Ire1 Has Distinct Catalytic Mechanisms for XBP1/HAC1 Splicing and RIDD

Graphical Abstract

Highlights

Cleavage of XBP1/HAC1 intron by Ire1 is a distinct and separable activity from RIDD

Oligomerization of active Ire1 is required for XBP1/HAC1 cleavage but not RIDD

Both activities use the same catalytic residues but different substrate binding sites

Selective activation of RIDD promotes cell death, whereas XBP1/HAC1 splicing supports survival

In Brief

Ire1, an endoplasmic reticulum (ER) kinase/RNase, splices XBP1/HAC1 to produce an active transcription factor but also cleaves ER-associated mRNA through regulated Ire1-dependent decay (RIDD). Using biochemical studies, Tam et al. demonstrate that cleavage of XBP1 and HAC1 and RIDD are distinct and separable activities. Cooperative action of Ire1 subunits within the oligomer is required for maximum XBP1/HAC1 splicing activity. In contrast, RIDD does not require such cooperativity or oligomer formation. Additionally, selective activation of RIDD results in cell death.

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Report
Ire1 Has Distinct Catalytic Mechanisms for XBP1/HAC1 Splicing and RIDD

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SUMMARY

An evolutionarily conserved unfolded protein response (UPR) component, Ire1, cleaves XBP1/HAC1 introns in order to generate spliced mRNAs that are translated into potent transcription factors. Ire1 also cleaves endoplasmic-reticulum-associated RNAs leading to their decay, an activity termed regulated Ire1-dependent decay (RIDD); however, the mechanism by which Ire1 differentiates intron cleavage from RIDD is not well understood. Using in vitro experiments, we found that Ire1 has two different modes of action: XBP1/HAC1 is cleaved by Ire1 subunits acting cooperatively within Ire1 oligomers, whereas a single subunit of Ire1 performs RIDD without cooperativity. Furthermore, these distinct activities can be separated by complementation of catalytically inactive Ire1 RNase and mutations at oligomerization interfaces. Using an Ire1 RNase inhibitor, STF-083010, selective inhibition of XBP1 splicing indicates that XBP1 promotes cell survival, whereas RIDD leads to cell death, revealing modulation of Ire1 activities as a drug-development strategy.

INTRODUCTION AND RESULTS

IRE1 is a transmembrane receptor kinase located on the surface of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) that initiates the unfolded protein response (UPR) pathway and is required for the ER to function properly. Upon activation, Ire1 becomes an active endoribonuclease (RNase) that cleaves an intron of an mRNA coding for a bZIP transcription factor, HAC1 in yeast or XBP1 in mammalian cells (Calfon et al., 2002; Gonzalez et al., 1999; Kawasaki et al., 1997; Sidrauski and Walter, 1997). Cleaved exons are then ligated by tRNA ligase in the case of yeast, whereas RtcB for HAC1 (Siduraski et al., 1996) and RtcB for XBP1 (Lu et al., 2014) generating the spliced form of HAC1 or XBPI mRNA. The Ire1-dependent splicing step is critical for mounting the UPR, as only the spliced form of HAC1 or XBP1 mRNA produces a potent transcription factor that induces UPR gene expression needed for re-establishment of ER functions.

Recently, UPR-activated Ire1 in several organisms—including S. pombe, mammalian, Drosophila, and plant cells—has been reported to also cleave a subset of mRNA that is associated with the ER membrane (Han et al., 2009; Hollien et al., 2009; Hollien and Weissman, 2006; Kimmig et al., 2012; Mishiba et al., 2013) In these cases, however, Ire1-mediated cleavage is followed by degradation, a process that has been termed regulated Ire1-dependent decay (RIDD) (Hollien et al., 2009). At present, a detailed, mechanistic understanding of Ire1 engaged in either RIDD or XBP1 mRNA degradation enzymes in order to prevent either translating or ligating cleavage products. Curiously, RIDD has never been reported to occur in the budding yeast, S. cerevisiae.

To investigate the mechanistic relationship between XBP1/HAC1 splicing and RIDD, we first asked if Ire1 from the budding yeast S. cerevisiae can perform RIDD cleavage events. After treating cells with tunicamycin (Tm), a well-characterized inducer of UPR, levels of two mRNAs, DAP2 (DPAPB) and Mfa1 (α-Factor) coding for secretory pathway proteins (Figure S1A), decreased in agreement with genome-wide transcription analyses (Gasch et al., 2000; Travers et al., 2000). The decrease in mRNA levels required Ire1 but not HAC1 (Figure S1A) and was well correlated with the kinetics of HAC1 splicing (Figure S1B). Using an in vitro RNase assay, recombinant yeast Ire1 (yIre1) can cleave HAC1 RNA (Figure S1C) and in vitro transcribed radiolabeled DAP2 (Figure 1A) and Mfa1 (Figure S1D) RNA upon incubation with ADP. The RNA cleavage fragments generated by yIre1 cleaving mammalian mRNAs that are known substrates for RIDD such as BLOS1 or INSULIN were essentially identical to those generated by human recombinant Ire1 (hIre1) (compare Figures 1A and 1B). Notably, recombinant yeast and human Ire1 did not cleave the mRNA of ACTIN, a nonsecretory protein, demonstrating that Ire1 is not a random nonspecific RNase (Figure S1C). Furthermore, mutating the invariant guanosine (Gonzalez et al., 1999; Han et al., 2009; Kawasaki et al., 1997) located at the RIDD cleavage site of the INSULIN mRNA abolished cleavage at that site and instead generated aberrantly cleaved fragments (Figure S1E), reminiscent of other RNA processing events (Yang, 2011). These results demonstrate that RIDD activity is conserved in yIre1.
XBP1/HAC1 RNA Cleavage Is Not Competed by RIDD Substrates

To determine the molecular relationship between IRE1–mediated cleavage of HAC1 and RIDD substrate RNAs, we performed in vitro yIre1 RNase reactions with radiolabeled RNA substrates in the presence of unlabeled (cold) RNA competitors. If IRE1 uses the same active site for binding and cleavage of both HAC1 and RIDD substrates, then both substrate RNAs should compete for the same active site. However, if the active sites are different, then HAC1 and RIDD RNA substrates should not compete equally well under single turnover conditions (Figure S1F). Cleavage of radiolabeled HAC1 RNA decreased upon addition of increasing amounts of cold HAC1 RNA, resulting in the accumulation of uncleaved radiolabeled HAC1 RNA (Figures 1C–1E and S1G). The addition of cold XBP1 RNA also resulted in decreased cleavage of radiolabeled HAC1 RNA (Figures 1C–1E, and S1H). Conversely, cold HAC1 RNA also inhibited cleavage of radiolabeled XBP1 RNA (Figures S1I and S1J). In contrast, addition of cold INSULIN RNA at a high concentration (15 μM) did not notably affect the cleavage of radiolabeled HAC1 RNA (Figures 1C–1E and S1G). The converse was also true: cleavage of radiolabeled INSULIN RNA was inhibited by excess amounts of cold INSULIN RNA but not HAC1 RNA (Figures 1F and S1K).

Furthermore, the cleavage of another RIDD substrate, BLOS1 RNA, was also inhibited by excess amounts of cold INSULIN RNA (Figures 1F and S1L). During these competition experiments, we noted that overall RIDD cleavage (either with INSULIN or BLOS1 RNA) was rather less effective than HAC1 or XBP1 RNA cleavage, suggesting that 3 μM yIre1 might not truly represent a single turnover condition for RIDD cleavage. In fact, further experiments revealed that RIDD reaction was saturated at ~10 μM (Figure S2A). Thus, we performed a similar set of RIDD competition at yIre1 concentrations (15 μM) and found essentially the same results: cold INSULIN but not HAC RNA competed with INSULIN cleavage (Figures 1G and S2B). Taken altogether, these results suggest that Ire1 cleaves HAC1 or RIDD RNA substrates using two distinct binding and/or catalytic sites.

