Protein Import into Mitochondria: the Requirement for External ATP Is Precursor-specific Whereas Intramitochondrial ATP Is Universally Needed for Translocation into the Matrix

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ATP is needed for the import of precursor proteins into mitochondria. However, the role of ATP and its site of action have been unclear. We have now investigated the ATP requirements for protein import into the mitochondrial matrix. These experiments employed an in vitro system that allowed ATP levels to be manipulated both inside and outside the mitochondrial inner membrane. Our results indicate that there are two distinct ATP requirements for mitochondrial protein import. ATP in the matrix is always needed for complete import of precursor proteins into this compartment, even when the precursors are presented to mitochondria in an unfolded conformation. In contrast, the requirement for external ATP is precursor-specific; depletion of external ATP strongly inhibits import of some precursors but has little or no effect with other precursors. A requirement for external ATP can often be overcome by denaturing the precursor with urea. We suggest that external ATP promotes the release of precursors from cytosolic chaperones, whereas matrix ATP drives protein translocation across the inner membrane.

INTRODUCTION

Mitochondria are a useful system for studying the membrane translocation and intraorganellar sorting of proteins (for reviews see Glover and Lindsay, 1992; Segui-Real et al., 1992; Hannavy et al., 1993). Protein import into mitochondria requires two forms of energy: an electrochemical potential across the inner membrane and ATP (Beasley et al., 1992; Glick et al., 1992b). Although the function of the electrochemical potential is not completely understood, it appears that the potential drives the initial insertion of a precursor into and partially across the inner membrane (Schleyer and Neupert, 1985; Martin et al., 1991). A requirement for ATP was first revealed using in vitro import systems (Pfanner and Neupert, 1986; Chen and Douglas, 1987; Eilers et al., 1987). However, the mechanism of ATP action remained obscure. Originally it was proposed that ATP hydrolysis acts outside the mitochondria to keep precursor proteins in an import-competent, unfolded conformation (Chen and Douglas, 1987; Eilers et al., 1987; Pfanner et al., 1987). This model was supported by the observation that the ATP requirement for import could apparently be overcome by unfolding the precursor proteins, either by prematurely arresting translation (Verner and Schatz, 1987), by introducing internal deletions (Chen and Douglas, 1988), or by acid-base treatment (Pfanner et al., 1988). However, a fusion protein containing a tightly folded dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) moiety was shown to unfold at the mitochondrial surface independently of ATP (Eilers et al., 1988). Additional findings made the picture even more complex. One study concluded that a urea-denatured precursor still needed ATP for import into the matrix (Eilers et al., 1988), whereas a subsequent study found no such requirement (Ostermann et al., 1989). Experiments with an intermembrane space-targeted DHFR fusion protein suggested that this precursor could cross the inner membrane in the complete absence of ATP (Pfanner et al., 1990). On the other hand, it was shown that import of a matrix-targeted DHFR fusion protein did require ATP and that ATP was utilized in the matrix rather than outside the mitochondria (Hwang and Schatz, 1989).

To clarify the role of ATP in mitochondrial protein import, we developed an in vitro import system in which ATP levels could be selectively manipulated both inside and outside the mitochondrial inner membrane (Hwang and Schatz, 1989; Wachter *et al.*, 1992; Glick *et al.*, 1993). This system allowed us to investigate the functions of ATP in the import and sorting of precursors targeted to the different mitochondrial subcompartments. One important conclusion from this work was that in the absence of matrix ATP, many precursors can still be imported across the outer membrane (Hwang *et al.*, 1991). Indeed, several precursors targeted to the intermembrane space or inner membrane follow import pathways that are independent of matrix ATP (Glick *et al.*, 1992a, 1993; Lill *et al.*, 1992; Wachter *et al.*, 1992).

In the present study we have tested the effects of ATP depletion on the import of a variety of matrixtargeted precursors. Our findings help to explain the previous discrepancies. In addition, they demonstrate that ATP has two distinct functions in mitochondrial protein import.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

General Methods

Most procedures have been described elsewhere (Glick, 1991; Glick *et al.*, 1992a; Wachter *et al.*, 1992), including preparation of Nycodenzpurified yeast mitochondria and measurement of mitochondrial protein concentration, osmotic shock treatment to generate mitoplasts, proteinase K treatment (50–100 μ g/ml protease for 20–30 min on ice, followed by the addition of phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride to 1 mM), the use of protease-sensitive markers for the matrix (α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase) and intermembrane space (endogenous cytochrome b₂), precipitation with trichloroacetic acid, sodium dodecyl sulfatepolyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), fluorography, laser densitometry, and immunoblotting with rabbit antisera and ¹²⁵I-protein A. Synthesis of ³⁵S-labeled precursor proteins was performed in a reticulocyte lysate system (Hurt *et al.*, 1984) containing 5 mM creatine phosphate and 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT). The precursor proteins used were all from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.

