Sec61p mediates export of a misfolded secretory protein from the endoplasmic reticulum to the cytosol for degradation

Marinus Pilon, Randy Schekman and Karin Römisch^{1,2}

Howard Hughes Medical Institute and Department of Molecular Cell Biology, University of California at Berkeley, CA 94720, USA and ¹MRC Laboratory for Molecular Cell Biology and Department of Biochemistry, University College London, Gower Street, London WC1E 6BT, UK

²Corresponding author e-mail: dmcbkar@ucl.ac.uk

Degradation of misfolded secretory proteins has long been assumed to occur in the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Recent evidence, however, suggests that such proteins are instead degraded by proteasomes in the cytosol, although it remains unclear how the proteins are transported out of the ER. Here we provide the first genetic evidence that Sec61p, the pore-forming subunit of the protein translocation channel in the ER membrane, is directly involved in the export of misfolded secretory proteins. We describe two novel mutants in yeast Sec61p that are cold-sensitive for import into the ER in both intact yeast cells and a cell-free system. Microsomes derived from these mutants are defective in exporting misfolded secretory proteins. These proteins become trapped in the ER and are associated with Sec61p. We conclude that misfolded secretory proteins are exported for degradation from the ER to the cytosol via channels formed by Sec61p.

Keywords: ER degradation/protein translocation/ secretion/translocon/yeast

Introduction

Secretory proteins are targeted to and translocated across the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane through a channel formed by the evolutionarily conserved Sec61 protein complex (Andrews and Johnson, 1996; Hanein et al., 1996). Subsequently, proteins undergo folding and may acquire covalent modifications in the ER lumen prior to packaging into transport vesicles (Hurtley and Helenius, 1989). In yeast, the Sec61 complex consists of an essential polytopic transmembrane protein, Sec61p, and two smaller subunits, Sbh1p and Sss1p (Deshaies and Schekman, 1987; Esnault et al., 1993; Panzner et al., 1995). During protein translocation, Sec61p is in constant contact with the translocating chain, suggesting that it is the major constituent of the protein translocation channel (Mothes et al., 1994). The contributions of Sbhp and Sss1p to the structure of the translocation pore are less clear. Two additional genes encoding transmembrane ER proteins SEC62 and SEC63 were identified in genetic screens for protein translocation mutants in yeast (Deshaies and Schekman, 1987; Rothblatt *et al.*, 1989). The corresponding proteins, Sec62p and Sec63p, are found in a complex with two other proteins, Sec71p and Sec72p (Sec63p complex; Deshaies *et al.*, 1991). At the ER membrane in yeast, a pre-secretory protein initially interacts with proteins of the the Sec63p complex and is transferred to the Sec61 channel in an ATP-dependent reaction (Müsch *et al.*, 1992; Sanders *et al.*, 1992; Lyman and Schekman, 1997). The translocation channel itself is gated and will open only in the presence of a functional signal sequence (Jungnickel and Rapoport, 1995).

Upon entry into the ER lumen, the signal sequence of a pre-secretory protein is cleaved, oligosaccharyl transferase glycosylates the appropriate sites and chaperones aid protein folding and oligomerization (Hurtley and Helenius, 1989). Failure to perform any of these steps results in retention of the secretory protein in the ER and one of two possible fates: protein aggregation or degradation (Klausner and Sitia, 1990). Recent evidence suggests that the degradation takes place in the cytosol rather than in the ER and is dependent on large cytosolic proteolytic complexes, the proteasomes, which are responsible for most of the protein turnover in the cytosol (Hiller et al., 1996; Hilt and Wolf, 1996; Werner et al., 1996; Wiertz et al., 1996). A recently developed cell-free assay reproduces export from the ER and degradation of a misfolded secretory protein in vitro (McCracken and Brodsky, 1996). In this assay, cytosol derived from mutants in the chymotryptic proteasome subunits pre1 and pre2 promotes export, but degradation is substantially diminished (Werner et al., 1996).

The export route of misfolded soluble proteins from the ER is unknown, but recently Wiertz and colleagues demonstrated that a transmembrane protein destined for degradation in the ER of virus-infected mammalian cells is transiently associated with Sec 61β , the mammalian equivalent of Sbh1p, suggesting an involvement of the Sec61 channel in export (Wiertz et al., 1996). We have isolated two new mutants in sec61 that are cold-sensitive for protein import into the ER in both intact yeast cells and in a cell-free system. At the permissive temperature for protein import, microsomes derived from the mutants are defective in exporting a misfolded secretory protein that now remains trapped in the ER and is associated with Sec61p. We conclude that misfolded secretory proteins are exported for degradation from the ER to the cytosol via channels formed by Sec61p.

Results

Isolation of new conditional sec61 alleles

SEC61 was identified originally in yeast as a temperaturesensitive mutation defective in protein translocation into the ER (Deshaies and Schekman, 1987; Stirling *et al.*,



Fig. 1. sec61-32 and sec61-41 are deficient for secretory protein translocation into the ER. (**A**) sec61-32 and sec61-41 are cold-sensitive for growth. Wild-type and mutant cells were grown on YPD for 3 days at 30°C or 5 days at 17°C. (**B**) sec61-32 and sec61-41 are deficient for protein translocation into the ER *in vivo*. Wild-type and mutant cells were pulse-labelled at 30 or 17°C in the presence or absence of 10 µg/ml tunicamycin as described in Materials and methods, and secretory proteins were immunoprecipitated. The positions of the signal sequence-containing precursor forms (pKar2p, preproCPY, ppαf), signal-cleaved, unglycosylated proteins (Kar2p, proCPY, pαf) and of signal-cleaved glycosylated forms (p1, p2, mCPY, 3gpαf) are indicated. The band just below mature Kar2p is unrelated (Feldheim *et al.*, 1993).

