

# Inhibition of GDP/GTP Exchange on G $\alpha$ Subunits by Proteins Containing G-Protein Regulatory Motifs<sup>†</sup>

Michael Natochin, Karim G. Gasimov, and Nikolai O. Artemyev\*

Department of Physiology and Biophysics, University of Iowa College of Medicine, Iowa City, Iowa 52242

Received January 19, 2001; Revised Manuscript Received February 27, 2001

**ABSTRACT:** A novel G $\alpha$  binding consensus sequence, termed G-protein regulatory (GPR) or GoLoco motif, has been identified in a growing number of proteins, which are thought to modulate G-protein signaling. Alternative roles of GPR proteins as nucleotide exchange factors or as GDP dissociation inhibitors for G $\alpha$  have been proposed. We investigated the modulation of the GDP/GTP exchange of Gi $\alpha_1$ , Go $\alpha$ , and Gs $\alpha$  by three proteins containing GPR motifs (GPR proteins), LGN-585-642, Pcp2, and Rap1GAPII-23-131, to elucidate the mechanisms of GPR protein function. The GPR proteins displayed similar patterns of interaction with Gi $\alpha_1$  with the following order of affinities: Gi $\alpha_1$ GDP  $\gg$  Gi $\alpha_1$ GDPAlF<sub>4</sub><sup>−</sup>  $\geq$  Gi $\alpha_1$ -GTP $\gamma$ S. No detectable binding of the GPR proteins to Gs $\alpha$  was observed. LGN-585-642, Pcp2, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 inhibited the rates of spontaneous GTP $\gamma$ S binding and blocked GDP release from Gi $\alpha_1$  and Go $\alpha$ . The inhibitory effects of the GPR proteins on Gi $\alpha_1$  were significantly more potent, indicating that Gi might be a preferred target for these modulators. Our results suggest that GPR proteins are potent GDP dissociation inhibitors for Gi $\alpha$ -like G $\alpha$  subunits in vitro, and in this capacity they may inhibit GPCR/Gi protein signaling in vivo.

G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs)<sup>1</sup> respond to extracellular stimuli by activating heterotrimeric GTP binding proteins at the intracellular surface of the plasma membrane. The activation involves the GDP/GTP exchange on G $\alpha$  subunits and release of G $\alpha$ GTP and G $\beta\gamma$  to interact with their effectors (1–3). Multiple mechanisms regulate the signal output at different stages of the G-protein cascades. The possibility for novel G-protein regulatory mechanisms has emerged with the identification of a new group of G $\alpha$  interacting proteins. These proteins, including human mosaic protein, LGN (4), *Drosophila* RGS protein, LOCO (5), Purkinje cell protein-2 (Pcp2) (6), Rap1GAP (7), and the activator of G-protein signaling 3 (AGS3) (8), share conserved sequence repeats termed the G-protein regulatory (GPR) (8) or GoLoco motifs (9) that mediate the binding to G $\alpha$  subunits. The mechanism and function of the GPR-motif-containing proteins (GPR proteins) in regulation of G-protein signaling remain largely obscure. Known GPR proteins appear to selectively bind G $\alpha$  subunits from the Gi family. Pcp2 and Rap1GAP were shown to interact with Go $\alpha$  and Gi $\alpha$  but not Gs $\alpha$  or Gq $\alpha$  (6, 7), whereas AGS3

preferentially targeted Gi $\alpha$  and Gt $\alpha$  (8, 10–12). The conformational specificity of GPR proteins remains unclear given that different GPR proteins were reported to bind favorably either to GDP-bound (4, 7, 8) or to activated G $\alpha$  subunits (13, 14).

The initial study on the regulation of a G-protein by a GPR protein has opened up the intriguing possibility that GPR proteins act as the guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs). Pcp2 was reported to stimulate GDP release from Go $\alpha$  (6). On the other hand, the GPR domain of AGS3 (AGS3GPR) and the GPR consensus peptide were later shown to inhibit spontaneous GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha$  by blocking the GDP release (10–12). These results indicated that different GPR proteins might have opposite effects on the guanine nucleotide exchange. The activity of certain GPR proteins as GDP dissociation inhibitors (GDIs) and others as GEFs might have been determined by the difference in sequences within or outside the GPR motifs. It also could have been linked to the differential selectivity of GPR proteins for active/inactive conformations of G $\alpha$  subunits. To address these issues, we have examined the binding and regulation of guanine nucleotide exchange of Gi $\alpha_1$ , Go $\alpha$ , and Gs $\alpha$  by three GPR proteins, LGN-585-642, Pcp2, and Rap1GAPII-23-131. Our results suggest that all three GPR proteins preferentially interact with the GDP-bound conformations of Gi $\alpha$  and Go $\alpha$  and serve exclusively as GDP dissociation inhibitors of these G $\alpha$  subunits.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

**Materials.** [<sup>35</sup>S]GTP $\gamma$ S (1160 Ci/mmol) and [ $\alpha$ -<sup>32</sup>P]GTP (>3000 Ci/mmol) were purchased from Amersham Pharmacia Biotech. 3-(Bromoacetyl)-7-diethylaminocoumarin (BC) was from Molecular Probes. Restriction enzymes were

<sup>†</sup> This work was supported by National Institutes of Health Grant RO1 EY-12682 and American Heart Association Grant 0140195N. NIH Grant DK-25295 supported the services provided by the Diabetes and Endocrinology Research Center of the University of Iowa. N.O.A. is an Established Investigator of the American Heart Association.

\* To whom correspondence should be addressed: tel, 319-335-7864; fax, 319-335-7330; e-mail, nikolai-artemyev@uiowa.edu.

<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor; GPR motif, G-protein regulatory motif; Gi $\alpha$ , Go $\alpha$ , and Gs $\alpha$ , G-protein  $\alpha$ -subunits; GTP $\gamma$ S, guanosine 5'-O-(3-thiotriphosphate); Pcp2h, GST-fusion protein of human Pcp2; Pcp2m, mouse Pcp2 GST-fusion construct; AGS3, activator of G-protein signaling 3; GDI, GDP dissociation inhibitor; GEF, guanine nucleotide exchange factor; BC, 3-(bromoacetyl)-7-diethylaminocoumarin.

