositol (10 μ M; Calbiochem, Darmstadt, Germany), pepstatin A (10 μ g/ml) and xestospongins B (2 μ M, extracted from the marine sponge *Xestospongia exigua* as described earlier^{38,42}) were added for 0–8 h, as indicated.

Dynamic *in vivo* [Ca²⁺]_i measurements. Basal and 2,5-di(ter-butyl)-1,4-benzohydroquinone (tBHQ)- or histamine-induced cytosolic Ca²⁺ signals were measured using either Fura-2 or the cytosolic version of the recombinant Ca²⁺ sensor aequorin (cytAEQ). All measurements were carried out in Krebs–Ringer modified buffer (KRB): 135 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgSO₄, 0.4 mM K₂HPO₄, 5.5 mM glucose, 20 mM HEPES (pH = 7.4), supplemented with 1 mM CaCl₂. HeLa cells were loaded with 3 μ M Fura-2/AM in KRB for 20 min at 37 °C and 10 min at RT. Cells were then perfused with KRB followed by 100 μ M tBHQ, and dye calibration was performed using ionomycin (1 μ M, the highest peak value) and ionomycin/EDTA (1 μ M/1 mM, the lowest peak value). Changes in emission at 520 nm after sequential excitation at 340 and 380 nm were recorded and calibrated into [Ca²⁺]_i from the ratio of emitted fluorescence, on the basis of an earlier described procedure that used a dissociation constant of 224 nM for Fura-2.⁴³ HeLa cells transiently expressing cytAEQ were administered with coelenterazine and transferred to a perfusion chamber. The light signal was collected in a purpose-built luminometer and calibrated into [Ca²⁺]_i values as described earlier.⁴⁴ To quantify the Ca²⁺ content of the ER, the fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET)-based ER-targeted ERD1 probe⁴⁵ was imaged using a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta laser confocal system (Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Germany). The probe was excited by a 405 nm laser diode, emission spectra were acquired at 420–600 nm and the yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) and cyan fluorescent protein (CFP) signals were obtained by unmixing the spectrum on the basis of previously registered

