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$G\alpha z$ Inhibits Serum Response Factor-Dependent Transcription by Inhibiting Rho Signaling

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ABSTRACT

 $G\alpha 12/13$ or $G\alpha q$ signals induce activation of Rho GTPase, leading to serum response factor (SRF)-mediated gene transcription and actin cytoskeletal organization; however, less is known regarding how Rho pathway signals are down-regulated. Here we report that $G\alpha z$ signals inhibit serum response factor (SRF)-dependent transcription. $G\alpha z$ expression inhibits $G\alpha 12/13$ -, $G\alpha q$ -, and Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF)-induced serum response element (SRE) reporter activation in human embryonic kidney 293T and PC-12 cells. Expression of $G\alpha z$ mutants with defective fatty acylation has no inhibitory effect. Expression of $G\alpha z$, but not $G\alpha i$, attenuates serum-induced SRE reporter activation, suggesting that $G\alpha z$ can down-regulate endogenous signals

leading to SRF. Whereas $G\alpha z$ also blocks SRE reporter induction by the activated mutant RhoAL63, it does not affect $G\alpha 12$ - or Rho GEF-induced RhoA activation or RhoAL63-GTP binding in vivo. Moreover, $G\alpha z$ does not inhibit SRE reporter induction by an activated form of Rho kinase. Because $G\alpha z$ inhibits RhoAL63/A188-induced reporter activation, phosphorylation of RhoA on serine 188 does not seem to be involved; furthermore, RhoA subcellular localization was not affected. Use of pharmacologic inhibitors implies that $G\alpha z$ -induced reduction of SRE reporter activation occurs via a mechanism other than adenylate cyclase modulation. These findings suggest that $G\alpha z$ signals may attenuate Rho-induced stimulation of SRF-mediated transcription.

The ubiquitous Rho small GTPase is required for multiple cellular responses, including cell growth, contractility, and migration (Hall, 1998). At the molecular level, Rho controls a signaling pathway that regulates extracellular factor-induced actin filament assembly (Hall, 1998) and serum response element (SRE)-dependent gene transcription via the transcription factor serum response factor (SRF) (Hill et al., 1995). Defective Rho pathway signaling has been implicated in several diseases, including cancer and cardiovascular disease (Boettner and Van Aelst, 2002; Toksoz and Merdek, 2002); however, much remains to be understood regarding how this ubiquitous pathway is normally regulated.

Rho responses are induced by serum stimulation, and ago-

nists for certain G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) such as lysophosphatidic acid induce actin polymerization and SRE transcriptional reporter activation via Rho (Kjoller and Hall, 1999; Seasholtz et al., 1999). These GPCR signals are transduced to Rho via heterotrimeric $G\alpha 12/13$ and $G\alpha q$ family members through partially understood mechanisms that probably involve guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) (Seasholtz et al., 1999; Schmidt and Hall, 2002). GTPases such as Rho bind guanine nucleotides, and their activation state is determined by whether they bind GDP in the inactive state or GTP in the active state. Rho GEFs directly activate Rho by inducing rapid GDP/GTP exchange, resulting in activated GTP-bound Rho (Schmidt and Hall, 2002). Once activated, Rho signals are translated into downstream cellular responses via specific effectors (Bishop and Hall, 2000) such as Rho kinase (ROK).

Rho is required for actin filament assembly, which underlies phenotypic changes in cell shape, cell contraction, adhesion, and migration in most tissues. For example, Rho stimulates formation of actin stress fibers in fibroblasts (Ridley and Hall, 1992). In addition, Rho is required for extracellular

ABBREVIATIONS: SRE, serum response element; SRF, serum response factor; GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; GEF, guanine nucleotide exchange factor; ROK, Rho kinase; HEK, human embryonic kidney; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; RBD, Rho binding domain; H-89, *N*-[2-(4-bromocinnamylamino)ethyl]-5-isoquinoline; TCF, ternary complex factor; LEF/TCF, lymphoid enhancing factor/T cell factor; PKA, protein kinase A; RLU, relative luciferase units; MDL-12, cis-*N*-(2-phenylcyclopentyl)azacyclotridec-1-en-z-amine, HCL.

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factor-induced activation of SRF, which binds to the SRE found in many gene promoters, leading to transcription (Hill et al., 1995). In addition to regulating immediate-early genes such as c-fos and Egr-1, SRF regulates several skeletal and smooth muscle-specific genes, including α - and γ -actin, which are required for differentiated tissue function, as well as ubiquitously expressed genes such as vinculin (Arsenian et al., 1998). The requirement for Rho in SRF function has led to the common use of SRE transcriptional reporter assays as a measure for Rho-dependent signals in vivo.

Although the requirement for Rho function in many cellular responses is now well established, there is also accumulating evidence that certain cellular responses require suppression of Rho function. For example, inhibition of Rho function has been reported to be required for processes such as dendritic outgrowth in melanocytes (Busca et al., 1998), development of neurite extensions (Jalink et al., 1994; Li et al., 2002), axon regeneration (Lehmann et al., 1999), vasopressin-mediated aquaporin-2 translocation (Klussmannet al., 2001), nitric oxide/cGMP/G kinase pathway-mediated transcriptional modulation (Gudi et al., 2002), and somatostatin-induced inhibition of cell migration (Buchan et al., 2002). Thus, Rho inhibition probably plays an integral role in particular stages of differentiation in certain cell types, particularly cellular responses. However, the pathways and mechanisms involved in Rho signal down-regulation are poorly understood.

