

# Protein targeting to and translocation across the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum

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Several approaches are currently being taken to elucidate the mechanisms and the molecular components responsible for protein targeting to and translocation across the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum. Two experimental systems dominate the field: a biochemical system derived from mammalian exocrine pancreas, and a combined genetic and biochemical system employing the yeast, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Results obtained in each of these systems have contributed novel, mostly non-overlapping information. Recently, much effort in the field has been dedicated to identifying membrane proteins that comprise the translocon. Membrane proteins involved in translocation have been identified both in the mammalian system, using a combination of crosslinking and reconstitution approaches, and in *S. cerevisiae*, by selecting for mutants in the translocation pathway. None of the membrane proteins isolated, however, appears to be homologous between the two experimental systems. In the case of the signal recognition particle, the two systems have converged, which has led to a better understanding of how proteins are targeted to the endoplasmic reticulum membrane.

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## Introduction

In eukaryotic cells, the first step in the biogenesis of proteins destined to be secreted and luminal proteins that are residents of the secretory pathway is the targeting and translocation of these proteins across the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). The ER is also the site for the integration of membrane proteins that comprise the plasma membrane and other intracellular membranes of the secretory and endocytic pathways. These proteins are initially synthesized on ribosomes in the cytosol of the cell and are selectively targeted to the ER. Targeting to the ER is specified by a signal sequence contained within the polypeptide chain, usually found at the amino terminus of the protein.

In higher eukaryotes, the vast majority of proteins are targeted to the ER in an obligatory cotranslational, ribosome-dependent manner. A cytoplasmic ribonucleoprotein, termed signal recognition particle (SRP), binds to the signal sequence as it emerges from the ribosome causing an arrest or pause in the elongation of the nascent polypeptide. This pause may extend the time in which the nascent chain can be productively targeted to the ER membrane. Targeting of the ribosome–nascent chain–SRP complex to the ER membrane is mediated by the specific interaction of SRP with the ER membrane heterodimeric pro-

tein complex, the SRP receptor (SR, comprised SR $\alpha$  and SR $\beta$  subunits). Once SRP interacts with its receptor, the signal sequence dissociates from SRP and elongation arrest is released. Upon release from SRP, the nascent chain inserts into and becomes tightly associated with the ER membrane via interactions with components of the machinery that mediate the translocation of the polypeptide across the membrane, collectively referred to as the translocon.

Following nascent chain insertion, translocation of the nascent chain proceeds through a protein conducting channel across the ER membrane and into the lumen. Interaction of nascent proteins with BiP, a member of the heat-shock protein 70 family that resides in the lumen of the ER, facilitates the native folding and assembly of proteins. During co-translational translocation of nascent polypeptides, enzymes present in the membrane and lumen of the ER modify the polypeptide chain. ER-specific signal sequences are cleaved by signal peptidase, oligosaccharides are covalently attached to the nascent chain by oligosaccharyl transferase and disulfide isomerase catalyzes disulfide bond formation. These modifications to the polypeptide chain are important for the proper folding of the protein and the enzymes that catalyze these modifications may possibly be involved in the process of nascent chain translocation.

## Abbreviations

ER—endoplasmic reticulum; SR—signal recognition particle receptor; SRP—signal recognition particle; SSR—signal sequence receptor; TRAM—translocating-chain-associating membrane protein.

This review encompasses the recent advances made in understanding the mechanisms and components responsible for the specific targeting and translocation of proteins across the ER membrane.

### Signal recognition, targeting and insertion of pre-proteins into the ER membrane

Mammalian SRP is composed of six polypeptides (72, 68, 54, 19, 14 and 9 kD) and a 7SL RNA molecule. SRP mediates three distinct functional activities: signal recognition, elongation arrest and translocation promotion [1]. These activities are contained within three separate structural domains of the particle. Elongation arrest requires the presence of the 9 and 14 kD proteins, which form a heterodimer that binds to the Alu domain of 7SL RNA [2•]. The 68 and 72 kD proteins also form a heterodimeric RNA-binding complex and are necessary for the interaction of SRP with the ER membrane and the SR [2•]. Investigation of the mechanism of assembly of SRP *in vitro* has shown that the binding of the 9/14 kD and the 68/72 kD heterodimers to 7SL RNA is non-cooperative in the absence of the 54 and 19 kD subunits of SRP [3•]. The 19 kD protein binds to 7SL RNA and is required for the binding of the 54 kD subunit (SRP54) to SRP [4,5•]. SRP54 probably binds directly to a region in 7SL RNA that has been identified as a phylogenetically conserved motif characteristic of SRP RNAs [6]. Photocrosslinking studies have demonstrated that SRP54 specifically binds to the signal sequence of secretory proteins and signal-anchor sequences in nascent integral membrane proteins [7,8,9•].

