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Mechanism whereby arsenite promotes mitochondrial superoxide formation: critical regulation by upstream events resulting in Ca²⁺ mobilization and mitochondrial accumulation

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Abstract

Arsenite is a widely distributed carcinogen and toxic compound that mediates various deleterious effects via the intermediate formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Recent work performed in our laboratory has demonstrated that prolonged (hours) exposure of human myeloid leukemia U937 cells to low micromolar concentrations of arsenite elicits Ca²⁺ release from the inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor (IP_3R) and the crosstalk between this pool and the ryanodine receptor (RyR). The fraction of Ca²⁺ derived from the RyR was then critical to promote the mitochondrial accumulation of the cation and the ensuing mitochondrial superoxide $(mitoO_2^{-})$ formation. It was interesting to observe that these time and concentration requirements were dramatically lowered under conditions in which the mitochondrial accumulation of Ca^{2+} was enforced by IP₃ releasing or RyR agonists. Thus, very low concentrations of arsenite rapidly target the mitochondrial respiratory chain, with however significantly greater time and concentration requirements for Ca²⁺ mobilization from the ER. Based on the above findings, this second event appears critical and likely restricted to cell types concomitantly expressing the IP₃R and a RyR. This notion was clearly established in studies showing that arsenite fails to promote mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation and mito O_2^{-} formation in cells uniquely expressing the IP₃R. Arsenite instead elicited these events when cells were manipulated to gain expression of the RyR and lost these abilities under conditions in which cells expressing both Ca²⁺ channels were manipulated to downregulate the RyR.

RyR expression therefore represents a critical requirement for mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation and mito O_2^{-} formation induced by arsenite. The second requirement is instead represented by the recruitment phase of this channel, apparently located in close apposition with the mitochondria. We found that,

under the above conditions, arsenite causes an ER stress response associated with a threefold increase in ER oxidoreductin 1α (ERO1 α) levels in cells expressing both the IP₃R and RyR. EN460, an inhibitor of ERO1 α , recapitulated all the effects associated with RyR inhibition or downregulation, including prevention of RyR-induced Ca²⁺ accumulation in mitochondria and the resulting mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation. Moreover, ERO1 α knockout cells responded to arsenite as their wild-type counterpart supplemented with EN460. As a final note, arsenite enhanced the expression of ERO1 α via a mechanism mediated by Ca²⁺ release from both the IP₃R and RyR.

We therefore conclude that arsenite activates a positive feedback amplification cycle between Ca^{2+} levels and ERO1 α in the ER, by which IP₃R-dependent Ca^{2+} induces ERO1 α and ERO1 α promotes Ca^{2+} release *via* RyR, thereby amplifying the initial Ca^{2+} load and causing the mitochondrial accumulation of the cation, critical for mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation.

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1. Introduction

Calcium (Ca²⁺) is an almost universal intracellular messenger, controlling a diverse range of cellular processes as gene transcription, muscle contraction and cell proliferation. The ability of a simple ion as Ca²⁺ to play a pivotal role in cell biology results from the facility that cells have to shape Ca²⁺ signals in the dimensions of space, time and amplitude. To generate the variety of observed Ca²⁺ signals, different cell types employ components selected from a Ca²⁺ signaling 'toolkit', which includes an array of signaling, homeostatic and sensory mechanisms. By mixing and matching components from the toolkit, cells can obtain Ca²⁺ signals that suit their physiology (Bootman et al., 2001).

Intracellular mobilization of Ca^{2+} , an event that regulates an array of different physiological functions, as well as pathologically and toxicologically relevant dysfunctions, is mediated predominantly by two Ca^{2+} channels, the inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor (IP₃R) and the ryanodine receptor (RyR) (Berridge et al., 2016; Chernorudskiy and Zito, 2017; Meissner et al., 2017). These Ca^{2+} channels are located on the surface of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and share numerous similarities, including a complex regulation mediated by reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Gorlach et al., 2015). RyR, a homotetramer comprising four 565 kDa monomers of approximately 5000 amino acids each (Zalk et al. 2015), is a member of the same gene family as IP₃R and has evolved specialized functions required for excitation-contraction coupling in striated muscles. There are three subtypes of RyRs in mammalian tissues. RyR1 (Marks et al. 1989) and RyR2 (Brillantes et al. 1992), expressed in the skeletal and cardiac muscle, respectively, are also expressed in non-muscle tissues (Fitzgerald et al., 1994; Maki et al., 1996; Rosemblit et al., 1999) (Brillantes et al., 1994). RyR3, originally identified in the brain, but widely expressed in nonneuronal tissues (McPherson & Campbell, 1990; McPherson et al. 1991;

Hakamata et al. 1992; Kuwajima et al. 1992). RyRs are macromolecular complexes (Marks et al. 2002) specifically targeted to the channels' cytoplasmic domain to regulate its gating and activity. Stress induced remodeling of the complex contributes to disorders including muscular dystrophy, heart failure, cardiac arrhythmias and cognitive dysfunction (Marx et al., 2000, 2001; Santulli et al., 2017).

IP₃R channels are homo- or hetero-tetramers composed of four subunits (approximately 300 kDa each). Three forms of IP₃Rs (types 1, 2 and 3) have been described (Nakagawa et al., 1991). Virtually all cell types have at least one form of IP₃R and many express all three types. IP₃R2 is the predominant isoform in contractile myocardial cells and in the sinoatrial node (Verma et al., 1992), whereas IP₃R1 is the more abundant in other cell types, including endothelial cells (ECs) and Purkinje fibers (Gorza et al., 1993). IP₃R function is regulated by a classic second messenger cellular signaling pathway mediated by inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃), produced primarily by phospholipase C (PLC) metabolism of phosphoinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PIP₂) in response to the stimulation of G-protein-coupled receptors. IP₃Rs are also macromolecular signaling complexes that mediate phosphorylation by receptor tyrosine kinases and non-receptor tyrosine kinases, for instance protein kinase A (PKA), and are regulated during physiological and pathophysiological states (Marks et al., 1990, Moschella et al., 1995).

Arsenic is one of the most important global environmental pollutants and is a persistent bioaccumulative carcinogen (Sukhvinder Kaur et al., 2011). Ingestion of contaminated drinking water by populations from various parts of the planet has been associated with the induction of different types of tumors [lung, skin, liver, bladder and kidney (Sankpal et al., 2012; Shakoor et al., 2017; Zhou and Xi, 2018)] as well as other nonmalignant diseases affecting various tissues and organs (Flora, 2011; Shakoor et al., 2017).



Arsenite causes a plethora of effects in target cells through its direct binding to biomolecules or *via* the intermediate formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Flora 2011; Jomova et al., 2011). Unfortunately, the very large majority of the available studies provided a general indication of arsenite-induced ROS formation, with no systematic attempt to identify their origin and, thus, the overall scenario remains poorly understood (Hu et al. 2020). Hence, the impact of the metalloid in different cell types should depend on their susceptibility to arsenite-induced ROS formation, in turn affected by an array of variables associated with the specific characteristics of the cells, tissues, and organs. Arsenite induces various responses in different cell lines producing ROS *via* different mechanisms, *e.g.*, in the mitochondrial respiratory chain (Liu et al., 2005; Guidarelli et al., 2004; Straub et al., 2008), or through both mechanisms (Li et al., 2014).

In our laboratory, we used undifferentiated U937 (U-U937) cells and found that they respond to challenge with low concentrations of arsenite with the time-dependent formation of mitochondrial superoxide ($mitoO_2^{-}$) (Guidarelli et al., 2015, 2016), sensitive to inhibitors of electron transport in

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the respiratory chain. Furthermore, we also used respiration-deficient U937 (RD-U937 cells) and demonstrated their inability to generate mito O_2^{-} after arsenite treatment. We then investigated the mechanism whereby arsenite mobilizes Ca²⁺ from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and found that the metalloid promotes an initial slow mobilization of a limited amount of the cation from the IP₃R. This response was ROS-independent and possibly mediated by the direct interaction of arsenite with this Ca²⁺ pool (Guidarelli et al., 2018). The initial IP₃R stimulation was associated with the recruitment of the RyR, thereby leading to the release of large amounts of Ca²⁺ (Guidarelli et al., 2018). This second response was therefore sensitive to RyR inhibitors and RyR downregulation achieved after differentiation (D-U937 cells) (Guidarelli et al., 2009).



Guidarelli et al., J Pharmacol Exp Ther, 2018

Importantly, the fraction of Ca^{2+} derived from the RyR was taken up by the mitochondria through the low affinity mitochondrial Ca^{2+} uniporter (MCU) and was critical for mito O_2^{--} formation (Guidarelli et al., 2019). Thus, mitochondrial ROS formation was sensitive to inhibitors of electron transport and the respiration-deficient phenotype as well as to IP₃R, RyR or

MCU inhibitors. In addition, the metalloid failed to promote $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation in cells with downregulated RyR (Guidarelli et al., 2019).