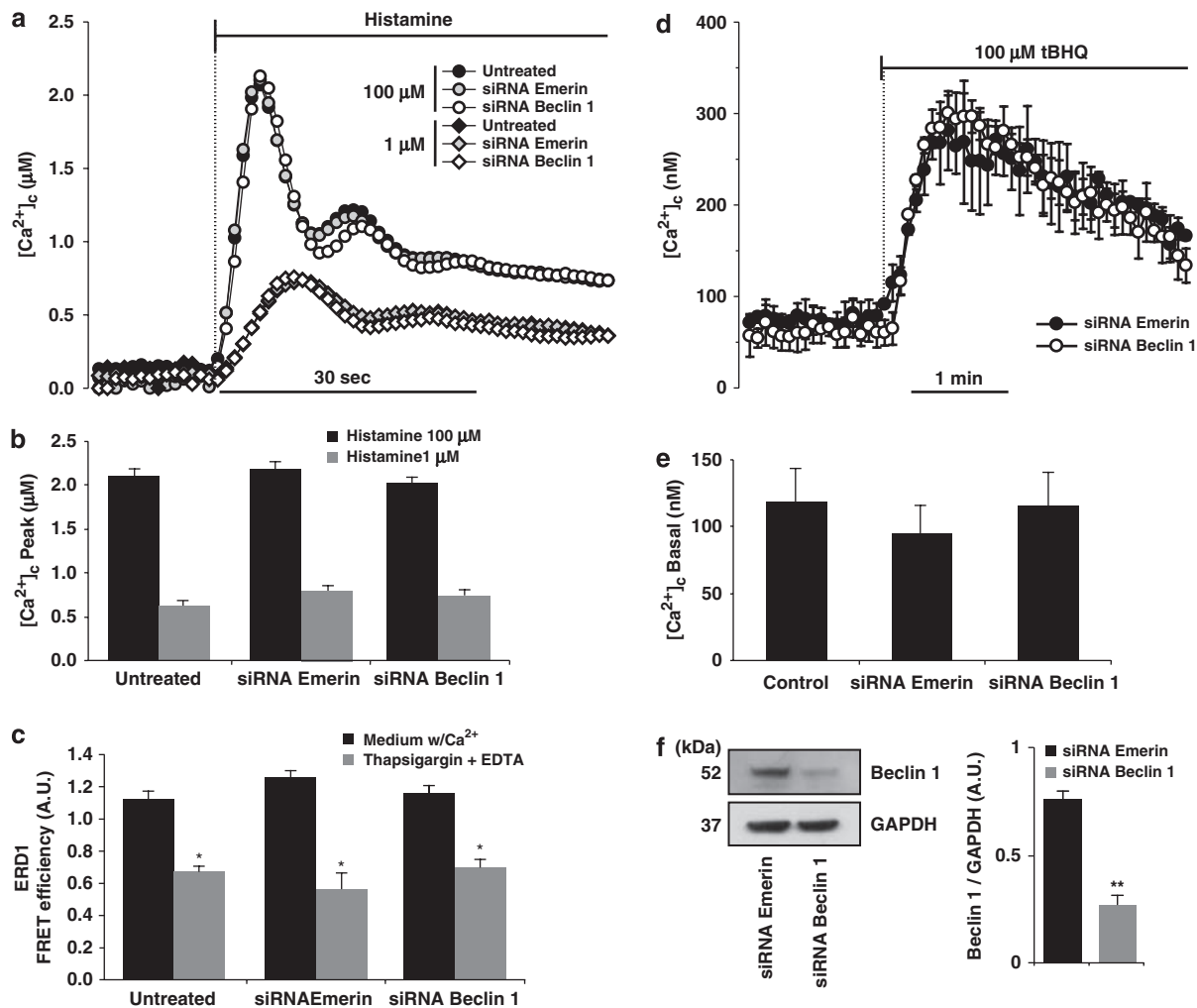


Figure 6 Beclin 1 depletion does not affect Ca^{2+} homeostasis. HeLa cells were transfected with specific siRNAs targeting Beclin 1 or the unrelated protein emerlin. After 48 h, cells were subjected to $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ measurements (a–e) or immunoblotting to check Beclin 1 levels (f). Histamine-evoked (1 and 100 μM) cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ increases were measured using cytAEQ. Representative traces (a) and mean \pm S.E.M. peak values are shown for each condition (b). Steady-state ER Ca^{2+} levels and thapsigargin-induced ER Ca^{2+} depletion levels were measured with the FRET probe ERD1 and mean \pm S.E.M. values are shown (c). Cytosolic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ after ER depletion with tBHQ (d), as well as steady-state cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels (e) were quantified using Fura-2. Representative traces and mean values \pm S.E.M. are shown, respectively. * $P < 0.05$ versus culture medium with Ca^{2+} . ** $P < 0.01$

spectra of separate CFP and YFP proteins, as well as the autofluorescence of non-transfected cells. FRET efficiency, which is a function of ER luminal $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$, was quantified using the acceptor bleaching method.⁴⁵ Briefly, after five acquisitions, YFP was bleached (at both 488 and 514 nm excitation wavelengths, typically by about 80–90%), followed by acquisition of further five image spectra. Reduction of the YFP signal leads to an increase in the CFP signal, which is normalized to the decrease of YFP intensity during bleaching. The normalized increase of CFP intensity is presented as FRET efficiency.

Immunoblots and immunoprecipitation. All cell lines (4×10^6 cells) were washed with PBS and lysed as describe earlier.⁴⁶ For immunoblotting, 50 μg of protein were separated onto NuPAGE gels (Invitrogen) and transferred to Immobilon-P^{5Q} PVDF membranes (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA). Membranes were incubated for 1 h in PBS-Tween 20 (0.05%) containing 5% BSA. Primary antibodies specific for Bcl-2, Beclin 1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), IP₃R-I (Calbiochem), IP₃R types I-II-III (Santa Cruz), LC3B, mTOR, p70^{S6K}, phospho-mTOR or phospho-p70^{S6K} (Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA, USA) were incubated overnight at 4 °C and revealed with the appropriate horseradish peroxidase-labeled secondary antibodies (SouthernBiotech, Birmingham, AL, USA) by means of the SuperSignal West Pico chemoluminescent substrate (Pierce,

Rockford, IL, USA). An antibody recognizing GAPDH (Chemicon) was used to control equal loading of lanes. For immunoprecipitation, extracts from HeLa cells (8×10^6 cells) were lysed and 400 μg of protein were precleared for 1 h with 15 μl of Protein G Sepharose 4 Fast Flow (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ, USA), and subsequently incubated for 3 h in the presence of anti-Beclin 1 antibody, anti-IP₃R-I, anti-RFP (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) and anti-Bcl-2 or immunoglobulin control. Immunoprecipitation immunoblotting was carried out using TrueBlot-HRP (eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA) secondary antibodies. Quantitative analysis of immunoblots was carried out by using the open source ImageJ software (freely available at <http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/index.html>). Results are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. Three independent experiments were carried out in triplicate, and statistical significance was evaluated by Student's *t*-test.