Here we investigate the potential role of $G\alpha$ family members in Rho signal down-regulation. Of the four $G\alpha$ subunit families, $G\alpha 12/13$, $G\alpha q$, $G\alpha$ i, and $G\alpha s$ (Simon et al., 1991), $G\alpha$ i and $G\alpha s$ do not seem to be involved in the induction of Rho pathway signals. Results presented here suggest that signals by the $G\alpha$ i family member $G\alpha z$ inhibit Rho-mediated responses. $G\alpha z$ attenuates SRF-mediated transcription induced by $G\alpha 12/13/q$ signals, Rho GEFs, and serum. In addition, $G\alpha z$ blocks transcriptional activation by the constitutively active RhoAL63 mutant, although it seems to have no effect on transcriptional activation induced by the activated ROK downstream effector. Potential mechanisms for the observed inhibition of SRF-dependent transcription are investigated and discussed. Finally, the influence of $G\alpha z$ signals on actin cytoskeletal organization is evaluated.

Materials and Methods

Cell Lines. Human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293T and PC-12 cell lines are from American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA). HEK293T cells were grown in Dulbecco's modified essential medium (DMEM) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) containing 10% fetal bovine serum. PC-12 cells were grown in F12K medium (Invitrogen) containing 15% heat-inactivated horse serum and 2.5% fetal bovine serum. Quiescent serum-starved Swiss 3T3 fibroblasts were maintained and prepared as described previously (Nobes and Hall, 1995).

Plasmids. Wild-type Gαz and activated mutant Gαz Q205L, Gαi1 Q204L, Gαi2 Q205L, GαοA Q205L, Gαq Q209L, Gα12 Q231L, Gα13 Q226L, and Gαs Q213L in pcDNA3.1 vector were obtained from the Guthrie cDNA Resource Center (Sayre, PA). Plasmids for pcDNA: GαzG2A, pcDNA:GαzG2A3A, RhoAL63/A188, SRE.L, TOPFLASH luciferase reporters, pEF C3 transferase, pGEX2T Rhotekin Rho binding domain (RBD), dominant-active ROK, and p115 Rho GEF were gifts. pSR:proto-Lbc Rho GEF is described in Sterpetti et al. (1999).

Antibodies and Reagents. Anti-RhoA, anti- $G\alpha 12$ and anti-myc antibodies were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa

Cruz, CA). Protein kinase A inhibitor H-89 and adenylate cyclase inhibitor MDL-12 were obtained from Calbiochem (San Diego, CA).

Cell Transfection. Six-well dishes for transcriptional reporter assays or 100-mm dishes for RBD assays at 80% confluence were transfected with plasmid DNA for 5 h using LipofectAMINE Plus (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's recommendation. Cells were serum-starved overnight and lysed the following day.

Immunoblotting. Cellular material was resolved by 10% SDS/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Immunoblotting was carried out as described in Sterpetti et al. (1999).

Dual Luciferase Reporter Assay. SRE.L luciferase reporter plasmid, which encodes a mutant SRE that encodes functional SRF binding sites but eliminates the ternary complex factor (TCF) binding site (Hill et al., 1995), was used with the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega, Madison, WI) as recommended. Inducible firefly luciferase results obtained were normalized to internal control *Renilla reniformis* luciferase values expressed from pTK-RL plasmid (Promega) after sequential measurement of the two luciferase activities. Each point was obtained in triplicate; experiments were repeated more than twice.

RBD Assay. In vivo GTP-Rho "pull-down" was carried out using GST-Rhotekin RBD fusion protein (Ren et al., 1999) as described previously in Dutt et al. (2002); experiments were repeated more than twice.

Subcellular Fractionation. HEK293T cell lysates were fractionated into S-100 soluble and P-100 particulate fractions as described in Sterpetti et al. (1999).

Microinjection. To prepare confluent quiescent, serum-starved Swiss 3T3 cells for microinjection, cells were seeded onto acid-washed coverslips at a density of 5×10^4 in DMEM containing 5% serum. After the cells became quiescent (approximately 7–10 days after seeding), they were serum-starved for 16 h in DMEM containing 2 μ g/l NaHCO₃. Eukaryotic expression vectors (0.1 μ g/ μ l) together with biotin-dextran were injected into the nucleus of approximately 50 cells over a period of 15 min. Cells were returned to the incubator for 2 to 3 h for optimal expression, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min at room temperature, and stained for the epitope tag, injection marker, and actin as described in Nobes and Hall (1995). Fluorescence images were recorded on a charge-coupled device camera and processed using Openlab software.

Statistical Analysis. Data were analyzed using Student's t test; p values < 0.05 were considered significant.