1992). Two previously isolated alleles, sec61-2 and sec61-3, affect the stability of the Sec61 protein in yeast (Sommer and Jentsch, 1993), but do not have severe translocation defects when analysed in vitro, which limits their use for functional analysis of Sec61p in the translocation process. In order to gain a better understanding of the role of Sec61p in ER translocation, we isolated new mutants in SEC61. SEC61 was mutagenized in vitro by hydroxylamine treatment, cloned into a CEN/LEU2 plasmid, and introduced into a haploid yeast strain containing the wild-type SEC61 on a URA3 plasmid. Following plasmid shuffling (Sikorski and Boeke, 1991), we isolated two new mutant alleles, sec61-32 and sec61-41, that rendered the cells cold-sensitive for growth (Figure 1A), but did not affect the ability to form colonies in the temperature range from 23 to 38°C. Both mutant strains, however, had a longer generation time of 140 min in rich medium (YPD) at 30°C compared with 90 min for the

wild-type. The mutations did not affect the level of expression of Sec61p or other members of the translocation complex (data not shown). We sequenced the new *sec61* alleles and found that in both cases the mutations were single G to A changes, as expected for hydroxylamine mutagenesis (*sec61-32* at base 894, *sec61-41* at base 845). These base changes resulted in a cysteine to tyrosine substitution at amino acid position 150 for *sec61-32* and a valine to isoleucine change at position 134 for *sec61-41*.

To assess the translocation defects in the mutant cells, we examined the biogenesis of the ER resident protein Kar2p, the vacuolar protease carboxypeptidase Y (CPY) and the mating pheromone precursor prepro-alpha-factor (ppotf). Wild-type and mutant cells were pulse-labelled with [³⁵S]methionine/cysteine in the absence or presence of the glycosylation inhibitor tunicamycin followed by immunoprecipitation. Kar2p is translated with a signal sequence that is cleaved upon translocation into the ER.

The Kar2p precursor (pKar2p) was detected in both mutant and wild-type cells radiolabelled at 30°C (Figure 1B, lanes 1–6); however, the mutants accumulated significantly more pKar2p (~30% versus 4% in wild-type). pKar2p accumulation was increased to 45% at 17°C in *sec61* mutant cells, but no change in precursor accumulation was observed in wild-type cells (Figure 1B, lanes 7–12).

CPY is synthesized as a prepro-protein whose signal sequence is processed upon entering the ER lumen (Stevens et al., 1982). ProCPY is N-glycosylated in the ER to the p1 form. Addition of outer chain mannose residues in the Golgi converts p1 to p2 CPY. In the vacuole, p2 CPY is processed by a vacuolar protease to the smaller mature CPY (mCPY), which in our gel system migrates just above preproCPY (Figure 1B, lane 1). In the absence of tunicamycin, wild-type cells contained p1, p2 and mCPY (Figure 1B, lane1). Tunicamycin inhibits glycosylation as well as transport and, therefore, only the signal-cleaved proCPY could be detected in wild-type cells treated with 10 µg/ml tunicamycin (Figure 1B, lane 2). At 30°C, sec61-32 and sec61-41 mutant cells accumulated predominantly the cytosolic preproCPY (Figure 1B, lanes 3 and 5), but a small fraction of preproCPY was still translocated and processed, as seen by the appearance of the higher mobility proCPY band in the cells treated with tunicamycin (Figure 1B, lanes 4 and 6). At 17°C, vesicular transport from the endoplasmic reticulum is slowed down, thus wild-type cells contained mostly p1 CPY (Figure 1B, lane 7). We observed a complete translocation block in both sec61-32 and sec61-41 at the restrictive temperature, resulting in the accumulation of preproCPY (Figure 1B, lanes 9-12).

Upon translocation into the ER, the signal sequence of pp αf is cleaved, yielding proalpha-factor (p αf) which becomes core-glycosylated at three asparagine residues (3gp α f). From wild-type cells, 3gp α f can be immunoprecipitated only at 17°C, and not at 30°C (Figure 1B, lanes 1 and 7), because the half-time for transport to the Golgi where it is cleaved to smaller peptides is shorter than the pulse time. Both mutants accumulated $pp\alpha f$ at both temperatures, but accumulation was more pronounced at 17°C. In sec61-32 cells labelled in the presence of tunicamycin, a fraction of ppof was still translocated and processed to paf (Figure 1B, lanes 4 and 10), whereas the translocation block for $pp\alpha f$ in sec61-41 cells was almost complete (Figure 1B, lanes 6 and 12). Taken together, our data show that sec61-32 and sec61-41 cells are deficient in the translocation of a variety of precursor proteins in vivo.

sec61-32 and sec61-41 membranes are cold-sensitive for protein translocation in vitro

In order to test the effect of sec61-32 and sec61-41 on post-translational protein translocation *in vitro*, we prepared microsomes from wild-type (*SEC61*) and mutant cells grown at the permissive temperature (30°C). We used non-saturating, equal amounts of microsomes and radiolabelled, *in vitro* translated pp α f as a translocation substrate. Translocation was measured by lectin precipitation of translocated, core-glycosylated 3gp α f and scintillation counting. In our cell-free system, the optimum temperature for protein translocation into wild-type microsomes was 24°C (*SEC61*, Figure 2). Microsomes prepared



Fig. 2. sec61-32 and sec61-41 microsomes are deficient for protein translocation *in vitro*. Radiolabelled *in vitro* translated wild-type pporf was translocated into microsomes derived from *SEC61* (RSY1293), sec61-32 (RSY1294) or sec61-41 (RSY1295) cells at 24 or 10°C in the presence of ATP and a regenerating system. Translocated protein was quantified by concanavalin A precipitation and scintillation counting. All samples were assayed in duplicate.

from the mutant cells were partially deficient for protein translocation at 24°C (Figure 2, 24°C): sec61-41 microsomes translocated 40% of the amount of ppaf imported into wild-type membranes, whereas sec61-32 membranes translocated up to 54% of wild-type (Figure 2, 24°C). These results indicate that the more severe translocation defect seen in sec61-41 cells in vivo could be reproduced for $pp\alpha f$ in our cell-free system (compare Figure 1B, lanes 4 and 6). We used 10°C as the restrictive temperature for protein translocation in vitro (Figure 2, 10°C). Both mutants were severely defective at the low temperature, translocating respectively 28% (sec61-32) or 22% (sec61-41) of the amount of $pp\alpha f$ imported into wild-type membranes in 90 min (Figure 2, 10°C). We conclude that sec61-32 and sec61-41 are cold-sensitive for protein import into the ER both in intact cells and in isolated microsomes.

