# Functional Characterization of $G\alpha$ o Signaling through GProtein-Regulated Inducer of Neurite Outgrowth 1

# Hiroko Nakata<sup>1</sup> and Tohru Kozasa

Department of Pharmacology, University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

Received June 15, 2004; accepted December 6, 2004

## **ABSTRACT**

G protein-regulated inducer of neurite outgrowth 1 (GRIN1) was initially identified as a binding protein for guanosine 5'-3-O-(thio)triphosphate-bound  $G\alpha z$ . GRIN1 is specifically expressed in brain and interacts selectively with activated  $\alpha$  subunits of the Gi subfamily. GRIN1 colocalizes with  $G\alpha$ 0 at the growth cone of neuronal cells and promotes neurite extension in Neuro2a cells when coexpressed with constitutively active mutant  $G\alpha$ oQ205L. These results suggest that GRIN1 functions as a downstream target for  $G\alpha$ o. However, GRIN1 does not contain domains that are homologous to known signaling motifs. To understand the mechanisms of  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 pathway, we analyzed functional domains of GRIN1 that are involved in binding with  $G\alpha$ 0 or with its targeting to the plasma membrane. Using pull-down assays with glutathione S-transferase-fused GRIN1 deletion mutants,  $G\alpha$ o binding regions were localized to amino acid residues 716 to 746 and 797 to 827 of GRIN1. The Gαo binding region of GRIN1 did not demonstrate GTPase accelerating activity for  $G\alpha$ o. GRIN1 localized in the cell periphery in Neuro2a cells, and two cysteine residues at C-terminal region of GRIN1 (Cys818 and Cys819) were shown to be critical for its membrane targeting. Coexpression of GRIN1 with  $G\alpha oQ205L$  or  $GRIN1\Delta(717-827)$ , which lacks  $G\alpha o$  binding region, promoted microspike formation in Swiss 3T3 cells or neurite extension in Neuro2a cells. The dominant-negative mutant of Cdc42 blocked these morphological changes. Coexpression of GRIN1 and GαoQ205L stimulated the formation of GTP-bound Cdc42 in Swiss 3T3 cells. These results suggest that the binding of activated  $G\alpha$ 0 to GRIN1 induces activation of Cdc42, which leads to morphological changes in neuronal

Heterotrimeric guanine nucleotide-binding regulatory proteins (G proteins) transduce a variety of signals from a large number of seven-transmembrane-type receptors to intracellular effectors (Gilman, 1987; Hepler and Gilman, 1992). Agonist-activated receptors induce dissociation of G protein subunits, generating a GTP-bound form of  $\alpha$  subunits and free  $\beta \gamma$  subunits. Both GTP- $\alpha$  and  $-\beta \gamma$  can regulate downstream effectors. Hydrolysis of GTP to GDP on the  $\alpha$  subunit leads to reassociation of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta \gamma$  to form an inactive heterotrimer. More than 30 RGS proteins have been identified as novel regulators of G protein signaling. RGS proteins associate with GTP-bound  $G\alpha$  and, in most cases, accelerate GTPase activity of  $G\alpha$  to facilitate the inactivation of G proteins (Berman et al., 1996; Ross and Wilkie, 2000).

 $\alpha$  Subunits of the Gi subfamily are highly expressed in the nervous system. Particularly, G $\alpha$ o and G $\alpha$ i1 constitute nearly 1% of membrane protein in brain. However, the only well-established effectors of these  $\alpha$  subunits are certain isoforms of adenylyl cyclase (Taussig et al., 1994; Kozasa and Gilman, 1995). We have identified recently G protein-regulated inducer of neurite outgrowth 1 and 2 (GRIN1 and GRIN2, respectively) as novel effector candidates for  $G\alpha o$ (Chen et al., 1999). GRIN1 was isolated through screening of a mouse embryo cDNA expression library with phosphorylated guanosine 5'-3-O-(thio)triphosphate– $G\alpha z$  as a probe. A homolog of GRIN1, GRIN2 (KIAA0514), was identified by database search. GRIN1 and GRIN2 bind selectively to activated forms of  $G\alpha o$ ,  $G\alpha z$ , and  $G\alpha i$ . Among different tissues, GRIN1 is specifically expressed in the brain. Furthermore, GRIN1 is enriched in the growth cones of neurites similar to Gαo and GAP43 (neuromodulin) (Chen et al., 1999). Coexpression of GRIN1 with the constitutively active mutant of

doi:10.1124/mol.104.003913.

