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# Biochemical evidence that regulation of $\text{Ero1}\beta$ activity in human cells does not involve the isoform-specific cysteine 262

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#### Synopsis

In the ER (endoplasmic reticulum) of human cells, disulfide bonds are predominantly generated by the two isoforms of Ero1 (ER oxidoreductin-1): Ero1 $\alpha$  and Ero1 $\beta$ . The activity of Ero1 $\alpha$  is tightly regulated through the formation of intramolecular disulfide bonds to help ensure balanced ER redox conditions. Ero1 $\beta$  is less tightly regulated, but the molecular details underlying control of activity are not as well characterized as for Ero1 $\alpha$ . Ero1 $\beta$  contains an additional cysteine residue (Cys<sup>262</sup>), which has been suggested to engage in an isoform-specific regulatory disulfide bond with Cys<sup>100</sup>. However, we show that the two regulatory disulfide bonds in Ero1 $\alpha$  are likely conserved in Ero1 $\beta$  (Cys<sup>90</sup>–Cys<sup>130</sup> and Cys<sup>95</sup>–Cys<sup>100</sup>). Molecular modelling of the Ero1 $\beta$  structure predicted that the side chain of Cys<sup>262</sup> is completely buried. Indeed, we found this cysteine to be reduced and partially protected from alkylation in the ER of living cells. Furthermore, mutation of Cys<sup>100</sup> – but not of Cys<sup>262</sup> – rendered Ero1 $\beta$  hyperactive in cells, as did mutation of Cys<sup>130</sup>. Ero1 $\beta$  hyperactivity induced the UPR (unfolded protein response) and resulted in oxidative perturbation of the ER redox state. We propose that features other than a distinct pattern of regulatory disulfide bonds determine the loose redox regulation of Ero1 $\beta$  relative to Ero1 $\alpha$ .

*Key words:* disulfide-bond formation, endoplasmic reticulum oxidoreductin-1 (Ero1), redox regulation, unfolded protein response (UPR)

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# INTRODUCTION

In the ER (endoplasmic reticulum), optimal redox conditions are maintained to facilitate formation of native disulfide bonds in secretory proteins. In mammalian cells, disulfide bonds are mainly generated by Ero1 (ER oxidoreductin-1) [1,2]. Proteins of the Ero1 family comprise two conserved di-cysteine active sites [3] (Figure 1). The so-called inner active site sits adjacent to a FAD moiety inside a four-helix bundle, whereas the outer active site (containing the two 'shuttle' cysteines) is located on a flexible loop region [4,5]. The inner active site is oxidized by molecular oxygen via FAD, which leads to generation of hydrogen peroxide [6–8]. In turn, the inner active site oxidizes the shuttle cysteines by thiol–disulfide exchange [9]. The shuttle cysteines then oxidize active-site cysteines in members of the PDI (protein disulfide-isomerase) family [2, 8, 10–12]. As the final step in the Ero1–PDI disulfide relay, PDIs introduce disulfide bonds into newly synthesized proteins in the ER [13].

Two isoforms of Ero1 have been identified in nearly all vertebrates studied so far [14] including humans: Ero1 $\alpha$  and Ero1 $\beta$ [15,16]. Whereas Ero1 $\alpha$  is widely expressed, Ero1 $\beta$  is predominantly found in select tissues, such as the pancreas and salivary gland [16,17]. Both Ero1 isoforms are up-regulated by the UPR (unfolded protein response), which is a transcriptional and translational programme that is induced by accumulation of

**Abbreviations:** AMS, 4-acetamido-4'-maleimidylstilbene-2,2'-disulfonic acid; ATF6α, activating transcription factor 6α; BiP, immunoglobulin heavy-chain-binding protein; DTT, dithiothreitol; Dox, doxycycline; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; Ero1, endoplasmic reticulum oxidoreductin-1; Ero1α-WT, wild-type Ero1α; HEK-293 cells, human embryonic kidney cells; HERP, homocysteine-induced endoplasmic reticulum (ER) protein; NEM, N-ethylmaleimide; PDI, protein disulfide-isomerase; PERK, PKR (double-stranded-RNA-dependent protein kinase)-like endoplasmic reticulum kinase; TCA, trichloroacetic acid; UPR, unfolded protein response.

