

Molecular biology of the cell

BIO 207

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2) Choose the course you want to evaluate.

Retour indicatif des enseignements (dès 2022-2023)

Répondre au questionnaire pour l'ensemble des matières :
Ingénierie des sciences du vivant, 2022-2023, Bachelor semestre 4

Répondre au questionnaire par matière :

- Analyse numérique**
- Analysis IV (for SV, MT)**
- Biological chemistry II**
- Cellular and molecular biology II**
- Fluid mechanics (for SV)**
- Labo intégré en sciences de la vie II**
- Physique générale : quantique**
- Probability and statistics II**
- Technologie, économie et politique: en face des crises**

1) Sign-in to IS-Academia as usual, and select “retour indicatif” on the right.

3) Evaluate the course.

N'oubliez pas de sauver votre questionnaire

Vos réponses à ce questionnaire donneront à l'enseignant, aux directeurs de section concernés et à la Direction de l'Ecole une indication sur l'appréciation de cet enseignement par les étudiants. Donnez librement votre opinion personnelle. Ce questionnaire est anonyme.

Enseignement

Le déroulement du cours permet ma formation et un climat de classe approprié

Sans avis
 Pas du tout d'accord
 Pas d'accord
 D'accord
 Tout à fait d'accord

Merci de faire part de vos éventuelles remarques sur ce cours.
 (Vos remarques seront lues par votre enseignant. Soyez constructifs et évitez les remarques malpolies ou injurieuses. L'anonymat ne peut pas être garanti en cas de remarques potentiellement répréhensibles d'un point de vue légal).

Remarques

Intracellular Compartments and Protein Sorting

CHAPTER
12

IN THIS CHAPTER

THE COMPARTMENTALIZATION
OF CELLS

THE TRANSPORT OF
MOLECULES BETWEEN THE
NUCLEUS AND THE CYTOSOL

THE TRANSPORT OF PROTEINS
INTO MITOCHONDRIA AND
CHLOROPLASTS

PEROXISOMES

THE ENDOPLASMIC RETICULUM

Intracellular Membrane Traffic

CHAPTER
13

IN THIS CHAPTER

THE MOLECULAR MECHANISMS
OF MEMBRANE TRANSPORT
AND THE MAINTENANCE OF
COMPARTMENTAL DIVERSITY

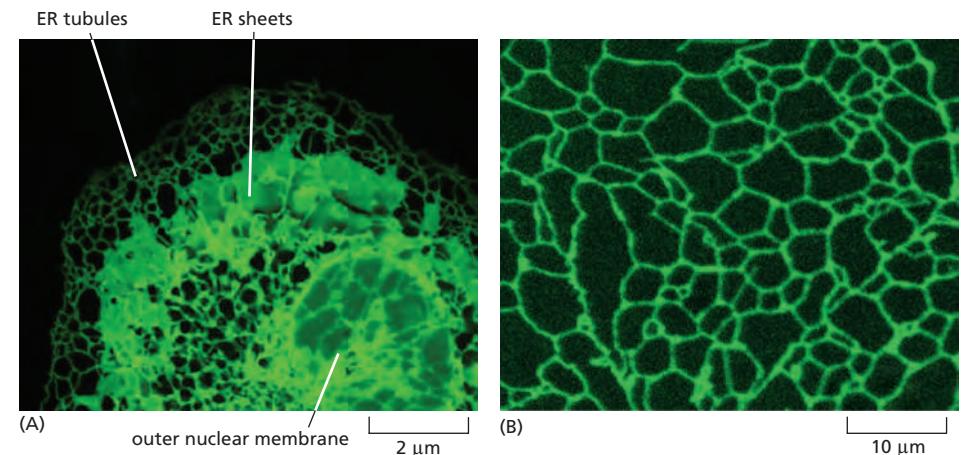
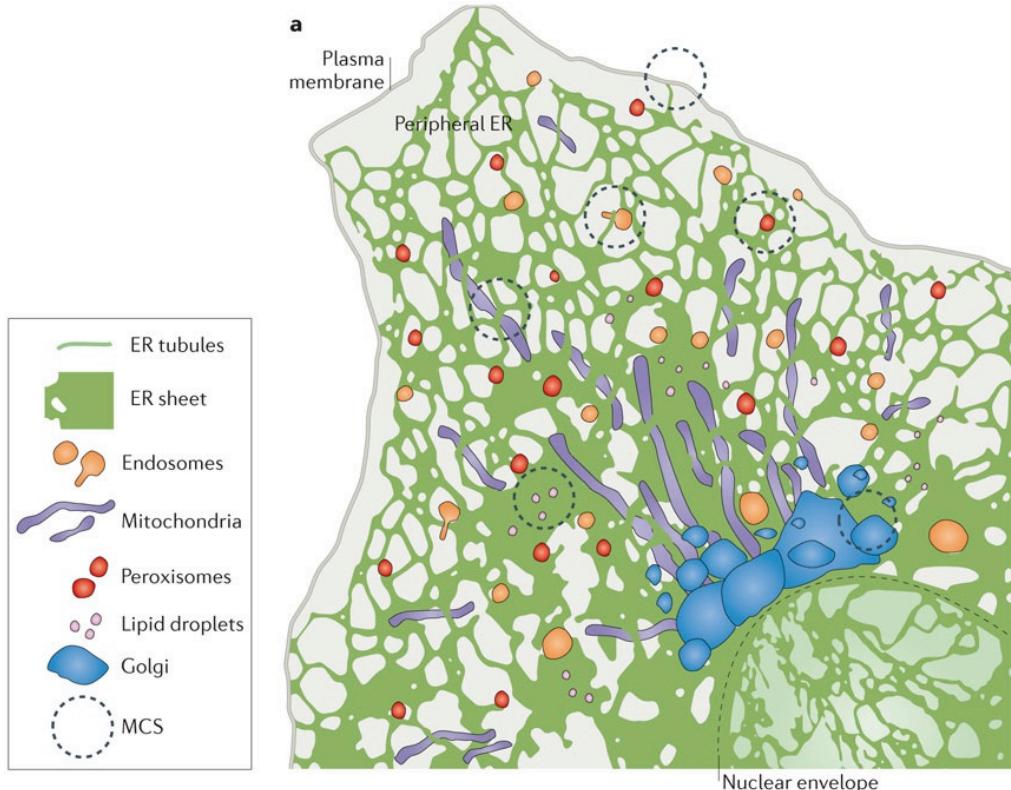
TRANSPORT FROM THE ER
THROUGH THE
GOLGI APPARATUS

TRANSPORT FROM THE
TRANS GOLGI NETWORK TO
LYSOSOMES

TRANSPORT INTO THE
CELL FROM THE PLASMA
MEMBRANE: ENDOCYTOSIS

TRANSPORT FROM THE TRANS
GOLGI NETWORK TO THE CELL
EXTERIOR: EXOCYTOSIS

Endoplasmic reticulum



ER lumen = ER cisternal space

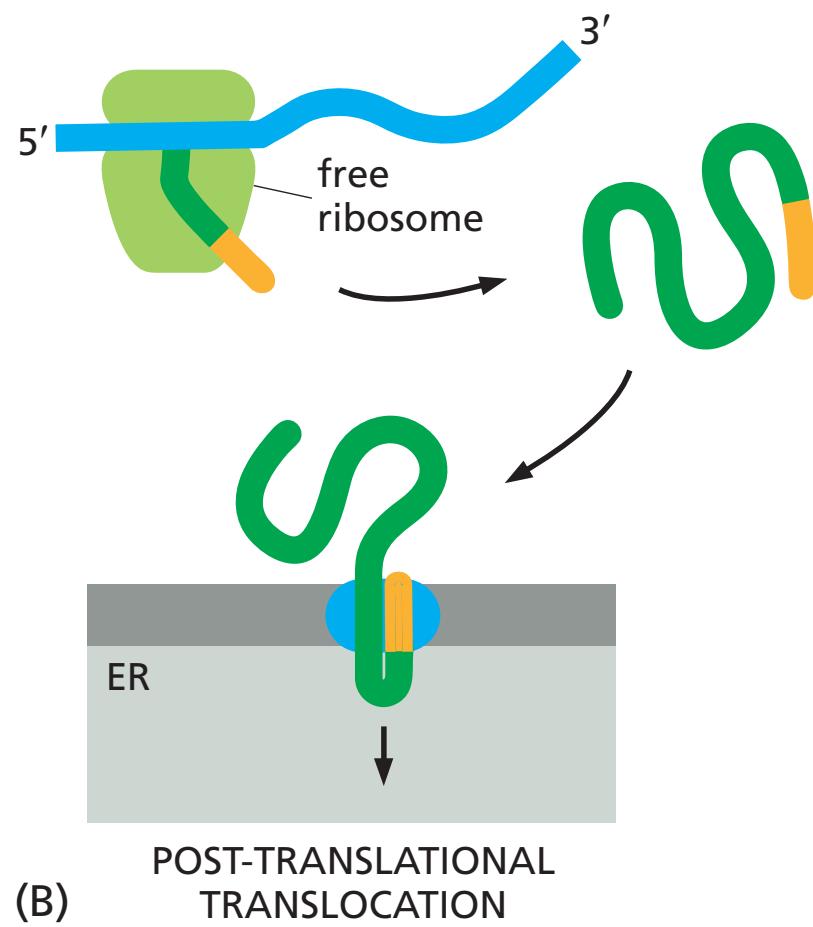
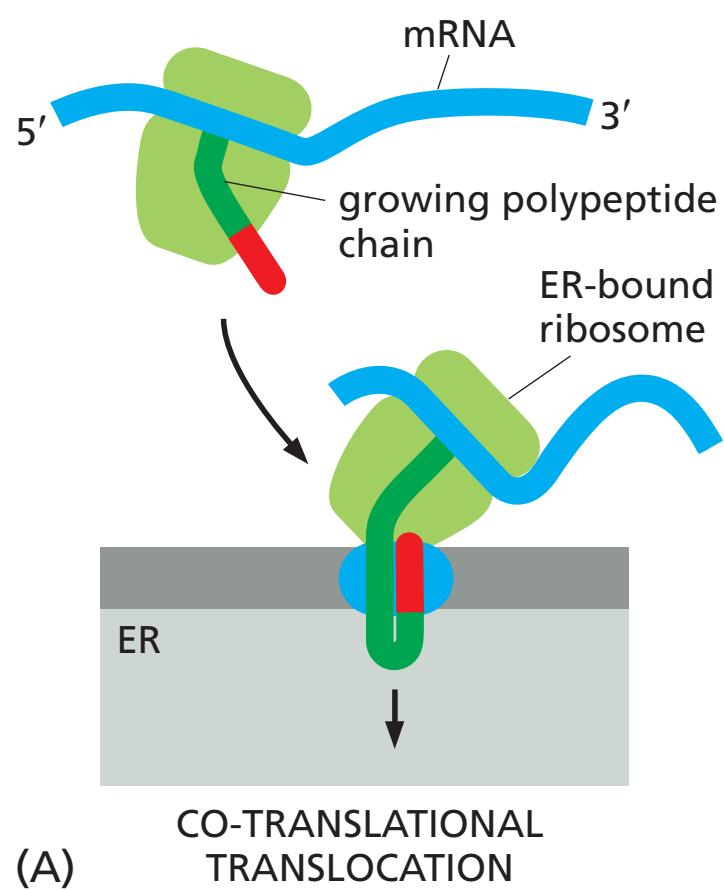
Lipid & Protein Biosynthesis

Site of production of all transmembrane proteins and lipids for all the organelles

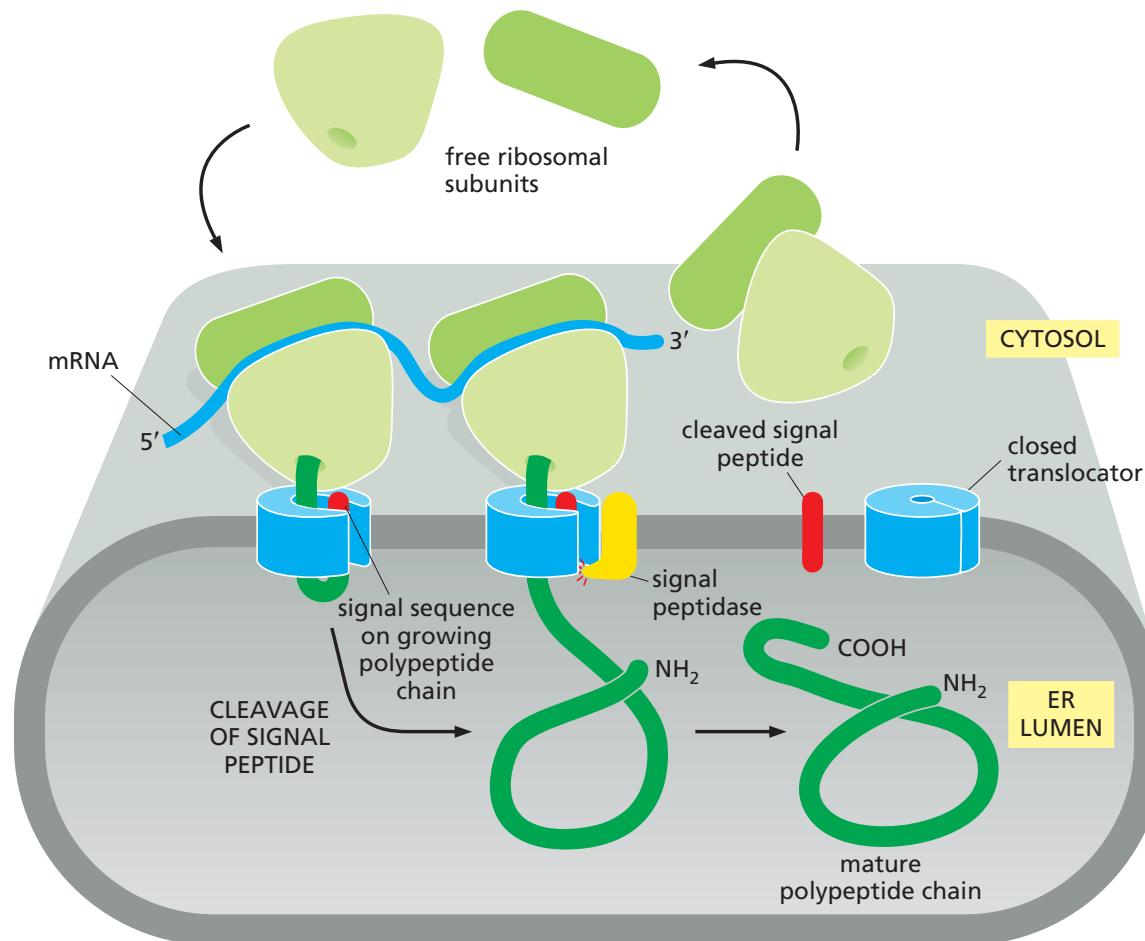
Ca²⁺ storage in the cell (SERCA pump)

Protein translocation

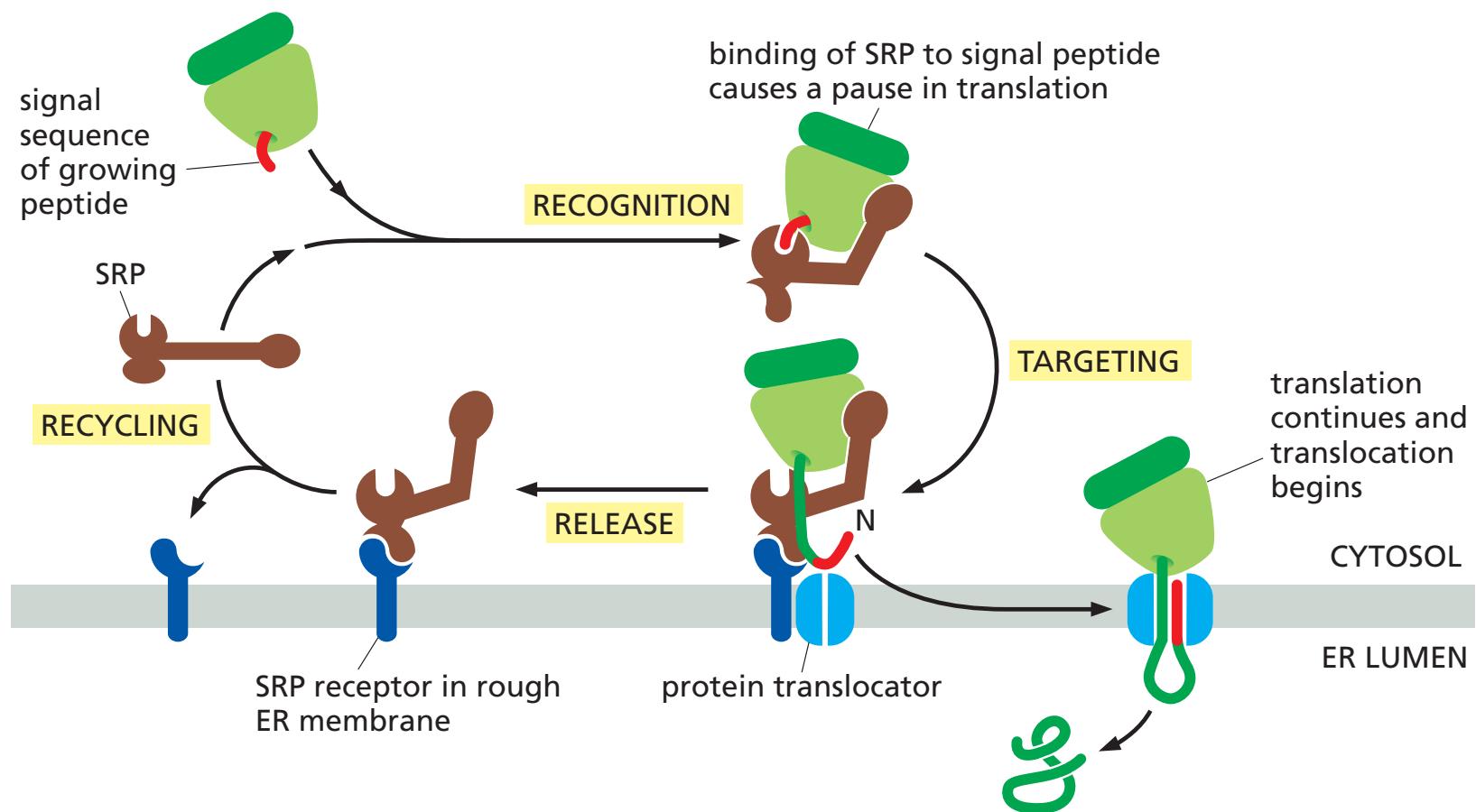
Co-translational and post- translational protein translocation to the ER



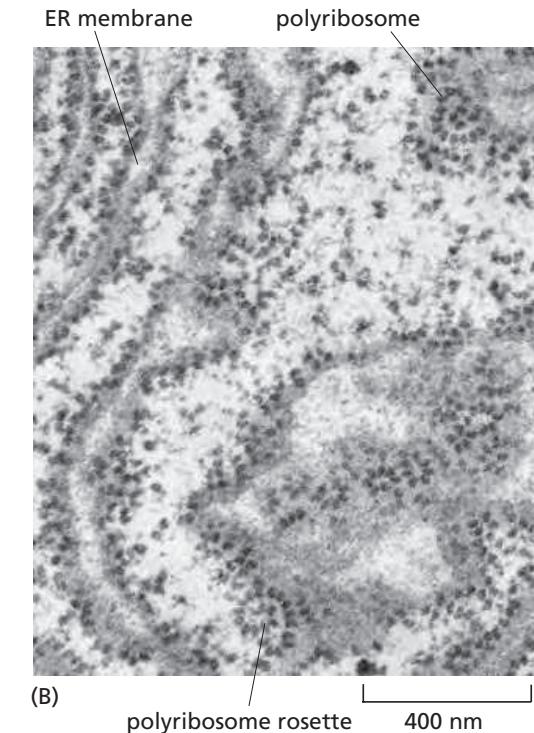
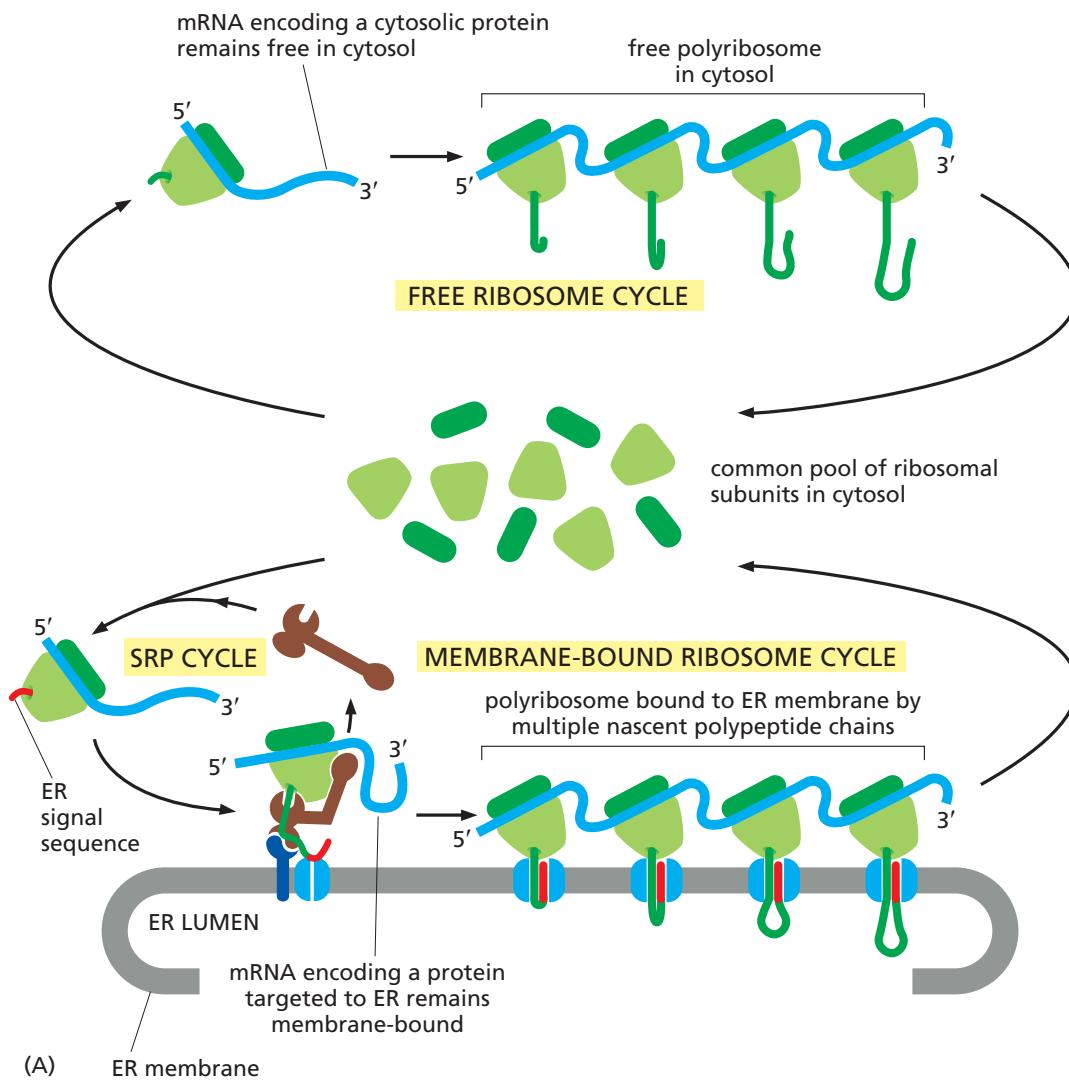
Co-translational translocation