Guidarelli et al., Redox Biol, 2019

These observations and considerations stimulated the present thesis work in which we asked three specific questions. The first one was on the requirements (time and concentration) for arsenite in the overall process leading to mito O_2^{-} formation. The second question was on the implication of our previous findings in terms of cell specificity. In other words, the mechanism whereby arsenite promotes mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation in U-U937 cells implies that this response is restricted to cells with a specific spatial and functional organization of their ER, in particular with reference to the reciprocal topology of the two Ca²⁺ release receptors, the IP₃R and RyR, and their relative vicinity to mitochondria. It is indeed well established that contact sites between the ER and mitochondria regulate Ca2+ transfer between these two organelles, through the MCU (Kirichok et al. 2004; Rizzuto et al. 2012), which requires cytosolic Ca^{2+} concentrations ($[Ca^{2+}]_c$ in the 10-20 μ M range. These high $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ can be reached only in the very close proximity of the IP₃R or the RyR, when activated by agonist stimulation, or treatment with toxic compounds (Van Petegem 2012; Bansaghi et al. 2014;

Berridge 2016; Guidarelli et al. 2019). The aforementioned hypothesis initially build up on experiments performed in U-U937, RD-U937 and D-U937 cells, can therefore be challenged in other cell types characterized by a different spatial organization of the ER.

The third question addressed the issue of the mechanism(s) underlying the crosstalk between the IP₃R and RyR after arsenite stimulation. We tested the possibility that the metalloid causes an ER stress associated with increased expression of ERO1a, a protein disulfide oxidase that might release H_2O_2 site-specifically, to oxidase critical thiols of the RyR and promote the release of Ca²⁺.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Chemicals. Sodium arsenite, 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate (2-APB), Ry, L-ascorbic acid (AA), rotenone, caffeine (Cf), ATP, phorbol-12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), apocynin, diphenyleneiodonium (DPI), Hoechst 33342 and most of the reagent-grade chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Milan, Italy). Ru360, Fluo 4-acetoxymethyl ester (Fluo 4-AM), Rhod 2-acetoxymethyl ester (Rhod 2-AM), dihydrorhodamine 123 (DHR), and MitoSOX red were from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Milan, Italy). MitoTrackerDeep Red tracker was purchased from Molecular probes (Leiden, NL).

2.2 Antibodies. The antibodies against the phosphorylated or nonphosphorylated p47 phagocyte oxidase (anti-Phospho-p47^{phox}, SAB4504721; anti-p47^{phox}, SAB4502810) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Milan, IT). Antibody against actin (anti-actin, VMA00048) was acquired from BIO-RAD (Hercules, CA). The antibody against ERO1L was generated as indicated in (Zito et al., 2010). The antibody against thioredoxin-2 (anti-Trx2; sc-133201), against cytochrome c (anti-Cyt c, 7H8, sc-13560) and the horseradish peroxidase–conjugated secondary antibody (anti-rabbit IgG-HRP, sc-2357; anti-mouse-IgGk BP-HRP, sc-516102) were obtained from Santa Cruz (Santa Cruz, CA).

2.3 Cell culture and treatment conditions. U937 human myeloid leukemia cells, herein defined as U-U937 cells, were cultured in suspension in RPMI 1640 medium (Sigma-Aldrich, Milan, IT). Culture media were supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Euroclone, Celbio Biotecnologie, Milan, IT), penicillin (100 U/ml), and streptomycin (100 mg/ml) (Euroclone). Cells were grown at 37°C in T-75 tissue culture flasks (Corning Inc., Corning, NY) gassed with an atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂. These cells were differentiated to monocytes (*i.e.*, D-cells) by 4 days

of growth in culture medium supplemented with 1.3% dimethylsulfoxide (Guidarelli et al., 2009). The respiration-deficient phenotype (*i.e.*, RD-U937) was obtained by culturing U937 cells in RPMI medium containing 110 μ g/ml pyruvate, 5 μ g/ml uridine and 400 ng/ml ethidium bromide for 4 days with medium changes every 2 days (Guidarelli et al., 2016).

The mouse myoblast cell line C2C12 (ECACC 91031101, lot 12F005) was purchased from the European Collection of Authenticated Cell Cultures (ECACC, Salisbury, UK) and cultured in high-glucose D-MEM (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% heat inactivated FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine (Euroclone). Cells at 60-70 % confluence were split 1:4 or 1:5. Upon 80-90% confluence, C2C12 myoblasts (*i.e.*, U-C2C12) were stimulated to differentiate (*i.e.*, D-C2C12) by changing the growth medium with D-MEM containing 1% heat inactivated FBS. Fresh D-MEM (1% heat inactivated FBS) was replaced daily. In all experiments reported in the present work, C2C12 cells were used up to passage number 15.

ERO1a KO C2C12 were generated with the CRISPR/CAS9 technology (sc-401747-HDR, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) (Varone et al., 2019). ERO1 KO C2C12 and the WT counterparts were cultured and differentiated as described above.

HeLa human cervical cancer cells were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium supplemented with 10% FBS (Euroclone). All cells were cultured with penicillin (100 units/ml) and streptomycin (100 mg/ml) (Euroclone) at 37°C in T-75 tissue culture flasks (Corning) gassed with an atmosphere of 95% air-5% CO₂.

Sodium arsenite was prepared as a 1 mM stock solution in saline A (8.182 g/l NaCl, 0.372 g/l KCl, 0.336 g/l NaHCO₃, and 0.9 g/l glucose, pH 7.4) and stored at 4°C. Cells (1.5×10^5 cells/ml) were exposed to arsenite, and/or other addictions, in the respective complete culture medium, as detailed in the text, as well as in the legends to the figures.

2.4 DHR and MitoSOX red fluorescence assay. The cells were supplemented with either 10 µM DHR or 5 µM MitoSOX red for 30 min and subsequently exposed for the last 10 min to arsenite. In other experiments, cells were exposed for increasing time intervals to arsenite and DHR was added to the culture medium in the last 30 min of incubation. After the treatments, the cells were washed 3 times with saline A and fluorescence images were captured with a BX-51 microscope (Olympus, Milan, Italy) equipped with a SPOT-RT camera unit (Diagnostic Instruments, Delta Sistemi, Rome, Italy) using an Olympus LCAch 40x/0.55 objective lens. The excitation and emission wavelengths were 488 and 515 nm (DHR) and 510 and 580 nm (MitoSOX red), with a 5-nm slit width for both emission and excitation. Images were collected with exposure times of 100-400 milliseconds. digitally acquired and processed for fluorescence determination at the single-cell level on a personal computer using ImageJ software. Mean fluorescence values were determined by averaging the fluorescence values of at least 50 cells per treatment condition per experiment.

2.5 Measurement of intracellular free calcium levels and mitochondrial Ca^{2+} . Cells were treated for 30 min with either 4 µM Fluo-4 or 10 µM Rhod 2-AM and subsequently exposed for the last 10 min to arsenite. After the treatments, the cells were washed 3 times with saline A and subsequently analyzed with a fluorescence microscope. The resulting images were taken and processed as described above. The excitation and emission wavelengths were 488 and 515 nm (Fluo-4) and 540 and 590 nm (Rhod 2-AM), with a 5-nm slit width for both emission and excitation. Images were collected with exposure times of 100–400 ms, digitally acquired and processed for fluorescence determination at the single-cell level on a personal computer using the ImageJ software. Mean fluorescence values were determined by

averaging the fluorescence values of at least 50 cells per treatment condition per experiment.

2.6 Super resolution and confocal microscopy. U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells were grown in arsenite for 6 h and Rhod 2-AM together with MitoTracker Deep Red tracker were added to the culture medium in the last 30 min. Confocal and Structured Illumination microscopy (SIM) was done on a Nikon SIM system with a 100x 1.49 NA oil immersion objective, managed by NIS elements software. Raw and reconstructed images were validated with the SIM check plugin of Image. Four different fields were randomly selected throughout the wells and imaged at laser excitation of 561 nm (Rhod-2AM) and 640 nm (mitochondria with MitoTracker Deep Red) with a 3D-SIM acquisition protocol. Confocal images were quantified with ImageJ. Colocalisation between Rhod 2-AM and MitoTracker was analyzed using the Jacop ImageJ plugin and expressed as Manders index.