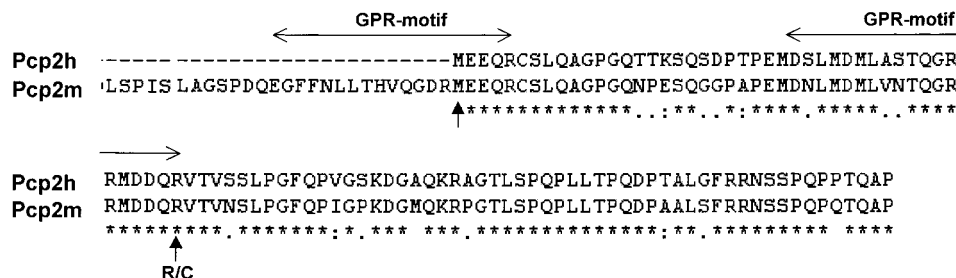


FIGURE 1: Sequence alignment of human and mouse Pcp2 proteins. The sequence of Pcp2h was obtained on the basis of the sequence of the PCR-amplified human Pcp2 cDNA. Except for the substitution Glu3/Gly, a matching sequence was obtained upon translation of the human EST clone GI 11130097. The sequence of mouse Pcp2 (21) follows the starting Met residue indicated by the arrow. The sequence upstream of the Met residue is present in the GST-Pcp2m construct (6). A second arrow indicates the Arg45/Cys substitution in the original GPR motif of GST-Pcp2m.

from New England Biolabs. AmpliTaq DNA polymerase was from Perkin-Elmer. Cloned Pfu DNA polymerase was from Stratagene. All other chemicals were from Sigma or Fisher. Transducin G $\beta\gamma$  subunit (G $\beta_1\gamma_1$ ) was purified according to Kleuss et al. (15).

**Preparation of G $\alpha$  Subunits.** cDNA coding for the rat Go $\alpha$  was excised from the NpT7-5 vector (16) using *Hind*III and *Nco*I (partial digest). The insert was purified using agarose gel and ligated into the pHis<sub>6</sub> vector digested with *Nco*I and *Hind*III. Rat Go $\alpha$ , rat Gi $\alpha_1$ , and bovine Gs $\alpha$  (short splice form) cDNAs (17, 18) subcloned into pHis<sub>6</sub>-tagged vector were expressed in *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3) and purified as described (18, 19).

**Cloning and Expression of GPR Proteins.** The human retinal cDNA  $\lambda$ gt10 library (20) was used as a template for all PCR amplifications. cDNAs corresponding to residues 585–642 of human LGN protein and residues 23–131 of human Rap1GAPII were PCR-amplified using primers synthesized on the basis of reported cDNA sequences of LGN and Rap1GapII (4, 13). LGN-585–642 contains two of the four LGN GPR motifs, GPR-III (aa 588–606), and GPR-IV (aa 622–640). Rap1GAPII-23–131 contains a single GPR motif (aa 27–45). Pcp2 cDNA (21) was PCR-amplified using primers designed on the basis of the human EST cDNA clone GI 11130097 that is similar to mouse Pcp2 cDNA. The DNA sequence of the PCR product was 98% identical to the corresponding sequence of the EST clone. The amino acid sequence of putative human Pcp2 was 82% identical to mouse Pcp2 (Figure 1). The PCR DNA fragments were digested with *Xba*I and *Xho*I (*Hind*III for the Rap1GAPII cDNA) and ligated into the pGEX-KG vector (22) digested with the same enzymes. Sequences of all the constructs were confirmed by automated DNA sequencing at the University of Iowa DNA Core Facility. The mouse PGEX4-Pcp2 construct (Pcp2m) was kindly provided by Dr. B. Denker (Harvard Medical School) (6). Expression of the GST-GPR proteins in BL21 cells was induced with 100  $\mu$ M IPTG for 4 h at 30 °C. The yields of recombinant proteins purified using glutathione–agarose were 10–25 mg/L of culture.

To obtain the His<sub>6</sub>-tagged Pcp2h, the GPR cDNA was PCR-amplified with primers containing the *Nde*I and *Bam*HI sites and subcloned into pET-15b (Novagen). The expression of His<sub>6</sub>-Pcp2h was induced with 100  $\mu$ M IPTG for 4 h at 30 °C. His<sub>6</sub>-Pcp2h was purified using columns with a His-Bind resin (Novagen) and DEAE-Sephacel. The yield of His<sub>6</sub>-Pcp2h was  $\sim$ 1 mg/L of culture of 95% pure protein.

**Binding of the GST-GPR Fusion Proteins to G $\alpha$  Subunits.** Gi $\alpha_1$ , Go $\alpha$ , and Gs $\alpha$  (1  $\mu$ M) were incubated for 1 h at 25 °C in 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 130 mM NaCl, and 10 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> (buffer A) containing 5  $\mu$ M GTP $\gamma$ S, 5  $\mu$ M GDP, or 5  $\mu$ M GDP, 10 mM NaF, and 30  $\mu$ M AlCl<sub>3</sub>. Afterward, the GST fusion proteins LGN-585–642, Pcp2h, Pcp2m, and Rap1GAPII-23–131 (2  $\mu$ M each) were added, and the incubation was continued for 20 min. Glutathione–agarose (10  $\mu$ L bed volume) was added and mixed with the proteins for another 20 min at 25 °C. Samples containing G $\alpha$ GTP $\gamma$ S were washed four times with 1 mL of buffer A. Samples containing G $\alpha$ GDP or G $\alpha$  activated with AlF<sub>4</sub><sup>−</sup> were washed four times with 1 mL of buffer A containing 5  $\mu$ M GDP or 5  $\mu$ M GDP, 10 mM NaF, and 30  $\mu$ M AlCl<sub>3</sub>. The bound proteins were eluted with SDS–PAGE sample buffer. G $\alpha$  subunits bound to LGN-585–642, Pcp2h, and Rap1GAPII-23–131 were visualized by Coomassie Blue staining of SDS gels. Gi $\alpha_1$  and GST-Pcp2m have identical electrophoretic mobility; hence a Western blot analysis was performed. The proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane BA85 (Schleicher and Schuell), and Gi $\alpha_1$  was probed with rabbit Gi $\alpha_{1-3}$ -specific antibodies (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) at a 1:5000 dilution. The antibody–antigen complexes were detected using goat anti-rabbit IgG conjugated to horseradish peroxidase and ECL reagent (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech).

