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Minireview

Thapsigargin: potent inhibitor of Ca²⁺ transport ATP-ases of endoplasmic and sarcoplasmic reticulum*

Paweł Sabała, Małgorzata Czarny, Jan Paweł Woronczak and Jolanta Barańska

Department of Cellular Biochemistry, M. Nencki Institute of Experimental Biology, L. Pasteura 3, 02–093 Warsaw, Poland

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GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Thapsigargin and thapsigargicin are two major active components found in root extracts of the umbelliferous (Apiaceae) plant Thapsia garganica L. This root extract has been known from ancient times for its skin irritation effect and was used for treatment of muscles and joint inflammations. Rasmussen et al. [1] isolated these two compounds and showed that thapsigargin and thapsigargicin release histamine in rat mast cells. Thapsigargin, the most abundant of the two compounds, is a sesquiterpene lactone whose structure has been studied in detail by NMR, circular dichroism spectroscopy and crystallographic methods [2 - 5] (Fig. 1). Thapsigargin is known to promote tumorigenesis in mouse skin [6] independently of protein kinase Cactivation or protein phosphatases inhibition [7, 8]. Most recently, Wong et al. [9] have shown that thapsigargin-induced tumorigenesis can be caused by rapid inhibition of mRNA translation, protein processing and gene expression. Thapsigargin is a neurotoxin in perinatal rodent brain causing irreversible brain injury [10], and totally blocks the induction of long-term potentiation in rat hippocampal slices [11]. It has been reported that thapsigargin induces acute responses in a large variety of cell types.

Thapsigargin-induced cellular activation appears in all cases to be initiated by a single common event: a rapid and pronounced increase in the concentration of cytosolic free Ca²⁺ that occurs *via* a direct discharge of intracellular InsP3-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores without hydrolysis of inositolphospholipids [8, 12 - 14]. Since this discovery, the interest in thapsigargin studies has increased, especially when it was established that thapsigargin is a high affinity inhibitor of all the endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ transport ATPases tested [15 - 18]. Thus, for its abilities of identification and selective interference with intracellular Ca²⁺ pools, thapsigargin became a very convenient experimental tool.

ACTION OF THAPSIGARGIN ON Ca²⁺ TRANSPORT ATPases

In 1987 Thastrup *et al.* [12, 13] found that thapsigargin produced elevation of intracellular calcium concentration by emptying InsP3-sensitive stores without generation of phosphoinositides. Three years later Thastrup and coworkers [19] revealed that this effect was due to the inhibition of calcium uptake into the

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Abbreviations: SERCA, sarcoplasmic and endoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPases; InsP₃, inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate

Fig. 1. Structure of thapsigargin.

endoplasmic reticulum by blocking its ATP-dependent calcium pump. In 1991 Lytton *et al.* [17] showed that thapsigargin acted on all sarcoplasmic and endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ transport ATPases. The mechanism of this inhibition was explained by Sagara & Inesi [15] in the same year.

SERCA ATPases

Ca²⁺ is loaded into the endoplasmic reticulum by means of intracellular adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-dependent Ca²⁺ pumps of the highly homologous SERCA¹ (sarcoplasmic or endoplasmic reticulum Ca2+-ATPase) family. Recently three mammalian SERCA genes (SERCA-1, SERCA-2 and SERCA-3) have been identified. It has been found that transcripts of SERCA-1 and SERCA-2 exist in two alternatively spliced forms [20], which produce at least five different protein products. The calcium dependent ATPase whose activity is essential for the Ca²⁺ pump's function is a 110 kDa polypeptide chain placed asymmetrically across the endoplasmic reticulum membrane with a large extramembranous region on the cytosolic side [21, 22]. The enzyme binds two Ca²⁺ ions and ATP from cytosol and releases the bound Ca²⁺ into the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum by utilization of ATP. Calcium binding to the high affinity sites of the ATPase promotes ATP binding and hydrolysis, the enzyme is phosphorylated and a series of conformational changes causes Ca²⁺ translocation to the luminal side of the endoplasmic reticulum [23, 24]. The mechanism of action of the Ca²⁺-ATPase may be described according to a model with two major states: E₁ and E₂, shown in Fig. 2.