Import Reactions

Native and urea-denatured precursors were diluted 20-fold into import buffer, which contained 0.6 M sorbitol (deionized), 50 mM K⁺ N-2hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) (pH 7.0), 50 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM KH₂PO₄, 2.5 mM EDTA, 5 mM methionine, 1 mg/ml fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin, and 10 mM glycerol. Mitochondria were present at a final concentration of 0.25 mg/ml protein or 1 mg/ml for import of urea-denatured precursors. Import times for the different precursors were in the linear range: 10 min at 25°C for $F_1\beta$, 2 min at 25°C for MPP α , 0.3 min at 25°C for urea-denatured MPP α , 5 min at 25°C for the Fe/S protein, 1 min at 25°C for the urea-denatured Fe/S protein, 5 min at 20°C for ADHIII, 1 min at 20°C for urea-denatured ADHIII, 7.5 min at 15°C for CoxIV, 2 min at 8°C for hsp60, 5 min at 8°C for $F_1\beta$ - Δ (94-381), and 5 min at 12°C for $F_1\beta$ - Δ (123-381). At higher temperatures the $F_1\beta$ deletion mutants are rapidly degraded upon import into the matrix (Hines, unpublished data). For import of urea-denatured precursors, proteins in the reticulocyte lysate were precipitated with 67% ammonium sulfate for 20 min on ice, followed by centrifugation for 10 min at 12 000 \times g; the pellet was resuspended in four times the original volume of 8 M urea, 20 mM tris(hydroxymethyl)-aminomethane-HCl (pH 7.0), 10 mM DTT. Import reactions were terminated by adding carbonyl cyanide p-(trifluoromethoxy)phenylhydrazone (FCCP) to 25 μ M and transferring the mixtures to ice. After import, mitochondria were centrifuged 3 min at 12 000 × g and resuspended in import buffer containing 25 μ M FCCP. Mitochondria or mitoplasts were then treated with proteinase K. Finally, the organelles were reisolated once again and precipitated with trichloroacetic acid. To confirm that the outer membrane had remained sealed in the intact mitochondria but had been selectively ruptured upon mitoplast formation, we subjected a portion of each sample to SDS-PAGE followed by immunoblotting for cytochrome b₂ and α -keto-glutarate dehydrogenase (see Glick *et al.*, 1992a).

Spin-Desalting of the Reticulocyte Lysate After Precursor Synthesis

G-25 Sephadex (fine grade; Sigma, St. Louis, MO) columns (1 ml bed volume) were equilibrated in 100 mM KCl, 20 mM K⁺HEPES (pH 7.4), 5 mM MgCl₂, and 10 mM DTT and were prespun for 2 min at 1000 × g. Postribosomal translation mixture (75- μ l aliquots, pretreated with hexokinase/2-deoxyglucose as described below) was then spun for 2 min at 1000 × g through the columns. This treatment removed small molecules, including 2-deoxyglucose and free nucleotides.

Manipulation of ATP Levels

We improved and simplified our previous methods for ATP depletion (Wachter et al., 1992; Glick et al., 1993). After synthesis of the 35Slabeled precursor protein, the reticulocyte lysate was placed ≥ 5 min on ice, and then ATP was depleted by incubating 5 min at 30°C with 50 U/ml yeast hexokinase plus 15 mM 2-deoxyglucose. Ribosomes were removed by centrifugation for 10 min at 150 000 \times g, and the precursor was diluted into an import mixture containing mitochondria that had been pretreated as described below. Efrapeptin and oligomycin were used to inhibit the mitochondrial ATP synthase. Carboxyatractyloside (CAT) was added to inhibit the adenine nucleotide translocator and thereby block passage of ATP and ADP across the inner membrane. α -ketoglutarate was used to regenerate matrix ATP by substrate level phosphorylation (Glick et al., 1993). Glycerokinase from Escherichia coli cleaves ATP to ADP in the presence of glycerol; this enzyme is highly specific for ATP (Thorner and Paulus, 1973). For all four ATP conditions, mitochondria were preincubated 5 min at 30°C in import buffer containing 2 µg/ml efrapeptin, 5 µg/ml oligomycin, and 25 µg/ml CAT. This procedure efficiently depletes free ATP in the mitochondrial matrix (Glick et al., 1993). NADH was then added to 2 mM to generate an electrochemical potential across the inner membrane (von Jagow and Klingenberg, 1970). The mitochondrial suspension was divided into four aliquots corresponding to the different ATP conditions. These aliquots were treated as follows: ATP in+out: ATP was present both inside and outside the inner membrane. α -ketoglutarate was added to 5 mM to generate matrix ATP, and after 3 min at the import temperature, 0.5 mM ATP and an ATP-regenerating system (5 mM creatine phosphate, 100 μ g/ml rabbit muscle creatine kinase) were added, followed by the hexokinasetreated precursor. ATP in: ATP was depleted outside the inner membrane but was present in the matrix. α -ketoglutarate and glycerokinase were added to 5 mM and 10 U/ml, respectively, followed by incubation for 3 min at the import temperature before addition of the hexokinase-treated precursor. ATP out: ATP was depleted in the matrix but was present outside the inner membrane. After incubating 3 min at the import temperature, 0.5 mM ATP plus an ATP-regenerating system were added, followed by the hexokinase-treated precursor. No ATP: ATP was depleted on both sides of the inner membrane. Glycerokinase was added to 10 U/ml, and after 3 min at the import temperature, the hexokinase-treated precursor was added.

