

Chapter 9

Mechanisms of Chloroplast Protein Import in Plants

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Abstract Most chloroplast proteins are encoded as preproteins by the nuclear genome. Their import into chloroplasts occurs post-translationally. An N-terminal pre-sequence, the transit peptide, contains the organellar targeting information. It is specifically recognized by receptor components at the chloroplast surface. These receptors are components of the TOC (*translocon* at the *outer* envelope membrane of chloroplasts) complex. Together with the TIC (*translocon* at the *inner* envelope membrane of chloroplasts) machinery, this mediates the import of proteins into chloroplasts. In addition to the receptors, these complexes incorporate channel, motor and regulatory functions. Many putative or actual components have been identified. Multiple isoforms of the TOC receptors (and possibly of some other components) constitute the molecular basis of separate import pathways with distinct client preferences. This perhaps reduces competition effects between highly abundant and less abundant preproteins. Client preferences of different import pathways might also facilitate the differentiation of various plastid types. In addition to the canonical TOC/TIC-mediated import routes, alternative, mechanistically distinct pathways of protein transport to chloroplasts have been identified; one of these passes through the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus. Other work has revealed several protein targeting pathways leading to the envelope membranes.

Keywords Chloroplast envelope · Chloroplast protein import · Plastid biogenesis · Protein targeting · Protein transport · TOC/TIC machinery · Translocon

Abbreviations

CAH1	Carbonic anhydrase 1
ceQORH	Chloroplast envelope quinone oxidoreductase homolog
cpHsc70	Chloroplast stromal Hsp70
MGD1	Monogalactosyldiacylglycerol synthase 1

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OEP7/14	Outer envelope protein, 7/14 kD
PPI1	Plastid protein import 1
SPP	Stromal processing peptidase
SSU	Small subunit of Rubisco
TIC	Translocon at the inner envelope membrane of chloroplasts
TOC	Translocon at the outer envelope membrane of chloroplasts
TROL	Thylakoid rhodanese-like protein
UPS	Ubiquitin-proteasome system

9.1 Introductory Topics

9.1.1 Background

Plastids are the prototypical plant organelles. The chloroplast is the most prominent representative of the family. Chloroplasts derived from cyanobacteria by an endosymbiotic process during which a primordial photosynthetic bacterium was engulfed by a eukaryotic host cell. Over time, most of the cyanobacterial genetic material was transferred to host nucleus, both transforming the host genome and progressively reducing the chloroplast genome. The cyanobacterial model *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803 [99] has 3168 predicted protein coding genes, whereas the chloroplast genome of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the eudicot model system, retains 87 protein coding genes [178]. However, the number of chloroplast proteins has been estimated at around 1500 in recent proteomics studies [59, 113, 198]. The large difference is explained by the nuclear-encoded origin of the vast majority of chloroplast proteins. Therefore, a mechanism for importing proteins synthesized in the cytosol into chloroplasts is required [94, 105, 136, 187]. In this chapter, we will address how these nuclear-encoded chloroplast constituents are targeted to the organelle and translocated across the outer and inner envelope membranes.

9.1.2 Transit Peptides

Some of the first studies on chloroplast protein import in the late 70s and early 80s of the past century focused on one of the most abundant and best known chloroplast proteins, the small subunit of Rubisco (SSU), establishing it as a model chloroplast import substrate [52, 67]. In cell-free translation experiments of isolated *Chlamydomonas* mRNA, Dobberstein and colleagues in 1977 observed that SSU was synthesized as a protein larger than that present in chloroplasts. They hypothesized that this was an extrachloroplastic form and that the additional amino acid sequence may be required for its transfer into the chloroplast. Since then many chloroplast proteins have been identified and studied, and as it turned out the majority of these are synthesized with N-terminal extensions as “preproteins”, abbreviated as pSSU

in the case of SSU. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that the N-terminal extensions (known as transit peptides) are required for the targeting and translocation of preproteins into the chloroplast. Interestingly, transit peptides are not conserved in primary structure, and their length is also quite variable from approximately 30 to 70 amino acids [33, 34]. Certain physicochemical characteristics, however, such as a preponderance of hydroxylated and basic amino acids together with the underrepresentation of acidic amino acids are typical of transit peptides. It has also been found that transit peptides have a tendency to take on a natively unfolded structure [223]. Such an unfolded structure may facilitate the engagement of components of the chloroplast protein import machinery.

9.1.3 Energetics and Stages of Import

Before any of the components of the chloroplast protein import machinery were identified, the *in vitro* import system using isolated pea chloroplasts was extensively studied in terms of energetics and differentiable import stages. Early on it was recognized that preprotein import requires energy: light could be used as it leads to the production of ATP via the electron transport chain and the ATP synthase. Exogenous ATP is required when chloroplasts are depleted of energy in the dark and by the dissolution of the proton gradient using nigericin. Depending on the ATP concentration, at least three different stages of import were distinguished. In the absence of added ATP (“energy-independent stage”), the preprotein interacted with components at the chloroplast surface in a reversible, unstable way that could be trapped using covalent chemical crosslinking [115, 143, 163]. At low concentrations of ATP (100 micromolar), and GTP, the preprotein inserted across the outer envelope membrane in a stable way and was isolated as the so-called “early translocation intermediate” [106, 159, 228]. Later it was demonstrated that at this stage the preprotein is exposed to the cytoplasm but has also already engaged components at the inner envelope membrane. Complete translocation of the preprotein across both envelope membranes required “high” concentrations of ATP (1-5 millimolar) [160, 202]. At this stage the preprotein arrives in the chloroplast stroma where the transit peptide is cleaved by the stromal processing peptidase (SPP) (see Sect. 9.3.4). The preprotein can be arrested at this stage by chilling the chloroplasts on ice resulting in the “late translocation intermediate” [85, 133].