Results

Effects of $G\alpha$ subunit family members on Rho pathway signals were tested by an in vivo transcriptional reporter assay based on the SRE.L luciferase reporter that encodes a mutant SRE that contains Rho-dependent SRF binding sites but eliminates the Ras-responsive TCF binding site (Hill et al., 1995). A dual luciferase reporter system was used that allows normalization of inducible luciferase activity readings against an internal Renilla luciferase standard provided by the cotransfected pTK-RL plasmid. As shown in Fig. 1A, expression of activated mutant Gas, Gai1, Gai2, Gao, or Gaz forms alone had minimal or no inductive effect on SRE luciferase reporter activity. Next we investigated potential inhibitory effects of Gai family members on inductive signals mediated by $G\alpha 12$, $G\alpha 13$, and $G\alpha q$. As shown in Fig. 1A, coexpression of activated G α i1, G α i2, G α o, or G α z separately by cotransfection of modest plasmid amounts (100 ng) each had a substantial reducing effect on $G\alpha 12/13$ and $G\alpha q$ -induced reporter activity. Inhibition was observed in the ranges of \sim 40 to 60% by G α i1, \sim 50 to 77% by G α i2, \sim 37 to 54% by G α o, and \sim 70 to 85% by G α z. In contrast, coexpression of comparable amounts of GαsQL had no inhibitory

effect, suggesting that the effect is not caused by nonspecific $G\alpha$ subunit coexpression. The inhibitory effects of $G\alpha$ family members was not caused by cytotoxicity, because the internal R. reniformis luciferase control value levels were comparable with those of the inductive $G\alpha$ subunit levels alone (not shown). Immunoblotting of total cell lysates shown in Fig. 1B revealed that levels of the stimulatory $G\alpha$ subunit such as $G\alpha 12QL$ are not altered by coexpression of $G\alpha$ i family members, indicating that the inhibitory effect is unlikely to be caused by decreased $G\alpha$ subunit expression. In addition, immunoblotting with anti-Glu-antibody showed that levels of expression of Glu-tagged activated Gαi family members are comparable. Moreover, immunoblotting for endogenous RhoA showed that levels of total cellular RhoA were unchanged. In addition, we evaluated the effects of $G\alpha i2QL$ and $G\alpha zQL$ expression on $G\alpha 12QL$ -induced activation of endogenous Rho by carrying out Rho pull-down experiments by affinity purification with Rhotekin RBD, which preferentially binds GTP-RhoA. As shown in Fig. 1C, Gαi2QL coexpression had no effect on the levels of Gα12QL-induced GTP-RhoA, and $G\alpha zQL$ coexpression with $G\alpha 12QL$ led to only a marginal reduction that was not statistically significant (p > 10.05).

Next the effect of $G\alpha$ i family expression on Rho pathway components was tested. As expected and shown in Fig. 2A,

expression of two different Rho GEFs, p115 and Lbc Rho GEF, led to SRE reporter induction via endogenous Rho. Coexpression of increasing levels of activated GαzQL with Lbc or p115 Rho GEF caused inhibition of Rho GEF-induced SRE reporter activation, even at a 50-ng dosage of GαzQL plasmid. As a control for the observed $G\alpha z$ effect, we used a $G\alpha z$ mutant, $G\alpha zG2A$, which has defective fatty acylation as a result of a point mutation that destroys the myristoylation site and thus abolishes $G\alpha z$ signaling ability (Morales et al., 1998). G α zG2A coexpression had no inhibitory effect on Rho GEF-induced reporter activation, even at a 200-ng dosage (although wild-type $G\alpha z$ is inhibitory; see Fig. 4A). In contrast to its effect on $G\alpha 12/13/q$ -induced signals, expression of activated Gai2 had no blocking effect on Rho GEF-induced reporter activity, and the remaining Gαi members also did not affect Rho-GEF signals (not shown). We next tested whether GazQL inhibits downstream Rho effectors such as ROK, which readily induces SRF-mediated responses (Sotiropoulos et al., 1999). Figure 2A shows that, in contrast to its effect on Rho GEFs, coexpression of increasing amounts of GαzQL with activated ROK had minimal effect on ROKinduced SRE reporter activation. In addition, we evaluated the effect of GazQL expression on Lbc Rho GEF-induced activation of endogenous Rho by carrying out Rho pull-down experiments with Rhotekin RBD to preferentially purify the

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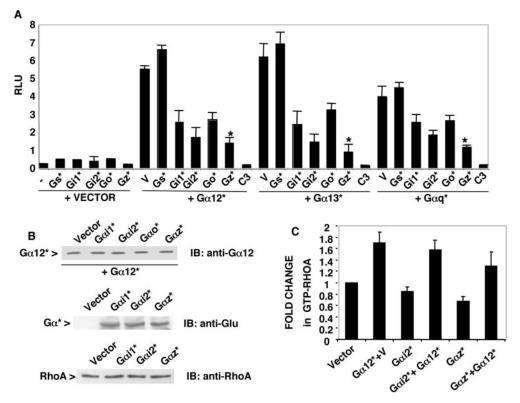
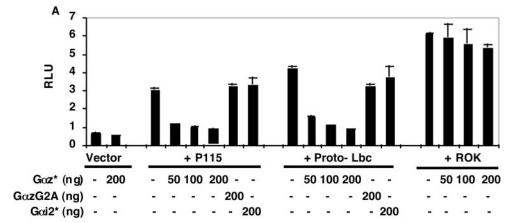