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To determine whether these two forms can interchange, we performed competition assays under steady-state conditions using a decreased amount of protein (0.1 μM). The addition of 0.15, 0.3, and 1.5 μM cold HAC1 RNA to radiolabeled HAC1 RNA resulted in dose-dependent inhibition (Figure S2C). In Lineweaver-Burk plot, we found that inhibition of radiolabeled HAC1 cleavage by cold HAC1 RNA showed competitive inhibition (Figures 2A and S2E). In contrast, we found that cold INSULIN inhibited the cleavage of radiolabeled HAC1 RNA (Figure S2D) in the mode of noncompetitive inhibition (Figures 2B and S2E), providing additional support that Ire1 has two distinct RNA substrate binding and/or catalytic sites for cleaving HAC1 or RIDD RNA substrates.

**IRE1 Kinase Domain Requirements for RIDD**

Results of competition experiments were unexpected and raised a question of what conferred the mechanistic differences of Ire1 cleaving XBP1/HAC1 or RIDD RNAs. Nucleotide binding is known to play a key role in activating Ire1 RNase for XBP1/HAC1 RNA cleavage (Lee et al., 2008). D828 in yIre1 is important for coordinating magnesium (Mg²⁺) in the active site, and a D828A yIre1 mutant is still able to bind ATP but is unable to transfer phosphates (Chawla et al., 2011). In agreement with previous work, WT and D828A yIre1 were able to cleave HAC1 RNA (Figure 2C) (Chawla et al., 2011). Similarly, we found that WT and D828A yIre1 were also able to cleave BLOS1 RNA (Figure 2D). The importance of nucleotide binding for both HAC1 and RIDD RNA cleavage was further confirmed by the use of the L745G mutant yIre1, which has an altered nucleotide binding pocket capable of binding the nonhydrolyzable ATP homolog 1NM-PP1 (Papa et al., 2003). Upon binding to 1NM-PP1, L745G yIre1 was capable of cleaving both HAC1 and BLOS1 RNA (Figure 2E), indicating that binding in the nucleotide pocket is sufficient for RIDD activation. Taken altogether, the importance of the nucleotide binding in the Ire1 kinase domain is the same for cleavage of both HAC1 and RIDD RNA and thus is unlikely to be the key determinant that differentiates HAC1 and RIDD substrate cleavage.

**Differences in IRE1 Cooperativity Distinguish between XBP1/HAC1 and RIDD Substrate RNA Cleavage**

The kinase domain of Ire1 is necessary for oligomer formation, an important step leading to XBP1/HAC1 splicing, and the oligomer of Ire1 can be monitored by foci formation using Ire1-GFP protein (Aragon et al., 2009; Ishiwata-Kimata et al., 2013; Korenykh et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010). At 1 hr after treating HEK293 cells with thapsigargin (Tg), a well-characterized UPR-activating drug that disrupts calcium levels in the ER, the Ire1-GFP foci were detected (Figure S3A). These foci became larger at 4 hr and then had dispersed by 8 hr (Figure S3A). Samples collected at the same time showed XBP1 splicing detectable within 1 hr of treatment and continuing for 4 hr before starting to decline (Figure S3B) as reported previously (Li et al., 2010). In contrast, significant levels of RIDD activity, which was calculated as a percentage of substrates cleaved (BLOS1 and SCARA3), did not appear until 2 hr after UPR induction and continued to increase throughout the time course (Figure S3B). At the 8 hr time point, RIDD activity was at its highest, and no Ire1-GFP foci were present (Figures S3A and S3B). Our finding in vitro that both XBP1 and RIDD substrate RNA cleavage occurred within a minute of incubation revealed that Ire1 was capable of cleaving either substrate with similar kinetics (Figures 1A, 1B, and S1C). The differences observed here in vivo might come from differential availabilities of these RNA substrates. However, both XBP1 and BLOS1 mRNA were associated with the ER membrane even prior to Figure 2. RIDD Requires the Nucleotide Binding in the IRE1 Kinase Domain and Exhibits Noncompetitive Inhibition with the HAC1 RNA Cleavage Reaction

(A and B) Lineweaver-Burk plots of steady-state yIre1 RNase reactions cleaving radiolabeled HAC1 containing no competitor (black), cold HAC1 (blue) (A), or INSULIN RNA (red) (B). Error bars represent three independent repeats (representative reactions shown in Figure S2E).

(C and D) RNA cleavage reactions of HAC1 (C) or BLOS1 (D) RNA were performed with WT yIre1 or D828A yIre1 (1 μM) for 15 min. RNA cleavage fragments are indicated schematically.

(E) L745G yIre1 (1 μM) cleaves BLOS1 and HAC1 RNA in the presence of ADP or the nonhydrolyzable ATP homolog 1NM-PP1 (20 μM).
ER stress induction (Figure S3C). This suggests that a regulatory step(s) beyond RNA localization is unlikely to be responsible for generating the differences in activation kinetics of XBP1 splicing and RIDD in vivo. Although factors other than the RNA cleavage by Ire1, including the ligation step for XBP1 splicing or degradation of the cleaved fragments for RIDD, affect the appearance of the spliced form of XBP1 or overall levels of RIDD substrate mRNA in cells, these findings hinted that formation of Ire1 higher ordered structures, which correlate with XBP1 mRNA splicing, might not be necessary for RIDD activity, and warranted for further examination.

To investigate contributions of higher order structure of Ire1 in the XBP1 or RIDD RNA cleavage, we tested cooperativity of Ire1 and determined the Hill coefficient to be 2.13 ± 0.38 for ylre1-cleaving HAC1 RNA (Figures 3A and S3D) and similarly the Hill coefficient for hIre1 cleaving XBP1 RNA to be 3.07 ± 0.65 (Figures 3A and S3E), indicating that Ire1 RNase for HAC1 or XBP1 consists of Ire1 complex with the presence of cooperativity (Korennykh et al., 2009). In contrast, the Hill coefficients for the RIDD reactions were 1.15 ± 0.19 for ylre1 and 1.10 ± 0.29 for hIre1, indicating essentially no cooperativity (Figures 3A, S3D, and S3E). In addition, we found that the Hill coefficient value for a HAC1 substrate with only one cleavage due to a mutation at the 3′ splice site (Figure S3F) was similar to that for the WT HAC1 RNA, revealing that the number of cleavage sites does not matter for cooperativity.

In addition to Hill coefficients, we also performed transcomplementation assays using WT and H1061N (a catalytically inactive mutant) ylre1. Previous studies found that H1061P participates in the proton relay mechanism necessary for cleaving HAC1 RNA (Korennykh et al., 2011). A mutation at this site prevents cleavage of HAC1 RNA without disrupting ylre1 oligomer formation (Figures S3G and S3H) (Korennykh et al., 2011). Furthermore, we found that H1061N ylre1 was also inactive for RIDD substrate cleavage (Figure S3G). In the transcomplementation assay, we kept the concentration of WT ylre1 constant at 0.083 μM where ylre1 remained as a monomer upon performing the previously reported oligomerization assay (Figure S3H) (Korennykh et al., 2011). Furthermore, WT ylre1 showed very little cleavage activity for either HAC1 or RIDD substrates (Figure 3B, lanes 1 and 7). As increasing amounts of H1061N ylre1 were added, the heterocomplexes became active for HAC1 cleavage (Figure 3B, lanes 2–5), consistent as previously reported (Korennykh et al., 2011). However, once the concentration of H1061N ylre1 far exceeded that of WT ylre1, HAC1 RNA cleavage became inactive (Figure 3B, lane 6). In contrast, RIDD RNA cleavage was restored when H1061N ylre1 was added at an equal or 2-fold higher concentration of WT ylre1 (Figure 3B, lanes 7–9), but higher levels of H1061N ylre1 inhibited RIDD cleavage (Figure 3B, lanes 10–12).

**Oligomerization State of IRE1 Can Distinguish between HAC1 and RIDD Substrate RNA Cleavage**

These observations also provided a prediction that disruption of the interfaces within the yeast Ire1 oligomers has little impact on RIDD cleavage. To test this idea, we prepared three mutant forms of yeast Ire1 carrying a mutation at one of the three interfaces: IF1 Glu 988, IF2 Arg 1087, and IF3 Arg 899, generating E988Q, R1087D, and R899A ylre1, respectively (Korennykh et al., 2009) (Figure 3C). All three ylre1 interface mutants did not generate oligomers based on the oligomerization assay (Figure S3H) (Korennykh et al., 2009). In agreement with previous reports (Korennykh et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2008), we found that alterations in any of these residues inactivated HAC1 RNA cleavage (Figure 3D). In contrast, IF2-R1087D ylre1 remained active for RIDD at the rate similar to WT ylre1 (Figures 3E and 3F), whereas E988Q and R899A ylre1 did not show RIDD cleavage (Figures 3D and 3E). R1087 is localized between the two RNase interfaces in the oligomer (Figure 3C), and the ability of R1087D ylre1 to retain the cleavage of RIDD RNA, but not that of HAC1 RNA, provided a further support for the different nature of RIDD RNase reactions.