SRP directs ribosomes to the ER membrane



Free and membrane-bound polyribosomes



Structure of the Sec61 translocator complex

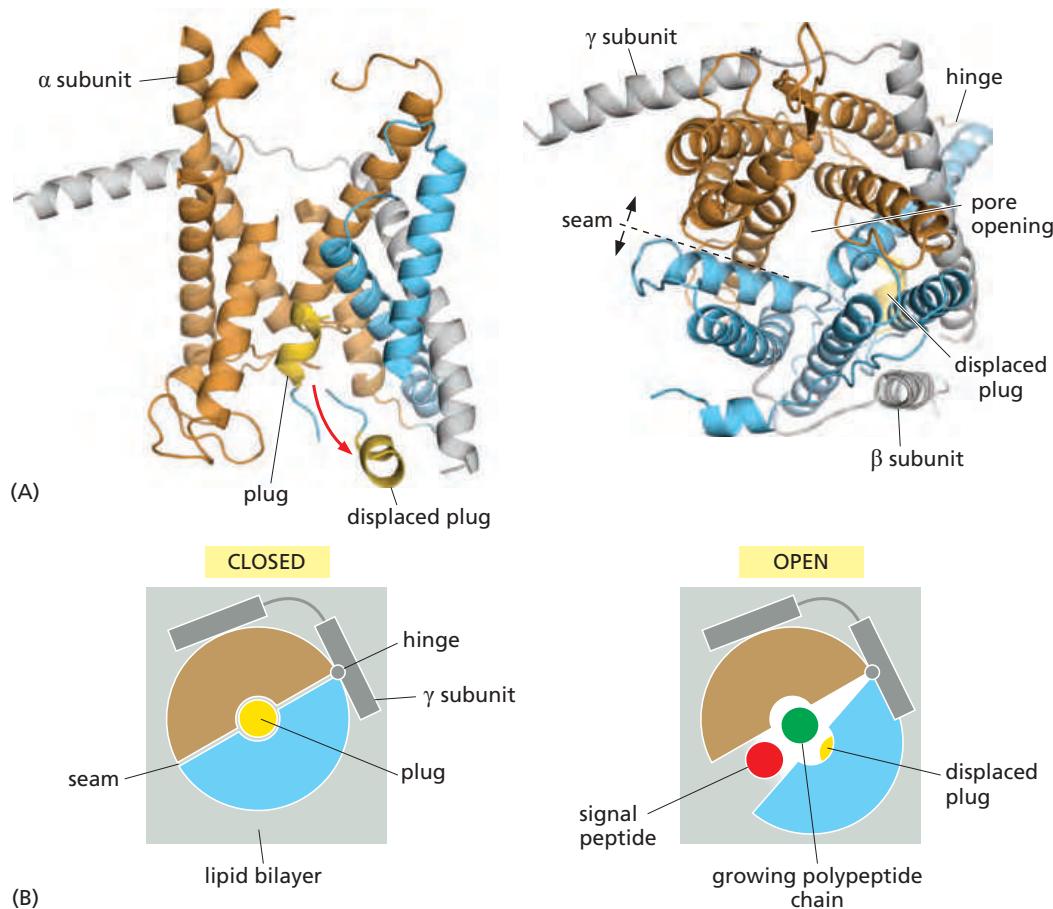
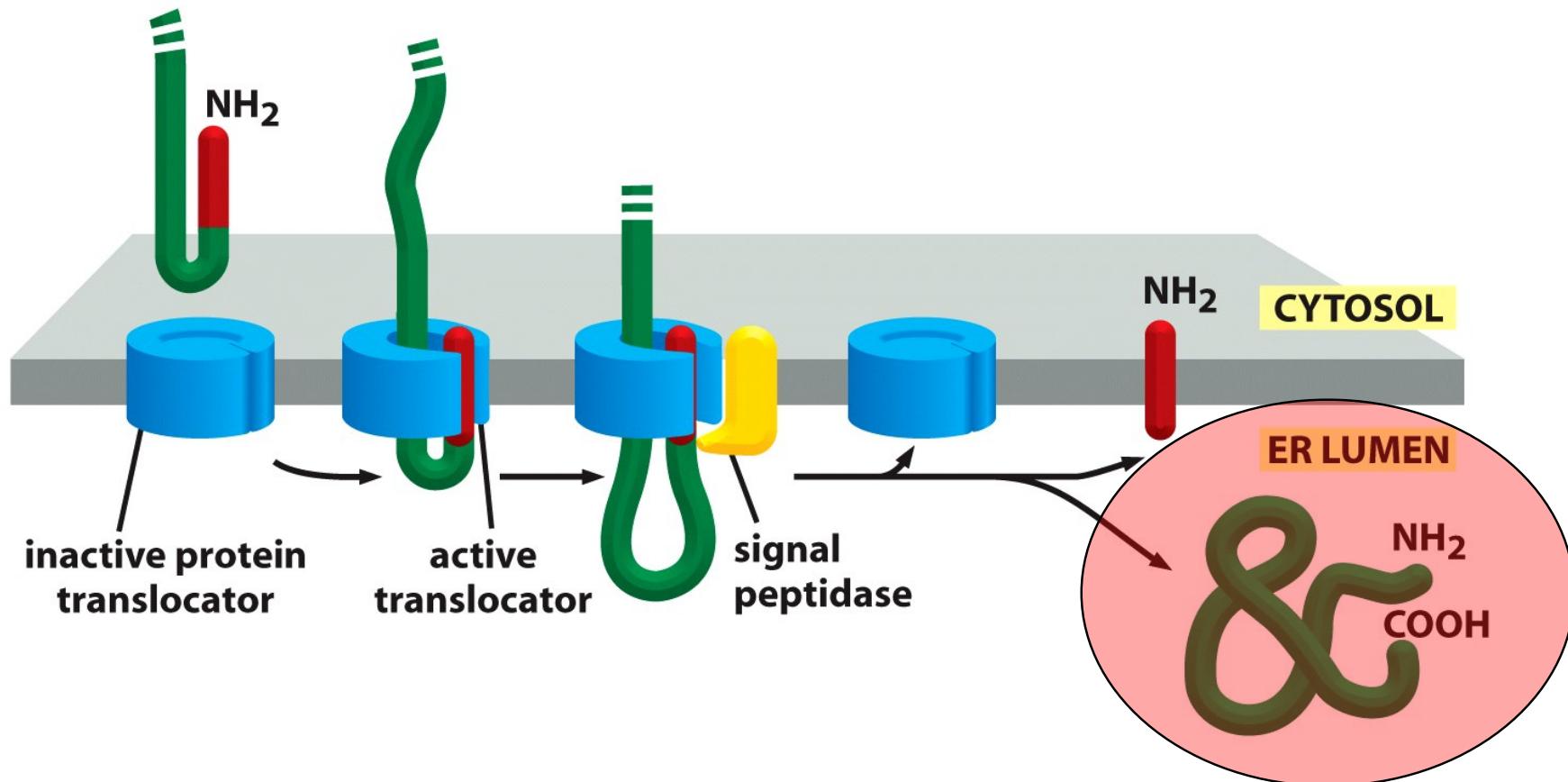
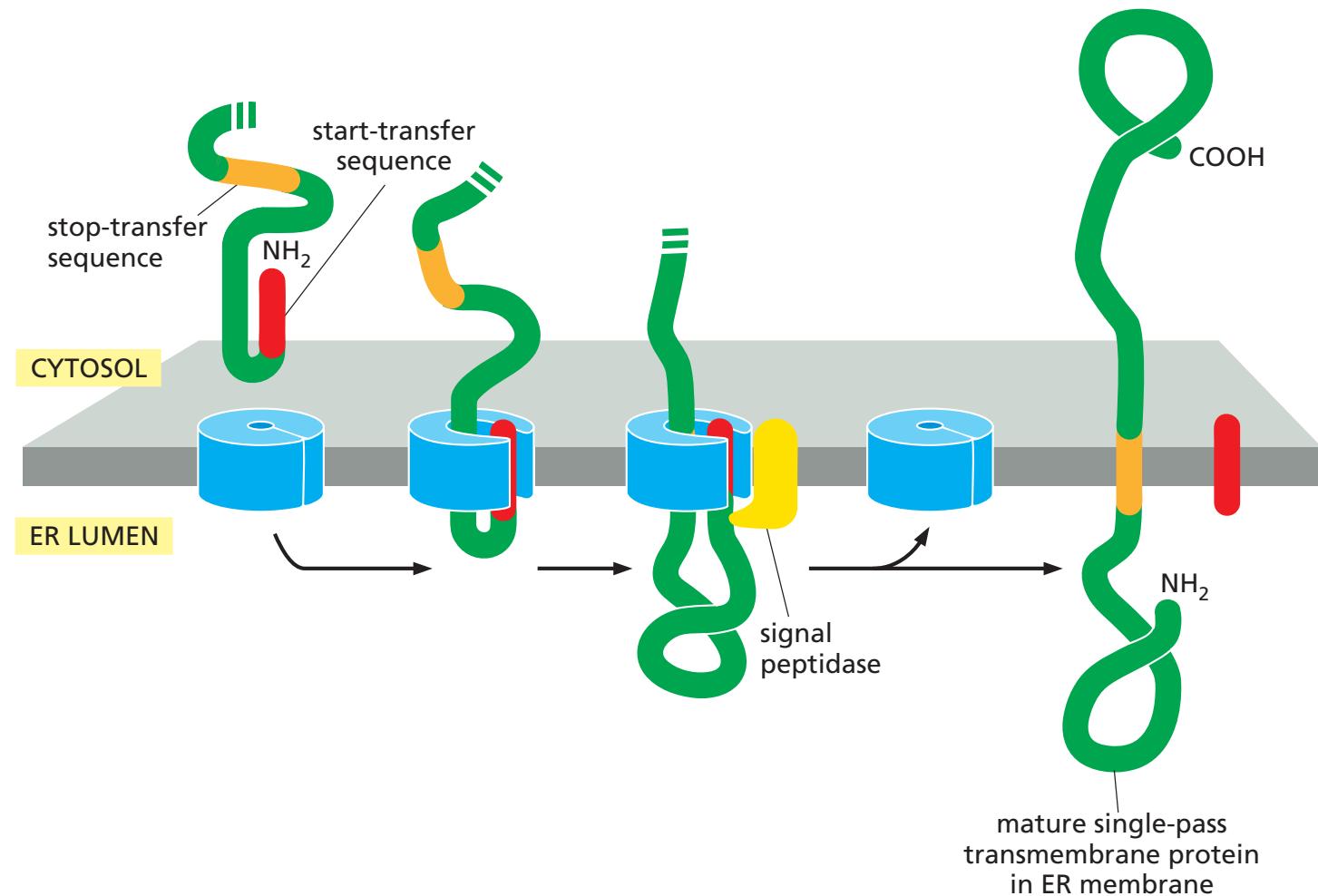


Figure 12–39 Structure of the Sec61 complex. (A) A side view (left) and a top view (right, seen from the cytosol) of the structure of the Sec61 complex of the archaeon *Methanococcus jannaschii*. The Sec61 α subunit has an inverted repeat structure (see Figure 11–10) and is shown in blue and beige to indicate this pseudo-symmetry; the two smaller β and γ subunits are shown in gray. In the side view, some helices in front have been omitted to make the inside of the pore visible. The yellow short helix is thought to form a plug that seals the pore when the translocator is closed. To open, the complex rearranges itself to move the plug helix out of the way, as indicated by the red arrow. A ring of hydrophobic amino acid side chains is thought to form a tight-fitting diaphragm around translocating polypeptide chain to prevent leaks of other molecules across the membrane. The pore of the Sec61 complex can also open sideways at a lateral seam. (B) Models of the closed and open states of the translocator are shown in top view, illustrating how a signal sequence (or a transmembrane segment) could be released into the lipid bilayer after opening of the seam. (PDB codes: 1RH5 and 1RHZ.)

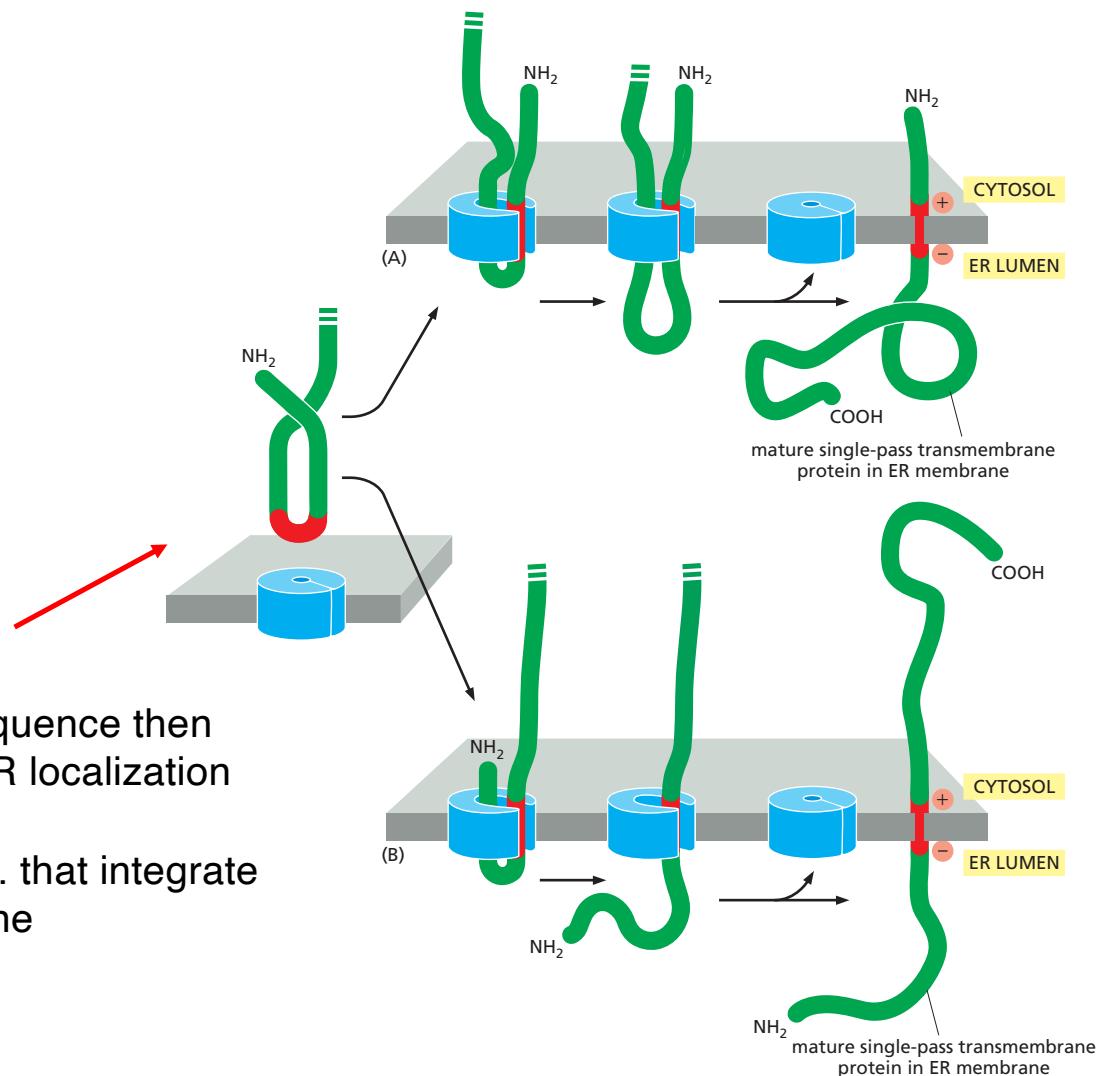
A protein translocating to the ER lumen



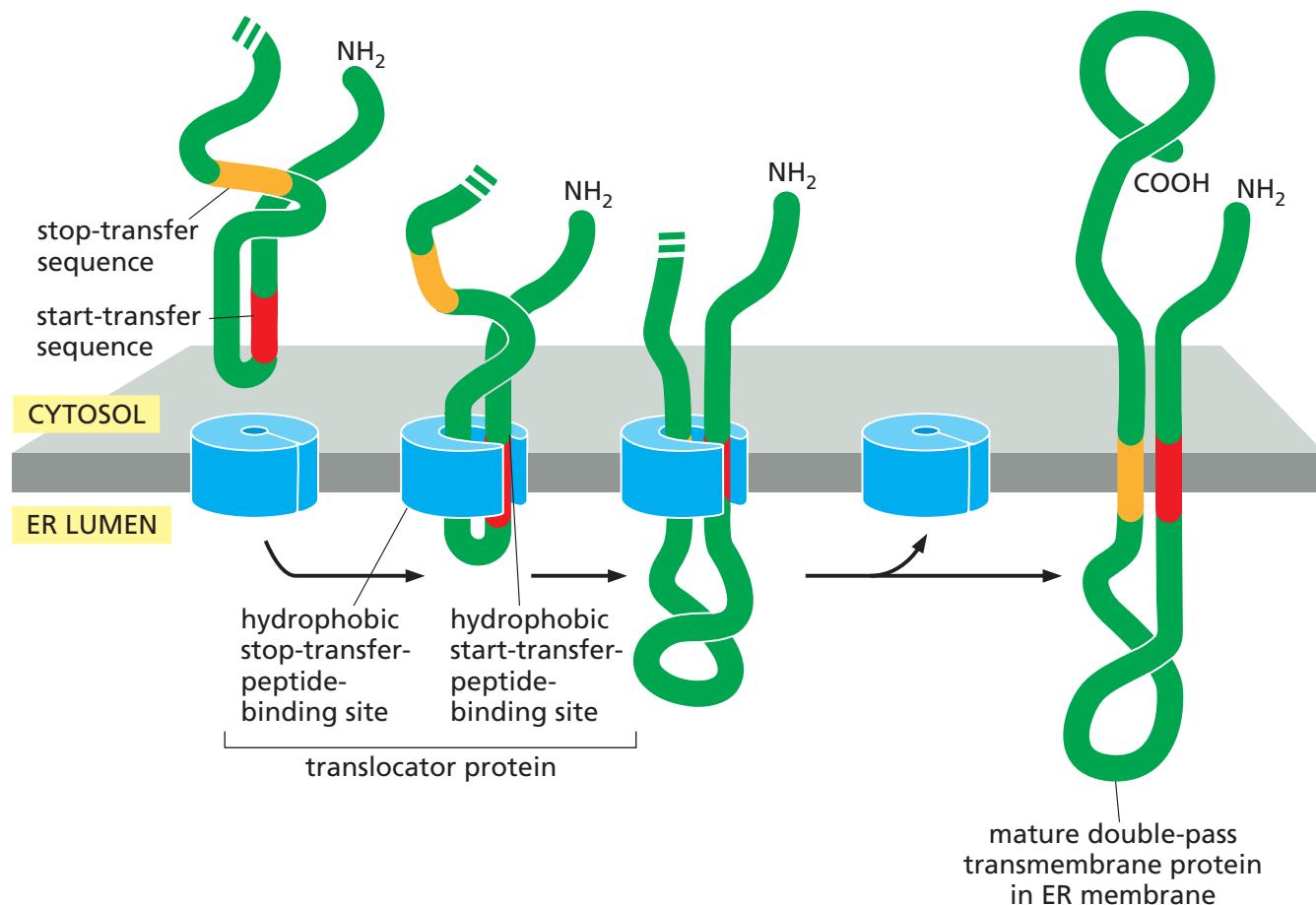
A single-pass transmembrane protein with a cleaved ER signal sequence



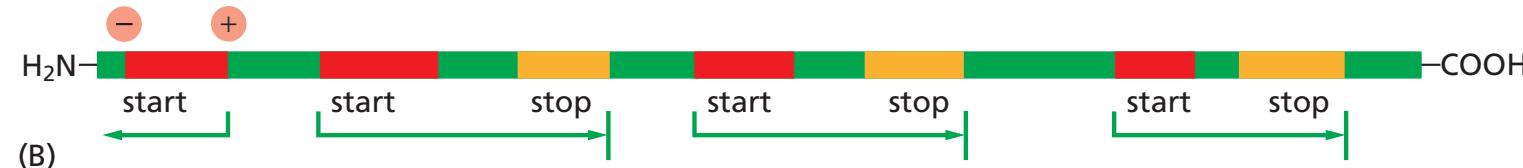
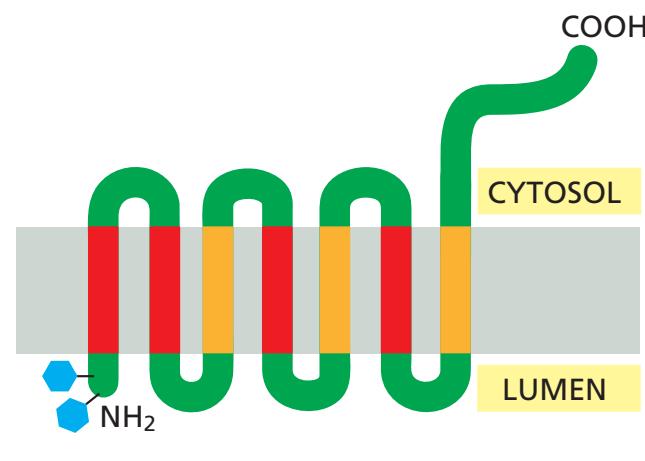
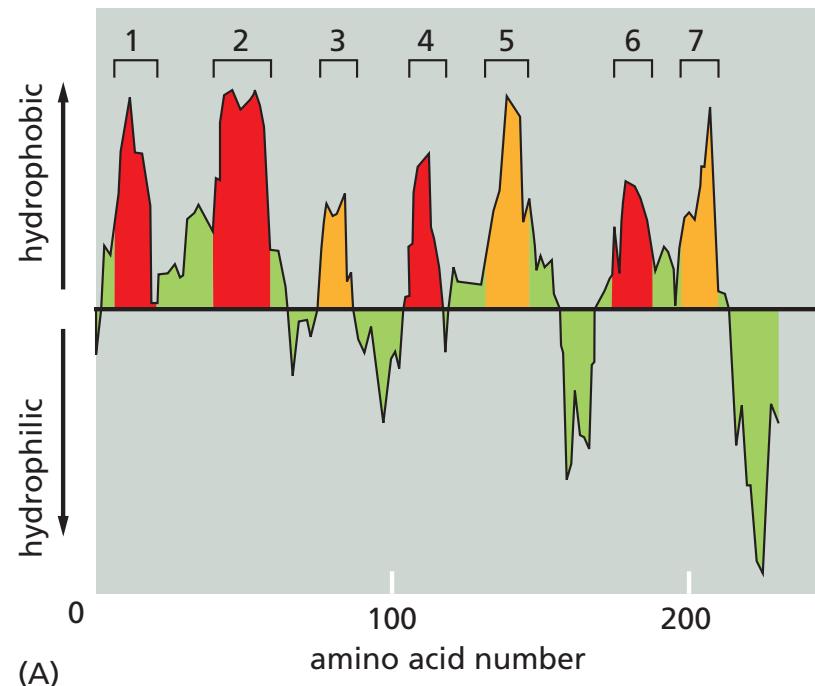
Integration of a single- pass transmembrane protein with an internal signal sequence into the ER membrane



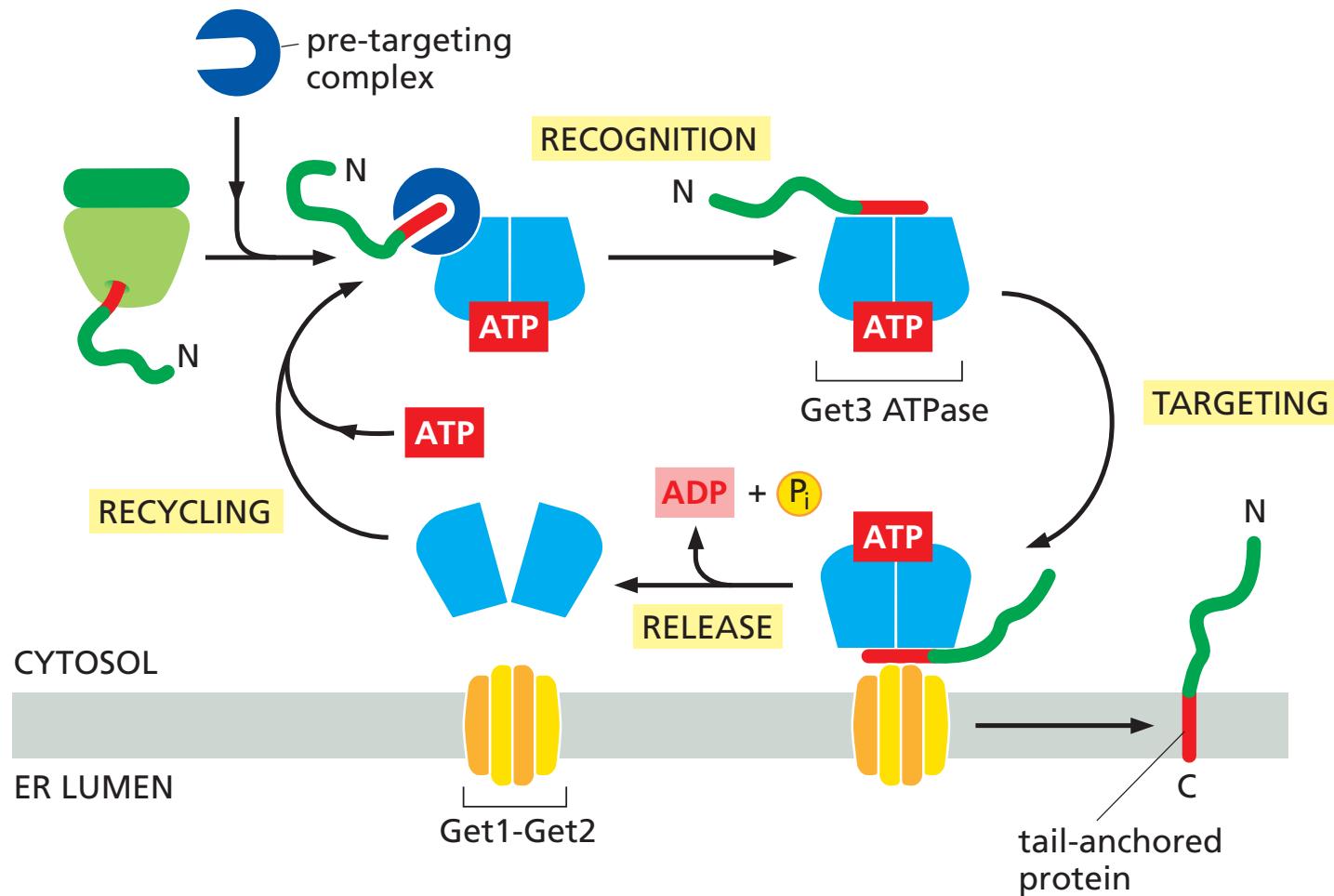
Integration of a double- pass transmembrane protein with an internal signal sequence into the ER membrane



The insertion of the multipass membrane protein rhodopsin into the ER membrane



Special case insertion of tail-anchored proteins



The attachment of a GPI anchor to a protein in the ER

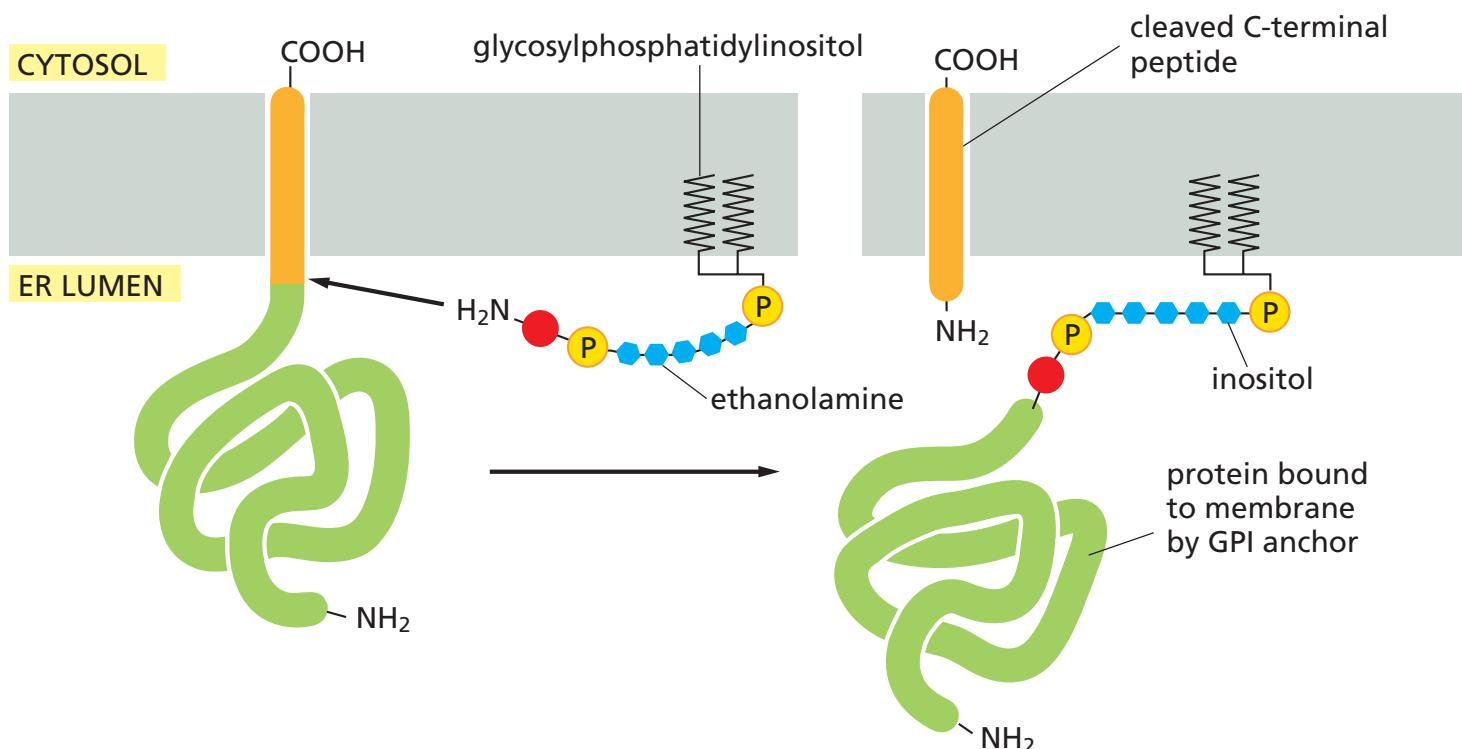


Figure 12-52 The attachment of a GPI anchor to a protein in the ER. GPI-anchored proteins are targeted to the ER membrane by an N-terminal signal sequence (not shown), which is removed (see Figure 12-42). Immediately after the completion of protein synthesis, the precursor protein remains anchored in the ER membrane by a hydrophobic C-terminal sequence of 15–20 amino acids; the rest of the protein is in the ER lumen. Within less than a minute, an enzyme in the ER cuts the protein free from its membrane-bound C-terminus and simultaneously attaches the new C-terminus to an amino group on a preassembled GPI intermediate. The sugar chain contains an inositol attached to the lipid from which the GPI anchor derives its name. It is followed by a glucosamine and three mannoses. The terminal mannose links to a phosphoethanolamine that provides the amino group to attach the protein. The signal that specifies this modification is contained within the hydrophobic C-terminal sequence and a few amino acids adjacent to it on the luminal side of the ER membrane; if this signal is added to other proteins, they too become modified in this way. Because of the covalently linked lipid anchor, the protein remains membrane-bound, with all of its amino acids exposed initially on the luminal side of the ER and eventually on the exterior of the plasma membrane.