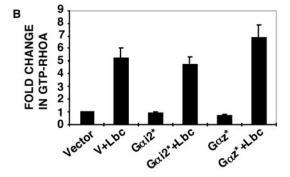
Fig. 1. Gaz expression inhibits $G\alpha12/13$ - and $G\alphaq$ -induced SRE.L reporter activity in HEK293T cells. A, activated mutant cDNA forms of indicated $G\alpha$ family members or $G\alphas$ (100 ng) were coexpressed with either pcDNA vector (V) or $G\alpha12QL$, $G\alpha13QL$, or $G\alpha qQL$ in HEK293T cells in the presence of SRE.L luciferase reporter (100 ng). Dual luciferase activity was measured after 24 h. *, p < 0.003 for the comparison of $G\alpha12$ and $G\alpha13$ in the absence versus presence of $G\alpha z$ and p < 0.01 for the comparison of $G\alpha q$ in the absence versus presence of $G\alpha z$. B, top, anti- $G\alpha12$ immunoblot (IB) shows $G\alpha12QL$ ($G\alpha12^*$) expression in cell lysates cotransfected with either pcDNA vector or indicated $G\alpha z$ family members; middle, anti- $G\alpha z$ immunoblot shows expression of designated Glu-Glu-tagged activated $G\alpha z$ family members in transfected cell lysates; bottom, anti-RhoA immunoblot shows endogenous RhoA expression in cell lysates expressing the indicated $G\alpha z$ family members. C, $G\alpha z z$ was coexpressed with either vector (V), $G\alpha z z$, or $G\alpha z z z$ ($G\alpha z^*$) in HEK293T, and GTP-RhoA pull-downs were carried out using Rhotekin RBD as detailed under $C\alpha z z z$ mathematical and $C\alpha z z z z$ means fold-change in GTP-RhoA densitometric values based on RhoA immunoblots of GTP-RhoA pull-down and total cellular RhoA from three experiments. Values were normalized to vector, which was assigned the value of 1. *GTPase indicates the activated mutant form as described under $C\alpha z z z z$ means z z z z z z described under $C\alpha z z z z$ in z z z z z z means z z z z z z described under $C\alpha z z z z z z z$ in z z z z z z z described under $C\alpha z z z z z z z$ in z z z z z z z z described under $C\alpha z z z z z z z$ in z z z z z z z z in z z z z z z z z in z z z z z z z in z z z z z z in z z z z z z in z z z z z z in z z z z z z z in z z z z z z

affinity of GTP-RhoA. As shown in Fig. 2B, coexpression of either $G\alpha i2QL$ or $G\alpha zQL$ with Lbc Rho GEF did not have a noticeable effect on the levels of Lbc-induced GTP-RhoA in vivo.

We next tested whether $G\alpha z$ can modulate endogenous Rho pathway signals induced by extracellular stimuli. As shown in Fig. 2C, stimulation of HEK293T cells by 15% serum treatment leads to SRE.L reporter activation, and this induction is Rho-dependent as determined by inhibition upon C3 transferase expression (Hill et al., 1995; not shown). It is interesting that expression of increasing amounts of $G\alpha zQL$ (50–400 ng) in serum-stimulated cells led to a ~40% reduction in SRE reporter activity, which was significant. In contrast, expression of $G\alpha i 2QL$ did not inhibit serum-induced reporter activity. When the effect of $G\alpha zQL$ expression on serum-induced GTP-RhoA levels was measured, a significant reduction was not observed (result not shown).

We next assessed whether the suppressive effect of $G\alpha z$ extends to other cell types by carrying out the same experiments in the PC-12 cell line, which is derived from adrenal pheochromocytoma tissue that normally expresses endogenous $G\alpha z$ (Ho and Wong, 2001). Although the transfection efficiency of PC-12 cells was lower than in HEK293T, Fig. 3A shows that $G\alpha zQL$ expression had the same potent blocking effect on $G\alpha 12/13$ and Lbc Rho GEF-induced SRE reporter activation in PC-12 cells as observed in HEK293T. Similar results were also obtained in 3T3 fibroblasts (not shown). To further investigate the $G\alpha z$ effect, we used a different transcriptional luciferase reporter in the form of the TOPFLASH luciferase reporter construct, which encodes binding sites for the LEF/TCF transcription factor induced by activated β-catenin (Morin et al., 1997) but not by Rho (not shown). As shown in Fig. 3B, expression of the activated β -catenin $\Delta 45$ form (Morin et al., 1997) in HEK293T cells led to robust