ABBREVIATIONS: RGS, regulator of G protein signaling; GRIN1, G protein-regulated inducer of neurite outgrowth 1; DTT, dithiothreitol; GAP, GTPase activating protein; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; GFP, green fluorescent protein; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; GST, glutathione S-transferase; PAK, p21-activated kinase; PBD, p21-binding domain; PAGE, polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium.

This work was supported by National Institutes of Health grants GM61454 and NS/GM 41441 and by an American Heart Association grant (to T.K.). T.K. is an Established Investigator of the American Heart Association.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Current address: National Institute of Neuroscience, Department of Biochemistry and Cellular Biology, 4-1-1 Ogawahigashi, Kodaira, Tokyo 187-

Article, publication date, and citation information can be found at http://molpharm.aspetjournals.org.

 $G\alpha o$  promoted the extension of neurites in Neuro2a cells. Although GRIN1 does not contain domains that are homologous to other known signaling motifs, these results suggest that the  $G\alpha o$ -GRIN1 pathway may be involved in the regulation of neurite growth.

Similar to heterotrimeric G proteins, Rho family GTPases, Cdc42, Rac, and Rho, function as molecular switches by cycling between a GDP-bound, inactive state and a GTP-bound, active state. These GTPases are involved in various cellular processes, such as gene expression, cell-cycle progression, cell polarity, or vesicle trafficking (Symons and Settleman, 2000; Etienne-Manneville and Hall, 2002; Schmidt and Hall, 2002). Among them, the most well-established role of Rho family GTPases is the reorganization of the actin cytoskeleton, which is crucial for cellular responses such as cell migration, adhesion, phagocytosis, or axonal guidance (Dickson, 2001; Etienne-Manneville and Hall, 2002).

In this study, we characterized functional domains of GRIN1 to understand the molecular mechanisms of G $\alpha$ o-GRIN1 signaling. We have identified regions in GRIN1 that are involved in G $\alpha$ o binding or membrane targeting. We also identified a possible link of the G $\alpha$ o-GRIN1 pathway to Cdc42 activation.

# **Materials and Methods**

Materials. The anti-GST monoclonal antibody and anti-GFP polyclonal antibody were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc. (Santa Cruz, CA), Anti-Flag (M2) antibody was purchased from Upstate Biotechnology (Lake Placid, NY) and Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). The anti-G $\alpha$ o monoclonal antibody was purchased from Calbiochem (San Diego, CA). The anti-Rac1 monoclonal antibody was purchased from Transduction Laboratories (Lexington, KY). Rhodamine phalloidin and Alexa Fluor 350-F(ab')<sub>2</sub> fragment of goat anti-mouse IgG were from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR).  $[\gamma^{-32}P]$ GTP was purchased from MP Biomedicals (Irvine, CA). Antibodies against GRIN1 (T116) and Gαo (U1901) were described previously (Chen et al., 1999). VECTASHIELD mounting medium was purchased from Vector Laboratories (Burlingame, CA). Fibronectin and laminin were from Sigma-Aldrich. Plasmids for GST-PAK-PBD and Rho family GTPases were kindly provided by Drs. G. Bokoch (Scripps Research Institute, La Jolla, CA) and T. Satoh (Kobe University, Kobe, Japan), respectively.