As shown in the schematic representation of the endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺-ATPase (Fig. 3) the phosphorylation domain (Asp 351) resides in the extramembranous region of the enzyme and the Ca²⁺ binding domain resides within the transmembrane region and consists of four helices [22]. It is likely that four helices form a channel for Ca²⁺ which is controlled by the phosphorylation site [24].

Mechanism of action

The inhibitory effect of thapsigargin on Ca²⁺-ATPase can be observed at very low, subnanomolar concentrations [15] and at various isoforms of SERCA pumps [16,17]. The plasma membrane ATPases and Na⁺/K⁺ ATPases are not inhibited [17]. The dead-end thapsigargin*ATPase complex is formed when the

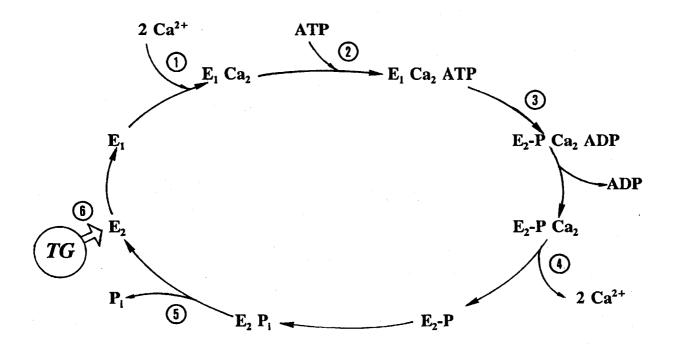


Fig. 2. Calcium pumping cycle of sarcoplasmic and endoplasmic reticulum ATPase. The binding of the two Ca^{2+} from the cytosol (1) to the high affinity sites of Ca^{2+} -ATPase (E_1 state) is strictly required for starting its pumping action. When these sites are occupied ATP binds to the enzyme (2) which is then phosphorylated by a transfer of ATP terminal phosphate (3). The series of conformational changes in the enzyme leads to a translocation of bound Ca^{2+} and a 3-order magnitude reduction in affinity for these ions. Finally, calcium dissociates to the luminal spaces of the endoplasmic reticulum (4) and the phosphorylated intermediate is hydrolysed (5). All presented reactions are reversible. Thus, the defined sequence of chemical and vectorial reactions with utilization of free energy from ATP produces ion transition and reduction of the affinity for Ca^{2+} . The postulated inhibition of thapsigargin (TG) starts when the enzyme is in the E_2 , Ca^{2+} free form (6). E_1 and E_2 correspond to different conformational forms of Ca^{2+} -ATPase. In fact there may be many more conformational changes in the cycle for calcium pumping by the enzyme [23, 80].

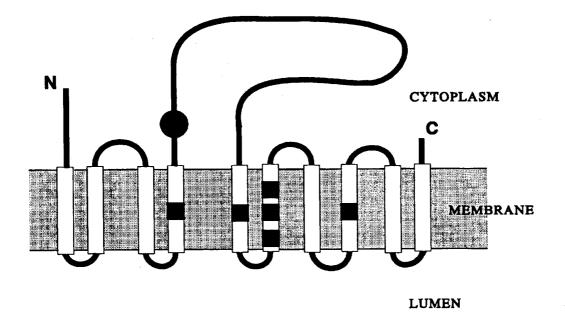


Fig. 3. Schematic representation of SERCA pump.

SERCA pump consists of ten transmembranous domains. Four of them (black squares) are involved in Ca²⁺ binding. The largest cytosolic fragment is responsible for ATP binding; the black circle represents the phosphorylation site (Asp 351).