2.7 Immunofluorescence analysis. HeLa, U-U937, D-U937, U-C2C12 or D-C2C12 cells were grown in 35 mm tissue culture dishes containing an uncoated coverslip, incubated for 16 h in the absence or presence of arsenite. After the treatment, the U-U937 or D-U937 cells were centrifuged, incubated for 10 min in 2 ml of saline A to allow cells to attach to the coverslip. Then, cells were fixed for 1 min with 95% ethanol/5% acetic acid, washed with phosphate buffer saline (PBS, 136 mM NaCl, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄, 3 mM KCl; pH 7.4) and blocked in PBS-containing bovine serum albumin (2% w/v) (30 min at room temperature). The cells were subsequently incubated with the primary antibody (1:100 in PBS containing 2% bovine serum albumin), stored for 18 h at 4°C, washed and then incubated for 3 h in the dark with fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated secondary antibody diluted 1:100 in PBS. The cells were then analyzed with a fluorescence microscope to count the relative numbers of cells bearing a punctate fluorescence, consistent with mitochondrial localization of

cytochrome c, and a diffused fluorescence, consistent with the mitochondrial loss of cytochrome c. In each experiment, at least 150 cells were analyzed to calculate the percentage of cells with a diffused fluorescence, indicative of MPT-dependent loss of cytochrome c.

2.8 Western Blot analysis. Cells were plated in 60 mm or 100 mm dishes. When cells reached 80% confluence, cell culture medium was discarded and dishes were washed 2 times in PBS; then, the lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 10 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM NaCl and 0.1% Triton) was added. The lysate was collected in Eppendorf tubes and centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was used for electrophoresis and the pellet was discarded. Laemmli Sample Buffer $1 \times (0.125 \text{ M Tris HCl pH } 6.8, 10\% \text{ SDS},$ 20% glycerol, 1 M DTT, 0.004% bromophenol blue) was added to protein extracts and then the extracts were loaded into a polyacrylamide gel (Stacking gel: 5% Bis-acrylamide, 0.3 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 5% SDS, 1% ammonium persulfate, 0.2% TEMED; Running gel: 12% Bis-acrylamide, 0.3 M Tris-HCl pH 8.8, 0.5 M SDS, 1% ammonium persulfate, 0.25 % TEMED). Electrophoresis was performed in $1 \times$ running buffer (3.03 g Tris Base, 14.4 g glycine, 0.1% SDS) at 25 mA for 1 h. Proteins were transferred from the gel to a nitrocellulose membrane (Wet/Tank Blotting System, Bio-Rad) using transfer buffer with 20% of methanol at 100 V for 1 h. To block non-specific sites, the membrane was incubated with 5% bovine serum albumin or milk (Bovine Serum Albumin, Sigma) in TBS (0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 0.8 M NaCl). The membrane was incubated in primary antibodies diluted in 5% milk in TBST (TBS and 0.1% Tween) for 1 h at room temperature or overnight at 4°C. After 3 washes in TBST, the membrane was probed with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit or anti-mouse IgG antibodies at room temperature for 1 h and visualized with enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL). Band intensity was quantified by densitometry using ImageJ and normalized to loading controls.

For non-reducing SDS-PAGE, cells were treated with 20 mM NEM to quench free thiols.

2.9 Redox Western Blot analysis. The Trx2 redox state was estimated by redox western blots as described in (Folda et al., 2016). Briefly, after treatments, the cells (2.5×10^6) were washed with PBS (136 mM NaCl, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄, 3 mM KCl; pH 7.4) and resuspended in 150 µl of urea lysis buffer (100 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.2; 8 M urea; 1 mM EDTA) containing 10 mM iodoacetoamide. The samples were then incubated for 20 min at 37°C and centrifuged at 14,000g for 1 min. Ten volumes of cold acetone/1 M HCl (98:2) were added to the supernatants, and the pellets were washed twice with acetone/1 M HCl/H₂O (98:2:10). The pellets were resuspended in 60 µl of urea lysis buffer containing 3.5 mM dithiothreitol and, after a 30 min incubation at 37 °C, supplemented with 30 mM iodoacetoamide and incubated for a further 30 min at 37 °C. Samples were then subjected to urea-PAGE (7 M urea and 7% acrylamide) under non-reducing conditions and blotted (Folda et al., 2016).

2.10 Fluorogenic Caspase 3 assay. Caspase 3–like activity was monitored as described in (Guidarelli et al. 2005). Briefly, the cells were lysed and aliquots of the extract (30 μ g proteins) were incubated with 12 μ M of Acetyl-Asp-Glu-Val-Asp-7-amido-4-methylcoumarin, at 30 °C. Caspase 3–like activity was determined fluorometrically (excitation at 360 nm and emission at 460 nm) by quantifying the release of aminomethylcoumarin from cleaved caspase 3 substrate at appropriate intervals.

2.11 Analysis of apoptosis with Hoechst 33342 assay. After treatments, the cells were incubated for 5 min in the presence of 10 μ M Hoechst 33342 and then analyzed with a fluorescence microscope to assess their nuclear morphology (chromatin condensation and fragmentation). Cells with homogeneously stained nuclei were considered viable.

2.12 Cytotoxicity assay. After treatments with arsenite, the number of viable cells was estimated with the trypan blue exclusion assay. Briefly, an aliquot of the cell suspension was diluted 1:2 (v/v) with 0.4% trypan blue and the viable cells (*i.e.*, those excluding trypan blue) were counted with a hemocytometer.

2.13 Alkaline Halo assay. DNA single-strand breakage was determined using the alkaline halo assay that was developed in our laboratory (Cantoni and Guidarelli, 2008). It is important to note that, although we refer to DNA strand scission throughout the text, the DNA nicks measured by this technique under alkaline conditions may in fact include alkali labile sites in addition to direct strand breaks. Details on the alkaline halo assay, processing of fluorescence images and the calculation of the experimental results are also given in ref. (Cantoni and Guidarelli, 2008). DNA single-strand breakage was quantified by calculating the nuclear spreading factor value, representing the ratio between the area of the halo (obtained by subtracting the area of the nucleus from the total area, nucleus + halo) and that of the nucleus, from 50 to 75 randomly selected cells/experiment/treatment condition.

2.14 ATP determination. Ice-cold 5% perchloric acid was added to the cells $(2 \times 10^6 \text{ cells})$. After a 10 min incubation in an ice bath, the samples were centrifuged for 5 min at 10,000 g. The supernatants were neutralized with 3 M K₂CO₃ and the precipitates were removed by centrifugation. Ten percent (v/v) 1 M KH₂PO₄ (pH 6.5) was added to the nucleotide-containing supernatants. The samples were then filtered through 0.22-µm pore microfilters. The clear filtered solutions were directly analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with the UV detection wavelength set at 254 nm (Stocchi et al., 1985). The liquid chromatographic system used consisted of a System Gold Programmable Solvent Module 125 and a System Gold Programmable Solvent Detector 166 (Beckman,

Fullerton, CA). The HPLC separation was performed using a 5- μ m Supelco Discovery C18 column (15 cm x 4.6 mm) equipped with a 5- μ m Supelguard Discovery 18 (2 cm x 4.0 mm) (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA). The mobile phase used for the separation consisted of buffer A (0.1 M KH₂PO₄) and buffer B (90:10 buffer A/methanol). The following gradient of buffer B was used: 25% in 9 min, 90% in 6 min, and 100% in 2.5 min. Buffer B (100%) was held for 2 min, and 100%–0% was reached in 6 min. Re-equilibration with buffer A for 5 min was performed before each injection. The injected volume was 20 µl, and the flow rate was 1.3 ml/min.

2.15 Measurement of GSH content by High-Performance Liquid **Chromatography.** The cells (1×10^6) were suspended in 100 µl of lysis buffer, vortexed and kept for 10 min on an ice bath. Thereafter, 15 µl of 0.1 N HCl and 140 µl of precipitating solution (0.2 M glacial meta-Phosphoric acid, 5 mM sodium EDTA, 5 M NaCl) were added to the samples. After centrifugation, the supernatants were collected and kept at 220°C until the HPLC analyses. Just before analysis, 60 µl of the acid extract was supplemented with 15 μ l of 0.3 M Na₂HPO₄ and 15 μ l of a solution containing 20 mg of 5,5'- dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoic acid) in 100 ml of sodium citrate (1% w/v). The mixture was stirred for 1 min at room temperature and, after 5 min, filtered through 0.22-µm pore microfilters. The clear filtered solution was directly analyzed by HPLC, with the UV detection wavelength set at 330 nm for their glutathione (GSH) content (Brundu et al., 2016), using a 15 cm x 4.6 mm, 5-mm Supelco Discovery C18 column (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA). The UV absorption was detected at 330 nm. The injection volume was 20 ml. The retention time of GSH was approximately 15.7 min. The liquid chromatographic system used is the same described in the previous paragraph (ATP determination). The HPLC separation was performed using a 15 cm x 4.6 mm, 5-µm Supelco Discovery C18 column equipped with a 5-µm Supelguard Discovery 18 (2 cm x 4.0 mm). The mobile phase used for the separation consisted of buffer A (0.1 M KH₂PO₄) and buffer B (40:60 buffer A/acetonitrile). The following gradient of buffer B was used: 0%-100% in 15 min; 100% buffer B was held for 5 min, and 100%–0% was reached in 20 min. Re-equilibration with buffer A for 10 min was performed before each injection. The injected volume was 20 µl, and the flow rate was 1 ml/min.