Plasmid Constructs. Mouse GRIN1 cDNA (Chen et al., 1999) was used for the construction of plasmids for GST or GFP fusion proteins. The corresponding fragments of GRIN1 cDNA were subcloned in frame at the C terminus of GST in pGEX-KG or at the C terminus of enhanced GFP in pEGFP-C1 vector. The GRIN1 fragment (797-827) was generated by PCR using the following primers: 5'-cggaattcagggcgccgccaag-3' and 5'-ccgctcgagttactccgcagtggggcc-3'. C818A and C819A mutations of GRIN1 were generated using QuikChange site-directed mutagenesis (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) with primers 5'-gtgcgccgaccgcgggctgcatcgcgagcgggcccc-3' and 5'ggggcccgctcgcgatgcagcccgcggtcggcgcac-3'. Gαo (wild-type or Q205L mutant) was fused at the N terminus of DsRed protein in pDsRed2-N vector (BD Biosciences CLONTECH, Palo Alto, CA). QuikChange mutagenesis was used to remove a stop codon and add an SmaI site in pCMV-GαoQ205L with primers 5'-ggctgtggcttgtcccgggctcttgtcctg-3' and 5'-caggacaagacccgggacaagccacagcc-3'. Then the EcoRI-SmaI fragment of pCMV-GαoQ205L was subcloned into pDsRed2-N to generate pDsRed2N-GαoQ205L. PCR reactions were performed by QuikChange mutagenesis using pDsRed2N-GαoQ205L as a template with primers 5'-cgttggaggccagcgatctgaac-3' and 5'-gttcagatcgctggcctccaacg-3' to make pDsRed2N-Gαo (wild type). To construct bacterial expression vector for  $G\alpha$ o, a hexahistidine tag, a stop codon, and HindIII site were generated at the C terminus of rat  $G\alpha$ 0 cDNA by PCR using pQE6- $G\alpha$ 0 as a template with primers 5'-cggcatgcacgagtctctcatgc-3' and 5'-aagctttcaatggtgatggtgatgggtacaagccacagcc-3'. The PCR fragment was subcloned into pCR4-TOPO, digested with SphI and HindIII, and subcloned into pQE6- $G\alpha$ 0.

Expression and Purification of Recombinant Proteins. GST-fused GRIN1 mutants, GST-PAK-PBD, or  $G\alpha$ o-His $_6$  were expressed in BL21 or JM109 by induction with 100  $\mu$ M isopropyl  $\beta$ -D-thiogalactoside at 30 or 37°C for 2 to 3 h, respectively. GST fusion proteins were purified using glutathione Sepharose 4B column (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ).  $G\alpha$ o-His $_6$  was purified using a nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid column (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA).

Gαo Binding Assay. The lysates of *Escherichia coli* expressing GST-fused GRIN1 mutants were mixed with purified Gαo in the binding buffer (50 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 50  $\mu$ M GDP, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2 mM DTT, 0.1%  $C_{12}E_{10}$ , and protease inhibitors) in the presence or absence of AlF<sub>4</sub> $^-$  (10 mM NaF and 30  $\mu$ M AlCl<sub>3</sub>) and incubated on ice for 1 h. The resin was washed twice with wash buffer A (50 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 50  $\mu$ M GDP, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM DTT, 0.1%  $C_{12}E_{10}$ , and protease inhibitors) and once with wash buffer B (50 mM HEPES, pH 8.0, 50  $\mu$ M GDP, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2 mM DTT, 0.1%  $C_{12}E_{10}$ , and protease inhibitors). The bound proteins were eluted by boiling the resin in SDS sample buffer and analyzed by SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblotting using an anti-Gαo antibody, U1901 (Chen et al., 1999).

Cell Culture. Neuro2a murine neuroblastoma cells or Swiss 3T3 fibroblast cells were cultured in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum with 10% CO<sub>2</sub>.

**Fluorescence Microscopy.** Neuro2a cells on laminin-coated chambered coverslips were transiently transfected with appropriate expression plasmids using LipofectAMINE Plus (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Two hours after transfection, medium was changed to DMEM with 7.5% fetal bovine serum for 2 h and then to DMEM without serum for 24 h before capturing fluorescence images.