Insight into the mechanism of signal sequence recognition was gained when the gene encoding SRP54 was cloned [10,11]. From the deduced amino acid sequence, SRP54 is predicted to contain three domains: an amino-terminal domain of unknown function, followed by a GTPase domain, which contains the consensus sequence motifs for GTP binding. These two domains will be collectively referred to as the G-domain. SRP54 also contains a methionine-rich domain, termed the M-domain. The M-domain is proposed to contain a signal-sequence-binding pocket lined with methionine residues that accommodates diverse signal sequences because of their flexibility [11]. Limited proteolysis confirmed the domain boundary between the G- and M-domains [12]. Photocrosslinking studies demonstrated that the signal sequence binding site of SRP54 is contained in the M-domain which, in addition, contains an RNA-binding site [12–14]. As a free protein, SRP54 can bind signal sequences [15••]. Biochemical dissection of free SRP54 demonstrated that the M-domain of SRP54 alone is sufficient to recognize and bind signal sequences. Upon cell fractionation, all SRP54 is found complexed in SRP (D Zopf and PW, unpublished data). Thus, it is unlikely that free SRP54 plays any role in targeting or translocation.

Experimental evidence suggests that the M- and G-domains of SRP54 physically interact [15••]. Alkylation

of the G-domain inhibits binding of the signal sequence to the M-domain, which can be reversed by proteolytic removal of the alkylated G-domain. These findings also suggest that, although the GTPase domain does not bind signal sequences, it may modulate the binding of signal sequences to the M-domain. This prediction is consistent with the fact that GTP is required in the targeting and translocation pathway.

To date, three components involved in protein translocation, SRP54, SR $\alpha$  and SR $\beta$ , are members of the GTPase superfamily and have been shown to bind GTP ([10,11,16,17]; J Miller, P Walter, unpublished data). SRP54 and SR $\alpha$  form a unique subfamily of GTPases. The sequence similarities between SRP54 and SR $\alpha$  suggest that these proteins were derived from a common ancestor [10,11]. SR $\beta$  is not closely related to other GTPases by sequence and is also unique among GTPases as it contains an amino-terminal transmembrane domain (J Miller, P Walter, unpublished data).

Following the targeting of the ribosome–nascent chain–SRP complex to the ER membrane, the signal sequence dissociates from SRP, and the nascent chain inserts into and becomes tightly associated with the ER membrane via interactions with components of the translocon [18]. In this step, GTP is required for the release of the nascent chain from SRP [19]. The non-hydrolyzable analog, Gpp(NH)p, promotes the release of the nascent chain from SRP and its insertion into the ER membrane, but prevents the subsequent release of SRP from the SR [20••]. Thus, GTP hydrolysis is required for recycling of both SRP and SR for subsequent rounds of targeting and nascent chain insertion. Mutations in the GTP-binding consensus sequences of SR $\alpha$  reduce the efficiency of GTP-dependent nascent chain insertion and prevent the formation of a stable SRP–SR complex in the presence of Gpp(NH)p [21•]. These observations indicate that the GTPase activity of SR $\alpha$  plays a role in targeting and translocation. The specific contribution of each of the three GTPases, SRP54, SR $\alpha$  and SR $\beta$ , in targeting and nascent chain insertion in the ER membrane, however, remains to be determined. In general, GTPases function to assemble macromolecular complexes in temporal succession. Thus, one might envision that these GTPases function to assemble accurately components of the translocon, so that the signal sequence can be specifically inserted into the ER membrane [22•].

From *in vitro* studies, the mammalian system has revealed great insight into the mechanism of SRP-dependent signal recognition and targeting. It is very likely, however, that other pathways for ER targeting exist. In *S. cerevisiae*, post-translational ER targeting and translocation have been observed both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [23–25]. In yeast, other cytosolic factors, the hsp 70s, associate with pre-proteins and facilitate post-translational translocation [26,27]. The presence of an SRP-independent post-translational targeting and translocation pathway has been demonstrated *in vitro* for a small set of substrates in the mammalian system as well [28].