Sec61p is involved in export of misfolded secretory proteins from the ER to the cytosol

An increasing body of evidence suggests that 'ER degradation' is a misnomer and that misfolded secretory proteins and transmembrane proteins are exported from the ER to the cytosol and degraded by the multicatalytic cytosolic proteasomes (Hiller *et al.*, 1996; Werner *et al.*, 1996; Wiertz *et al.*, 1996). Recently, McCracken and Brodsky developed a cell-free assay for export and degradation of a mutated form of the secretory protein pp α f that has its three glycosylation site asparagines changed to glutamines (p Δ gp α f) and is degraded after entry into the ER *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Caplan *et al.*, 1991; McCracken and Brodsky, 1996). We used this cell-free system to ask whether membranes derived from our *sec61* mutants were deficient in export of misfolded Δ gp α f to the cytosol for degradation.

In vitro translated, signal sequence-containing $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ was translocated into microsomes post-translationally, resulting in signal-cleaved $\Delta gp\alpha f$ present in the washed membranes (Figure 3A, t = 0) that is not accessible to added protease (data not shown). Also present in these samples is the non-specifically membrane-associated precursor ($p\Delta gp\alpha f$) which is resistant to washes, but is partially accessible to exogenously added protease (see Figure 3D). In wild-type microsomes, $\Delta gp\alpha f$, but not the glycosylated wild-type protein (not shown), was degraded at 24°C in the presence of ATP and wild-type (PRE)



Fig. 3. sec61-32 and sec61-41 membranes are deficient for 'ER degradation' *in vitro*. (**A**) 'ER degradation' *in vitro* is dependent on ATP and cytosolic proteasomes. Wild-type (RSY255) microsomes ($2 \mu I OD_{280} = 30$ per lane) were loaded with $\Delta gp\alpha f$ and subsequently incubated in the presence or absence of 6 mg/ml wild-type cytosol (PRE, from WCG4a) or proteasome-deficient cytosol (pre1pre2, from WCG4-11/22a) and in the presence or absence of ATP and an ATP-regenerating system, as indicated at 24° C. Incubations were terminated at the indicated time points (in minutes) by precipitation with trichloroacetic acid and samples analysed on 18% polyacrylamide/4 M urea gels followed by autoradiography. The lower mobility band is p $\Delta gp\alpha f$ associated with the cytosolic face of the microsomal membranes. (**B**) sec61-32 and sec61-41 membranes are deficient for 'ER degradation' *in vitro*. Wild-type (RSY1293) or mutant membranes (RSY1294 and RSY1295) were loaded with $\Delta gp\alpha f$ and incubated in the presence of ATP and 6 mg/ml PRE cytosol at 24° C for the indicated period of time (in minutes). Reactions were terminated and samples analysed as above. Note that an increased amount of $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ is associated with microsomes derived from the mutants. (**C**) The $\Delta gp\alpha f$ bands from three different degradation experiments (performed as in B) were quantified using a phosphorimager (BioRad). Variation at each time point was <10%. (**D**) $\Delta gp\alpha f$ in *sec61-32* and *sec61-41* microsomes is protease-protected. Degradation reactions containing $\Delta gp\alpha f$ -loaded *SEC61* (RSY1293), *sec61-32* (RSY1294) or *sec61-31* mase seree incubated with ATP and 6 mg/ml PRE cytosol for 20 min at 24° C and then transferred to ice. Proteinase K (0.1 mg/ml final concentration) or proteinase K and Triton X-100 (1% final concentration) were added and samples incubated on ice for 30 min. Reactions were terminated by addition of PMSF and samples processed as described above. A fraction of p $\Delta gp\alpha f$ is aggregated and therefore

cytosol with a $t_{1/2}$ of 15 min (Figure 3A). If cytosol from a strain with mutations in two catalytic subunits of the proteasome (*pre1pre2*) was used in the assay, $\Delta gp\alpha f$ was degraded more slowly ($t_{1/2} = 45$ min; Figure 3A). These findings are in full agreement with previously published data (McCracken and Brodsky 1996; Werner *et al.*, 1996) and indicate that mutated secretory proteins such as $\Delta gp\alpha f$ are indeed exported from the ER lumen to the cytosol prior to degradation.

We next investigated whether the protein translocation channel formed by the Sec61 complex is involved in this export process. $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ was translated in vitro and imported into equal amounts of sec61-32 or sec61-41 mutant or isogenic wild-type microsomes (SEC61) at 24°C for 50 min. The washed membranes were then incubated with ATP and 6 mg/ml wild-type cytosol at 24°C for increasing periods of time. $\Delta gp\alpha f$ was exported from SEC61 wild-type microsomes and degraded with a $t_{1/2}$ of ~20 min (Figure 3B and C). In contrast, $\Delta gp\alpha f$ was exported from *sec61-41* microsomes with a $t_{1/2}$ of >60 min (Figure 3B and C), and there was virtually no export of $\Delta gp\alpha f$ from sec61-32 microsomes in the first 30 min (Figure 3B and C). In order to analyse whether the $\Delta gp\alpha f$ in reactions containing sec61-32 or sec61-41 microsomes was retained in the microsomal lumen, after 20 min of export at 24°C we transferred the reactions to ice, and digested the samples with proteinase K in the presence or absence of detergent. In reactions containing wild-type

membranes, ~50% of $\Delta gp\alpha f$ are protease-sensitive after 20 min of incubation, suggesting that the limiting step in degradation is the proteasome activity (Figure 3D). In contrast, $\Delta gp\alpha f$ that remains in reactions containing *sec61-32* or *sec61-41* mutant membranes is fully protected from digestion with proteinase K, indicative of its retention in the ER lumen. Our data demonstrate that *sec61-32* and *sec61-41* membranes, which are cold-sensitive for protein import, are deficient for misfolded protein export at the permissive temperature for import. These findings strongly suggest that the export of $\Delta gp\alpha f$ is mediated by Sec61p.

sec61, but not sec62 or sec63 mutants are defective in misfolded protein export

A temperature-sensitive mutant allele of SEC61, sec61-3 (Stirling et al., 1992), and temperature-sensitive mutations in two other genes encoding proteins required for posttranslational protein import into the yeast ER, sec62-1 and sec63-1 (Rothblatt et al., 1989), were isolated previously. In order to test whether the export defect observed in sec61-32 and sec61-41 was specific for SEC61, we prepared microsomes from sec61-3, sec62-1 and sec63-1 cells grown at the permissive temperature (24°C) for use in the *in vitro* degradation assay described above. Equal amounts of membranes were used in all reactions, but to compensate for the strong translocation defects in the mutants all panels showing reactions with mutant microsomes were exposed twice as long as the wild-type



