RCC1 in the Ran Pathway

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RCC1 is a chromosomal protein that functions as a GEF of the nuclear G protein Ran, which GTPase activity is enhanced by RNA1 located in the cytoplasm. RCC1 has no preference for GTP or GDP-bound Ran, so that GTP-Ran formation *in vivo* is regulated by relative concentrations of GTP/GDP and regulatory proteins interacting with RCC1, Ran, and RNA1. Proteins possessing the special Ran-binding motif have been found to be conserved in species ranging from yeasts to mammalians. The finding of RanBP2/NUP358 clearly indicates the involvement of the Ran pathway in the nuclear pore transport function, in agreement with the finding that both $rcc1^-$ and $rna1^-$ show defects in this process. However, loss of RCC1 induces premature initiation of mitosis, resulting in G1 arrest with the micronuclei possessing mitotic condensed chromosomes. How both the cell cycle and nucleocytoplasmic transport are regulated by the RCC1-Ran pathway is a major question.

Key words: Ran, RanBP1, RanBP2, RCC1, RNA1.

Chromatin is decondensed in the G1 phase and begins to be condensed from the S phase onwards. Such a dynamic structure of chromatin is regulated by cdk/cyclin complexes and their regulators. Condensed chromatin is neither replicated nor transcribed. Therefore, how the structure of chromatin is coupled with cell cycle events is a major issue in cell cycle regulation. Since loss of RCC1 (Regulator of Chromatin Condensation) induces either G1 arrest or premature initiation of mitosis (1), RCC1 is thought to be involved in cell cycle regulation. However, yeast $rcc1^-$ has been found to be defective in diverse functions (2-4).

RCC1 is a guanine nucleotide-exchanging factor (GEF) acting on the nuclear Ras-like G protein Ran (5). Ras functions as a molecular switch cycling between GTP-bound "on" and GDP-bound "off" states. By analogy, Ran may function as a biological switch, and RCC1 may carry out its biological functions through Ran, which is essential for nuclear pore transport function (6). Thus, the question arises whether diverse phenotypes of $rcc1^-$ are a consequence of a defect in the nuclear pore transport function.

Human RCC1 and its transcripts

Two human RCC1 cDNAs have been isolated that differ in the 5' untranslated regions transcribed from different promoters but share an open reading frame (ORF) of 1,425 bp that encodes a protein of 44,847 kDa possessing seven internal repeats of 60 amino acid residues (Fig. 1) (7). Another RCC1 cDNA (RCC1-1) has been amplified by PCR which has an extra 93 bp of nucleotide inserted into the valine²⁵ codon of RCC1 outside the RCC1 repeat (8), indicating that it is an alternative splicing product of primary RCC1 transcript. Both RCC1 and RCC1-1 cDNAs complement the tsBN2 mutation with similar efficiency. The same alternative splicing product as RCC1-1 mRNA is also found in hamster BHK21 cells and Xenopus, indicating that the alternative splicing of RCC1 mRNA has some biological meaning yet unknown. Thus, human cells express four types of RCC1 mRNAs transcribed from two promoters and spliced alternatively. The gene encoding RCC1 has been mapped on human chromosome 1 (9).

RCC1 homologues

RCC1 homologues are identified in *Drosophila*, and both budding and fission yeasts, in addition to hamster and *Xenopus*.

Drosophila RCC1 homologue BJ1: Twenty-nine of 41 independent hybridoma clones producing antibodies against proteins extracted from *Drosophila* embryonic nuclei, recognized an antigen designated as BJ1 (10). Its cDNA of 2.2 kb, corresponding to the size of its mRNA, encodes a polypeptide of 59 kDa, but its electrophoretic mobility indicates a molecular mass of 68 kDa.

BJ1 possesses two internal amino acid repeats: an RCC1 repeat from amino acid 46 to 417 (45% identical to human RCC1 repeat), and a BJ1 repeat from amino acid 418 to 520. The BJ1 repeat consists of three repeats of about 35 amino acid residues that are highly homologous to each other, in contrast to the case of RCC1 repeat. The C-terminus of BJ1 possesses a cluster of glutamic acids followed by a lysine-rich sequence (EK-stretch), and to some extent it is similar to nucleoplasmin of *Xenopus* and histone H1.

Budding yeast RCC1 homologue (SRM1, PRP20, and MTR1): Budding yeast RCC1 homologue has been cloned as genes complementing mutants isolated from diverse view points of cellular functions, namely, mating pathway (srm1) (2), mRNA splicing (prp20) (3), and mRNA export (mtr1) (4).

