



Polarized Exocytosis

Jingwen Zeng,¹ Shanshan Feng,² Bin Wu,¹ and Wei Guo¹

¹Department of Biology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104-6018

²Key Laboratory for Regenerative Medicine of Ministry of Education and Department of Developmental & Regenerative Biology, Jinan University, Guangzhou 510632, P.R. China

Correspondence: guowei@sas.upenn.edu

Polarized exocytosis is generally considered as the multistep vesicular trafficking process in which membrane-bounded carriers are transported from the Golgi or endosomal compartments to specific sites of the plasma membrane. Polarized exocytosis in cells is achieved through the coordinated actions of membrane trafficking machinery and cytoskeleton orchestrated by signaling molecules such as the Rho family of small GTPases. Elucidating the molecular mechanisms of polarized exocytosis is essential to our understanding of a wide range of pathophysiological processes from neuronal development to tumor invasion.

Most, if not all, eukaryotic cells are asymmetrical in shape. Polarized distribution of proteins and lipids on the plasma membrane not only confers diverse identities to eukaryotic cells, but also is essential for their physiological functions. The establishment and maintenance of cell polarity require polarized exocytosis. The incorporation of proteins and lipids to specific domains of the cell surface is, in principle, mediated by directional transport, docking, and fusion of vesicles to the plasma membrane.

Polarized exocytosis has been studied in a diverse array of eukaryotic systems from the budding yeast to neurons. It is now accepted that the core machineries and general mechanisms are mostly conserved (Fig. 1). Usually, polarized exocytosis is initiated in response to a spatial cue, which ranges from a chemical gradient to mechanical force. This is followed by the establishment of a polarity axis, upon which the cytoskeletons are assembled. The polarity

axis is often enforced or stabilized through signaling amplification and positive feedback loops. Cargo proteins contained in vesicles or tubular carriers are transported from a donor compartment (e.g., *trans*-Golgi network or endosomes) to specific regions of the plasma membrane by motor proteins along the cytoskeleton tracks. After arriving at their destination, the transport carriers are physically attached to the plasma membrane by tether proteins. Finally, the soluble *N*-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor (NSF) attachment protein receptor (SNARE) complex is assembled to drive membrane fusion. Throughout this process, signaling molecules function at various steps to regulate the activities of the trafficking machinery and cytoskeleton to ensure the spatial specificity.

In this review, we will first discuss the core machinery and major regulators that govern polarized exocytosis. We will then summarize the

Editor: Keith E. Mostov

Additional Perspectives on Cell Polarity available at www.cshperspectives.org

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Cite this article as *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* 2017;9:a027870