Miscellaneous

CAT was purchased from Fluka (Buchs, Switzerland), and efrapeptin was a gift of the Eli Lilly (Indianapolis, IN); other reagents were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). The plasmids encoding $F_1\beta$ - Δ (94-381) and $F_1\beta$ - Δ (123-381) were kindly provided by Michael Douglas,

University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, and the plasmid encoding the Fe/S protein was kindly provided by Diana Beattie, West Virginia University School of Medicine, Morgantown.

RESULTS

An Experimental System for Studying the Role of ATP in Mitochondrial Protein Import

We developed an improved experimental system that allowed for a comparison of protein import rates under four different conditions: ATP both inside and outside the inner membrane, ATP only in the matrix, ATP only outside the inner membrane, or no ATP in either location (Figure 1). In all cases, transport of ATP and ADP across the inner membrane was prevented by adding CAT. In addition, the mitochondrial ATP synthase was inhibited by using a combination of oligomycin and efrapeptin; this treatment allows endogenous ATPases to hydrolyze any ATP that may be present in the matrix (Glick et al., 1993). Where indicated, matrix ATP levels were restored by adding α -ketoglutarate, which leads to ATP formation by substrate-level phosphorylation (Glick et al., 1993). Precursor proteins were synthesized in a reticulocyte lysate, and this mixture was depleted of ATP with hexokinase/2-deoxyglucose. ATP levels outside the mitochondria were then either restored by adding ATP or kept low by adding glycerokinase/glycerol.

In the past, various other combinations of inhibitors and pretreatments have been used to selectively deplete either matrix ATP or external ATP (e.g., Chen and Douglas, 1987; Hwang and Schatz, 1989; Cyr et al., 1993). We consider the procedure described above to be superior for two reasons. First, in all cases the system is initially depleted of external ATP. The inhibitory effect of this depletion is determined by comparison with a sample in which external ATP levels have been restored; thus the inhibition that is measured is reversible and presumably specific (Glick et al., 1993). Second, earlier methods relied on the mitochondrial ATP synthase to generate matrix ATP, so that oligomycin was added only to those samples in which matrix ATP was being depleted. However, oligomycin has a nonspecific inhibitory effect on the import of certain precursors, such as cytochrome c_1 (Wachter *et al.*, 1992; Glick *et al.*, 1993). We have not observed any nonspecific effects when matrix ATP is generated by adding α -ketoglutarate. Therefore the procedure outlined in Figure 1 allows us for the first time to make simultaneous, quantitative comparisons between all four different ATP conditions.

Complete Import of Matrix-targeted Precursors Always Requires Matrix ATP Whereas the Requirement for External ATP Is Precursor-specific

Several authentic matrix-targeted precursors were incubated with mitochondria under different ATP conditions (Figures 2 and 3). Import times were chosen to



	ΑΤΡ				
	in + out	in	out	none	
oligomycin/efrapeptin carboxyatractyloside	+	+	+	+	
	+	+	+	+	
α-ketoglutarate ATP glycerokinase/glycerol	+	+	-	-	
	+	-	+	-	
	-	+	-	+	

Figure 1. Experimental system for studying the ATP requirements for mitochondrial protein import. Top: Schematic drawing of the experimental system. Only the inner mitochondrial membrane is represented because the outer membrane is permeable to small molecules. (1) ATP is either added to the incubation medium or is converted to ADP by an enzymatic trap such as glycerokinase/glycerol. (2) To generate matrix ATP, *a*-ketoglutarate is added. This metabolite is transported into the matrix by a specific carrier and then produces ATP by substrate-level phosphorylation in the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle. (3) CAT is added to inhibit the adenine nucleotide translocator and prevent passage of ATP and ADP across the inner membrane. (4) The mitochondrial ATP synthase is blocked by adding a combination of oligomycin and efrapeptin. Bottom: Summary of the procedures used to generate the four different ATP conditions.

be in the linear range for each precursor. Translocation across the outer membrane was assayed by treating the intact mitochondria with protease after the incubation; translocation across the inner membrane was assayed by protease treatment of mitoplasts, in which the outer membrane had been ruptured by swelling in hypotonic medium.