9.1.4 Identification of Translocon Components

The identification of translocon components long proved challenging: Eventually, three separate approaches turned out to be successful. A study using chemical crosslinking of pSSU in an *in vitro* import assay in the absence of added ATP at the “energy-independent stage” resulted in the cross-linking of an 86 kD protein [163]. At a later stage of import, in the presence of ATP, an additional 75 kD protein

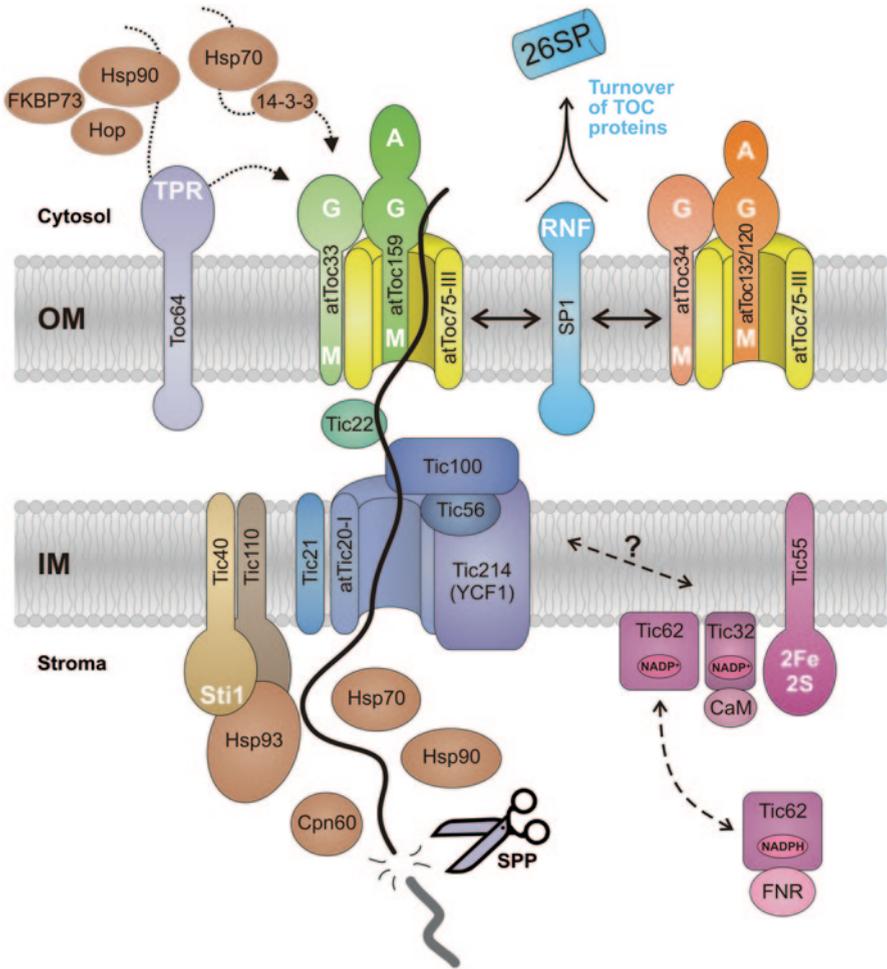


Fig. 9.1 The TOC and TIC complexes of the chloroplast protein import machinery. The TOC and TIC translocons in the outer and inner envelope membranes (OM and IM, respectively) are shown, as is a translocating preprotein (black line). Individual translocon components are identified by their molecular weights (black text), while some key functional domains are indicated (white text). Tic159, Toc34 and Toc75 together form the core TOC complex in the outer membrane (Toc159 is represented here by the *Arabidopsis* isoforms atToc159, atToc132 and atToc120; and Toc34 is represented by atToc33 and atToc34). While Toc159 and Toc34 are responsible for preprotein recognition, Toc75 (atToc75-III in *Arabidopsis*) forms the outer envelope channel. Different receptor isoforms enable the formation of different TOC complexes, and thus the operation of different import pathways with distinct client preferences. The RING finger (*RNF*) ubiquitin E3 ligase SP1 mediates the ubiquitination of TOC components, leading to their turnover by the 26S proteasome (26SP); this enables the dynamic reorganization of the protein import machinery. Various cytosolic chaperones and their cofactors (Hsp70 and 14-3-3; Hsp90, Hop and FKBP73) are proposed to interact with unfolded preproteins (forming so-called “guidance complexes”), to maintain their import competence and direct them to the Toc34 or Toc64 (OEP64) receptors. Tic22 is thought to provide a link between the TOC and TIC complexes, facilitating preprotein passage through the intermembrane space. Tic20 (atTic20-I) may participate in inner membrane channel formation, as

was crosslinked. These results indicated that preprotein import proceeds through a sequence of interactions from the cytosol to the chloroplast stroma. However, this study did not molecularly identify either the 86 or the 75 kD components [163]. In a separate study, IgG directed against the 86 kD protein at the outer membrane was shown to inhibit preprotein import into the chloroplast [73]. This finding suggested that the 86 kD protein functioned as a preprotein import receptor. In a third study, recombinant purified pSSU fused to IgG-binding of ProteinA (pSSU-ProtA) was incubated on a large scale with isolated chloroplasts either in the presence of “low” concentrations of ATP to produce the early intermediate or with “high” concentrations of ATP to produce the late intermediate [106, 182]. Subsequently, the reactions were stopped on ice. The envelope membranes were isolated, solubilized and subjected to IgG-affinity chromatography. In the case of the early intermediate, this resulted in the co-isolation of three chloroplast envelope proteins (86, 75 and 34 kD) together with un-processed pSSU-ProtA. For the late intermediate, the corresponding experiment resulted in the co-isolation of five envelope membrane proteins (the same 86, 75, 34 kD bands and additional bands at 110 and 36 kD) together with the mature SSU-ProtA.

In hindsight, these three seminal studies together yielded the first evidence for components of the chloroplast protein import machinery. The components at the outer membrane were termed Toc (*translocon at the outer membrane of the chloroplast*) [183]. The core of the TOC translocon consists of an apparently stable complex of Toc159 (of which the 86 kD protein is a fragment, see below), Toc75 and Toc34 that correspond to the proteins that were identified in the initial studies (Fig. 9.1) [107, 181]. One of the additional components that co-isolated with the late intermediate was later identified as Tic110 (*translocon at the inner membrane of the chloroplast*) and was the first known component at the inner membrane [103, 140]. The 36 kD component remained unidentified.