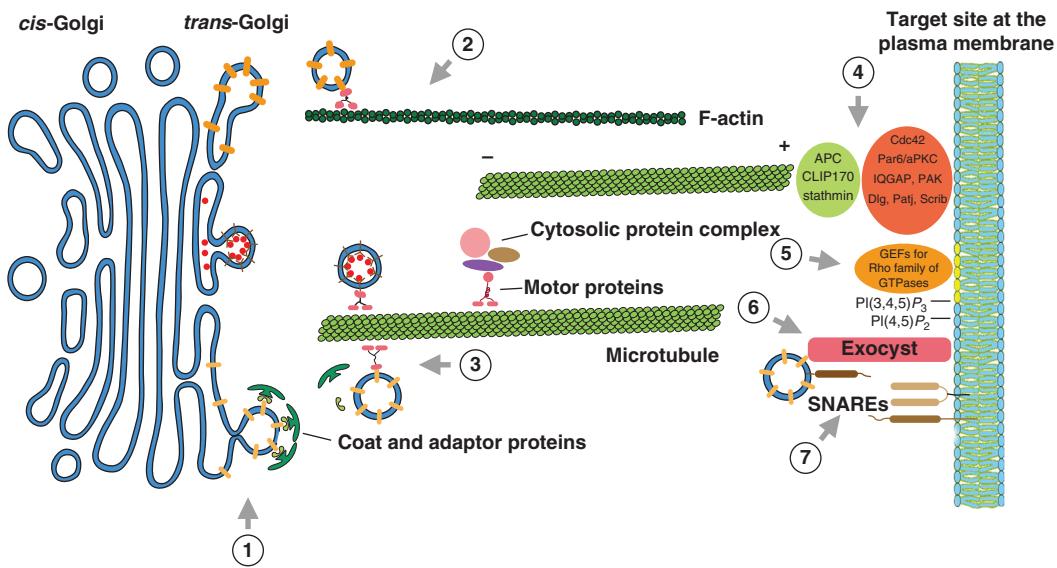


Figure 1. Regulation of exocytic trafficking from the Golgi to the plasma membrane. Diagram illustrates exocytic trafficking from the Golgi to the plasma membrane. Numbers specify each trafficking step. Components and regulators of individual steps are the following: (1) Rabs regulate vesicle exit and loading onto the cytoskeleton. Cdc42 regulates actin dynamics to promote vesicle/tubule formation; (2) Rho family of GTPases regulates actin cable assembly in yeasts; (3) Rab GTPases regulate vesicle movement along the cytoskeleton; (4) Cdc42 and components of the polarity complexes regulate microtubule orientation by directly or indirectly interacting with microtubule plus-end-binding proteins such as APC, CLIP170, and stathmin; (5) The phosphoinositides on the plasma membrane recruits guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) for Rho GTPases; (6) The exocyst complex tethers vesicles to the plasma membrane. Components of the exocyst directly interact with phosphoinositides and the Rho and Rab families of GTPases, which regulate the assembly and localization of the exocyst complex; (7) The assembly of the soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor (NSF) attachment protein receptor (SNARE) complex drives membrane fusion, which can be regulated by accessory proteins, Rabs, and the exocyst.

recent works toward a better understanding of polarized exocytosis in different cellular systems and processes.

MOLECULAR BASIS AND REGULATORY MECHANISMS OF POLARIZED EXOCYTOSIS

The Exocyst Complex and the SNAREs

The exocyst is an octameric protein complex consisting of Sec3, Sec5, Sec6, Sec8, Sec10, Sec15, Exo70, and Exo84. The exocyst is considered as a tether complex that mediates the initial contact between the vesicle and the plasma membrane, and promotes SNARE assembly (reviewed in Guo et al. 2000; Munson and Novick 2006; He and Guo 2009; Heider and Munson 2012; Wu and Guo 2015). It was shown in yeast and mammalian cells that two subunits of the

exocyst complex, Sec3 and Exo70, bind to the phospholipid PI(4,5)P₂ on the plasma membrane (He et al. 2007; Liu et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2008; Baek et al. 2010). Similarly in plants, it was shown that Sec3 binds to PI(4,5)P₂ and this interaction is critical for pollen tube growth (Bloch et al. 2016). Structural analyses revealed that the Sec3 amino-terminal PI(4,5)P₂-binding region has a PH domain-like fold that is evolutionarily conserved among yeasts, plants, and mammals (Baek et al. 2010; Yamashita et al. 2010). In Exo70, the PI(4,5)P₂ interaction is mediated through a patch of basic residues at its carboxyl terminus (Dong et al. 2005; Hamburger et al. 2006; He et al. 2007; Liu et al. 2007; Moore et al. 2007). Sec3 and Exo70 also interact with Rho GTPases localized to the plasma membrane (see below). The dual interaction

of the exocyst with phospholipids and small GTPases suggests a “coincidence detection” mechanism in the targeting of the exocyst to a specific region of the plasma membrane. It was shown that ectopic targeting of Sec3 to mitochondria or peroxisomes led to mistargeting of secretory vesicles to these surrogate organelles (Luo et al. 2014). The data support the role of Sec3 in vesicle targeting.

While Sec3 and some of the Exo70 proteins associate with the plasma membrane via PI(4,5)P₂, other members of the exocyst associate with the secretory vesicles (Boyd et al. 2004). Sec15 interacts with the Rab proteins in their GTP-bound state (Guo et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 2004; Wu et al. 2005). The interaction may mediate the recruitment of the rest of the exocyst subunits to the secretory vesicles and later control their interactions with Sec3 at the plasma membrane (Guo et al. 1999; Luo et al. 2014). Another exocyst subunit, Sec10, was shown to interact with the GTP-bound Arf6, which plays an important role in membrane recycling to the plasma membrane via endosomes (Prigent et al. 2003). It is also interesting to note that Arf6 is required for leading-edge localization of Cdc42, Rac1, and the Par6/aPKC complex, and inhibition of Arf6 causes depletion of PI(4,5)P₂ from the plasma membrane (Aikawa et al. 2003; Osman et al. 2010).

The assembly of the exocyst complex can be regulated by phosphorylation. Phosphorylation of Exo70 by ERK promotes exocyst complex assembly and exocytosis in mammalian cells in response to growth factor signaling (Ren and Guo 2012; Lu et al. 2016). In yeast, mitotic phosphorylation of Exo84 by cell-cycle-dependent kinase, CDK1, disrupts exocyst complex assembly and thus inhibits cell-surface expansion during mitosis, when cells are preparing for division (Luo et al. 2013) (also see below).