Curiously, we found that both E988Q ylre1 and R1087D ylre1 were active kinases able to undergo autophosphorylation (Figure S3) (Chawla et al., 2011; Han et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2008). E988Q ylre1 is an inactive RNase for both HAC1 RNA and RIDD, suggesting that activation of the kinase domain alone is not sufficient to generate an active Ire1 RNase. This is a notable result as the current model proposes that Ire1 initially forms “face-to-face” dimers where the nucleotide binding pockets are facing each other within Ire1 dimer (Figure 2A), and structural studies reveal that the two RNase domains are not in close proximity (Figure 2A) (Ali et al., 2011). Presumably, formation of dimers in a “back-to-back” form where the nucleotide binding pockets are facing away from each other brings two RNase domains together to create a catalytically active RNase (Lee et al., 2009). The back-to-back dimer is present in the crystalized oligomer that corresponds to the IF1′ interface (compare Figure 2A [back-to-back dimer] with Figure 3C) (Korennykh et al., 2009). Recently, quercetin (Q) has been shown to induce the formation of ylre1 back-to-back dimers by binding to the Q site, an interface between the kinase and RNase domain (Figure 2A) (Wiseman et al., 2010). Q binding can occur independent of Ire1 kinase domain and activates Ire1 RNase for cleavage of HAC1 RNA (Figures 2A and S4B) (Wiseman et al., 2010). Similarly, we found that the binding of Q to Ire1 was sufficient to promote cleavage of RIDD substrate RNA (Figures 2A and S4B). Given that RIDD does not require oligomer formation (Figures 2A and 3D–3F), these results suggest that the Ire1 back-to-back dimer itself is sufficient for RIDD cleavage.

To further understand the mechanistic differences in Ire1 for HAC1 RNA and RIDD cleavage, we examined the effect of the Ire1 RNase specific inhibitor STF-083010 (STF) on ylre1 activated by ADP or Q. We found that HAC1 cleavage by ADP- or Q-activated ylre1 was effectively inhibited by STF, both with an IC_{50} around 30 μM (Figure 4B) (Papandreou et al., 2011). STF also potently inhibited cleavage of RIDD substrates when ylre1 was activated by ADP (Figures 4B [orange closed circles] and 4D). In contrast, however, STF was not able to inhibit Q-induced RIDD as effectively as ADP activated RIDD even at higher concentration (Figure 4B [compare open with closed orange circles] and 4D). Structural comparisons of ADP-bound Ire1 (Figure 2C, in purple) (Korennykh et al., 2009) and Q-bound Ire1 (in green)
Figure 3. Cleavage of RIDD Substrate RNA Does Not Require Cooperative IRE1 Oligomerization

(A) Cooperative activation modes were observed for yire1 and hire1 cleaving HAC1 and XBP1 RNA, respectively, but not for cleaving INSULIN RNA. Cooperative Hill coefficients for yire1/HAC1 (2.13 ± 0.38) and hire1/XBP1 (3.07 ± 0.65) were found, while noncooperative values were found for yire1/INSULIN (1.15 ± 0.19) and hire1/INSULIN (1.10 ± 0.29). We interpret a noncooperative Hill coefficient of “1” as IRE1 acting as a dimer since unassociated, monomeric IRE1 is inactive (Lee et al., 2008), and the minimal active unit for IRE1 is a dimer (Figure S4A). All error bars in this figure were calculated from at least three independent experiments (representative reactions shown in Figures S3D and S3E).

(B) Transcomplementation assay between WT yire1 and H1061N yire1. WT yire1 was kept at a concentration below the oligomerization threshold (0.083 μM) (Figure S3H) and inactive. Increasing amounts of catalytically inactive H1061N yire1 at molar ratios from 1:0–1:12 ([WT]:[H1061N]) were added. A schematic of the experiment is shown in the top panel.

(legend continued on next page)
Wiseman et al., 2010 revealed that the core catalytic residues, including H1061 and Y1043, remain unchanged but that the orientation of R1039 side chain became significantly different (Figure 4C, left). R1039 has been identified as a HAC1 RNA binding residue (Korennykh et al., 2011). In fact, we found that altering R1039 to Ala in yIre1 diminished RNase activity for HAC1 RNA as anticipated, but R1039A yIre1 remained active for the cleavage of BLOS1 RNA similarly to WT yIre1 (Figure S4C), revealing that RIDD cleavage reaction does not engage R1039 residue as it does for HAC1 RNA cleavage. Furthermore, R1039A yIre1 became insensitive to STF for the cleavage of both HAC1 and BLOS1 RNA (Figures 4E and S4D). Taken together, these observations suggest that R1039 residue of yIre1 is involved in HAC1 RNA cleavage but does not play a significant role in the RIDD.

Differential Activation of IRE1 Determines Cell Fate Decisions
Preferential inhibition of Q-activated Ire1 cleavage of HAC1 RNA but not RIDD substrates would provide a useful tool to dissect functional consequences of these two activities of Ire1. Q was not effectively taken up by yeast cells (Wiseman et al., 2010), which precluded the use of yeast for our analyses. Elegantly, a previous report demonstrated that a chimeric hybrid IRE1 (hyIRE1) where a human luminal domain was fused with the yeast cytosolic domain could be activated by Q when expressed in ire1 knockout mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) (Wiseman et al., 2010). Using hyIRE1, we confirmed that hyIRE1 was not activated when Tg was used to induce ER stress, as reported previously (Figure 4F; Tg and Tg + STF). In contrast, incubation of hyIRE1 cells with Q activated hyIRE1 RNase for both XBP1 and XBP1 splicing but not RIDD in hyIRE1 induced (G) cell death and (H) apoptosis.

(C) Three interfaces in yIre1 oligomer (IF1 E988, IF2 R1087, and IF3 R899) previously identified from X-ray crystallographic structure studies (Korennykh et al., 2009). One monomer of IRE1 (red) can contact three different monomers (orange, blue, green) within a tetramer, leading to the three interfaces, IF1 (E988), IF2 (R1087), and IF3 (R899) interactions are shown (arrows).

(D) Nuclease reactions were performed with either WT yIre1 or interface mutants IF1 E988Q, IF2 R1087D, and IF3 R899A yIre1 (1 μM) for 10 min. (E and F) Time course of BLOS1 RNA cleavage reaction with WT yIre1 or yIre1 interface mutants (E) and the quantitation (F) of BLOS1 RNA cleavage activities for WT and IF2 yIre1.
RNA splicing (Q, blue bar) and RIDD cleavage (Figure 4F; Q, orange bar). Furthermore, STF treatment inhibited XBP1 splicing (Figure 4F; Q + STF, blue bar), whereas cleavage of BLOS1 RIDD RNA occurred normally even in the presence of STF (Figure 4F; Q + STF, orange bar), recapitulating our in vitro results (Figures 4B and 4D).

Thus, we tested the functional consequence of XBP1 mRNA splicing inhibition, but leaving RIDD intact by examining the extent of cell death. Upon treatment of hyIRE1 cells with Q and STF, numbers of cells stained with Crystal violet were reduced (Figure 4G), and PARP cleavage was elevated (Figure 4H) when compared with those treated with Q alone, revealing that RIDD activation without XBP1 splicing induces more predominant cell death. Similarly, we also tested the effect of STF on Q-activated mammalian cells carrying the endogenous WT IRE1 (Figures S4F–S4K), as we found that Q was able to activate hire1for both XBP1 RNA and BLOS1 RNA cleavage in vitro (Figure S4E).

Preferential inhibition of XBP1 splicing but not RIDD brought by Q and STF resulted in more diminished numbers of crystal violet stained cells and increased PARP cleavage, in comparison to both XBP1 splicing and RIDD activation in Q-treated cells (Figures S4I and S4J). Finally, experiments with ire1 knockout MEFs conferred that the increase in apoptotic events observed in WT MEFs was an IRE1-dependent event (Figures S4K–S4M).