The genes encoding the *S. cerevisiae* homologs of SRP54 and SR $\alpha$  were recently cloned [29,30,31••]. Evaluation of

the *in vivo* role of the SRP-dependent targeting pathway was facilitated by the molecular genetics techniques available in *S. cerevisiae*. Deletion of the genes encoding either SRP54 or SR $\alpha$ , or both, results in viable, but poorly growing cells, suggesting that the SRP-dependent pathway can be partially by-passed *in vivo* [31•,32•]. Upon depletion of SRP54 or SR $\alpha$  in yeast cells, precursors to both secretory and membrane proteins accumulate in the cytosol [31•,32•,33•]. The degree to which different proteins are affected, however, varies greatly. The translocation of carboxypeptidase Y, a vacuolar protein, for example, is unaffected in SRP-depleted cells, whereas the translocation of Kar2p, a luminal ER protein, and dipeptidyl aminopeptidase B, a vacuolar membrane protein, are severely diminished. Cytosolic precursor to Kar2p accumulates in SRP-depleted cells, but a portion of newly synthesized Kar2p is still translocated. As accumulated Kar2p precursor cannot be translocated post-translationally, pre-Kar2p is probably targeted co-translationally to the ER membrane in an SRP-independent manner. Thus, there appear to be several possible pathways to the ER membrane: an SRP-dependent co-translational pathway, a post-translational pathway and a possible SRP-independent co-translational pathway. It is likely that in wild-type cells the bulk of protein targeting occurs via the SRP-dependent pathway, and that alternative routes provide a scavenger pathway only in SRP or SR-deficient cells. Future research will focus on the molecular nature of the alternative pathways. It will be interesting to discover whether the pathways utilize the same translocon that is used for SRP-dependent translocation.

Examining the *in vivo* role of SRP revealed that pre-proteins can utilize alternative targeting pathways with varying efficiencies. This may explain why previous genetic screens in *S. cerevisiae* failed to detect SRP. A new selection has been used to isolate a translocation-defective mutant in a novel gene, *Sec65* [34•]. This gene encodes a homolog to the 19 kD subunit of mammalian SRP [35•,36•]. The translocation defect present in cells harboring the mutant allele, *sec65-1*, confirms the role of SRP in targeting and translocation *in vivo*. Biochemical and genetic studies demonstrate that Sec65p, SRP54p and a small cytoplasmic RNA, scR1, are part of a 16S ribonucleoprotein particle. Sec65p is required for the integrity of the yeast SRP and promotes, as in the case of mammalian SRP, the binding of SRP54 [36•].

The *in vivo* role of SRP has also been studied in other eukaryotic organisms. Mutations in the gene encoding an SRP-RNA of *Yarrowia lipolytica* exhibit a temperature-dependent growth phenotype [37•,38•]. At non-permissive temperatures, the synthesis of a major secreted protein, alkaline extracellular protease, is dramatically reduced, whereas overall protein synthesis is unaffected. This observation suggests that the mutated SRP is deficient in membrane targeting, but still functions in its ability to arrest translation of pre-proteins.

## Translocation of proteins across the endoplasmic reticulum membrane

Subsequent to the targeting of a nascent protein, the ribosome–nascent chain complex associates with the ER membrane and translocation of the nascent chain across the membrane proceeds. It has long been proposed that protein translocation occurs through a proteinaceous channel. It has been shown that large ion conducting channels are present in ER membranes [39,40•]. Conductance through these channels is dependent on the release of nascent chains from ribosome–nascent chain complexes engaged in the process of translocation, suggesting that translocation proceeds through these channels [40•]. These findings also suggest that the ribosome may play a role in keeping the channels open during protein translocation.

The protein-conducting channel is likely to be a dynamic structure. Its subunit composition may vary at different sequential translocation stages, such as initiation of translocation, steady-state translocation and termination of translocation. Different pre-proteins may require the function of different translocation components. This may result from the specific targeting pathway that they utilize, or from topogenic determinants, e.g. stop transfer sequences. One major goal in the field is to identify, biochemically isolate and determine the function of the components that play a role in the process of nascent chain translocation and membrane protein integration.