Subsequent to vesicle tethering, the v-SNARE proteins in the vesicle and the t-SNARE proteins on the plasma membrane interact with each other to catalyze membrane fusion (Rothman 1994; Baker and Hughson 2016). The interactions between the exocyst and the SNARE proteins have been reported. In yeast, Sec6 was

shown to interact with both the v-SNARE protein Snc2 and the t-SNARE proteins Sec9 (Sivaram et al. 2005; Shen et al. 2013; Dubuke et al. 2015). Sec6 also interacts with the Sec1/Munc18 family protein Sec1 (Morgera et al. 2012). However, the role of Sec6 on SNARE assembly and membrane fusion remains unclear. Exo84 interacts with Sro7/77, which bind to Sec9 (Lehman et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 2005); disruption of the interaction leads to a block in exocytosis (Zhang et al. 2005). Most recently, it was shown in yeast that the exocyst subunit Sec3 directly binds to the t-SNARE protein Sso1/2, and promotes its interaction with the other t-SNARE protein Sec9. Thus, Sec3 catalyzes the first rate-limiting step of the SNARE assembly and membrane fusion (Yue et al. 2017).

The Cytoskeletons

During polarized exocytosis, the cytoskeletons serve as tracks for directional transport of secretory vesicles. While the microtubules are used for rapid movement over long distances, the actin microfilament transports vesicles locally with slower speed (Apodaca 2001).

Microtubules

The microtubules have been shown to mediate vesicular trafficking from cell center to the cell periphery (Burgo et al. 2012). Microtubules also regulate cell polarity by delivering positional information to cell cortex (Siegrist and Doe 2007). One classical example is the polarized cell growth in fission yeast, in which correct positioning of the new pole following unipolar cell growth at the old pole is needed for the formation of their rod-shaped morphology. It was suggested that microtubules deliver microtubule- and actin-binding proteins to the new pole, where the proteins are transferred and anchored to the membrane and further regulate actin dynamics locally to promote polarized cell growth (Sawin and Nurse 1998; Sawin and Snaith 2004; Martin et al. 2005). Other biological processes that involve cellular response to extracellular polarity cues, such as cell migra-



tion and expansion of neuronal growth cone, also utilize similar mechanisms to position the leading edge (Siegrist and Doe 2007; Dent et al. 2011).

Several polarity regulatory complexes control polarized traffic through modulating the orientation of the microtubules. The Par3/Par6/aPKC complex activates the microtubule plus-end-binding protein APC through inactivation of GSK3 β , the kinase that phosphorylates and inactivates APC. Thus, activation of APC stabilizes and orients the microtubules toward specific plasma membrane domains, and thus guide the protein and vesicle traffic for cell polarization (Etienne-Manneville and Hall 2003; Iden and Collard 2008). Dlg1 can interact with APC at the microtubule plus end and together they regulate polarization of the microtubule network (Etienne-Manneville et al. 2005). Similarly, Patj was also found to regulate the orientation of the microtubule organization center (MTOC) in migrating epithelial cells (Shin et al. 2007) and Scribble controls the localization and activity of Cdc42 through interaction with β PIX, the guanine nucleotide exchange factor for Cdc42 (Osmani et al. 2006).

Actin

While mammalian cells use microtubules for trafficking, the budding yeast assemble short actin filaments into cables for polarized delivery of vesicles to the growing end of the daughter cells (the “bud tip”) for polarized growth. The polarized localization of formins and their activation by the Rho family of GTPases direct the actin cables to the bud tip or mother–daughter junction (Pruyne et al. 2002; Goode and Eck 2007). The yeast class V myosin Myo2 is responsible for the transport of post-Golgi secretory vesicles along actin cables (for review, see Pruyne et al. 2004). About 10 myosin motors associate with a single secretory vesicle en route to the bud tip (Donovan and Bretscher 2012). Myo2 is activated on binding to secretory vesicles, and the delivery cycle of the myosin is regulated by sequential interactions with different Rab proteins and the exocyst complex (Lipatova et al. 2008; Donovan and

Bretscher 2012). Sec15, functioning as the downstream effector of the Rab protein Sec4 (Guo et al. 1999), interacts with myosin-V and may act as an adaptor to attach molecular motors to post-Golgi secretory vesicles (Jin et al. 2011).

The Small GTPases

Several members of the Ras superfamily of small GTPases regulate different aspects of polarized exocytosis (Wu et al. 2008; Wu and Guo 2015). The small GTPases function as molecular switches that cycle between GTP- and GDP-bound form. In the active GTP-bound form, these small GTPases interact with the secretory machinery and cytoskeleton to regulate polarized exocytosis. These small GTPases are activated by the guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs), which promote GDP dissociation and GTP loading, and inactivated by the GTPase-activating proteins (GAPs), which facilitate GTP hydrolysis. Here we focus on the Rab, Rho, and Ral proteins in polarized exocytosis.