Altogether, these findings, consistent with previous studies (Han et al., 2009; Upton et al., 2012), indicate that activation of RIDD without XBP1 RNA promotes cell death.

**DISCUSSION**

Our data suggest that activated IRE1 RNase has different mechanisms for cleaving XBP1/HAC1 RNA or RIDD substrates. Specifically, a catalytically active IRE1 unit engaged in HAC1 or XBP1 mRNA splicing is generated within the IRE1 oligomer, while IRE1 engaged in RIDD resides within an IRE1 monomer/dimer. An active catalytic core for XBP1/HAC1 mRNA cleavage is unlikely to consist of all subunits within the IRE1 oligomer, but rather, oligomerization will lead to formation of the catalytically active pocket by establishing a specific orientation of catalytic residues. The structural conformation of the RNA binding and/or RNase catalytic residues within the catalytic core unit must differ such that HAC1 or XBP1 RNA cannot compete the cleavage reaction of RIDD substrates and vice versa under single turnover conditions (Figures 1C–1G). Consistent with this idea, the Hill coefficient for IRE1 engaged in HAC1 or XBP1 RNA cleavage showed cooperativity among IRE1 subunits, while IRE1 engaged in RIDD cleavage displayed no significant cooperativity and may not form higher order structures as it does not require the IF25 (R1087) interface (Figures 3D–3F). It is possible, however, that IRE1 engaged in RIDD could also exist within an oligomer without any cooperative impact from other IRE1 subunits in the complex.

Structural and biochemical studies have revealed that the H1061 residue of yeast IRE1 plays a critical role in catalysis of HAC1 cleavage (Korennykh et al., 2011). Similarly, we found that H1061 was also important for RIDD substrate cleavage (Figures 3B and S3G). Previous studies have also demonstrated that R1039 residue is involved in binding to HAC1 RNA (Korennykh et al., 2011). Mutation of R1039 to Alanine did not affect ability of yIre1 to cleave RIDD substrate, while it decreased that of HAC1 RNA (Figure S4C). Curiously, comparisons of Ire1 structure bound to Q highlight a difference in the spatial orientation of R1039 residue (Figure 4C). The ability of an IRE1 RNAse inhibitor STF-083010 (STF) to inhibit HAC1 RNA cleavage occurred regardless of the side-chain orientation of R1039, while the cleavage of BLOS1 RNA by Q-induced yIre1, but not by ADP-induced yIre1, was no longer inhibited by STF-083010 (Figures 4B and 4D).

Together with the noncompetitive inhibition between RIDD and HAC1 substrates under steady-state competition experiments, these results point that binding sites for XBP1/HAC1 RNA and RIDD substrate may differ, while both reactions share a catalytic site, including H1061 residue. Future work will require understanding of how RIDD substrates bind to IRE1 at the molecular level.

Notably, our model for IRE1 activation is different from what has previously been proposed (Han et al., 2009) where higher ordered structures were assigned to the RIDD active form of IRE1. Experiments reported by Han et al. (2009) utilized murine I642G IRE1, a homolog of L745G yeast IRE1, that binds to a modified nucleotide, 1NM-PP1. Upon expressing I642G IRE1 in INS-1 cells, the addition of 1NM-PP1 (without ER stress induction) activated XBP1 mRNA splicing but not RIDD. In INS-1 cells expressing WT IRE1, instead of I642G IRE1, both XBP1 mRNA splicing and RIDD occurred. Since I642G IRE1 does not autophosphorylate, it was concluded that I642G hire1 was unable to perform RIDD due to the lack of both phosphorylation and its accompanying oligomerization. However, we found that L745G yIre1 itself, a yeast homolog of I642G IRE1, was active for RIDD in vitro upon binding to 1NM-PP1 (Figure 2E), revealing that a lack of RIDD may not be an intrinsic property of L745G (or I642G) IRE1. Further studies have also reported that I642G IRE1 is active for RIDD upon addition of 1NM-PP1 (Upton et al., 2012) and with ER stress when introduced into ire1−/− cells (Hollien et al., 2009). These experiments suggest that, in addition to the occupancy of the kinase nucleotide-binding pocket, the ER stress-induced conformational change of the cytosolic portion of IRE1 containing both kinase and RNase domains holds a key to activation of I642G IRE1. The importance of the conformational change(s) through the ER luminal, transmembrane, and linker domains for activation of IRE1 RNase has previously been described (Credle et al., 2005; Korennykh et al., 2009; Volmer et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2006).

Such conformational changes may also trigger oligomerization and ultimately full activation of IRE1. In vitro, L745G yIre1 binding to 1NM-PP1 caused a mobility shift to heavier fractions on a density gradient sedimentation assay similar to ADP-bound WT yIre1 (Papa et al., 2003), revealing that L745G yIre1 is capable of forming a higher order structure similar to WT yIre1 without the ER luminal domain.

Additionally, in these previous experiments (Han et al., 2009), I642G IRE1 was introduced into INS-1 cells that express the endogenous WT IRE1. Here, we demonstrated that even a catalytically inactive H1061N yIre1 could reconstitute WT yIRE1 present below its active concentration. Importantly, we demonstrate that at higher molar ratios of WT to mutant IRE1,
HAC1 cleavage but not RIDD can be reconstituted (Figure 3B), suggesting that overexpressing mutant IRE1 may favor XBP1 splicing over RIDD. Finally, our results revealed that the HAC1 RNA cleavage activity of yIre1 is intrinsically more active than RIDD (Figures S1F and S2A), and thus, comparisons of activities between different forms of IRE1 should be performed carefully. Future work will require more understanding of I642G/L745G mutant IRE1.

This report shows that RIDD can occur in yeast, S. cerevisiae. We have previously reported that the only RNA cleaved by IRE1 in yeast is HAC1 RNA (Niwa et al., 2005). However, the yeast re-combinant IRE1 used in the previous study differed slightly from the one used in this study, where the linker domain was shortened in the yIre1 used for this study. We and others have noted that yIre1 with the full-length linker domain is less active for HAC1 RNA cleavage (Korennykh et al., 2009). In addition, yIre1 with the full-length linker domain does not show significant RIDD cleavage activity. The molecular reasons for this observation are not clear, but it is in agreement with recent studies highlighting the importance of the linker region (Volmer et al., 2013).

Since IRE1 exhibits dual RNase activities, this calls into question the role of RIDD in vivo. Previously, contributions of RIDD versus XBP1 mRNA splicing in vivo were assessed by comparing ire1 knockout and xbp1 knockout cells with a rationale that subtracting the XBP1 contribution in xbp1 knockout cells would allow assessment of RIDD functions (Hur et al., 2012). However, since both unspliced and spliced XBP1 mRNA is not present in xbp1 knockout cells, results from this approach also include contributions from an absent unspliced XBP1 protein and changes in transcription due to a lack of XBP1, not simply from RIDD activation alone. Furthermore, while no additional IRE1 splicing substrate RNA beyond XBP1 has been identified, splicing of such RNA would take place normally in xbp1 knockout cells. Initially, activation of the IRE1 branch of the UPR was thought to be protective by virtue of XBP1 splicing (Lin et al., 2007). However, our finding that RIDD promotes cell death highlights the importance of re-evaluating the functional significance of IRE1 activation. In S. pombe, where either HAC1 or XBP1 is absent, making RIDD the sole function for IRE1, a recent report revealed that IRE1 cleaves KAR2/BIP, a homolog of GRP78, within its 3′ UTR as a RIDD substrate (Kimmig et al., 2012), resulting in increased translation, rather than degradation. In addition, the kinetics or intensity of RIDD versus XBP1/HAC1 splicing may differ depending on the cell or tissue type and the nature of the ER stress and ultimately may change the overall outcomes. Thus, careful evaluation of both the mechanistic and functional consequences between RIDD activation versus XBP1/HAC1 splicing will provide a greater understanding of how ER stress affects cell physiology and also provide rationales for development of drugs and more effective treatment strategies for ER stress-related diseases.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

In vitro transcription of IRE1 substrates, protein purification, and in vitro nuclease assay; determination of Hill coefficient; and determination of XBP1 splicing and RIDD in vivo are described in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures.
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Ire1 Has Distinct Catalytic Mechanisms for HAC1 Splicing and RIDD

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**SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE LEGENDS**

**Figure S1. Yeast Ire1 performs RIDD both in vivo and in vitro**
(related to Figure 1)

(A) RIDD in yeast (*S. cerevisiae*) during ER stress. WT (closed circle), *ire1Δ* (open circle), or *hac1Δ* (grey circle) cells were treated with tunicamycin (Tm) for up to 6 hrs and RNA was collected. RNA levels of *DAP2* and *MFα1* were determined by reverse transcription-followed by quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). RNA decreased during ER stress only in WT and *hac1Δ* cells and not in *ire1Δ*, indicating RIDD where the decrease in RNA is IRE1 dependent, but HAC1 independent. Error bars shown in Figure S1 all represent data from at least three independent repeats.