From the results of these experiments, the precursors could be classified into two groups. The first group (Figure 2) consisted of the β -subunit of the F₁-ATPase (F₁ β), the α -subunit of the matrix processing peptidase (MPP α), the iron-sulfur protein of cytochrome c reductase (Fe/S), and mitochondrial alcohol dehydrogenase (ADHIII). When ATP was present only in the matrix (ATP in), import of these precursors was reduced \geq 70% relative to the condition in which ATP was present on both sides of the inner membrane (ATP in+out). Depletion of ATP on both sides of the inner membrane



Figure 2. Complete import of several matrix-targeted precursors requires both external ATP and matrix ATP. Radiolabeled precursor proteins and mitochondria were pretreated as described in MATE-RIALS AND METHODS to create conditions in which ATP was present on both sides of the inner membrane (in+out), only in the matrix (in), only outside the inner membrane (out), or in neither location (none). After import, the mitochondria (M) were either treated with proteinase K or converted to mitoplasts (MP) in the presence of proteinase K. All samples were then precipitated with trichloroacetic acid and subjected to SDS-PAGE and fluorography. $F_1\beta$, β -subunit of the F₁-ATPase; MPP α , α -subunit of the presequence processing protease (formerly known as MAS2p); Fe/S, iron-sulfur protein of cytochrome c reductase; ADHIII, mitochondrial alcohol dehydrogenase; STD, 10% of the amount of precursor mixture initially added to each sample; p and m, precursor and mature forms of the radiolabeled precursor proteins. With ADHIII, a protease-protected fragment of \sim 30 kDa (*) was generated upon import into mitochondria depleted of matrix ATP.

(ATP none) inhibited import completely. In the presence of only external ATP (ATP out), there was no detectable import across the inner membrane; however, the precursors were still translocated across the outer membrane, albeit with reduced efficiency. Similar translocation intermediates located between the two membranes have been described previously (Hwang *et al.*, 1991; Rassow and Pfanner, 1991).

ADHIII formed an additional translocation intermediate when ATP was present only outside the mitochondria. Under these conditions some of the ADHIII molecules were arrested during translocation across the outer membrane, so that protease treatment of mitochondria generated a protected fragment of \sim 30 kDa (Figure 2, asterisk). The arrested ADHIII molecules could be chased across the outer membrane by prolonged incubation at 30°C, or they could be chased completely into the matrix by restoration of matrix ATP levels. Accumulation of this intermediate was probably caused by a folded structure within the ADHIII precursor.

The second group of precursors (Figure 3) included subunit IV of cytochrome oxidase (CoxIV) and mitochondrial hsp60. Depletion of external ATP had no significant effect on the import of these precursors. Depletion of matrix ATP completely blocked import of both CoxIV and hsp60, but when the incubations were performed at 25–30°C rather than 8°C, hsp60 was translocated across the outer membrane of ATP-depleted mitochondria (Hwang *et al.*, 1991; Wachter *et al.*, 1992). Thus the precursors shown in Figure 3 are imported independently of external ATP, but in other respects they resemble the precursors shown in Figure 2.

It was reported that two mutant forms of $F_1\beta$ with large internal deletions, $F_1\beta$ - Δ (94-381) and $F_1\beta$ - Δ (123-381), could be imported into mitochondria that had been treated with apyrase (Chen and Douglas, 1988). This result was interpreted to mean that import of these mutant proteins was independent of ATP. However, the ATP synthase had not been inhibited in the earlier experiments, so ATP was presumably still present in the matrix. We therefore reinvestigated the import of these two precursors using our experimental system. Import of $F_1\beta - \Delta(94-381)$ (Figure 3) and $F_1\beta - \Delta(123-381)$ (see Cyr et al., 1993) was completely blocked in the absence of matrix ATP, whereas depletion of external ATP had no effect. The previously published results can therefore be explained by assuming that ATP was present in the matrix but not outside the mitochondria. Interestingly, the external ATP requirement for import of $F_1\beta$ (Figure 2) was abolished by making internal deletions in this precursor.