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misfolded proteins in the ER (designated ER stress). The UPR seeks to restore ER homoeostasis, for example by decreasing the ER protein load through translational arrest and in parallel up-regulating chaperones to assist folding [18]. PERK [PKR (double-stranded-RNA-dependent protein kinase)-like endoplasmic reticulum kinase], Inositol-requiring enzyme  $1\alpha$  (Ire $1\alpha$ ) and ATF6 $\alpha$  (activating transcription factor  $6\alpha$ ) are the three transmembrane transducers that initiate ER-to-nucleus signalling upon ER stress. Whereas the PERK pathway is involved in up-regulating Ero1 $\alpha$  [19], Ero1 $\beta$  is induced by the XBP1s transcription factor (which is activated by Ire $1\alpha$ ) [20] and ATF6 $\alpha$  [21].

Apart from the first three cysteines in  $\text{Ero1}\alpha$  (Cys<sup>35</sup>, Cys<sup>37</sup> and Cys46), the 12 additional cysteines are conserved in the vertebrate branch of the Ero1 family [22,23]. In addition to these 12 cysteines, human  $\text{Erol}\beta$  contains a cysteine residue in position 262 (Cys<sup>262</sup>) (Figure 1). The disulfide pattern in Ero1 $\alpha$  has been mapped by mass spectrometry [23,24] and crystallography [4] (Figure 1). In contrast to Ero1 from Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Ero1p) [5], the Ero1 $\alpha$  shuttle cysteines (Cys<sup>94</sup> and Cys<sup>99</sup>) can engage in regulatory disulfide bonds with non-active-site cysteines (Cys<sup>131</sup> and Cys<sup>104</sup>, respectively) [23,25]. The presence of these two disulfide bonds blocks the outer active site and thus inhibits the activity of  $\text{Ero}1\alpha$  [23,25]. In the cell, formation and reduction of these inhibitory disulfide bonds depend on the redox state of PDI [23]. This gives rise to a tightly regulated homoeostatic feedback mechanism where  $\text{Ero1}\alpha$  is only active when oxidized PDI is scarce [23]. Since the ER glutathione redox buffer influences the redox state of PDI [26,27],  $\text{Ero1}\alpha$  activity is modulated by the ratio between oxidized and reduced glutathione mediated through PDI [28]. Similarly, redox regulation of Ero1p in *S. cerevisiae* is also influenced by the redox state of PDI and glutathione [29–31]. Moreover, the ratio between oxidized and reduced glutathione is tightly balanced in the ER in human cells, which is at least in part a consequence of the Ero1 feedback regulation [2].

In comparison with  $\text{Ero}1\alpha$ ,  $\text{Ero}1\beta$  activity does not seem to be as tightly regulated. Whereas overexpressed  $\text{Erol}\alpha$ -WT (wildtype  $\text{Ero}(\alpha)$  is predominantly inactive and therefore has a subtle effect on the redox state of the PDI homologue ERp57 [23,24], overexpression of  $\text{Ero}1\beta$ -WT hyperoxidizes ERp57, i.e. leads to a larger fraction of the molecules with active-site cysteines in the disulfide-bonded state [23,32]. Similarly,  $\text{Erol}\beta$ -WT is more active than  $\text{Erol}\alpha$ -WT in an *in vitro* oxidation assay performed with PDI as the substrate [7]. On non-reducing SDS-PAGE gels exogenous  $\text{Erol}\beta$  expressed in mammalian cells migrates as two distinct redox species, with the distribution between the faster migrating (OX) and slower migrating species (Red) varying between experiments [23,33,34]. Similar to  $\text{Ero1}\alpha$  [25], an initial shift from the OX to the Red species of  $\text{Ero} 1\beta$  was observed during the catalysis of thioredoxin oxidation in vitro [7]. When thioredoxin was completely oxidized, the redox state of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  reverted to the OX species [7]. Thus,  $\text{Erol}\beta$  activity is also regulated by intramolecular disulfides.

In Ero1 $\alpha$ , a cysteine-to-alanine mutant of Cys<sup>104</sup> and Cys<sup>131</sup> (Ero1 $\alpha$ -C104A/C131A) displays hyperactivity since it can no longer form the two regulatory disulfides, but retains the two residues of the outer active site, Cys<sup>94</sup> and Cys<sup>99</sup> [24,25].