A major advance in the study of protein translocation was the development of a reconstitution method by which translocation competent vesicles can be prepared from a detergent extract of ER membranes [41]. With this assay, membrane components involved in translocation can be identified directly. This reconstitution system has been utilized successfully to fractionate detergent-solubilized ER membrane components required for translocation [42•]. It has also been utilized to analyze whether components, identified by other approaches, contribute to the translocation process [43•]. Immunodepletion of SR from the detergent extract, for example, results in a complete loss of translocation activity. This *in vitro* assay, however, may not readily reveal components required for the regulation of translocation or components that are not rate-limiting for translocation.

Crosslinking of nascent chains to membrane components has been performed to identify components potentially involved in translocation. Two groups independently identified a 35–39 kD ER glycoprotein by photocrosslinking, and termed the crosslinked product signal sequence receptor (SSR $\alpha$ ) and mp39, respectively [44,45]. The 35–39 kD glycoprotein does not, however, appear to be a signal sequence receptor, because mature portions of secretory proteins can also be crosslinked to it [45]. Using the deduced size of the glycoprotein crosslinking target, a polypeptide was purified and designated the SSR $\alpha$  protein [46]. This polypeptide is part of a heterotetrameric membrane protein complex

[43••]. Antibodies raised against SSR $\alpha$  immunoprecipitate crosslinked nascent chains, and Fab fragments block translocation, consistent with the idea that SSR is close to the site of translocation [46,47]. To test directly whether SSR is required for translocation, detergent-solubilized extracts were immunodepleted of the complex and SSR-depleted extracts were reconstituted into artificial vesicles [43••]. Depletion of SSR does not affect nascent chain targeting, secretory protein translocation or membrane protein integration [43••]. A number of explanations could account for this apparent discrepancy. SSR could function in translocation in a manner that is not detected by the *in vitro* translocation assay. Alternatively, SSR may not be required for translocation and may only fortuitously be found in proximity to nascent chains. It is certain, however, that the polypeptide identified as SSR does not function as a signal sequence receptor, as its name implies, and that it is not required for an essential rate-limiting step in translocation.

Further investigation revealed that translocating nascent chains can be crosslinked to another glycoprotein in the same molecular weight range as SSR $\alpha$  [48••]. Using crosslinking and reconstitution approaches, the crosslink target, a membrane glycoprotein termed the translocating chain associating membrane protein (TRAM), was purified. The deduced amino acid sequence indicates that TRAM is a multispanning membrane protein. In a reconstitution assay, TRAM is either stimulatory or required for the efficient translocation of several secretory substrates.

Other ER proteins in the vicinity of translocating nascent secretory and membrane proteins have been identified by crosslinking [9•,49•,50••]. A 34 kD non-glycosylated membrane protein that is distinct from SSR $\alpha$  and TRAM crosslinks to both nascent secretory and membrane protein polypeptides [49•]. Similarly, several glycosylated and non-glycosylated ER membrane proteins, which are in close proximity to membrane proteins containing stop-transfer or signal-anchor sequences, have been identified [9•,50••]. Some of these crosslinks may be specific to nascent membrane-spanning proteins and, thus, may function solely in the integration of membrane proteins (see High and Dobberstein, this issue, pp 581–586). Synthetic signal peptides have also been photocrosslinked to specific integral ER membrane proteins [51•]. Much effort in the years to come will be directed at purifying these proteins identified by crosslinking and determining their roles in protein translocation and integration.

Ribosome-binding sites present in the ER membrane are thought to be involved in steady state translocation of nascent chains. Initially, ribophorin I and II were thought to mediate ribosome binding to the ER, but were subsequently shown not to be involved [52, 53, 54]. Ribophorin I antibodies, however, block protein translocation, consistent with their being in close proximity to ribosomes and translocation sites [55]. Recently, it was observed that a membrane protein complex comprised of both ribophorin I and II and a 48 kD protein is associated with oligosaccharyltransferase activity [56••]. This suggests that the ribophorins are required to catalyze the attachment of oligosaccharides to proteins, thus

ending the search for the function of ribophorins. Other ribosome receptor candidates, a 180 kD rough ER membrane protein and a 35 kD membrane protein, have been identified [57,58•]. Ribosome-binding activity solubilized and reconstituted from ER membranes, however, does not cofractionate with the 180 kD protein, indicating that another, as yet unidentified, protein(s) may function as the ribosome receptor [59•,60•]. Additional experimental evidence suggests that the 180 kD protein may not be required for *in vitro* translocation [61•]. A definitive demonstration of a ribosome receptor in the future requires the candidate protein to bind stoichiometrically to ribosomes.