At the early intermediate stage of translocation the preprotein is inserted across the outer membrane and already makes contact with components of the inner membrane. The components at the inner membrane are Tic20 and Tic22, which were both identified by covalent crosslinking to the trapped intermediate [115, 116]. Tic20 is an integral protein of the inner membrane, while Tic22 is one of a few known intermembrane space proteins and is only peripherally associated with the outer face of the inner envelope membrane (see Sect. 9.3).

part of a large TIC complex which also incorporates Tic214, Tic100, Tic56 and Tic21, the latter being only loosely associated with the complex. Thereafter, Tic110 functions together with Tic40 in the recruitment and regulation of stromal chaperones, such as Hsp93, Hsp90, Hsp70 and Cpn60, which may form motor complexes for protein import propulsion, facilitate protein folding, or aid intraorganellar routing. SPP removes the transit peptide (*grey line*) upon its arrival in the stroma. A redox-regulator, comprising Tic62, Tic55 and Tic32, might be involved in fine-tuning the import process, working in conjunction with FNR and calmodulin (*CaM*)

9.2 Translocation Across the Outer Membrane

9.2.1 Components of the TOC Complex

The three main components of TOC core complex have highly intriguing primary structures: Toc159 and Toc34 turned out to be homologous GTP-binding proteins of the septin class [106, 134]. While Toc34 consists of the conserved GTP-binding domain followed by a C-terminal transmembrane segment, Toc159 has an extensive N-terminal acidic (A-) domain and a large C-terminal membrane-anchoring (M-) domain [31, 40]. Toc75 is a beta-barrel type membrane protein of the Omp85 family, members of which are involved in the insertion of outer membrane proteins in bacteria [57, 63, 209]. Both Toc159 and Toc34 are located at the chloroplast surface and are accessible to exogenous protease. Crosslinking at the earliest stages of protein import as well as antibody inhibition suggested that Toc159 constitutes the primary import receptor at the chloroplast surface [73, 163]. But there is now ample evidence that Toc159 and Toc34 co-operate in the recognition of preproteins at the chloroplast surface although the exact sequence of events occurring at the chloroplast surface is not known [22, 104, 138]. Toc75 is resistant to exogenously added protease indicating that it is deeply buried in the outer membrane. Based on its topology and primary structure Toc75 was proposed to function as the preprotein-conducting channel in the outer membrane [182, 209]. Indeed, Toc75 has channel properties in electrophysiological setups [70]. In most graphic models, Toc159 and -34 are represented as GTP-regulated, preprotein-specific receptors providing access to Toc75 channel. This view is supported biochemically by the finding that non- or slowly-hydrolyzable GTP analogs block preprotein import into isolated chloroplasts [106, 228]. However, more recent reverse genetic studies in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* model system point to a very complex mechanism of GTP-regulation that we do not completely understand (see below) [1, 9, 129, 226]. A reconstitution study also suggested that the three components are sufficient to accomplish translocation in vitro [180]. Because of their central role in import and stable association, Toc159, -34 and -75 together were termed the TOC core complex (Fig. 9.1) [182].

9.2.2 TOC Components in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

The research described so far was carried out using the pea (*Pisum sativum*) chloroplast in vitro system. This system allows large-scale chloroplast isolation, which in turn is useful for all sorts of biochemical experimentation. But up to now pea has not been amenable to genetic techniques. Here, *Arabidopsis thaliana* has proven incredibly powerful. A first mutant was identified in a forward screen of T-DNA insertion lines to find pale-green chloroplast biogenesis mutants—this was the *plastid protein import 1* (*ppi1*) mutant [95]. The PPI1 protein (atToc33) turned out to be highly homologous to pea Toc34, thereby providing the first insight into its role in chloroplast biogenesis. Moreover, the *Arabidopsis* genome contained a close

homolog of atToc33, atToc34, that was able to functionally complement the *ppi1* mutant. Indeed, the atToc33 and -34 proteins share considerable redundancy, with the double knock-out being embryo lethal [50]. This finding indicates that the two proteins together fulfil an essential role in plastid development, presumably by their participation in protein import. Since then, many more details of a complex TOC system in *Arabidopsis* have emerged: For instance, a total of four Toc159 homologs exist (atToc159, -132, -120 and -90). This GTPase subfamily shares the A-, G- and M-domain features of pea Toc159, with the exception of atToc90 that lacks the A-domain [19, 68].

Inevitably, questions regarding the possibility of distinct functions of these homologs emerged. Evidence for such a scenario stems from the analysis of the *ppi2* mutant in which the *atTOC159* gene is disrupted by a T-DNA insertion [19]. The *ppi2* mutant has a tell-tale seedling-lethal, albino phenotype pointing to a defect in chloroplast biogenesis. Moreover, a strong reduction in the levels of many, but not all photosynthesis-associated proteins was observed. This suggested that atToc159 is a major receptor required for the massive accumulation of photosynthesis-associated proteins. While this may hold true, the *ppi2* mutation also affects the accumulation of proteins that are not associated with photosynthesis [29]. Therefore, the functional boundaries of atToc159 are not as clear cut as originally believed. The single T-DNA insertion mutants of the other Toc159 homologs have milder (Toc132) or no phenotypes (Toc120/-90) [69, 91, 124]. However, the *toc132 toc120* double mutant resulted in a very severe phenotype, indicating redundancy. Because these two genes are expressed predominantly in non-photosynthetic tissues such as roots, this suggested that the two homologs together may have a central role in the import of non-photosynthesis-associated, “house-keeping” proteins [89, 91, 124]. Preferential assignment of the Toc34 isoforms to different import pathways has also been proposed (Fig. 9.1) [50, 91, 123]. While along rather general lines, the respective functional assignments of Toc159 and Toc132/-120 to specific groups of pre-proteins are probably more or less correct; nonetheless, a much more differentiated view must be developed.

Just recently, it has been demonstrated that chloroplast preproteins fall into three age-dependent classes, with the optimal import efficiency of each correlating with different chloroplast ages [204]. Intriguingly, the molecular determinants of age-dependent import lie within the transit peptide. In light of these findings, the question arises as to what extent age-dependent import pathways correspond to the separate import pathways that have been identified in the context of TOC receptor-dependent client-specificity.

9.2.3 TOC Complexes

In the absence of genome sequence information, the situation in pea appears simple as a sole TOC core complex consisting of three components is known; however, inspection of the available sequenced plant genomes indicates that *Arabidopsis* is not an unusual case, and that the aforementioned TOC receptor diversity is common.

Regardless, exactly how many of each one of these proteins is present in the individual complexes is still a matter of debate. A megadalton complex containing the components has been identified, which suggests that some of them must be present in more than just one copy [39, 107, 180].

In *Arabidopsis*, only Toc75 is encoded by a unique gene (it has homologs but these are either inactive or are not directly implicated in the translocation of transit peptide containing preproteins) [14, 55, 80]. Given the existence of small families of Toc GTPases, a variety of TOC core complexes may exist. Experimental evidence suggests that complexes consisting of atToc159, atToc33 and atToc75 are predominantly present in green, chloroplast-containing tissues and transport mostly photosynthesis-associated genes. Complexes consisting of atToc132/-120, atToc34 and atToc75 are predominantly present in non-green tissues and transport mostly the “house-keeping” proteins [91]. The evidence, however, is not as clear cut as it may appear: atToc34 can complement the absence of atToc33 in *Arabidopsis* suggesting that at least in this case the function of one component can be taken over by another and also replace it in the TOC core complex [50, 95].