The srm1-1 (suppressor of receptor mutation) allele is a suppressor restoring mating capacity to the receptorless mutants $\Delta ste2$ and $\Delta ste3$ (2), but it does not suppress the deletion mutants $\Delta ste4$ and $\Delta ste5$. At the restrictive temperature, FUS1 is constitutively expressed and the

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Human	39	TLGQGDV-GQLGLGE-NVM-ERK-KPAL	VSIPEDVV	QAEAGGMHTVCLSKSGQVY-	
Hamster	39	TLGQGDV-GQLGLGE-SVL-ERK-KPAL	VPLLODVV	~~QAEAGGMHTVCLNQSGQVY-	
Xenopus	44	TLGQGDV-GQLGLGE-DIM-ERK-KPAL	VTLTEDIV	QAAAGGMHTVCLGASGSIY-	
Drosophila	46	VCGNGDV-GQLGLGE-DIL-ERK-RLSP	VAGIPDAM	DISAGGMHNLVLTKSDGIY-	
S.cerevisiae	46	CWGTGSM-CELGLGP-LAK-EVK-RPRLNPFI	PRDEAKII	SFAVGGMHTLALDEESNVW-	
S.pombe	65	VFGSGSM-NELGMGE-EEM-DVVYRPRLNPII	LSTDKVGVV	DLAVGGMHSAALLHDGRVY-	
		SFGCNDE-GALGRDT-SVEGSEM-VPGK	(VELQEKVV	QVSAGDSHTAALTDDGRVFI	LW
		SFGCNDE-GALGRDT-SVEGSEM-VPVQ	VQLDMPVV	QVSAGDSHTAALTEDGRVFI	LW
		TFGCNDE-GALGRDT-SEEGSEM-QPGK	(VELAEKVV	QVSAGDSHTAALTEDGRVF	VF
		SFGCNDE-GALGRDT-SEDGSES-KPDL	IDLPGKAL	CISAGDSHSACLLEDGRVF/	AW
		SWGCNDV-GALGRDT-SNAKEQL-KDMD	AD*GHKVV	QLAATDNMSCALFSNGEVY	AW
		TWGVNDD-YALGRLT-KDQKDEN-GDKV	'DND*-RVT	KVICSDNLTAAITDNGCCF1	rw
		G-SFRDNNGVIGLLE-P-MKKSM-VPVQ	VQLDVPVV	KVASGNDHLVMLTADGDLY-	
		G-SFRDNNGVIGLLE-P-MKKSM-VPVQ	VQLDMPVV	KVASGNDHLVMLTTDGDLY-	
		G-SFRDNNGVIGLLE-P-MKKSM-VPVQ	VQINTPVI	KIASGNDHLVLLTVDGDLY-	
		G-SFRDSHGNMGLTI-DGNKRTPID	LMEGTVCC	SIASGADHLVILTTAGKVF-	
		G-TFRCNEGILGFYQ-DKIKIQK-TPWKVP	TFSKYNIV	QLAPGKDHILFLDEEGMVF-	
		G-TFRCSDGVLGYSDSQKRTAEPTQM-RLP	ÉIC	QLATGTDHIIALTTTGKVY-	
		TLGCG-EQGQLGRVP-ELFANRGGR	QGLERLLVPKCVMLKSRGSRGHVRF	QDAFCGAYFTFAISHEGHVY-	
		TLGCG-EQGQLGRVP-ERFINRGGR	QGLERLLVPKCVLLKSRGSRGRVRF	QDAFCGAYLTFAISREGHVY-	
		TSGCG-EQGQLGRVP-ERFINRGGR	KGLERLLVPQCIHLKAKGS-GRVHF	ODVFCGAYFTFAVSQEGHYY-	
		TVGCA-EQGQLGRLS-ERSISGEGR	RGKRDLLRPTQLIITRAKPFE	AIWATNYCTFMFESQTQVIW-	-
		AWGNG-QQNQLGR	KVMERFRL-KTLDPRPFGLR-HVKY	IASGENHCFAITKDNKLV-	
		TWGNG-QQFQLGR	-RMLERRRL-QGLTPQPLALK-NIIS	VGAGSYHSFAIDNKGRVY-	
		GFGLS-NYHQLGT-F-GTE-SCFIPQNLT-SF	KNSTKSWV	GFSGGQHHTVCMDSEGKAY-	
		GFGLS-NYHQLGT-P-GTA-SCFIPQNLT-SF	KNSTKSWV	GFSGGQHHTICMDSEGKAY-	
		GFGLS-NYHQLGT-K-NTQ-ACYAPQNLT-SF	KNSTKSWI	GFSGGQHHTVCVDSEGKAY-	
		ATGLN-NFKQLAH-E-TKG-KEFAL-TPI	KTELKDIR	HIAGGQHHTVILTTDLKCS-	
		SWGLN-QFGQCGV-S-EDVEDGALVTKPKRLA	LPDNVVIR	SIAAGEHHSLILSQDGDIY-	
		AWGLN-ITRQCGI-EVEDEEEGAVITKPTLVD	ALEGYNVK	-SITGGEHHTLALLEDGRVL-	
		SRGRA-EYGRLGL-G-EGAEEKS-IPTL	I-SRLPAVS	SVACGASVGYAVTKDGRVF-	
		SLGRA-EYGRLGL-G-EGAEEKS-IPTL	I-SRLPVVS	SVACGASVGYAVSKDGRVF-	
		SLGRA-EYGRLGL-G-ENAEEQS-EPTP	I-PDLPKIN	SVASGASVSYAVSTDGCVF-	
		VVGRP-EYGRLGL-G-DVKDVVE-KPTI	V-KKITEKIV	SVGCGEVCSYAVTIDGKLY-	
		SCGRL-DMFEVGI-P*KARAVPLPTK	L-NNVPKFK	SVAAGSHHSVAVAQNGIAY-	
		AWGRD-DRHQLGI-P*NNYYLSTPTI	I-PGLTNVI	QVVCGTHHNLAVTSDGKVY-	
		AWGMGTNY-QLGT-GQDEDAWSPVEMM-GK	Q-LENRVVL	SVSSGGQHTVLLVKDKEQS	421
		AWGMGTNY-QLGT-GQDEDAWSPVEMT-GK	Q-LENRVVL	TVSSGGQHTVLLVKDKEQS	421
		AWGMGTNL-QLGT-GEEEDVWSPEQMT-GK	H-LEDREVL	SVSSGGQHTVLLVRKRS	424
		SWGSGVNN-QLGV-GDGDDELEPIVVV-SK	N-TQDKHML	LASGGGQHAIFLVKADKCD-	- 42]
		SWGFGETY-AVGL-G*EDDTEVPTRIK-NT	A-TQDHNII	IVGCGGQFSV*GVKLSDED-	- 472
		SWGSAENY-EVGQ-G*GEDVAVPTLVR-SK	XA-IKEVAIR	VAGAGGOFSI*GIPNASEE-	- 477