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Recently, we showed that overexpression in human cells of the equivalent Ero1 $\beta$  mutant (Ero1 $\beta$ -C100A/C130A) gave rise to more pronounced hyperoxidation of ERp57 relative to overexpression of Ero1 $\beta$ -WT [32], suggesting that the regulatory mechanism is shared for Ero1 $\alpha$  and Ero1 $\beta$ . However, Ero1 $\beta$  contains an additional cysteine residue (Cys<sup>262</sup>), which is not present in Ero1 $\alpha$ . A disulfide bond between Cys<sup>100</sup> and Cys<sup>262</sup> was recently proposed to be present in Ero1 $\beta$  purified from *Escherichia coli* [7]. Moreover, Ero1 $\beta$ -C100A displayed slowed oxidation kinetics relative to Ero1 $\beta$ -WT [7], suggesting that the presence of the proposed Cys<sup>100</sup>–Cys<sup>262</sup> disulfide bond increases Ero1 $\beta$  activity. On this background, we decided to further investigate the interplay between intramolecular disulfide bonds and regulation of activity in Ero1 $\beta$ .

# **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### **Primers and plasmids**

Human Ero1 $\beta$ -myc6his ([16]; a gift from R. Sitia, Milan) cloned into the pcDNA5/FRT/TO vector [23] was used as a template for QuikChange mutagenesis (Stratagene) to introduce Cys-to-Ala mutations. The following primer was used to generate the C262A mutation (only the sense strand is shown): C262A 5'-GA-CTTCATGCTAGCATCAATTTACATCTAGCCGCAAATTAT-CTTTTGG-3'. The C100A and C130A mutations have been described before [32]. All plasmids were sequenced to confirm the correct DNA sequence of the inserts.

## **Cell culture**

Dox (doxycycline)-inducible Flp-In T-REx HEK-293 (Life Technologies) cell lines were generated and grown as previously described [23]. Ero1 $\beta$  expression was induced for 24 h (unless otherwise stated) using 1  $\mu$ g/ml Dox (Sigma). For ER stress induction, cells were treated with either 5  $\mu$ M thapsigargin (Sigma) or 2.5  $\mu$ g/ml tunicamycin (Sigma) for the indicated time.

#### Sample preparation and AMS

# (4-acetamido-4'-maleimidylstilbene-2,2'-disulfonic acid) modification

Cells were treated with NEM (*N*-ethylmaleimide) and subsequently lysed as described elsewhere [35]. The AMS (Life Technologies) modification protocol has been described previously [35]. Reduced and oxidized control lysates were obtained from cells treated with 10 mM DTT (dithiothreitol) or 5 mM diamide (both Sigma) for 5 min at 37 °C in full growth medium.

### **Antibodies and Western blotting**

The following mouse monoclonal antibodies were used:  $\alpha$ His (Tetra-His, Qiagen),  $\alpha$ myc (9E10, Covance),  $\alpha\beta$ -actin (AC-15, Sigma). The rabbit polyclonal antisera used were:  $\alpha$ BiP (G8918,

Sigma),  $\alpha$ ERp57 (a gift from A. Helenius, Zürich, Switzerland),  $\alpha$ HERP (a gift from L. Hendershot, Memphis, TN, U.S.A.). Western blotting was performed as previously described [24]. The shown Western blots are representative of at least two independent experiments.

# Redox state analysis of Ero1 $\beta$ by TCA (trichloroacetic acid) precipitation and alkylation of free thiols

Cells cultivated to 60–80% confluency in 6 cm dishes were washed twice in PBS. They were then concomitantly lysed and precipitated by incubation in 10% (v/v) TCA for 15 min on ice. Cells were transferred to an Eppendorf tube, centrifuged (16 100 g, 4°C, 15 min) and the supernatant was discarded. Pellets were washed once in ice-cold acetone, centrifuged (16 100 g, 4°C, 15 min) and resuspended in 100  $\mu$ l 100 mM Tris–HCl pH 7.0, 8% (v/v) glycerol, 2% (w/v) SDS, 10% dimethyl sulfoxide, 0.01% (w/v) bromocresol purple and 20 mM NEM. Samples were neutralized by drop-wise addition of 1 M Tris–HCl, pH 7.5, 2% SDS until samples turned purple (bromocresol purple changes colour between pH 5.2 and 6.8). The pellets were subsequently dissolved by sonication, incubated at RT in the dark for 1 h and the redox state of Ero1 $\beta$  was determined by non-reducing Western blotting.