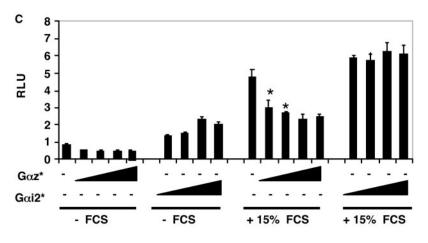


Fig. 2. $G\alpha z$ expression inhibits SRE.L reporter activation induced by Rho GEFs and serum but not by ROK. A, increasing amounts (50-200 ng) of GαzQL (Gαz*) or Gαz G2A (200 ng) were separately coexpressed with p115 Rho GEF, proto-Lbc Rho GEF, or activated ROK in HEK293T cells, and dual luciferase levels were measured after 24 h. Results are mean \pm S.D. B, proto-Lbc Rho GEF was coexpressed with either pcDNA vector (V), Gαi2QL (Gαi2*), or $G\alpha zQL$ ($G\alpha z^*$) in HEK293T, and GTP-RhoA pull-downs were carried out using Rhotekin RBD as detailed under Materials and Methods. Graph shows mean fold-change in GTP-RhoA densitometric values based on RhoA immunoblots of GTP-RhoA pull-down and total cellular RhoA from three experiments. Values were normalized to the vector alone group, which was assigned the value of 1. C, Gαz expression attenuates serum-induced SRE.L reporter activity. HEK293T cells were transfected with increasing amounts (50, 100, 200, and 400 ng) of activated GazQL (Gaz*) or Gai2QL (Gai2*) along with 100 ng of SRE.L luciferase reporter. After overnight incubation in media lacking serum, cells were stimulated with 15% serum for 6 h, and dual luciferase activity was measured. *, p < 0.03 for the comparison of serum-treated values in the absence versus presence of $G\alpha z^*$.

induction of TOPFLASH luciferase reporter that was unaffected by coexpression of $G\alpha zQL$ at two different doses (100 and 400 ng).

Because $G\alpha z$ inhibits signals to SRF/SRE by Rho GEFs but not by a downstream effector such as activated ROK, we next investigated potential effects on the activated GTPase-deficient RhoAL63 mutant. Figure 4A shows that coexpression of activated Gαi1, Gαi2, or Gαo with RhoAL63 had no inhibitory effect on SRE reporter activation. In contrast, coexpression of wild-type $G\alpha z$ or activated $G\alpha zQL$ potently blocked RhoAL63-induced SRE reporter activation. As controls for the observed effect, we used two $G\alpha z$ mutants, GzG2A and GzG2A3CA, that have defective fatty acylation caused by point mutations that destroy the myristoylation and myristoylation plus palmitoylation sites, respectively, and thus abolish Gαz signaling ability (Morales et al., 1998). As shown in Fig. 4, coexpression of $G\alpha z$ acylation mutants had no negative effect on RhoAL63-induced reporter activation. Immunoblotting of total cell lysates shown in Fig. 4B revealed that RhoAL63 protein levels were comparable in $G\alpha i$, $G\alpha o$, or $G\alpha z$ coexpressing cells, indicating that the inhibitory effect of Gαz was unlikely because of the decreased RhoAL63 expression. As expected for a constitutively GTPase-deficient mutant, GTP-Rho pull-down assay indicated that relative levels of GTP-RhoAL63 in vivo were not significantly reduced upon $G\alpha zQL$ coexpression (not shown).

In light of these findings, we investigated potential mechanisms for the observed $G\alpha z$ -induced down-regulation. The downstream target of pertussis toxin-sensitive $G\alpha$ i family members is inhibition of adenylate cyclase activity (Wong et al., 1992), which leads to reduced protein kinase A (PKA) activity. Although not a strong candidate target of (PTX)insensitive $G\alpha z$, we nevertheless tested whether inhibition of adenylate cyclase or PKA activity by cell-permeable selective inhibitors leads to reduced Rho signals. Cells expressing RhoAL63, Lbc Rho GEF, G α qQL, or G α 12QL were treated separately with the adenylate cyclase inhibitor MDL-12 or PKA inhibitor H-89. Figure 5A shows that neither of these pharmacologic agents significantly reduced SRE reporter activity induced by any of the stimuli used, although they blocked Gαs-induced activation of a luciferase reporter encoding a cAMP response element binding protein site (not shown). Serine phosphorylation of RhoA at S188 blocks RhoA signaling function (Lang et al., 1996), and the RhoAL63/A188 mutant is resistant to this inhibitory modification. Figure 5B shows that coexpression of $G\alpha zQL$ with RhoAL63/A188 led to a decrease in RhoAL63/A188-induced reporter activity, similar to its effect on RhoAL63/S188 signals.

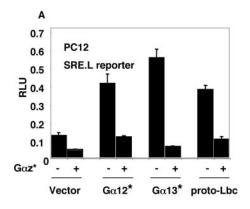
To determine whether $G\alpha z$ signals may lead to altered Rho subcellular localization, RhoAL63 was coexpressed with $G\alpha zQL$ or $G\alpha zG2GA$ in HEK293T, and cell lysates separated into cytosolic (soluble) and membrane-rich (pellet) fractions by high-speed fractionation. Figure 6 shows that, consistent with its activated state, a larger proportion of RhoAL63 localized to the pellet versus the soluble fraction when cotransfected with vector alone (Fig. 6, top). Coexpression of $G\alpha zQL$ (Fig. 6, middle) or $G\alpha zG2GA$ (Fig. 6, bottom) with RhoAL63 did not seem to alter the relative proportion of Rho in these fractions, as quantified by the graph. Additional experiments yielded the same outcome. Moreover, no changes in endogenous RhoA localization were observed under the same conditions (data not shown).