Summary of ER protein translocation

Translocation of proteins to the ER

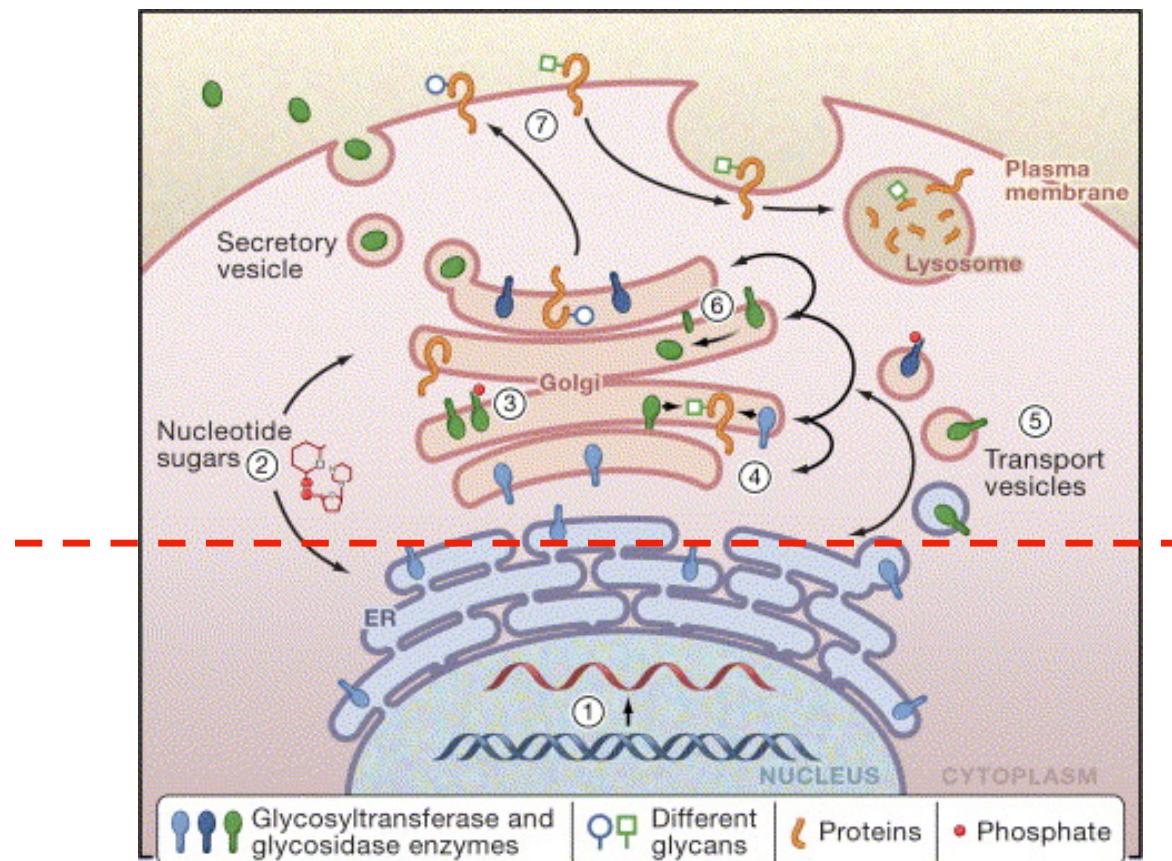
1: Soluble proteins. All soluble (non membrane bound) proteins must have an ER localization signal -> N-Terminal Amino Acid sequence, which is cleaved off.

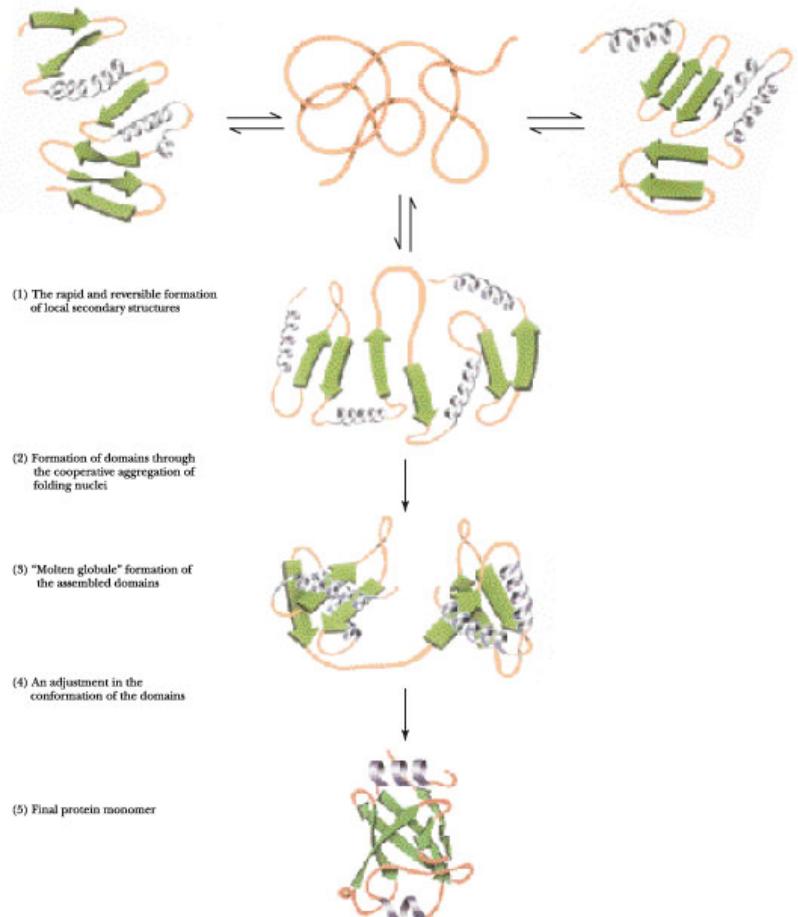
2: Membrane proteins

- Membrane proteins can have an N-Terminal ER localization signal: this is generally the case for proteins whose N-terminus is in the lumen/extracellular
- Multipass integration of membrane proteins is driven by START/STOP sequences.
- This N-Terminal ER localization signal is not obligatory! Proteins where the N-terminus is cytoplasmic have an "internal" Signal sequence (=at a transmembrane domain), or a tail anchor
- GPI anchors are a special case of membrane attachment

What happens (can happen) to a protein inside the lumen of the ER and Golgi?

Quality control of proteins takes places in the ER





Protein folding often requires assistance in particular to avoid aggregation during phases when hydrophobic amino acids are exposed
 This assistance is provided by proteins called "chaperones".

Protein folding can be influenced by post translational modifications

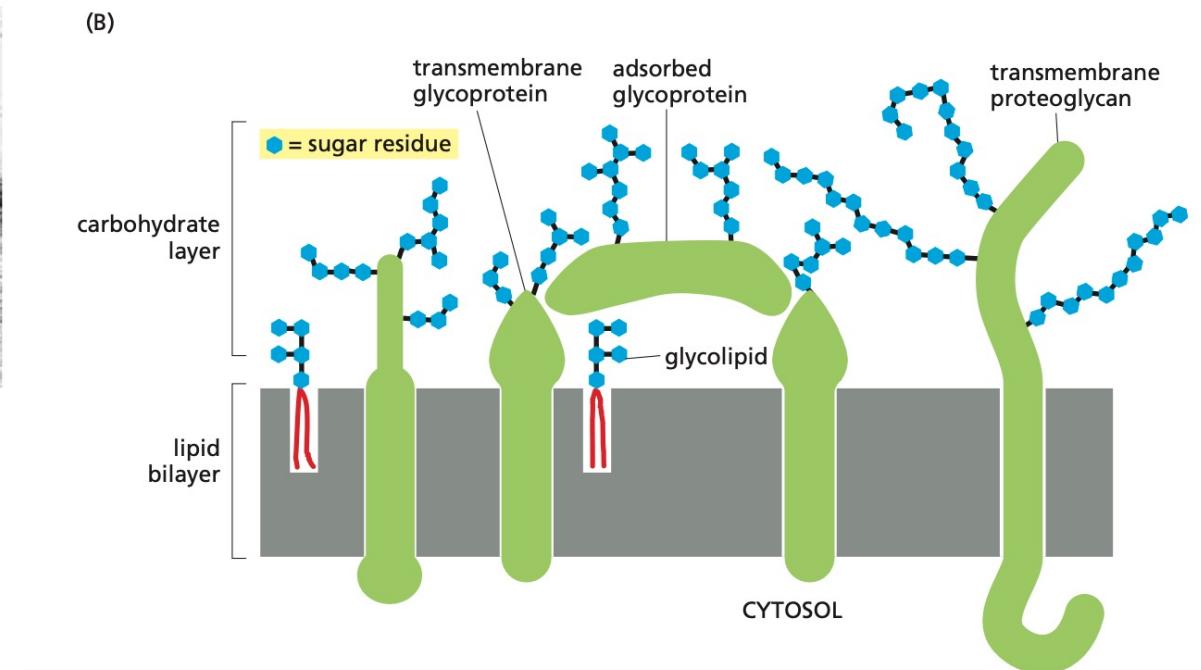
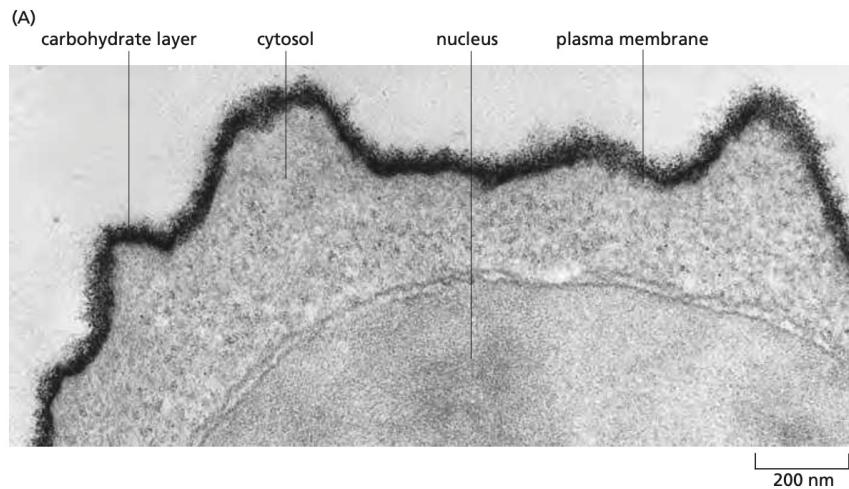
Reversible

- Formation of disulfide bridges
- Isomerization of prolines
- Phosphorylation(Not in the ER)
- Ubiquitination (Not in the ER)

Irreversible (meaning a cell does not edit these once done, during degradation this can be different!)

- Proteolytic cleavage
- Glycosylation
- Anchoring on a GPI

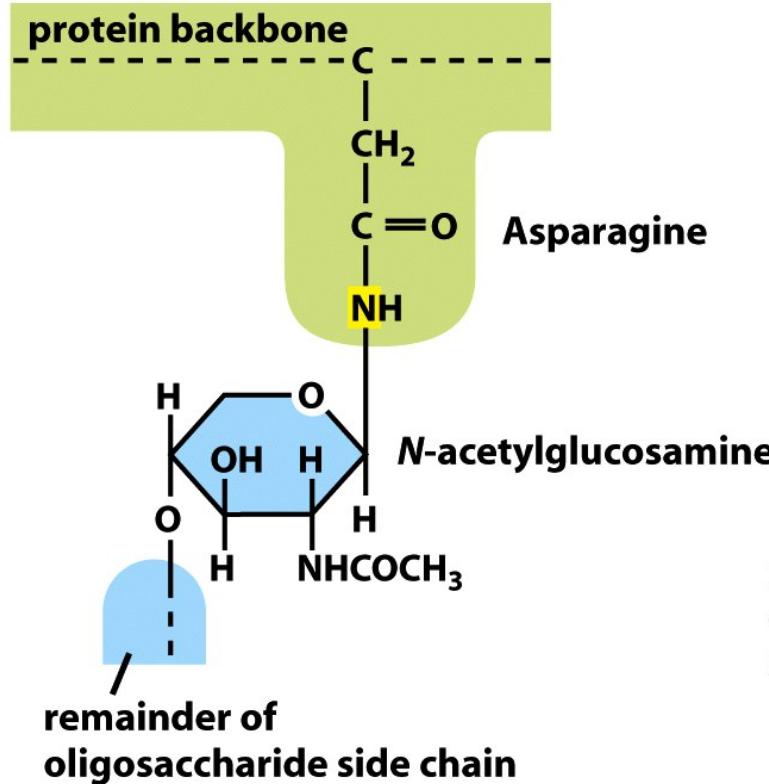
The carbohydrate layer on the cell surface



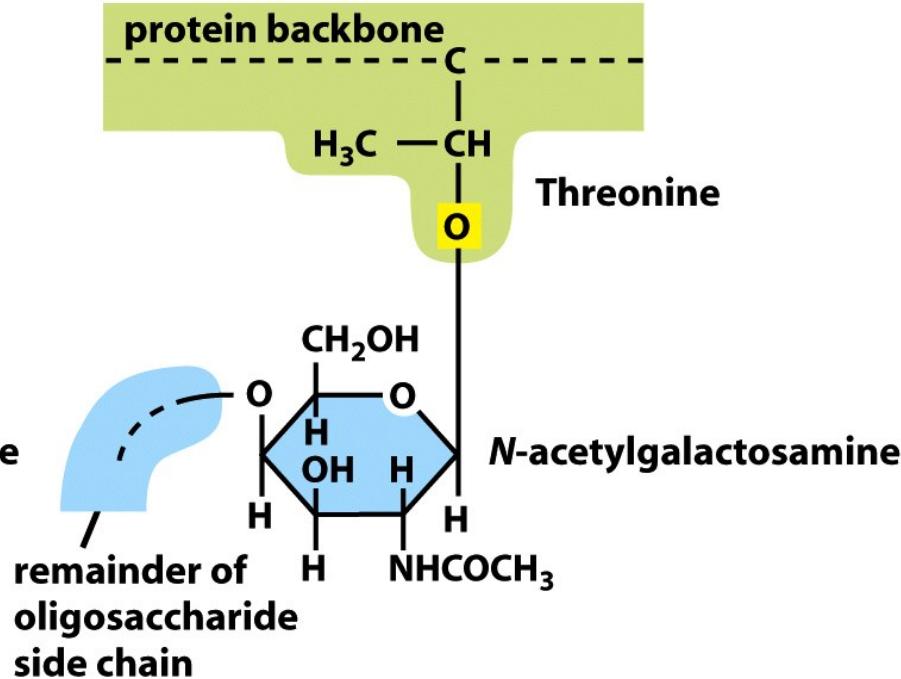
Directionality as a consequence
of location of discussed last
week!

N- and O- linked glycosylation

N-LINKED GLYCOSYLATION



O-LINKED GLYCOSYLATION



Synthesis of the lipid-linked precursor oligosaccharide in the rough ER membrane

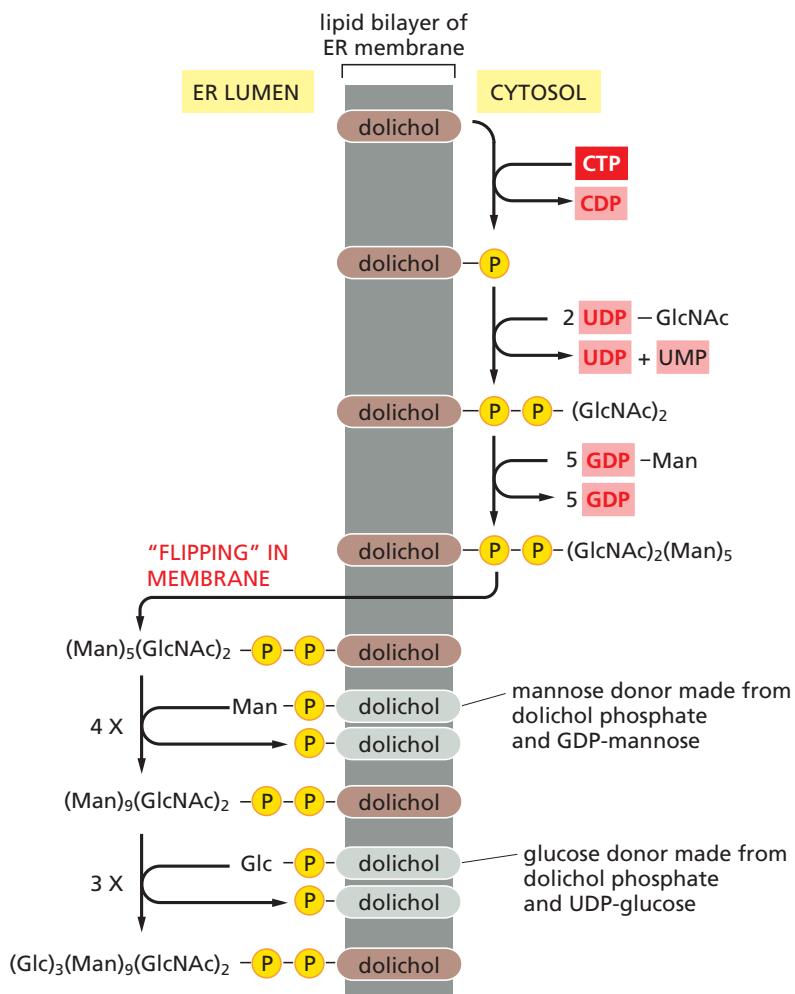
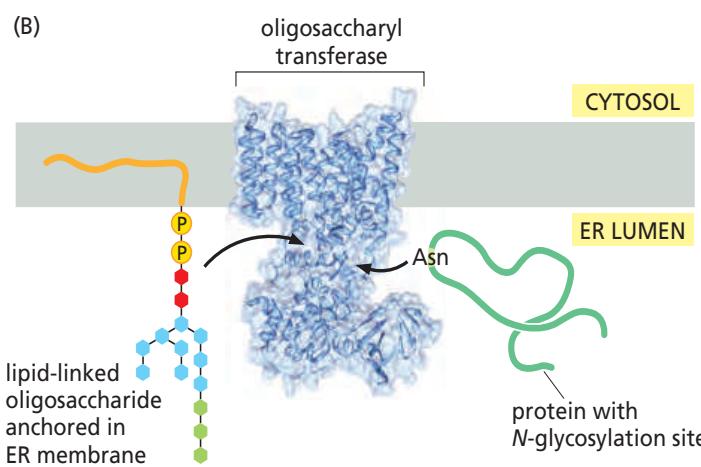
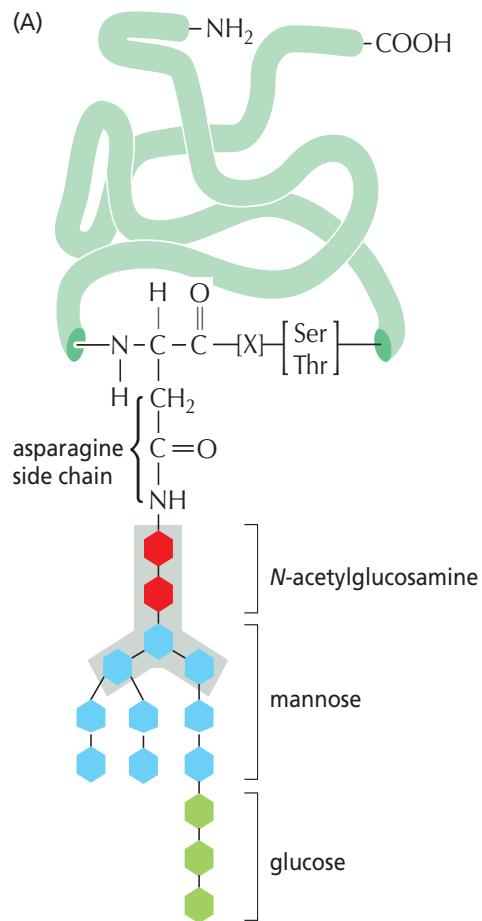


Figure 12–48 Synthesis of the lipid-linked precursor oligosaccharide in the rough ER membrane. The oligosaccharide is assembled sugar by sugar onto the carrier lipid dolichol (a polyisoprenoid; see Panel 2–5, pp. 98–99). Dolichol is long and very hydrophobic: its 22 five-carbon units can span the thickness of a lipid bilayer more than three times, so that the attached oligosaccharide is firmly anchored in the membrane. The first sugar is linked to dolichol by a pyrophosphate bridge. This high-energy bond activates the oligosaccharide for its eventual transfer from the lipid to an asparagine side chain of a growing polypeptide on the luminal side of the rough ER. As indicated, the synthesis of the oligosaccharide starts on the cytosolic side of the ER membrane and continues on the luminal face after the $(\text{Man})_5(\text{GlcNAc})_2$ lipid intermediate is flipped across the bilayer by a transporter (which is not shown). All the subsequent glycosyl transfer reactions on the luminal side of the ER involve transfers from dolichol-P-glucose and dolichol-P-mannose; these activated, lipid-linked monosaccharides are synthesized from dolichol phosphate and UDP-glucose or GDP-mannose (as appropriate) on the cytosolic side of the ER and are then flipped across the ER membrane. GlcNAc = *N*-acetylglucosamine; Man = mannose; Glc = glucose.

***N*-linked protein glycosylation in the rough ER**



Most plasma membrane proteins and secreted proteins are *N*-glycosylated (>80%)
This helps their folding, protects them against proteases, and has other functions as well

Glycosylation

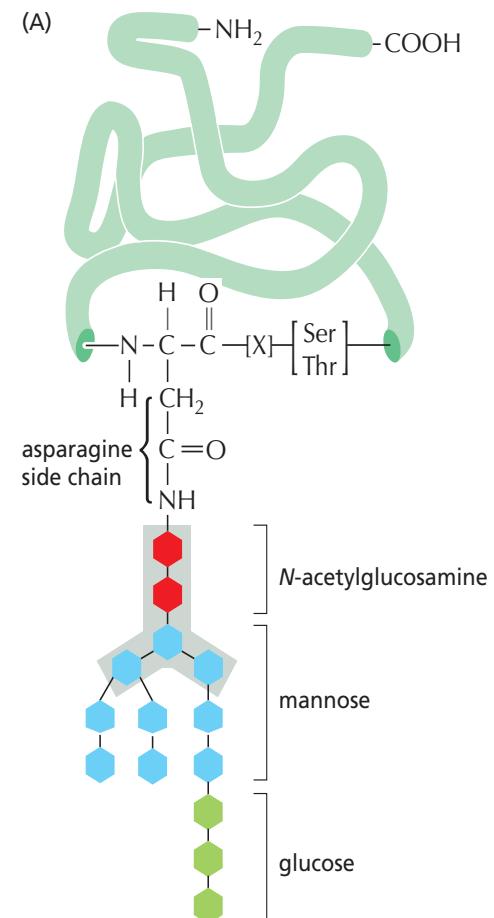
What is the purpose of these sugar "trees"?

- The presence of this hydrophilic group favors the folding of the protein
- Their presence on the surface of the protein, on the surface of the cell, protects from extracellular protease
- The sugars are codes that inform the cell of what is happening and what must follow:
 - Is the protein already folded? - How long has the protein been trying to fold?
 - Etc... (some of which are still to be discovered)

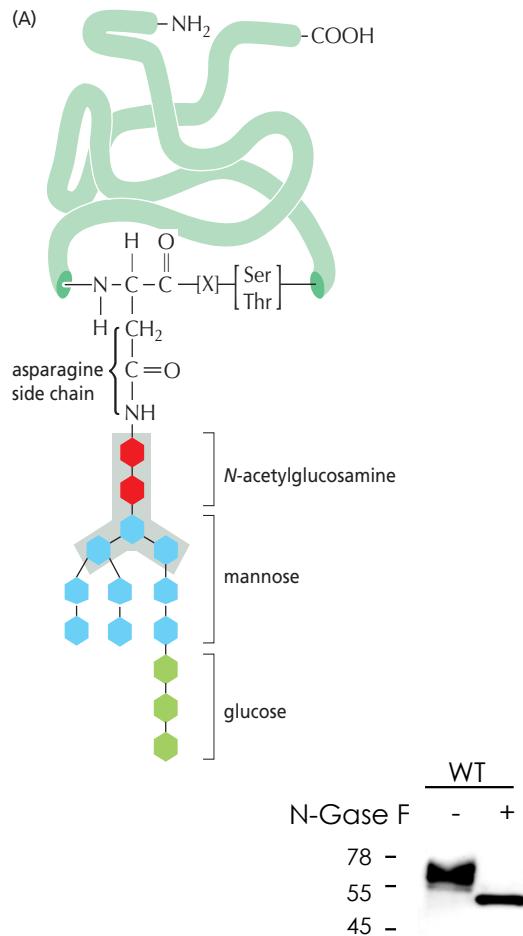
Necessary but not necessarily sufficient condition, consensus sequence:

Asn-X-Ser/Thr

The sugar "tree" is added en bloc to the ER lumen



Glycosylation influences analysis



Addition of sugars changes the mobility of a protein on an SDS gel

Migration varies with the number of glycosylation sites, complexity and heterogeneity of sugars

N-glycosidase F: enzymatically removes N-linked sugars.