Fig. 4. *sec61-3*, but not *sec62-1* or *sec63-1* membranes, are deficient for 'ER degradation' *in vitro*. Wild-type (RSY255), *sec61-3* (CSY150), *sec62-1* (RSY529) and *sec63-1* (RSY155) membranes were loaded with Δ gp α f and incubated in the presence of ATP and 6 mg/ml PRE cytosol at 24°C for the indicated period of time (in minutes). Reactions were terminated and samples analysed as above. Equal amounts of membranes were used, but the part of the figure showing the mutant membranes was exposed for twice as long as the wild-type. Note that an increased amount of $p\Delta$ gp α f is associated with mutant microsomes.

(Figure 4). As shown in Figure 4, sec62-1 and sec63-1 microsomes exported Δ gp α f for degradation, although with slightly slower kinetics than wild-type membranes ($t_{1/2} = 15$ min wild-type; 20 min sec62-1; 30 min sec63-1). In contrast, in reactions containing sec61-3 microsomes, export and degradation of Δ gp α f was strongly retarded and 92% of Δ gp α f were still present after 30 min of incubation (Figure 4). Like sec61-32 and sec61-41, sec61-3 membranes exhibit a pronounced export defect at the temperature that is permissive for import (24°C). These data indicate that the export defect is specific for sec61 mutants.

Misfolded secretory proteins destined for export interact with Sec61p

During secretory protein import into the ER, translocation intermediates can be chemically cross-linked to Sec61p (Müsch et al., 1992; Sanders et al., 1992; Lyman and Schekman, 1997). We used the amino group-reactive, thiol-cleavable cross-linker dithiobis-(sulfosuccinimidylpropionate) (DSP) to examine whether substrates for export from the ER to the cytosol interacted with Sec61p directly and whether the mutations in SEC61 had any effect on these interactions. At the end of 50 min translocation reactions at 24°C in the presence of ATP, an ATPregenerating system and $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ or $pp\alpha f$, we treated SEC61 wild-type or mutant microsomes with DSP. Subsequently, Sec61p and associated proteins were immunoprecipitated from the detergent-solubilized membranes with affinity-purified anti-Sec61p antibodies. The crosslinks were cleaved with the reducing agent dithiothreitol (DTT), and Sec61p-associated proteins analysed by electrophoresis on 18% acrylamide/4 M urea SDS gels.

Under ER import conditions *in vitro*, export and degradation of misfolded secretory proteins are limited by the low concentration of cytosol. Thus, misfolded proteins in the ER lumen might accumulate at a step just prior to export. Indeed, we found that after signal sequence cleavage, $\Delta gp\alpha f$, but not wild-type glycosylated $3gp\alpha f$, could be cross-linked to Sec61p (Figure 5A, lanes 1–3 and 7–9). The co-precipitation of $\Delta gp\alpha f$ with Sec61p was entirely dependent on the presence of the cross-linker (Figure 5A, compare lanes 1–3 and 4–6) and was increased in *sec61* mutant membranes compared with wild-type (Figure 5A, lanes 1–3, $1.9 \times$ for *sec61-32*, $1.5 \times$ for *sec61-41*) where it accounted for ~1–2% of total $\Delta gp\alpha f$ present in the sample. We conclude that misfolded secretory proteins associate with the Sec61 channel prior to export, whereas

4544



Fig. 5. Interactions of secretory precursors and translocated signalcleaved secretory proteins with Sec61p in wild-type and sec61 mutant membranes. (A) $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ (lanes 1–6) or $pp\alpha f$ (lanes 7–9) was translocated into wild-type or mutant microsomes as indicated. Directly after termination of the translocation reaction, DSP crosslinking was performed as described in Materials and methods (lanes 1-3 and 7-9: 2.5 mM DSP; lanes 4-6: no DSP control) followed by solubilization of the membranes and Sec61p immunoprecipitation. Cross-links were cleaved by addition of DTT prior to electrophoresis. The positions of precursor proteins ($p\Delta gp\alpha f$, $pp\alpha f$) and translocated signal-cleaved ($\Delta gp\alpha f$) and glycosylated forms ($3gp\alpha f$) are indicated. The increased amounts of $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ and $pp\alpha f$ associated with mutant Sec61p are probably a result of the increased amounts of precursor non-specifically associated with the mutant membranes (see previous figures) rather than translocation intermediates. (B) Following $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ translocation, SEC61 or sec61-32 membranes were incubated in the presence of 6 mg/ml cytosol and the presence or absence of ATP and the regenerating system for 0, 10 or 30 min at 24°C prior to the addition of 2.5 mM DSP. Cross-linking was done as described in Materials and methods, followed by solubilization of the membranes and Sec61p immunoprecipitation. Cross-links were cleaved by addition of DTT prior to electrophoresis. -ab: no antibody control for immunoprecipitation. A fraction of $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ that was co-precipitated with Sec61p was non-specifically associated with the protein A-Sepharose beads, as the binding did not require the presence of the antibodies (compare lanes 1 and 4, 7 and 10). Note that aggregated $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ on the cytosolic face of the microsomes is partially degraded upon addition of cytosol and ATP (lanes 6 and 12) and thus a lower amount is found associated with Sec61p.

correctly folded secretory proteins do not interact with Sec61p once translocation is completed.