Earlier results had shown that non- or slowly-hydrolyzable analogs of GTP inhibit chloroplast protein import in vitro [106, 228]. Therefore, the GTP-binding motifs in the Toc receptor family appeared to be interesting targets for further analysis. Initial experiments analyzed the effects of the GTPase mutants. A triple mutant in the GTP-binding site of atToc159 was non-functional and did not assemble into the TOC complex in planta [20]. But other single mutants that functionally disrupted GTP binding and/or hydrolysis apparently fully complemented the albino *ppi2* mutant, although import activity in some of the mutants was reduced [1, 226]. Similar results were obtained in the case of atToc33 [9, 129]. A particularly interesting result was obtained with the atToc159 A864R mutant that binds GTP strongly but is unable to hydrolyze GTP: this mutant not only rescued the albino phenotype of *ppi2* but increased the preprotein import efficiency in vitro [226]. These results suggest that, unexpectedly, GTP-binding to the TOC receptors is not essential but important for regulation of import activity levels.

9.2.4 Cytosolic Factors and Regulators of Chloroplast Protein Import

Before preproteins destined for the chloroplast reach the TOC complex they have to interact with cytosolic targeting factors (Fig. 9.1) [61, 132]. These include the chaperones Hsp70 and -90 that serve to prevent the newly synthesized preproteins from aggregating, maintaining their import-competent state. It has been shown that Hsp70 interacts with many preproteins immediately after their synthesis. Some preproteins may be phosphorylated at their transit peptide which promotes the binding of a 14-3-3 dimer [58, 148, 153]. Together, with Hsp70, the 14-3-3 dimer forms a so-called guidance complex that accompanies the preprotein to the receptors of the TOC complex and hands over the preprotein to Toc34. A set of cytosolic kinases (STY8-, 14 and -46) have been identified that are implicated in the phosphorylation

of the transit peptide [126, 147]. Yet other preproteins have been shown to form complexes with Hsp90 [58, 166]. Preprotein/Hsp90 complexes interact with Toc64, a tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR)-containing protein, loosely associating with the TOC complex. In addition to Hsp90, Hsp70/Hsp90-organizing protein (Hop) and the immunophilin FKBP73 may be players in the HSP90 pathway [58]. Surprisingly, however, Toc64 is essential neither in *Physcomitrella* nor *Arabidopsis* suggesting that this component of the pathway can be bypassed [8, 76].

Phosphorylation does not only play a role at the level of the transit peptide. It has been shown that Toc34 is a target of phosphorylation, and that in its phosphorylated state it is unable to bind preproteins or GTP and needs to be activated by a phosphatase [7, 96, 200]. Toc159 is highly phosphorylated at its A-domain, and this is most likely due to cytosolic casein kinase II [2]. The role of the phosphorylation is likely of regulatory nature, but exactly how it works still needs to be clarified. The A-domain also exists as a separate, soluble protein. This finding may explain why Toc159 was originally identified as an 86 kD protein lacking the A-domain [31, 40]. Again, the cleavage of the A-domain may have a regulatory purpose, such as activating the protein. More research in this area is required to clarify the role of phosphorylation and other mechanisms in chloroplast protein import.

Interestingly, cytosolic preproteins are rarely observed in living plants. This suggests that preprotein synthesis is tightly coupled to translocation so that very few preproteins remain in the cytosol. In this context, an interesting regulatory mechanism was discovered by which “un-imported” preproteins are degraded by the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) [130]. Thus, both tight coupling of preprotein synthesis and import and the UPS may contribute to efficient accumulation inside the chloroplast and removal of preproteins from the cytosol.

Recently, a second exciting role for the UPS was discovered. A screen for second-site suppressors of the *Arabidopsis ppi1* mutant identified SP1 (suppressor of *ppi1* locus 1) [139]. SP1 is a chloroplast outer membrane E3 ubiquitin ligase that directly interacts with components of the TOC core complex. Furthermore, SP1 was shown to ubiquitinate the TOC components *in vivo* as well as *in vitro*. The *spi1* mutant showed defects in plastid differentiation; i.e., the etioplast-to-chloroplast and chloroplast-to-gerontoplast (old chloroplasts in aging leaves) transitions. These results suggest that the UPS controls changes in the composition of TOC complexes to accommodate different sets of preproteins according to the needs of the developing plastid type (Fig. 9.1) [139]. Two homologs of SP1 were also identified, and it will be of great interest to see what their respective roles in the chloroplast may be.

9.3 Translocation Across the Inner Membrane

9.3.1 Arrival and Conductance

The Tic22 protein resides in the intermembrane space, and is peripherally associated with the inner membrane [115, 116]. It is perhaps the first TIC component to

be encountered by translocating preproteins, and it may facilitate their passage from TOC to TIC, possibly functioning in association with other intermembrane space components [21, 167]. It might also play a role in the formation of so-called TOC-TIC supercomplexes [3, 116, 158], enabling simultaneous transport across the two membranes. Tic22 homologs exist in cyanobacteria, and so this component was likely acquired with the endosymbiont. Its function is essential in cyanobacteria and apicomplexan parasites (where it is localized in the apicoplast), and structural analyses suggest that it may act as a chaperone [64, 211]. However, Tic22 is not essential in plants, as *Arabidopsis* mutants lacking both canonical Tic22 isoforms exhibit only moderate defects in greening and preprotein import [102, 176].

Tic110 is one of the most abundant TIC components [220]. It is encoded by a single-copy gene in *Arabidopsis*, and is essential [84, 118]. Based on electrophysiological analyses, it was proposed to form a cation-selective, β -barrel channel with a pore diameter of 15–31 Å [66]. However, another study showed that it is composed mainly of α -helices, and that it is anchored in the inner membrane by two N-terminal transmembrane spans [83]. In the latter topology, a large hydrophilic domain is oriented towards the stroma and is thought to recruit stromal chaperones for import propulsion [83, 92, 103]. A later study aimed to resolve these discrepancies, and concluded that the hydrophilic part contains four amphipathic helices that contribute to the channel [15].

Another component that has been proposed to form the TIC channel is Tic20 [116]. This protein possesses four α -helical transmembrane domains, similar to the mitochondrial inner membrane channel components Tim17, Tim22 and Tim23 [98, 101, 116], and interacts with preproteins at a slightly later stage than Tic22 [115, 143]. In *Arabidopsis*, deficiency of the main Tic20 isoform (atTic20-I) causes defects in chloroplast biogenesis and protein import [41], while complete loss causes severe albinism and seedling lethality [71, 101, 108, 203]. In fact, there are four Tic20 genes in *Arabidopsis* that fall into two distinct, evolutionarily-conserved groups: the Group 1 proteins (atTic20-I and atTic20-IV) are demonstrably important for chloroplast biogenesis, whereas the Group 2 proteins are dispensable [101, 206]. The atTic20-I protein seems to be important for the import of photosynthesis-associated preproteins in shoots, while atTic20-IV may deliver mainly non-photosynthetic, “house-keeping” preproteins in roots [71, 108]. Embryos lacking both Group 1 proteins are not viable [71, 101]. It has been suggested that the localization of Tic20 proteins is not restricted to the chloroplast inner envelope membrane [144].