2.16 Real-time quantitative RT-PCR analysis. Total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy mini-Kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. One microgram of total RNA was reverse-transcribed and analyzed using the Applied Biosystems' real-time PCR System and the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method. Relative gene expression in cells was normalized to cyclophilin mRNA levels.

The sequence of primer pairs is:

hs-ATF4_Fw GGT TCT CCA GCG ACA AGG_Rv TCT CCA ACA TCC AAT CTG TCC

hs-CHOP_Fw CAT CAC CAC ACC TGA AAG CA_Rv TCA GCT GCC ATC TCT GCA

hs-CYCLOPHILIN_Fw GAC CCA ACA CAA ATG GTT CC_Rv TTT CAC TTT GCC AAA CAC CA.

2.17 Statistical analysis. The results are expressed as means \pm S.D. Statistical differences were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test for multiple comparison or two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's test for multiple comparison using Prism 6.0 software (GraphPad Software). We used an unpaired *t*-test for two group analyses. A value of P <0.05 was considered significant.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Arsenite-induced mitochondrial superoxide formation: time and concentration requirements for the effects of the metalloid on the endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondria

In our previous studies (Fiorani et al., 2018), we found that exposure of U-U937 cells to 2.5 μ M arsenite causes a time-dependent DHR fluorescence response, barely appreciable at 3 h and progressively more significant at 6 and 16 h. We recapitulated these experiments and found that the time-dependence is lost after addition of ATP (100 μ M), an IP₃R agonist (Berridge, 1993), or Cf (10 mM), a RyR agonist (Meissner, 2017), in the last 10 min of arsenite exposure (Fig. 1A). More specifically, we observed similar responses in cells treated for 16 h with arsenite, or for only 0.5 h with the metalloid and ATP or Cf supplementation in the final 10 min. In other experiments performed in cells loaded with DHR prior to treatment with arsenite, we obtained a maximal response under conditions of 10 min co-exposure to the metalloid and ATP, or Cf (Fig. 1B).

Next, we investigated the arsenite concentration dependence using the same 10 min co-exposure protocol. As indicated in Fig. 1C, ROS formation was already maximal at 0.5 μ M arsenite and significant at concentrations as low as 100 nM.

Collectively, the experimental results thus far discussed indicate that ATP or Cf supplementation promotes maximal ROS formation after a very short exposure to very low concentrations of arsenite.

In the above experiments, ROS formation was detected using DHR, a fluorescence probe that allows detection of H_2O_2 and other ROS as O_2^{-} , OH⁻ or peroxinitrite. It is however important to note that, as indicated by our previous studies (Guidarelli et al, 2015, 2016), the slow DHR-fluorescence response induced by arsenite is entirely mediated by species generated *via* a

 Ca^{2+} -dependent mechanism at the level of mitochondria, *i.e.*, mito O_2^{-} , which dismutates to diffusible H₂O₂, causing deleterious effects in mitochondrial and extra-mitochondrial compartment.

We therefore investigated whether the DHR fluorescence response induced by arsenite/ATP or /Cf was mediated by the same mechanism or by others (e.g., NADPH oxidase).

We found that the DHR fluorescence response induced by arsenite/Cf, while insensitive to the IP₃R antagonist 2-APB (Maruyama et al., 1997), was prevented by Ry, a RyR antagonist (Meissner, 2017), as well as by the MCU inhibitor Ru360 (Zazueta et al., 1999). These results suggest that ROS formation is mediated by a mechanism in which the fraction of Ca^{2+} released from the RyR is cleared by the mitochondria. To support further this notion, we investigated the effects of Cf, alone or associated with arsenite, on Ca^{2+} homeostasis.

Cf (10 min) increased both the $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Fig. 1E) and the $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ (Fig. 1F) and these responses were abolished by Ry and unaffected by 2-APB. Ru360 selectively abolished the increase in the $[Ca^{2+}]_m$, with hardly any effect detected on the $[Ca^{2+}]_c$. Identical responses were obtained using Cf associated with arsenite, which failed to promote detectable effects in the absence of the RyR agonist.

We then demonstrated that the DHR fluorescence response induced by arsenite/ATP was suppressed by 2-APB, Ry as well as Ru360 (Fig. 1D). Thus, as observed with arsenite/Cf, ROS formation appears mediated by a mechanism in which the fraction of Ca^{2+} released from the RyR is associated with the mitochondrial accumulation of the cation.

Consistently, ATP caused a significant increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Fig. 1E) and $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ (Fig. 1F), once again unaffected by arsenite. These responses were abolished by 2-APB. Ry and Ru360 suppressed mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation with respectively very little or no effect on the $[Ca^{2+}]_c$.

These results are therefore consistent with the notion that the mechanism whereby IP_3R and RyR agonists enhance ROS formation induced by a 10min exposure to arsenite involves enforced mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation.



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Fig. 1. Time- and concentration-dependence for the arsenite-induced ROS formation in the absence or presence of Ca²⁺ mobilizing agents. (A) U-U937 cells were exposed for increasing time intervals to 2.5 μ M arsenite, supplemented in the last 30 and 10 min of incubation with DHR and ATP (100 μ M) or Cf (10 mM), respectively, and finally analyzed for the resulting DHR fluorescence responses. (B) Cells were preloaded with DHR (30 min), treated for 10 or 30 min with arsenite and exposed to ATP or Cf in the last 10 min of incubation. (C) Cells were preloaded with DHR (30 min) and then exposed for 10 min to ATP or Cf with or without increasing concentrations of arsenite. (D) Cells preloaded with DHR (30 min) were exposed for 5 min to the vehicle, 2-APB (50 μ M), Ry (20 μ M) or Ru360 (10 μ M) and finally treated for a further 10 min with 2.5 μ M arsenite with or without ATP or Cf. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for their DHR fluorescence. (E-F) Cells pre-loaded for 30 min with Fluo-4-AM (E), or Rhod-2AM (F), were exposed for 5 min to 2-APB, Ry or Ru360 and treated for a further 10 min with 2.5 μ M arsenite, with or without ATP or Cf. Cells were then analyzed for their fluorescence responses. Results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three separate experiments. *P<0.05; **P<0.01, as compared with untreated cells. (A-C) Two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's test; (D,E,F) one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnet's test.

We next investigated whether the above events were indeed associated with $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation and eventually if there was also a role for NADPH oxidase activation. The initial experiments showed that the DHR fluorescence response induced by arsenite in combination with either Cf or ATP is sensitive to rotenone (an inhibitor of complex I) or L-ascorbic-acid (AA) (Fig 2A). Rotenone and AA instead failed to affect the $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ elicited by Cf, or ATP, in combination with the metalloid (Fig. 2B). Importantly, AA was used under conditions promoting a significant accumulation of the vitamin in mitochondria, thereby causing an effective scavenging of mitochondrial ROS (Fiorani et al., 2018).

Experiments performed using MitoSOX red, a fluorochrome commonly employed for the detection of O_2^{-} in the mitochondria of live cells, confirmed the mitochondrial origin of the ROS.

These results therefore indicate that most, if not all, the ROS produced using the co-exposure protocol are generated in the mitochondrial respiratory chain. Consistently, experiments performed in respiration-deficient U937 (RD-U937) cells demonstrated a lack of ROS formation (using both DHR and MitoSOX red) after treatment with arsenite/ATP or /Cf, despite the observed increases in $[Ca^{2+}]_m$, remarkably similar to those found in U-U937 cells.

As expected, there was no evidence of NADPH oxidase activation after a 10 min exposure to arsenite associated with ATP (Fig. 2D and E) or Cf (not shown). More specifically, we found that the DHR-fluorescence response induced by PMA was sensitive to apocynin and DPI (two NADPH oxidase inhibitors), with hardly effect mediated by these inhibitors on the DHR fluorescence response induced by arsenite/ATP. Moreover PMA, unlike

arsenite/ATP, promoted an apocynin- or DPI-sensitive p47^{phox} phosphorylation (Fig. 2E).