# RESULTS

# Structure homology modelling of Ero1 $\beta$ predicts Cys<sup>262</sup> to be buried in the structure

The amino acid sequences of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  are highly conserved between orthologues (Supplementary Figure S1 available at http://www.bioscirep.org/bsr/034/bsr034e103add.htm). Thus, potential roles of cysteine residues in regulatory disulfide bonds based on evolutionary conservation could not be inferred from a multiple sequence alignment. Instead, we used structure homology modelling of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  to assess the proposed disulfide patterns in the protein (Figures 1A and 1B). The protein structure prediction software SWISS-MODEL [36] was used to predict the three-dimensional structure of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  based on the crystal structure of inactive  $\text{Erol}\alpha$ , a mutant in essence corresponding to the OX2 form ([4]; PDB ID: 3AHR) (Figure 2A). The sequences of mature  $\text{Erol}\alpha$  and  $\text{Erol}\beta$  are highly similar [14] with a sequence identity of 65%. As expected from the high sequence conservation, the  $\alpha$ -helical fold in Ero1 $\alpha$  was predicted to be preserved in  $\text{Ero}_{1\beta}$  including the four-helix bundle involved in FAD binding (Figure 2A, red-coloured  $\alpha$ -helices). The structure of the flexible region (residues 86-130) comprising the proposed Cys90-Cys130 or the Cys95-Cys100 disulfide bonds could not be reliably modelled (Figure 2A).

In contrast to the cysteines in the flexible region, Cys<sup>262</sup> is located at the end of a conserved helix [14], which is part of the fourhelix bundle (Figure 2A). Moreover, Cys<sup>262</sup> is positioned close





#### Figure 2 Structural model of $Ero1\beta$

(A) Superimposition of the structure of inactive Ero1 $\alpha$  (PDB ID: 3ahr; [4]) and a structural model of Ero1 $\beta$ . The latter was homology modelled based on the structure of inactive Ero1 $\alpha$  using the SWISS-MODEL software [36]. Predicted flexible regions (see Figure 1) are not depicted. The approximate position of the flexible region comprising residues 86–130 in Ero1 $\beta$  is indicated. In Ero1 $\beta$ , the  $\alpha$ -helices of the four-helix bundle are shown in red, the remainder of the molecule in orange and the cysteine residue side chains are depicted as spheres (yellow: sulfur, cyan: carbon) with amino acid numbering indicated. Ero1 $\alpha$  is depicted in blue and the FAD moiety (stick model) in yellow. (B) Zoom of the structural overlay in (A). The predicted hydrogen bond (encircled) between the Ero1 $\beta$  Cys<sup>262</sup> SH-group and the carbonyl O (red) of Asn<sup>258</sup> is shown by the broken yellow line. In the model, the distance between the S and O atoms is 2.74 Å. This figure was created in PyMOL (http://www.pymol.org).

to a protruding  $\beta$ -hairpin, which is critical for the interaction with PDI [37]. The equivalent residue in Ero1 $\alpha$  (Ser<sup>263</sup>) is completely buried. Similarly, in the Ero1 $\beta$  model, Cys<sup>262</sup> is predicted to have a relative accessible surface area of 0 (as calculated by the ASAView software [38] and the GETAREA method [39]), which strongly suggests that Cys<sup>262</sup> in Ero1 $\beta$  is buried in the native structure. Moreover, the side chain - SH (Cys<sup>262</sup>)/- OH (Ser<sup>263</sup>) is predicted to form a hydrogen bond with the backbone carbonyl group of Asn<sup>258</sup>/Asn<sup>259</sup>, respectively (Figure 2B). This hydrogen bond seems to be part of a conserved hydrogen bond network, including hydrogen bonds from the side chain of Asn<sup>258</sup>/Asn<sup>259</sup> to FAD, which helps stabilize the structure in the vicinity of the bound cofactor. Finally, we also note that in *Xenopus tropicalis*  $\text{Ero1}\beta$ , a serine residue is found in place of  $\text{Cys}^{262}$  (Supplementary Figure S1), indicating that a cysteine is not strictly necessary at this position as may have been expected if it played an important function in regulating the activity of the enzyme.