**Fluorescence Assay of Pcp2 Binding to G $\alpha$  Subunits.** His<sub>6</sub>-Pcp2h was labeled with the environmentally sensitive fluorescent probe, BC, at a single cysteine residue (Pcp2Cys6). A 2-fold molar excess of BC was added from a stock 5 mM solution in *N,N*-dimethylformamide to 100  $\mu$ M His<sub>6</sub>-Pcp2h in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.6). The mixture was incubated for 30 min at 25 °C. The labeled protein, Pcp2hBC, was then passed through a PD-10 column (Pharmacia) equilibrated with 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.6) containing 100 mM NaCl. Using  $\epsilon_{445} = 53\,000$  for BC, the incorporation of BC into Pcp2h was greater than 0.8 mol/mol. Fluorescent assays were performed on a F-2000 fluorescence spectrophotometer (Hitachi) in 1 mL of 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.6) containing 100 mM NaCl and 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>. Where indicated, the buffer contained 30  $\mu$ M AlCl<sub>3</sub> and 10 mM NaF. Fluorescence of Pcp2hBC (40 nM) was monitored prior to and following the additions of increasing concentrations of G $\alpha$  subunits using excitation at 445 nm and emission at 495 nm. Concentration of Pcp2hBC was determined using  $\epsilon_{445} = 53\,000$ . The specificity of binding of Pcp2hBC to G $\alpha$  subunits was confirmed by the competitive displacement with unlabeled Pcp2h.

**GTP $\gamma$ S Binding Assay.** Gi $\alpha_1$  (0.1  $\mu$ M), Go $\alpha$  (0.1  $\mu$ M), and Gs $\alpha$  subunits (1  $\mu$ M) alone or Gi $\alpha_1$  mixed with 0.2  $\mu$ M Gt $\beta\gamma$  were incubated for 3 min at 25 °C in 50  $\mu$ L of buffer A containing 10 mM DTT and 10  $\mu$ M GST, with or without the addition of varying concentrations of the GST fusion proteins LGN-585-642, Pcp2m, Pcp2h, and Rap1GAP11-23-131. Binding reactions were started by the addition of 5  $\mu$ M [ $^{35}$ S]GTP $\gamma$ S (5 Ci/mmol). Aliquots of 10  $\mu$ L were withdrawn at the indicated times and passed through Whatman cellulose nitrate filters (0.45  $\mu$ m). The filters were then washed three times with 1 mL of ice-cold buffer A and counted in a liquid scintillation counter after dissolution in 3a70B cocktail (RPI Corp.). A background GTP $\gamma$ S binding in the absence of G $\alpha$  was subtracted from all samples. The GTP $\gamma$ S binding data were fit to the equation  $\text{GTP}\gamma\text{S bound (\%)} = 100\%(1 - e^{-kt})$ .

**GDP Dissociation Assay.** Gi $\alpha_1$  and Go $\alpha$  complexed with [ $\alpha$ - $^{32}$ P]GDP (1  $\mu$ M) were prepared by incubating 1  $\mu$ M G $\alpha$  with 2  $\mu$ M [ $\alpha$ - $^{32}$ P]GTP in buffer A for 1.5 h at 25 °C. Excess of unlabeled GTP (1 mM) was added to monitor dissociation of [ $\alpha$ - $^{32}$ P]GDP from G $\alpha$  subunits in the absence or the presence of the GST-GPR proteins. Aliquots were withdrawn at the indicated times and passed through Whatman cellulose nitrate filters (0.45  $\mu$ m). The dissociation rate constants ( $k_{\text{off}}$ ) were calculated by fitting the experimental data to a single-exponential decay function: % GDP bound =  $100\%(e^{-kt})$ .

**Other Methods.** Protein concentrations were determined by the method of Bradford (23) using IgG as a standard. SDS-PAGE was performed according to the method of Laemmli (24). The experimental data were fit with nonlinear least squares criteria using GraphPad Prism (v.2) software. Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  SE of three or more experiments.

## RESULTS

**Cloning of a Human Pcp2 Protein.** In addition to LGN-585-642 and Rap1GAP11-23-131 GST fusion proteins, two recombinant Pcp2 constructs, Pcp2m and Pcp2h, were utilized in the analysis of GPR protein function. Pcp2m is the GST-Pcp2 fusion protein of mouse Pcp2 that was shown earlier to act as GEF for Go $\alpha$  (6). The Pcp2m cDNA that was subcloned into the PGEX4-2 vector (6) contained a DNA fragment located upstream of the codon for initiator Met. This fragment included six codons from the 3' end of exon 1 and twenty codons from the 5' end of exon 2 of the mouse Pcp2 gene, which are normally not translated (25). Inadvertently, translation of this fragment in the context of GST-Pcp2m resulted in the introduction of a second artificial GPR motif positioned N-terminally to the genuine Pcp2 GPR motif (Figure 1). A second potentially serious problem with Pcp2m is that it has a substitution of an important Arg45 by Cys within the original GPR motif. Mutation of the corresponding residue in AGS3GPR has disrupted its binding to Gi $\alpha$  (8, 12). A human GST-Pcp2h protein has been generated to correct for these errors. The amino acid sequence of Pcp2h shown in Figure 1 is derived from the sequencing of the PCR-amplified human cDNA. An analogous sequence with only a single substitution can be obtained upon translation of the human EST clone GI 11130097. Pcp2h has an 82% sequence identity to the mouse Pcp2 (21).

**Conformational Selectivity of the GPR Proteins.** The binding of GST fusion proteins LGN-585-642, Pcp2h,

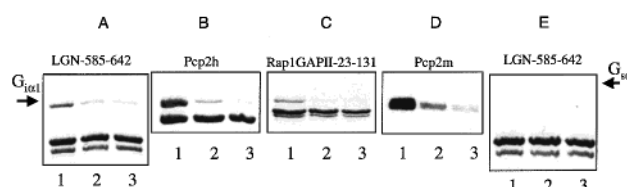


FIGURE 2: Binding of the GPR proteins to G $\alpha$ . SDS gels stained with Coomassie Blue (A, B, C, and E) and Western blot analysis (D). G $\alpha$ GDP (lanes 1), G $\alpha$ GDPAlF $_4^-$  (lanes 2), and G $\alpha$ GTP $\gamma$ S (lanes 3) bound to GST fusion proteins LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, Pcp2m, and Rap1GAP11-23-131 were pulled down using glutathione-agarose as described under Experimental Procedures. The bound G $\alpha$  (A, B, C, and D) and Gs $\alpha$  (E) were analyzed using Coomassie Blue stained SDS gels (A, B, C, and E) or Western blot analysis (D).