We conclude that the complete translocation of precursor proteins across the inner membrane invariably requires ATP in the matrix. However, external ATP is required only for the import of some mitochondrial precursors.

Denaturation of Precursor Proteins Can Overcome an External ATP Requirement for Import

Precursors that require external ATP for import are presumably associated with cytosolic chaperones (see DIS-



Figure 3. Some matrix-targeted precursors require matrix ATP but not external ATP for translocation across the inner membrane. Import reactions and subsequent treatments were as in Figure 2. CoxIV, subunit IV of cytochrome oxidase; hsp60, 60-kDa mitochondrial chaperonin; $F_1\beta$ - Δ (94-381), mutant form of $F_1\beta$ with an internal deletion comprising amino acids 94–381 of the precursor protein; STD, p, and m, as in Figure 2.



Figure 4. Urea denaturation can overcome an external ATP requirement for import but does not overcome the matrix ATP requirement for complete translocation across the inner membrane. Precursor proteins were denatured in 8 M urea and diluted into import buffer containing mitochondria that had been pretreated as in Figure 2. Further processing of the samples was as in Figure 2. STD, precursor standards (10% for MPP α and the Fe/S protein, 5% for ADHIII); p and m, as in Figure 2.

CUSSION). High concentrations of urea should disrupt such associations, potentially allowing for import in the absence of external ATP. This possibility has not been tested in previous studies, which examined the effects of urea denaturation on folded precursors that are imported independently of external ATP (Eilers et al., 1988; Gambill et al., 1993; Glick et al., 1993). We therefore analyzed the import of the urea-denatured precursors of ADHIII, MPP α , and the Fe/S protein. All three precursors could be imported in the absence of external ATP if they were presented to mitochondria in a ureadenatured form (Figure 4). However, urea denaturation did not overcome the matrix ATP requirement for translocation across the inner membrane (Figure 4), even with a precursor as small as CoxIV (17 kDa). Thus denaturation of a matrix-targeted precursor can eliminate a requirement for external ATP but does not allow complete import across the inner membrane in the absence of matrix ATP.

The External ATP-dependent Step of Import Shows a Strict Specificity for Hydrolyzable ATP

Several other nucleoside triphosphates were previously found to substitute for ATP in promoting import of mitochondrial precursors (Chen and Douglas, 1987; Eilers *et al.*, 1987; Pfanner *et al.*, 1987). However, conversion of these nucleotides into ATP was not excluded. It was shown that GTP needs to be converted into ATP to fulfill the matrix ATP requirement for import, presumably because only ATP is transported efficiently across the inner membrane (Hwang and Schatz, 1989). To determine the specificity of the external nucleotide requirement for import, we first spun a precursor mixture through a desalting column to remove small molecules, then added various nucleotides and tested their ability to restore import. This experiment was performed with the precursors of MPP α and the adenine nucleotide translocator, both of which require external ATP for efficient import (see Figure 2 and Wachter *et al.*, 1992). Neither ADP, GTP, CTP, nor nonhydrolyzable ATP analogues could substitute for external ATP in stimulating import of MPP α (Figure 5) or the adenine nucleotide translocator. With both precursors, maximal import rates were achieved with 100–300 μ M ATP. These concentrations probably overestimate the actual K_m for the ATP-dependent step of import because there are many ATPases present in the reticulocyte lysate. Nevertheless, it seems clear that hydrolysis of external ATP is needed to confer import competence to certain precursor proteins.

DISCUSSION

The transport of proteins across biological membranes requires energy. In this study we have concentrated on the role of ATP in the import of proteins into the mitochondrial matrix. Our results, together with additional data from other studies, are summarized in Table 1. They allow the following conclusions.

1) There are two distinct functions of ATP in mitochondrial protein import. One function involves external ATP (i.e., ATP outside the inner membrane), and the other involves matrix ATP.

2) In our in vitro system, the external ATP requirement for import is restricted to a subset of mitochondrial precursors.

3) External ATP cannot be replaced by other nucleotides.

4) The requirement for external ATP can be bypassed by altering the conformation of a precursor protein.