(B) *HAC1* Splicing in wild type IRE1 and *ire1Δ* strains during ER stress. The same RNA isolated from (A) was analyzed for *HAC1* splicing by Northern Blot. Un-spliced (top band) and spliced (bottom band) are indicated. *HAC1* splicing occurred only in WT cells and not in *ire1Δ* cells. *hac1Δ* cells did not show any *HAC1* signal by Northern Blot as anticipated (data not shown).

(C) *In vitro* cleavage of *HAC1/XBP1* by purified recombinant WT yeast IRE1 (yIre1) or human IRE1 (hIre1) as indicated. *In vitro* transcribed radiolabeled *HAC1, XBP1, or ACT1* RNA was incubated with 1µM WT yIre1 or WT hIre1 for up to 30 min upon addition of 2mM ADP. Cleavage fragments were analyzed by separation on a denaturing Urea 6% polyacrylamide gel. *HAC1* and *XBP1* RNA were cleaved by yIre1 and hIre1, respectively, whereas *ACTIN* RNA was cleaved by neither yIre1 nor hIre1.

(D) WT yIre1 cleaved *DAP2* or MFα1 RNA *in vitro*. Nuclease assays were performed using 1µM WT yIre1 and *in vitro* transcribed *DAP2* or MFα1 radiolabeled RNA. Cleavage fragments were analyzed upon incubation with ADP for indicated length of time. Uncut precursor is shown as black arrows and cleavage fragments are indicated with gray arrows.

(E) The invariant ‘G’ residue critical for IRE1 cleavage present in *XBP1* mRNA 5’ and 3’ splice sites (5’SS and 3’SS) (Sidrauski and Walter, 1997) and in WT *INSULIN* RNA (Han et al., 2009) is mutated to “C” in mutant *INSULIN* RNA (mut *INSULIN*) (top panel). Incubation of mut *INSULIN* with WT yIre1 and 2mM ADP for 10 min diminished the cleavage at this site, but instead activated alternative cleavage sites.
Activation Profile of yIre1 in vitro. To determine single turnover reaction conditions, HAC1 RNA cleavage reactions were performed with the increasing concentrations of yIre1 ranging from 0.1-5 µM until there was no further increase in HAC1 RNA cleavage activity. \( k_{\text{obs}} \) (s\(^{-1}\)) for HAC1 RNA cleavage reaction at different concentration of yIre1 was calculated from profiles of % cleavage of HAC1 RNA throughout time courses performed at different concentrations of yIre1. \( k_{\text{obs}} \) (s\(^{-1}\)) stayed at similar values when concentration of yIre1 became higher than 1µM and thus, we chose 3µM Ire1 for the subsequent competition experiments as a single turnover condition.

Competition assays described in Figure 1C-1E. Reactions were performed with radiolabeled HAC1 and 3µM yIre1 with increasing amounts of either cold (unlabeled) HAC1 or cold INSULIN RNA (G) or cold XBP1 RNA (H), as indicated.

XBP1 RNA cleavage by hIre1 was effectively competed by HAC1 RNA but not INSULIN (RIDD) RNA. Competition assays were performed with radiolabeled XBP1 RNA and 3µM yIre1 with 15 µM of either cold HAC1 or cold INSULIN RNA. \( k_{\text{obs}} \) was calculated from reactions shown in I (J).

Competition assays described in Figure 1F. Reactions were performed with radiolabeled INSULIN (K) or BLOS1 (L) and 3µM yIre1 with increasing amounts of either cold HAC1 or cold INSULIN RNA, as indicated.

**Figure S2. Competition Assays of RIDD at Single Turnover and Steady State Conditions**
(Related to Figures 1 and 2)

Activity profile for RIDD. Similarly to Figure S1F, INSULIN RNA cleavage were performed with increasing concentration of yIre1 ranging from 0.1-15 µM using 0.25nM radiolabeled INSULIN. At 10µM of yIre1, there was no further increase in \( k_{\text{obs}} \) (s\(^{-1}\)) for INSULIN RNA cleavage activity. At 15µM of yIre1, competition experiments of radiolabeled INSULIN RNA were repeated with either cold HAC1 or INSULIN RNA (Figure 1G).

INSULIN RNA cleavage (RIDD substrate cleavage) by yIre1 was competed by cold INSULIN RNA but not by cold HAC1 RNA using 15µM yIre1 cleaving 0.25nM radiolabeled INSULIN RNA. Competition experiments were performed with 0, 7.5, 15 or 50µM cold HAC1 or INSULIN RNA. \( k_{\text{obs}} \) for these reactions are graphed in Figure 1G.
(C-D) Steady state competition experiments of radiolabeled HAC1 RNA cleavage. To achieve steady state conditions, lower concentration of yIre1 (0.1 µM) was incubated with varying concentrations of either cold HAC1 (C) or cold INSULIN (D) RNA competitors at 0, 0.15, 0.3, or 1.5µM and incubated with 2mM ADP for up to 15 min. % HAC1 cleaved was calculated and graphed. Addition of 0.15, 0.3 or 1.5µM cold HAC1 competitor resulted in a decrease in activity, while addition of 0.3 or 1.5µM cold INSULIN competitor also resulted in decreased activity.

(E) Non-competitive inhibition of HAC1 RNA cleavage by RIDD RNA. Using steady state conditions described in (C) and (D), increasing concentrations of radiolabeled HAC1 (ranging from 0.05-1.5nM) were incubated with 0.1µM yIre1 in the presence of no competitor, 1.5µM cold HAC1 or cold INSULIN RNA. Results are shown as a Lineweaver-Burk plot and described in Figures 2A and 2B.

**Figure S3. RIDD cleavage does not require IRE1 oligomerization**  
(Related to Figure 3)

(A) Formation of hIRE1 foci correlate with XBP1 mRNA splicing but not with RIDD. HEK293 cells stably expressed hIRE1-GFP (Li et al., 2010) were treated with 200nM thapsigargin (Tg) for up to 8 hrs and visualized for IRE1 (green). Human IRE1 formed visible foci at 1, 2 and 4 hr time points, but dispersed by 8 hr. DAPI staining (blue) shows nucleus.

(B) Kinetics of XBP1 mRNA splicing and RIDD activity in HEK293 cells when treated with Tg (200nM). Cells were collected at the indicated times and RNA was examined by reverse transcription (RT)-PCR to determine the percentage of spliced XBP1 mRNA by gel-electrophoresis with un-spliced and spliced XBP1 indicated (top panel). XBP1 splicing was calculated by (spliced XBP1/(spliced + unspliced XBP1 mRNA)) X100%. The same cDNA was used to perform quantitative PCR (qPCR) using primers complimentary to BLOS1 (orange) and SCARA3 (dark red) mRNA, another RIDD target (Hollien et al., 2009). RIDD activity was calculated using [(RIDD mRNA in untreated cells - RIDD in treated cells)/ RIDD in untreated cells] X100%. Blue line indicates high XBP1 splicing activity at 2 hrs, while the orange & dark red lines indicate the peak of RIDD activity at 8 hrs. Error bars were generated from at least three independent experiments. It should be noted that XBP1 mRNA splicing activity includes both IRE1 cleavage of the XBP1 intron and the exon ligation steps, while RIDD activity includes degradation of IRE1 cleaved RNA fragments. Thus, the apparent kinetic relationships of XBP1 mRNA splicing and RIDD may over-estimate kinetic differences of IRE1-dependent steps alone in HEK293 cells. This may also contribute differential kinetic relationships of XBP1/HAC1 and RIDD substrate RNA cleavage observed
in vivo vs in vitro where both cleavage reactions occurred with similar kinetics (Figures 1A, S1C, S1D). Alternatively, an additional factor(s) may exist to modulate IRE1 cleavage of either HAC/XBP1 or RIDD substrate RNA in vivo.