* insertion of several a.a.

Fig. 1. Alignments of RCC1 repeat.

haploid srm1-1 arrests in G1, while no cell cycle-specific arrest occurs in the homozygous $srm1-1 a/\alpha$ diploid. In contrast to other rcc1⁻, there is no mRNA accumulation in srm1-1 (4).

The prp20 (pre-RNA processing) allele was isolated using an accumulation of pre-mRNA as a selection-marker and shows alterations in mRNA steady-state levels, defective mRNA splicing and changes in transcription initiation or termination (3).

Three different recessive mutants alleles of the MTR1 (mRNA transport) gene, mtr1-1, 1-2 and 1-3 have been isolated (4) by a method similar to that used for prp20. At the restrictive temperature, in these mutants, mRNA accumulates even in the absence of p34^{cdc28} kinase activation and protein synthesis, both of which are essential for PCC (premature chromatin condensation) induction of tsBN2 cells (1), and the maturation of rRNA and tRNA is inhibited, but nuclear import of NLS (E1a) fused BSA continues at least for 6 h.

RCC1 homologue in budding yeast is essential for viability. Its mRNA is about 1.6 kb and encodes a protein of 52 kDa with seven internal RCC1 repeats that is 30% identical to human RCC1.

Fission yeast RCC1 homologue pim1-D1: To eluci-

date the mechanism of coupling between the completion of DNA replication and the initiation of mitosis, pim1 (premature initiation of mitosis) has been isolated from fission yeast, which enters mitosis in the presence of hydroxyurea (HU), an inhibitor of DNA replication, and which turns out to be defect in a human RCC1 homologue (11). The same gene has been isolated as a gene required for decondensation of mitotic chromosomes and designated dcd (defect in chromatin decondensation) (12). Thus, pim1 is renamed as $pim1-d1^{us}$. The $pim1^+$ encodes a polypeptide of 58 kDa with seven internal RCC1 repeats. Pim1 is 30% identical to both human RCC1 and budding yeast SRM1 (Fig. 1).

In accordance with the conservation of the RCC1 repeat, budding yeast $rcc1^{-}$ prp20.1 and srm1.1 can be complemented by human RCC1 and vice versa.

RCC1 is located on the chromatin as a protein-protein complex

RCC1 is released from isolated HeLa nuclei by treatment with 0.3 M NaCl or digestion with 100 μ g/ml of DNase I (13), or by treatment with 25 mM chloroquine, a DNA intercalation drug (14). Almost all RCC1 is released from hamster nucleus after sequential treatment with DNase I (100 μ g/ml) and 2 M NaCl, indicating that it is not located on the nuclear matrix.