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Fig. 2. ROS formation induced by short-term co-exposure to low concentrations of arsenite and the Ca²⁺ mobilizing agents takes place in the mitochondrial respiratory chain. (A–C) U-U937 and RD-U937 cells (RP- and RD-cells) pre-loaded for 30 min with DHR (A), Rhod-2-AM (B), or MitoSOX red (C) were exposed for 5 min to the vehicle, rotenone (0.5 μ M), or AA (10 μ M) and were finally treated for a further 10 min with 2.5 μ M arsenite with or without ATP or Cf. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for the resulting fluorescence responses. (D) U-U937 cells pre-loaded with DHR (30 min), were exposed for 5 min to the vehicle, apocynin (10 μ M) or DPI (1 μ M) and for a further 10 min to the arsenite alone or associated with ATP. In some experiments, the cells were analysed for DHR-fluorescence. (E) The cells treated as indicated in D were analyzed for phospho p47^{phox} expression. The blot, representative of three separate experiments, was re-probed for p47^{phox}. Results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three separate experiments. *P < 0.01, as compared to untreated cells (one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnet's test).

Thus, the short-term exposure to arsenite/ATP or /Cf, as previously observed after prolonged exposure to the metalloid alone, leads to the exclusive

formation of mitoO₂^{-.} Since this process is Ca²⁺-dependent, the dramatic effects mediated by ATP or Cf are likely attributable to their ability to rapidly promote mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation. In this perspective, the slow ROS response induced by arsenite alone was dependent on events associated with Ca²⁺ mobilization from the ER and the subsequent increased $[Ca^{2+}]_m$.

We finally investigated whether $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation induced by arsenite/ATP or /Cf was associated with the onset of toxic events. There was no evidence for a decline in GSH and ATP levels, instead, readily observed using H₂O₂ as a positive control (not shown). We also performed Redox Western blots and did not obtain evidence of thioredoxin 2 (Trx2) oxidation in mitochondria. This event was instead readily detected using increasing concentrations of diamide (Fig. 3), as expected from other studies (Stanley et al., 2011; Folda et al., 2016).



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Fig. 3 Short-term exposure to arsenite/ATP or Cf did not change the redox state of Trx2. U-U937 cells (2.5×10^6) , treated for 10 min as detailed below, were processed for the analysis of reduced, partially oxidized and fully oxidized Trx2 thiol groups. The redox state of Trx2 was measured by urea-PAGE under non-reducing conditions. (a) control; (b) 2.5 μ M arsenite; (c) arsenite and ATP (d) arsenite and Cf (e), 0.5 mM diamide (60 min), (f) 1 mM diamide (60 min), (g) control, (h) mobility standard.

In other experiments, the cells were treated for 10 min with 2.5 μ M arsenite alone, or associated with ATP or Cf, and then analyzed after 0, 6 and 48 h of growth in drug-free medium. Under these different conditions, we did not observe caspase 3 activation (Fig. 4A), chromatin

condensation/fragmentation (Fig. 4B), or reduced cell proliferation rates (Fig. 4C). Instead, evidence documenting caspase 3 activation (Fig. 4A), DNA fragmentation (Fig. 4B) and a significant reduction in the counts of viable cells (Fig. 4C) was obtained in cells exposed for 48 h to arsenite.



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Fig. 4. MitoO₂⁻⁻ generated by the short-term co-exposure to arsenite and ATP or Cf fail to induce toxicity. (A and B) U-U937 cells exposed for 10 min to 2.5 μ M arsenite with or without ATP or Cf and analyzed for their caspase 3 activity (A) or for apoptosis, detected by measuring chromatin fragmentation/condensation (B), either immediately or after 6 or 48 h of growth in fresh culture medium. In other experiments, the cells were grown for 48 h in the presence of arsenite (A and B). (C) Cells were treated as indicated above and finally counted after growth in fresh culture medium for increasing time intervals. The closed circles indicate cells grown in the continuous presence of arsenite. (D–F) Cells were loaded (30 min) with Fluo 4-AM (D), Rhod-2-AM (E), or DHR (F) and then treated for 10 min as indicated in the figure. After treatments, the cells were processed to determine the respective fluorescence responses either immediately or 6 h post-incubation in fresh culture medium. Results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three separate experiments. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01, as compared with untreated cells. (A, B, and D–F) One-way ANOVA followed by Dunnet's test; (C) two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's test.

The lack of toxic consequences in the short-term co-exposure protocol is probably due to the reversibility of the upstream effects mediating ROS formation. This notion is clearly established by the results of experiments showing that the initial effects observed at 10 min on the $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Fig. 4D), $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ (Fig. 4E) and DHR-fluorescence response (Fig. 4F) return to control levels even after 6 h of post-treatments incubation.

In the next set of experiments, cells exposed to arsenite/ATP or /Cf were processed with the alkaline halo assay to determine DNA strand scission. The results shown in Fig. 5A indicate that cells exposed to any of the following agents, arsenite (30 min), ATP (10 min) or Cf (10 min), do not present signs of DNA damage. Ethidium bromide-stained cells that received these treatments were indeed identical to controls. Fig. 5A also provide typical images of cells with damaged DNA, as in cells receiving a 6 h exposure to arsenite, characterized by increased halo/reduced nuclear remnants. It was then interesting to observe that the DNA damaging response was even more pronounced in cells exposed for 30 min to arsenite with ATP or Cf supplemented in the last 10 min.

We analyzed the time dependence of DNA strand scission in cells exposed for increasing time intervals to arsenite, with or without ATP, or Cf, in the last 10 min of incubation. When cells were treated only with arsenite, the nuclear spreading factor increased very slowly (Fig. 5B), in contrast to treatments with the metalloid and ATP, or Cf, in which the accumulation of DNA lesions was extremely faster (Fig. 5A). We also showed that, using the same co-exposure protocol, maximal DNA-damaging responses were induced by 0.5-1 μ M arsenite (Fig. 5C).

Finally, we demonstrated that the effects induced by 1 μ M arsenite associated with ATP and Cf were abolished by treatments preventing ROS formation at the level of mitochondrial respiratory chain (rotenone or the respiration-deficient phenotype), or through their scavenging (AA), or by preventing mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation (Ry, Ru360). The IP₃R antagonist 2-APB prevented the DNA strand scission induced by arsenite/ATP.



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Fig. 5. MitoO₂⁻⁻ generated by the short-term coexposure to arsenite and ATP or Cf lead to DNA single-strand breakage. (A) Representative micrographs of U-U937 cells treated for 30 min with the vehicle (A 1), 2.5 μM arsenite

(A 2), ATP (in the last 10 min, A 3), Cf (in the last 10 min, A 4), arsenite and ATP (A 5) or arsenite and Cf (A 6) and finally processed with the alkaline halo assay. (A 7) Micrograph of cells exposed for 6 h to arsenite. (B) U-U937 cells exposed for increasing time intervals to 2.5 μ M arsenite received a 10 min treatment with ATP or Cf at the end of the incubation and were subsequently analyzed for DNA damage by the alkaline halo assay. (C) Cells exposed for 30 min to increasing concentrations of arsenite received ATP or Cf in the last 10 min and were then immediately analyzed for DNA damage. (D) U-U937 cells were exposed for 5 min to the vehicle, rotenone, AA, 2-APB-, Ry or Ru360 for a further 30 min to 2.5 μ M arsenite with or without ATP or Cf in the last 10 min of incubation and finally analyzed for DNA strand scission. In some experiments, the DNA-damaging response was measured in RD-U937 cells (RD cells) co-exposed for 30 min to arsenite and ATP or Cf. Results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three separate experiments (B and C) Two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's test; (D) one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnet's test.

The results presented in this section indicate that the prolonged exposure to arsenite resulting in mito O_2^{-} formation is necessary to affect Ca^{2+} homeostasis and accumulate the cation in mitochondria. The arsenite time and concentration requirements to promote mito O_2^{-} formation in the presence of sufficient mitochondrial Ca^{2+} were instead remarkably lower. Finally, the short-term exposure to arsenite/ ATP or /Cf associated with Ca^{2+} dependent mito O_2^{-} formation, on the one hand failed to promote toxicity and the other hand effectively promoted DNA single strand breakage.



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Fig. 6. Arsenite requirements for maximal Ca^{2+} -dependent mito O_2^{-}/H_2O_2 formation. Prolonged (h) exposure to high concentrations of arsenite is necessary to target the IP₃R and the crosstalk between this pool and the RyR to

promote RyR-derived Ca^{2+} accumulation in mitochondria. These events are favored by the specific architecture of the ER and by the close apposition between the RyR and mitochondria of U-U937 cells. Remarkably shorter exposure to significantly lower concentrations of the metalloid are instead required to maximally generate mito O_2^{-} under optimal conditions of Ca^{2+} availability. This notion was clearly established by enforcing mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation with IP₃R or RyR agonists, and the resulting mito O_2^{-} and its dismutation product, H₂O₂, although failing to promote mitochondrial dysfunction and MPT-dependent apoptosis, nevertheless caused extensive DNA strand scission.