We subsequently analysed whether $\Delta gp\alpha f$ associated with Sec61p is an export intermediate. Microsomes isolated from wild-type cells or *sec61-32* cells (which exhibit the strongest defect in degradation) were loaded with $\Delta gp\alpha f$ as described above and subsequently incubated in the absence or presence of ATP and cytosol at 24°C. After 0, 10 or 30 min at 24°C, the microsomes were treated first with DSP and then solubilized with detergent, the Sec61p-associated material immunoprecipitated, and the cross-links cleaved with reducing agent. In the presence of cytosol, but in the absence of ATP—conditions that do not promote export and degradation (Figure 3A)— $\Delta gp\alpha f$ remained associated with Sec61p in both mutant and wildtype membranes (Figure 5B, lanes 1–3 and 7–9). Similarly, the presence of ATP alone was not sufficient to cause dissociation of $\Delta gp\alpha f$ from Sec61p (data not shown). In the presence of cytosol and ATP-conditions that allow export and degradation-Agpaf dissociated from wildtype Sec61p (Figure 5B, lanes 5 and 6) and presumably was released into the cytosol for degradation. In contrast, in sec61-32 microsomes, $\Delta gp\alpha f$ remained associated with Sec61p (Figure 5B, lanes 11 and 12). Our gel system resolves polypeptide chains with a size difference of ≥ 10 amino acids; however, as shown in Figure 3D, the export substrate was fully protease-protected in sec61 mutant membranes and no partially proteolysed intermediates could be detected. Taken together, our data indicate that $\Delta gp\alpha f$ found associated with Sec61p in the experiments shown in Figure 5 is fully translocated. Thus, the mutant Sec61p in sec61-32 and sec61-41 membranes is unable to mediate export of $\Delta gp\alpha f$, and the $\Delta gp\alpha f$ in these microsomes is associated with the Sec61p on the lumenal face of the ER membrane.

Discussion

We have provided both genetic and biochemical evidence for a direct role for Sec61p in the export of a misfolded secretory protein from the lumen of the ER to the cytosol. This is an important novel function of Sec61p in addition to its well established role in import. Membranes derived from two new cold-sensitive mutants in sec61 (sec61-32 and sec61-41) and a previously characterized temperaturesensitive mutant (sec61-3) were deficient in an in vitro assay that reproduces export from the ER for proteasomedependent degradation in the cytosol. Mutations in two other genes encoding proteins required for secretory protein import into the ER (sec62-1 and sec63-1) did not strongly affect export. After translocation into sec61 mutant microsomes, the export substrate was protected from protease digestion, indicating that the import reaction was completed and, in contrast to a correctly glycosylated secretory protein, it specifically associated with Sec61p. The misfolded secretory protein was released from wildtype Sec61p, exported and degraded in the presence of ATP and cytosol, but remained Sec61p-associated and protease-protected in sec61 mutant membranes.

The mutations in *sec61-32* and *sec61-41* map to the ER lumenal ends of transmembrane domains IV and III of Sec61p, respectively (Wilkinson *et al.*, 1996), suggesting an important role for this region in both protein import and export. Cells harbouring these mutations are defective in protein export at the permissive temperature for growth and protein import.

This suggests that misfolded protein export from the ER to the cytosol is not an essential function, consistent with reports on other yeast mutants which are deficient in 'ER degradation', but viable (Hampton *et al.*, 1996; Hiller *et al.*, 1996; Knop *et al.*, 1996). At lower temperatures, *sec61-41* and *sec61-32* mutations may affect Sec61p structure or mobility in the membrane.

The import defect in sec61-41 membranes is more severe than the export defect and vice versa for sec61-32(Figures 1, 2, 3B and C). In addition, microsomes derived from sec62-1 or sec63-1 cells, which are more import deficient than any of the sec61 mutant membranes, are only marginally affected in export (Figure 4). Taken together, these observations argue strongly in favour of a direct role for Sec61p as a part of the export machinery and argue against the possibility that the export defect is indirectly caused by a reduced protein translocation activity in the sec61 mutants. In wild-type ER, export to the cytosol is temperature-dependent and severely slowed down at temperatures below 20°C (data not shown); therefore, it was not possible to investigate whether the export defect in sec61-41 was stronger at lower temperatures. Cross-linking experiments showed that signal-cleaved misfolded $\Delta gp\alpha f$, but not properly glycosylated and folded 3gpaf, is in association with wild-type and mutant Sec61p. These data demonstrate a direct role for Sec61p in misfolded protein export. Our data are consistent with recent work from Wiertz and colleagues who demonstrated that major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I heavy chains destined for degradation reassociate with the translocation channel, and who isolated export intermediates that interacted with both Sec61 β and the proteasome in cytomegalovirus-infected mammalian cells (Wiertz et al., 1996).

Export of a signal-cleaved misfolded secretory protein is difficult to explain with our current knowledge of protein translocation. During import, the translocation channel itself recognizes and requires the presence of a functional signal sequence (Jungnickel and Rapoport, 1995). After signal cleavage, opening of the translocation channel from the lumenal side must be triggered by an as yet unknown mechanism, possibly by the interaction with both the misfolded secretory protein and the chaperone involved in the folding attempt. In this context, it is interesting that membranes from cells carrying the sec63-1 mutation, which is defective in the recruitment of BiP/ Kar2p to the translocation machinery during post-translational protein import into the yeast ER (Lyman and Schekman, 1995), are not strongly deficient for misfolded secretory protein export (Figure 4). The possible role of Kar2p in protein export from the ER remains to be considered. The use of the same translocation channel for both import and export seems an economical solution for bidirectional protein trafficking across the ER membrane. In addition, this arrangement might allow for designation of export substrates before their import into the ER is completed. Chaperone proteins of the quality control mechanism in the ER, such as calnexin and Kar2p, are positioned along with the glycosylation machinery very close to the translocon (Andrews and Johnson, 1996; McCracken and Brodsky, 1996). Although $\Delta gp\alpha f$ was fully translocated to the lumenal side of the translocon (not accessable to exogenously added proteinase K), our data do not indicate whether dissociation from Sec61p had occurred prior to export. Thus, either $\Delta gp\alpha f$ is released into the ER lumen, but does not pass quality control and therefore reassociates with Sec61p, or chaperones engage prior to release from the channel. In the first case, the gating of the translocon must be regulated from the lumenal side by a mechanism independent of the signal sequence. In the second scenario, entry of undesired polypeptides into the secretory pathway would be prevented at a very early stage, requiring no additional gating mechanism. In the case of the transmembrane MHC class I