A change in gel mobility following N-Gly-F treatment is evidence of N-glycosylation

N-linked protein glycosylation in the rough ER

N-glycosylation

The tree of sugars is pre-assembled and added to the protein by an oligosaccharyl-transferase

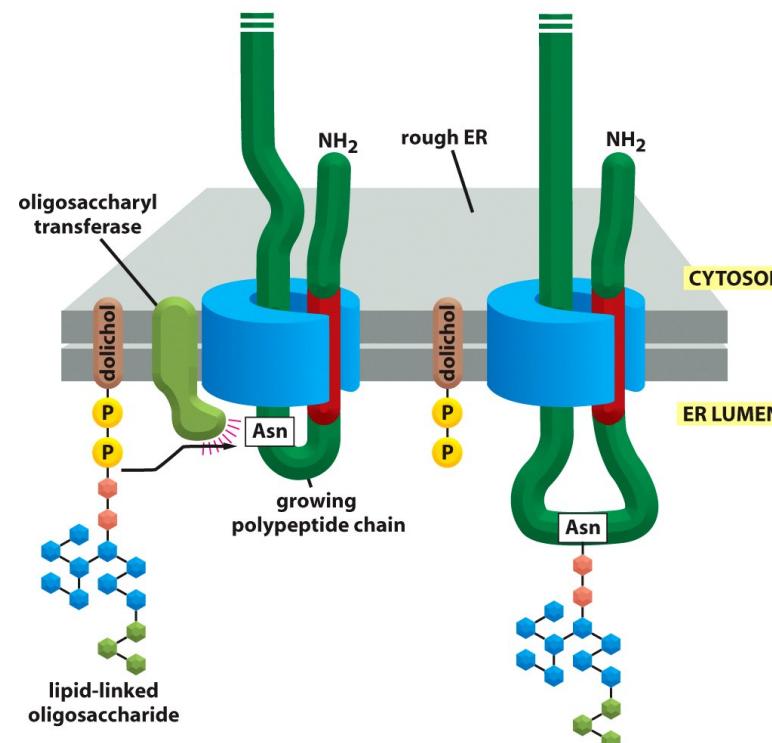
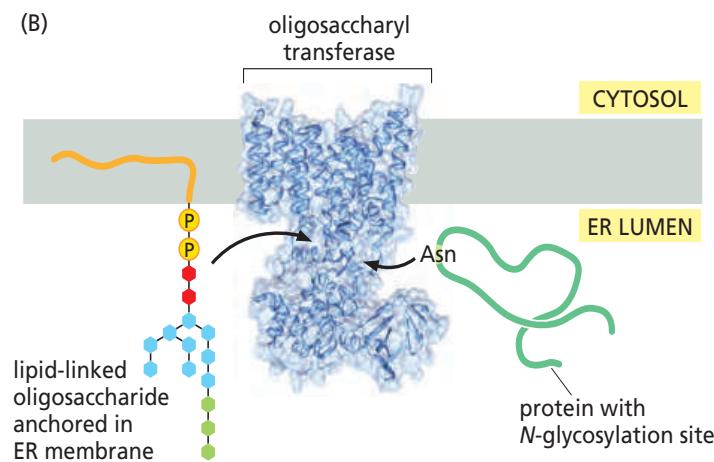
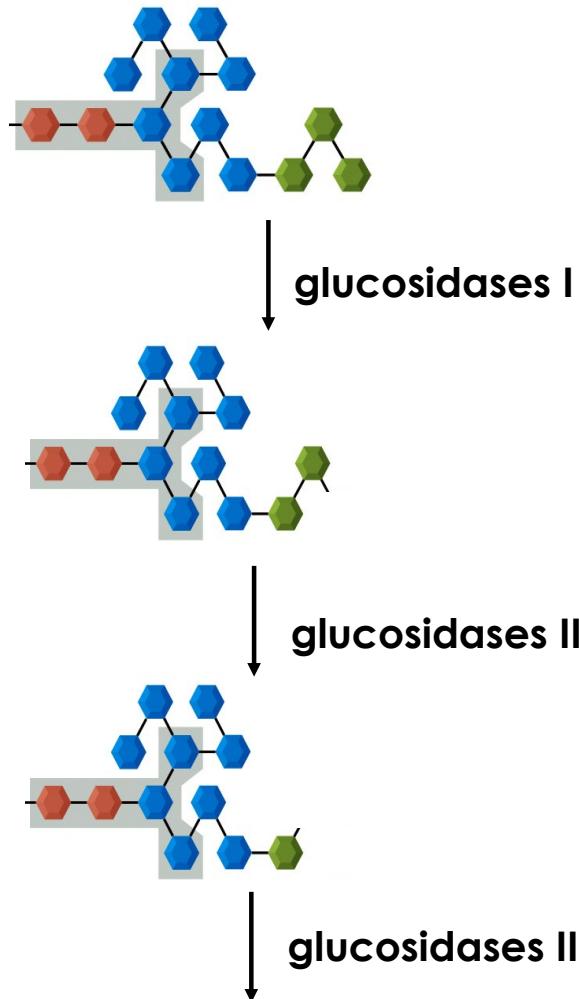


Figure 12-51 Molecular Biology of the Cell (© Garland Science 2008)

N-linked protein glycosylation in the rough ER



As soon as the sugars are added, the mannoses start to be removed in the ER by glucosidases

This allows the recognition of the newly synthesized protein to interact with chaperones, proteins promoting folding

The presence of all mannose and glucose indicates that the protein is young (newly synthesized)

Mannoses can also be removed, but at a slower rate:
"timer" of folding
Trimming of mannoses is recognized by quality control as a "problem".

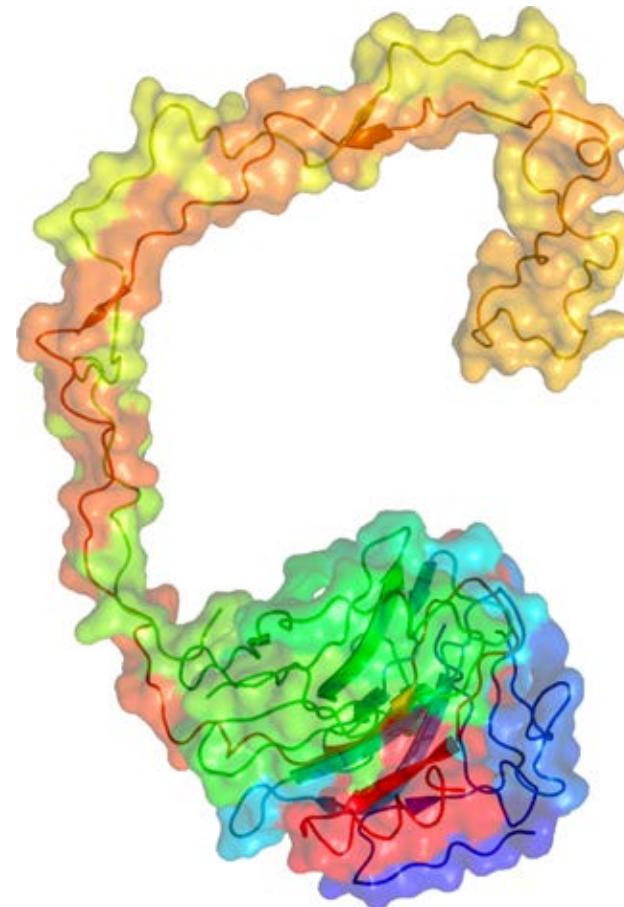
The role of *N*-linked glycosylation in ER protein folding

Calnexin and calreticulin

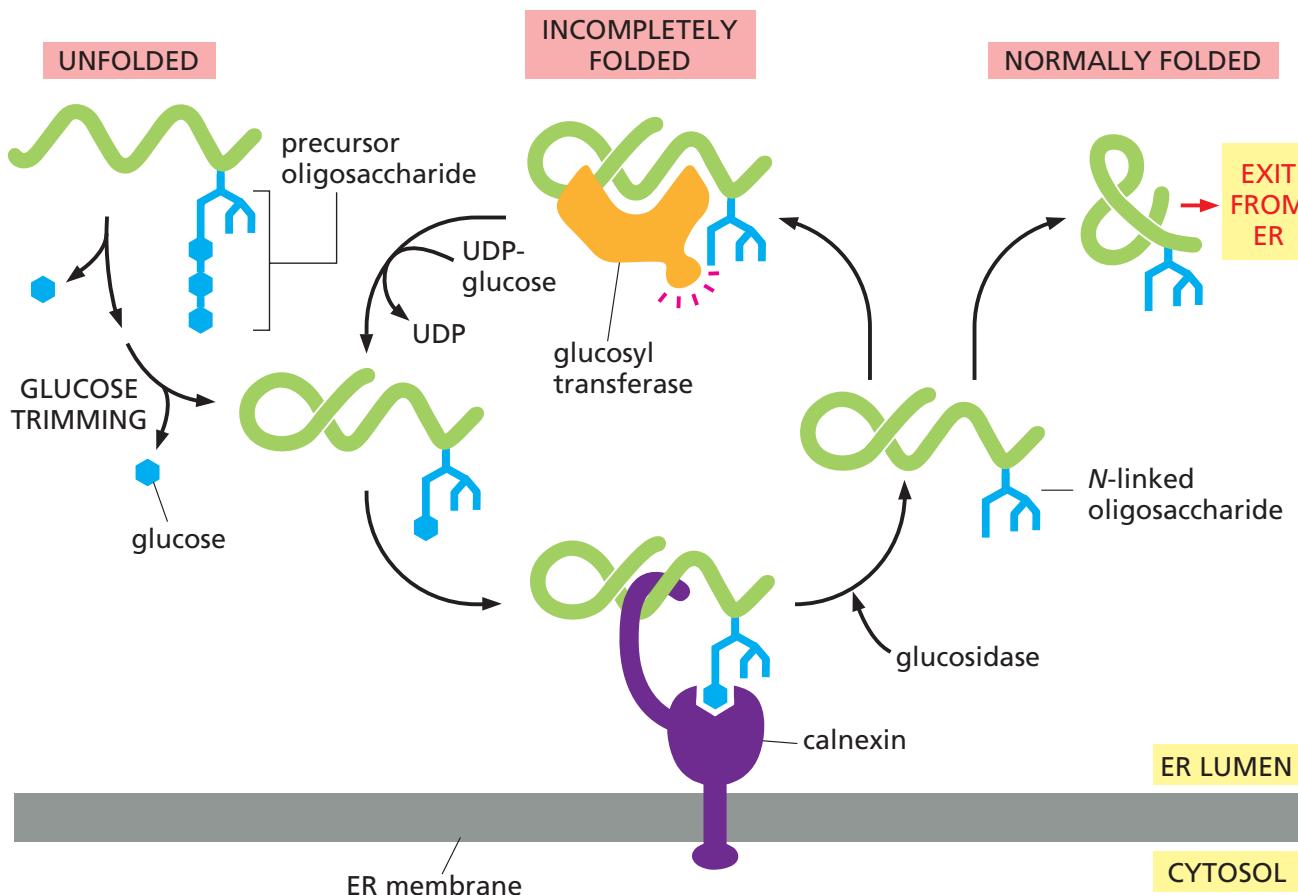
Two chaperones recognizing mono-glucose on an *N*-linked sugar

Calnexin: type I transmembrane Calreticulin: soluble analogue

Role: bind to a protein during folding to prevent it from aggregating during the process No enzymatic activity



The role of *N*-linked glycosylation in ER protein folding



The calnexin/calreticulin cycle

- There is a glucosylation-deglucosylation cycle,
- where the enzyme, the glucosyl-transferase, is able to recognize if whether a protein has completed its folding or not.
- If the folding is complete, this enzyme will give a glucose

But this cycle must be able to be interrupted, otherwise the ER would be full of protein stuck for a long time in this cycle

The ER also contains mannosidase, but this one has a slower activity

The cleavage of mannose is therefore an indication of the time spent in the ER

This acts as an extraction signal from the cycle, where the protein will be "abandoned" by the cell and put in the "trash".

Calnexin/Calreticulin cycle & ER protein folding

The calnexin/calreticulin cycle

1: There is a glucosylation-deglucosylation cycle, where the enzyme, the glucosyl-transferase, is able to recognize if a protein has completed its folding or not. What the recognition signal is for all proteins to be correctly folded is not clear.

- If the folding is complete, this enzyme will give a glucose.

2: This cycle must be able to be interrupted, otherwise the ER would be full of proteins stuck for a long time in this cycle

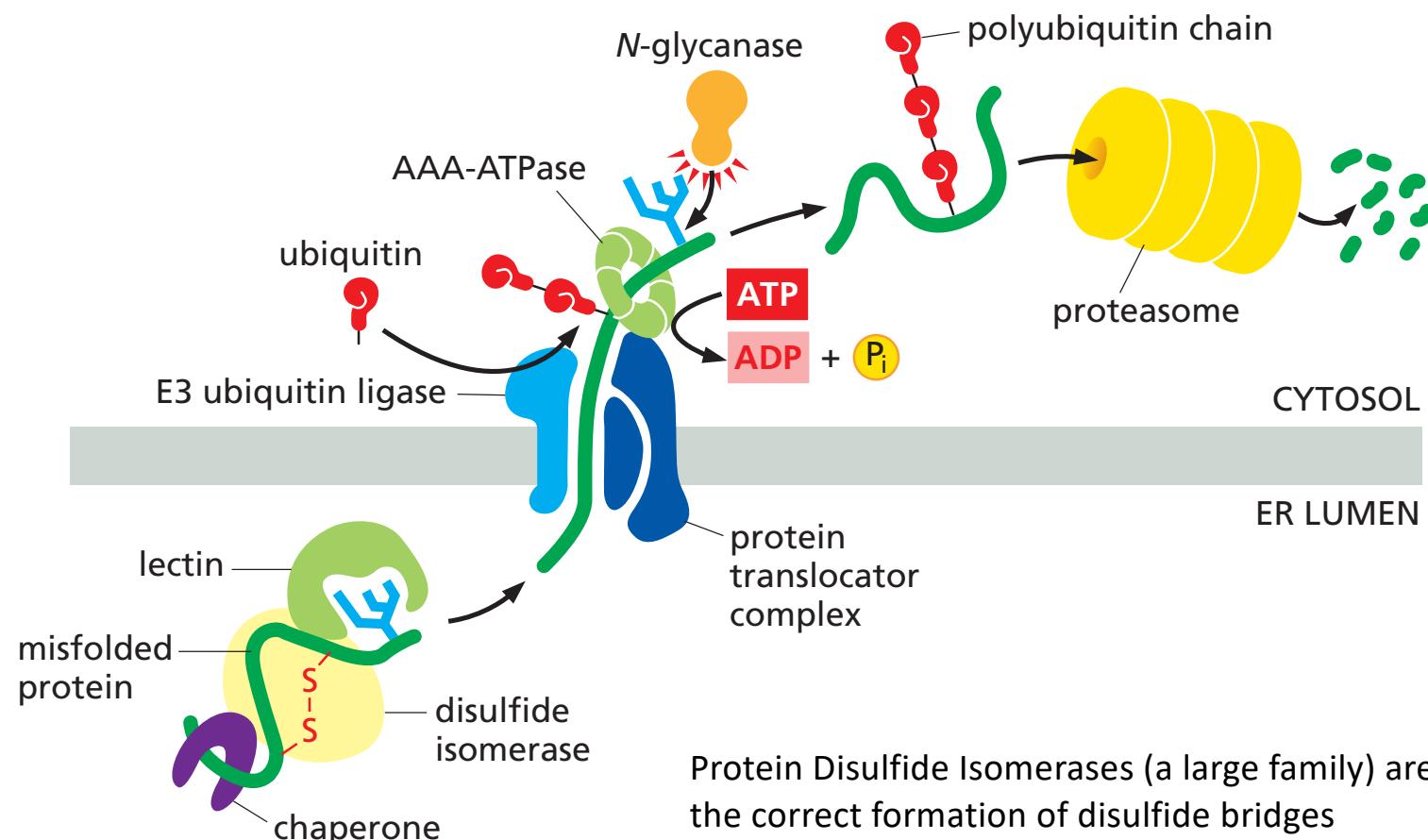
The ER also contains mannosidase, but this one has a slower activity than the glucosyl-transferase

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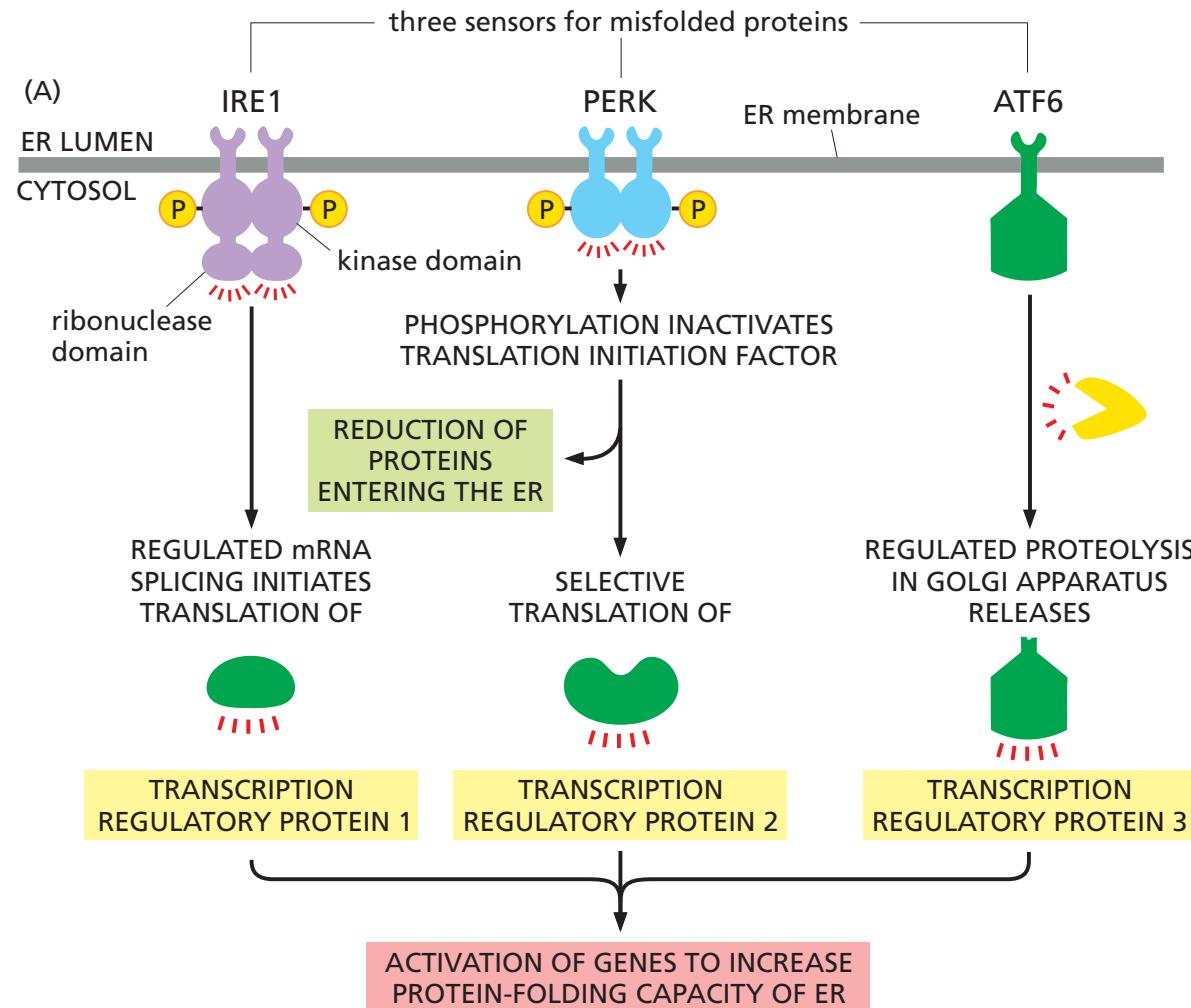
What happens if a protein is not properly folded in the ER?

The export and degradation of misfolded ER proteins



Protein Disulfide Isomerases (a large family) are necessary for the correct formation of disulfide bridges
Disulfide bridges are essential for protein stability, function and probably also guide folding

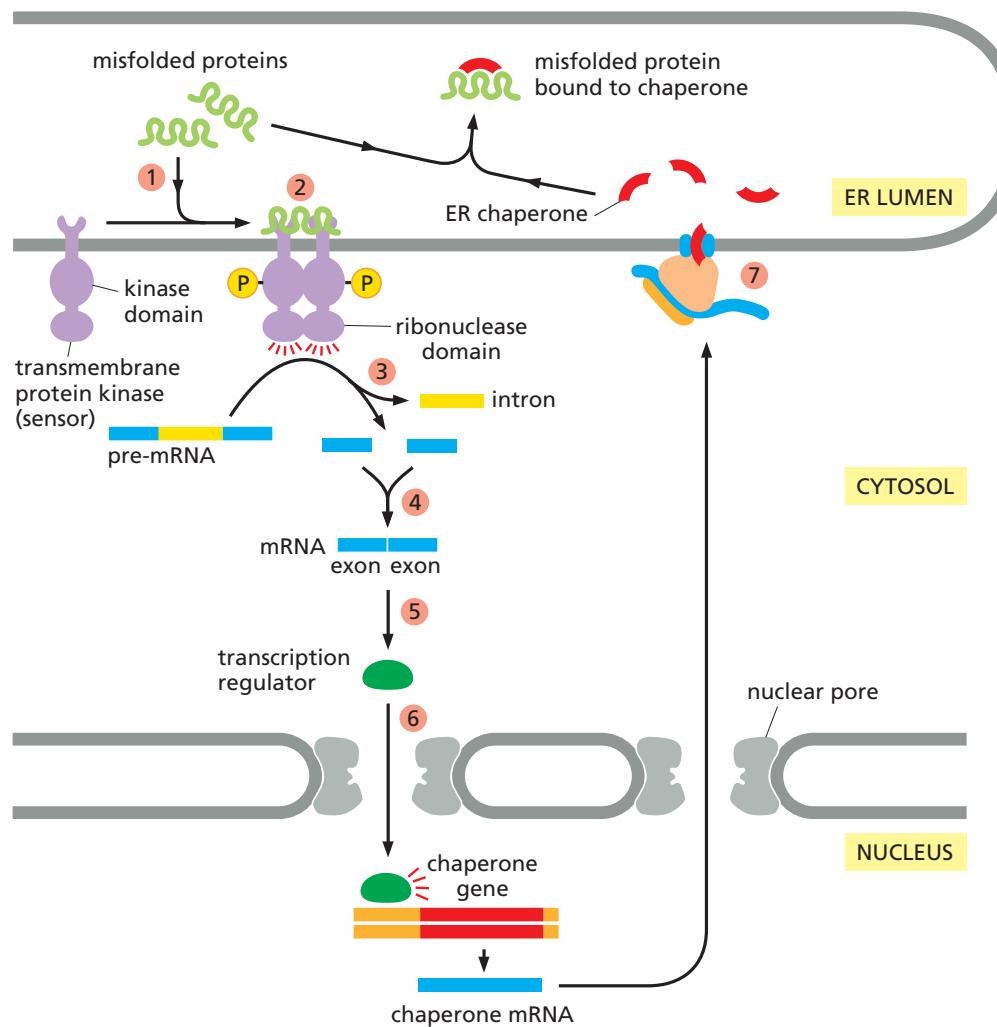
Too many improperly fold proteins leads to the unfolded protein response



The unfolded protein response

(B)

- 1 MISFOLDED PROTEINS IN ER SIGNAL THE NEED FOR MORE ER CHAPERONES. THEY BIND TO AND ACTIVATE A TRANSMEMBRANE KINASE
- 2 ACTIVATED KINASE UNMASKS AN ENDORIBONUCLEASE ACTIVITY
- 3 ENDORIBONUCLEASE CUTS SPECIFIC RNA MOLECULES AT TWO POSITIONS, REMOVING AN INTRON
- 4 TWO EXONS ARE LIGATED TO FORM AN ACTIVE mRNA
- 5 mRNA IS TRANSLATED TO MAKE A TRANSCRIPTION REGULATOR
- 6 TRANSCRIPTION REGULATOR ENTERS NUCLEUS AND ACTIVATES GENES ENCODING ER CHAPERONES
- 7 CHAPERONES ARE MADE IN ER, WHERE THEY HELP FOLD PROTEINS



Synthesis of lipids in the ER

The synthesis of phosphatidylcholine

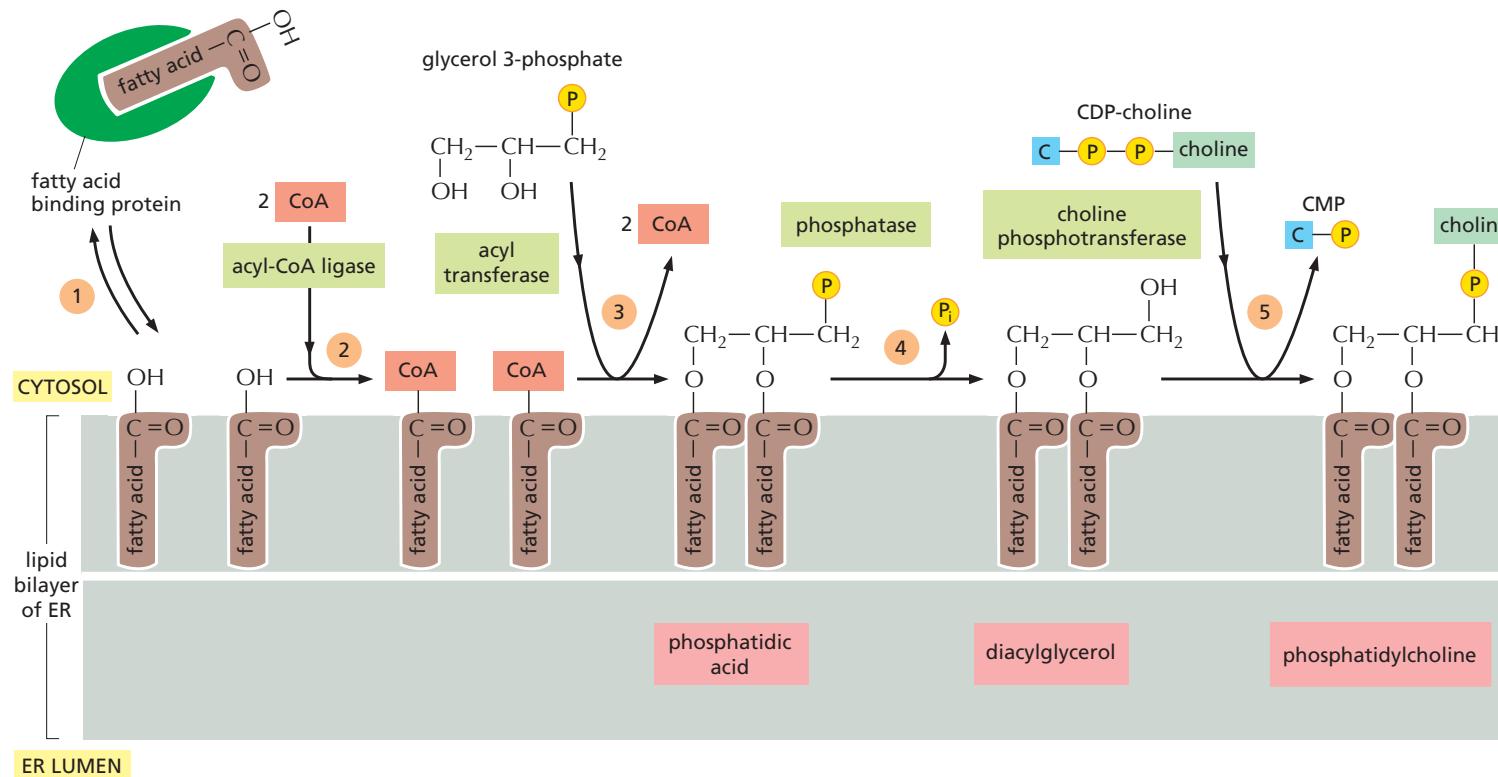


Figure 12–53 The synthesis of phosphatidylcholine. As illustrated, this phospholipid is synthesized from glycerol 3-phosphate, cytidine-diphosphocholine (CDP-choline), and fatty acids delivered to the ER by a cytosolic fatty acid binding protein.