Rab GTPases

The Rab proteins constitute the largest family of small GTPases that includes more than 60 members in mammals. Different Rabs are localized to distinct membrane-bound organelles or vesicles, where they regulate each step of membrane traffic through their downstream effectors (reviewed in Stenmark 2009; Hutagalung and Novick 2011). The effectors of Rab GTPases are a diverse set of proteins that range from components of the trafficking machinery and cytoskeletal motors to kinases and adaptor proteins. As mentioned above, the exocyst subunit Sec15 is a direct downstream effector of the exocytic Rab protein, which controls the recruitment of the exocyst to the vesicles (Guo et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 2004; Wu et al. 2005). In yeast, the Rab protein Sec4 also interacts with Myo2, a member of the class V myosin that mediates the transport of cargos along actin cables, therefore orchestrating vesicle transport and tethering (Lipatova et al. 2008; Jin et al. 2011; Donovan and Bretscher 2012). Sec4 also

interacts with Sro7, which is a homolog of Lgl that interacts with both the exocyst and t-SNARE proteins (Lehman et al. 1999; Zhang et al. 2005; Grosshans et al. 2006).

The Rab GTPases coordinate with each other and are activated sequentially along the exocytic pathway (Mizuno-Yamasaki et al. 2012; Novick 2016). It was found in both yeast and mammalian cells that the GEF (e.g., Sec2 and Rabin8) for a downstream Rab protein (e.g., Sec4 and Rab8) can be a direct effector of an upstream Rab (Ypt31/32 and Rab11) (Ortiz et al. 2002; Knödler et al. 2010). In yeast, Ypt31/32 recruit Sec2 to the secretory vesicles (Ortiz et al. 2002). In mammalian cells, Rab11 is not only required for Rabin8 localization, but also stimulates the GEF activity of Rabin8 toward Rab8 (Knödler et al. 2010). The cascade may lead to an ordered series of transitions from one Rab protein to the next and ensure the directional flow of trafficking (Das and Guo 2011; Mizuno-Yamasaki et al. 2012; Novick 2016).

Rho GTPases

The Rho family of small GTPases regulates a wide range of cellular processes such as cytoskeleton organization, focal adhesion formation, cell polarity, and vesicle traffic (Tapon and Hall 1997; Jaffe and Hall 2005; Park and Bi 2007). Apart from regulating vesicle transport through remodeling cytoskeletons, Rho GTPases directly interact with the secretion machinery. In yeast, Cdc42, Rho1, and Rho3 interact with the exocyst subunits Sec3 and Exo70 (Adamo et al. 1999, 2001; Robinson et al. 1999; Guo et al. 2001; Zhang et al. 2001, 2005; Baek et al. 2010; Wu et al. 2010; Yamashita et al. 2010). The interaction of the Rho GTPases with the exocyst may mediate the polarized localization of the exocyst to the bud tip for polarized cell growth or kinetically regulate the activity of the exocyst in vesicle tethering and membrane fusion.

Cdc42 is a central player in the establishment of cell polarity (Etienne-Manneville 2004). In yeast, besides directly interacting with the exocyst subunits Sec3 and Exo70, Cdc42 regulates actin dynamics by activating actin nucleation-promoting factors such as N-WASP and formins

(for review, see Pruyne et al. 2004; Park and Bi 2007). Moreover, it was proposed that Cdc42 regulate the activity of the Rab GTPase Sec4 by regulating its GAPs, Msb3, and Msb4 (Gao et al. 2003). In mammalian cells, Cdc42 also regulates the positioning of microtubule plus end through the Cdc42-Par6/aPKC-GSK3 β -APC pathway (Etienne-Manneville and Hall 2003), the Cdc42-IQGAP-CLIP170/APC pathway (Fukata et al. 2002), and the Cdc42-PAK-stathmin pathway (Daub et al. 2001), which are important for establishing polarity axis and reorienting microtubule and Golgi for polarized vesicle traffic. Cdc42 was also shown to inhibit COPI-mediated retrograde traffic from Golgi to ER (Wu et al. 2000; Chen et al. 2005) and promote anterograde traffic within Golgi (Park et al. 2015).

Cdc42 itself can be regulated by positive feedback loops, which amplify the initial polarity cue and stabilize the polarity axis. Studies in yeast suggest that targeted vesicle traffic mediated by actin cables, the exocyst complex, and Rab GTPases is required for polarized transport of Cdc42 to the plasma membrane (for review, see Slaughter et al. 2009). In mammalian cells, Cdc42 can recruit the microtubule plus-end-binding proteins such as CLIP-170 and APC through several signaling pathways. The plus-end-binding proteins anchor microtubule plus ends to the cell cortex, where active Cdc42 further orients the MTOC and the Golgi apparatus. As such, polarized delivery of more cortical polarity proteins or GEFs for Rho GTPases leads to reinforcement of cell polarity (Watanabe et al. 2005; Siegrist and Doe 2007).