enzyme is in a state without bound Ca2+; it occurs when bound Ca2+ dissociates as a consequence of ATP utilization during the action of the pump. Thapsigargin produces a global influence on the enzyme resulting in a strong inhibition of Ca²⁺ binding and ATPase activity (including ATP binding and partial reactions in the absence of Ca²⁺) [18, 21, 25]. Thapsigargin is less effective in blocking Ca²⁺ binding to the E₁ form of the enzyme, and higher concentrations of free Ca²⁺ have a protective effect on Ca²⁺ binding to the ATPase [18]. Under these conditions, the phosphorylated enzyme is formed even in the presence of an excess of thapsigargin until the enzyme reaches the E2, state. In fact, Ca²⁺-ATPase is susceptible to thapsigargin in its E₂, Ca²⁺-free form [18, 21]. Thapsigargin acts with the enzyme stoichiometrically of 1 mol of inhibitor per mol of ATPase. Its interactions with E2 produce a global inhibition of the Ca²⁺ transport ATPase activities which is manifested by total blocking of high affinity Ca²⁺ binding, loss of Ca²⁺ transport, ATP binding and phosphorylated enzyme formation [18, 21]. The reversed action of the ATPase cycle is also inhibited; in the presence of thapsigargin there is a very low (in favorable conditions) phosphorylated enzyme formation from P_i [21], and ADP-dependent Ca²⁺ efflux from loaded sarcoplasmic reticulum vesicles (with ATP synthesis) is prevented [15, 26].

Thus, thapsigargin is a specific and irreversible blocker of Ca2+-ATPases in both muscle (skeletal [15, 18, 21], smooth [27, 28], cardiac [29 - 31]) and nonmuscle cells [17, 19, 32, 33]. The mechanism of the action of this drug on the Ca²⁺ pump protein of sarcoplasmic reticulum vesicles purified from rabbit skeletal muscle was, as mentioned above, the subject of studies of Sagara & Inesi [15]. Similar results of Ca²⁺-ATPase blocking by thapsigargin in cardiac miocytes were achieved by Wrzosek et al. [29]. The effect of thapsigargin on sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca2+ content and contractions in single cardiac myocytes of guinea-pig heart was also reported by Lewartowski & Wolska [30]. They showed that thapsigargin completely blocked Ca²⁺ uptake by the sarcoplasmic reticulum of these cells. Despite of the sarcoplasmic reticulum depletion of Ca²⁺, the amplitude of electrically stimulated contraction was decreased only by 30%, what suggests that in this type of cells not only sarcoplasmic reticulum, but also sarcolemmal Ca²⁺ may activate the contractile system. In vascular smooth muscle [28], thapsigargin inhibits sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺-ATPase and stimulates calcium entry. Thapsigargin has also been shown to inhibit the endoplasmic reticulum Ca2+-ATPase, to mobilize intracellular Ca²⁺, and to activate Ca²⁺ entry in nonmuscle cells [14, 19]. It is generally accepted that calcium concentration in the endoplasmic reticulum might depend on two opposed events: active transport of Ca²⁺ by the ATPase and its passive leak from the endoplasmic reticulum [19]. Thapsigargin by blocking Ca²⁺ uptake may change the equilibrium towards leak from the endoplasmic and sarcoplasmic reticulum in nonmuscle and muscle cells, respectively. The nature of the Ca²⁺ leak remains unknown, but it appears to be widespread in eukaryotic cells. Depletion of internal stores is somehow coupled to the entry of extracellular calcium. All of these events lead to a distinct and sustained increase in intracellular Ca2+ levels in nonmuscle and smooth muscle cells, producing a variety of cellular responses.

THAPSIGARGIN AS A NEW MOLECU-LAR PROBE

Thapsigargin proved to be a valuable tool for the evaluation of many physiological, calciumrelated cellular events, such as agonist and hormone activation, immunological response, muscle contraction-relaxation cycle, fertilization, secretion, phospholipid synthesis, intercellular communication and many others. Table 1 presents the areas of research where thapsigargin was engaged to elucidate mechanisms of various cellular events.

