history

foreign DNA was destroyed. Arber and Dussoix proposed that both processes were catalyzed by specific restriction and modification enzymes and that the DNA contained the specific sites to bind both types of enzymes. Over twenty years later the remarkable specificity of restriction enzymes is just now being understood (see pages 134 and 89 in this issue).

Smith^{4–7} verified Arber's hypothesis by purifying both bacterial restriction and modification enzymes and showing that they specifically cut DNA and methylated the DNA, respectively. Nathans^{8–10} pioneered the application of restriction enzymes to genetics by surveying the ability of known restriction enzymes to cleave the DNA of Simian Virus 40, one of the simplest animal viruses that can transform cultured cells. Clearly, all three were instrumental in the development of modern molecular biology.

While this brief account does highlight some of the major contributions of the three recipients, Arber's daughter, Silvia (then 10 years old), did a better job of explaining why her father was chosen as a Nobel Laureate¹¹ with "The tale of the king and his servants":

"When I come to the laboratory of my father, I usually see some plates lying on the tables. These plates contain colonies of bacteria. These colonies remind me of a city with many inhabitants. In each bacterium there is a king. He is very long, but skinny. The king has many servants. These are thick and short, almost like balls. My father calls the king DNA, and the servants enzymes. The king is like a book, in which everything is noted on the work to be done by the servants. For us human beings these instructions of the king are a mystery.

My father has discovered a servant who serves as a pair of scissors. If a foreign king invades a bacterium, this servant can cut him in small fragments, but he does not do any harm to his own king.

Clever people use the servant with the scissors to find out the secrets of the kings. To do so, they collect many servants with scissors and put them onto a king, so that the king is cut into pieces. With the resulting little pieces it is much easier to investigate the secrets. For this reason my father received the Nobel Prize for the discovery of the servant with the scissors."

Boyana Konforti

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picture story

Picking pathways

Many proteins synthesized in the cytoplasm of a cell are secreted outside the cell or are transported into specific cellular compartments. For proteins that are secreted or targeted to the membrane, the sorting information is usually encoded in the N-terminal segment of the protein, called the signal sequence. Signal sequences vary in length and actual amino acid sequence, but share a common feature — a central hydrophobic patch flanked on either side by polar regions. Interestingly, in prokaryotes, secreted pro-

Polytopic Secreted Protein

SRP—

SRP—

SRP-dependent, co-translational integration

SecA/SecB-dependent, post-translational translocation

teins and membrane proteins containing multiple transmembrane helices (polytopic membrane proteins) appear to be translocated via different pathways — targeting of secreted proteins requires the proteins SecA and SecB, while integration of polytopic membrane proteins involves an RNA—protein complex, called the signal sequence recognition particle (SRP). Thus, one intriguing question is: how does the translocation machinery interpret the signal sequences and thereby target the proteins to the correct locations?

To address this question, Beck et al. (EMBO J., 19: 134-143) used an in vitro system translation and crosslinking techniques to identify ribosome-associated factors that can distinguish between a polytopic membrane protein and a secreted protein. Their results indicate that the translocation pathway is selected early during protein synthesis, with two factors playing a determining role. For a polytopic membrane protein (left panel), the signal sequence (blue box)

emerging from the ribosome (brown ellipsoids) binds to SRP (green ellipsoid) and the subsequent membrane integration occurs simultaneously with protein synthesis. In contrast, trigger factor (Tig, red ellipsoid), a chaperone protein tightly associated with the ribosome, binds to the nascent chain of a secreted protein (right panel) and prevents SRP binding to the signal sequence (blue hashed box). As a result, the protein is directed to the SecA/SecB-dependent translocation pathway after synthesis is complete.

The results of Beck et al. suggest that trigger factor and SRP bind to different regions of the nascent polypeptide chain. However, despite having different interaction sites, binding of these two factors appears mutually exclusive. Their study therefore leads to new questions. What are the features recognized by trigger factor, and is this recognition sequence-specific? Does trigger factor binding persist throughout protein synthesis? How does trigger factor binding exclude SRP-signal sequence interactions? A better understanding of how proteins are targeted to different compartments will emerge as these questions are addressed.

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