Pcp2m, and Rap1GAP11-23-131 to Gi $\alpha_1$  in different conformations was analyzed by coprecipitation of Gi $\alpha_1$  with the GPR protein using glutathione-agarose beads. The amounts of coprecipitated Gi $\alpha_1$  were assessed with Coomassie Blue stained gels. The Western blot analysis was used in the case of GST-Pcp2m because it comigrates with Gi $\alpha_1$  on an SDS gel. The results of the GST pull-down experiments in Figure 2 demonstrate that all three GPR proteins bind tightly Gi $\alpha_1$ -GDP. Very small amounts if any of Gi $\alpha_1$ GTP $\gamma$ S and Gi $\alpha_1$ GDPAlF $_4^-$  were coprecipitated with the GPR constructs. Thus, LGN-585-642, Pcp2, and Rap1GAP11-23-131 display similar patterns of interaction with Gi $\alpha_1$  with the following order of affinities: Gi $\alpha_1$ GDP  $\gg$  Gi $\alpha_1$ GDPAlF $_4^-$   $\geq$  Gi $\alpha_1$ -GTP $\gamma$ S. Gi $\alpha_1$  did not coprecipitate with glutathione-agarose in the absence of GST-GPR proteins (not shown). LGN-585-642 (Figure 2E), Pcp2, and Rap1GAP11-23-131 (not shown) did not bind Gs $\alpha$ .

**Binding of G $\alpha$  Subunits to Fluorescently Labeled Pcp2h.** To establish a quantitative assay of binding of Pcp2h to G $\alpha$  subunits, His $_6$ -Pcp2h was labeled with the environmentally sensitive fluorescent probe, BC, at Pcp2Cys6 (Figure 1). We found that binding of Gi $\alpha_1$ GDP to Pcp2hBC led to a large fluorescence increase (maximum  $F/F_0$  of 9.1) (Figure 3A). The  $K_d$  value of 0.37  $\mu$ M was calculated from the binding curve (Figure 3A). The specificity of binding of Pcp2hBC to Gi $\alpha_1$ GDP was confirmed by competitive displacement with unlabeled Pcp2h (not shown). Furthermore, the fluorescence change of Pcp2hBC was sensitive to the conformational state of Gi $\alpha_1$ . By comparison to Gi $\alpha_1$ GDP, additions of Gi $\alpha_1$ GDPAlF $_4^-$  and Gi $\alpha_1$ GTP $\gamma$ S caused only small changes in the fluorescence of Pcp2hBC. The binding curves for Gi $\alpha_1$ GDPAlF $_4^-$  and Gi $\alpha_1$ GTP $\gamma$ S (Figure 3A) suggest low affinity of activated Gi $\alpha_1$  for Pcp2h, which is consistent with the results of the GST pull-down experiments (Figure 2). Next, the fluorescence binding assay was applied to examine the interaction of Pcp2h with Go $\alpha$ . Additions of Go $\alpha$ GDP to Pcp2hBC resulted in an approximately 5-fold maximal increase in the probe fluorescence (Figure 3B). The affinity of Go $\alpha$ GDP for Pcp2hBC ( $K_d$  of 1.6  $\mu$ M) was notably lower than that of Gi $\alpha_1$  (Figure 3B). The AlF $_4^-$ - and GTP $\gamma$ S-bound conformations of Go $\alpha$  showed no significant binding to Pcp2hBC (Figure 3B), confirming the preference of Pcp2 for the GDP-bound G $\alpha$  subunits of the Gi family. The lower affinity of Pcp2h for Go $\alpha$  in comparison to Gi $\alpha$  was corroborated by the GST pull-down experiments (Figure 3B, inset). No binding of Pcp2h to all conformations of Gs $\alpha$  was detected using the fluorescence assay.



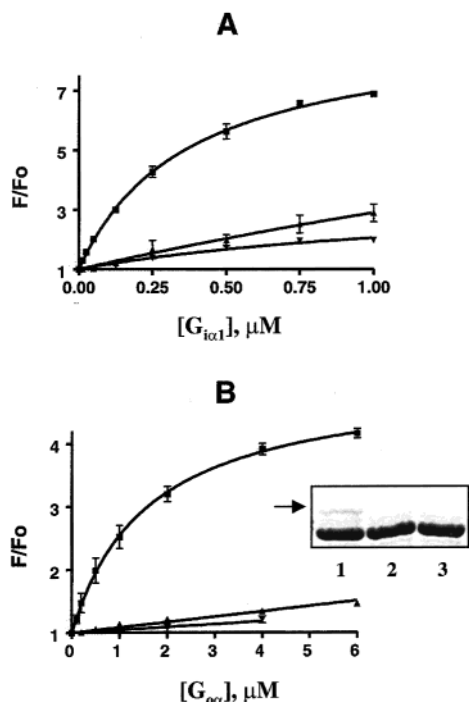


FIGURE 3: Binding of Gi $\alpha_1$  and Go $\alpha$  to Pcp2hBC. The relative increase in fluorescence ( $F/F_0$ ) of Pcp2hBC (40 nM) (excitation at 445 nm, emission at 495 nm) was determined following the addition of increasing concentrations of Gi $\alpha_1$  (A) or Go $\alpha$  (B) in the GDP- (■), GDPAlF $_4^-$  (▲), or GTP $\gamma$ S-bound (▼) conformations. The binding curve characteristics are (A, ■)  $K_d = 0.37 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{M}$ , maximum  $F/F_0 = 9.1$  and (B, ■)  $K_d = 1.6 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{M}$ , maximum  $F/F_0 = 5.0$ . (B, inset) The GST pull-down experiment. Go $\alpha$ GDP (1), Go $\alpha$ GDPAlF $_4^-$  (2), and Go $\alpha$ GTP $\gamma$ S (3) bound to GST-Pcp2h. The arrow indicates Go $\alpha$ .