Thanks to the discovery and explanation of thapsigargin action on Ca²⁺-ATPases it became clear that the sarcoplasmic and endoplasmic reticulum are the most important Ca²⁺ sequestering organelle in the cell. It was also possible to distinguish different calcium pools within this heterogeneous structure. Extracellular signals can trigger elevation of intracellular calcium concentration by inducing its influx from the extracellular space and/or by releasing Ca²⁺ from intracellular stores. It has been found that thapsigargin can mimic this action,

Table 1
Application of thapsigargin as a tool for elucidation of mechanisms of various cellular processes

Areas of research	References*
Calcium homeostasis and dynamics	
* identification and characterization of intracellular Ca ²⁺ pools	[34 - 44]
* cytoplasmic Ca ²⁺ signals after agonist or hormone stimulation	[45 - 52]
* calcium oscillations	[53 - 56]
Intercellular communication	[57]
Secretion	[58 - 62]
Calcium pumps	[21, 29, 63, 64]
Muscle contraction-relaxation cycle	[29 - 31, 65 - 67]
Phosphatidylserine synthesis	[68, 69]
Tumorigenesis	[9, 70 - 73]

^{*} Literature data published in 1992 and 1993

depleting intracellular InsP₃-sensitive and thapsigargin-sensitive calcium stores [27, 32].

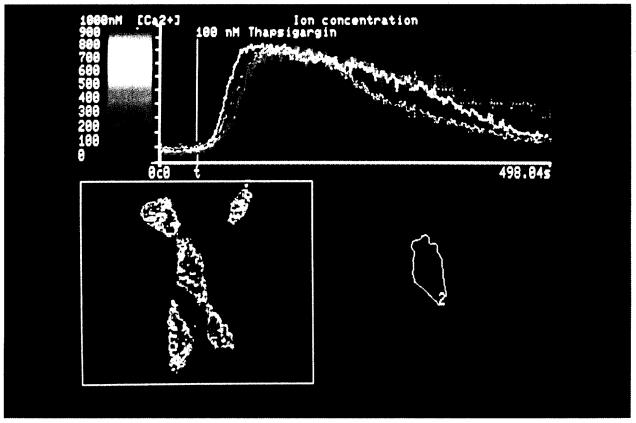
In a variety of nonmuscle cells a relationship between release of Ca2+ from intracellular stores and increased entry of Ca2+ across the plasma membrane was observed [14, 33, 74]; the mechanism which triggers this calcium influx remains unknown but two possibilities have been suggested. Some authors believed that the increase of plasma membrane permeability was connected with the elevated Ca²⁺ concentration in the cytosol in response to emptying the endoplasmic stores [75, 76]. Others have proposed that the entry pathway of Ca²⁺ across the plasma membrane is responsive to the Ca^{2+} content of the stores [14, 77]. According to this hypothesis, concentration of the cytosolic Ca²⁺ is irrelevant to this process. In 1986, Putney [77] developed a "capacitative" model of Ca2+ entry and postulated that plasmalemmal permeability is controlled by the degree of filling of an intracellular Ca2+ storage compartment. Support for this hypothesis has come from experiments in which thapsigargin was used. Inhibition of Ca2+-ATPase by thapsigargin produces the leak of calcium from the endoplasmic reticulum. It has been found that the depletion of these intracellular Ca²⁺ pools, independent of receptor activation, increases Ca²⁺ permeability of the plasma membrane and is responsible for the influx of Ca2+ into the

The introduction by Grynkiewicz et al. [78] of fluorescent dyes, whose excitation and

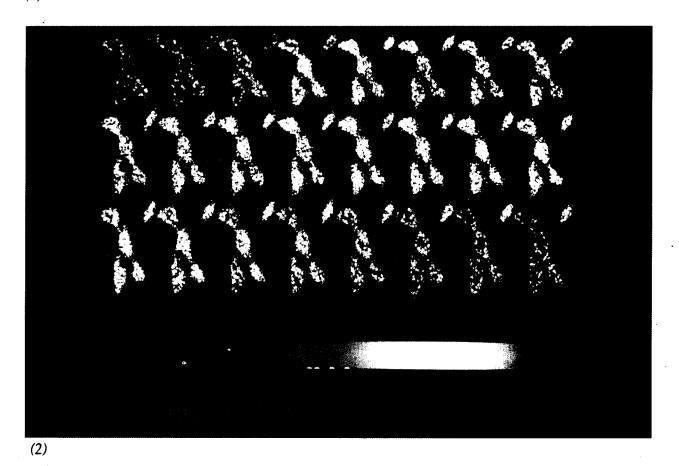
emission properties are altered when they bind Ca²⁺, has greatly enhanced the ability to monitor intracellular Ca²⁺ dynamics. The use of fluorescent probes and digital image analysis systems allows for monitoring of intracellular calcium levels in a single, living cell.