To elute BJ1 from *Drosophila* Kc cell nuclei by treatment with 100 mM NaCl, it is essential to employ ethidium bromide (7.5 mM) (10), indicating that BJ1 binds to DNA, either directly or indirectly. On sucrose gradient analysis of chromosomes, BJ1 is cosedimented with nucleosomes, from which it is released as a complex of 7S at 450 mM NaCl and of 15S at 250 mM NaCl. Therefore, BJ1 is bound to chromatin as a protein-protein complex that is released at increased ionic strength and falls apart at an even higher salt concentration.

SRM1 extracted from asynchronously growing budding yeast can be retained on double-stranded (ds) DNA-cellulose, but *Escherichia coli*-produced SRM1 can not (15). In *in vitro* reconstitution assays, SRM1 binds to dsDNA-cellulose through a multiprotein complex composed of six to seven proteins, with a collective molecular mass greater than 150 kDa, of which three are suggested to bind GTP. Interestingly, such a SRM1-complex losses its DNAbinding ability during DNA replication, indicating that the SRM1-complex is somehow modified in the cell cycle.

In contrast to SRM1, E. coli-produced human RCC1 efficiently binds to ³²P-labeled pUC18 DNA digested with EcoRI (16). Such DNA-binding ability is, however, not essential for the function of RCC1, since human RCC1 mutants without DNA-binding abilities complement tsBN2 mutation with an efficiency similar to wild-type RCC1 (16). In ts⁺ transformants of tsBN2 cells complemented by $\triangle 8-29 \ RCC1$, in which DNA binding domain is deleted. most $\varDelta 8-29$ RCC1 protein is localized in the cytoplasm, indicating that the DNA-binding domain functions as a nuclear location signal. Indeed, the determined DNAbinding domain of human RCC1, which is localized in the N-terminus outside the RCC1 repeat, contains a sequence similar to a bipartite nuclear location signal of nucleoplasmin. Interestingly, in these transformants, a significant amount of ⊿8-29 RCC1 protein is cosedimented with chromosomal DNA by sucrose gradient analysis. Since ⊿8-29 RCC1 protein itself has no DNA-binding activity, this

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finding indicates that RCC1 is tethered to chromosomal DNA by some chromosomal proteins.

In mitosis, RCC1 is dispersed into the cytoplasm, but some RCC1 still binds to mitotic chromosomes, because RCC1 is purified from HeLa cells using antikinetochore autoimmune sera that specifically stain mitotic chromosomes (14). A small protein tightly bound to RCC1 has been purified along with RCC1 from HeLa cells. Its amino acid residues is similar but not identical to the reported amino acid sequence of TC4, a member of the Ras family (17), and it has been designated Ran (*Ras*-like *n*uclear G protein) (5). The RCC1•Ran complex is stable in 3 M guanidine hydrochloride in the absence of nucleotide and Mg^{2+} (14).

Ran GTPase

In consistent with the finding that RCC1 has a GEF activity acting on Ran, Spi1 (suppressor of pim1-) that is the fission yeast Ran homologue has been isolated as a multicopy suppressor of $pim1^-$ (11). Similarly two Ran homologues, GSP1 and GSP2 (GTP-binding suppressor of PRP20), have been isolated from budding yeast as a multicopy suppressor of prp20 (18). Independently, budding yeast Ran homologues CNR1 and CNR2 (Conserved Nuclear Ras homologue) have been isolated by PCR amplification using degenerate primers (4). GSP1/CNR1 and GSP2/CNR2 encode proteins of 219 and 220 amino acids (97% identical amino acid residues), respectively and are functionally exchangeable. Both are over 88% identical at the amino acid level to two other GTPases, Ran and Spi1. Levels of GSP1/CNR1 transcript are about 10-fold those of GSP2/CNR2. GSP1/CNR1 is essential for survival, while GSP2/CNR2 whose expression is carbon-source dependent. is not (18).

Human Ran is a 25-kDa protein abundant in the nucleus. The soluble monomeric form of Ran accounts for about 0.36% of total cellular proteins of HeLa cells, or 10^7 copies per cell, which is 25-fold molar excess over the RCC1•Ran complex form (5). The Ran•GDP•Mg²⁺ complex has been crystallized and compared with Ras, revealing that while the G-domain is conserved, the region involved in GDP and Mg²⁺ coordination is varied and that the N terminus (MAAQGEP) and the acidic tail (DEDDDL) are flexible in the crystal structure (19). It is suggested that a big conformational change occurs upon GTP binding. Analogously to Ras, T24N mutant results in a dominant negative inhibitor tightly binding to RCC1 (20), and Q69L mutant blocks Ran guanine nucleotide activating protein (RanGAP) (21).