In *S. cerevisiae*, mutations that disrupt translocation of pre-proteins across the ER membrane were selected using pre-protein–enzyme fusions. Mutations in three genes, *SEC61*, *SEC62* and *SEC63*, which encode ER membrane-spanning proteins, impair protein translocation [25, 62]. It is unclear at the present time whether all pre-proteins require the products of these genes for translocation *in vivo*. Recently, a new mutant allele, *sec61-3*, has been isolated and appears to affect the translocation of a wide spectrum of secretory proteins as well as the integration of membrane proteins [3••]. Mutations in *Sec62p* and *Sec63p*, however, only appear to affect the translocation a subset of pre-proteins [25]. Immunoprecipitation and crosslinking experiments indicate that Sec61p, Sec62p and Sec63p are present in a multisubunit complex with two other proteins of molecular weights 31.5 and 23 kD, respectively [63]. The yeast *KAR2* gene, which encodes a homolog of the mammalian BiP, is also necessary for translocation [64, 65•]. Mammalian BiP, however, does not appear to be required for translocation *in vitro* [66,67].

Preproteins in the process of translocation can be crosslinked to Sec61p and Kar2p [68••,69••]. Crosslinking of pre-proteins to Sec61p is dependent on functional Sec62p and Sec63p [69••]. With short nascent chains, crosslinks to Sec62p are also observed [68••]. These observations suggest that Sec62p/Sec63p may act prior to Sec61p. Although *kar2* mutants exhibit translocation defects *in vitro*, they do not inhibit crosslinking of pre-protein to Sec61p as severely [69••]. Thus, Kar2p may act after Sec61p in translocation. Crosslinking of nascent chains to Sec61p requires ATP hydrolysis [68••,69••]. The translocation factor responsible for the ATP-dependent interaction is unknown. Evidence from the mammalian system also suggests that a membrane ATPase is required for translocation [70•, 61•].

In yeast, additional mutations, termed *sec70*, *sec71* and *sec72*, have been isolated and shown to cause defects in protein translocation and membrane protein integration [71••]. Future work will focus on cloning these genes and determining their role in the process of translocation and membrane integration. The selection for genes involved in targeting and translocation has not been exhaustive. Thus, it is likely that the development of new selection schemes for mutations will yield additional genes involved in the process.

## Regulation of protein translocation

Translocation of pre-proteins across the ER membrane is modulated in several ways. Determinants contained within the protein, such as stop-transfer sequences, must signal the translocation apparatus via some mechanism. Recently, another topogenic determinant has been discovered [72•]: signals contained within apolipoprotein B can mediate a pause in translocation. Whether a specific translocon component mediates this pause in translocation remains to be determined.

There is increasing evidence that the ribosome also plays a role in the regulation of translocation. Ionic conductance through the putative protein translocation channels in the ER membrane depends on the presence of a ribosome engaged in translocation of a nascent chain [40•]. Consistent with these findings, it was shown by crosslinking that membrane proteins in the process of integration remain in the vicinity of specific ER proteins until termination of translation occurs [50•]. Upon termination, crosslinks to these ER proteins no longer form. Even after the cytoplasmic tail of a nascent membrane protein has been lengthened by nearly 100 amino acids, the stop-transfer signal remains in the vicinity of specific ER membrane proteins. This suggests that the ribosome, upon termination of translation, transduces a signal to the translocon to complete membrane protein integration [50•].

## Conclusion

The mechanisms employed for targeting and translocation of pre-proteins across the ER membrane have only begun to be resolved. Three distinct GTPases are known to interact during protein targeting, and the functional importance of the individual GTP-binding sites is still a mystery. In addition to SRP-mediated targeting, there appear to be other targeting pathways to the ER. Future goals will be to identify components in other targeting pathways and to determine their relative importance in pre-protein targeting *in vivo*.

A number of putative components of the translocon have been identified. Surprisingly however, at present there is no correspondence between the components identified in yeast and mammalian cells. Much of the effort in the field will be devoted to obtain additional membrane components and to decipher their mechanistic function in translocation. In pursuing this goal, we will gain insight into whether different pre-proteins may require a different subset of components for translocation as a result of the specific targeting pathway that they use or as a result of specific topogenic determinants contained within them. Insights will also be gained into the regulatory mechanisms that govern the assembly and disassembly of the translocon and the ribosome during the translocation of pre-proteins across the ER membrane.

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