# SDS–PAGE mobility of Ero1 $\beta$ mutants suggests conservation of regulatory disulfide bonds in Ero1 $\alpha$ and Ero1 $\beta$

To investigate the structural importance of intramolecular disulfide bonds in human Ero1 $\beta$ , we expressed Ero1 $\beta$  cysteine mutants in human cells and analysed the mobility of these mutants by non-reducing SDS–PAGE. Apart from already established stable cell lines for ectopic inducible expression of Ero1 $\beta$ -WT [23] and Ero1 $\beta$ –C100A/C130A [32], we generated three new inducible cell lines for the following mutants: Ero1 $\beta$ -C100A, Ero1 $\beta$ –C130A and Ero1 $\beta$ –C262A. As compared with Ero1 $\beta$ -WT, Ero1 $\beta$ –C100A and Ero1 $\beta$ –C262A showed similar expression levels, whereas the expression levels of Ero1 $\beta$ –C130A and Ero1 $\beta$ –C100/130A were lower (Figure 3A). Importantly, none of the cell lines overexpressing Ero1 $\beta$  mutants of Cys<sup>100</sup> and/or Cys<sup>130</sup>, which turned out to be hyperactive (see below), expressed more protein than the Ero1 $\beta$ -WT-expressing cell line.

As previously observed [33], the monomeric form of exogenous Ero1 $\beta$ -WT migrated as two distinct redox species (Red and OX) when cells were treated with NEM to alkylate free thiols in situ prior to lysis (Figure 3B, lane 2 and Figure 3C, lane 3). However, upon TCA precipitation with subsequent NEM treatment, monomeric Ero1 $\beta$ -WT migrated as one redox species (Figure 3D, lane 4). TCA precipitation rapidly quenches thiol-disulfide exchange reactions and denatures proteins, enabling alkylation of thiols buried in the native structure [40]. When cells are in situ NEM-treated, approximately 20% of the cellular protein thiols have been shown to be inaccessible to NEM [41]. Such NEM inaccessibility is thought to be a consequence of these thiols being buried in the native structure [40]. We therefore suggest that inefficient alkylation of (a) free thiol(s) buried in the structure of Ero1 $\beta$  gives rise to rearrangement of disulfide bonds upon denaturation, leading to the appearance of the Red Ero1 $\beta$  redox form (Figures 3B and 3C). Conversely, when all free thiols are efficiently alkylated,  $\text{Erol}\beta$ -WT is preserved as a single redox species visible on SDS-PAGE gels (Figure 3D).

The SDS–PAGE mobility of the Ero1 $\beta$  variants on nonreducing gels (Figure 3D) is consistent with Ero1 $\beta$  having a similar pattern of disulfide bonds as Ero1 $\alpha$  (Figures 1B and 1C). We were able to detect a relatively small migration shift between Ero1 $\beta$ -WT and Ero1 $\beta$ -C100A (Figure 3D, lanes 4–5) suggesting that Cys<sup>100</sup> is not engaged in a long-range disulfide bond. In contrast, a larger shift was observed upon mutation of Cys<sup>130</sup> (Figure 3D, lanes 6–7) consistent with removal of the longer-ranging Cys<sup>90</sup>–Cys<sup>130</sup> disulfide bond. No redox species of Ero1 $\beta$ -C100A co-migrated with Ero1 $\beta$ –C130A (Figure 3D, lanes 5–6), suggesting that the Cys<sup>90</sup>–Cys<sup>130</sup> disulfide bond is intact in Ero1 $\beta$ –C100A.

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# Figure 3 SDS-PAGE mobility of Ero1 $\beta$ variants suggests that Ero1 $\alpha$ and Ero1 $\beta$ share their sets of regulatory disulfide bonds

(A) Expression of His- and Myc-tagged Ero1 $\beta$  variants was induced with Dox for 24 h and cells were NEM treated to alkylate-free thiols. Equal amounts of protein from lysates were analysed by reducing SDS-PAGE and Western blotting using  $\alpha$ His (Ero1 $\beta$ ) and  $\alpha$ Actin (loading control) to compare expression levels of Ero1 $\beta$  variants. (**B**,**C**) Cell lysates were obtained as in (**A**). The SDS-PAGE mobility of the Ero1 $\beta$  variants was analysed under non-reducing (Non-red) or reducing (Red) conditions by  $\alpha$ myc or  $\alpha$ His Western blotting. The open and filled circles indicate the previously described OX and Red redox forms of Ero1 $\beta$  Variants was induced as in (**A**). Expression of Ero1 $\beta$  variants was induced as in (**A**). Cells were subjected to TCA precipitation to rapidly quench thiol-disulfide exchange reactions and to denature cellular proteins. Precipitates were redissolved in a buffer containing NEM to alkylate free thiols. Subsequently, the SDS-PAGE mobility of the Ero1 $\beta$  variants was analysed under non-reducing indicate the tron-reducing to alkylate free thiols. Subsequently, the SDS-PAGE mobility of the Ero1 $\beta$  variants was analysed under non-reducing conditions by  $\alpha$ His Western blotting. Section signs (§) indicate possible Ero1 $\beta$  mixed-disulfide dimeric species and the asterisk (\*) denotes a background band.