Unlike other Ras family proteins, Ran lacks the C-terminal lipid modification motif but possesses an unusually acidic tail (-DEDDDL) (17), which stabilizes GDP binding to Ran and is required for stable interaction with RanBP1 (22).

RanGAP

Human RanGAP, which converts GTP-Ran to GDP-Ran, has been purified from HeLa cells as a homodimer (150 kDa) of a 65-kDa protein. Its cDNA is 2.9 kb and turns out to be a human homologue of budding yeast RNA1 (23), consistent with the finding that a ts mutant, rnal-1, exhibits defects in mRNA splicing and nuclear export similar to prp20-1 (24).

Murine RanGAP has been cloned as a gene required for

postimplantation development, designated fug1 (Failure to undergo gastrulation), which was mapped on chromosome 15 (25). fug1 encodes a protein of 589 amino acids, of which the first 400 are 88% identical to human RanGAP and 38% identical to budding yeast RNA1. A long acidic domain and 11 leucine-rich motifs, thought to mediate high affinity protein-protein interactions, are well conserved. During screening of Ca²⁺-binding proteins, fission yeast $rna1^+$ has been isolated (26). It shares 42% identical amino acids with budding yeast RNA1 and complements the $rna1 \cdot 1$, indicating that fission yeast $rna1^+$ is a functional homologue of budding yeast RNA1. Like budding yeast RNA1, it is essential for growth.

RNA1 is located in the cytoplasm, possibly enriched in the nuclear periphery of fission yeast (26). In HeLa cells, however, a significant amount of RanGAP activity is associated with the nuclear fraction, which can be extracted by increasing the NaCl concentration to 400 mM, but neither by 25 mM chloroquine nor by digestion of DNA with DNase I at 20 μ g/ml (23).

Interaction of Ran with RCC1 and RNA1

Since Ran lacks the lipid modification motif, the reaction between Ran and its related proteins is considered to proceed as if it were an enzyme reaction in homogenous solution. Thus, the interaction of Ran with its related proteins can be analyzed using the Mechaelis-Menten equation (27), where RCC1, for example, is the enzyme, and Ran-nucleotide is the substrate, as shown in Fig. 2.

Ran has low intrinsic GTPase and GDP dissociation rate constants that are of similar magnitude, 1.5×10^{-5} and 1.8×10^{-5} s⁻¹, respectively. Both reactions are stimulated 10⁻⁵-fold by RNA1 and RCC1. In contrast to p21^{ras}, RCC1 has almost no preference for the nucleotide state of Ran. The association of GTP with Ran.RCC1 complex is much slower than that of GDP, and Ran has higher affinity for GDP than for GTP. Based on the intracellular concentration of GTP (327 μ M), GDP (91 μ M), and Ran (6 μ M which is 25-fold molar excess over RCC1), and on the kinetics of RCC1-stimulated nucleotide exchange, Klebe et al. (27) calculated that 38% GTP-bound Ran can be formed, and they suggested that this relative amount of GTP-Ran is formed regardless of the absolute. Ran concentration. Therefore, in addition to the regulation of Ran by proteins such as RCC1 and Ran-binding proteins, the intracellular concentration of GDP and GTP influences the biological activity mediated by the Ran pathway.

Ran binding proteins

So far, several proteins possessing the Ran-binding motif (RanBD) which specifically recognize GTP-Ran have been identified. In addition, there are Ran-binding proteins possessing no clear Ran-binding motif, like RCC1 and RNA1. Together, these proteins may function for tuning the Ran pathway.

RanBP1: mouse RanBP1 has been identified as a protein of 27 kDa bound to GTP-, but not GDP-Ran, using an overlay assay (21). Human RanBP1 preferentially inhibits GTP release from Ran, favoring an increment of GTP-Ran (28), but it also coactivates RanGAP RNA1, since overexpression of RanBP1 suppresses the *rna1-1* (Noguchi, unpublished data).

Budding yeast RanBP1 homologue, YRB1 has been

identified by screening a gene whose overexpression affects chromosome stability (29) and it has been purified based on its affinity to GTP-GSP1 using GST-fused G21V (GSP1 mutant blocked in GTP form) (30). YRB1 has also been identified in a search for mutations suppressing the mating deficiency of *fus1* mutants, which are defective in cell fusion (Trueheart and Thorner, in preparation). YRB1 is localized in the cytoplasm and is suggested to exist at the nuclear periphery, since the isolated nuclei, but not the cytosol, of a ts mutant *yrb1* which is defective in both nuclear protein import and RNA export, has defects *in vitro* nuclear protein import assay (30). Together, these reports indicate that YRB1, which is essential for viability, is involved in both cell cycle regulation and nuclear pore transport function.