Blue native PAGE analysis indicated that Tic20 exists in a large, 1 MD complex together with Tic21 (see below) and translocating preprotein [108]; Tic21 is only loosely associated with the complex, while Tic20 appears to be a core component. Very recently, the purified complex was found to contain two additional nucleus-encoded proteins (Tic56 and -100) and, surprisingly, the elusive YCF1 protein (Tic214) encoded by the chloroplast genome (Fig. 9.1) [109]. The 1 MD complex reconstituted in a planar lipid bilayer had channel activity, and was therefore proposed to form a general TIC translocon. Electrophysiological analysis also revealed that Tic20 alone is able to form a channel, with cation selectivity and a pore size of 8–14 Å [121]. Notably, Tic110 was absent from the 1 MD complex, and instead was

present in a smaller 200–300 kD complex. Thus, Tic20 may form a large channel complex (including Tic21 and the other components), whereas Tic110 may act later in the import mechanism as part of a distinct motor complex, or in other stromal events such as protein folding (see Sect. 9.3.2) [108, 109]. However, Tic20 protein was reported to be considerably less abundant than other translocon components, and so its candidacy as the main TIC channel has been questioned [121, 220].

While Tic110, Tic22 and Tic20 were all identified through biochemical analyses of isolated pea chloroplasts, Tic21 (or CIA5, for chloroplast import apparatus 5) was found genetically in *Arabidopsis*, by screening for plants defective in the chloroplast import of a selectable marker [203]. *Arabidopsis* Tic21 knockout mutants are albino, and display similar defects in the import of photosynthetic preproteins to *tic20-I* mutants [108]. Interestingly, *tic21 tic20-I* double mutants do not exhibit phenotypic additivity, supporting the notion that the two proteins function together [203]. It was suggested that Tic20 might act early in plant development, with Tic21 taking over later on [203], but this seems inconsistent with the fact that the two proteins have been found together in the same complex [108].

Tic21 was also reported to act in iron transport, and thus given the alternative name of PIC1 (for permease in chloroplasts 1) [54]. *Arabidopsis* PIC1/Tic21 mutants accumulated ferritin (a protein which binds iron to prevent iron loss or oxidative stress caused by free iron ions) in chloroplasts, and displayed up-regulated expression of ferritin and other factors related to iron stress and metabolism, while plants overexpressing PIC1 accumulated free iron ions in the stroma. Moreover, a yeast iron uptake mutation could be complemented using PIC1 [54]. It is conceivable that a block in iron uptake could affect protein import indirectly, accounting for some of the results linking the protein to import. However, genes related to iron homeostasis are also up-regulated in other pale mutants with defects in chloroplast biogenesis [108], and so further work is needed to determine the causal relationship between the iron homeostasis and protein import defects in *pic1/tic21* mutants. An alternative possibility is that PIC1/Tic21 has a dual role, acting in both processes [65].

9.3.2 Import Propulsion

The Tic110 C-terminus projects, at least partly, into the stroma and can bind transit peptides upon their emergence from the TIC channel [15, 83, 92]. It also recruits molecular chaperones, and these are believed to consume the ATP that is needed to drive preprotein import, and to assist the folding of newly-imported proteins [3, 61, 103, 158]. In mitochondria, a matrix Hsp70 (mtHsp70) delivers the energy for preprotein import [156], but until recently it has generally been thought that an Hsp100 protein, ClpC/Hsp93, is the principal component of the TIC motor [3, 158]. However, an important role for chloroplast stromal Hsp70 (cpHsc70) in the import mechanism has now been established [186, 197], while a stromal Hsp90 was also recently found to play a role (Fig. 9.1) [90].

Hsp93 (or ClpC) is an Hsp100-type AAA+ATPase. In addition to its function in preprotein import, it also forms part of the Clp protease complex in chloroplasts [61, 184]. It is believed to assemble into hexamers, and to act by threading clients (either importing preproteins or proteins to be degraded) through the resulting axial pore, towards either the stroma or the Clp proteolytic core [93, 179]. Reflecting its different roles, Hsp93 partitions between the envelope and stroma, and recent work identified its N-terminus as an important determinant of envelope association [48]. There are two Hsp93 isoforms in *Arabidopsis*, called atHsp93-V (ClpC1) and atHsp93-III (ClpC2). The former is expressed at much higher levels than the latter, while *hsp93-V* knockouts are pale and exhibit reduced preprotein import efficiency; *hsp93-III* knockout mutants are indistinguishable from wild type [49, 118, 119, 191]. Because double mutants are embryo lethal, and because the mature domains share ~91% identity [119], the two isoforms are believed to have largely redundant functions.

Tic40 (previously named Com44/Cim44) can be crosslinked to Tic110 via a disulfide bridge under oxidizing conditions [194], and its loss causes a pale phenotype and inefficient chloroplast protein import in *Arabidopsis* [46, 118]. It is anchored in the inner membrane by a single, N-terminal transmembrane span, and it projects a large C-terminal domain into the stroma, much like Tic110 [46, 194]. This stromal region contains a putative TPR domain (whether it is truly a TPR was recently questioned [16]), and a tightly-folded Sti1 domain of the type found in eukaryotic Hip/Hop co-chaperones [24, 46, 47, 100]. Tic40 associates with Tic110 and Hsp93, and these three proteins appear to function at similar times in the import mechanism [46]. It is proposed that Tic40 binds to Tic110 (via its putative TPR domain) when the transit peptide binding site of the latter is occupied [47, 83]. Upon binding of Tic40, the transit peptide is released from Tic110 and passed to Hsp93. The chaperone then draws the preprotein into the stroma at the expense of ATP hydrolysis, which is stimulated by the Tic40 Sti1 domain. Curiously, the Sti1 domain of Tic40 can be functionally replaced with that of mammalian Hip (*Hsp70-interacting protein*), for which an ATPase-stimulating function was not previously proposed [24].