Table I. Yeast and bacterial strains

Strain	Genotype	Source or reference
Saccharomyces cere	evisiae	
RSY633	MAT α can 1-100 leu2-3,-112 his3-11,-15 trp1-1 ura3-1 ade2-1 sec61::HIS3 [pDF40 (HindIII–StyI fragment of SEC61 in pRS316)]	this study
RSY1293	MATa can 1-100 leu2-3,-112 his3-11,-15 trp1-1 ura3-1 ade2-1 sec61::HIS3 [pDQ1]	this study
RSY1294	as <i>RSY1293</i> except [<i>psec61-32</i>]	this study
RSY1295	as RSY1293 except [psec61-41]	this study
RSY255	MATα leu2-3,-112 ura3-52	Stirling et al. (1992)
CSY150	MATα leu2-3,-112 trp1-1 ura3-52 sec61-3	Stirling et al. (1992)
RSY529	MATα leu2-3,-112 his4-619 ura3-52 sec62-1	Rothblatt et al. (1989)
RSY155	MATα leu2-3, -112 ura3-52 ade2-1 pep4-3 sec63-1	Rothblatt et al. (1989)
WCG4a	MATa leu2-3,-112 ura3 his3-11,-15	Hiller et al. (1996)
WCG4-11/22a	pre1-1 pre2-2, same as WCG4a	Hiller et al. (1996)
Escherichia coli		
Xl1-blue	recA1 lac ⁻ endA1 gyrA96 thi hsdR17 supE44 relA [F' proAB lac17 lacZ Δ m5 Tn10]	(Stratagene)

heavy chain, export to the cytosol can be envisaged as a simple reversal of import, mediated by the re-entry of the transmembrane domain into the translocation channel (Wiertz *et al.*, 1996).

We propose the following series of events for protein import and export through the Sec61 channel. Secretory proteins are targeted to the ER membrane via their N-terminal signal sequence. Recognition of the signal sequence by the translocation channel causes channel opening and initiation of translocation (Jungnickel and Rapoport, 1995). During and after translocation, secretory proteins fold with the aid of chaperones. After successful folding, these proteins are released from the chaperones and packaged into ER-to-Golgi transport vesicles. Failure to fold, for example in mutant secretory proteins, results in reassociation or prolonged association with the protein translocation channel, and export to the cytosol for degradation by the proteasome. In this model, targeting to and export from the ER are ATP- and cytosol-dependent; all intermediate steps require the presence of ATP only. We show that the new sec61 mutants analysed here are defective at the permissive temperature in misfolded protein export, and defective in channel opening or initiation of translocation at the restrictive temperature. The sec61 mutants that are specifically defective for export at a permissive temperature for import will be used in future experiments to decipher how the ER regulates incoming and outgoing traffic in what used to be regarded as a oneway road into the secretory pathway.

Materials and methods

Strains and growth conditions

The strains used in this study are listed in Table I. Media were purchased from Difco Inc. (Detroit, MI). Yeast cells were grown in YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% dextrose) or synthethic media (SD) with the appropriate additions (Sherman, 1991). Media for plates were supplemented with 2% agar.

Strain construction

A six-histidine tagged version of *SEC61* was made by subcloning the 2.4 kb *Hin*dIII fragment containing *SEC61* into pUC119 (pDF42) and introducing an *Nsi1* site at the start codon by recombinant PCR. An oligonucleotide linker encoding a six-histidine sequence was ligated into the *Nsi1* and *XbaI* sites. To allow the assessment of mutagenesis in *Escherichia coli*, we cloned the 1.3 kb kanamycin resistance cassette

(Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden) into the EcoRI site, resulting in pMP6. To construct a low-copy-number yeast expression plasmid for plasmid shuffling, the SEC61 coding sequence was subcloned as a HindIII-EcoRI fragment into the yeast shuttle vector YCpLac111 (Gietz and Sugino 1988) resulting in pDQ1. This plasmid fully complemented the temperature-sensitive phenotype of sec61-3 and the chromosomal deletion of sec61 in RSY633 upon plasmid shuffling on 5-fluoro-orotic acid (5-FOA) plates (Boeke et al., 1987). pMP6 was mutagenized in vitro by hydroxylamine treatment as described by Rose and Fink (1987), except that incubation was for 1 h at 75°C. Upon transformation into E.coli and selection for ampicillin resistance, we found that 4% of the colonies were unable to grow on LB plus kanamycin. From 50 000 ampicillin-resistant colonies, the plasmid DNA was isolated and the XbaI-EcoRI fragment containing the coding sequence was subcloned into pDQ1 containing the SEC61 promotor region. Upon transformation into E.coli, 40 000 colonies were obtained. The plasmids were isolated from four pools of 10 000 colonies each, and equal amounts were mixed and transformed into RSY633. Colonies (6000) were obtained on SD-Leu-His and subjected to plasmid shuffling on 5-FOA at 28°C. Colonies with a recessive cold-sensitive phenotype (no growth at 17°C after plasmid shuffling) were detected by replica-plating onto YPD. Plasmids from cold-sensitive colonies were isolated and rescreened, and designated psec61-32 and psec61-41. The sec61 sequence from these plasmids was subcloned, retested and sequenced.

Radiolabelling of cells and immunoprecipitation

Wild-type and mutant cells were grown to an OD_{600} of 2–3 at 30°C in complete minimal medium without methionine and cysteine, then diluted in the same medium to $OD_{600} = 0.25$ and further incubated at 30°C. When the cultures reached an $OD_{600} = 1$, 2 ml were transfered to either 30 or 17°C; tunicamycin was present at 10 µg/ml where indicated. After a 15 min pre-incubation, radiolabelling was initiated by the addition of [³⁵S]Promix (1200 Ci/mol Amersham, Arlington Heights IL, methionine and cysteine) to 20 µCi/OD₆₀₀ of cells and incubation was continued for 15 min at the growth temperature. The cultures were then added to an equal volume of ice-cold 20 mM NaN₃/20 mM KF; protein extracts were prepared according to Doering and Schekman (1996) and secretory precursors were immunoprecipitated as described (Feldheim *et al.*, 1993) and analysed on 7.5% polyacrylamide gels (pKar2p, pCPY) or 18% polyacrylamide gels containing 4 M urea (ppαf).

Preparation of microsomes

Cells were grown in YPD at 30°C for RSY1293, RSY1294 and RSY1295 or 24°C for RSY255, CSY150, RSY529 and RSY155, and microsomes were prepared as described previously (Lyman and Schekman, 1995), except that spheroplasts were frozen at -80°C and thawed prior to homogenization. Microsomes were stored at $OD_{280} = 30-40$ in 20 or 50 µl aliquots at -80°C.