RanBP2/nup358: By a two-hybrid method using human Ran as a bait or by screening a HeLa cell expression library with GTP-Ran overlay method, two groups independently isolated a series of overlapping cDNA clones encoding a protein designated either RanBP2 or NUP358



A: basic RanGTPase cycle



Fig. 2. Reaction of RCC1, Ran, and RNA1. The model of RCC1catalyzed guanine nucleotide exchange reaction is taken from Klebe *et al.* (27).

(31, 32). Henceforth, we shall refer to it as RanBP2.

RanBP2 is a protein of 358 kDa encoded by about 10 kb of mRNA. As Fig. 3 shows, it contains the N-terminal leucine-rich region of 700 amino acid residues, four Ranbinding domains (RanBDs) that are highly homologous to RanBP1 and flanked by nucleoporin-characteristic XFXFG, eight zinc finger motifs that are the same as those of NUP153 (33), and the C-terminal domain, which is 67% identical to human cyclophilin A. Consistent with the presence of the nucleoporin-specific FXFG, RanBP2 is localized on the nuclear pore, particularly on the top of cytoplasmic nuclear filaments (31, 34). Therefore, the zinc finger domains of RanBP2, which bind DNA in a zinc-dependent manner as reported for NUP153 (33), should bind factors other than DNA.

Is RCC1 bifunctional?

RCC1 is located on the chromatin, and loss of RCC1 function disperses Ran into the cytoplasm, indicating that RCC1 functions as a center of the Ran pathway. On the chromatin, RCC1 may sense a conformational change of chromatin which occurs during the progression of the cell cycle, and inform it to the cytoplasm through Ran. This is an intriguing idea from the point of view of cell cycle regulation and suggests the presence of two functional domains in RCC1: one required for taking upstream signals and one for transferring them to the downstream events.

The mutual complementation of $rcc1^{-}$ between yeast and mammalian homologues indicates that the putative RCC1 repeat which is conserved through evolution is responsible for RCC1 function. Indeed, the $rcc1^{-}$ isolated so far are mapped in the RCC1 repeat region (4). Interestingly, not all of those $rcc1^{-}$ mutants are suppressed by overexpression of Ran or by a newly isolated suppressor. The $rcc1^{-}$ mutants $mtr1 \cdot 1$, $prp20 \cdot 1$, and $mtr1 \cdot 3$, which are mapped near the C-terminus, can be suppressed by overexpression of GSP1, but those mapped in the N-terminus, $srm1 \cdot 1$ and $mtr1 \cdot 2$, can not (4). These results together suggest that the RCC1 repeated domain possesses two functional domains.

To identify a functional domain of RCC1 for GEF activity on Ran, a series of mutants in which charged amino acid residues of the human RCC1 repeat are changed to alanine was prepared and their GEF activities on Ran were analyzed using the Mechaelis-Menten equation. Alanine mutants located on the N-terminus of the RCC1-repeat have an increased K_m , but a normal k_{cat} (19 s⁻¹) for the GEF reaction on GDP-Ran. On the contrary, alanine mutants of the C-terminal histidine residues have a normal K_m (2.2× 10⁻⁶ M) but a reduced k_{cat} for the GEF reaction on GDP-Ran (35). These kinetics data indicate that the repeated domain

Nuclear pore transport function of the Ran pathway

Two cytosolic fractions (A and B) from Xenopus oocytes have been identified as being required for protein import into the nucleus of digitonin-permeabilized cells. Ran was identified as one of the two components required for full fraction-B activity (6).

Proteins imported to the nucleus have nuclear localization sequences (NLSs) that are recognized by NLS receptor/Impotin p60/karyopherin α , and the complex formation of NLS-protein and karyopherin α is further enhanced and tightened by binding with p97/Imortin p90/karyopherin β . Fraction A consists of karyopherin α and β . The triple complex of NLS-proteins, karyopherin α and β is transferred onto NPC in an ATP-independ manner. In digitonin-permeabilized cells, $GTP\gamma S$ accumulates on the cytoplasmic periphery of the nucleus, where RanBP2 is the sole Ran-binding protein, so that the NLS-complex is suggested to first bind to RanBP2 on the top of the cytoplasmic filament of NPC (34). With the aid of GTP-Ran and p10, both of which comprise fraction B, NLS-fused proteins are then translocated into the nucleoplasm, depending on the binding of ATP and the hydrolysis of GTP bound to Ran. RanGAP is, therefore, another factor required for nuclear import of proteins. In fact, cytosols extracted from the rnal-1 are defective in nuclear protein import and, by the addition of wild-type RNA1 proteins into this extract, protein import activity is restored in a dose-dependent manner (24).