(C) Localization of IRE1 RNA substrates. Both XBP1 and RIDD substrate RNA were associated with ER membrane prior to ER stress induction. HEK293 cells were treated with 200nM Tg for up to 8hrs, and cytosol (Cyt) and ER membrane (Mem) fractions were separated using serial detergent extractions as described in (Stephens et al., 2005). RNAs isolated from these fractions were analyzed by Northern blots probing BLOS1, XBP1, and KAR2/BIP mRNA. Most of both XBP1 and BLOS1 RNA were localized to the ER membrane even prior to UPR induction (compare RNA in the untreated (0) vs Tg treated cells for 1 or 8 hrs). As reported previously, splicing released XBP1 mRNA into the soluble cytoplasmic fraction (Stephens et al., 2005). In contrast, the majority of GAPDH mRNA was localized to the cytosolic fraction. Consistent with previous reports, some GAPDH was found in the membrane fraction (Stephens et al., 2005). Standard deviations were calculated from at least three independent experiments.

(D-E) To determine Hill Coefficients, increasing amounts of either yIre1 (D) or hIre1 (E) were used to perform nuclease reactions (Korennykh et al., 2009). Un-cleaved and cleaved fragments of RNA were indicated. k_{obs} (s^{-1}) were graphed in Figures 3A.

(F) Hill coefficient analysis for HAC1 with the 3’ stem loop mutated (HAC1 3’ mutant). The 3’ stem loop mutation has been shown to block cleavage by IRE1 (Sidrauski and Walter, 1997). Nuclease reactions described in (D) were done using HAC1 3’ mutant. Hill Coefficients for HAC1 3’ mutant (2.27±0.54) is similar to unmodified WT HAC1 (2.13±0.38), indicating that both are cooperative and that numbers of the cleavage sites do not affect the Hill Coefficients.

(G) H1061N yIre1 is nuclease dead for both HAC1 RNA cleavage and RIDD. Either WT yIre1 or H1061N yIre1 was activated with 2mM ADP for 15 min allowing the cleavage of either HAC1 or BLOS1 RNA.

(H) Oligomerization assays as described in (Korennykh et al., 2009) was performed on either WT yIre1, H1061N or R1039A mutants, or interface mutants IF1c, IF2c, and IF3c. At increasing concentrations, WT yIre1, H1061N yIre1 and R1039A yIre1 showed significant increases in OD_{500}, while OD_{500} for IF1c, IF2c and IF3c yIre1 mutants did not show such increase. WT yIre1 (solid pink), H1061N yIre1 (solid light blue), R1039A yIre1 (solid dark blue), IF1c mutant E988Q yIre1 (dotted red), IF2c mutant R1087D yIre1 (dotted maroon), IF3c mutant R899A yIre1 (dotted green) are shown.
(I) *In vitro* kinase assay for Ire1 oligomerization mutants. WT and interface mutants IF1c (E988Q), IF2c(R1087D), IF3c (R899A), or a IF2c/IF3c double interface mutant were tested for their abilities to undergo autophosphorylation in *in vitro*. *In vitro* kinase reactions were performed upon incubation with γ32P-ATP, and analyzed by SDD-PAGE, followed by autoradiography.

**Figure S4. RIDD activation leads to apoptosis**

(Related to Figure 4)

(A) Back to back dimer of IRE1 forms a catalytically active RNase site (Ali et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2008; Wiseman et al., 2010). An IRE1 monomer (red) containing the kinase and RNase domains is shown (Left). To initiate trans-autophosphorylation, two IRE1 monomers adopt a face to face conformation where the nucleotide binding pockets of each monomer can access the activation loop of the other (Ali et al., 2011). In the face-to-face dimer, the catalytic RNase sites are inactive and pointing away from each other, and face to face interactions were not present in the crystalized oligomer (Figure 3C). Formation of a back to back dimer where the nucleotide binding pockets are facing away from each other juxtaposes the RNase domains and forms an active nuclease site. Formation of the back-to-back dimer can be formed with ADP binding to the nucleotide pocket and with quercetin in the Q-site. The back-to-back dimer forms the building block of the IRE1 oligomer (Figure 3C) and the interface IF1c is indicated.

(B) Quercetin (Q) activation of RIDD. Incubation of yIre1 with Q (100µM) induced cleavage of *HAC1* RNA at kinetics and the extent similar to that by ADP. Q also induced Ire1 to cleave *INSULIN* or *DAP2* RIDD substrates efficiently *in vitro*. Precursor mRNA and cleavage products were indicated as previous figures. IRE1 dependent cleavage reactions of both *HAC1* and RIDD substrate RNA are faster with Q than ADP. This may be due to the ability of Q to form the back-to-back IRE1 dimer dimers (Figure S4A) (Wiseman et al., 2010), which would be a building unit for the fully active oligomerized IRE1. Though no cooporativity between IRE1 is involved (Figure 3A), the back-to-back dimer formation may help to stabilize a specific conformation of IRE1 needed for RIDD substrate cleavage.

(C) R1039A yIre1 was reduced for *HAC1* cleavage, but retained RIDD cleavage. 1µM of either WT yIre1 (closed circle) or R1039A yIre1 (open circle) was incubated with 2mM ADP for up to 10 min. An amino acid change at R1039 to Alanine decreased the ability of yIre1 to cleave *HAC1* RNA (left panel). On the other hand, it did not
show the significant change in BLOS1 RNA (right panel) where both WT and R1039A yIre1 showed the same BLOS1 RNA cleavage activity. Error bars represent data from at least three independent experiments.

(D) Representative RNase reactions for Figures 4D and 4E. WT yIre1 (1µM) was incubated with either ADP or Q for 30 min to cleave HAC1 or BLOS1 RNA, in the presence or absence of STF-083010 (Papandreou et al., 2011). HAC1 RNA cleavage was effectively inhibited when 60µM STF-083010 (STF) was added (lanes 1&5 (no inhibition) vs 2&6 (with STF)). In contrast, BLOS1 RNA cleavage was inhibited by STF when ADP was used as a cofactor (lane 4), but not inhibited when Q was added as a co-factor (lane 8). Additionally, similar experiments were performed with R1039A yIre1 (lanes 9-16). STF did not inhibit either HAC1 or BLOS1 RNA cleavage reactions.

(E) Quercetin (Q) activates hIre1 in *in vitro*. hIre1 was activated with either 2mM ADP or 100µM Q and incubated with radiolabeled XBP1 in an *in vitro* nuclease reaction for the indicated length of time. Addition of Q alone activated hIre1 cleavage of XBP1 RNA to a similar extent as ADP.

(F-G) Q activated RIDD is not inhibited by STF in wild type MEFs. Wild type MEFs were treated with 200nM thapsigargin (Tg) or Tg + 60µM STF (F), for up to 24 hrs. mRNA was isolated and levels of the spliced XBP1 mRNA or BLOS1 mRNA were determined by performing RT-PCR or RT-qPCR, respectively. STF inhibited XBP1 mRNA splicing and cleavage of BLOS1 RNA induced upon Tg treatment of cells. Similarly, wild type MEFs incubated with Q (450µM) (G) were also activated for XBP1 splicing and RIDD. In this case, however, STF was unable to inhibit BLOS1 RNA cleavage while XBP1 splicing was effectively inhibited. Error bars represent at least three independent experiments. RIDD activity (%) was calculated as described before (Figure S3B).

(H)(K) STF inhibits XBP1 mRNA splicing, but does not impact RIDD for Q-activated IRE1 *in vivo*. Mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) carrying WT mouse IRE1 (H) or ire1 knockout (K) were incubated with Tg, Tg+STF , Q (450µM), and Q+STF or untreated for 2 hrs. RNA isolated from each reaction were analyzed by RT-qPCR for both XBP1 splicing (H or K, top panel) and RIDD activity. Positions of spliced and un-spliced XBP1 RNA were indicated. Quantitation of spliced XBP1 RNA and BLOS1 mRNA cleavage was shown.