Figure 5. External ATP cannot be replaced by other nucleotides or by nonhydrolyzable ATP analogues. Reticulocyte lysate containing the radiolabeled MPP α precursor was depleted of ATP and spindesalted on a G-25 column as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Mitochondria were pretreated as described for ATP in+out conditions, except that ATP and an ATP-regenerating system were omitted. The mitochondria were then divided into six equal samples, which received the following supplements: 1) 500 μ M ATP, 2) 1 mM ADP plus 10 U/ml E. coli glycerokinase, 3) 2 mM adenosine-5'-O-(3-thiotriphosphate) (ATP- γ -S) plus 10 U/ml glycerokinase and 10 U/ml myokinase, 4) 2 mM adenylyl-imidodiphosphate (AMP-PNP) plus 10 U/ml glycerokinase and 10 U/ml myokinase, 5) 2 mM GTP plus 10 U/ml glycerokinase, 6) 2 mM CTP plus 10 U/ml glycerokinase. After 3 min at 25°C, the spin-desalted precursor was added, and the incubation was continued for 2 min at 25°C before addition of FCCP. All samples were then treated with proteinase K, precipitated with trichloroacetic acid, and analyzed by SDS-PAGE and fluorography. STD, p, and m, as in Figure 2.

Table 1. ATP requirements for import of authentic and artificial mitochondrial precursors						
Precursor	Destination	Matrix ATP	External ATP	References		
F ₁ β	Matrix	+	+	This study		
MPP a ^a	Matrix	+	+	This study		
Fe/S protein ^a	Matrix	+	+	This study		
AĎHĨIIª	Matrix	+	+	This study		
hsp60	Matrix	+	-	This study		
CoxIV	Matrix	+	-	This study		
$F_1\beta - \Delta$ (94-381)	Matrix	+		This study		
CoxIV-DHFR ^b	Matrix	+	-	Hwang and Schatz, 1989		
Cytochrome b_2^c	IMS	+	-	Glick et al., 1993		
CoxVa ^d	IM	+	-	Miller and Cumsky, 1991; Cyr et al., 1993		
Cytochrome c_1	IMS	-	+	Wachter et al., 1992		
Adenine nucleotide translocator	IM	_	+	Wachter et al., 1992		
Porin ^e	OM	_	+	Hwang and Schatz, 1989		
b ₂ (1-167)-DHFR	IMS	-	_	Glick et al., 1992a, 1993		
c ₁ (1-64)-DHFR	IMS	-	-	Glick et al., 1992a		
Cytochrome c heme lyase	IMS	-	-	Lill et al., 1992		

Table 1. ATP requirements for import of authentic and artificial mitochondrial precursors

OM, outer membrane; IMS, intermembrane space; IM, inner membrane.

^a The requirement for external ATP can be overcome by urea denaturation (this study).

^b Import of other matrix-targeted DHFR fusion proteins also requires only matrix ATP (Wachter et al., 1992; Wachter, unpublished data).

^c Like authentic cytochrome b_2 , fusion protein derivatives of cytochrome b_2 containing the intact heme-binding domain require only matrix ATP for import (Glick et al., 1993; Voos et al., 1993).

^d Although CoxVa has not been tested in our experimental system, the available evidence suggests that it requires only matrix ATP for import. ^e The requirement for external ATP can be overcome by acid-base treatment of the precursor (Pfanner et al., 1988).

Such alterations have been achieved by urea denaturation (ADHIII, Fe/S protein, MPP α), by acid-base treatment (porin), and by introducing internal deletions (F₁ β). Although only a few precursors have been tested, it is likely that conformational alterations would allow most or all precursors to be imported in the absence of external ATP.

5) Complete translocation across the inner membrane always requires ATP in the matrix, even if the precursor has been denatured with urea. If the matrix is depleted of ATP, many precursors can still cross the outer membrane, but they undergo only a partial translocation across the inner membrane.

6) In some cases, matrix ATP is required even if only a portion of the precursor is translocated across the inner membrane. Examples are cytochrome b_2 and CoxVa, both of which appear to contain stop-transfer sequences specific for the inner membrane (Glick *et al.*, 1992a, 1993; Cyr *et al.*, 1993; Miller and Cumsky, 1993).

7) Matrix ATP exerts a pulling force that can drive the unfolding of a precursor protein. This phenomenon has been documented most clearly in the case of cytochrome b₂ (Glick *et al.*, 1993; Voos *et al.*, 1993).

Our data suggest that the previous contradictory observations can be attributed to four experimental limitations. First, there was often no distinction made between ATP pools outside and inside the mitochondria. Second, some protocols for depleting ATP were only partially effective because the ATP synthase was not inhibited (e.g., Chen and Douglas, 1988; Ostermann *et* *al.*, 1989). Third, it was assumed that matrix-targeted precursors that had been imported into ATP-depleted mitochondria were present in the matrix (e.g., Verner and Schatz, 1987), whereas it now seems likely that these precursors had actually been arrested during translocation across the inner membrane (Hwang *et al.*, 1991). Finally, intermediate forms of intermembrane space-targeted precursors were initially thought to be located in the matrix of ATP-depleted mitochondria (Pfanner *et al.*, 1990), but these intermediates were later shown to be anchored to the outer face of the inner membrane (Glick *et al.*, 1992a).