## Figure 4 Hyperoxidation of ERp57 is intensified by removal of regulatory disulfide bonds in $Ero1\beta$

 $(\mathbf{A-C})$  Where indicated, expression of  $\text{Ero1}\beta$  variants was induced with Dox for 24 h. Prior to lysis, cells were treated with NEM to alkylate free thiols. After cell lysis, cysteines present in disulfides were reduced and decorated with AMS. Such AMS modification of active-site cysteines originally present in the oxidized state gives rise to slower SDS-PAGE mobility compared with the (NEM-decorated) pool of ERp57 containing reduced active-site cysteines. The cellular redox state of ERp57 was visualized by Western blotting. DTT and Diamide (Dia) treated-cells were used to show the mobility of fully oxidized (Ox) and reduced (Red) ERp57. A vertical hairline denotes removal of lanes.

A fraction of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  is present as a disulfide-bonded homodimer in human cells [33] and when expressed in bacteria [7]. Moreover,  $\text{Erol}\beta$  engages in heterodimeric mixed-disulfide species with PDI and ERp44 in human cells [42]. The possible dimeric species involving Ero1 $\beta$ -WT and Ero1 $\beta$ -C262A were similar (Figure 3D, lanes 3-4), suggesting that Cys<sup>262</sup> is not involved in formation of mixed-disulfide dimeric species. Notably,  $\text{Erol}\beta$ -C262A did not migrate slower than  $\text{Ero1}\beta$ -WT (Figure 3D, lanes 3-4), suggesting that Cys<sup>262</sup> is not engaged in a long-range disulfide bond. Instead, Ero1 $\beta$ -C262A was present exclusively as the OX redox species in lysates from cells treated in situ with NEM (Figure 3C, lane 2), and as a single redox species co-migrating with  $\text{Ero1}\beta$ -WT in lysates from cells subjected to TCA precipitation (Figure 3D, lane 3). This clearly suggests that non-native ex vivo disulfide shuffling in lysates of in situ NEM-treated cells observed for Ero1 $\beta$ -WT (Figures 3B and 3C) depends on the presence of Cys<sup>262</sup>, and that this residue is inaccessible to NEM in the native structure.

Based on these results, we propose that the regulatory disulfide bonds in Ero1 $\alpha$  (Cys<sup>94</sup>–Cys<sup>131</sup> and Cys<sup>99</sup>–Cys<sup>104</sup>) are conserved in Ero1 $\beta$  (Cys<sup>90</sup>–Cys<sup>130</sup> and Cys<sup>95</sup>–Cys<sup>100</sup>) and that Cys<sup>262</sup> constitutes a poorly accessible free thiol in the native structure. The deduced disulfide pattern in the OX redox form of Ero1 $\beta$  is shown in Figure 1(B).

# Removal of either of the regulatory disulfide bonds increases the activity of Ero1 $\beta$ in cells

We next wanted to assess the relative contribution of the proposed disulfide bonds (Cys90-Cys130 and Cys95-Cys100) to the regulation of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  activity. First, we analysed the cellular redox state of ERp57, as assessed by differential alkylation of the activesite cysteines. This assay probes the ratio of ERp57 molecules with active-site cysteines in the oxidized and reduced state, respectively, and has been used routinely in the field as readout for changes in the ER redox environment [23,27,43]. Mutation of Cys<sup>100</sup> and Cys<sup>130</sup> alone or in combination increased the hyperoxidizing effect of  $\text{Ero}_{1\beta}$  on the redox state of ERp57 relative to Ero1 $\beta$ -WT (Figures 4A and 4B). This suggests that both disulfide bonds (Cys90-Cys130 and Cys95-Cys100) are involved in inhibiting the activity of Ero1 $\beta$ . Consistent with Cys<sup>262</sup> not being involved in regulation of Ero1 $\beta$  activity, overexpression of Ero1 $\beta$ -C262A showed only a minor hyperoxidizing effect on ERp57 (Figure 4C). It should be noted that consistent with our previous studies, and as noted before [2], the ERp57 redox state differed between individual experiments likely reflecting physiological variations. This, however, does not affect the overall conclusions concerning the relative oxidizing effects of overexpressing different Ero1 $\beta$  variants.