We next evaluated whether $G\alpha z$ expression affects actin stress fiber formation, a cytoskeletal process that requires Rho function. For this purpose, quiescent Swiss 3T3 fibroblasts that contain few stress fibers were microinjected with a plasmid encoding an activated form of Net1 Rho GEF, Net1 Δ N (Alberts and Treisman 1998), along with either vector, $G\alpha zQL$ or $G\alpha zG2A$. After 2 to 4 h, cells were fixed and stained for phalloidin to visualize actin. Figure 7B shows that Net1 Rho GEF microinjection led to increased stress fiber formation; moreover, this was not affected by coexpression of $G\alpha zQL$ or $G\alpha zG2A$ forms (Fig. 7, C and D), and these results are quantified by the graph in Fig. 7A. Similar results were obtained upon comicroinjection of RhoAL63 and $G\alpha zQL$ (not shown).

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Discussion

Our findings indicate that of the $G\alpha$ i subunit family, $G\alpha$ z expression has a potent inhibitory effect on Rho-induced signals to SRF/SRE. Whereas $G\alpha$ z inhibits $G\alpha$ 12/13- and $G\alpha$ q-induced SRE reporter activation, it has no effect on $G\alpha$ 12-induced Rho activation as determined by measuring



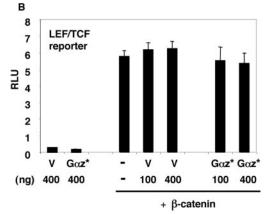


Fig. 3. $G\alpha z$ inhibits SRE.L reporter induction in PC-12 cells but has no effect on a transcriptional induction of a Rho-insensitive reporter such as LEF/TCF luciferase reporter. A, $G\alpha 12QL$ ($G\alpha 12^*$), $G\alpha 13QL$ ($G\alpha 13^*$), or proto-Lbc Rho GEF cDNAs (2 ug) were coexpressed with either pcDNA vector or $G\alpha zQL$ ($G\alpha z^*$) plasmid (2 ug) in PC-12 cells in the presence of 300 ng of SRE.L luciferase reporter, and dual luciferase was activity measured. B, activated β -catenin $\Delta 45$ (400 ng) was coexpressed with two different amounts (100–400 ng) of $G\alpha zQL$ ($G\alpha z^*$) in the presence of the LEF/TCF TOPFLASH luciferase reporter, and dual luciferase activity was measured after 24 h. Results are mean \pm S.D. from three experiments.

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GTP-Rho levels in vivo (Fig. 1C). This indicates that $G\alpha z$ expression does not interfere with the signaling ability of $G\alpha 12$ per se. Hence, it is unlikely that the observed inhibition

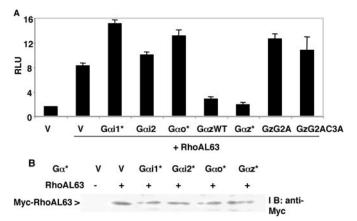
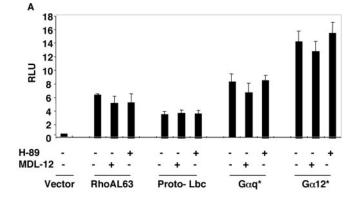


Fig. 4. Inhibition of RhoAL63-induced SRE.L reporter activation by $G\alpha z$. A, RhoAL63 was expressed with either pcDNA vector (V), activated $G\alpha i$ family subunits $(G\alpha^*)$, wild-type $G\alpha z$ $(G\alpha zWT)$, or $G\alpha z$ fatty acylation mutants (GzG2A, GzG2AC3A) in HEK293T cells (100 ng) in the presence of 100 ng of SRE.L luciferase reporter. Dual luciferase activity was measured after 24 h. Results are mean \pm S.D. from three experiments. B, anti-myc immunoblot of myc:RhoAL63 from total cell lysates of a representative experiment as in A is shown. $G\alpha^*$ indicates activated mutant forms as described under Plasmids.



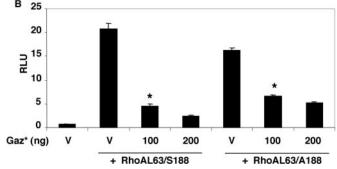


Fig. 5. A, effect of pharmacologic inhibitors on SRE.L reporter activity and Rho serine 188 phosphorylation on $G\alpha z$ -mediated inhibition of SRE.L reporter activity. A, HEK293T cells were transfected with the indicated plasmids along with 100 ng of SRE.L luciferase reporter and incubated overnight. Ga* indicates activated mutant forms as described under Plasmids. After treatment with the adenylate cyclase inhibitor MDL-12 (100 μ M) or the PKA inhibitor H-89 (400 nM) for 6 h, dual luciferase levels were assayed. B, 100 ng of RhoAL63/S188 or RhoAL63/A188 was coexpressed with 100 or 200 ng of $G\alpha zQL(G\alpha z^*)$ in the presence of SRE.L reporter, and dual luciferase activity was assayed after 24 h. *, p < 0.01for the comparison of RhoAL63/S188 or RhoAL63/A188 in the absence versus presence of $G\alpha zQL$. Results are mean \pm S.D. V, pcDNA vector.