Ral GTPases

Ral GTPases were generally viewed as proto-oncogenes as they induce cellular transformation through Ras-dependent or -independent signaling pathways. Recent studies have implicated them in vesicle trafficking as the active RalA and RalB directly interact with the exocyst subunits Sec5 and Exo84 (Brymora et al. 2001; Moskalenko et al. 2002, 2003; Polzin et al. 2002; Sugihara et al. 2002; Feig 2003; Jin et al. 2005). Phosphorylation of the exocyst component Sec5



by PKC dissociates it from RalA and may facilitate the next round of regulation by RalA (Chen et al. 2011). The Ral-exocyst interaction has also been implicated in tumorigenesis and cell migration (Balakireva et al. 2006; Chen et al. 2006, 2007; Chien et al. 2006; Rossé et al. 2006; Lalli 2009; Bodemann et al. 2011; Hazelett et al. 2011).

Phosphoinositides

Intracellular compartments are marked by different phosphoinositides, which not only specify the organelles but also regulate membrane traffic and signaling. Different phosphoinositides recruit specific cytosolic proteins, act as allosteric regulators of effector proteins, or regulate vesicle fission and fusion by modulating membrane curvature (De Camilli et al. 1996; Corvera et al. 1999; De Matteis and Godi 2004; Roth 2004; Behnia and Munro 2005; Di Paolo and De Camilli 2006). The conversions of different phospholipids are mediated by lipid kinases and phosphatases that have been shown to regulate membrane traffic and are regulated by several small GTPases. For exocytic trafficking in yeast, the Golgi pool of PI(4)P controls both the recruitment and subsequent activation of Sec4 for exocytic traffic via its GEF, Sec2 (Mizuno-Yamasaki et al. 2010). The subsequent attenuation of PI(4)P along the exocytic trafficking to the plasma membrane switches Sec2 binding to the Sec4 effector Sec15 (Medkova et al. 2006). Coupled to the Rab and exocyst, PI(4)P transition also mediates the association of myosin-V to the secretory vesicles (Santiago-Tirado et al. 2011).

At the plasma membrane, phosphoinositides PI(4,5)P₂ and PI(3,4,5)P₃ function as important signaling molecules for cell polarity. The levels of PI(4,5)P₂ and PI(3,4,5)P₃ on the plasma membrane at a given site are regulated by PI4P5-kinases, PI3-kinase, and phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) phosphatase, respectively (Leevers et al. 1999). In polarized Madin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells, PI(3,4,5)P₃ is localized to the basolateral membrane (Gassama-Diagne et al. 2006; Martin-Belmonte et al. 2007). In a 3D cystogenesis

model, it was shown that PTEN localizes to the apical membrane during epithelial morphogenesis, where it excludes PI(3,4,5)P₃ from this domain (Martin-Belmonte et al. 2007). Also, PI(4,5)P₂ recruits the adaptor protein annexin2 to the apical domain, which in turn recruits Cdc42 and the aPKC/Par6 complex. Cdc42 activation of the aPKC/Par3/Par6 complex has also been shown to play a role in directional cell migration (Etienne-Manneville et al. 2005). As mentioned above, the exocyst interacts directly with PI(4,5)P₂ (He et al. 2007; Liu et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2008). It was shown that the exocyst complex is recruited for the establishment or maintenance of epithelial polarity (Grindstaff et al. 1998).

POLARIZED EXOCYTOSIS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF CELLS

Polarized exocytosis is an evolutionarily conserved process observed in many different types of eukaryotic cells (Fig. 2). While cells need polarized exocytosis for their diverse growth properties and physiological functions, they also offer excellent model systems that help understand polarized exocytosis. The variations on the theme confer the unique morphologies and functions that different types of cells display.

Polarized Cell Growth in Budding Yeast

The budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* undergoes asymmetric growth, and thus provides an excellent model system for the study of cell polarity. After defining a site for bud emergence based on the spatial cue from the previous cell cycle (e.g., “bud scar”) or a stochastic process, a yeast cell build actin cables, along which post-Golgi secretory vesicles are transported to the daughter cell plasma membrane. The class V myosin, Myo2, mediates the polarized transport process (for review, see Pruyne et al. 2004). Cdc42 is a master regulator in polarity establishment as it orchestrates actin reorganization and vesicle traffic (for review, see Bi and Park 2012). First, it regulates the polarized organization of the actin cables through the formin pro-