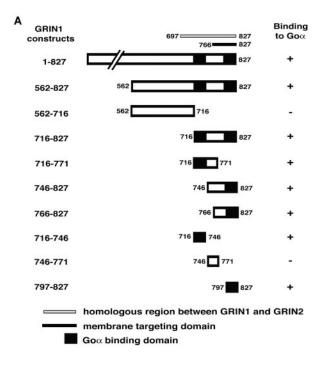
Swiss 3T3 cells plated on fibronectin-coated coverslips were subjected to serum starvation overnight. Then, expression plasmids with total DNA concentration of 0.05 mg/ml were microinjected into the nucleus of cells using computer-assisted microinjection system (Eppendorf - 5 Prime, Inc., Boulder, CO, and Cellbiology Trading, Hamburg, Germany). After 20 to 22 h, cells were rinsed with PBS, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde/0.5% glutaraldehyde/PBS, permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100/PBS, and then stained with rhodamine phalloidin. For indirect immunofluorescence staining, cells were fixed and permeabilized as described above and incubated with anti-Flag antibody (1:200 dilution in PBS/2% bovine serum albumin). Cells were washed in PBS before incubating with secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 350 (anti-mouse IgG, 1:200 dilution in PBS/2% bovine serum albumin). Coverslips were mounted with VECTASHIELD mounting medium. Fluorescence images were captured using an LSM510 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss GmbH, Jena, Germany).

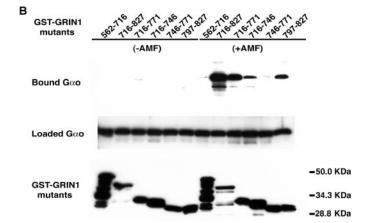
Cdc42-GTP Pull-Down Assay. For Cdc42-GTP pull-down assay, Swiss 3T3 cells were transfected with Flag-tagged Cdc42 expression plasmid. After 40 h, they were further transfected with expression plasmids for G $\alpha$ oQ205L and/or GFP-GRIN1. After 6 h, the cells were lysed with lysis buffer (25 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 1% Nonidet P-40, 10 mM MgCl $_2$ , 100 mM NaCl, 5% glycerol, 1 mM sodium vanadate, and protease inhibitors). The lysates were incubated for 30 min at 4°C with GST-PAK-PBD (15  $\mu$ g) in binding buffer (25 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 0.5% Nonidet P-40, 30 mM MgCl $_2$ , 50 mM NaCl, and 1 mM DTT) (Benard et al., 1999; Royal et al., 2000). The beads were washed five times with washing buffer (25 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 0.5% Nonidet P-40, 30 mM MgCl $_2$ , 40 mM NaCl, and 1 mM DTT) and boiled in SDS sample buffer. The amount of GTP-bound Cdc42 was analyzed by 12.5% SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblotting with anti-Flag anti-body (for Cdc42) or anti-Rac1 antibody.

**GAP Assay.** GAP assays of Gαo were performed as described previously (Nagata et al., 2001; Rochdi et al., 2002).

# Results

Gαo Interaction Region of GRIN1. The initial characterization of GRIN1 demonstrated that its carboxyl-terminal region (amino acid residues 555-827) contains the Gαo binding domain (Chen et al., 1999). To further characterize the Gαo-GRIN1 interaction, several GST-tagged deletion mutants of GRIN1 were constructed. The lysates of  $E.\ coli$  expressing these GST-GRIN1 constructs were mixed with pu-