**Effects of the GPR Proteins on GTP $\gamma$ S Binding to G $\alpha$  Subunits.** The effects of GST fusion proteins of LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, Pcp2m, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 on guanine

nucleotide exchange of Gi $\alpha_1$  and Go $\alpha$  were first tested using the GTP $\gamma$ S binding assay. Gi $\alpha$  and Go $\alpha$  bound GTP $\gamma$ S due to spontaneous nucleotide exchange with initial rates of 0.12 and 0.14 mol of GTP $\gamma$ S/(min·mol of G $\alpha$ ), respectively (Figures 4 and 5). LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 all effectively inhibited the initial rates of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$  with IC $_{50}$  values of 0.52, 0.17, and 0.12  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively (Figure 4E). An equivalent IC $_{50}$  value was obtained for the Pcp2h inhibition of Gi $\alpha_1$  using His $_6$ -Pcp2h (not shown), indicating that the GST tag does not interfere with the GPR function. The IC $_{50}$  value for Pcp2h is comparable with the  $K_d$  value of 0.37  $\mu\text{M}$  for the Pcp2BC/Gi $\alpha_1$  interaction from the fluorescence binding assay, suggesting the correlation between the GPR binding and the inhibitory effect. The inhibition of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$  by LGN-585-642 was cooperative with a Hill coefficient of 1.7, perhaps reflecting the presence of two GPR motifs in the LGN construct. The lower effectiveness of Pcp2m (IC $_{50}$  1.7  $\mu\text{M}$ ) might be attributed to the Arg45Cys substitution in the original GPR motif. In fact, it is possible that this mutation rendered the GPR motif completely inactive, and the observed effect was due to presence of an artificial upstream GPR repeat in Pcp2m. The major difference between the effects of the GPR proteins on the kinetics of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$  and Go $\alpha$  was the considerably lower potency toward Go $\alpha$ . The IC $_{50}$  values for the inhibition of Go $\alpha$  GTP $\gamma$ S binding varied from 4.1  $\mu\text{M}$  for Rap1GAPII-23-131 to 23.7  $\mu\text{M}$  for Pcp2m (Figure 5). Moreover, the IC $_{50}$  value for Pcp2h (5.6  $\mu\text{M}$ ) exceeded the  $K_d$  value for the Pcp2BC/Go $\alpha$  interaction from the fluorescence binding assay (1.6  $\mu\text{M}$ ). Not surprisingly, LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, Pcp2m, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 had no effect on GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gs $\alpha$  even when added at high concentrations (Figure 6). These results suggest that GPR proteins may specifically and potentially modulate Gi-mediated signaling.

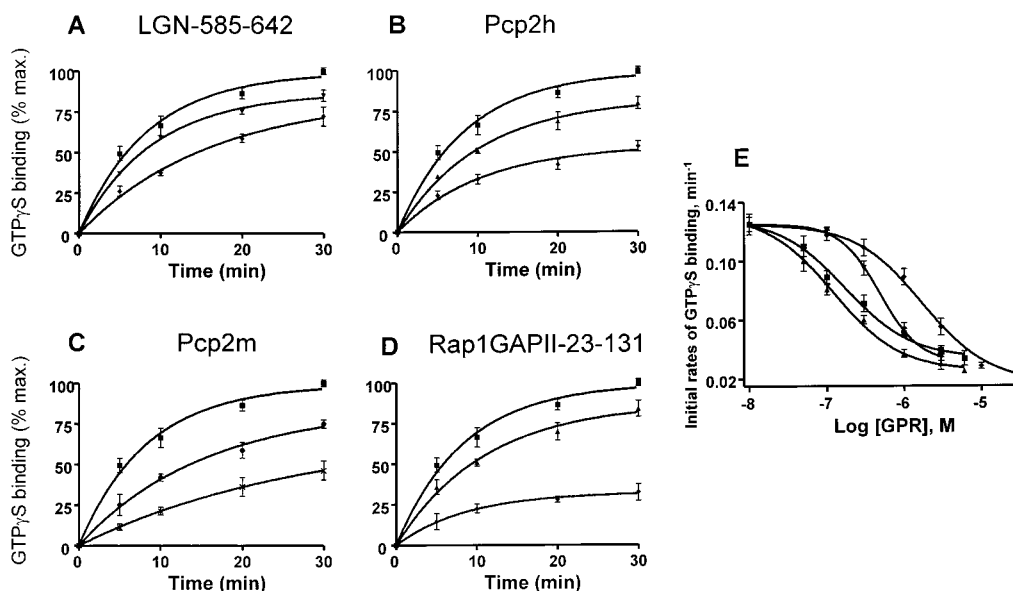


FIGURE 4: Effects of the GPR proteins on the kinetics of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$ . (A, B, C, and D) The binding of GTP $\gamma$ S to Gi $\alpha_1$  (0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) in the absence (■) or presence of GST fusion proteins LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, Pcp2m, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 [0.1  $\mu\text{M}$  (▲), 0.3  $\mu\text{M}$  (▼), 1  $\mu\text{M}$  (◆), 3  $\mu\text{M}$  (◇), 10  $\mu\text{M}$  (×)] was initiated by the addition of 5  $\mu\text{M}$  [ $^{35}\text{S}$ ]GTP $\gamma$ S. Gi $\alpha$ -bound GTP $\gamma$ S was counted by withdrawing aliquots at the indicated times and passing them through cellulose nitrate filters (0.45  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The calculated initial rates of GTP $\gamma$ S binding [mol of GTP $\gamma$ S/(min·mol of G $\alpha$ )] are as follows: 0.12  $\pm$  0.01 (■), (A) 0.095  $\pm$  0.008 (▼), 0.053  $\pm$  0.005 (◆); (B) 0.073  $\pm$  0.008 (▲), 0.045  $\pm$  0.004 (◆); (C) 0.065  $\pm$  0.008 (●), 0.037  $\pm$  0.005 (×); and (D) 0.082  $\pm$  0.008 (▲), 0.037  $\pm$  0.006 (◆). (E) The initial rates of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$  are plotted as functions of LGN-585-642 (▼), Pcp2h (■), Pcp2m (◆), or Rap1GAPII-23-131 (▲) concentrations. The IC $_{50}$  values ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) are 0.52  $\pm$  0.05 (▼), 0.17  $\pm$  0.01 (■), 1.7  $\pm$  0.1 (◆), and 0.12  $\pm$  0.01 (▲).