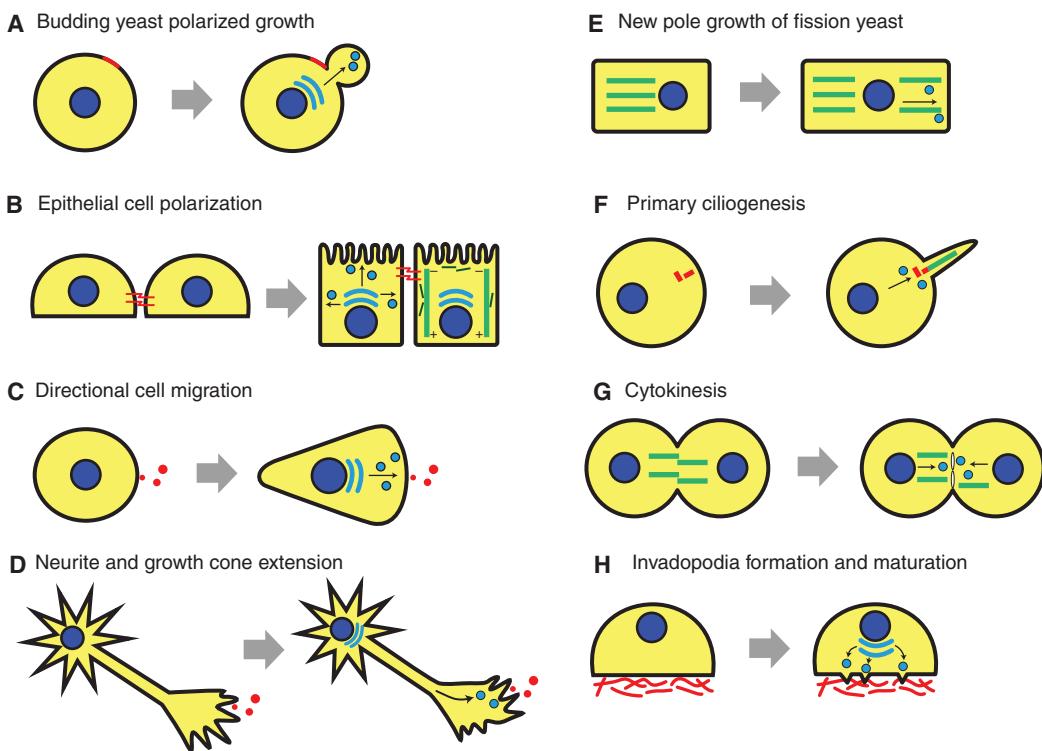


Figure 2. Polarized exocytosis functions to establish and maintain polarity in different cell types and biological processes. (A) Asymmetric growth of daughter cells in budding yeast involves polarized exocytosis. Red: bud scar. (B) The establishment and maintenance of apicobasolateral polarity of epithelial cells requires polarized traffic to specific plasma membrane domains. Red: E-cadherin. (C) The front–rear polarity of migrating cells along the chemoattractant gradient involves active endo-exocytosis at the leading edge. Red: chemoattractant. (D) Neurite and growth cone extension requires polarized membrane addition. (E) Polarized growth at the new pole of fission yeasts. Green: microtubules. (F) Primary ciliogenesis requires polarized traffic at the base of the cilium. Red: γ -tubulin. (G) Cytokinesis requires polarized traffic for membrane abscission. (H) Generation and maturation of invadopodia requires polarized exocytosis for the formation of membrane protrusion and secretion of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs). Red: extracellular matrix (ECM).



tein Bni1 (Pruyne et al. 2004; Park and Bi 2007; Breitsprecher and Goode 2013). Second, Cdc42 regulates the localization and/or activation of the exocyst complex (Wu et al. 2008; Wu and Guo 2015). In *cdc42* mutants, exocytosis defects were detected (Adamo et al. 2001). In addition, disruption of exocyst-Cdc42 interactions leads to secretion and polarity defects (Zhang et al. 2001, 2008). While Cdc42 is a key regulator of exocytosis, exocytosis in turn regulates the polarized localization of Cdc42 (Wedlich-Soldner et al. 2003). This positive feedback loop is important for the establishment or reenforcement of cell polarity.

Apicobasolateral Polarity of Epithelial Cells

The establishment of epithelial polarity is initiated by the formation of cell–cell contact, transactivation of E-cadherin at the cell–cell contact, and a positive feedback loop between E-cadherin and Cdc42 to strengthen the adhesion (Kim et al. 2000; Chu et al. 2004). As discussed previously, Cdc42 is able to orient the microtubules, further amplifying the polarity cue by directing polarized transport of other proteins.