Early attempts to identify stromal Hsp70 in import complexes failed, seemingly due to the lack of a suitable antibody [3, 158, 197]. However, this issue was recently overcome, while new genetic evidence also supports a role for this chaperone in preprotein import. Two stromal Hsp70 isoforms exist in *Arabidopsis* (cpHsc70-1 and cpHsc70-2), and plants lacking either one exhibit defective preprotein import [196, 197]; double mutants lacking both isoforms are embryo lethal, implying that the proteins share redundant functions [197]. Interestingly, the *cphsc70-1 hsp93-V* and *cphsc70-1 tic40* double mutants are phenotypically more severe than the corresponding single mutants [197], suggesting that cpHsc70's import function acts in parallel to the Tic40/Hsp93 system. The *cphsc70-1 tic40* genotype is lethal, whereas *hsp93-V tic40* causes only a pale phenotype, suggesting that cpHsc70, but not Hsp93, becomes essential and limiting in the *tic40* background [118, 197]. In the moss *Physcomitrella patens*, cpHsc70-deficient mutants similarly display inefficient chloroplast protein import, as do other mutants with a deficiency in the stromal co-chaperone CGE (chloroplast GrpE homolog) [186]. Related GrpE proteins

promote nucleotide exchange at Hsp70 in prokaryotic systems, and play a well-established role in mitochondrial protein import in conjunction with mtHsp70 [156]. Finally, immunoprecipitation studies in both moss and pea showed that cpHsc70 associates with preproteins and translocon components such as Tic110, Hsp93 and Tic40 [186, 197].

Most recently, a chloroplast Hsp90 protein (Hsp90C) was implicated in import [90]. This chaperone was identified in import intermediates, and was co-purified with translocon components including Tic110, Tic40, Toc75 and Tic22, as well as Hsp93 and cpHsp70. Moreover, an inhibitor of Hsp90 ATPase activity, radicicol, reversibly inhibited the import of several preproteins during inner envelope translocation. Insertion mutations affecting the single Hsp90C gene in *Arabidopsis* are embryo lethal, indicating an essential role for this chaperone, presumably as part of a stromal chaperone complex that facilitates membrane translocation during protein import [90].

Conceivably, the different stromal chaperones implicated in import may act sequentially in the process, or exhibit selectivity towards different preprotein clients. The unusual complexity of the import-associated chaperone network in chloroplasts suggests that the chaperones do not simply function as components of a translocation motor, but perhaps participate in a series of events necessary for efficient import.

9.3.3 Redox Regulation

Chloroplast redox signals inform many important regulatory mechanisms [13], and so it is not surprising that chloroplast protein import is also a proposed target of redox control. The TIC translocon in particular is a proposed target for regulation by chloroplast redox status (Fig. 9.1) [17, 120]. In maize chloroplasts, precursors of different isoforms of ferredoxin and ferredoxin-NADP⁺ reductase (FNR) are imported differentially under light and dark conditions [72]: photosynthetic isoforms are similarly imported by light- and dark-exposed chloroplasts, but non-photosynthetic isoforms are missorted to the intermembrane space in the light. Conceivably, the non-photosynthetic isoforms might interfere with photosynthesis, and so perhaps systems evolved to prevent their import under light conditions.

Two TIC proteins, Tic32 and Tic62, are proposed to modulate preprotein import in response to changing stromal NADP⁺/NADPH ratios [17, 77, 78, 125]. In fact, their association with the TIC apparatus is dependent on such ratios, with binding and dissociation occurring under oxidizing and reducing conditions, respectively [44, 120, 195]. Both proteins have an N-terminal NADP(H)-binding site and are members of the short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase family, and they associate with Tic110 and other translocon components at the stromal side of the inner membrane [77, 125, 195]. Tic32 also has a binding site for calmodulin, and the inhibition of preprotein import by ophiobolin A and ionomycin, which both disrupt calcium signaling, has been linked to Tic32 [43, 44]. Calmodulin and NADPH binding to Tic32 are mutually exclusive, suggesting that calcium signals are relayed via calmodulin only under oxidizing conditions when Tic32 is associated with the TIC machinery [44].

Like TROL (thylakoid rhodanese-like protein), which tethers FNR to thylakoids for the reduction of NADP⁺ in photosynthetic electron transport, Tic62 has a C-terminal FNR-binding site [4, 97, 125]. Under reducing conditions, Tic62 breaks its peripheral association with the envelope and moves into the stroma (unlike Tic32, which behaves as an integral membrane protein), thereby increasing its affinity for FNR and enabling its association with the thylakoids [26, 195]. However, the Tic62-bound FNR appears not to be involved in photosynthetic electron transport, even when attached to the thylakoids [26]. Whether Tic62 has different functions dependent on its location (in the envelope, stroma or thylakoids), or the capacity to relay thylakoid signals to the TIC machinery, remains to be seen.

A third component implicated in the redox-regulation of preprotein import is Tic55, which was identified in a complex with Tic110, translocating preproteins, and other translocon components [36]. Tic55 is anchored in the inner membrane by two C-terminal transmembrane spans, has a Rieske-type iron-sulfur centre and a mononuclear iron-binding site, and is proposed to act via an electron transfer process or as a sensor of oxidative stress [36, 120]. Tic55 can also bind to thioredoxins and contains conserved cysteine residues that have the potential to form disulfide bridges [18]. However, an *Arabidopsis* Tic55 knockout mutant displays neither visible abnormalities nor defects in chloroplast protein import [30]. Doubts over the participation of Tic55 in preprotein import were also raised when two groups failed to detect the protein in import complexes [116, 170].

9.3.4 Transit Peptide Cleavage

Upon emergence from the TIC machinery, the transit peptide of a translocating preprotein is quickly removed by the stromal processing peptidase (SPP) (Fig. 9.1) [174, 201]. SPP is a zinc-binding metalloendopeptidase of the M16 family, which also includes the mitochondrial processing peptidase MPP, the presequence protease PreP (see below), and *Escherichia coli* pitrilysin [171, 217]. A stretch of 10–15 residues near the C-terminus of the transit peptide, where basic residues tend to be concentrated, is recognized by SPP, and cleavage occurs at a loosely-conserved site dependent upon physicochemical properties of the sequence [56, 172, 175, 230]. Interestingly, SPP is encoded by a single gene in *Arabidopsis*, and so the protein must accommodate a wide range of transit peptides with highly variable sequences [34, 171]. Following release of the newly-processed protein, SPP terminates its interaction with the transit peptide by a second cleavage event [172]. The peptide fragments are then degraded by the presequence protease, PreP [151, 172, 173]. The SPP protein is evolutionarily well conserved, as related sequences are found in various algae, apicomplexan parasites, and even cyanobacteria, suggesting that an ancestral activity was probably inherited with the endosymbiont [174].