Although in vitro experiments have led to a consistent picture of the role of ATP in mitochondrial protein import, these experiments are based on heterologous import systems, and they do not address the possibility that some precursors may be imported cotranslationally in vivo (Verner, 1993). Nevertheless, mitochondrial protein import in vivo probably involves the same kinds of ATP-dependent reactions that have been characterized in vitro. The function of ATP in mitochondrial protein import appears to be linked to the action of molecular chaperone proteins (Gething and Sambrook, 1992; Craig et al., 1993). Cytosolic chaperones that have been implicated in the import process include hsp70 proteins (Deshaies et al., 1988; Murakami et al., 1988; Smith and Yaffe, 1991); the dnaJ homologue YDJ1p/ Mas5p, which apparently acts together with hsp70 (Atencio and Yaffe, 1992; Caplan et al., 1992; Cyr et al., 1992); presequence-binding factor (PBF), which is

not an ATPase (Murakami et al., 1992); and the ATPdependent mitochondrial import stimulation factor (MSF) (Hachiya et al., 1993). Proteins such as PBF and MSF may function in vivo to increase the fidelity of targeting to mitochondria (Lithgow et al., 1993). Chaperones of the hsp70 and dnaJ families apparently bind to precursors during or soon after translation (Figure 6) (Beckman et al., 1990; Nelson et al., 1992; Hendrick et al., 1993). It was originally proposed that the major function of these chaperones was to inhibit the premature folding of precursors (Deshaies et al., 1988; Rothman, 1989). Such an antifolding activity may indeed be important for the import of some precursors, particularly those that can potentially form oligomers outside the mitochondria (Mattingly et al., 1993). However, tight folding of precursor proteins does not necessarily prevent import, apparently because the mitochondrial translocation machinery can perform an unfoldase function (Gambill et al., 1993; Glick et al., 1993). It now seems likely that the primary function of cytosolic chaperones during protein translocation is to prevent the irreversible aggregation of precursors (Ellis and van der Vies, 1991). ATP would thus be needed to dissociate the precursor-chaperone complex so that the precursor could engage the import apparatus (Figure 6, pathway 1) (Chirico, 1992).

Some precursors can be imported in the absence of external ATP. Presumably these precursors are not prone to aggregation and are therefore released from the chaperones after translation. Precursors of this type can be classified into two groups. One group of precursors fold outside the mitochondria and are then unfolded during import (Figure 6, pathway 3). Examples are cytochrome b₂ (Glick et al., 1993), fusion proteins containing a DHFR moiety (Eilers et al., 1988; Hwang and Schatz, 1989; Pfanner et al., 1990), and a fusion protein in which a matrix-targeting signal is joined to chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (Skerjanc et al., 1990). A second group of precursors remain loosely folded outside the mitochondria and yet can be imported in the absence of external ATP (Figure 6, pathway 2). Likely examples include cytochrome c heme lyase, CoxIV, CoxVa, and mutant $F_1\beta$ proteins with internal deletions (see Table 1). Although it has not been directly shown that these mitochondrial precursors are loosely folded, detailed studies of chloroplast ferredoxin have demonstrated that this precursor has little secondary structure and yet is imported independently of cytosolic chaperones (Pilon et al., 1992).

The model shown in Figure 6 is still speculative because only limited information is available about the state of precursor proteins before import. However, the existing data are consistent with this model. The $F_1\beta$ precursor, which requires external ATP for import, seems to interact with the cytosolic hsp70 system (Deshaies *et al.*, 1988; Smith and Yaffe, 1991; Atencio and Yaffe, 1992; Caplan *et al.*, 1992). In contrast, DHFR



Figure 6. Proposed pathways for external ATP-dependent and external ATP-independent protein import into mitochondria. Cytosolic chaperones () bind to nascent precursor chains during translation on free ribosomes. Precursors can then follow one of three pathways. 1) Cytosolic chaperones remain bound to the precursors until import occurs. Release from the chaperones requires ATP. 2) Some precursors are released rapidly from the chaperones and remain loosely folded until they engage the translocation machinery. Import is independent of external ATP. 3) Some precursors are released rapidly from the chaperones are unfolded again during import, which is independent of external ATP. See text for details.

fusion proteins and cytochrome b_2 , which are imported independently of external ATP, fold after synthesis in a reticulocyte lysate and thus apparently do not remain bound to cytosolic chaperones.