(I)(L) WT IRE1 (I) or ire1 knockout (L) MEFs were incubated with Q, Q+STF, or untreated for up to 48 hrs and stained with crystal violet. Numbers of cells stained with % of crystal violet (live cells) were calculated.
(J)(M) Upon treatment with Q, or Q+STF, or untreated WT-IRE1 cells (J) or ire1 knockout MEFs (M) for indicated length of time, total cell extracts were prepared and examined for apoptosis by examining PARP cleavage upon performing western blots using anti-PARP antibody. Positions of uncleaved (U) and cleaved (C) PARP are indicated and quantitated to calculate % cleavage of PARP at each time point (bottom panel). Error bars represent at least three independent experiments.
SUPPLEMENTAL EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

In Vitro IRE1 Substrates: HAC1, XBP1, and RIDD

HAC1 substrate (508 nt) used in all the in vitro RNase reactions was in vitro transcribed from a plasmid described previously (pCF187) (Sidrauski and Walter, 1997). Human XBP1 substrate (444 nt) (Lee et al., 2002) was made by PCR amplifying human cDNA with primers containing a T7 site (F)-TAATACGACTCCTATAGGGAGAAGAACCAGGAGTTAAGAC; (R)-TAAGACTAGGGCCTTGGTATATATGTG. RIDD substrates were also prepared by PCR amplifying cDNA from the appropriate organism with primers containing a T7 site. INSULIN (mouse INSULIN-2) RNA (503 nt) was prepared as described (Han et al., 2009). BLOS1 (mouse BLOS1) (379 nt) and yeast DPAPB (DAP2) (538 nt) substrate RNA was prepared from a DNA fragment prepared by PCR amplification using mouse or yeast cDNA, respectively, using the following primers: BLOS1: (F) ATGGTACCTAATACGACTCCTATAGGGATGCTGTCCGCCTGC, (R) ATGAGCTCTAGGATGGTGAGACTGCAG; DAP2: (F) ATGGTACCTAATACGACTCCTATAGGGCAGAAAATGCGACAAAGG; (R) ATGAGCTCTTGAATGCTCTTCCCACCATC. PCR products were then phenol/chloroform extracted and ethanol precipitated and used as templates for in vitro transcription.

In Vitro Transcription of RNA Substrates

In vitro transcription of radiolabeled RNA substrates has been described previously (Chawla et al., 2011; Sidrauski and Walter, 1997). Briefly, in vitro transcription was performed using T7 RNA polymerase (Promega) at 37 °C, 1mM each of ATP, CTP, GTP, 100µM of UTP, and 50 µCi of α32P-UTP (3000Ci/mmol), and 1 µg of template DNA. Transcripts were separated on a 6% UREA-PAGE gel and radiolabeled RNA products were gel extracted by phenol/chloroform followed by ethanol precipitation. Activity of probes was measured by scintillation counter, and diluted to an activity of 20,000 cpm/µl, and based on the efficiency of the scintillation counter, this was equivalent to 10 fmol/µl of radiolabeled RNA.

Unlabeled (cold) RNA was transcribed using MEGAscript T7 Kit (Life Technologies) according to manufacturer’s instructions, using 1µg of template DNA. To ensure that the cold RNA was equivalent to the radiolabeled RNA, cold RNA was gel purified side by side with its radiolabeled counterpart. Concentration was then determined upon quantitation by NanoDrop (Thermo).

Protein Purification and Site Directed Mutagenesis

For this study, we used a 6XHis-tagged WT yIre1 containing the entire cytosolic domain (642aa-1115aa) integrated into an expression vector (pET15b). Proteins were expressed in E. coli and purified using a Ni-NTA
column (Invitrogen) as described (Sidrauski and Walter, 1997). Recombinant human IRE1α (hIre1) was expressed and purified using a Baculovirus SF-9 expression system and purified using a Ni-NTA column, as previously described (Niwa et al., 1999). Point mutations in yIre1 were generated using QuickChange Site Directed Mutagenesis (Stratagene/Agilent) according to manufacturer’s instructions using the plasmid containing WT yIre1 (642-1115), and point mutations were confirmed by sequencing.

**In vitro Nuclease Assay and Kinetic Analysis**

*In vitro* nuclease assays were performed as described in (Sidrauski and Walter, 1997). Reactions were performed in a 20 µl volume in nuclease reaction buffer (40mM Hepes, 7.0, 10mM Mg(OAc)₂, 50mM KOAc, 5mM DTT) at 30°C for the indicated amount of time, unless otherwise indicated. Standard nuclease reactions contained 2mM ADP, 100µM quercetin (Sigma) or 60µM STF-083010 (Papandreou et al., 2011) when indicated, 1µM either yIre1 or hIre1, and 0.5nM radiolabeled RNA. For reactions with L745G yIre1, 20µM 1NM-PP1 (Calbiochem) was used. Reactions were started when radiolabeled substrate was added, and reactions were stopped by addition of stop buffer (7M Urea, 350mM NaCl, 10mM Tris pH 7.6, 10mM EDTA, 1% SDS) and RNA was extracted using phenol/chloroform, ethanol precipitated, and analyzed on a denaturing 6% Urea acrylamide gel. To determine reaction rates, signal from each lane was quantified using Typhoon 9400 (GE Healthcare) and analyzed using ImageQuant (GE Healthcare). Based on the numbers of the U residues in individual cleaved fragments, we calculated the molar concentration of each cleavage products. % cleavage for HAC1, XBP1 or RIDD RNA was calculated as \[\frac{\text{sum of cleaved RNA fragments}}{\text{uncleaved RNA + sum of cleaved RNA fragments}}\] X100%. For each time course, an activation curve was generated by plotting time (x) vs. cleaved substrate (y). Using this data, non-linear regression analysis was performed in SigmaPlot (Systat Software, Inc) to generate a curve using the exponential curves function. \(k_{\text{obs}}\) was generated using the initial slope of the generated curve obtained in SigmaPlot.

**Determination of Hill Coefficients**

Hill Coefficients were determined as previously described in (Korennykh et al., 2009). Briefly, standard nuclease assays were set up with nuclease buffer, 2mM ADP, and varying concentrations of either yIre1 or hIre1, as described. Reactions were performed in 20µl, and started when 0.5nM radiolabeled RNA (either HAC1, INSULIN, HAC1 3' mut for yIre1 or XBP1, INSULIN for hIre1) was added. Reactions were stopped with stop buffer and analyzed on 6% UREA gel, and molar values for uncleaved and cleaved products were calculated. For each concentration of Ire1, \(k_{\text{obs}}\) was calculated as described above and values were plotted (\([\text{Ire1}]\) vs \(k_{\text{obs}}\)) and fitted using GraphPad Prism 5 (La Jolla, CA). The Hill coefficient was calculated by Prism using a four parameter logistic equation under the sigmoidal dose response curve with variable slope function. We interpret a
non-cooperative Hill coefficient of 1 as IRE1 acting within a dimer since monomeric IRE1 is inactive (Lee et al., 2008). Experiments were done at least three times with standard deviations shown.

Structural Analysis of IRE1
Structural analysis was done using Chimera (http://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera) (Pettersen et al., 2004) and structure prediction was done using Phyre2 (www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/phyre2) (Kelley and Sternberg, 2009). Structures used were: 3FBV (Korennykh et al., 2009) for yIre1 oligomers (Figure 3C), 3P23 (Ali et al., 2011) for hIre1 face to face dimer (Figure S4A), 2RIO (Lee et al., 2008) for ADP activated yIre back to back dimer (Figure S4A), and 3LJO (Wiseman et al., 2010) for quercetin activated yIre1 back to back dimer (Figure S4A).

Cell Culture and IRE1 Foci Microscopy
HEK 293 cells stably transfected with IRE1-GFP (Li et al., 2010) were grown in DMEM media (Cellgro) with 10% FBS and 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100µg/ml streptomycin (Mediatech) in 5% CO₂ at 37°C. To visualize IRE1 foci, cells were grown on a cover slip and the expression of IRE1-GFP was induced upon incubation with 10nM Doxycycline for 24 hrs before start of Thapsigargin (Tg) treatments. Cells were treated with 200nM Tg for up to 8 hrs. Cover slips were then washed with PBS and fixed with 4% PFA. For visualization of IRE1-GFP, cells were then mounted with mounting media containing 1µg/mL DAPI (Pierce) and visualized in the green channel by microscope (Axiovert 200M; Carl Zeiss MicroImaging, Inc.) with a 100X 1.3 NA objective.