Preparation of cytosol

Cytosol was prepared from exponentially growing WCG4a and WCG4-11/22a cells (both strains from D.Wolf, University of Stuttgart) in YPD at 30°C by liquid nitrogen lysis (Dunn and Wobbe, 1990). Cytosol was frozen in aliquots at 17–26 mg/ml protein and stored at -80°C.

Translocation assay

In vitro translated wild-type ppof was translocated into wild-type or mutant microsomes at 10 or 24°C in the presence of ATP and an ATP-regenerating system as described previously (Lyman and Schekman, 1995). Equal amounts of microsomal protein were used for each time point. All samples were done in duplicate. Translocation was quantified by precipitation of glycosylated 3gporf with concanavalin A (Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden) and scintillation counting (Lyman and Schekman, 1995).

ER degradation assay

ER degradation of the non-glycosylated form of pro-alpha-factor (Agpαf) (Mayinger and Meyer, 1993) was assayed essentially as described previously (McCracken and Brodsky, 1996). Briefly, 20 µl of translocation reactions contained 2 μ l of microsomes of OD₂₈₀ = 30, B88 (20 mM HEPES, pH 6.8, 150 mM potassium acetate, 5 mM magnesium acetate, 250 mM sorbitol), ATP and a regenerating system (40 mM creatine phosphate, 0.2 mg/ml creatine phosphokinase, 1 mM ATP, 50 μ M GDP-mannose) and 2 μ l of *in vitro* translated, ³⁵S-labelled ppcf or $p\Delta gp\alpha f$ (500 000 c.p.m.). Translocation reactions were incubated for 50 min at 24°C, and the membranes were washed twice in B88. Membranes were resuspended in B88 containing ATP and the regenerating system and degradation reactions were started by adding cytosol to 6 mg/ml final concentration in a 20 µl/reaction final volume. Degradation reactions were incubated at 24°C for the indicated periods of time. The kinetics of export and degradation were similar at 24 and 30°C (data not shown), but mutant membranes were unstable during prolonged incubations at 30°C; therefore 24°C was chosen as the assay temperature. At the end of the incubation, samples were precipitated with trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and analysed after electrophoresis on 18% polyacrylamide-4 M urea SDS gels with a BioRad phosphorimager. For protease protection assays, at the end of the degradation incubation, samples were placed on ice for 5 min, then proteinase K (Boehringer Mannheim) was added to a final concentration of 0.1 mg/ml in the presence or absence of 1% Triton X-100. Protease digestion was performed for 30 min on ice, then stopped by addition of phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF; Sigma) to 40 mM final concentration and precipitation with TCA.

Cross-linking and immunoprecipitation

Washed microsomes (20 μ l, 200 μ g protein) loaded with Δ gp α f as above were resuspended in 100 μ l of B88, pH 7.4 (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM potassium acetate, 5 mM magnesium acetate, 250 mM sorbitol) with or without 2× ATP mix (80 mM creatine phosphate, 0.4 mg/ml creatine phosphokinase, 2 mM ATP, 100 μ M GDP-mannose). Cytosol (100 μ l at 12 mg/ml) was added and DSP (Pierce) was added to 2.5 mM immediately or after 10 or 30 min at 24°C. Incubation was continued at 24°C for 20 min in the presence of DSP. Samples were transferred to ice, and ammonium acetate added to 400 mM. After 20 min on ice, samples were solubilized by adding SDS to 1% and heating to 65°C for 5 min. Immunoprecipitations were done with 10 μ g of affinity-purified anti-Sec61p antibody (Lyman and Schekman, 1995).

Acknowledgements

We thank Jeff Brodsky (University of Pittsburgh) for the plasmid encoding $p\Delta gp\alpha f$, Dieter Wolf (University of Stuttgart) for proteasome wild-type and deficient strains. We thank Meta Kuehn, Ann Corsi (MCB, UC Berkeley) and Martin Raff (MRC LMCB) for helpful comments on the manuscript. K.R. is a Senior European Fellow of The Wellcome Trust (042216). M.P. was supported by a fellowship from the Human Frontier Science Program (HFSP) and the Howard Hughes Medical Institute. R.S. is an investigator of the Howard Hughes Medical Institute and is supported by a grant from the NIH (GM26799).

References

- Andrews, D.W. and Johnson, A.E. (1996) The translocon: more than a hole in the membrane? *Trends Biochem. Sci.*, **21**, 365–369.
- Boeke,J.D.,Trueheart,J., Natsoulis,G. and Fink,G.R. (1987) 5-Fluoroorotic acid as a selective agent in yeast molecular genetics. *Methods Enzymol.*, **154**, 164–175.

Caplan,S., Green,R., Rocco,J. and Kurjan,J. (1991) Glycosylation and

structure of the yeast MF α 1 α -factor precursor is important for efficient transport through the secretory pathway. *J. Bacteriol.*, **173**, 627–635.