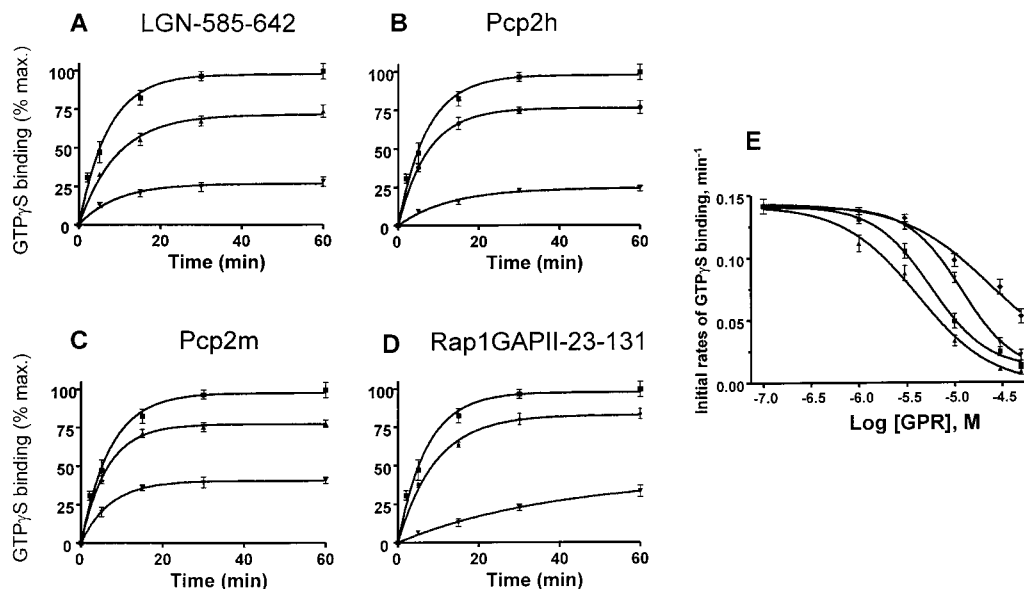


FIGURE 5: Effects of the GPR-proteins on the kinetics of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Go $\alpha$ . A, B, C, D. The binding of GTP $\gamma$ S to Go $\alpha$  (0.5  $\mu$ M) in the absence (■) or presence of GST-fusion proteins LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, Pcp2m, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 (3  $\mu$ M ●, 10  $\mu$ M ▲, 30  $\mu$ M ▼). The initial rates of GTP $\gamma$ S binding [mol of GTP $\gamma$ S/min·mol of G $\alpha$ ] are as follows: 0.14  $\pm$  0.01 (■); (A) 0.084  $\pm$  0.006 (▲), 0.032  $\pm$  0.003 (▼); (B) 0.11  $\pm$  0.01 (●), 0.025  $\pm$  0.003 (▼); (C) 0.13  $\pm$  0.01 (▲), 0.076  $\pm$  0.006 (▼); and (D) 0.09  $\pm$  0.01 (●), 0.010  $\pm$  0.001 (▼). (E) The initial rates of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Go $\alpha$  are plotted as functions of LGN-585-642 (▼), Pcp2h (■), Pcp2m (◆), or Rap1GAPII-23-131 (▲) concentrations. The IC<sub>50</sub> values ( $\mu$ M) are 11.7  $\pm$  1.4 (▼), 5.6  $\pm$  1.1 (■), 23.7  $\pm$  3.1 (◆), and 4.1  $\pm$  0.9 (▲).

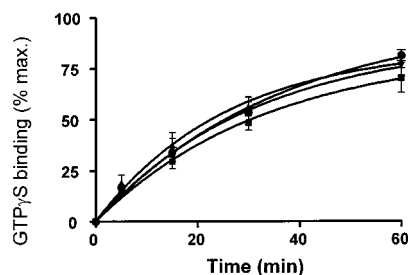


FIGURE 6: Binding of GTP $\gamma$ S to Gs $\alpha$  in the presence of GPR proteins. The binding of GTP $\gamma$ S to Gs $\alpha$  (1  $\mu$ M) in the absence (■) or presence of 30  $\mu$ M GST fusion proteins LGN-585-642 (▲), Pcp2h (●), and Rap1GAPII-23-131 (▼). The initial rates of GTP $\gamma$ S binding [mol of GTP $\gamma$ S/(min·mol of G $\alpha$ )] are 0.030  $\pm$  0.004 (■), 0.038  $\pm$  0.007 (▲), 0.028  $\pm$  0.004 (●), and 0.032  $\pm$  0.006 (▼).

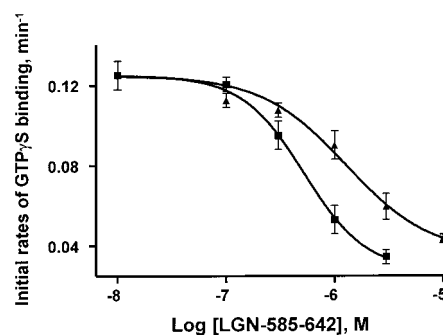


FIGURE 7: Effect of G $\beta_1\gamma_1$  on the inhibition of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$  by LGN-585-642. The initial rates for GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$  (0.1  $\mu$ M) in the absence (■) or presence (▲) of G $\beta_1\gamma_1$  (0.2  $\mu$ M) are plotted as functions of LGN-585-642 concentration. The IC<sub>50</sub> values ( $\mu$ M) are 0.52  $\pm$  0.05 (■) and 1.3  $\pm$  0.1 (▲).

*The G $\beta_1\gamma_1$  Subunit Competes with the GPR Proteins for Binding to G $\alpha$ GDP.* G $\alpha$  subunits complexed with GDP associate with G $\beta\gamma$  subunits to form heterotrimeric G-proteins. The preferential recognition of G $\alpha$ GDP by GPR proteins suggests the potential competition with G $\beta\gamma$  for binding to G $\alpha$ . We have tested how G $\beta\gamma$  affects the inhibition of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to G $\alpha$  by a GPR protein using Gi $\alpha_1$ , G $\beta_1\gamma_1$ , and LGN-585-642. G $\beta\gamma$  subunits may themselves inhibit the binding of GTP $\gamma$ S to G $\alpha$  subunits by stabilizing the GDP-bound conformations. We have previously demonstrated that G $\beta_1\gamma_1$  effectively inhibits GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gs $\alpha$  (26). G $\beta_1\gamma_1$  had no effect on the rate of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to Gi $\alpha_1$  (Figure 7). The lack of the G $\beta_1\gamma_1$  effect is probably due to the use of nonmyristoylated Gi $\alpha_1$  (27). This simplified the test of the GPR effect on the G $\alpha$  nucleotide exchange in the presence of G $\beta\gamma$ . Reconstitution of Gi $\alpha_1$  with G $\beta_1\gamma_1$  led to a rightward shift of the dose-dependent inhibition of GTP $\gamma$ S binding by LGN-585-642 (Figure 7). These results indicate that GPR proteins and G $\beta\gamma$  subunits compete for binding to G $\alpha$ GDP.