Suppression of SPP expression in *Arabidopsis* or tobacco plants causes various abnormal phenotypes, ranging from albinism to seedling lethality, and is associated with ultrastructural defects and reduced numbers of chloroplasts [225, 232].

Similarly, a point mutation affecting a conserved glutamate residue of SPP causes chlorosis and small, abnormal chloroplasts in rice [229]. Interestingly, SPP-deficiency leads to reduced chloroplast protein import efficiency [225, 232]; this may reflect the fact that most TIC components, and Toc75, have a transit peptide and so depend on SPP for proper maturation, or indicate that transit peptide cleavage is an integrated step in the import mechanism. *Arabidopsis* SPP knockout mutations are embryo lethal, further emphasizing the importance of this protein for organelle and plant development [212].

9.4 Targeting to the Envelope Membranes

9.4.1 *Sorting to the Outer Membrane*

Outer envelope membrane proteins typically do not have transit peptides, but instead are targeted by intrinsic, non-cleavable signals. There are several different pathways for outer membrane protein insertion [74], and perhaps the best understood of these is that used by signal-anchored proteins such as OEP7/14 (*outer envelope protein, 7/14 kD*) and Toc64/OEP64 [132]. In these proteins, targeting information is linked to the amino-terminal transmembrane domain, which is superficially similar to signal peptides that direct proteins to the ER [74, 127]. Flanking the transmembrane domain there is a positively-charged region that, together with the hydrophobicity of the transmembrane region itself, plays a critical role in ensuring that such proteins are targeted to chloroplasts rather than the ER [127, 131].

Despite early suggestions that signal-anchored proteins insert spontaneously, it is now clear that their targeting involves proteinaceous cofactors and the consumption of nucleoside triphosphates [75, 214]. In fact, competition, cross-linking and reconstitution results indicate that Toc75 is involved, and that in this role it may function without assistance from the TOC receptors, Toc34 and Toc159 [215]. Involvement of Toc75 parallels the situation in mitochondria, where the equivalent import channel, Tom40, is similarly employed [169]. More recently, AKR2A (*ankyrin repeat-containing protein 2A*) was identified as a cytosolic sorting factor in this pathway [11, 23]. In conjunction with its cofactor, Hsp17.8, a member of the small heat shock protein family, AKR2A is proposed to act as a chaperone, preventing the aggregation of its clients and guiding them to the envelope [110]. Interestingly, AKR2A also mediates protein insertion into the peroxisomal membrane [185], suggesting that it acts in the targeting of a broad class of membrane proteins [231].

Similar intrinsic information directs the targeting of Toc34, but in this case the relevant transmembrane domain lies at the C-terminus (i.e., it is a tail-anchored protein). As with signal-anchored proteins, insertion requires both envelope proteins and an energy source [213]. Indeed, competition results suggest that Toc34, OEP7/14 and Toc64/OEP64 may all follow the same pathway [74, 75, 214]. However, Toc34 insertion was also reported to depend on previously-inserted Toc34, as

well as on membrane lipids, and to follow a different pathway from that used by another tail-anchored protein [51, 165]. Further complexity arises from the fact that some outer membrane proteins are dual-targeted to mitochondria and chloroplasts [199].

Toc159 employs a different targeting mechanism, perhaps due to its large, atypical M-domain. Its insertion is thought to involve a homotypic G-domain interaction with resident Toc34, controlled by guanine nucleotide status, as well as Toc75 [20, 193, 224]. Nonetheless, the M-domain itself seems to possess targeting information [128, 142]. The M-domain has no typical transmembrane spans, and so its insertion most likely depends on the TOC complex. That said, a short hydrophobic segment near the C-terminus may interface with the lipid bilayer [82].

Unusually, Toc75 has a cleavable, bipartite targeting signal at its N-terminus: the N-terminal part is a standard transit peptide, while the second part directs intraorganellar sorting [208, 209]. The latter contains a poly-glycine stretch that enables disengagement from the translocon and membrane integration [86]. The transit peptide is cleaved by SPP, whereas the second domain is removed by an envelope-localized type I signal peptidase (which additionally resides in thylakoids for the maturation of thylakoidal proteins) [79, 88, 188, 189]. How Toc75 becomes integrated into the outer membrane is unclear. In bacteria and mitochondria, the biogenesis of similar β -barrels is assisted by proteins of the Omp85 superfamily [205], and a related protein in chloroplasts, OEP80, was proposed to play a similar role [55, 87]. Supporting this idea, OEP80 is an essential protein in *Arabidopsis* (like Toc75), while its depletion affects Toc75 accumulation in vivo [80, 161]. Phylogenetic data are also consistent with the notion that OEP80 has retained an ancestral function [207].

9.4.2 *Sorting to the Intermembrane Space and Inner Membrane*

Unlike most outer membrane proteins, those destined for the intermembrane space or inner membrane typically have cleavable, N-terminal targeting information. Sorting to the intermembrane space has been studied for two proteins that follow different pathways: Tic22 and MGD1 (*monogalactosyldiacylglycerol synthase 1*) [117, 221]. Both proteins have a targeting sequence, but only that of MGD1 is cleaved by SPP. Along with the energetic requirements for its import, this indicates that MGD1 partially enters the stroma. In contrast, Tic22 is processed by an unknown protease in the intermembrane space, suggesting that it does not enter the TIC channel. There is also uncertainty over the participation of the TOC apparatus in Tic22 sorting.

Inner membrane proteins typically follow one of two routes: the stop-transfer and post-import pathways. The requirement for a transit peptide in both cases implies involvement of the TOC/TIC apparatus [114, 141, 194]. In the stop transfer pathway, a hydrophobic transmembrane domain arrests preprotein transport in the channel, enabling lateral exit into the membrane [32, 60, 114, 210]. This pathway may be particularly important for hydrophobic or polytopic proteins that are prone to aggregation. Recent work on the APG1 (*albino or pale green mutant 1*) protein, a stop-transfer client, revealed that membrane targeting information lies in the

transmembrane domain, which is sufficient to direct stop-transfer insertion even in the context of heterologous passenger proteins [218].

In the post-import pathway, proteins undergo complete translocation into the stroma, where they form soluble intermediates, prior to membrane insertion [137, 141, 210]. Tic40 and Tic110 are clients of this pathway, and both are anchored in the inner membrane by N-terminal helices and have large stromal domains. Interference with their membrane integration leads to the accumulation of SPP-processed forms in the stroma [24, 84]. Tic40 possesses a bipartite targeting sequence, but the role of the second domain is unclear as a serine/proline-rich region of the mature sequence and the adjacent transmembrane domain control insertion [137, 210]. The latter two may cooperate to form a membrane insertion loop, while in Tic110 the two transmembrane domains may create an equivalent structure. Efficacy of Tic40's targeting information is influenced by context within the protein sequence, implying that post-import signals are complex, which might be necessary to avoid stop-transfer insertion and an incorrect topology [218]. Stromal events in the post-import pathway may involve Hsp93 [222], while integration depends on proteinaceous membrane components [137].