3.2 Functional organization of the endoplasmic reticulum dictates the susceptibility of target cells to arsenite-induced mitochondrial superoxide formation, mitochondrial dysfunction and apoptosis

Based on the results presented in the previous section, it appears that $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation induced by arsenite can only occur under conditions in which the mitochondrial accumulation of Ca^{2+} is enhanced after the initial stimulation of the IP₃R and the successive recruitment of the RyR. In U-U937 cells, this second channel is in close apposition with mitochondria and the fraction of the cation derived from the IP₃R is not directly cleared by these organelles. Given this premise, we may expect that the arsenite-induced mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation and ROS formation are restricted to cell types expressing both the IP₃R and RyR.

We therefore performed a comparative study using various cell lines, including U-U937 cells. These cells, which as previously mentioned express both IP₃R and RyR (Sugiyama et al., 1994; Clementi et al., 1998; Hosoi et al., 2001; Guidarelli et al. 2009), can be differentiated to monocyte-like cells (D-U937 cells), with a concomitant loss of RyR expression (Guidarelli et al., 2009). We also used undifferentiated C2C12 (U-C2C12) cells that instead gained RyR expression after differentiation (D-C2C12 cells). U-C2C12 cells therefore uniquely expressed the IP₃R, in contrast to D-C2C12 cells, which express only the IP₃R.

Consistently with this premise, we found that a 10 min exposure to 10 mM Cf fails to increase the $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ in HeLa, D-U937 and U-C2C12 cells (Fig. 7A). A significant Ca^{2+} response, sensitive to Ry and insensitive to 2-APB, was instead obtained in U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells. ATP promoted a significant increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$, sensitive to 2-APB, in all cell types (Fig. 7B). Ry failed to affect the Ca^{2+} response induced by ATP in HeLa, U-C2C12 and





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Fig. 7. Characterization of the Ca²⁺ responses mediated by IP₃R and RyR agonists in HeLa, U-U937, D-U937, U-C2C2 and D-C2C12 cells. Cells were pre-exposed for 20 min to Fluo 4-AM and then treater for 10 min with 10 mM Cf (A) or 100 μ M ATP (B). In some experiments, 2-APB or Ry was added to the cultures 5 min prior to Cf or ATP. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for Fluo 4-fluorescence. The results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. *P <0.05, **P <0.01, as compared to untreated cells. (*) P < 0.05, (**) P < 0.01, as compared to cells treated with agonists (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

Thus, we provide functional evidence documenting the notion that HeLa, U-C2C12 and D-U937 cells, unlike U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells, do not express the RyR. IP₃Rs were instead expressed in all cell types employed in our experiments.

We also performed toxicity studies and found that a 6 h exposure to $2.5 \,\mu\text{M}$ arsenite fails to promote toxic effects in all the above cell types, as assessed by the trypan blue exclusion assay (which detects loss of plasma membrane integrity) (Fig. 8A) or the Hoechst assay (which detects apoptotic DNA fragmentation and condensation) (Fig. 8B).



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Fig. 8. The 6 h arsenite exposure paradigm fails to promote detectable signs of toxicity in different cell lines. HeLa, U-U937, D-U937, U-C2C12 and D-C2C12 were exposed for 6 h to 2.5 μ M arsenite and then counted with a hemocytometer in the presence of trypan blue (A). Under identical conditions, the cells were also analyzed for chromatin fragmentation/condensation (B). The results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. Next, we analyzed the Ca^{2+} response induced by the metalloid and obtained evidence for a limited increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ in HeLa, U-C2C12 and D-U937 cells, sensitive to 2-APB and not affected by Ry (Fig. 9A). Different results were instead obtained in cells expressing both the IP₃R and the RyR, in which the Ca^{2+} response was remarkably greater, abolished by 2-APB and significantly reduced by Ry. It is interesting to note that the fraction of Ca^{2+} released by U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells treated with arsenite and Ry was similar to that released by D-U937, U-C2C12 and HeLa cells exposed to arsenite alone.

We then tested the effect of increasing concentrations of arsenite and found that the resulting Ca²⁺ response was mediated by a saturable mechanism in cells expressing only the IP₃R, with a maximal increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ being observed at 2.5 μ M. U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells showed a concentration-dependent increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ after exposure to 2.5-10 μ M arsenite (Fig. 9B). Interestingly, the Ca²⁺ responses mediated by arsenite in the presence of Ry in U-U937 and in D-C2C12 were similar to those mediated by the metalloid alone in HeLa, D-U937 and U-C2C12 cells.



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Fig. 9. Arsenite induces different Ca²⁺ responses in cells expressing the IP₃R, with or without concomitant RyR expression. (A) Cells were pre-exposed for 5 min to the vehicle, 2-APB or Ry and subsequently incubated for 6 h in the presence of 2.5 μ M arsenite. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for Fluo 4-fluorescence. The results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. *P <0.05, **P <0.01, as compared to untreated cells. (*) P < 0.05, (**) P < 0.01, as compared to cells treated with arsenite (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test). (B) Cells were exposed for 6 h to increasing concentrations of arsenite and finally analyzed for Fluo 4-fluorescence. The effect of Ry was tested in U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells. The results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments of arsenite and finally analyzed for Fluo 4-fluorescence. The effect of Ry was tested in U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells. The results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. *P <0.001, as compared to untreated cells (two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's test).

In the next series of experiments, we investigated whether ATP promotes mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation in the above cell types. We found that the IP₃R agonist significantly increased the $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ in HeLa, D-U937 and U-C2C12 cells *via* a mechanism sensitive to Ru360 and 2-APB but insensitive to Ry. ATP increased the $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ also in U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells,

however *via* a mechanism that, besides being sensitive to 2-APB and Ru360, was abolished also by Ry.



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Fig. 10. ATP stimulation increases the mitochondrial accumulation of Ca^{2+} in cells expressing the IP₃R, with or without concomitant RyR expression. HeLa (A), U-U937 (B), D-U937 (C), U-C2C12 (D) and D-C2C12 (E) cells were pre-exposed for 5 min to the vehicle, Ru-360, 2-APB or Ry and treated for a further 10 min with 100 μ M ATP. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for Rhod 2-fluorescence. The results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. *P <0.01, as compared to untreated cells. (*) P < 0.01, as compared to cells treated with ATP (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

Thus, ATP directly promotes mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation in cells that do not express the RyR, thereby demonstrating that in these cells the IP₃R and mitochondria are in close apposition. In RyR expressing cells, the IP₃ releasing agonist instead caused mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation with the intermediate involvement of the RyR.

Exposure to arsenite (2.5 μ M for 6 h) promoted mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation only in cells expressing the RyR (Fig. 11A-F) and these responses were sensitive to Ru360, 2-APB and Ry (panels B and E). There was no evidence of mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation in HeLa, D-U937 and U-C2C12 even using greater arsenite concentrations (Fig. 11F). The metalloid instead caused a concentration-dependent mitochondrial uptake of Ca²⁺ in U-U937 and D-C2C12 (Fig. 11F). The increase of mitochondrial Ca²⁺ was also confirmed by confocal and SIM microscopy in D-C2C12 (Fig. 11G).

The above results there indicate that ATP -but not arsenite- promotes mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation in cells expressing only the IP₃R. Both ATP and arsenite increased $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ in cells expressing both channels and for this purpose the recruitment of the RyR after the initial stimulation of the IP₃R appears critical.



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Fig. 11. Arsenite fails to increase the mitochondrial concentration of Ca²⁺ in cells uniquely expressing the IP₃R. HeLa (A), U-U937 (B), D-U937 (C), U-C2C12 (D) and D-C2C12 (E) cells were pre-exposed for 5 min to the vehicle, Ru-360, 2-APB or Ry and incubated for a further 6 h in the presence of 2.5 µM arsenite. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for Rhod 2-fluorescence. The results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. *P <0.01, as compared to untreated cells. (*) P < 0.01, as compared to cells treated with arsenite (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test). (F) Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of arsenite for 6 h. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for Rhod 2-fluorescence. The results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. (N.d., not detectable). *P <0.01, **P <0.001, as compared to untreated cells (two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's test). (G) D-C2C12 cells were incubated for 6 h with or without 2.5 µM arsenite. After treatments, the cells were analysed to determine the co-localization of Rhod 2-AM (green) and MitoTracker Deep Red (red) fluorescence signals. On the right, panels display the merged image of the two stains. (H) Manders coefficient of Rhod 2-fluorescence in mitochondria was calculated as the proportion of Rhod 2-fluorescence signal overlapping with the signal of the Mitotracker in four randomly acquired fields. The results represent the means \pm S.D. (*) P <0.05 as compared to untreated cells (Two-tailed unpaired t test). (I) High Resolution SIM images of Mitotracker signal (green) and Rhod 2-AM (red) in D-C2C12 cells. Inserts represent area where Rhod 2-AM signal colocalizes with that of the Mitotracker in arsenite-treated D-C2C12.