Immunofluorescence microscopy. For immunofluorescence staining, cells were fixed with paraformaldehyde (4% w/v, 20 min), permeabilized with Triton X-100 (0.3% in PBS, 30 min), blocked with 3% BSA and incubated overnight at 4 °C with a specific antibody against Lamp 2a (200 ng/ml; Santa Cruz). Nuclei were counterstained with 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ Hoechst 33342 (Molecular Probes-Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Conventional fluorescence microscopy was performed with a Leica IRE2 microscope equipped with a DC300F camera (Leica Microsystems,

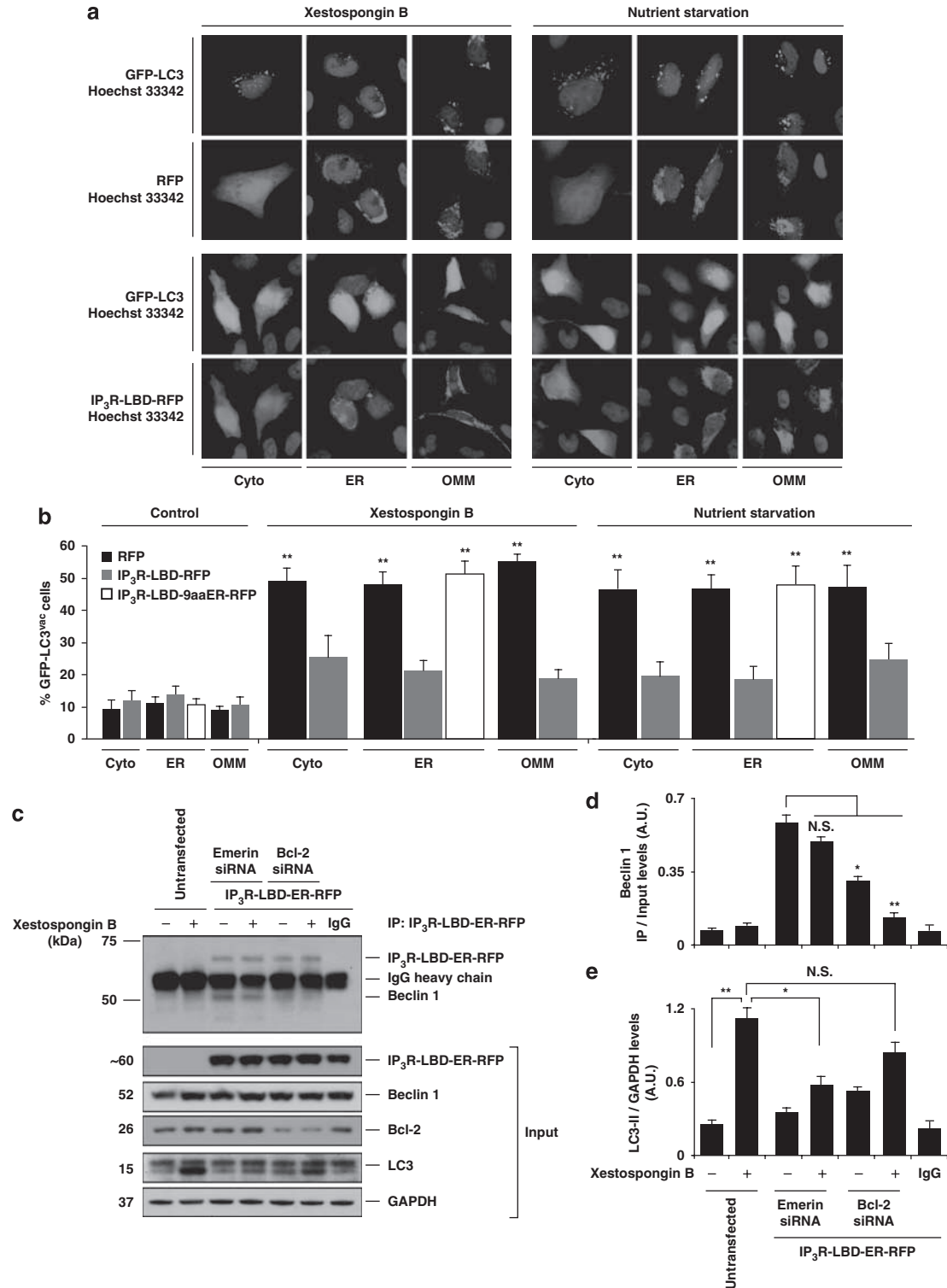


Figure 7 Overexpression of the IP₃R-LBD inhibits xestospongoin B-induced autophagy through interaction with Beclin 1. HeLa cells were cotransfected with GFP-LC3 and three IP₃R-LBD-RFP chimeric proteins targeted to different subcellular compartments, namely the cytosol (Cyto), the outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM) and the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). An inactive ER-targeted IP₃R-LBD-RFP, including a non-peptide linker (9aaER) as well as equally targeted variants of RFP alone were used as controls. Twenty-four hours after transfection, cells were subjected to treatment with xestospongoin B or nutrient starvation. Representative pictures of Hoechst 33342-counterstained cells were taken 4 h after treatment (a) and the percentage of adherent cells exhibiting GFP-LC3 vacuolization into cytoplasmic puncta was determined (b). The interaction between the IP₃R-LBD and Beclin 1 was assessed by immunoprecipitation experiments in HeLa cells that were transiently expressing IP₃R-LBD-ER-RFP and concomitantly subjected to siRNA-mediated emerlin or Bcl-2 knockdown as indicated (c). Coimmunoprecipitated Beclin 1 levels were normalized relative to input protein levels (d). LC3-II levels from the input lysates were normalized relative to GAPDH levels (e). Data are reported as mean ± S.E.M. of three independent experiments carried out in triplicates. **P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01. The colour reproduction of this figure is available on the html full version of the manuscript