The sorting of apical and basolateral proteins has long been recognized to be required to establish, reinforce, and maintain epithelial



polarity (Apodaca et al. 2012). The biosynthetic sorting machinery and the polarized trafficking routes in epithelial cells have been intensively studied for decades (reviewed in Mostov et al. 2000; Ellis et al. 2006; Carmosino et al. 2010). It has been reviewed in other articles and will not be discussed here. For exocytic trafficking, the Rab GTPases Rab8 and Rab11 have been shown to regulate basolateral trafficking via Golgi and sorting endosomes (Ang et al. 2003; Lock and Stow 2005). Rab11 was also reported to be involved in apical trafficking (Satoh et al. 2005). A possible explanation might be that Rab11 resides on apical recycling endosomes to regulate apical targeting and also on common recycling endosomes to mediate basolateral sorting (Ellis et al. 2006). Similarly, the involvement of Rab8 in apical trafficking in intestinal cells was also reported (Sato et al. 2007). The exocyst complex, acting downstream of Rab8 and Rab11 or Ral GTPases, has been shown to be localized to the apex of the basolateral domain and regulates the basolateral, but not apical, targeting of vesicles (Grindstaff et al. 1998; Moskalenko et al. 2002; Ang et al. 2003; Lock et al. 2005). Studies have also shown that the exocyst functions together with the Par3/6 complex in apical domain trafficking (Blankenship et al. 2007; Oztan et al. 2007; Bryant et al. 2010). During de novo lumen generation, proper targeting of Par3 and Cdc42 and the delivery of apical membrane components are governed by Rab11, Rab8, and the exocyst (Bryant et al. 2010; Datta et al. 2011).

Front–Rear Polarity of Migrating Cells

The migrating cells generate a front–rear polarity axis in response to extracellular stimuli. It has been shown that active exocytosis occurs at the leading edge that involves polarized organization of microtubules (Schmoranzer et al. 2003). Cdc42 and components of the polarity complexes have been shown to be localized to the leading edge, which may orchestrate the rearrangement of microtubules and polarized distribution of effector proteins. This may, in turn, form positive feedback loops and promote polarized vesicle traffic toward the leading edge

(Osmani et al. 2006; Shin et al. 2007; Nelson 2009). Besides Cdc42, the other Rho family of GTPases also regulates directional migration by regulating actin dynamics and adhesion organization (Ridley et al. 2003). RalB also regulates polarized traffic to the leading edge through promoting the exocyst complex assembly and localization (Rossé et al. 2006). The exocyst subunits, including Exo70, interact with the Arp2/3 complex and WAVE complexes to facilitate actin polymerization for membrane protrusion (Zuo et al. 2006; Liu et al. 2012; Biondini et al. 2016). The role of Exo70 in regulating actin dynamics may be coordinated with its capability of inducing membrane deformation at the leading edge for directional cell migration (Zhao et al. 2013). It was also found that the Par3/6 complex interacts with the exocyst under the control of RalA, and this interaction is important for directional migration of the neuronal progenitor cells (Lalli 2009; Zuo et al. 2009; Das et al. 2014).

The epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT) is thought to play important roles during embryonic development and tumor metastasis. EMT can be regulated at the mRNA level by alternative splicing by proteins such as ESRP1/2 (Warzecha and Carstens 2012). The exocyst subunit Exo70 exists as different splicing isoforms in epithelial cells and mesenchymal cells. ESRP1/2 mediate the isoform switching of Exo70 during EMT, and this switch is important for the transition between the apico-basolateral polarity of epithelial cells and the front–rear polarity of the migrating cells (Lu et al. 2013).

Neurite and Growth Cone Extension in Neuronal Cells

The neuronal growth cone guidance shares several key features with directional cell migration (Siegrist and Doe 2007). The growth cone contains a peripheral actin network and a central microtubule domain. While the cortical actin networks generate membrane protrusions similar to lamellipodia, the microtubules are required for polarized positioning of the protrusions. It was speculated that a constant flow of

vesicles moves toward the extending membrane domains of the growth cone (Bretscher 1996). Later studies showed that polarized exocytosis is indeed required for attractive axon guidance (Tojima et al. 2007). The exocyst complex was found to associate with microtubules and mediate polarized vesicle traffic to promote neurite outgrowth (Vega and Hsu 2001; Dupraz et al. 2009). The Par3/6 complex interacts with the exocyst, and this interaction is involved in directional migration of neural progenitor cells (Lalli and Hall 2005; Lalli 2009; Zuo et al. 2009; Das et al. 2014). A component in the Scrib polarity complex, Lgl1, was shown to be localized to neuronal growth cone and act upstream of Rab10 to promote axon growth, probably through polarized vesicle traffic (Wang et al. 2011).