The role of phospholipid translocators in lipid bilayer synthesis

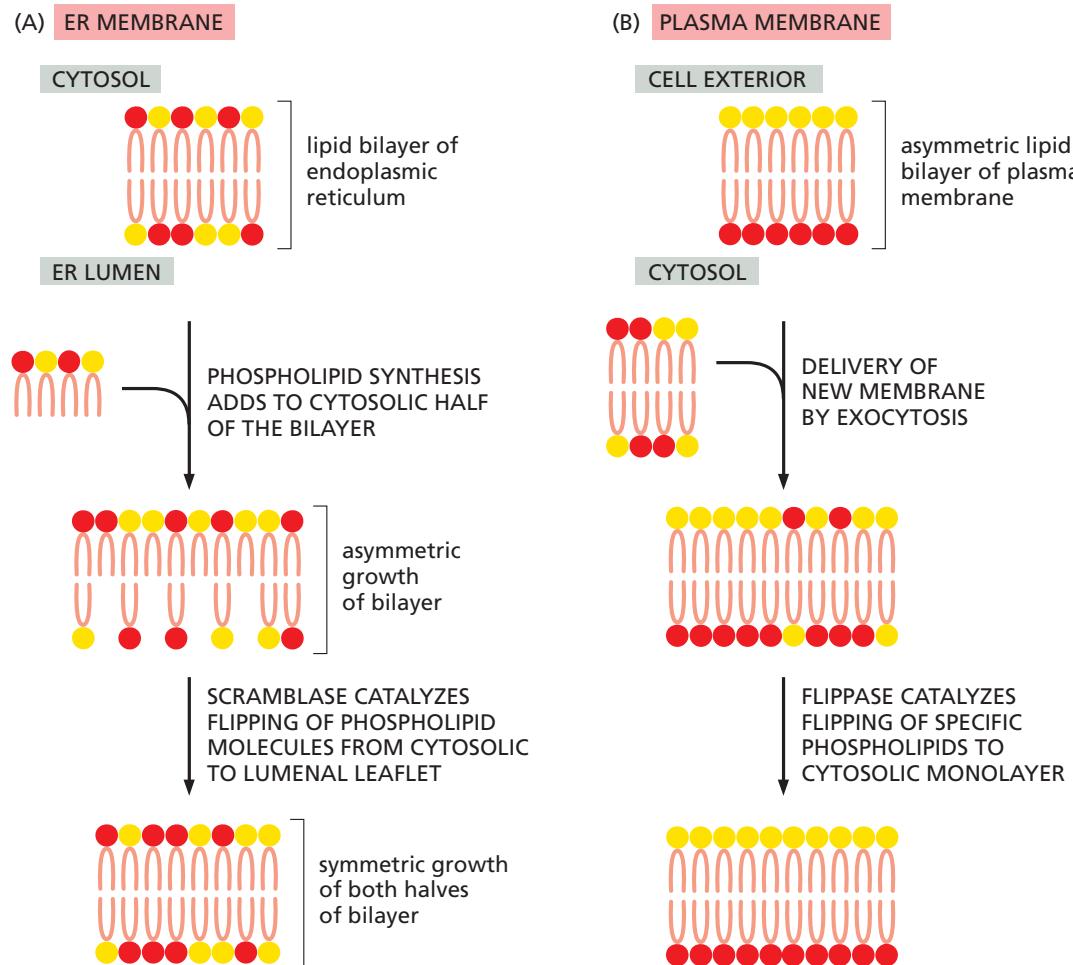


Figure 12–54 The role of phospholipid translocators in lipid bilayer synthesis.

(A) Because new lipid molecules are added only to the cytosolic half of the ER membrane bilayer and lipid molecules do not flip spontaneously from one monolayer to the other, a transmembrane phospholipid translocator (called a scramblase) is required to transfer lipid molecules from the cytosolic half to the luminal half so that the membrane grows as a bilayer. The scramblase is not specific for particular phospholipid head groups and therefore equilibrates the different phospholipids between the two monolayers. (B) Fueled by ATP hydrolysis, a head-group-specific flippase in the plasma membrane actively flips phosphatidylserine and phosphatidylethanolamine directionally from the extracellular to the cytosolic leaflet, creating the characteristically asymmetric lipid bilayer of the plasma membrane of animal cells (see Figure 10–15).

Intracellular Membrane Traffic

CHAPTER
13

IN THIS CHAPTER

THE MOLECULAR MECHANISMS
OF MEMBRANE TRANSPORT
AND THE MAINTENANCE OF
COMPARTMENTAL DIVERSITY

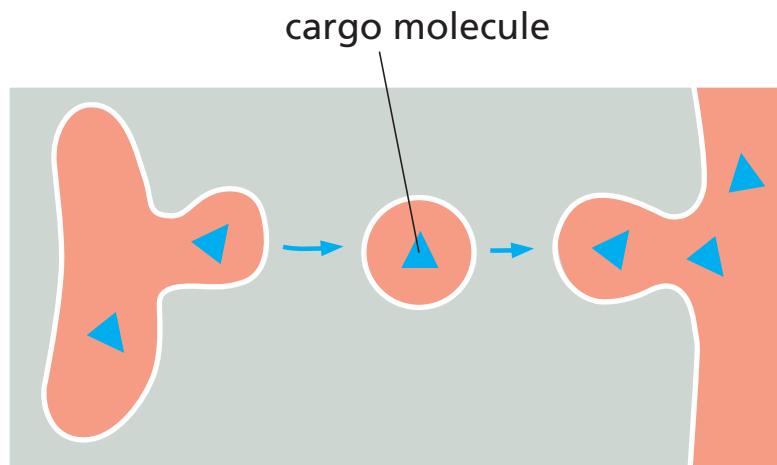
TRANSPORT FROM THE ER
THROUGH THE
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TRANSPORT FROM THE
TRANS GOLGI NETWORK TO
LYSOSOMES

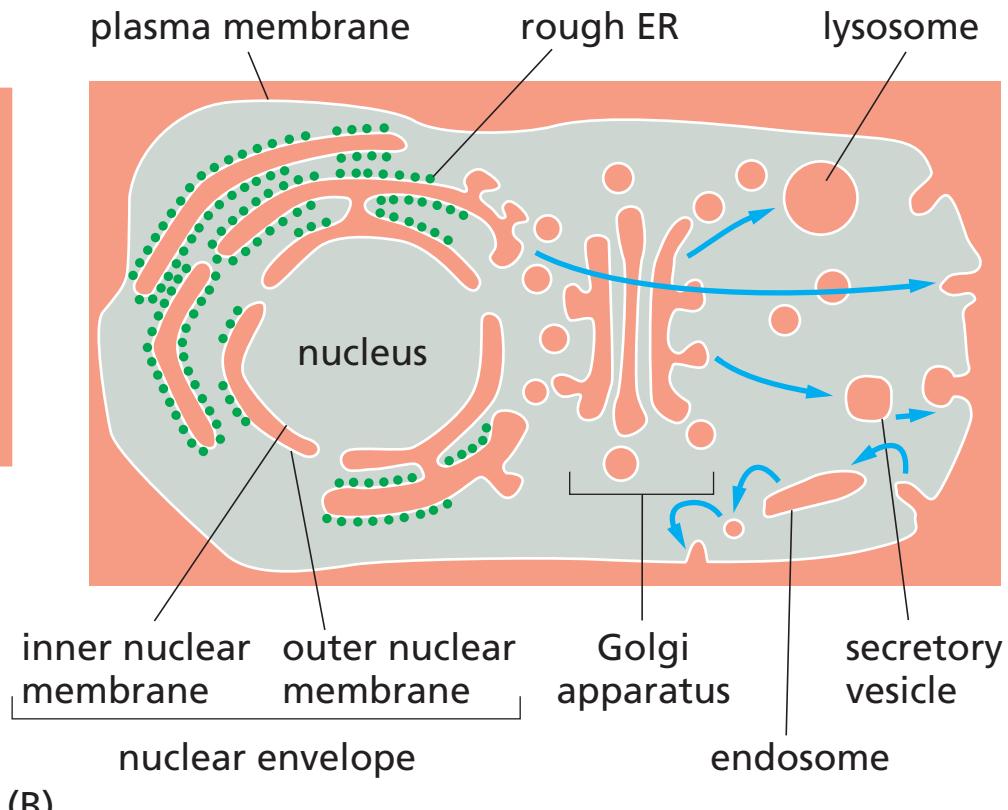
TRANSPORT INTO THE
CELL FROM THE PLASMA
MEMBRANE: ENDOCYTOSIS

TRANSPORT FROM THE TRANS
GOLGI NETWORK TO THE CELL
EXTERIOR: EXOCYTOSIS

Topologically equivalent compartments, are able to “communicate”



(A)

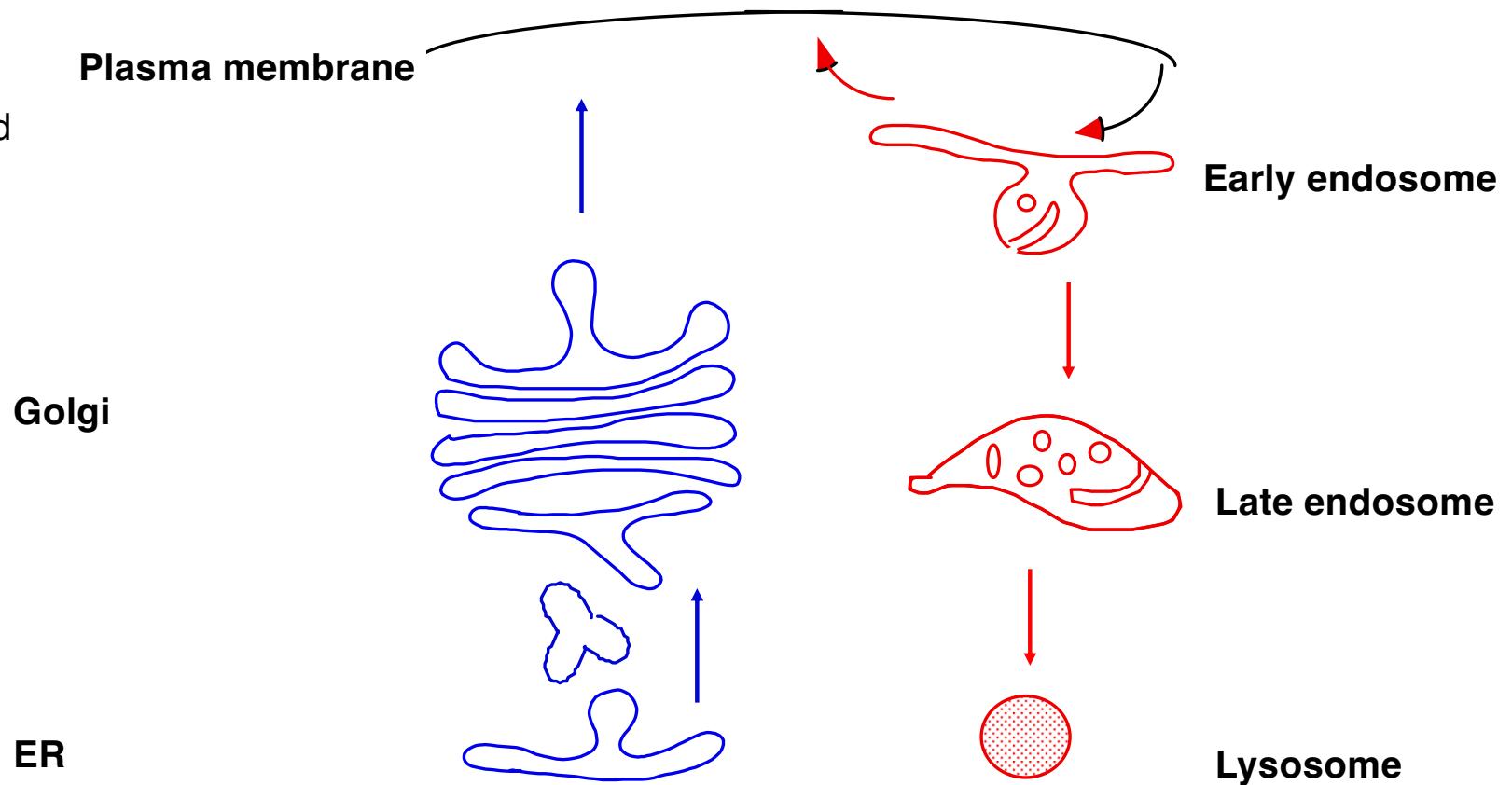


(B)

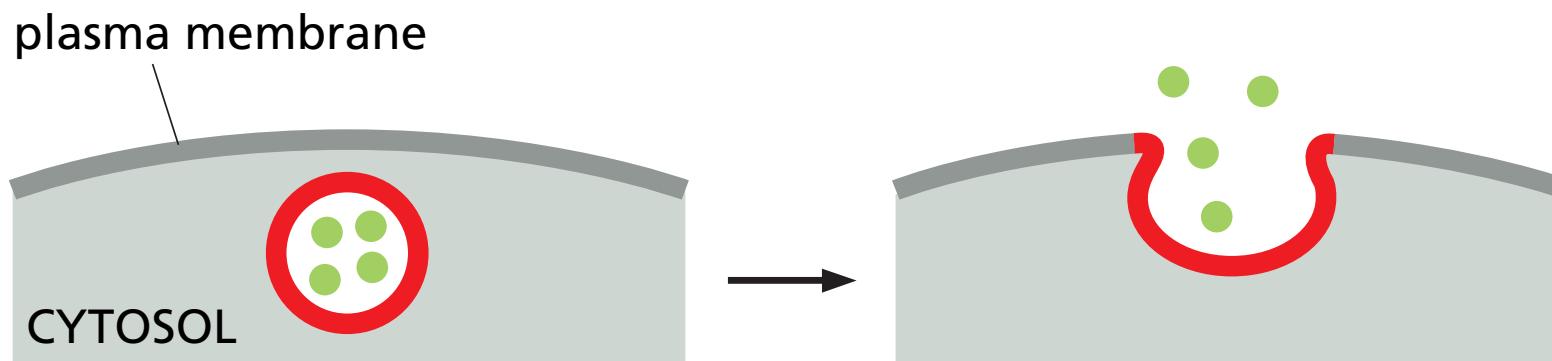
Topology of cellular spaces: the interior of the compartments of the endomembrane system is topologically equivalent to the extracellular space. This is a consequence of vesicular transport.

Transport pathways

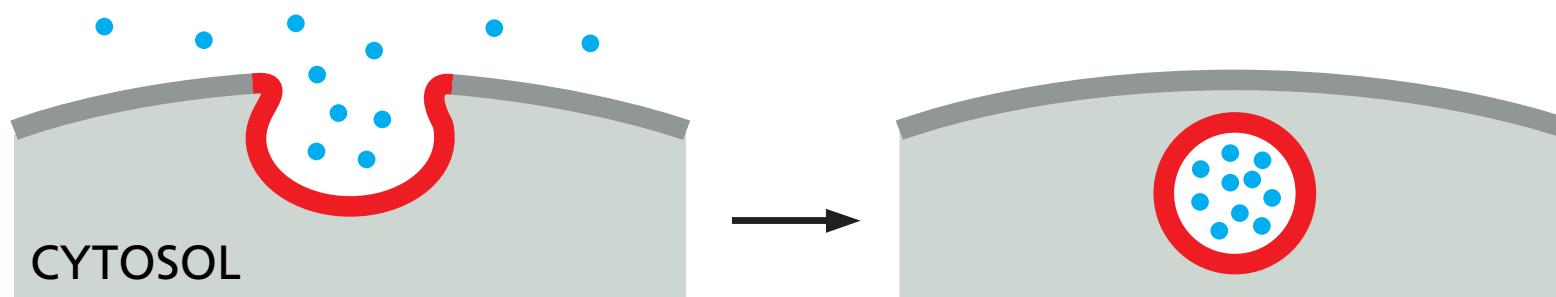
two major intracellular transport pathways:
biosynthesis and **endocytosis**



Uptake and Expulsion at the plasma membrane

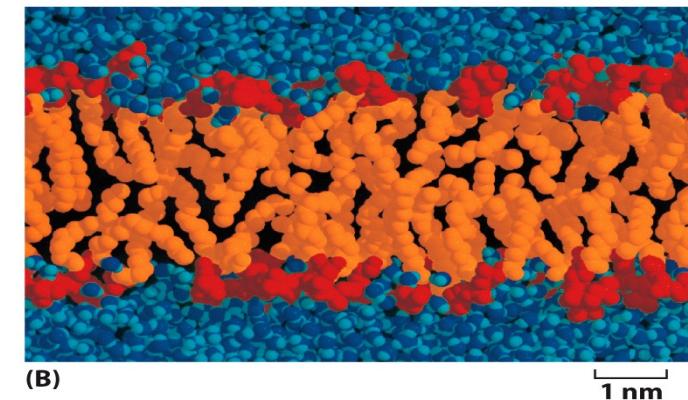
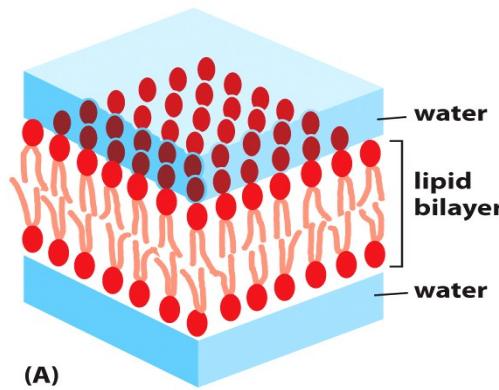
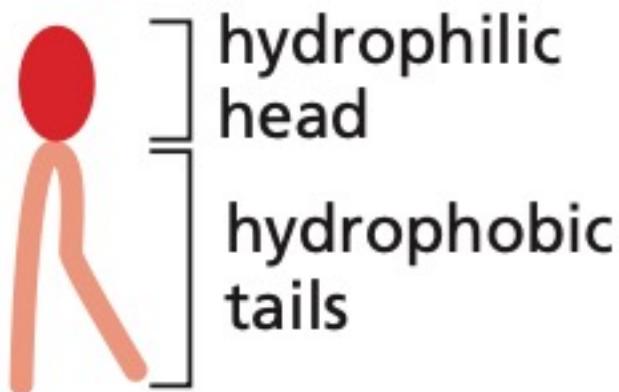
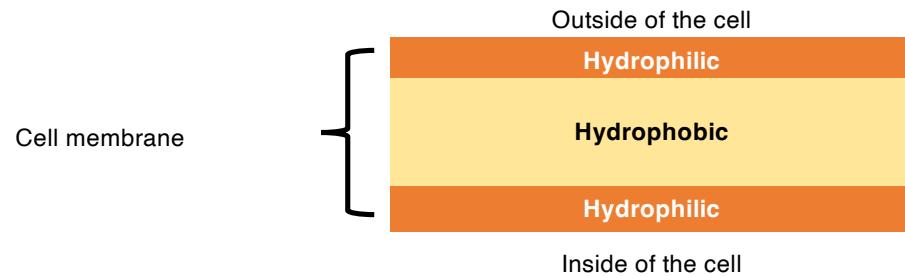


(A) exocytosis

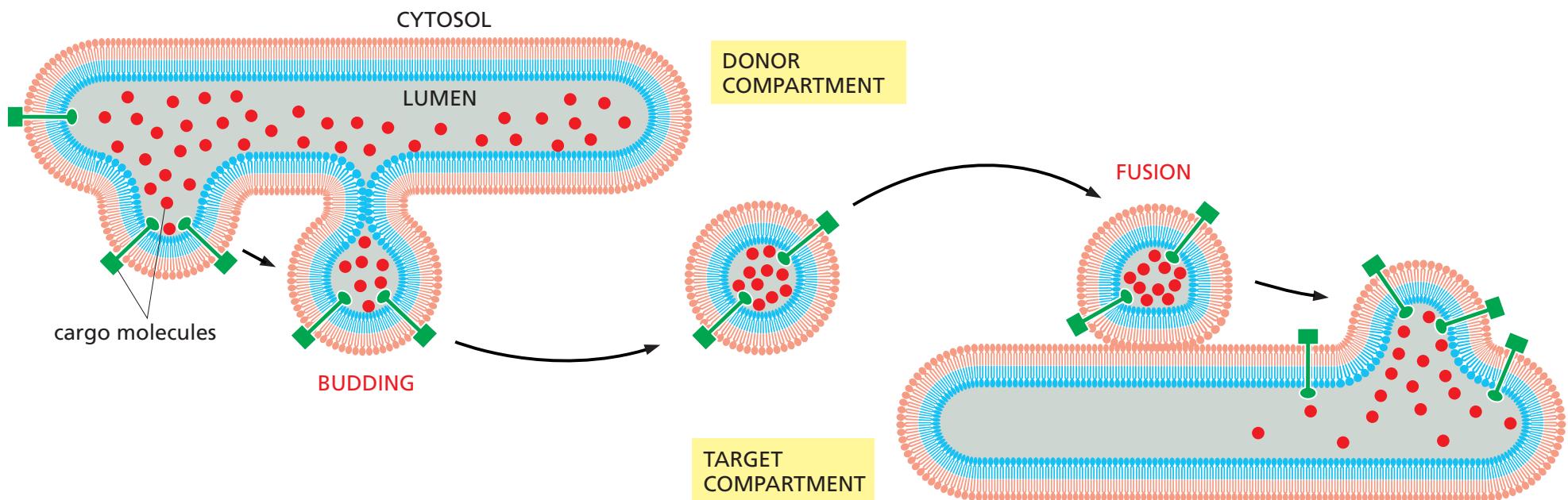


(B) endocytosis

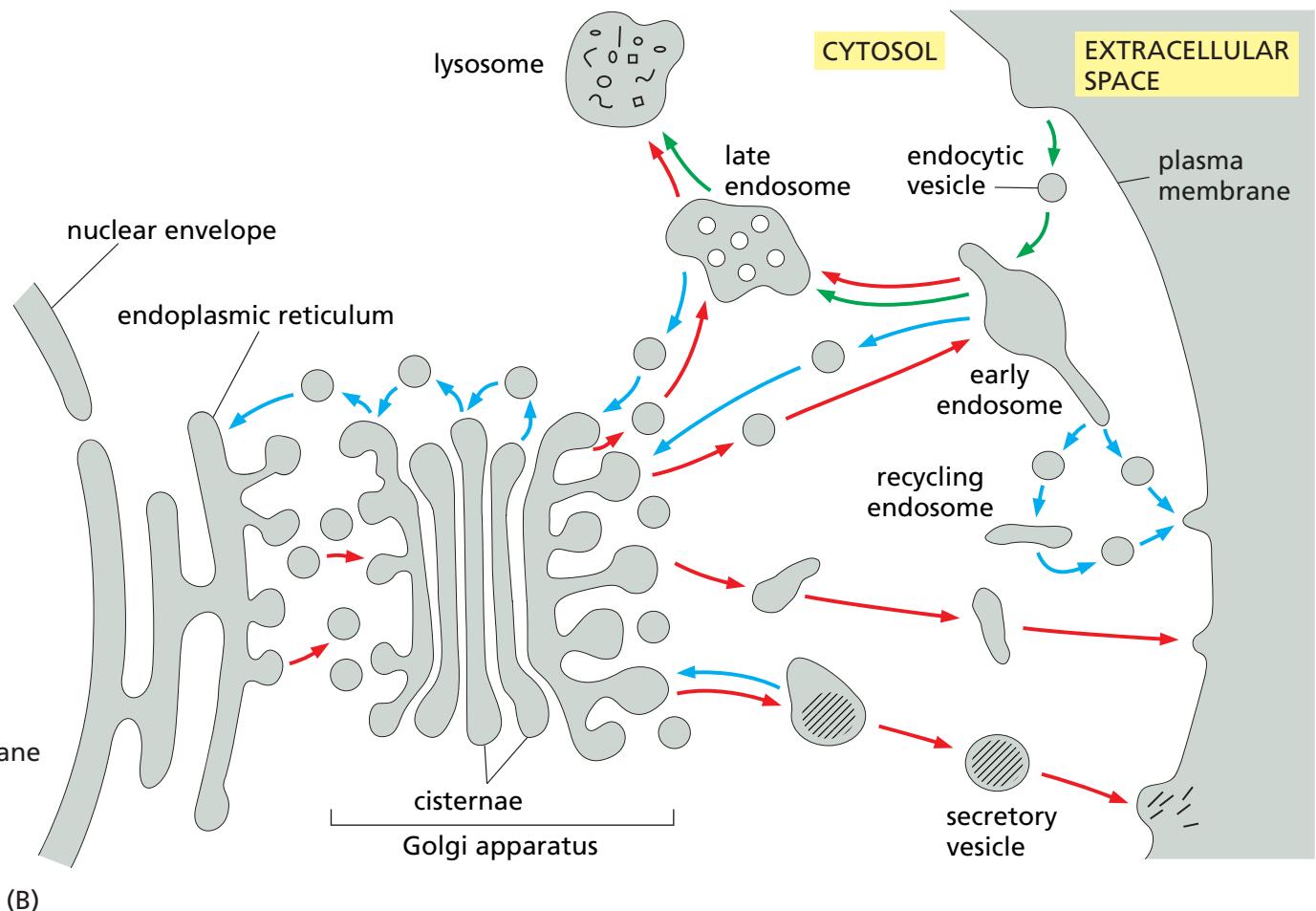
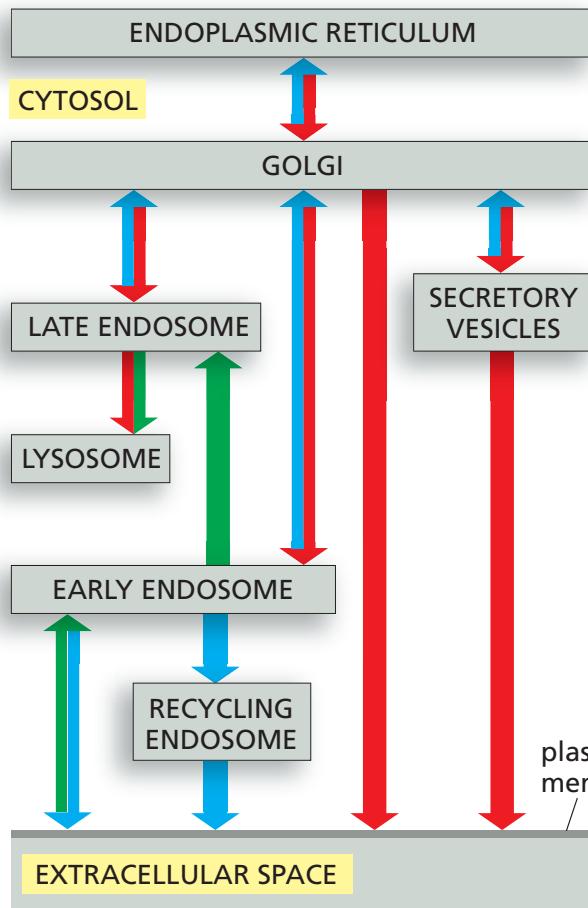
Cell membranes are composed of lipids 50:50 mass ratio