was caused by $G\alpha z$ competition with other $G\alpha$ subunits for regulators of $G\alpha$ signaling, such as regulator of G protein signaling proteins (Ross and Wilkie 2000), activators of G protein signaling proteins, and/or β/γ subunits (Blumer and Lanier 2003). Moreover, this finding implies that $G\alpha z$ -induced inhibition occurs downstream of $G\alpha 12/13/g$. The $G\alpha i1$ and Gαi2 family members tested here also attenuated $G\alpha 12/13$ and $G\alpha q$ -induced transcriptional signals to SRF, and, in this case, competition with other $G\alpha$ subunits for G protein regulators cannot be ruled out; however, in contrast to $G\alpha z$. $G\alpha i1$ and $G\alpha i2$ had no substantial effect on Rho GEFor RhoAL63-induced reporter activation. The basis for this difference between $G\alpha i$ isotypes and $G\alpha z$ is not known at present, although such differences are consistent with other reports (Ho and Wong 2001) indicating a distinct function for $G\alpha z$ compared with other $G\alpha i$ family members. $G\alpha i$ is ubiquitously expressed, whereas $G\alpha z$ expression is more restricted and found in adrenal medulla, hypothalamus, retina, neural tissues, and platelets (Ho and Wong, 2001), although recent reports indicate that $G\alpha z$ may be expressed in a wider variety of tissues than previously thought (Hendry et al., 2000; Nagahama et al., 2002), and its precise role in signaling is poorly understood.

Our finding that Rho GEF-induced GTP-Rho levels in vivo is unaltered by $G\alpha z$ makes it unlikely that the observed block of Rho GEF-induced reporter activation by $G\alpha z$ was caused by inhibition of Rho GEF function, a notion compatible with the idea that the target of $G\alpha z$ action lies further downstream. The finding that $G\alpha z$ did not effectively block SRE reporter induction by activated ROK suggests that the $G\alpha z$ inhibitory effect may not extend to Rho effectors. However, although ROK induces SRF-mediated transcription under

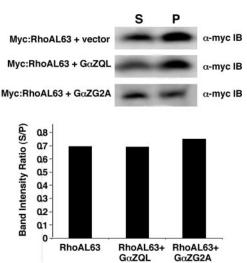


Fig. 6. Gαz expression does not alter RhoAL63 subcellular localization. In this representative experiment, HEK293T cells were cotransfected with 2 μg of pcDNA:myc:RhoAL63 plus 2 μg of either pcDNA vector, pcDNA: Gαq Q209L, or pcDNA:GαzG2A as indicated. Twenty-four hours after transfection, cells were collected and fractionated into P-100 soluble (S) and pellet (P) fractions as described previously (Sterpetti et al., 1999). Equal volumes of soluble and pellet fractions were separated by 10% SDS/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and immunoblotted for myc: RhoAL63 using an anti-myc epitope antibody. Graph shows relative RhoAL63 band densities from immunoblots as quantified using an Alpha Innotech IS-2200 Digital Imaging System and software (Alpha Innotech, San Leandro, CA). The ratio of the RhoAL63 soluble fraction band density/pellet fraction band density was calculated for each transfection group and plotted.



experimental conditions, it is not considered to be the main physiologic Rho effector that mediates SRF responses. The finding that $G\alpha z$ but not $G\alpha i2$ expression partially blocks serum-induced SRE reporter activity suggests that Gαz signals can attenuate endogenous signaling pathways to Rho and implies that the endogenous effectors of $G\alpha z$ are present in HEK293T. The use of $G\alpha z$ fatty acylation mutants indicates that the observed inhibition requires correct plasma membrane localization of $G\alpha z$, a prerequisite for $G\alpha z$ signal transduction (Morales et al., 1998). Serum-induced signals leading to Rho-dependent responses are transduced by $G\alpha 12/13$ and $G\alpha g$ (Seasholtz and Brown 1999); however, serum-induced GTP-RhoA formation was not affected by $G\alpha z$ signals (not shown). This further supports the notion that $G\alpha$ signaling function per se is not affected by $G\alpha z$ and suggests that $G\alpha z$ targets a subsequent step on the signaling pathway. GPCRs, which may inhibit signaling to SRF/SRE via $G\alpha z$, are not known at present; however, recently, stimulation of a GPCR (somatostatin GPCR) has been shown to inhibit Rhodependent responses (Buchan et al., 2002) for the first time. This indicates the existence of GPCR-linked pathways that inhibit Rho and is consistent with our findings of $G\alpha z$ detailed here, although whether $G\alpha z$ is specifically involved in somatostatin-induced responses remains to be determined. The finding that $G\alpha z$ inhibits $G\alpha 12/13$ and Rho GEF-induced SRE reporter in PC-12 neuronal cells that resemble $G\alpha z$ -expressing tissue suggests that the observed effect may also occur in $G\alpha z$ -rich tissues and is not restricted to HEK293T cells. The lack of effect of $G\alpha z$ signals on the LEF/TCF transcriptional reporter makes it unlikely that $G\alpha z$ signals block a common event required for transcriptional activation.