*The GPR Proteins Act as GDP Dissociation Inhibitors.* To examine the effects of GPR proteins on the release of GDP from Gi $\alpha_1$  and Go $\alpha$ , the G $\alpha$  subunits were loaded with [ $\alpha$ -<sup>32</sup>P]GDP, and the rates of GDP dissociation were measured in the absence or presence of LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, Pcp2m, and Rap1GAPII-23-131. The GDP release is generally believed to be a rate-limiting step in the nucleotide exchange by G $\alpha$  subunits (16, 28). However, rates of GDP dissociation exceeding GTP $\gamma$ S binding rates have also been reported (29). The GDP dissociation rates from Gi $\alpha_1$  ( $k_{\text{off}}$  0.38 min $^{-1}$ ) and Go $\alpha$  ( $k_{\text{off}}$  0.47 min $^{-1}$ ) were somewhat higher than the corresponding GTP $\gamma$ S binding rates under our experimental conditions (Figure 8). The GDP dissociation from Gi $\alpha_1$  (Figure 8A) was largely blocked with additions of 10  $\mu$ M each of the GPR proteins. Similar effects of the GPR proteins were observed on the release of GDP from Go $\alpha$  at 30  $\mu$ M GPR concentration (Figure 8B). Although the finding that Pcp2m inhibits the GDP release from Go $\alpha$  contrasts the previous observation (6), it correlates well with

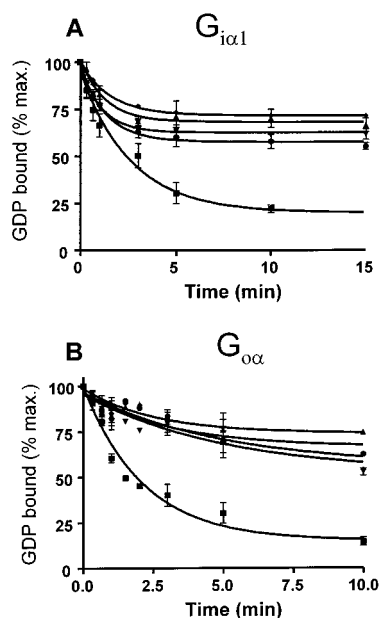


FIGURE 8: Effects of the GPR proteins on the dissociation of GDP from  $G_{i\alpha 1}$  and  $G_{o\alpha}$ .  $G_{i\alpha 1}$  and  $G_{o\alpha}$  complexed with [ $\alpha$ - $^{32}$ P]GDP were obtained as described under Experimental Procedures. GTP (1 mM) and the GST fusion proteins LGN-585-642 ( $\blacktriangledown$ ), Pcp2h ( $\blacktriangle$ ), Pcp2m ( $\bullet$ ), and Rap1GAPII-23-131 ( $\blacklozenge$ ) (A, 10  $\mu$ M; B, 30  $\mu$ M) were added to 0.5  $\mu$ M  $G_{i\alpha 1}$ GDP (A) or  $G_{o\alpha}$  (B). Aliquots were withdrawn at the indicated times and passed through cellulose nitrate filters (0.45  $\mu$ m). The  $k_{off}$  ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) values in the absence of GPR proteins are  $0.38 \pm 0.07$  for  $G_{i\alpha 1}$  and  $0.47 \pm 0.06$  for  $G_{o\alpha}$  ( $\blacksquare$ ).

the inhibitory effects of all tested GPR proteins in the GDP release and GTP $\gamma$ S binding assays.

## DISCUSSION

Recently, a novel G-protein  $\alpha$ -subunit binding motif has been recognized (8, 9). Several proteins including Pcp2, Rap1GAP, and RGS12 contain a single copy of such G-protein regulatory (GPR) motif. Other proteins, such as AGS3 and LGN, contain four GPR repeats (4, 8, 9, 30). Initial biochemical studies consistently demonstrate that GPR proteins interact with  $G\alpha$  subunits from the Gi family (6–10). However, the conformational specificity of GPR proteins is still poorly understood. AGS3 was shown to bind tightly with the GDP-bound  $G_{i\alpha}$  and  $G_{t\alpha}$  subunits (8, 10, 11). Similarly, Rap1GAP interacted with the GDP-bound conformation of  $G_{o\alpha}$  but not with the constitutively active Q205L mutant (7). On the contrary, Rap1GAP bound exclusively the GTP $\gamma$ S- or  $\text{AlF}_4^-$ -activated forms of  $G_{z\alpha}$  (14). Furthermore, an isoform of Rap1GAP, Rap1GAPII, was also shown to preferentially bind the Q  $\rightarrow$  L mutant of  $G_{i\alpha}$  (13). In addition, Pcp2 bound equally the GDP and GTP $\gamma$ S conformations of  $G_{o\alpha}$  (6). Together, this evidence indicates that different GPR proteins may selectively recognize active/inactive conformations of  $G\alpha$  subunits, and, perhaps, the identity of a Gi-family member contributes to the selectivity. Even more striking differences between individual GPR proteins have been implied by recent studies on regulation of  $G\alpha$  guanine nucleotide exchange by GPR proteins. Pcp2

was reported to promote GDP release from  $G_{o\alpha}$  (6), whereas the GPR domain of AGS3 potentially inhibited GDP release and GTP $\gamma$ S binding of  $G_{i\alpha}$  (10, 11). The inhibitory effect of AGS3 on the  $G_{i\alpha}$  nucleotide exchange has been recently confirmed (31).