Basics of vesicle transport



Vesicles in the secretory and endocytic pathways



Two “problems” to solve in vesicle transport

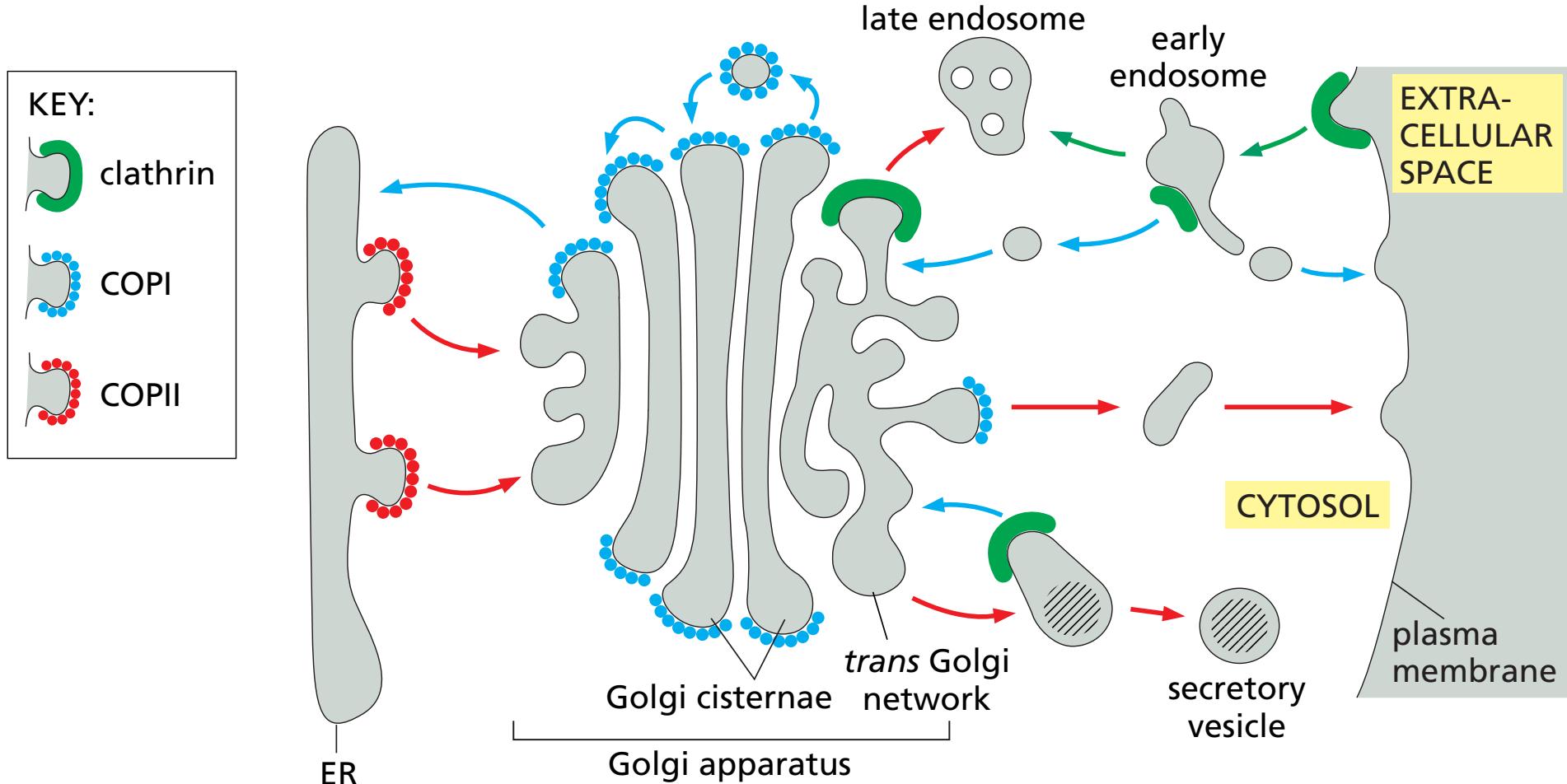
Mechanism

- Form a bud
- Detach a vesicle
- Move the vesicle optimally through the cell
- Merge the vesicle with an acceptor compartment
- Ensure that the compartments remain constant in size

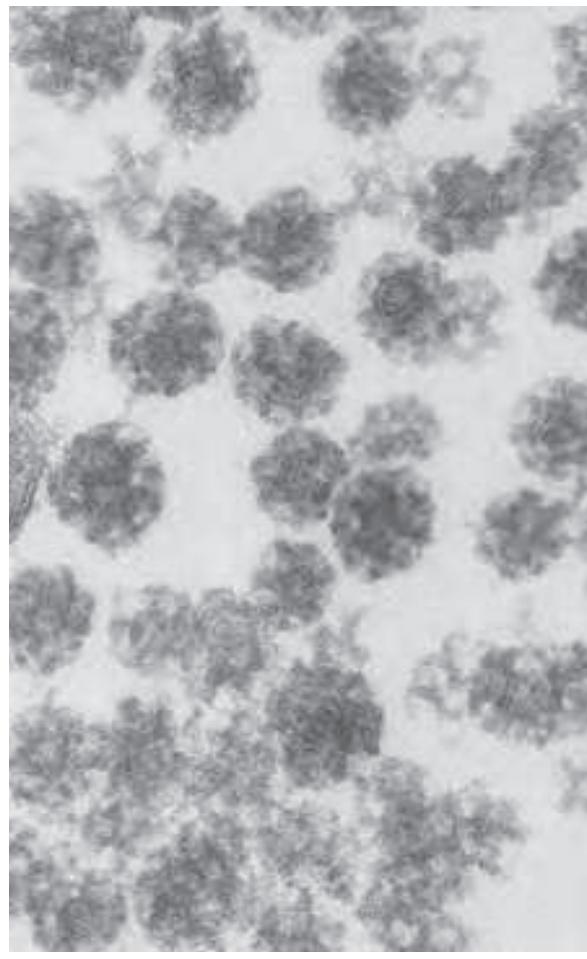
Specificity

- Put the right proteins in the nascent vesicle
- Address the vesicle to the right compartment

Use of different coats for different steps in vesicle traffic

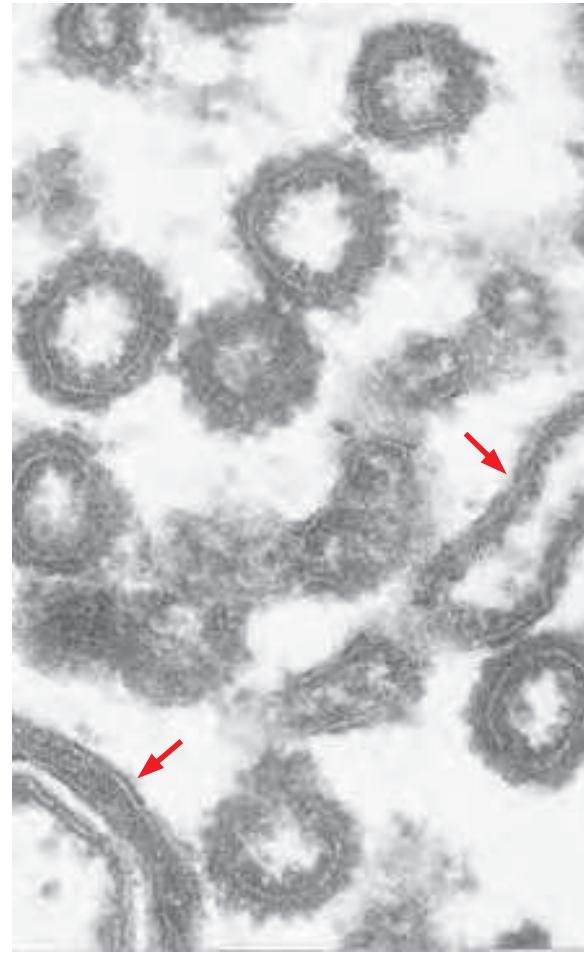


Electron micrographs of clathrin-coated, COPI-coated, and COPII-coated vesicles



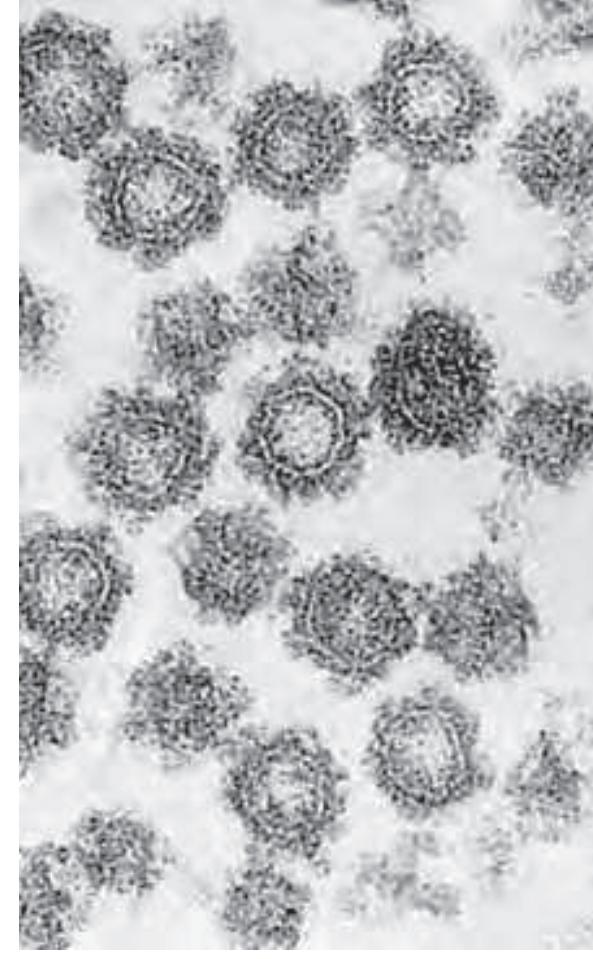
(A)

clathrin



(B)

COPI

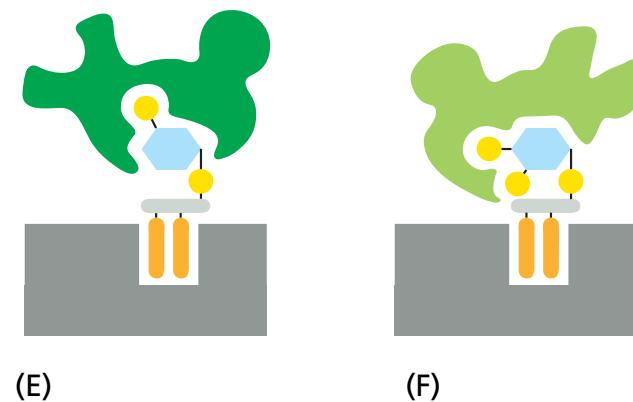
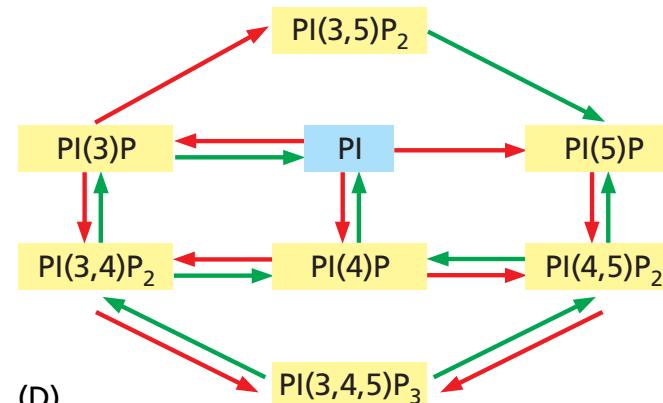
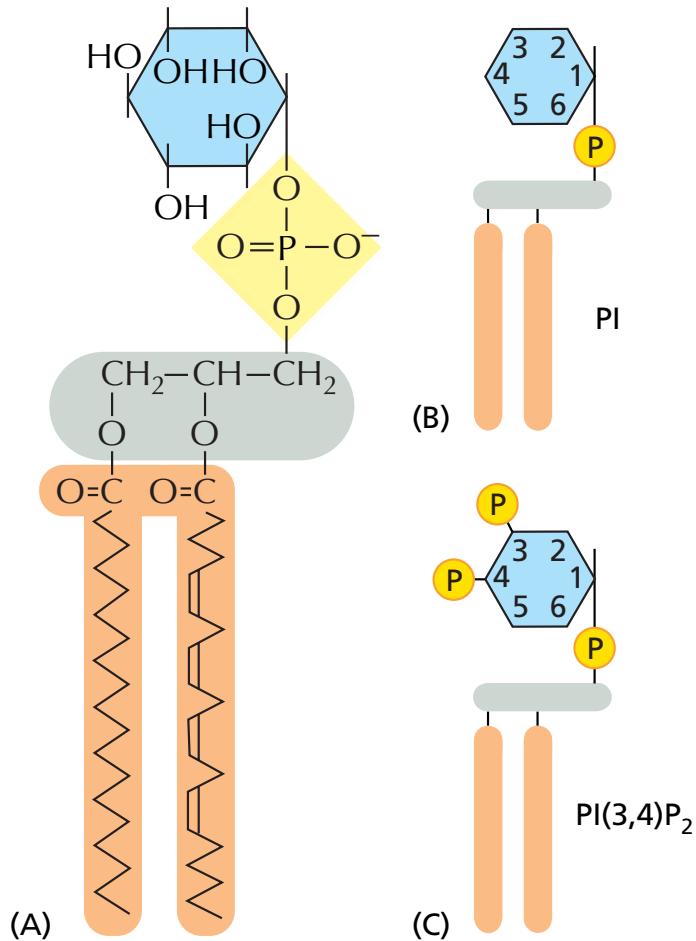


(C)

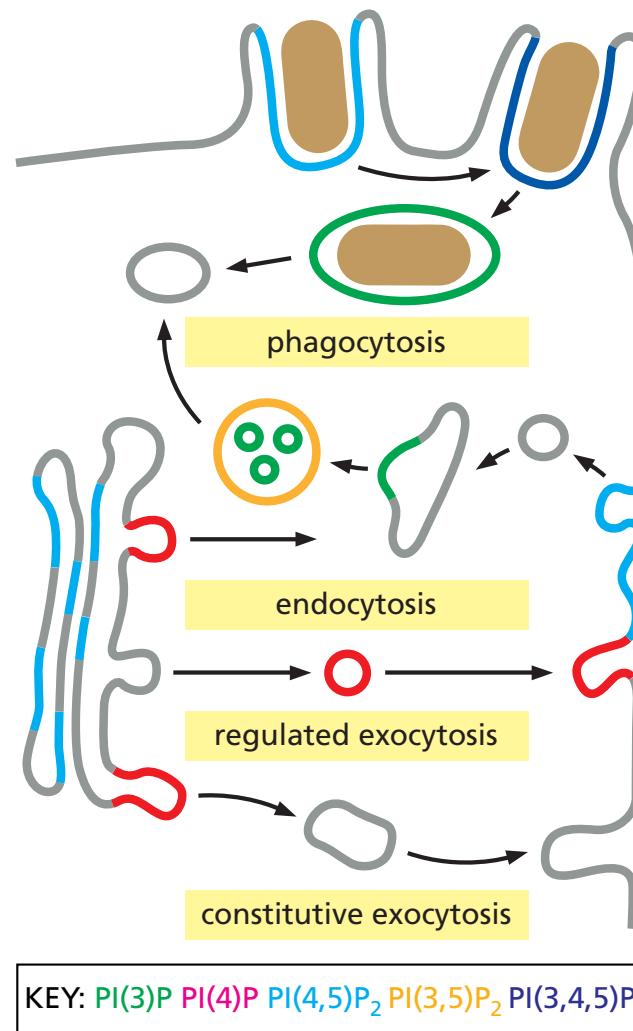
COPII

100 nm

Phosphatidylinositol (PI) and phosphoinositides (PIPs)

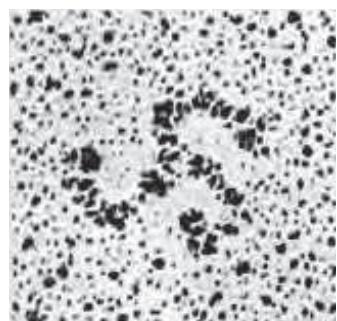


The intracellular location of phosphoinositides

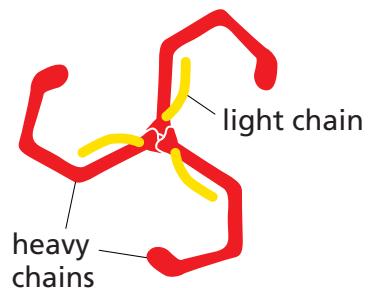


Clathrin Coated vesicles

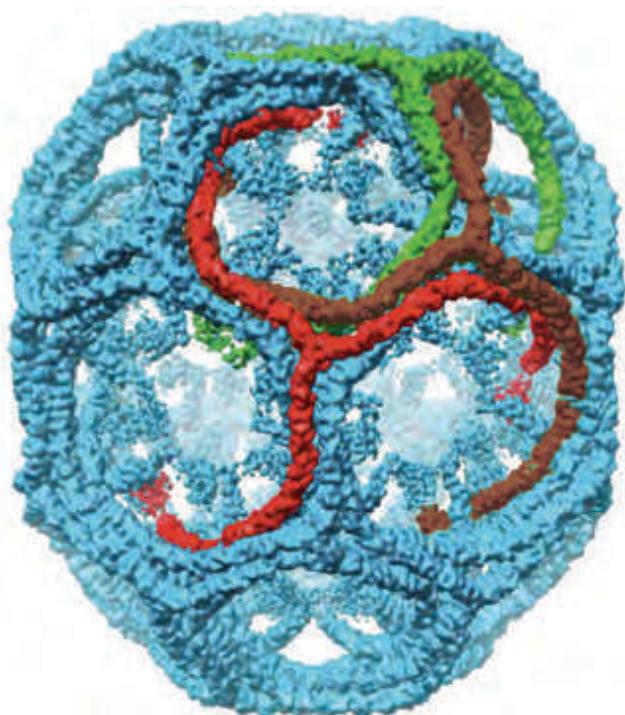
The structure of a clathrin coat



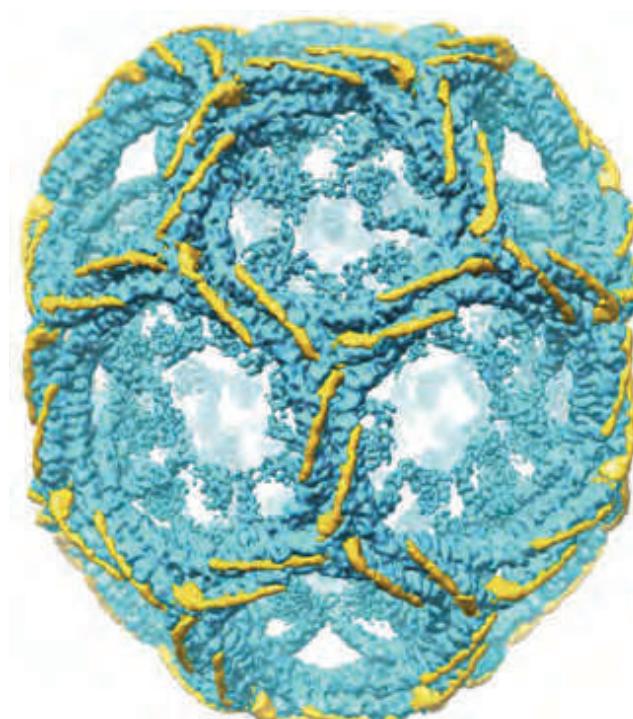
(A)



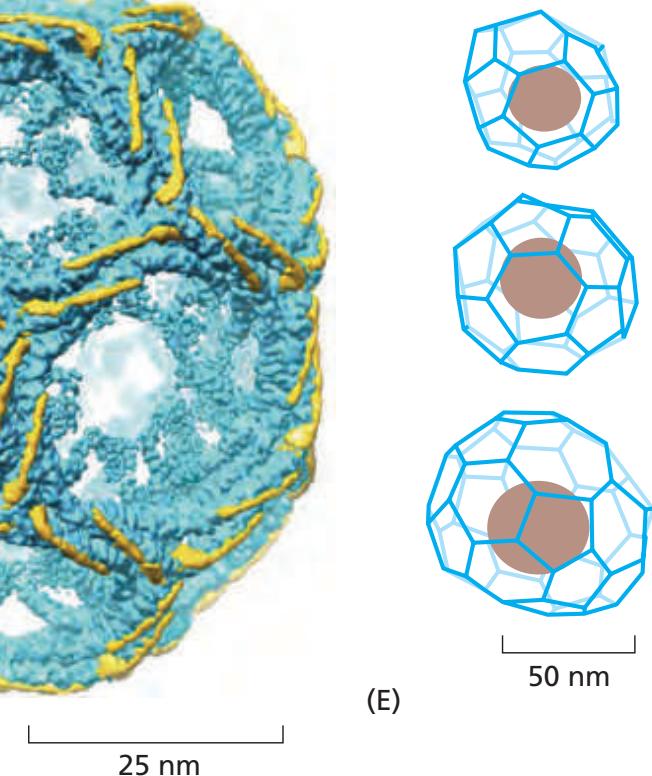
(B)



(C)



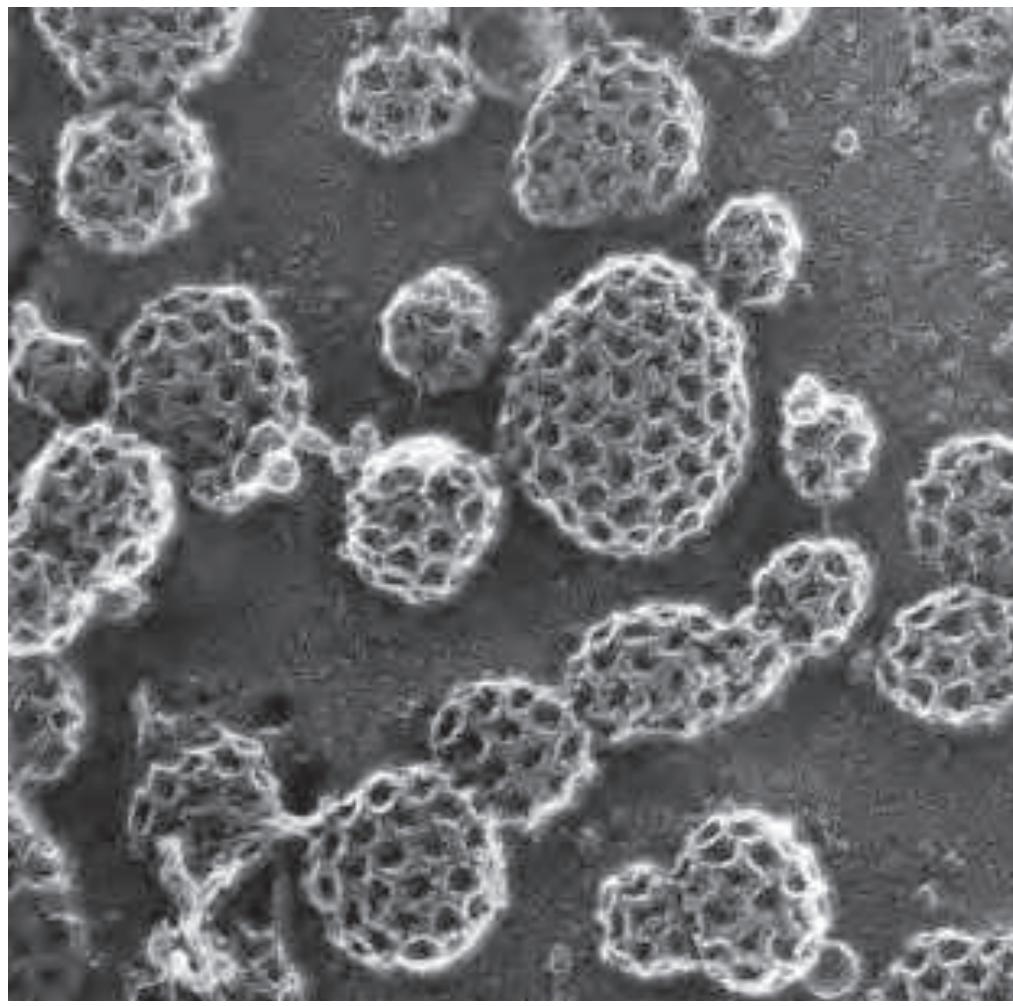
(D)



(E)