**Fig. 1.** Interaction of GST-GRIN1 deletion mutants with  $G\alpha$ o. A, GST-fused GRIN1 constructs are schematically represented. A homologous region between GRIN1 and GRIN2, the membrane-targeting domain, and  $G\alpha$ o binding domains are indicated. The results of  $G\alpha$ o binding assays are shown on the right. B, the binding of  $G\alpha$ o with GST-GRIN1 deletion mutants were assessed by GST pull-down methods. Recombinant  $G\alpha$ o was incubated with bacterial lysates expressing the indicated GST-GRIN1 mutant and glutathione Sepharose beads in the absence or presence of 30 μM AlCl<sub>3</sub>, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, and 10 mM NaF (Mg<sup>2+</sup>/AlF<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>). Proteins that bound to the beads were eluted and resolved by SDS-PAGE followed by immunoblotting with anti-Gαo antibody or anti-GST antibody.

rified  $G\alpha$ 0 in the presence or absence of  $AlF_4$ , a reversible activator of  $G\alpha$  subunits. Their interaction was assessed by GST pull-down experiments. As shown previously, in the presence of  $AlF_4^-$ , the binding of  $G\alpha$ o was detected with full-length GRIN1 as well as with GRIN1 (562–827) (Fig. 1A; data not shown). As shown in Fig. 1B, with further deletion, the binding of  $G\alpha$ 0 was detected in the region of GRIN1 (716-827). In contrast, the mutant without this carboxylterminal region, GRIN1 (562–716), did not interact with  $G\alpha$ o. Within amino acids 716 to 827 of GRIN1, Gao binding was detected in the region of 716 to 746 or 797 to 827 but not in the region of 746 to 771, although the interaction with these short segments was weaker than that with GRIN1 (716–827). These experiments indicate that the both regions of GRIN1 (716-746 and 797-827) are involved in the association with  $G\alpha$ o. RGS protein recognizes the activated form of  $G\alpha$  and accelerates its GTPase activity. Given that GRIN1 specifically recognizes activated  $G\alpha o$ , we tested whether the interaction with GRIN1 stimulates its GTPase activity similar to RGS proteins. However, GRIN1 (716-771) showed no effect on the GTPase activity of  $G\alpha o$  (data not shown). Thus, GRIN1 interacts with  $G\alpha o$  without GAP activity.

Membrane Targeting Region of GRIN1. We next investigated the domain of GRIN1 involved in its subcellular localization. Neuro2a cells were transiently transfected with GRIN1 constructs that were fused with GFP at their amino terminus, and their expression was analyzed by fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 2). Full-length GRIN1 localized mainly at the cell periphery. GRIN1 (716–827) and GRIN1 (766–827) also demonstrated a membrane distribution pattern. In contrast, GRIN1 $\Delta$  (717–827) and GRIN1 (716–771), constructs lacking the carboxyl-terminal region, showed cytosolic distribution. These results indicate that the carboxyl-terminal region of GRIN1 (772–827) is involved in its membrane targeting.

Because the amino acid sequence of GRIN1 does not contain any apparent transmembrane region, the membrane distribution of GRIN1 suggests the possibility of lipid modification of GRIN1. A variety of signaling proteins undergo palmitoylation at cysteine residues. It is known that palmitoylation affects the activity of the protein in addition to its

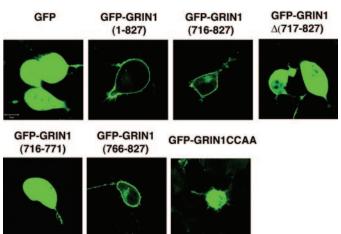
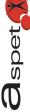
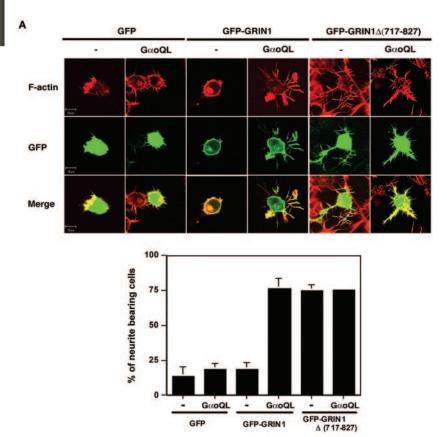