Yeast Culture and Northern Blots
Yeast strains used in this study were described in (Chawla et al., 2011); WT (MNY1000), ire1Δ (MNY1655), hac1Δ (MNY1662). Yeast strains were grown in YPD medium (1% yeast extract, 2% bactopeptone, and 2% glucose) at 30 °C to an OD₆₀₀ of ~0.5 before Tunicamycin (Tm) to a final concentration of 1µg/ml was added and incubated for indicated length of time. At each time point, cells were collected and RNA was isolated for Northern Blot analyses as described previously (Chawla et al., 2011). Briefly, RNA was extracted using the hot phenol method, and RNA was separated on 1.5% agarose gels containing 6.7% formaldehyde and transferred to a Duralon-UV membrane (Agilent Technologies). Splicing of HAC1 mRNA was examined by hybridization of the membrane with radiolabeled HAC1 probe at 65 °C overnight, and exposed via phosphoimager screen (GE Healthcare). Quantitation was performed using a Typhoon Imager system (GE Healthcare).

Kinase Assay
In vitro Kinase assays were performed as described (Chawla et al., 2011). WT yIre1 or mutant yIre1 proteins were incubated in kinase buffer (10mM Hepes pH 7.5, 5mM Mg(OAc)₂, 25mM KOAc, 1mM DTT) with 200 µM of unlabeled ATP and 167 µCi of ³²Pγ-ATP (7000Ci/mmol) in a volume of 20µl. Reactions were incubated at 30
°C for 30 min, and hot SDS Loading Buffer and incubation at 95 °C was used to stop the reaction. Samples were immediately run on a 7% SDS-PAGE gel. Phosphorylation was determined by autoradiography and scanned on a Typhoon 9400 (GE Healthcare).

**Fractionation of ER**

Cells were treated for up to 8 hrs as indicated, washed twice with PBS, and re-suspended in Fractionation Buffer: 10mM HEPES [pH 7.4], 1mM EDTA, 0.25M sucrose, protease inhibitors (Leupeptin, Pepstatin, Aprotinin). Cells were then homogenized by passage through a 27 gage needle and centrifuged at 500Xg for 3min at 4 °C. 150µl of supernatant was then mixed with 2.5M sucrose in Fractionation Buffer, and a flotation gradient was assembled with 1.8M, 1.3M, 0.8M sucrose fractions, with the 1.3M fraction containing the rough microsomes. The gradient was centrifuged at 100,000Xg for 12 hrs, and the 1.3M and 2.5M solutions, corresponding to the ER and cytosolic portions, respectively, were collected. RNA was then extracted using Trizol (Invitrogen) and 10µg of RNA of each fraction was used for Northern Blots as described above.

**Oligomerization Assay**

Oligomerization assay was done as previously reported (Korennykh et al., 2011). Briefly, reactions were set up using nuclease reaction buffer (40mM Hepes, 7.0, 10mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 50mM KOAc, 5mM DTT), the indicated amount of WT or mutant yIre1, and 2mM ADP. All reactions were performed in 20µl and incubated for 15 min at 30 °C to allow for oligomerization. The optical density of the sample was measured at 500 nm using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (NanoDrop 2000, Thermo Scientific). Readings were blanked using a reaction without yIre1.

**Cell Culture and Determination of XBP1 Splicing and RIDD in vivo**

All mammalian cells were cultured in DMEM media (Cellgro) with 10% FBS and 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100µg/ml streptomycin (Mediatech). Cells were grown in 5% CO$_2$ at 37°C and treated with 200nM Thapsigargin (Calbiochem), 450µM Quercetin (Sigma), or STF-083010 (60µM) (Papandreou et al., 2011) as indicated.

Determination of spliced XBP1 was performed as described (Lin et al., 2007). Briefly, total RNA was prepared from cells using Trizol (Invitrogen), and 1µg of total RNA was reverse transcribed using Maxima Reverse Transcriptase (Fermentas) to obtain cDNA. cDNA was then PCR amplified using the primers for XBP1: 5’-TTACGGGAGAAAACTCACGGC-3’ and 5’-GGGTCCAACCTTGCCGAATGC-3’, resulting in a 289 bp fragment corresponding to unspliced XBP1, and a 263 bp spliced XBP1 fragment. Fragments were resolved on a 2.5% agarose gel, and quantified using a Typhoon 9400 fluorescent scanner (GE Healthcare). XBP1 splicing % was calculated by: [spliced XBP1/(spliced XBP1+ unspliced XBP1)]X100%.

Determination of RIDD was performed as described (Hollien et al., 2009). Briefly, the same cDNA from
XBP1 splicing assays was used to perform quantitative PCR (qPCR). Reactions were done in triplicate (5ng of input RNA per reaction) for each pair of primers using SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) and 400nM of each primer in a 25µl reaction and analyzed on an ABI Prism 7200 Sequence Detector (Applied Biosystems). Samples were run and quantified using the Standard Curve Method, and expression of each gene was normalized to 18S ribosomal RNA which did not significantly change in any of the conditions. After each run, Melting Curve Analysis was performed to confirm amplification of a single product. Error bars represent standard deviations of the mean calculated from at least three independent experiments. RIDD Activity was calculated by: \[
\left( \frac{\text{RIDD mRNA in untreated cells} - \text{RIDD mRNA in treated cells}}{\text{RIDD mRNA in untreated cells}} \right) \times 100\%.
\]
The following primer sets were used for RIDD: 

- **BLOS1**: 5’-CAAGGAGCTGCAGGAGAAGA-3’ 5’-GCCTGGTTGAAGTCTCCAC-3’
- **SCARA3**: 5’-TGCATGGATAGCTGACCTGA-3’ 5’-GCCGTGTACCAGCTTCTTC-3’
- **DAP2**: 5’-GGCTGGTGTGGTGTGGTCAC-3’ 5’-CGCATTTCGGGTATATATCC-3’
- **MFaI**: 5’-CGGCTGAAGCTGTCATCG-3’ 5’-GATACCCCTTCTTCTTAGCAGCA-3’

**Apoptosis Assays – PARP and Crystal Violet Staining**

Construction of cells stably expressing human-yeast chimeric IRE (hyIRE1) containing 1-549aa of hIRE1 and 658-1115aa of yIRE1 was done as described previously (Wiseman et al., 2010). Ire1 knockout MEFs were stably transduced with either hyIRE1 or empty vector and treated with either 200nM thapsigargin (Calbiochem), 450µM Quercetin as described (Wiseman et al., 2010), or 60µM STF-083010 as indicated for up to 48 hrs. RNA was extracted and cDNA was prepared to perform XBP1 splicing and RIDD activity assays as described above.

Crystal Violet Staining assays were performed in 6 well plates with 2 X10^5 cells plated 24hrs before treatment. After treatment, cells were fixed with 10% Formaldehyde; 0.9% NaCl, and stained with Crystal Violet (10% EtOH, 0.05% NaCl, 0.35% Formaldehyde, 0.15% Crystal Violet in 1X PBS). Cells were carefully washed 5 times with 1X PBS, removing excess dye from the plates and leaving only the cells stained. Crystal violet from the cells was then extracted with 2ml 1% SDS in 1X PBS and read by spectrophotometer at an absorbance of 595nm to quantify. The amount of Live Cells (%) (in Figures 4G, S4I, & S4L) was calculated by \[
\left( \frac{\text{Crystal Violet in untreated cells} - \text{Crystal Violet treated cells}}{\text{Crystal Violet in untreated cells}} \right) \times 100\%.
\]

For analyses of PARP cleavage, cells were collected at each time point and total cell extract was prepared using RIPA buffer (20 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 150mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA, 1% NP-40, 0.25% NaDeoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 10mM NaF, 1mM NaVO4, 1mM PMSF, 1mM PMSF, 100u/ml Aprotinin, 1.4 µg/ml Pepstatin, 1µg/ml Leupeptin). Total protein concentrations were normalized by BCA assay (Pierce) and separated on an 8% SDS-PAGE followed by performing western blots using anti-PARP antibody (Cell Signaling) to detect uncleaved PARP and cleaved fragments. PARP Cleavage (%) was calculated using \[
\left( \frac{\text{cleaved PARP}}{\text{uncleaved PARP+ cleaved PARP}} \right) \times 100\%.
\]
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