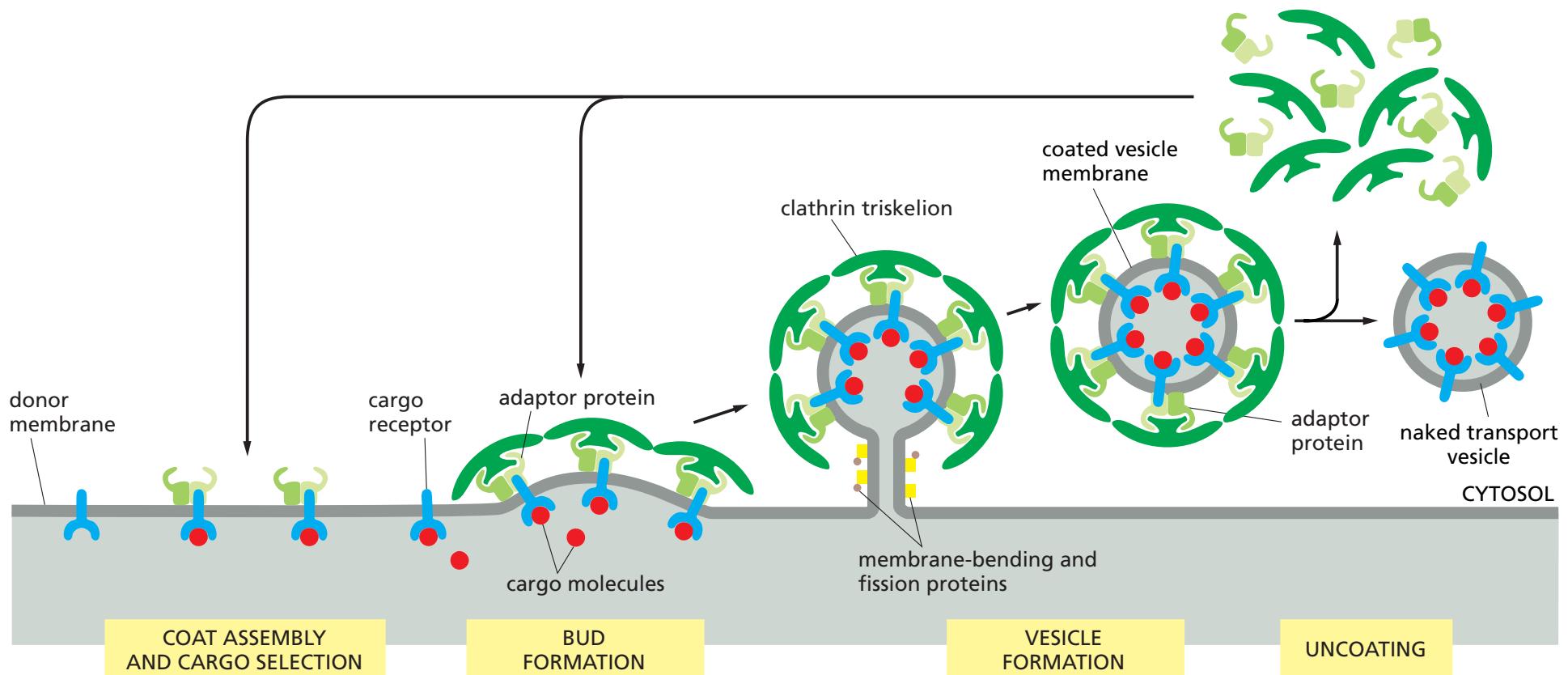
25 nm

Clathrin-coated pits and vesicles

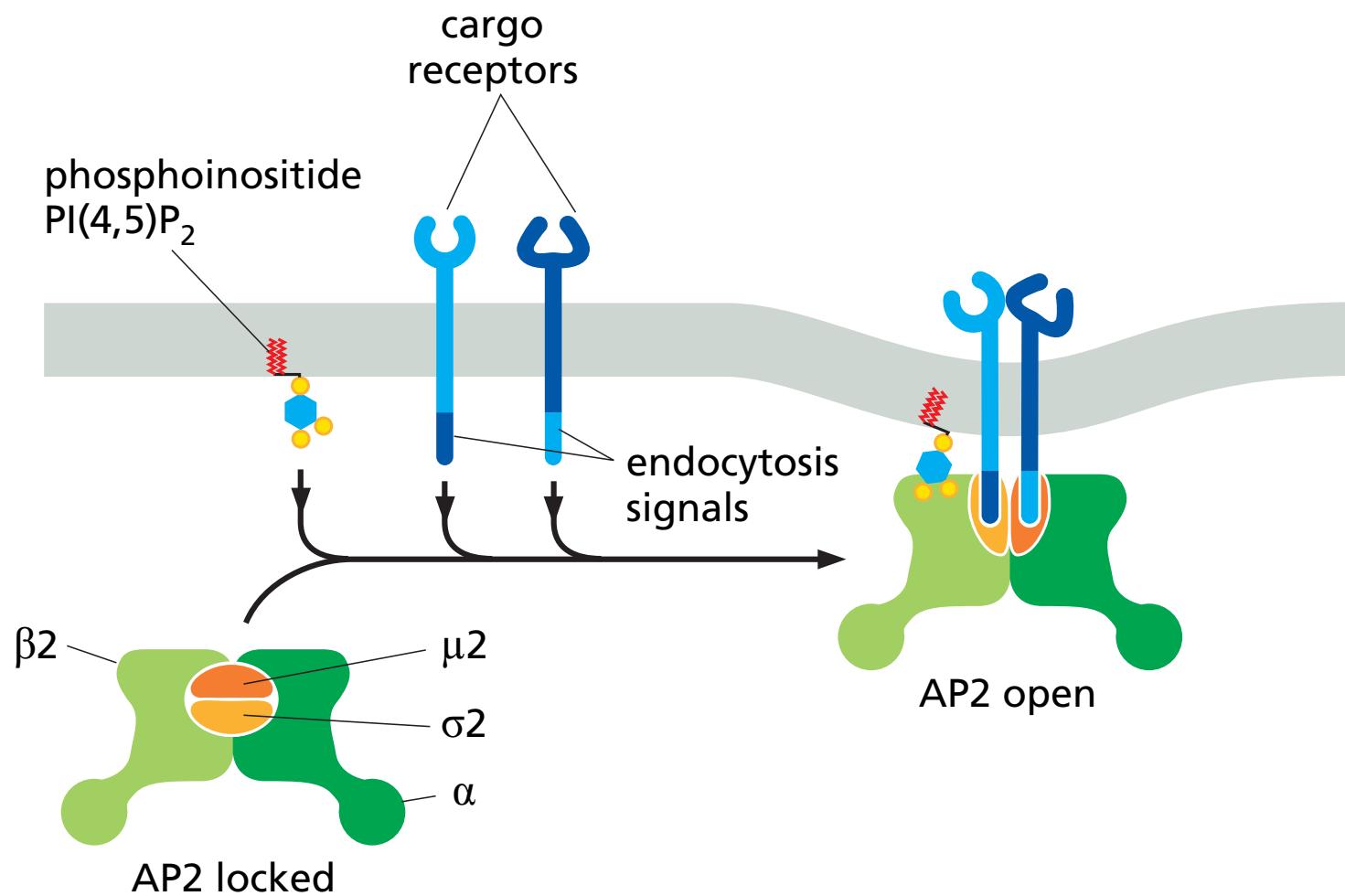


0.2 μ m

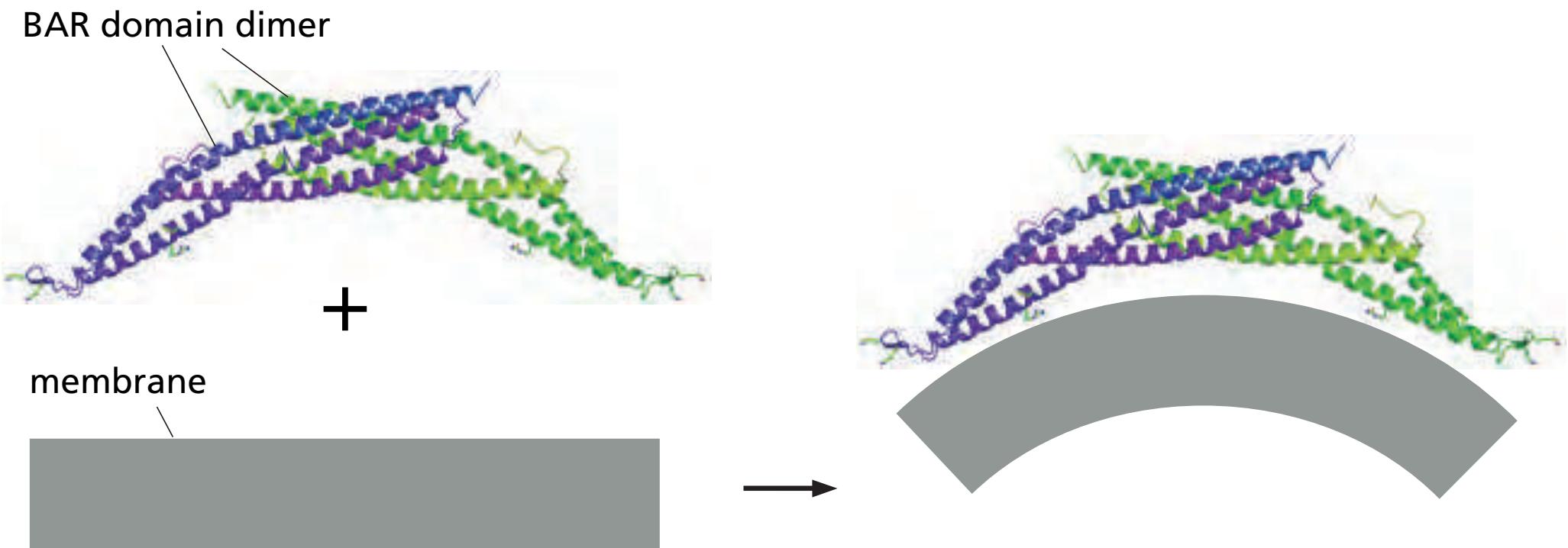
The assembly and disassembly of a clathrin coat



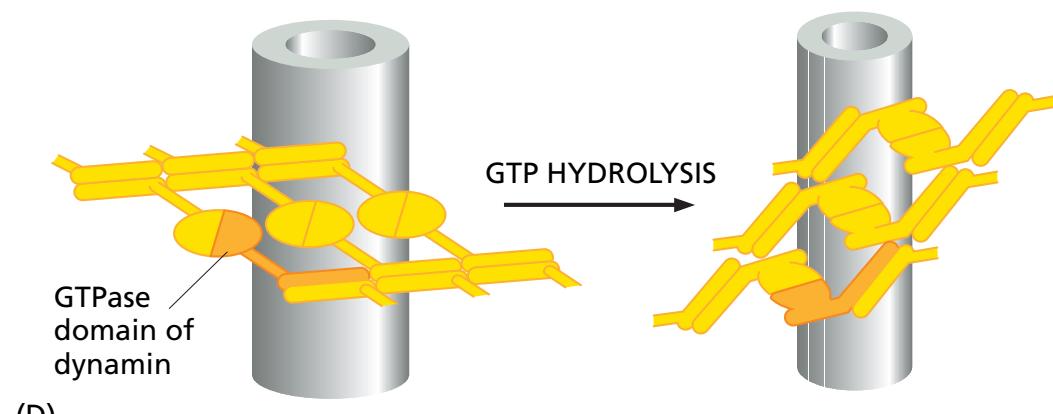
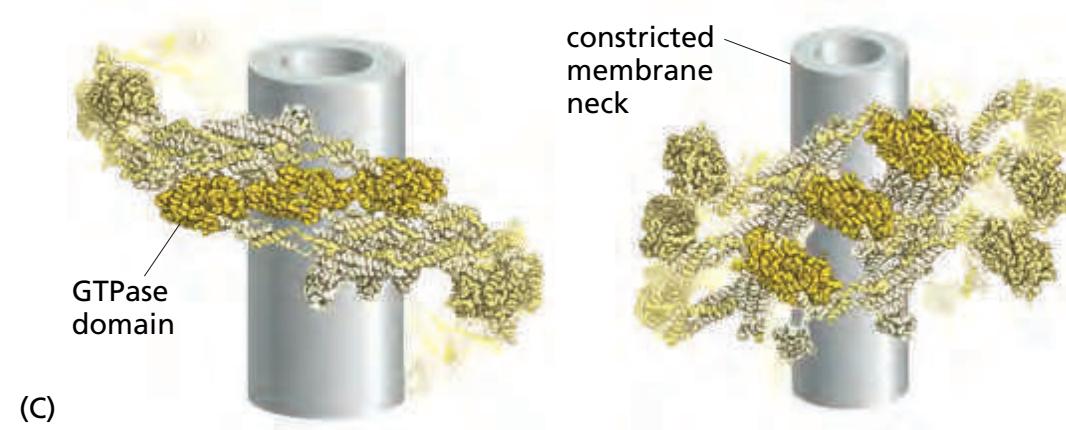
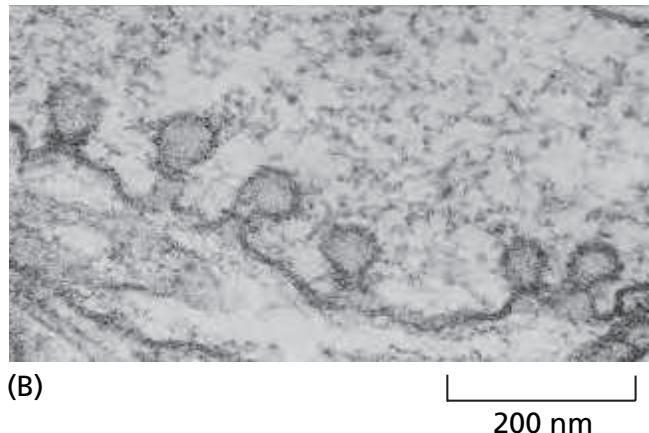
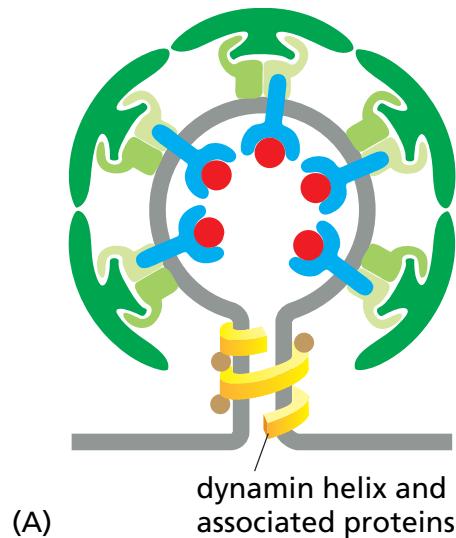
Lipid-induced conformation switching of AP2



The structure of BAR domains and membrane bending

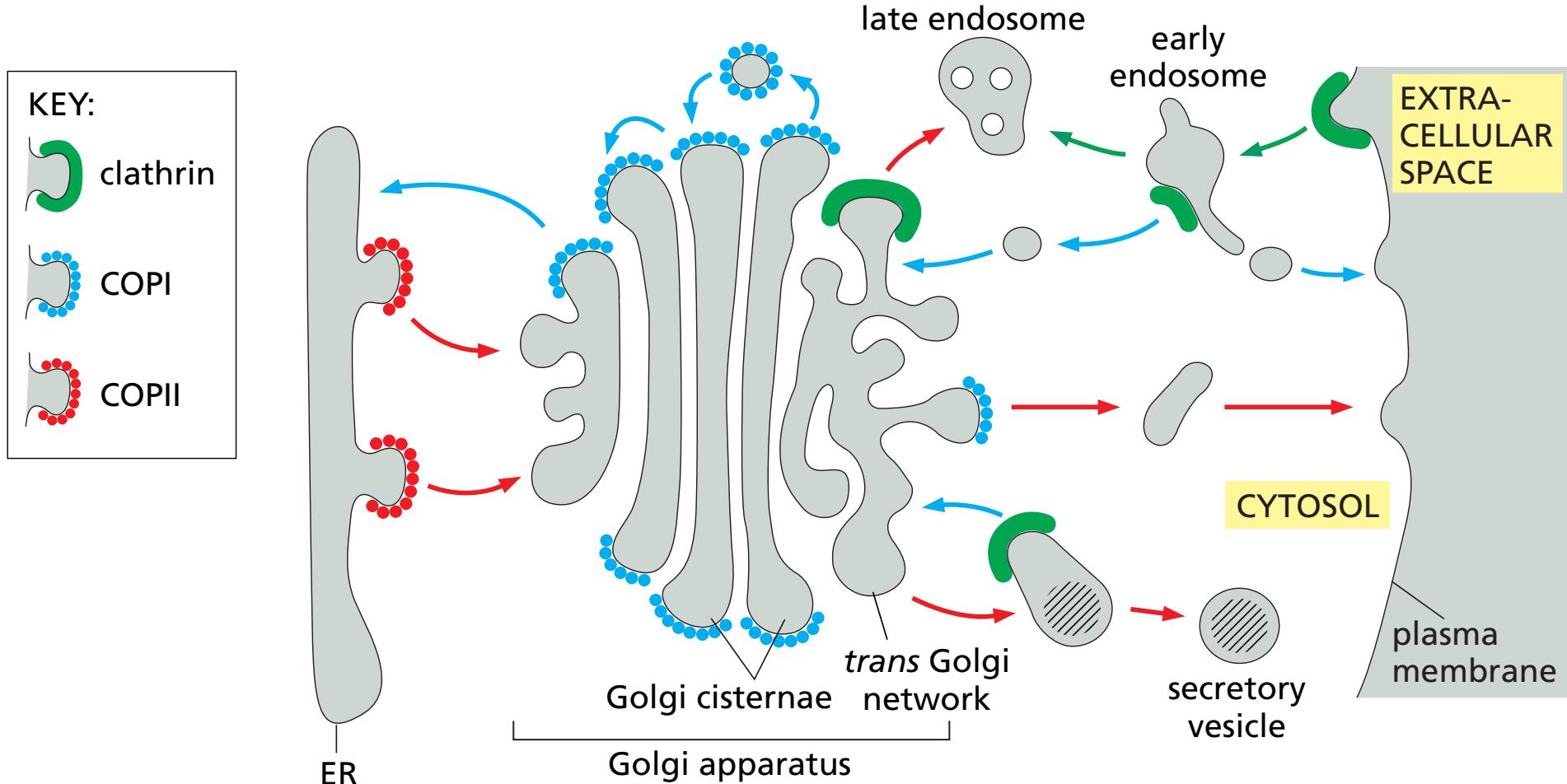


pinching off clathrin-coated vesicles: Dynamin

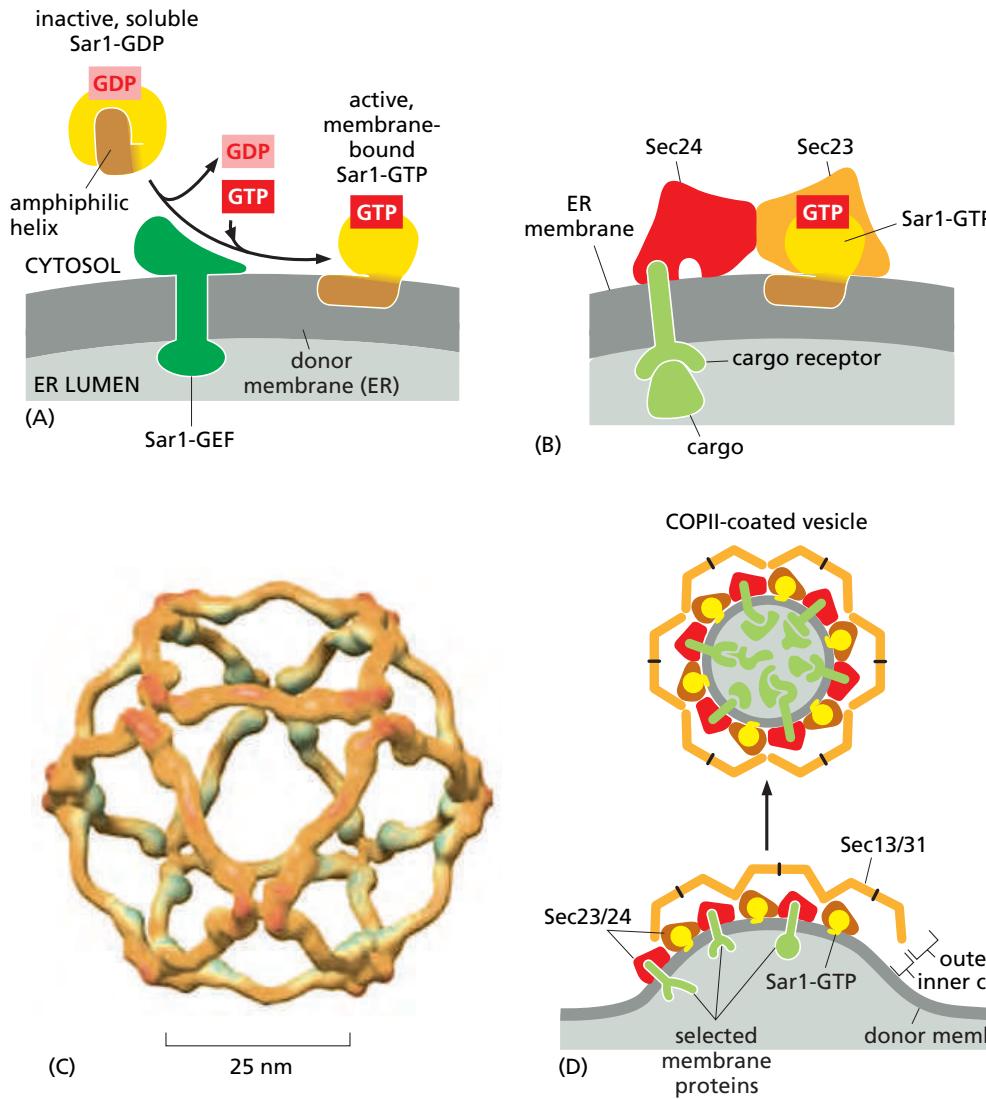


CopII Coated vesicles

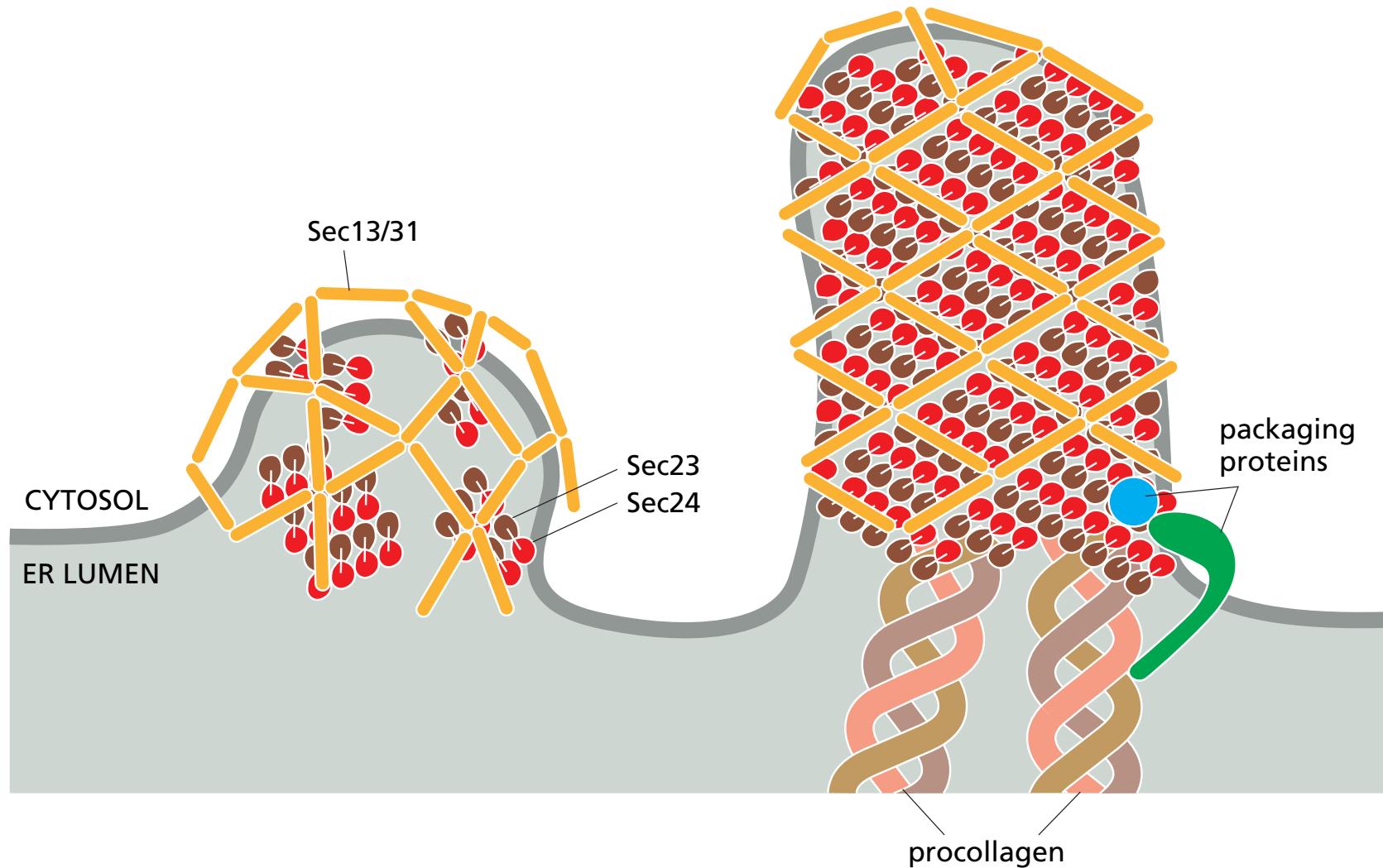
Use of different coats for different steps in vesicle traffic



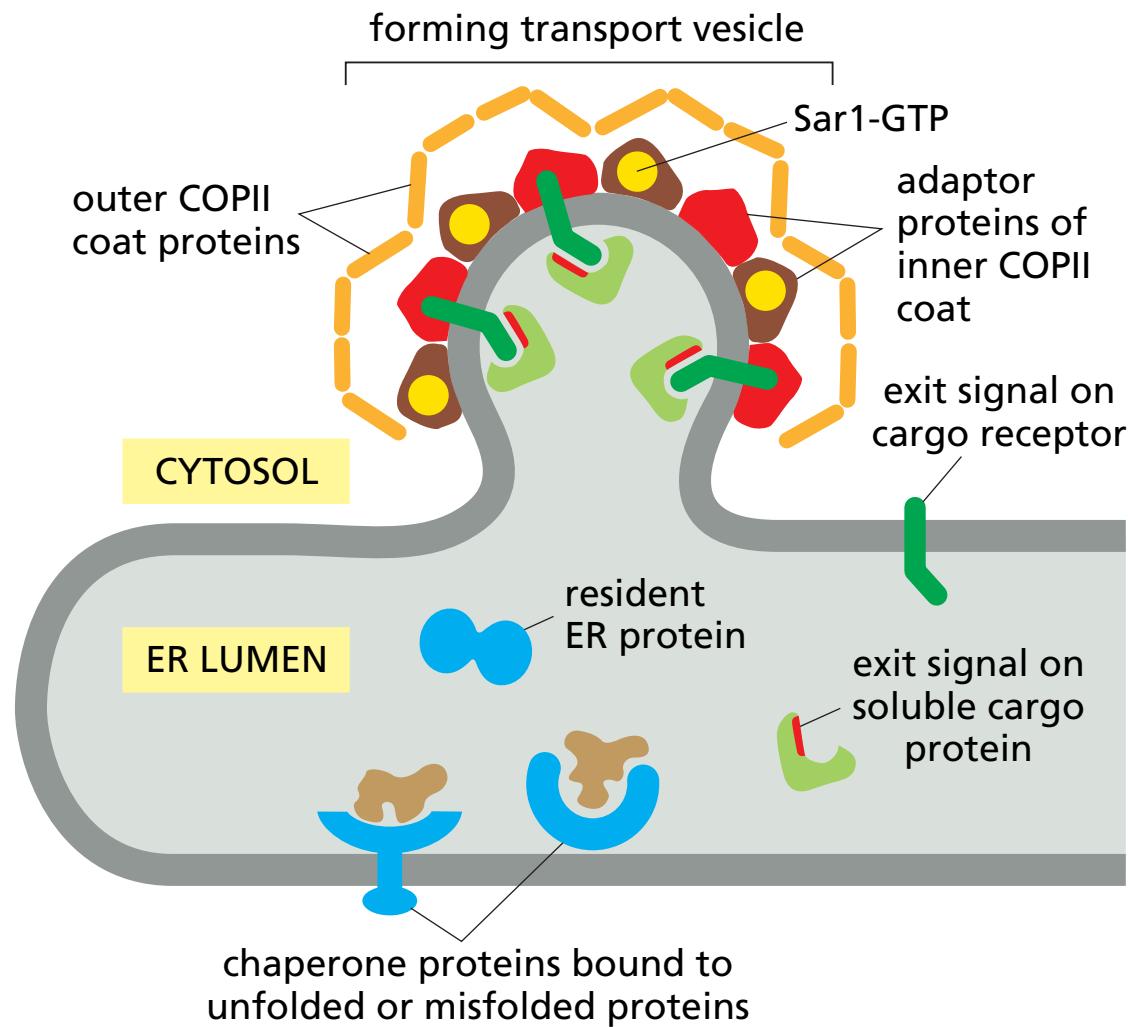
Formation of a COPII-coated vesicle



Non spherical vesicle: packaging of procollagen into large tubular COPII-coated vesicles