CELLULAR PROCESSES THAT REQUIRE POLARIZED EXOCYTOSIS

As polarized exocytosis mediates the deposition of proteins and membranes at specific domains of the cell surface, it is needed for the accomplishment of many essential cellular processes (Fig. 2). Below we will discuss a few examples.

Primary Ciliogenesis

In the prevalent model for primary ciliogenesis, the delivery of ciliary membranes and proteins requires polarized exocytosis at the base of cilia (reviewed in Nachury et al. 2010). Several studies have suggested that polarized trafficking machinery has a role in the growth and function of primary cilia. A Rab cascade involving Rab11-Rabin8-Rab8 mediates polarized exocytosis at the periciliary base and promotes ciliogenesis (Knödler et al. 2010). Rabin8 and Rab8 also interact with the coat complex BBSome and the tethering complex TRAPPII to promote ciliogenesis (Nachury et al. 2007; Westlake et al. 2011). Moreover, the exocyst complex is localized to the base of the cilia and regulates ciliogenesis together with Par3/6 and Rab10 in MDCK cells (Rogers et al. 2004; Zuo et al. 2009; Babbe et al. 2010). Recently, the exocyst was shown to physically and genetically interact

with Arl13b, one of ARF family GTPases known to regulate ciliogenesis (Seixas et al. 2016).

Cytokinesis

During cytokinesis, cells need to rearrange membrane phospholipids and cytoskeletons, and redirect intracellular membrane traffic pathways (reviewed in Hehnly and Doxsey 2012). It was shown more than 50 years ago that cell growth dramatically decreases during mitosis (Prescott and Bender 1962). The mitotic growth arrest is thought to help cells to reorganize their structure and adapt to the increased energy demands for subsequent cell division or regeneration (Goranov and Amon 2010). Cell-surface expansion decreases as cells approach metaphase and recovers after the metaphase-anaphase transition as a result of SNARE-mediated exocytosis (Boucrot and Kirchhausen 2007, 2008). As elaborated above, phosphorylation of Exo84 by mitotic Cdk1 inhibits exocyst assembly and blocks membrane expansion before mitosis (Luo et al. 2013). Also, the Rab protein Sec4 is phosphorylated during mitosis, which leads to its dissociation from Sec15 (Lepore et al. 2016). The recycling endosomes are associated with γ -tubulin ring complex and depletion of Rab11 delays mitosis (Hehnly et al. 2014).

At the late stage of cytokinesis, membrane deposition is needed at the junction of two daughter cells for separation, a process termed abscission. Exocytic trafficking and cytoskeleton are coordinated during this process (for reviews, see Chen et al. 2012; Schiel et al. 2013). Time-lapse imaging shows the trafficking of Golgi-derived vesicles from daughter cells to the cleavage furrow during mammalian cytokinesis (Goss and Toomre 2008). In fission yeast, the exocyst is implicated in membrane deposition (Fig. 2) (Wang et al. 2012, 2016). During ingress of the cleavage furrow, the central spindle microtubules are compacted to form the structure known as the midbody. It was shown that centriolin, a component of the midbody, interacts with the exocyst and the SNARE-binding protein Snapin (Gromley et al. 2005). RalA and RalB play distinct roles in regulating





J. Zeng et al.

the exocyst complex to promote cytokinesis (Cascone et al. 2008).

Invadopodia

Invadopodia are actin-based cell-surface protrusions that degrade the extracellular matrix (ECM) (reviewed in Murphy and Courtneidge 2011). It was reported that the secretion of the ECM degrading enzyme matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) at invadopodia is mediated by the exocyst complex (Sakurai-Yageta et al. 2008; Liu et al. 2009; Ren and Guo 2012; Monteiro et al. 2013; Lu et al. 2016). Besides the exocyst, SNARE proteins including TI-VAMP/VAMP7 also mediate MMP secretion (Steffen et al. 2008). Recently, it was found that invadopodia function as docking and secretion sites for MMP-bearing exosomes to promote the invasive behavior of cancer cells (Hoshino et al. 2013).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Although polarized exocytosis takes many forms and is involved in different biological processes, the principle trafficking pathways and key regulators are mostly conserved. It is likely that more cellular processes will be linked to polarized exocytosis in the future. Moreover, new studies may reveal additional factors and add more complexity to the already complicated regulatory mechanisms. Now the field is poised to offer molecular insights to the pathology of diseases ranging from tumorigenesis to neurodegeneration, in which several key regulators of polarity have already been implicated. The challenge now is to cross the divide between basic cell biology and medicine.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Due to the broad nature of this subject, we were unable to provide a complete survey of the field of polarized exocytosis, but instead chose to highlight a few key processes. We apologize for any references we may have left out. Research in Wei Guo's laboratory is supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health.

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