In mitochondria, sorting to the inner membrane employs stop-transfer and conservative sorting pathways [157]. The latter is similar to the post-import pathway of chloroplasts and, as its name suggests, it is at least partly of prokaryotic origin. Bearing this in mind, it is intriguing that a second Sec translocase (in addition to the well-known thylakoidal system) was recently identified in chloroplast envelopes [192]. There is also evidence that resident Tic40 (and possibly Tic110) acts in the integration of other proteins into the membrane [45, 84].

9.5 Alternative Protein Import Pathways

9.5.1 Dual-Targeting

Although most chloroplast proteins are targeted specifically to plastids, a significant number (> 100) are transported to more than one location [37, 145, 190]. Transport to chloroplasts and mitochondria is the most common form of dual-targeting, but there are also proteins that exist in the nucleus, ER or peroxisomes as well as in chloroplasts [122, 135, 177]. Such multi-destination transport implies that protein targeting is rather flexible, and is supportive of a model for the relocation of organellar genes to the nucleus that depends on the "minor mistargeting" of many proteins to multiple locations [146]. Dual-targeted proteins tend to have highly-conserved functions that are easily shared, including nucleic acid and protein synthesis or processing, and cellular stress response [37, 145]. A particularly striking example occurs amongst the aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases, where 17 of the 24 organellar proteins in *Arabidopsis* are targeted to both chloroplasts and mitochondria [53]; some are even targeted to all three of the compartments that possess translational machinery.

Dual-targeting to chloroplasts and mitochondria typically involves one of two mechanisms [162]. In the first of these, alternative splicing and/or differential transcriptional or translational initiation leads to the production of protein variants with different N-terminal leader sequences and distinct targeting properties. In the second mechanism, a single protein is produced that possesses an ambiguous leader, competent for sorting to both chloroplasts and mitochondria. Alternatively, dual-targeting information may be, either wholly or partly, an intrinsic feature of the mature protein [12, 216].

Ambiguous transit peptides for dual-targeting to endosymbiotic organelles have been scrutinized, and in general they have properties intermediate between those that target either organelle specifically [27, 28, 162, 164]. In the N-terminal region, serine content is more similar to that of chloroplast transit peptides, while arginine content is more similar to that of mitochondrial presequences. They show enrichment of phenylalanine and leucine residues and, while certain segments are more important for transport to one or the other organelle in some cases, they do not share a common functional-domain architecture [27, 28]. Dual-targeting is also influenced by the mature domain of the preprotein, and by developmental factors [38, 145]. Software for the predication of ambiguous targeting peptides suggests that as many as ~400–500 proteins may be dual-targeted to chloroplasts and mitochondria [150]. Competition data indicate that dual-targeted proteins utilize the same import machineries as organelle-specific proteins [28].

9.5.2 *Non-canonical Protein Transport*

In recent years it has become apparent that transit peptide-dependent import is not the only sorting pathway to the chloroplast interior [94, 112, 168]. One study estimated that more than 10% of plastid proteins lack a typical transit peptide [6]. The ceQORH (*chloroplast envelope quinone oxidoreductase homolog*) protein was identified through proteomics, and found to associate with the inner envelope membrane even though it lacks a transit peptide. An internal sequence of ~40 residues controls its localization, and while its import does require proteinaceous machinery and ATP, the TOC/TIC apparatus is not involved [149]. Another inner membrane protein, Tic32/IEP32 (*inner envelope protein, 32 kD*), similarly lacks a transit peptide, and it too localizes independently of the TOC translocon [152]. Competition results imply that ceQORH and Tic32 utilize different import pathways [149].

Proteomic analysis also led to the identification of a large number of chloroplast proteins with predicted signal peptides for ER translocation [112]. Chloroplast protein traffic through the endomembrane system is well documented in organisms that have complex plastids with more than two bounding membranes, such as algae and apicomplexan parasites [155], but was not thought to occur in plants. That said, physical and functional links between the ER and the outer envelope membrane have long been known [5, 25, 227], while glycoproteins and proteins with apparent

signal peptides were detected in plastids [10, 42, 62]. The breakthrough came from analyses of *Arabidopsis* CAH1 (carbonic anhydrase 1) [219]. This stromal protein has a signal peptide and is imported and processed by ER microsomes, but not by chloroplasts. Glycosylated forms of CAH1 and other proteins are present in chloroplasts, while brefeldin A (a chemical that disrupts traffic through the Golgi) interferes with their localization, indicating passage through the Golgi en route to chloroplasts [154, 219]. Other data suggest that this sorting pathway, and the glycosylation it enables, are functionally important [35, 81].

Exactly how proteins are directed through the endomembrane system to chloroplasts remains unclear. Some data suggest that the signal peptide provides the necessary sorting information [42], while others argue that surface characteristics of the mature protein are important [111]. The proteins may be released into the intermembrane space upon vesicle fusion with the outer membrane, before entering an unknown translocon, the TIC apparatus, or vesicles that pinch off from the inner membrane [168].

9.6 Concluding Remarks

Our understanding of chloroplast protein import, and of the molecular events that underlie the process, has improved significantly in recent years. Nonetheless, important unanswered questions remain, while several inconsistencies in the literature need to be resolved. Even though our knowledge concerning TOC receptor GTPase function has expanded, the precise mode-of-action of these receptors is hotly debated, and a consensus model is lacking. It is generally accepted that client-specific protein import pathways operate in chloroplasts, but the molecular basis for TOC receptor (and possibly also TIC channel) selectivity requires further work. Chloroplast protein import must be tightly regulated, and indeed recent research has unveiled direct control of the TOC machinery by the ubiquitin-proteasome system, while other work suggests redox-regulation at the TIC apparatus. Nonetheless, the mechanistic details behind such regulatory systems are largely unknown. We have learnt much about the functions of putative inner envelope channel components, but there is now a need to reconcile the different hypotheses that have been proposed. Identification of a large TIC complex containing Tic20, but excluding Tic110 and Tic40, indicates that a more comprehensive framework is required that integrates the roles of these proteins. Furthermore, the confounding complexity of stromal chaperone complexes involved in chloroplast protein import needs to be unravelled. We expect that future research focusing on these fascinating questions will bring us closer to a full understanding of this essential process.

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