The observed inhibition of RhoAL63-induced SRE reporter activation by $G\alpha z$ coexpression is unlikely to be caused by modulation of a Rho regulator such as a Rho GEF or Rho GAP, because RhoAL63 activity is largely independent of these regulators. The lack of effect of $G\alpha zQL$ on GTP-RhoAL63 levels supports the notion that $G\alpha z$ signals target the pathway at a point subsequent to Rho activation. The finding that wild-type $G\alpha z$ is nearly as active as $G\alpha zQL$ in inhibiting RhoAL63 signals is notable although not unique, because transfected wild-type versions of $G\alpha 12/13$ are also highly active in signaling to SRE luciferase reporter in HEK293T cells (Mao et al., 1998; Dutt et al., 2004). This probably reflects the ability of the sensitive luciferase reporter assay to detect some portion of the transfected wild-type $G\alpha$ subunit that subsequently becomes activated in vivo.

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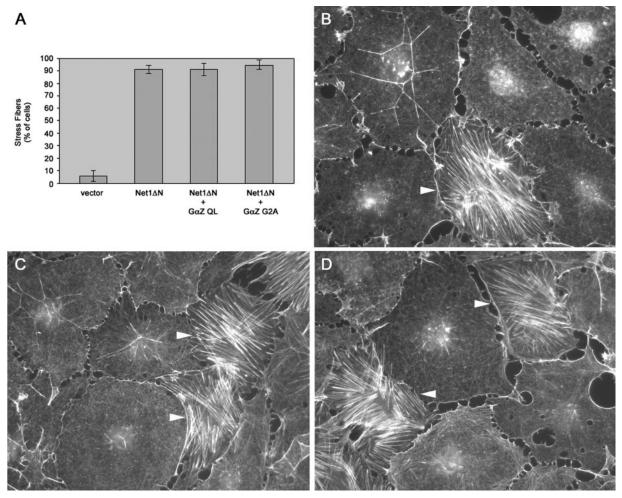


Fig. 7. Gaz expression does not influence Rho-GEF-induced actin stress fiber formation. A, quantitation of the effect of activated and inactive forms of Gaz on stress fiber formation induced by the oncogenic form of the Net1 Rho GEF, Net1 Δ N. Data are expressed as mean \pm S.D. of at least three experiments, in which a minimum of 40 expressing cells were counted per experiment. B–D, representative images of confluent quiescent, serum-starved Swiss 3T3 fibroblasts injected with expression constructs for Net1 Δ N, together with empty vector (B), GazQL (C), or Gaz G2A (D). Injected cells are marked with an arrowhead.

The lack of effect of the adenylate cyclase and PKA inhibitors tested here on SRE reporter activity suggests that these signaling components (Wong et al., 1992) are not involved in the observed effect and is consistent with existing data showing that these components mainly transduce signals by $G\alpha$ i rather than $G\alpha z$. Reports indicate the existence of $G\alpha$ i signaling pathways that involve effectors other than adenylate cyclase (Yang et al., 2002), and a number of alternate $G\alpha z$ effectors and mediators have been proposed (Ho and Wong, 2001). These include Rap1Gap (Meng et al., 1999), Rap1 GTPase (Woulfe et al., 2002), and $G\alpha$ protein-regulated inducer of neurite outgrowth (Chen et al., 1999), and the potential involvement of these components in the modulation described here warrants further investigation.

A possible basis for the $G\alpha z$ -mediated effect is an effect on localization of a Rho signaling complex, and whereas altered RhoA subcellular localization in response to $G\alpha z$ was not detected here, it is conceivable that localization of other components of a RhoA signaling complex may be altered. In addition, $G\alpha z$ signals may lead to altered post-translational modification(s) of Rho. Phosphorylation of RhoA on Ser¹⁸⁸ by cAMP or cGMP-dependent kinases inhibits Rho activity (Lang et al., 1996) by promoting Rho binding to cytosolic Rho guanine dissociation inhibitor (Ellerbroek et al., 2003). However, our finding that Gαz inhibits RhoAL63/A188 signals shows that this modification is not responsible for the effect and, together with the RhoAL63/S188 result, implies a block downstream of Rho. Yet another possible basis for the observed results is inhibitory modification of other components of a Rho signaling complex.

Because we did not observe any effect on Rho GEF-induced stress fiber formation when we comicroinjected $G\alpha z$ in fibroblasts, this suggests that $G\alpha z$ interferes at a point in the SRF activation pathway that is independent of actin rearrangement; however, the possibility that the $G\alpha z$ expression level was insufficient to induce inhibition of stress fibers in this system cannot be ruled out. Moreover, additional assessment in cells other than fibroblasts, as well as on potentially more subtle effects on the actin cytoskeleton, is warranted. One potential target for the negative regulation of SRF/SRE by $G\alpha z$ is megakaryocytic acute leukemia, recently shown to be an SRF coactivator that responds to changes in levels of G-actin but has not been reported to regulate actin dynamics (Miralles et al., 2003). Another potential target is hCNK1, which is involved in Rho activation of SRF in an actinindependent manner (Jaffe et al., 2004). It is interesting that G kinase induces a similar effect in that it inhibits SRE/SRF transcription but does not seem to affect Rho-dependent cytoskeletal responses (Gudi et al., 2002). The $G\alpha z$ -induced transcriptional inhibition described here may play a role during certain stages of cell growth/differentiation that are accompanied by down-regulation of SRF-dependent genes. Thus, $G\alpha z$ signals may target a component(s) that selectively mediates SRF-dependent transcriptional responses, and elucidation of such signaling events would further contribute to our understanding of how this important transcriptional target is regulated.

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