Destabilizing the structure of a precursor protein often accelerates import, probably by enhancing the initial interaction of the precursor with the translocation machinery (Eilers *et al.*, 1988; Vestweber and Schatz, 1988). In addition, altering the conformation of a precursor can change the energetics of import in two ways. First,

with precursors that require external ATP for import, urea denaturation circumvents this requirement, presumably by disrupting an association of the precursor with cytosolic chaperones. Other treatments that alter precursor conformation can have similar effects (Chen and Douglas, 1988; Pfanner et al., 1988). Second, the initial translocation of many precursors across the outer membrane is stimulated by matrix ATP, and treatments that destabilize protein conformation can sometimes mimic this stimulatory effect (Gambill et al., 1993). For example, import of cytochrome b_2 to the intermembrane space requires matrix ATP, but disrupting the folded structure of this protein allows import in the complete absence of ATP (Glick et al., 1993; Voos et al., 1993). Thus the pulling force generated by matrix ATP promotes unfolding of some precursors, and this function of matrix ATP can be bypassed by denaturing the precursors.

It is not known what force drives protein import across the outer membrane when the matrix is depleted of ATP. The electrochemical potential across the inner membrane is needed only for early stages of the import reaction (Schleyer and Neupert, 1985; Cyr et al., 1993; Glick et al., 1993). The model shown in Figure 6 predicts that external ATP would not provide energy for translocation; indeed, many precursors can reach the intermembrane space in the complete absence of ATP (Hwang et al., 1991; Glick et al., 1992a). One possibility is that after a precursor inserts into the inner membrane, the import channels in the two mitochondrial membranes separate from one another, thereby pulling the precursor across the outer membrane (Glick et al., 1991). A different mechanism would operate for cytochrome c heme lyase, which can pass directly through the outer membrane translocation channel (Mayer et al., 1993).

Matrix ATP most likely exerts its action through the matrix-localized mitochondrial hsp70 protein (mhsp70). This chaperone binds to incoming precursors and is needed for their complete translocation across the inner membrane (Kang et al., 1990; Ostermann et al., 1990; Scherer et al., 1990; Manning-Krieg et al., 1991; Gambill et al., 1993; Schwarz et al., 1993; Voos et al., 1993). It is thought that mhsp70 functions as an ATP-dependent import motor that pulls proteins into the matrix (Figure 7, left). In the case of cytochrome b2, mhsp70 also uses ATP to exert a pulling force, which results in partial translocation of the presequence across the inner membrane and concomitant unfolding of the precursor (Figure 7, right) (Glick et al., 1993; Voos et al., 1993). The model of mhsp70 as a translocation ATPase agrees with most of the experimental data. One observation that remains unexplained is that neither cytochrome c_1 nor the adenine nucleotide translocator needs matrix ATP for import (Wachter et al., 1992), yet import of both proteins was blocked by thermal inactivation of a temperature-sensitive mhsp70 protein (Ostermann et al., 1990).



Figure 7. Proposed functions of matrix ATP in mitochondrial protein import. Left: With matrix-targeted precursors, mhsp70 uses matrix ATP to drive translocation across the inner membrane. In the absence of matrix ATP, these precursors can often cross the outer membrane to yield translocation intermediates facing the intermembrane space. Addition of ATP then allows completion of import into the matrix. Right: In the case of cytochrome b₂, mhsp70 uses matrix ATP to exert a pulling force on the presequence; this force causes the heme-binding domain in the precursor to unfold and to cross the outer membrane. The stop-transfer signal in the cytochrome b₂ presequence prevents further translocation across the inner membrane. The mechanism of ATP-dependent mhsp70 function is presumably the same for the complete import of matrix-targeted precursors and for the partial translocation of the cytochrome b₂ presequence across the inner membrane. See text for details. OM, outer membrane; IM, inner membrane.

It has been proposed that mhsp70 drives protein import by binding to precursor chains as they oscillate within the translocation channel because of Brownian motion (Neupert *et al.*, 1990; Simon *et al.*, 1992). mhsp70 binding would prevent the reverse oscillations and thereby cause unidirectional translocation into the matrix. In the original version of this Brownian ratchet model, ATP would function only to recycle mhsp70 for multiple rounds of translocation. However, matrix ATP is needed even for a single round of import, presumably because the initial association of mhsp70 with a precursor requires ATP (Manning-Krieg et al., 1991; Gambill et al., 1993). An updated Brownian ratchet model (Neupert and Pfanner, 1993) provides a plausible mechanism for the import of unfolded proteins. However, the finding that precursors can fold outside the mitochondria and that mhsp70 and matrix ATP drive their unfolding has lessened the appeal of this model. It may be that mhsp70 plays a more active role in protein translocation across the inner membrane. Resolution of this question will require a better understanding of the ATP-dependent reaction cycle of mhsp70.

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