- Deshaies, R.J. and Schekman, R. (1987) A yeast mutant defective at an early stage in import of secretory protein precursors into the endoplasmic reticulum. *J. Cell Biol.*, **105**, 633–645.
- Deshaies, R.J., Sanders, S.L., Feldheim, D.A. and Schekman, R. (1991) Assembly of yeast Sec proteins involved in translocation into the endoplasmic reticulum into a membrane-bound multisubunit complex. *Nature*, 349, 806–808.
- Doering, T.L. and Schekman, R. (1996) GPI anchor attachment is required for Gas1p transport from the endoplasmic reticulum in COP II vesicles. *EMBO J.*, 15, 182–191.
- Dunn,B. and Wobbe,C.R. (1990) Preparation of protein extracts from yeast. In Ausubel,F.M., Brent,R., Kingston,R.E., Moore,D.D., Seidman,J.G., Smith,J.A. and Struhl,K. (eds), *Current Protocols in Molecular Biology*. Wiley and Greene, New York, Vol. 2, pp. 13.13.1–13.13.9.
- Esnault,Y., Blondel,M.O., Deshaies,R.J., Schekman,R. and Kepes,F. (1993) The yeast SSS1 gene is essential for secretory protein translocation and encodes a highly conserved protein of the endoplasmic reticulum. *EMBO J.*, **12**, 4083–4094.
- Gietz, R.D. and Sugino, A. (1988) New yeast *Escherichia coli* shuttle vectors constructed with *in vitro* mutagenized yeast genes lacking sixbase pair restriction sites. *Gene*, **74**, 627–534
- Feldheim, D., Yoshimura, K., Admon, A. and Schekman, R. (1993) Structural and functional characterization of Sec66p, a new subunit of the polypeptide translocation apparatus in the yeast endoplasmic reticulum. *Mol. Biol. Cell*, **4**, 931–939.
- Hampton, R.Y., Gardner, R.G. and Rine, J. (1996) Role of 26S proteasome and HRD genes in the degradation of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA-reductase, an integral endoplasmic reticulum membrane protein. *Mol. Biol. Cell*, 7, 2029–2044.
- Hanein, D., Matlack, K.E.S., Jungnickel, B., Plath, K., Kalies, K.-U., Miller, K.R., Rapoport, T.A. and Akey, C.W (1996) Oligomeric rings of the Sec61p complex induced by ligands required for protein translocation. *Cell*, 87, 721–732.
- Hiller, M.M., Finger, A., Schweiger, M. and Wolf, D. (1996) ER degradation of a misfolded luminal protein by the cytosolic ubiquitin– proteasome pathway. *Science*, **273**, 1725–1728.
- Hilt,W. and Wolf,D.H. (1996) Proteasomes: destruction as a programme. *Trends Biochem. Sci.*, **21**, 96–102.
- Hurtley, S.M. and Helenius, A. (1989) Protein oligomerization in the endoplasmic reticulum. Annu. Rev. Cell Biol., 5, 277–307.
- Jungnickel,B. and Rapoport,T.A. (1995) A posttargeting signal sequence recognition event in the endoplasmic reticulum membrane. *Cell*, 82, 261–270.
- Klausner, R.D. and Sitia, R. (1990) Protein degradation in the endoplasmic reticulum. *Cell*, **62**, 611–614.
- Knop,M., Finger,A., Braun,T., Hellmuth,K. and Wolf,D.H. (1996) Der1, a novel protein specifically required for endoplasmic reticulum degradation in yeast. *EMBO J.*, **15**, 753–763.
- Lyman,S.K. and Schekman,R. (1995) Interaction between BiP and Sec63p is required for the completion of protein translocation into the ER of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. J. Cell Biol., **131**, 1163–1171.
- Lyman,S.K. and Schekman,R. (1997) Binding of secretory precursor polypeptides to a translocon subcomplex is regulated by BiP. *Cell*, 88, 85–96.
- Mayinger,P. and Meyer,D.I. (1993) An ATP transporter is required for protein translocation into the yeast endoplasmic reticulum. *EMBO J.*, 12, 659–666.
- McCracken,A.A. and Brodsky,J.L. (1996) Assembly of ER-associated degradation *in vitro*: dependence on cytosol, calnexin and ATP. J. Cell Biol., 132, 291–298.
- Mothes, W., Prehn, S. and Rapoport, T.A. (1994) Systematic probing of the environment of a translocating secretory protein during translocation through the ER membrane. *EMBO J.*, **13**, 3973–3982.
- Müsch,A., Wiedmann,M. and Rapoport,T. (1992) Yeast Sec proteins interact with polypeptides traversing the endoplasmic reticulum membrane. *Cell*, **69**, 343–352.
- Panzner, S., Dreier, L., Hartmann, E., Kostka, S. and Rapoport, T.A. (1995) Posttranslational protein transport in yeast reconstituted with a purified complex of Sec proteins and Kar2p. *Cell*, 81, 561–570.
- Rose, M.D. and Fink, G.R. (1987) KAR1, a gene required for function of both intranuclear and extranuclear microtubules in yeast. *Cell*, 48, 1047–1060.

M.Pilon, R.Schekman and K.Römisch

- Rothblatt,J.A., Deshaies,R.J., Sanders,S.L., Daum,G. and Schekman,R. (1989) Multiple genes are required for proper insertion of secretory proteins into the endoplasmic reticulum in yeast. J. Cell Biol., 109, 2641–2652.
- Sanders, S.L., Whitfield, K.M., Vogel, J.P., Rose, M.D. and Schekman, R. (1992) Sec61p and BiP directly facilitate polypeptide translocation into the ER. *Cell*, **69**, 353–365.
- Sherman, F. (1991) Getting started with yeast. *Methods Enzymol.*, 194, 3–21
- Sikorski,R.S. and Boeke,J.D. (1991) In vitro mutagenesis and plasmid shuffling: from cloned gene to mutant yeast. Methods Enzymol., 194, 302–318.
- Sommer, T. and Jentsch, S. (1993) A protein translocation defect linked to ubiquitin conjugation at the endoplasmic reticulum. *Nature*, 365, 176–179.
- Stevens, T.B., Esmon, B. and Schekman, R. (1982) Early stages in the yeast secretory pathway are required for transport of carboxypeptidase Y to the vacuole. *Cell*, **30**, 439–448.
- Stirling, C.J., Rothblatt, J., Hosobuchi, M., Deshaies, R. and Schekman, R. (1992) Protein translocation mutants defective in the insertion of integral membrane proteins into the endoplasmic reticulum. *Mol. Biol. Cell*, 3, 129–142.
- Werner, E.D., Brodsky, J.L. and McCracken, A.A. (1996) Proteasomedependent endoplasmic reticulum-associated protein degradation: an unconventional route to a familiar fate. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, 93, 13797–13801.
- Wiertz,E.J.H.J., Tortorella,D., Bogyo,M., Yu,J., Mothes,W., Jones,T.R., Rapoport,T.A. and Ploegh,H.L. (1996) Sec61-mediated transfer of a membrane protein from the endoplasmic reticulum to the proteasome for destruction. *Nature* 384, 432–438.
- Wilkinson,B.M., Critchley,A.J. and Stirling,C.J. (1996) Determination of the transmembrane topology of yeast Sec61p, an essential component of the endoplasmic reticulum translocation complex. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **271**, 25590–25597.

Received on March 13, 1997; revised on May 14, 1997