Fig. 2. Subcellular localization of GRIN1 mutants in Neuro2a cells. Neuro2a cells were transiently transfected with expression plasmids for GFP, GFP-GRIN1, or GFP-GRIN1 mutants as indicated. After 24 h, cells were observed by fluorescence confocal microscopy. Scale bar, 10  $\mu m$ . Magnification, 1575×.



subcellular distribution (Wedegaertner and Bourne, 1994; Tu et al., 1999; Osterhout et al., 2003). Within the membrane-targeting region of GRIN1 (772–827), potential palmitoyl-

ation sites were found at Cys818 and Cys819. These cysteine residues were conserved in both human and mouse GRIN1, suggesting the functional importance of these residues. We



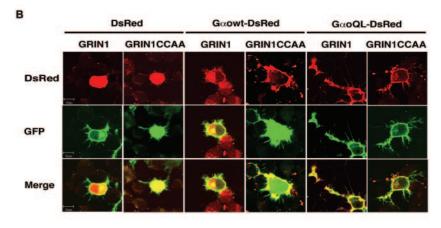


Fig. 3. Effects of coexpression of  $G\alpha oQ205L$  and GRIN1or  $GRIN1\Delta(717-827)$  on morphology of Neuro2a cells. A, expression plasmids for GFP, GFP-GRIN1, or GFP-GRIN1Δ(717–827) were transiently cotransfected with either empty vector or pCMV5-G $\alpha o$ Q205L into Neuro2a cells. After 20 to 22 h, the cells were fixed and stained for filamentous actin with rhodamine-phalloidin. The cells were observed by fluorescence confocal microscopy. Scale bars, 10  $\mu$ m. Magnification, 1260×. Bottom, the percentage of cells with neurite growth of more than one cell-body length. Results are mean ± S.E. from three to five experiments (n = 103-142). B, expression plasmid for GFP-GRIN1 or GFP-GRIN1CCAA was transiently cotransfected with DsRed, Gαo-DsRed, or GαoQ205L-DsRed in Neuro2a cells. After 20 to 22 h, the cells were fixed and observed by fluorescence confocal microscopy. Scale bars, 10  $\mu$ m. Magnification, 1260×. Bottom, the percentage of cells with neurite growth of more than one cell-body length. Results are mean ± S.E. from three independent experiments (n = 123-188).



thus generated a GRIN1 mutant, GRIN1CCAA, in which both cysteine residues were mutated to alanine. The GRIN1CCAA mutant demonstrated a cytosolic pattern of distribution (Fig. 2). The results indicate that Cys818 and Cys819 residues are critical to target GRIN1 to plasma membrane.

Effect of the Gαo-GRIN1 Pathway on Cell Morphology. When coexpressed with  $G\alpha oQ205L$ , GRIN1 induced neurite formation in Neuro2a cells or fine process formation in MA104 cells (Chen et al., 1999). To further characterize this morphological change induced by  $G\alpha$ 0-GRIN1, a GRIN1 mutant lacking the G $\alpha$ o binding region, GFP-GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717– 827), was expressed in Neuro2a cells with or without  $G\alpha oQ205L$ . As shown in Fig. 3A, expression of GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717– 827) in Neuro2a cells promoted neurite extension similar to cells coexpressing wild-type GRIN1. Furthermore, this effect of GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717-827) did not require coexpression of  $G\alpha oQ205L$ . These results suggest that the  $G\alpha o$  binding domain may have an inhibitory effect on GRIN1 activity, and the deletion of the  $G\alpha$ o binding domain of GRIN1 may change its conformation to a constitutively active form.

In Fig. 3B, we examined the neurite-promoting activity of GRIN1CCAA mutant. GRIN1CCAA demonstrated membrane distribution when coexpressed with  $G\alpha oQL$  but not with  $G\alpha$ 0 wild-type, suggesting the activation-dependent interaction with  $G\alpha$ o. It also promoted neurite extension in the presence of activated  $G\alpha o$ . These results suggest that although Cys818 and Cys819 are required for the membrane distribution of GRIN1, they are not critically involved in the interaction with  $G\alpha o$  or the neurite-promoting activity for GRIN1.