In view of potential role of GPR proteins as important modulators of G-protein signaling, we have examined three GPR proteins, LGN-585-642, Pcp2, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 for their conformational selectivity and effects on  $G\alpha$  guanine nucleotide exchange. One of the central findings of this study is that all tested GPR proteins have relatively uniform properties. The GST pull-down experiments indicated that LGN, Pcp2, and Rap1GAPII bind with high affinity to  $G_{i\alpha}$ GDP and significantly lower affinities to the active GTP $\gamma$ S-bound or  $\text{AlF}_4^-$ -induced conformations. Likewise, Pcp2h displayed preferential binding to the GDP-bound  $G_{i\alpha}$  and  $G_{o\alpha}$  using the fluorescence binding assay. The latter assay also indicated that Pcp2 binds  $G_{i\alpha}$  stronger than  $G_{o\alpha}$ . None of the GPR proteins bound  $G_{s\alpha}$ . No major differences were found in the effects of different GPR proteins on  $G_{i\alpha}$  guanine nucleotide exchange. LGN-585-642, Pcp2h, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 inhibited GTP $\gamma$ S binding to  $G_{i\alpha}$  with similar potencies comparable to that of the inhibitory effect of AGS3GPR (10). A lower effectiveness of Pcp2m might have been caused by the Arg45Cys mutation in the GPR motif. Notably, the GPR proteins were significantly less potent in inhibiting binding of GTP $\gamma$ S to  $G_{o\alpha}$ . Similarly, an AGS3 GPR consensus peptide had very little effect on the GTP $\gamma$ S binding to  $G_{o\alpha}$  (12). Together, these data suggest that GPR proteins may selectively target  $G_{i\alpha}$ . The dose-dependent inhibition of GTP $\gamma$ S binding to  $G_{i\alpha}$  by LGN-585-642 was right-shifted in the presence of  $G_{\beta 1\gamma 1}$ , indicating the competition between the GPR protein and  $G_{\beta\gamma}$ . This is in agreement with the recently shown competition of AGS3GPR with  $G_{\beta\gamma}$  for binding to  $G_{\alpha}$ GDP (11). Following the finding that LGN-585-642, Pcp2, and Rap1GAPII-23-131 can block GTP $\gamma$ S binding to  $G_{i\alpha 1}$  and  $G_{o\alpha}$ , the inhibitory effect of these GPR proteins on the GDP release was not unexpected. The activity of the GPR proteins as GDIs of  $G_{i\alpha}$  is consistent with that of AGS3GPR (10, 12, 31). A recent study concluded that AGS3 binds but does not inhibit guanine nucleotide exchange of  $G_{o\alpha}$  (31). Our results suggest that GPR proteins, including AGS3,<sup>2</sup> act as GDIs on  $G_{o\alpha}$  as well as on  $G_{i\alpha}$ , although the inhibitory effect on  $G_{o\alpha}$  is seen at significantly higher concentrations of GPRs. We were unable to confirm the GEF-like activity of Pcp2 toward  $G_{o\alpha}$  (6). It is possible that additional factors mediate the interactions of GPR proteins with  $G\alpha$  subunits in vivo, introducing some of the reported differences in specificities and functions of various GPR proteins. Nonetheless, on the basis of the results of this study, we hypothesize that GPR proteins generally inhibit signaling from G-protein-coupled receptors to the Gi family of G-proteins by acting as GDIs. Initial evidence for such a functional role of AGS3 has been newly developed (10, 12).

## REFERENCES

1. Gilman, A. G. (1987) *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 56, 615–649.
2. Bourne, H. R. (1997) *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.* 9, 134–142.
3. Hamm, H. E. (1998) *J. Biol. Chem.* 273, 669–672.
4. Mochizuki, N., Cho, G., Wen, B., and Insel, P. A. (1996) *Gene* 181, 39–43.

<sup>2</sup> M. Natochin, K. G. Gasimov, and N. O. Artemyev, unpublished observation.

5. Granderath, S., Stollewerk, A., Greig, S., Goodman, C. S., O'Kane, C. J., and Klambt, C. (1999) *Development* 126, 1781–1791.
6. Luo, Y., and Denker, B. M. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 10685–10688.
7. Jordan, J. D., Carey, K. D., Stork, P. J., and Iyengar, R. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 21507–21510.
8. Takesono, A., Cismowski, M. J., Ribas, C., Bernard, M., Chung, P., Hazard, S., III, Duzic, E., and Lanier, S. M. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 33202–33205.
9. Siderovski, D. P., Diverse-Pierluissi, M. A., and De Vries, L. (1999) *Trends Biochem. Sci.* 24, 340–342.
10. Natochin, M., Lester, B. R., Peterson, Y. K., Bernard, M. L., Lanier, S. M., and Artemyev, N. O. (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.* 275, 40981–40985.
11. Bernard, M. L., Peterson, Y. K., Chung, P., Jourdan, J., and Lanier, S. M. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* 276, 1585–1593.
12. Peterson, Y. K., Bernard, M. L., Ma, H., Hazard, S., III, Graber, S. G., and Lanier, S. M. (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.* 275, 33193–33196.
13. Mochizuki, N., Ohba, Y., Kiyokawa, E., Kurata, T., Murakami, T., Ozaki, T., Kitabatake, A., Nagashima, K., and Matsuda, M. (1999) *Nature* 400, 891–894.
14. Meng, J., Glick, J. L., Polakis, P., and Casey, P. J. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* 274, 36663–36669.
15. Kleuss, C., Pallast, M., Brendel, S., Rosenthal, W., and Schultz, G. (1987) *J. Chromatogr.* 407, 281–289.
16. Linder, M. E., Ewald, D. A., Miller, R. J., and Gilman, A. G. (1990) *J. Biol. Chem.* 265, 8243–8251.
17. Natochin, M., Lipkin, V. M., and Artemyev, N. O. (1997) *FEBS Lett.* 411, 179–182.
18. Skiba, N. P., Bae, H., and Hamm, H. E. (1996) *J. Biol. Chem.* 271, 413–424.
19. Natochin, M., and Artemyev, N. O. (1998) *Biochemistry* 37, 13776–13780.
20. Nathans, J., Thomas, D., and Hogness, D. S. (1986) *Science* 232, 193–202.
21. Nordquist, D. T., Kozak, C. A., and Orr, H. T. (1988) *J. Neurosci.* 8, 4780–4789.
22. Guan, K., and Dixon, J. E. (1991) *Anal. Biochem.* 192, 262–267.
23. Bradford, M. M. (1976) *Anal. Biochem.* 72, 248–254.
24. Laemmli, U. K. (1970) *Nature* 227, 680–685.
25. Vandaele, S., Nordquist, D. T., Feddersen, R. M., Tretjakoff, I., Peterson, A. C., and Orr, H. T. (1991) *Genes Dev.* 5, 1136–1148.
26. Natochin, M., Muradov, K. G., McEntaffer, R. L., and Artemyev, N. O. (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.* 275, 2669–2675.
27. Linder, M. E., Pang, I. H., Duronio, R. J., Gordon, J. I., Sternweis, P. C., and Gilman, A. G. (1991) *J. Biol. Chem.* 266, 4654–4659.
28. Ferguson, K. M., Higashijima, T., Smigel, M. D., and Gilman, A. G. (1986) *J. Biol. Chem.* 261, 7393–7399.
29. Carty, D. J., Padrell, E., Codina, J., Birnbaumer, L., Hildebrandt, J. D., and Iyengar, R. (1990) *J. Biol. Chem.* 265, 6268–6273.
30. Siderovski, D. P., Strockbine, B., and Behe, C. I. (1999) *Crit. Rev. Biochem. Mol. Biol.* 34, 215–251.
31. De Vries, L., Fischer, T., Tronchere, H., Brothers, G. M., Strockbine, B., Siderovski, D. P., and Farquhar, M. G. (2000) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 97, 14364–14369.

BI01505W