The finding that the nuclei, but not the cytosol prepared from a ts mutant yrb1 that was pre-incubated at the nonpermissive temperature, are defective in nuclear protein import in the presence of wild-type cytosol suggests that YRB1 functions for protein import on the budding yeast nuclear membrane (30).

Similar to nuclear protein import, GTP hydrolysis on Ran is needed for $poly(A)^+$ RNAs export, since a Ran mutant locked in the GTP form inhibited both nuclear protein import and mRNA export in budding yeast (36), and *rna1-1* causes nuclear accumulation of mRNA (24) as well as defect in protein import. Each class of RNA is suggested to have its own carrier protein, which has the nuclear export signal (NES) and shuttles between the nucleus and cytoplasm. Thus, RNA export can be considered as cytoplasmic transport of RNA carrier proteins. In this context, it is notable that NUP153, which has the same zinc finger motif as RanBP2, is located on the nucleoplasmic side of NPC (33). The presence of proteins containing the same zinc finger motif on both nuclear and cytoplasmic



Fig. 3. Schematic structure of RanBP2. Arrowheads indicate the position of XFXFG pentapeptide motifs. For details, see Ref. 32.

sides of NPC may indicate that this domain recognizes the same kind of proteins shuttling between the nucleus and the cytoplasm, while there is no evidence to indicate the involvement of NUP153 in RNA export.

In $rcc1^{-}$ other than $srm1 \cdot 1$, the most prominent phenotype is a defect in mRNA export rather than nuclear protein import. In fact, the deletion of MTR1 blocks mRNA export. This occurs immediately after a shift-up of temperature in the absence of protein synthesis and p34^{cdc28} kinase activation (4). Using tsBN2 cells, Cheng et al. (37) reported that RCC1 is required for nucleocytoplasmic transport of precursors of small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs), intranuclear transport of U3 snRNA, and processing of ribosomal RNAs, but not for export of transfer RNAs; and they suggested that RCC1 functions in a step that is a prerequisite for the export of pre-snRNAs and poly(A)⁺ RNAs, that is, transport to-rather through-the NPCs. In accordance with this suggestion, it has been reported that prp20-1 causes a loss of cap-like nucleolus staining and abolishment of uniform nucleoplasmic structure, but the nuclear envelope and the nuclear pores remain structurally intact (3). Indeed, NPC of tsBN2 cells functions for nuclear import of proteins fused with a large number of NLS peptides even after 6 h of incubation at 39.5°C, a restrictive temperature (4, 38). Interestingly, the srp1-31 a ts mutant of budding yeast karyopherin α homologue, shows a severe defect in nuclear protein import, but does not affect mRNA export (39), indicating that a block of nuclear protein import does not inevitably cause mRNA accumulation. Thus, mRNA accumulation may be induced by loss of RCC1 function, independently from the defect of nuclear protein import.

Cell cycle regulation by RCC1 and the Ran pathway

Upon temperature shift up, hamster tsBN2 cells mutated in the RCC1 do not enter the S phase after release from G1 blocked either with serum starvation or isoleucine deprivation. But they prematurely enter mitosis after release from the G1/S boundary blocked with hydroxyurea (2.5 mM), resulting in premature chromatin condensation (PCC) (1), as shown in Fig. 4. Cells showing PCC normally traverse mitosis and then the micronuclei possessing intact nuclear membranes and nuclear pores, as shown by electron microscopy, are reformed; but the decondensation of chromosomes does not occur, so that cells are arrested prior to entering the next cell cycle at 39.5°C, a restrictive temperature (1), similarly to $pim1-d1^{15}$ (12). These phenomena occur even in the presence of HU, strongly indicating that loss of RCC1 uncouples DNA replication from mitosis.

cdc25C, a tyrosine phosphatase of $p34^{cdc2}$, is localized in the cytoplasm. To activate MPF, therefore, cdc25C must enter the nucleus. Indeed, in tsBN2 cells, cdc25C enters the nucleus prior to MPF activation (40). In the presence of cycloheximide an inhibitor of protein synthesis, MPF cannot be activated. Under these conditions, cdc25C does not enter the nucleus, while RCC1 is lost due to the mutation. Regarding the absence of nuclear import of cdc25C in the presence of cycloheximide, two possibilities can be considered. First, an initial activation of pre-MPF, which occurred in the nucleus by loss of RCC1, was inhibited by cycloheximide, leading to abolition of the nuclear import of cdc25C, that may depend on an initial activation of pre-MPF. Second, the accumulation of GDP-Ran induced



Fig. 4. A typical G2 PCC induced by loss of RCC1 function. tsBN2 cells were released from HU block and incubated at $39.5^{\circ}C$ (50).

by loss of RCC1 may inhibit the nuclear import of proteins including cdc25C. In tsBN2 cells arrested at the G1/S boundary at 33.5°C a permissive temperature, cdc25C already accumulated in the cytoplasm (40). Thus, cdc25C must enter the nucleus prior to mitosis, although it is unknown how the nuclear entrance of cdc25C is triggered. Since nuclear protein import is not profoundly affected in tsBN2 cells by loss of RCC1 function (38), the first idea seems to be the more plausible.