Figure 4 illustrates the effect of thapsigargin on intracellular calcium levels in intact glioma C6 cells [68]. In our study the measurements of changes in Ca2+ level in cytosol after the thapsigargin treatment were performed simultaneously with the determination of the effect of this drug on phosphatidylserine synthesis. We found [68] that thapsigargin, in addition to increasing Ca²⁺ concentration in the cytoplasm, strongly diminished phosphatidylserine synthesis. Since the synthesis of this phospholipid depends on Ca2+ and takes place in the endoplasmic reticulum [79], the inhibitory effect of thapsigargin on this process allowed us to conclude that phosphatidylserine synthesis occurs on the luminal side of this structure and has to be regulated by Ca²⁺-ATPases. Similar results on phosphatidylserine synthesis in Jurkat T lymphocytes were recently presented by Pellasy et al. [69].

The broad spectrum of research in which thapsigargin is used as a molecular probe to elucidate various intracellular processes (Table 1) is connected with the universal role of Ca²⁺ as a second messenger. The fact that thapsigargin is a potent and specific inhibitor of Ca²⁺ transport ATPases in both the sarcoplasmic and endoplasmic reticulum revealed the similarity



(1)



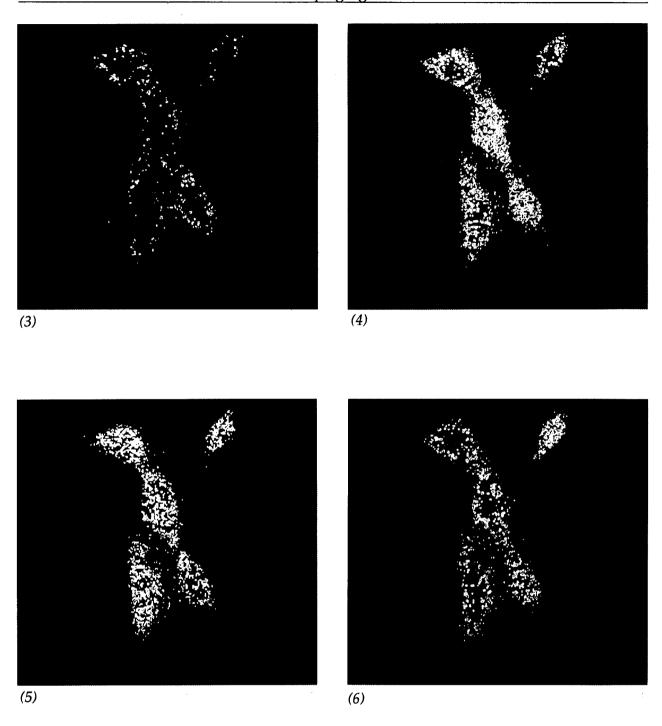


Fig. 4. Pseudo-color images illustrating the effect of thapsigargin on intracellular calcium levels in intact glioma C6 cells.

Images show the increase in intracellular calcium concentration after 100 nM thapsigargin treatment. The pseudo-color scale covering the 0 - 1000 nM range is shown. Cells were cultured on glass coverslips and loaded with the intracellular Ca^{2+} indicator Fura-2 during 30 min incubation with 1 μ M of its acetoxymethyl ester. (1) Shows the action of thapsigargin on a single glioma C6 cell during 500 s. As it is seen, treatment of Fura-2 labelled cells by thapsigargin caused an increase in cytosolic Ca^{2+} and after a lag time period of 20 s a sustained $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ rise. This changing of the cytosolic calcium levels are represented by curves (1) and by the changing of pseudocolors cf. (2). (3) – (6) Represent Fura-2 loaded, thapsigargin treated cells after subsequent periods of time. All of these pictures originate from an experiment carried out on a Joyce-Loebl Ltd. computerizing image-processing system Magiscan for calcium analysis using Tardis V6.2.

of these organelles which serve as major intracellular Ca²⁺ stores in eukaryotic cells. In conclusion, the elucidation of the mechanism of thapsigargin action allows us to gain better insight into the Ca²⁺-related molecular events in the cell.

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