We recently showed that a deregulated Ero1 $\alpha$  mutant (Ero1 $\alpha$ -C104A/C131A) markedly activated the UPR as a result of its increased oxidase activity when overexpressed in HEK-293 cells (human embryonic kidney cells) [24]. To study whether overexpression of Ero1 $\beta$  also induces the UPR, we analysed the protein levels of the two established UPR targets, BiP (immunoglobulin heavy-chain-binding protein) and HERP (homocysteine-induced

ER protein) [44]. As expected from the loose regulation of Ero1 $\beta$ (Figure 4), BiP and HERP levels were moderately increased upon expression of Ero1 $\beta$ -WT (Figures 5A–5D). These effects were more pronounced upon mutation of Cys<sup>100</sup> and Cys<sup>130</sup> alone or in combination (Figures 5A–5C), correlating with the impact of these mutants on the redox state of ERp57 (Figures 4A and 4B). Overexpression of Ero1 $\beta$ -C262A showed a similar degree of UPR induction as Ero1 $\beta$ -WT (Figure 5D). These findings suggested that Cys<sup>262</sup> is not involved in regulating Ero1 $\beta$  activity, and is in keeping with our proposed disulfide pattern of Ero1 $\beta$ (Figure 1B).

# DISCUSSION

Tight regulation of Ero1 $\alpha$  activity is important to maintain balanced ER redox conditions [23–25]. We propose that the regulatory disulfide bonds in Ero1 $\alpha$  and Ero1 $\beta$  are conserved (Figures 1B and 1C). This conclusion is based on several lines of evidence, including molecular modelling of the Ero1 $\beta$  structure (Figure 2), SDS–PAGE mobility analysis of Ero1 $\beta$  mutants (Figures 3B–3D) and ER redox (Figure 4) and ER stress readouts (Figure 5). Overall, the findings that overexpression of Ero1 $\beta$ mutants devoid of Cys<sup>100</sup> and/or Cys<sup>130</sup> induces the UPR, hyperoxidizes ERp57 and that Ero1 $\beta$ -C100A/C130A hyperoxidizes an ER-localized glutathione sensor [32], indicate that the underlying mechanism is likely to involve an oxidizing perturbation of the ER redox environment, which in turn results in protein misfolding and therefore activation of the UPR.

In a previous study [7], Ero1 $\beta$ -C262A purified from *E. coli* displayed a prominent slow-migrating redox species when compared with Ero1 $\beta$ -WT by non-reducing SDS–PAGE, indicating the loss of a long-range disulfide. Furthermore, analysis of tryptic fragments supported the presence of a Cys<sup>100</sup>–Cys<sup>262</sup> disulfide bond. Finally, the Ero1 $\beta$ -C100A mutant was less active *in vitro* than Ero1 $\beta$ -WT, suggesting that the presence of the proposed Cys<sup>100</sup>–Cys<sup>262</sup> disulfide bond positively regulates the activity of Ero1 $\beta$ .

Here, we expressed  $\text{Erol}\beta$  (and mutants thereof) in its native environment in the ER of human cells and reached the conclusion that a disulfide bond between Cys100 and Cys262 is not likely to form. Thus, mutation of Cys<sup>100</sup> rendered Ero1 $\beta$  hyperactive and overexpression of Ero1 $\beta$ -C262A showed effects comparable to Ero1 $\beta$ -WT overexpression. We also provide two-fold evidence that  $\mathrm{Cys}^{262}$  is a solvent inaccessible residue in the native structure of Ero1 $\beta$ . First, a fraction of Ero1 $\beta$ -WT molecules rearrange into a redox species that migrates as the Red form upon in situ NEM treatment in a Cys<sup>262</sup>-dependent manner, suggesting that NEM cannot gain access to Cys<sup>262</sup> under native conditions. Secondly, a homology model of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  based on the crystal structure of Ero1 $\alpha$  places Cys<sup>262</sup> in a non-solvent exposed site in a highly conserved  $\alpha$ -helix. Collectively, these findings strongly support the conclusion that Cys262 does not engage in an intramolecular disulfide bond with Cys<sup>100</sup>. To verify the proposed



disulfide pattern, we also sought to map the intramolecular disulfides in Ero1 $\beta$  purified from human cells by mass spectrometry, as has previously been achieved for Ero1 $\alpha$  [23]. Unfortunately, the results obtained by this approach were ambiguous (H. G. Hansen, L. Ellgaard and F. Hubálek, unpublished work), which was likely a result of disulfide bond scrambling in the course of sample preparation.