Next, we analyzed ROS formation using both DHR and MitoSOX red after a 6 h exposure to 2.5 μ M arsenite. The results illustrated in Fig. 12 indicated that the metalloid fails to promote ROS formation in HeLa, D-U937 and U-C2C12 cells. Both fluorescence responses were instead detected in U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells and were in both circumstances sensitive to 2-APB, Ry and Ru-360.



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Fig. 12. Arsenite fails to induce mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation in cells with only IP₃R. HeLa (A, B), U-U937 (C, D), D-U937 (E, F), U-C2C12 (G, H) and D-C2C12 (I, J) cells were pretreated for 5 min with the vehicle, Ru-360, 2-APB or Ry and incubated for 6 h with the further addition of 2.5 μ M arsenite. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for DHR-(A,C,E,G,I) or MitoSOX red (B,D,F,H,J) -fluorescence. The results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. (N.d., not detectable). *P <0.01, as compared to untreated cells. (*) P < 0.01, as compared to cells treated with arsenite (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

These results therefore provide convincing evidence that arsenite uniquely promotes mito O_2^{-} formation in responsive RyR-expressing cells. Although from the above data it appears clear that the resistance of HeLa, D-U937 and U-C2C12 to mito O_2^{-} formation induced by arsenite is uniquely due to the lack of mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation, we nevertheless decided to provide a further proof of evidence. We reasoned that the resistance of these cells should be lost under conditions in which the mitochondrial accumulation of the cation is enforced by other treatments, as ATP. HeLa, D-U937 or U-C2C12 cells were therefore exposed for 6 h to arsenite and ATP was added in the final 10 min. Under these conditions, arsenite promoted a significant MitoSOX red fluorescence response in the three cell types, sensitive to 2-APB and Ru-360 and insensitive to Ry (Fig. 13).



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Fig. 13. ATP promotes mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation in response to arsenite in cells uniquely expressing the IP₃R. HeLa, D-U937 and U-C2C12 cells were incubated for 6 h with 2.5 μ M arsenite, rinsed and resuspended in fresh culture medium containing the vehicle, Ru360, 2-APB or Ry. After 5 min, cells received 100 μ M ATP for a further 10 min and were finally analyzed for MitoSOX red fluorescence. The results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. *P <0.01, as compared to untreated cells. (*) P <0.01, as compared to cells treated with arsenite/ATP (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

These results therefore provide conclusive evidence supporting the notion that arsenite fails to promote $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation in cells uniquely expressing the IP₃R for the only reason that RyR expression is strictly required to increase the $[Ca^{2+}]_m$.

We finally performed toxicity studies and observed that a 16 h exposure to arsenite causes a decline in mitochondrial membrane potential (Fig. 14 Bi and Ei) and mitochondrial loss of cytochrome c (Fig. 14 Bii and Eii) only in RyR expressing cells. In the same cells, these events were followed by caspase 3 activation (Fig. 14 Biii and Eiii), decreased MTT conversion to formazan (Fig. B iv and E iv), reduced U937 cells proliferation (Fig. 1 Bv; D-C2C12 are differentiated, non-proliferating cells) and apoptotic fragmentation (Fig. 14 Bvi and Evi) at 24 h. There was no evidence for changes in the above parameters in cells uniquely expressing the IP₃R (Fig. 14 A,C,D).





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Fig. 14. Arsenite causes mitochondrial dysfunction and apoptosis in cells with both IP₃R and RyR. HeLa (A), U-U937 (B), D-U937 (C), U-C2C12 (D) and D-C2C12 (E) cells were treated for 16 (A-Eiii) or 24 h (a-eiii-vi) with arsenite. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for MitoTracker red CMXRos-fluorescence (A-Ei), cytochrome c localization (A-Eii), caspase 3 activity (A-Eiii), MTT reducing activity (A-Eiv) and toxicity by either quantifying the number of viable cells (A-Ev) or measuring chromatin fragmentation/condensation (A-Evi). The results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. *P <0.01, *P <0.001 as compared to untreated cells (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

3.3 ERO1a mediates recruitment of the ryanodine receptor after inositol1, 4, 5-trisphosphate receptor stimulation induced by arsenite

The above studies indicate that RyR expression and recruitment are critical for the triggering of events leading to arsenite-induced mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation. We therefore decided to investigate the mechanism of RyR recruitment and for this purpose initially investigated whether arsenite causes an ER stress, under the same conditions associated with mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation. We found that a 6 h treatment of U-U937 cells with 2.5 μ M arsenite causes a significantly increase in ATF4 (Fig. 15A) and CHOP (Fig. 15B) mRNA levels and a nearly threefold increase in ERO1a protein expression (Fig. 15C). These results indicate that arsenite is an effective ER stress inducer (Sun, 2017) in the conditions employed in our experiments. We also provide evidence for an increased expression of the CHOP target, ERO1a, an ER oxidoreductase potentially mediating RyR recruitment after arsenite stimulation.

In order to address this issue, we decided to employ the inhibitor EN460, which interacts with the reduced form of ERO1a thereby blunting its oxidase activity. As indicated in Fig. 15, in untreated U-U937 cells, ERO1a is in a reduced form. Indeed, ERO1a showed a similar mobility on a non-reducing SDS-PAGE in samples with or without DTT (lanes 1 and 2, Fig. 15D). Addition of EN460 (10-50 μ M), promoted the accumulation of a higher molecular weight disulfide-bonded ERO1a form associated with the loss of the faster migrating bands. Thus, even at the lowest concentration tested, EN460 affects the redox state of ERO1a, thereby inhibiting its oxidase activity. Importantly, there was no evidence of toxicity (as determined by the Hoechst and trypan blue assays) under the conditions employed in our experiments (6 h incubation) in cells exposed to EN460 alone or associated with arsenite.



Unpublished data

Fig. 15. Arsenite induces ER stress and ERO1α expression. U-U937 cells were exposed for 6 h to 2.5 µM arsenite and subsequently processed to determine ATF4 (A) or CHOP (B) mRNA expression, as well as ERO1α (C) protein expression. Anti-β-actin antibody was used as a loading control. Cells were incubated for 6 h in the absence or presence of 10, 30 or 50 µM EN460. Cells were then washed and lysed in the presence of 20 mM NEM, and proteins were resolved on a non-reducing SDS-PAGE (D, the lanes between 1 and 2 is empty) or in a reducing SDS-PAGE after adding 100 mM DTT to the sample buffer (E). Anti-β-actin antibody was used as a loading control. In other experiments, cells were exposed for 6 h to 10 µM EN460, washed, re-suspended in fresh culture medium, loaded (20 min) with Fluo 4 (F), or Rhod 2 (G), and subsequently incubated for 10 min with 100 µM ATP or 10 mM Cf. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for their respective fluorescence responses. Results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at three separate experiments. *P <0.05; **P <0.01 compared with untreated cells (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

We then analyzed the effects of the inhibitor on Ca^{2+} homeostasis after stimulation (10 min) with ATP, or Cf, and found that EN460 fails to affect

the increases in the $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Fig. 15F) and $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ (Fig. 15G) mediated by both agonists.

As previously discussed, in U-U937 cells arsenite induces an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ abolished by 2-APB and partially reduced by Ry (Fig. 16A). EN460 induced an effect remarkably similar to that mediated by Ry. In D-U937 cells, devoid of a functional RyR, arsenite caused a limited increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Fig. 16B), abolished by 2-APB, but insensitive to either Ry or EN460 (Fig. 16B). In U-U937 cells, arsenite also promoted an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ sensitive to 2-APB, Ry as well as EN460 (Fig. 16C). Under identical conditions, arsenite failed to promote mitochondrial Ca²⁺ uptake in D-U937 cells (Fig. 16D).

Interestingly, arsenite induced a MitoSOX red fluorescence response abolished by all treatments, including EN460, preventing mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation. In addition, there was no evidence of mito O_2^{-} formation in D-U937 cells (Fig. 16F).

We next analyzed the effects of agents preventing Ca²⁺ mobilization and/or its mitochondrial accumulation induced by arsenite on ERO1a expression. The results illustrated in Fig. 16G indicate that ERO1a expression was suppressed by 2-APB and partially reduced by Ry. In D-U937 cells, we obtained only a limited increase in ERO1a expression, suppressed by 2-APB and insensitive to Ry (Fig. 16H).