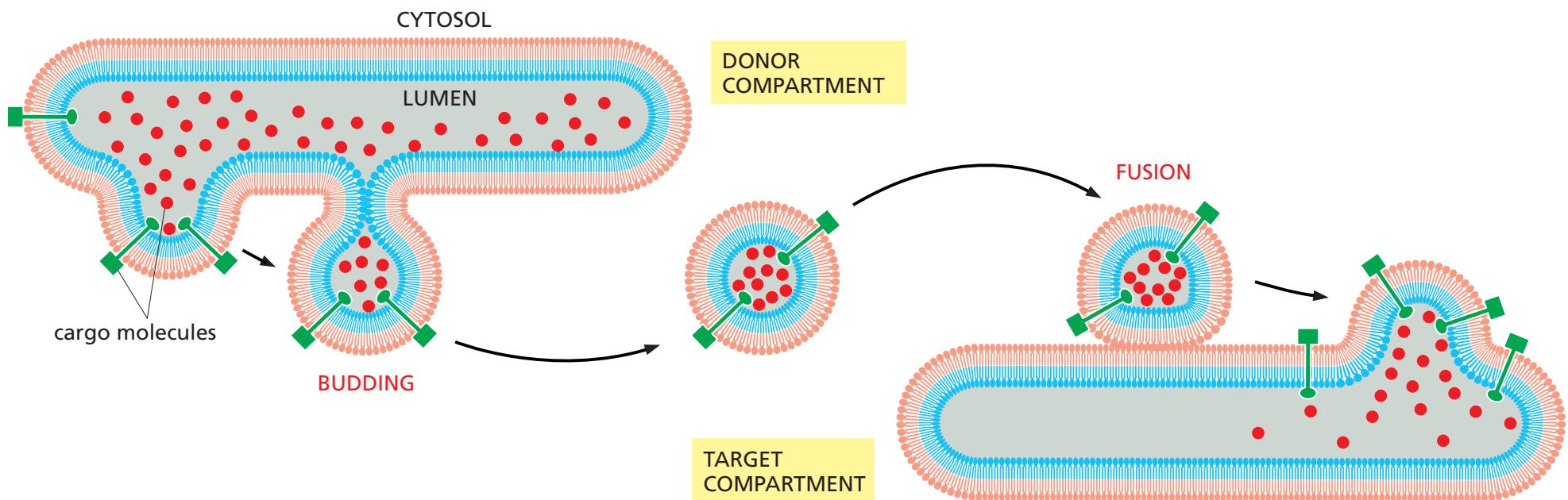


The recruitment of membrane and soluble cargo molecules into ER transport vesicles

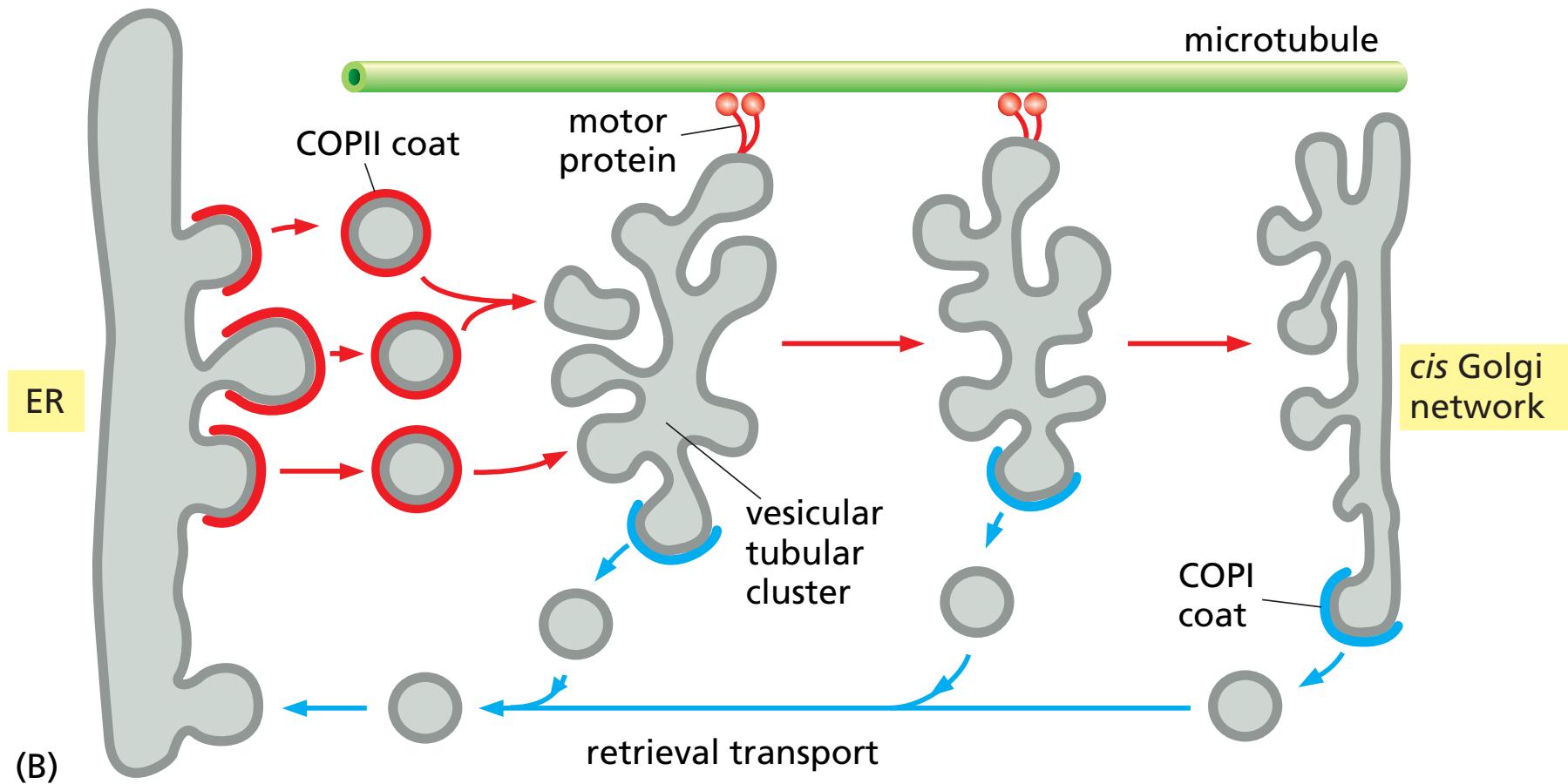


Movement of vesicles is aided by the cytoskeleton

Basics of vesicle transport



Movement of vesicles goes across microtubules

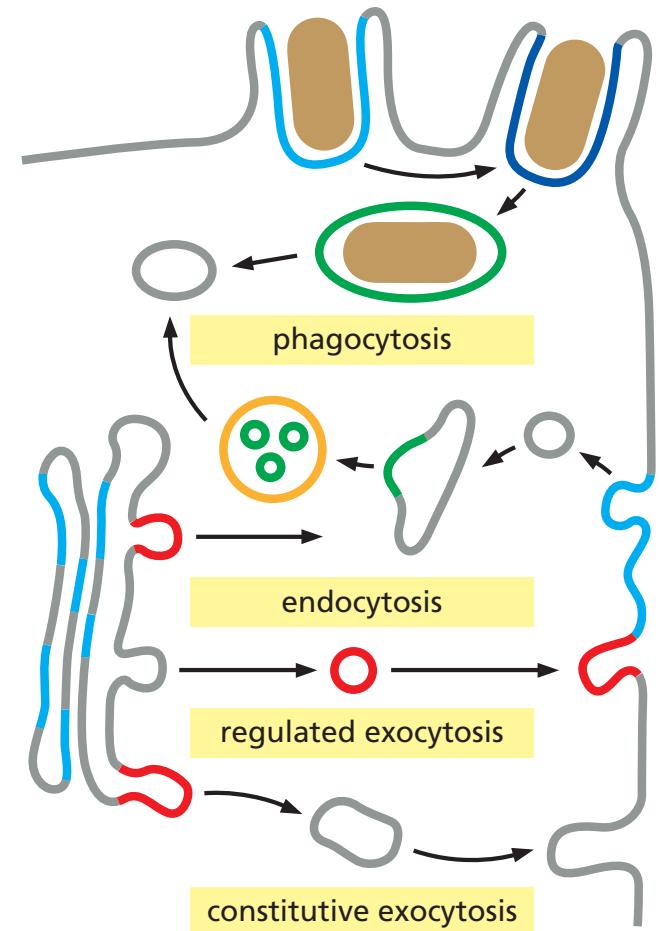


<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7sRZy9PgPvg>

How are vesicles recognized by the correct destination compartment?

Addressing implies recognition, which implies a notion of identity
What contributes to the identity of a compartment or a domain of a compartment?

Part1 PI's



KEY: $\text{PI}(3)\text{P}$ $\text{PI}(4)\text{P}$ $\text{PI}(4,5)\text{P}_2$ $\text{PI}(3,5)\text{P}_2$ $\text{PI}(3,4,5)\text{P}_3$

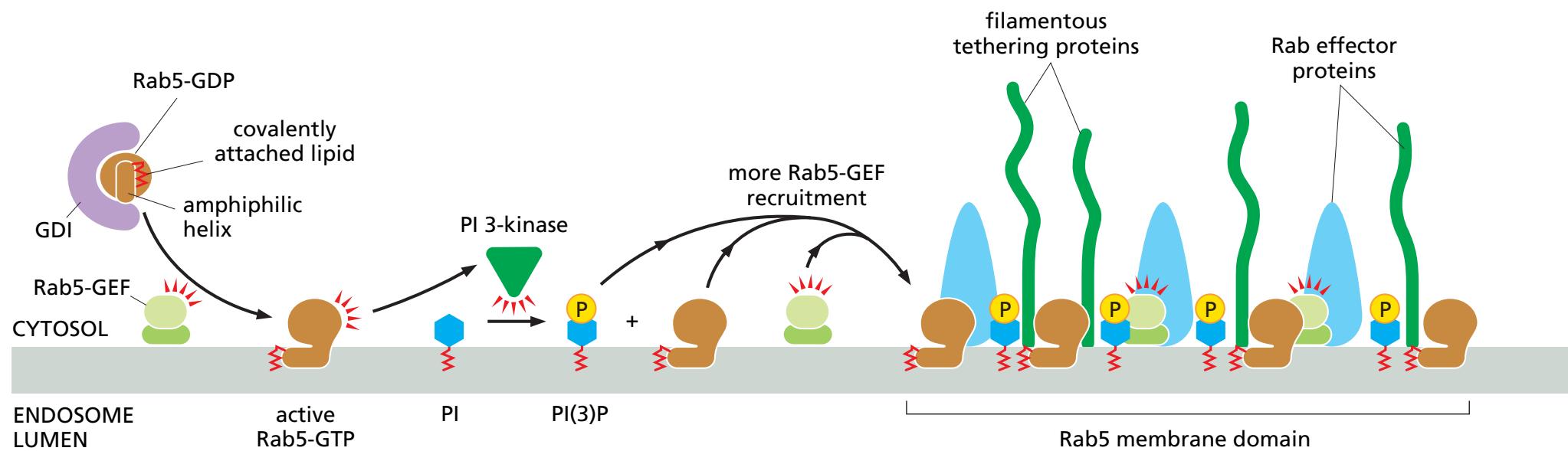
Part 2 RAB proteins: Subcellular locations of Some Rab Proteins

the Rab family of small GTPases: identity markers involved in vesicle recognition

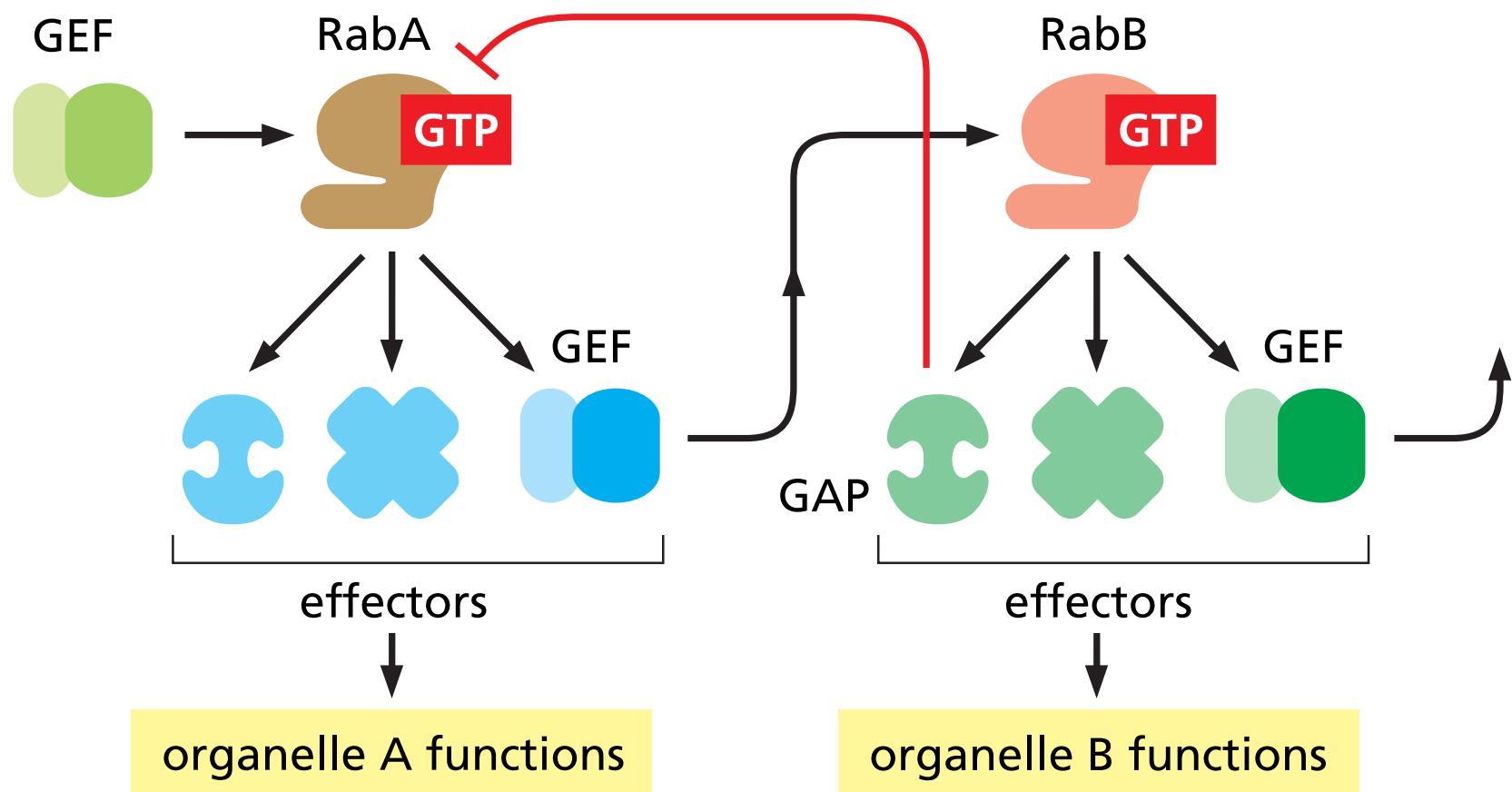
TABLE 13–1 Subcellular Locations of Some Rab Proteins

Protein	Organelle
Rab1	ER and Golgi complex
Rab2	<i>cis</i> Golgi network
Rab3A	Synaptic vesicles, secretory vesicles
Rab4/Rab11	Recycling endosomes
Rab5	Early endosomes, plasma membrane, clathrin-coated vesicles
Rab6	Medial and <i>trans</i> Golgi
Rab7	Late endosomes
Rab8	Cilia
Rab9	Late endosomes, <i>trans</i> Golgi

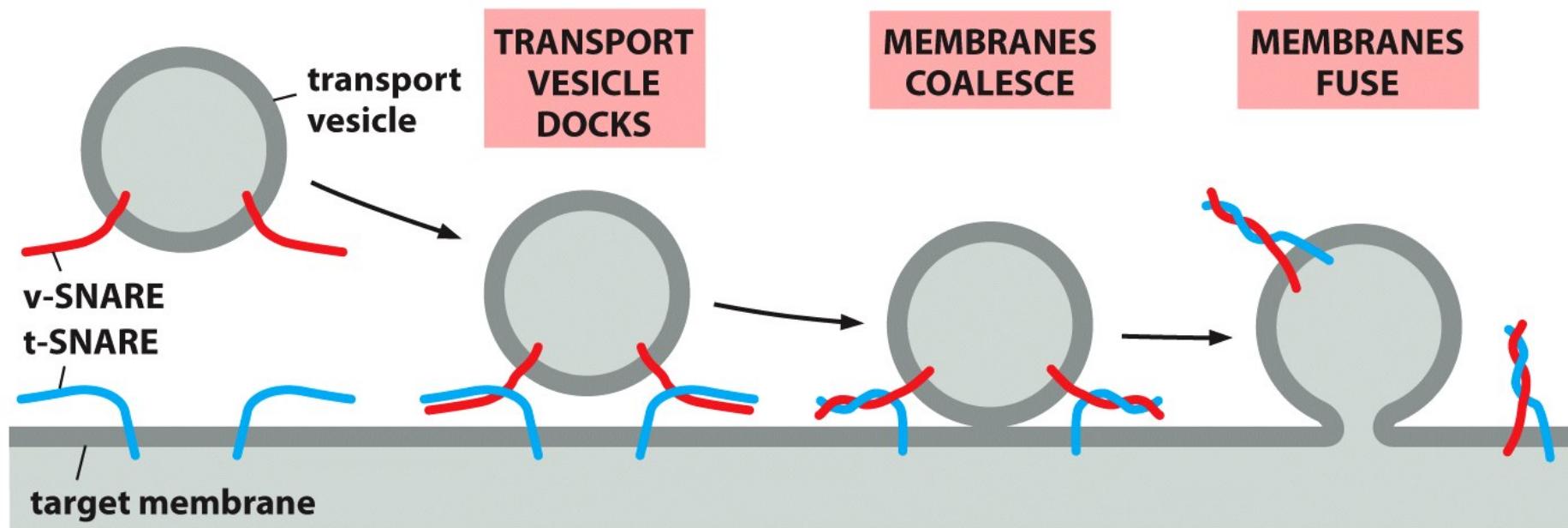
The formation of a Rab5 domain on the endosome membrane



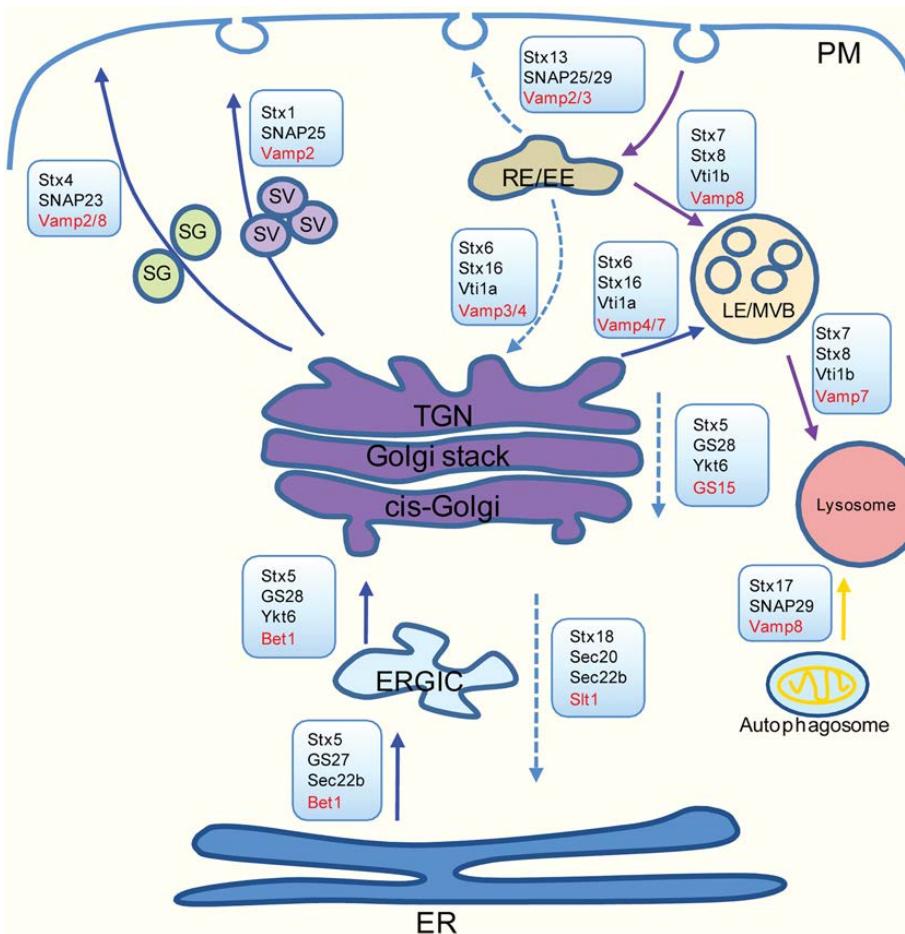
A model for a generic Rab cascade



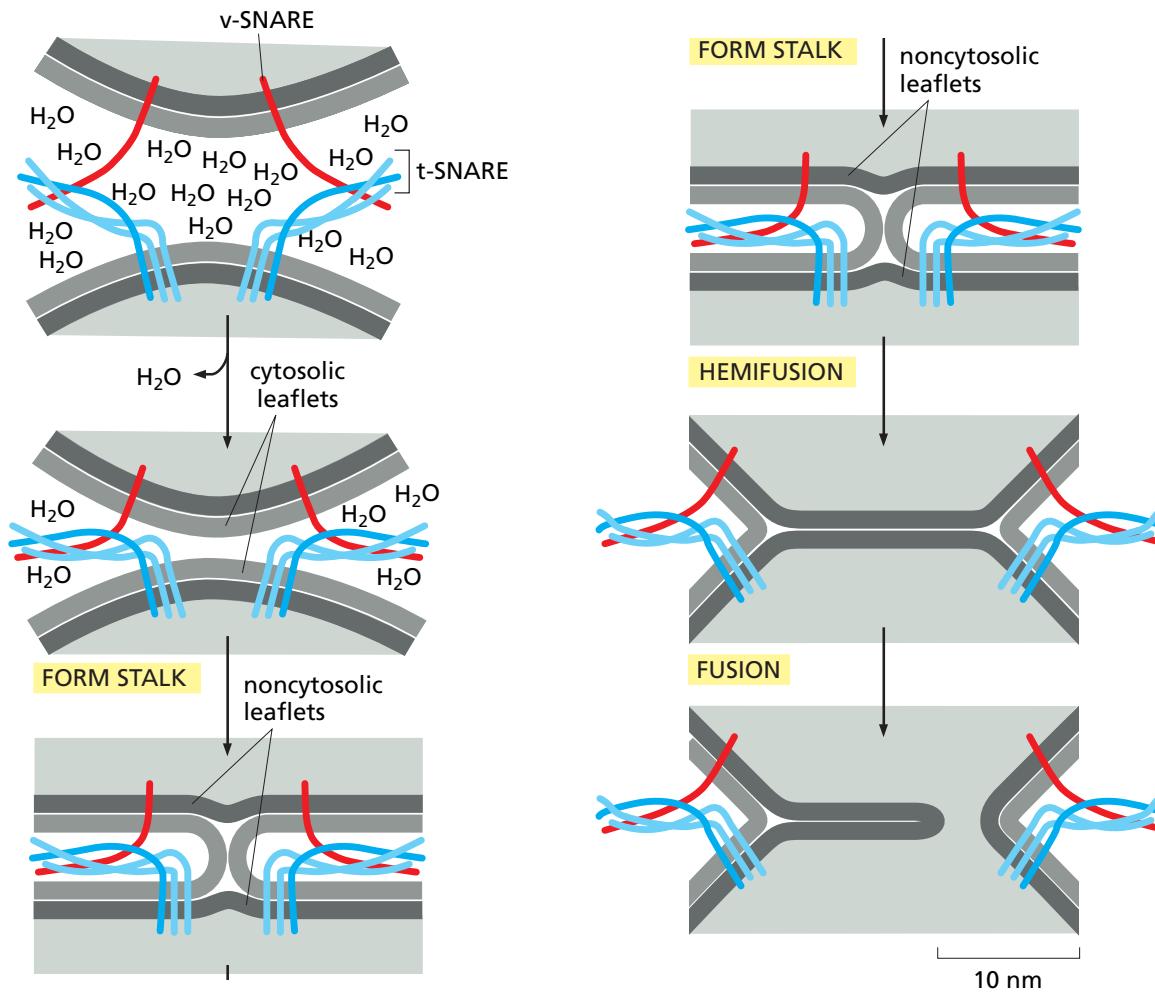
Part 3 the fusion proteins: SNARE proteins



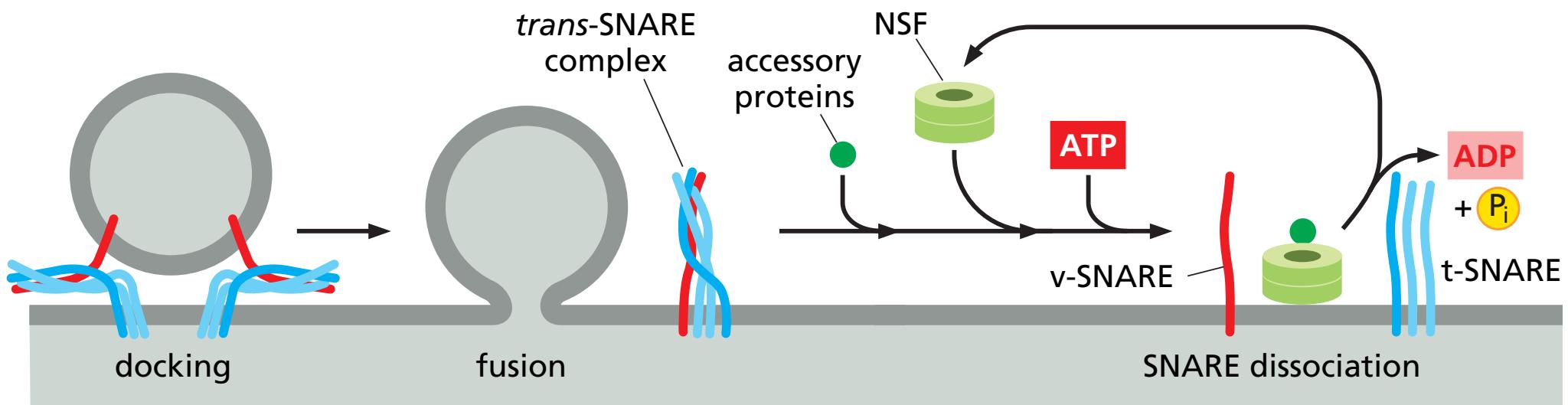
SNARE complexes can only be made with certain combinations and thus define specificity



A model for how SNARE proteins may catalyze membrane fusion



Dissociation of SNARE pairs by NSF after a membrane fusion cycle



SNARE complexes are very stable; therefore, it costs energy to dissociate them

Tethering of a transport vesicle to a target membrane