Using TCA precipitation and subsequent NEM treatment, we demonstrated that the Red form of Ero1 $\beta$  [33] is likely an artefact of inefficient thiol alkylation, indicating that overexpressed Ero1 $\beta$  is present solely as the OX redox species. Unfortunately, the redox state of endogenous Ero1 $\beta$  assessed by SDS–PAGE mobility under non-reducing conditions is currently unknown. Moreover, we currently do not know why Ero1 $\beta$  migrates 5–7 kDa faster than Ero1 $\alpha$  on non-reducing SDS–PAGE gels [23], even though the predicted molecular mass of mature Ero1 $\beta$  is only 1–2 kDa smaller than the corresponding mass of mature Ero1 $\alpha$ . Since deglycosylation of Ero1 $\beta$  gives rise to a more pronounced mobility shift on SDS–PAGE gels as compared with Ero1 $\alpha$  [16], the presence of N-linked glycans cannot explain the unexpectedly large difference in SDS–PAGE mobility between Ero1 $\alpha$  and Ero1 $\beta$ .

As  $\text{Ero}1\alpha$  and  $\text{Ero}1\beta$  likely share their sets of regulatory disulfide bonds, features other than a distinct pattern of disulfide bonds must determine the loose redox regulation of  $\text{Ero}1\beta$  relative to  $\text{Ero}1\alpha$ . Mutation of the  $\text{Cys}^{394}$ –Phe–Lys–Cys<sup>397</sup> inner active site sequence of  $\text{Ero}1\alpha$  to the  $\text{Ero}1\beta$  sequence ( $\text{Cys}^{393}$ – Asp–Lys–Cys<sup>396</sup>) substantially increases the oxidase activity of  $\text{Ero}1\alpha$  [7]. This suggests that  $\text{Asp}^{394}$  in  $\text{Ero}1\beta$  contributes to the apparently loose redox regulation of  $\text{Ero}1\beta$  relative to  $\text{Ero}1\alpha$ .

As previously proposed [22], the loose regulation of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  activity relative to  $\text{Erol}\alpha$  could be explained by a higher reduc-

tion potential of the regulatory disulfide bonds in  $\text{Erol}\beta$ . The high expression of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  in the pancreas and salivary gland indicates a specific role of the protein in secretory tissues. Accordingly, oxidative folding of pro-insulin is impeded in pancreatic islet cells derived from  $\text{Erol}\beta$ -compromised mice, an effect that is not exacerbated by concomitantly compromising  $\text{Erol}\alpha$  function [45]. However, increasing disulfide-bond formation by exogenous  $\text{Erol}\alpha$  expression stimulates oxidative folding of pro-insulin [46]. These observations suggest that the loose regulation of  $\text{Erol}\beta$  activity could have evolved to optimally support the high demand of disulfide bonds in secretory tissues.

# **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

Henning Hansen and Lars Ellgaard designed and supervised the experimental work. Henning Hansen, Cecilie Søltoft, Jonas Schmidt, Julia Birk and Christian Appenzeller-Herzog performed the experiments. Henning Hansen and Lars Ellgaard wrote the paper, and Christian Appenzeller-Herzog contributed to revision of the paper.

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# Solementary bits

# SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

# Biochemical evidence that regulation of $\text{Ero1}\beta$ activity in human cells does not involve the isoform-specific cysteine 262

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Supplementary Figure S1 is on the following page.

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#### Figure S1 Evolutionary conservation of $Ero1\beta$

A multiple sequence alignment of  $Ero1\beta$  orthologs was performed with Muscle [1] using the following UniProt entries. Xenopus tropicalis (frog; F6ULN4); Gallus gallus (chicken; E1C917); Anolis carolinensis (lizard; G1KAL4); Monodelphis domestica (opossum; F7CL82); Mus musculus (mouse: Q8R2E9); Canis familiaris (dog; F1Q091); Homo sapiens (human; Q86YB8); Danio rerio (zebrafish; E7F2A8); Oryzias latipes (rice fish; H2L719); Takifugu rubripes (pufferfish; H2TT03). Black boxes indicate amino acid identities and grey boxes show amino acid similarities when found in at least seven of the nine sequences. The human sequence is shown in boldface, cysteine residues are shown in red colour and amino acid position of the cysteine residues in the human sequence is indicated above the alignment.

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