Unpublished data

Fig. 16. Arsenite-induced stimulation of Ca²⁺ release from the IP₃R mediates ERO1a enhanced expression, in turn responsible for the recruitment of the RyR, critical for mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation and ROS formation. U-U937 (A,C,E,G) and D-U937 (B,D,F,H) cells were pretreated for 5 min with the vehicle, 2-APB, Ry or EN460 and incubated for 6 h with the further addition to arsenite. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for Fluo 4-(A,B), Rhod-2 (C,D), MitoSOX red-fluorescence (E,F), as well for ERO1a (G,H) protein expression. Anti- β -actin antibody was used to provide an internal loading control. The results represent the means ± S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. (N.d., not detectable). *P <0.05; **P <0.01, as compared to cells treated with arsenite (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

As mentioned above, U-U937 and D-C2C12 cells respond to arsenite with the release of Ca^{2+} from the IP₃R and the ensuing triggering of further Ca^{2+} release from the RyR, critical for the mitochondrial accumulation of the cation and the resulting mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation.



Unpublished data

Fig. 17. Validation of the proposed mechanisms using ERO1a KO C2C12 Myotubes. WT and ERO1 α KO D-C2C12 cells were pretreated for 5 min with the vehicle, 2-APB, Ry or EN460 and incubated for 6 h with the further addition of arsenite. After treatments, the cells were analyzed for Fluo 4- (A), Rhod 2- (B) and MitoSOX red- (C) fluorescence. (D) Cells were incubated for 6 h in the absence or presence of arsenite and then analyzed for ERO1 α protein expression. Anti- β -actin antibody was used as a loading control. The results represent the means \pm S.D. calculated from at least three distinct experiments. (N.d., not detectable). *P <0.05; **P <0.01, as compared to untreated cells. (*) P < 0.05; (**) P <0.01, as compared to cells treated with arsenite (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test).

These experiments were also performed in WT C2C12 myotubes (D-C2C12 cells) that responded to arsenite with a significant increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Fig. 17A), $[Ca^{2+}]_m$ (Fig. 17B) and mitoO₂^{-.} formation (Fig. 17C). 2-APB, Ry and EN460 produced effects in line with those observed in U-U937 cells.

On the other hand, arsenite induced a limited increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_c$ (Fig. 17A) in ERO1a KO D-C2C12 cells and this response was abolished by 2-APB and insensitive to Ry and EN460. In these cells, arsenite failed to promote mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation (Fig. 17B) and mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation (Fig. 17C). Moreover, Western Blot analysis (Fig. 17D) provided evidence for enhanced ERO1a expression in WT D-C2C12 cells and for a lack of protein expression in the ERO1a KO counterpart.

In conclusion, the results reported in this section indicate that arsenite promotes mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation *via* a mechanism in which the initial stimulation of the IP₃R, directly mediated by the metalloid, was followed by the triggering of a crosstalk between the IP₃R and RyR. Importantly, RyR recruitment was critically regulated by the enhanced expression of ERO1 α in turn associated with an ER stress response driven by the fraction of Ca²⁺ released by the two channels. Thus, ERO1 α plays a pivotal role in the regulation of processes associated with the mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation, and the ensuing mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation, induced by arsenite.

4. Conclusions

Arsenite is a potent carcinogen producing an array of deleterious effects in target cells *via* its direct binding to protein thiols or indirectly, by promoting ROS formation through different mechanisms. We herein focused on the specific requirements and mechanism(s) mediating $mitoO_2^{-1}$ formation.

In our previous studies (Fiorani et al., 2018), we found that a critical event induced by arsenite in U-U937 cells, upstream to $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation, is represented by its direct effects on the ER. More specifically, the metalloid caused an initial stimulation of the IP₃R associated with the subsequent recruitment of the RyR and the ensuing mitochondrial Ca²⁺ accumulation through the MCU. This last event was necessary but not sufficient for $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation which, in order to take place, required additional effects of the metalloid on a mitochondrial target, most likely represented by the respiratory chain.

The first relevant information provided by the present work is that the direct effects in mitochondria require very short times of exposure to very low concentrations of arsenite. Indeed, when mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation was enforced with ATP or Cf, nanomolar concentrations of arsenite promoted mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation after only a few min of exposure.

The time and concentration requirements for the induction of the effects of arsenite on the ER were instead remarkably longer/greater, as hours of exposure to micromolar levels of the metalloid were necessary to promote mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation.

An additional consideration on the effects of arsenite on the ER is related to the expression of the two major Ca^{2+} channels, the IP₃R and RyR, and their spatial relationship with mitochondria. Agonist studies provided functional evidence for the existence of close contact sites between the RyR and mitochondria, necessary to promote high [Ca²⁺] microdomains nearby the MCU, characterized by a low affinity for Ca^{2+} . We therefore observed that arsenite promotes $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation in various cell types, expressing both the IP₃R and RyR, regardless of whether undifferentiated or differentiated and hence also regardless of their proliferative status. In these cells, $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation was associated with the time-dependent induction of mitochondrial dysfunction and apoptotic death.

Our results also indicate that arsenite fails to promote mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation in cell types uniquely expressing the IP₃R. It follows that, in these cells, the metalloid also fails to promote mitoO₂⁻⁻ formation and the downstream toxic effects indicated above.

It is interesting to note that in these cells the IP₃R was in close apposition with the mitochondria, as indicated by the results from experiments using IP₃-releasing agonists. The inability of arsenite to promote mitochondrial Ca^{2+} accumulation is therefore likely due to the low [Ca^{2+}] at the ER/mitochondria contact sites after Ca^{2+} release from the IP₃R. The slow effects induced by the metalloid on the ER were indeed associated with an initial stimulation of the IP₃R causing a limited release of Ca^{2+} . This fraction of the cation was nevertheless critical for the recruitment of the RyR and hence for the mitochondrial accumulation of the cation. In other words, arsenite promoted microdomains of high [Ca^{2+}] required to allow MCUdependent mitochondrial Ca^{2+} uptake, exclusively nearby the RyR.

The phase of RyR recruitment is definitively critical in the process leading to arsenite-induced mito O_2^{-} formation, and we have demonstrated that the crosstalk between the IP₃R and RyR is regulated by ERO1a. The first evidence obtained in this direction was that ERO1a expression is increased under the same conditions in which arsenite induces Ca²⁺ release from the IP₃R and RyR. The second evidence was that EN460, which blunts the oxidase activity of ERO1a, recapitulated all the effects mediated by Ry. Finally, arsenite failed to recruit the RyR in ERO1a KO D-C2C12 cells, as

instead observed in ERO1a WT D-C2C12 cells. Thus, ERO1a promotes RyR recruitment after the initial IP₃R stimulation induced by arsenite, which instead was independent on ERO1a activity/expression. IP₃R activation induced by arsenite indeed takes place under conditions of low ERO1a expression.

We also determined that arsenite promotes ERO1a expression via a Ca^{2+} dependent mechanism, in which both fractions of the cation, *i.e.* those derived from both the IP₃R and RyR, are critically involved.

In the last part of the study, we performed experiments to identify the mechanism whereby arsenite enhances expression of ERO1 α and obtained evidence for a role of Ca²⁺ released from the both the IP₃R and RyR. These results are therefore consistent with the possibility that the fraction of the cation released from the IP₃R contributes to the ER stress response and CHOP accumulation, thereby enhancing the expression of its target protein ERO1 α . In principle, the fraction of Ca²⁺ released from the RyR may further enhance ERO1 α expression by enforcing the above CHOP-dependent pathway, although mechanisms based on ROS formation should also be taken into consideration. RyR-derived Ca²⁺ may indeed promote the formation of mitoO₂⁻⁻ and more specifically of its diffusible dismutation product, H₂O₂.

Thus, although more studies are required to fully understand this issue, we can nevertheless conclude that Ca^{2+} , regardless of whether released by the IP₃R or RyR, indirectly promotes ERO1 α expression. In this perspective, the arsenite-dependent ERO1 α upregulation represents both a cause and a consequence of Ca²⁺ release from the ER.

In conclusion, the results herein reported provide important information on the mechanism whereby arsenite promotes $mitoO_2^{-}$ formation. We identified two critical events, both necessary and non-sufficient, which the metalloid should induce in order to promote the formation of this species. The first one

is at level of the mitochondrial respiratory chain. Quite surprisingly, the metalloid induced its effects in a very short time and at very low concentrations. The second event instead occurred at the level of the ER and was associated with an initial release of Ca²⁺ from the IP₃R, causing ER stress and CHOP-dependent ERO1 α expression, critically connected with the recruitment of the RyR. The initial IP₃R-mediated Ca²⁺ release is therefore responsible for the triggering of a positive feedback amplification mechanism resulting in ERO1 α upregulation and ERO1 α -dependent RyR activation which, besides providing a general increase in [Ca²⁺]_c, and hence a further stimulation of ERO1 α expression, critically mediates the enhanced [Ca²⁺]_m necessary for mitoO₂⁻ formation.

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