Wetzlar, Germany). Confocal microscopy was carried out with a Leica TSC-SPE microscope equipped with a $63 \times /1.15$ Olympus objective by using LAS software (Leica Microsystems). Cells presenting a diffuse distribution of GFP-LC3 in the cytoplasm and nucleus were considered as non-autophagic, whereas cells exhibiting both several intense punctuate GFP-LC3 aggregates and nuclear GFP-LC3 exclusion were classified as autophagic (GFP-LC3^{vac}). Each GFP-LC3 staining was independently quantified by two investigators (JMV and CO).

Measurement of intracellular IP₃ levels. HeLa cells (4×10^6) were seeded in 100 mm culture dishes and were incubated after 24 h with L-690 330 (100 μ M), myo-inositol (10 μ M) and/or xestospongin B (2 μ M) for 0–100 min. Immediately afterwards, they were stimulated with histamine (100 μ M) for 0–3 min and lysed with 0.2 M ice-cold trichloroacetic acid. Cell extracts were then subjected to a radioreceptor assay (Perkin Elmer no. NEK064, Waltham, MA, USA). IP₃ levels were quantified in a liquid scintillation counter (Packard Tri-carb 2100TR, Packard Instrument, Meriden, CT, USA) and normalized to the amount of protein contained in each sample. Results are presented as mean \pm S.E.M. Three independent experiments were carried out in triplicate and statistical significance was evaluated by Student's *t*-test.

Plasmids, transfection and RNA interference. Cells were cultured in 6-well plates and transfected at 80% confluence by using Oligofectamine reagent (Invitrogen), with small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) specifically targeting human Beclin 1 (sense 5'-GAUUGAAGACACAGGAGGC-3')^{47,48}, Bcl-2 (sense 5'-GCUGCACCUGACGCCUUCTT-3')^{47,49} or the unrelated protein emerlin (sense 5'-TATGTCTCCTCATCTCTTCT-3')⁵⁰. All siRNAs were purchased from Sigma-Prologo. Transient transfections with plasmids were carried out with Lipofectamine 2000 reagent (Invitrogen) and cells were used 24 h after transfection. Cells were transfected with an empty control vector or with a plasmid encoding for GFP-LC3.⁵¹ Cotransfection was carried out using a mixture of the GFP-LC3-encoding plasmid and plasmids encoding for variants of the IP₃R-LBD coupled to RFP targeted to different subcellular compartments, namely the cytosol (IP₃R-LBD-RFP-Cyto), the OMM (IP₃R-LBD-RFP-OMM) and the ER (IP₃R-LBD-RFP-ER). As controls, a plasmid coding for an ER-targeted IP₃R-LBD that is rendered inactive by the incorporation of a nonapeptide linker sequence (IP₃R-9aa-LBD-RFP-ER), as well as plasmids encoding RFP alone targeted to the cytosol (RFP-Cyto), the OMM (RFP-OMM) or the ER (RFP-ER) were used.^{24,37,52}

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