It has been suggested that $p34^{cdc2}$ can be activated directly by GTP-Ran (20). However, this suggestion is not consistent with the observation in tsBN2 cells that loss of RCC1 leads to accumulation of GDP-Ran rather than GTP-Ran, or with the finding in mammalian cells that Ran mutant (G19V, Q69L double mutant) blocked in the GTP-form inhibits the cell cycle progression at both the G1/S and G2/M boundaries (41). We injected GTP- and GDP-Ran into tsBN2 cells that had been preincubated for 90 min at 39.5°C to sequester RCC1 function. Under these conditions, GTP-Ran, but not GDP-Ran, inhibited PCC induction (42). Furthermore, GTP γ S-Ran also inhibited PCC induction by nucleoplasmic injection. These observations together indicate that GTP-Ran by itself functions to inhibit premature activation of MPF in the S phase.

The depletion of RCC1 from Xenopus egg extract inhibits the replication of added sperm DNA and the nuclear assembly, while a small nucleus is formed (43). The same effect is observed on addition of *E. coli*-produced T24N mutant of Ran, which tightly binds to RCC1 and inhibits its GEF activity. On addition of an excess of wild-type GTP-Ran, both nuclear assembly and chromosomal DNA replication are rescued in RCC1-depleted Xenopus extract (43). Thus, GTP-Ran is an active form of Ran for interphase functions in Xenopus extracts as well as hamster cells.

Suppressor of rcc1-

Isolation of either suppressors or synthetic lethal mutants of target genes is a main avenue to genetically identify factors interacting with the target protein. As a suppressor of pim1, in addition to spi1, another suppressor of pim1 has been isolated as a cold-sensitive mutant of esp1/ppe1 (44) which encodes a protein 71% identical to budding yeast SIT4, a type 2A-related protein phosphatase. Due to the mutation, PIM1 disappears and can not make a complex with SPI1 at 36°C, a restrictive temperature. Such a phenotype does not recover as a result of a ts mutation of esp1/ppe1, while a double mutant, esp1-pim1, grows at 36°C, indicating that ESP1 act downstream of SPI1/Ran. $esp1^+/ppe1^+$ is not essential, but its deletion makes fission veast cold-sensitive for growth. Deletion of $esp1^+/ppe1^+$ can be suppressed by overexpression of three classes of fission yeast genes, ppa1⁺ and ppa2⁺ encoding type 2A-like phosphatase, $dis3^+$, and $pck1^+$ encoding a protein kinase Clike kinase, and by overexpression of budding yeast SIT4 (45). The double mutants, ppe1-ppa2 and ppe1-pck1 are lethal. Recently, we found that Ran binds directly to DIS3 (Noguchi et al., in press). dis3-54 shows failure in chromosome disjunction and is synthetic lethal in combination with dis1^{cs} or dis2^{cs} a catalytic subunit of type 1 phosphatase, both of which show defects similar to dis3-54 (46). These findings together suggest that the Ran pathway is involved in the phosphatase network which regulates the cell cycle progression.

GTR1 encodes a putative GTPase (47) and its cold-sensitive mutation suppresses both the N-terminal and the Cterminal budding yeast $rcc1^-$, in contrast to other suppressors of $rcc1^-$, which cannot simultaneously suppress budding yeast $rcc1^-$ mapped at both ends of the RCC1 repeat. The same mutation of gtr1 also suppressed rna1-1, indicating that the isolated gtr1 mutant functions as a suppressor for defects in the Ran pathway (Nakashima *et al.*, in press).

NuMA is a protein involved in the maintenance of nuclear structure and the assembly of the mitotic spindle. Overexpression of this protein partly suppresses the terminal phenotype of tsBN2 cells (48). This finding may indicate the involvement of the Ran pathway in the maintenance of nuclear structure, as suggested by Cheng *et al.* (37) and Aebi *et al.* (3). In this connection, it is notable that overexpression of yeast RCC1 homologue suppresses class 2α -tubulin mutant (49).

Conclusion

In view of their high nuclear abundance, there is no doubt that Ran and RCC1 play important roles in the nucleus. Thus far, their involvement in nuclear pore function has become clear. The accumulation of mRNA may reflect another nuclear function of the Ran pathway. It is still obscure how the defect of nuclear function is related to the cell cycle regulation. But the Ran pathway will provide a clue to how the nuclear structure is related to, and is regulated during the progression of cell cycle.

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