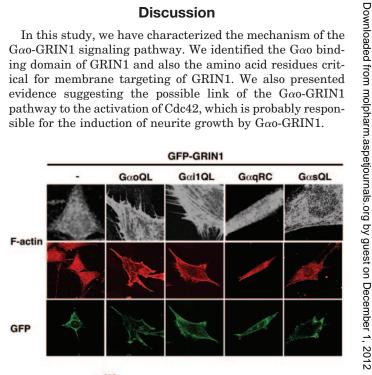
We also examined the specificity of GRIN1-induced morphological changes using activated mutants of several different  $G\alpha$  subunits. In this experiment, Swiss 3T3 cells were used to eliminate the morphological changes through endogenous GRIN1. As shown in Fig. 4, Swiss 3T3 cells coexpressing GRIN1 and  $G\alpha i1Q204L$  formed microspikes similar to cells expressing  $G\alpha \circ Q205L$  and GRIN1. However, no such morphological changes were detected in cells coexpressing GRIN1 and  $G\alpha qR183C$  or  $G\alpha sQ227L$ . The results are consistent with the results from in vitro experiments showing that GRIN1 specifically interact with  $\alpha$  subunits of Gi subfamily. The results also support that these morphological changes are induced by the interaction of GRIN1 with  $G\alpha i/o$ .

Involvement of Rho Family GTPases in the Gαo-**GRIN1 Signaling Pathway.** It is well established that Rho family GTPases, Rho, Rac, and Cdc42, are involved in morphological changes of cells through regulation of the actin cytoskeleton. We thus investigated whether the morphological changes induced by the Gαo-GRIN1 pathway involves these Rho family GTPases. Swiss 3T3 cells were microinjected with expression plasmids encoding dominant-negative mutants of Rho GTPases, Cdc42N17, Rac1N17, or RhoAN19. along with GαoQ205L-DsRed and GFP-GRIN1. As shown in Fig. 5A, coexpression of dominant-negative Cdc42 blocked microspike formation in Swiss 3T3 cells, whereas dominantnegative Rac1 or RhoA had no pronounced effect on Gαo-GRIN1-induced morphological changes. We also conducted similar experiments using Neuro2a cells (Fig. 5B). Both dominant-negative Cdc42 and dominant-negative Rac1 inhibited neurite extension in Neuro2a cells expressing GαoQ205L and GRIN1, whereas dominant-negative RhoA showed no effect. These results suggest that  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 signaling may involve the activation of Cdc42 downstream to induce microspike formation.

Coexpression of GαoQ205L and GRIN1 Activates **Cdc42.** Finally, we examined whether the  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 pathway activates Cdc42 in cells. The amount of GTP-Cdc42 in cells was quantified by pull-down assays using GST-PAK-PBD as described under Materials and Methods. As shown in Fig. 6, coexpression of  $G\alpha \circ Q205L$  and GRIN1 in Swiss 3T3 cells increased GTP-Cdc42 approximately 2-fold. The expression of GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717–827) induced similar levels of increase in GTP-Cdc42. This suggests again that GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717–827) is constitutively active and independent of  $G\alpha o$ . These results agree well with the morphological data shown in Fig. 5 and further support the model that Gαo-GRIN1 signaling pathway activates Cdc42 to induce morphological changes in cells.

# **Discussion**

In this study, we have characterized the mechanism of the  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 signaling pathway. We identified the  $G\alpha$ o binding domain of GRIN1 and also the amino acid residues critical for membrane targeting of GRIN1. We also presented evidence suggesting the possible link of the  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 pathway to the activation of Cdc42, which is probably responsible for the induction of neurite growth by  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1.



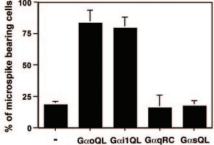
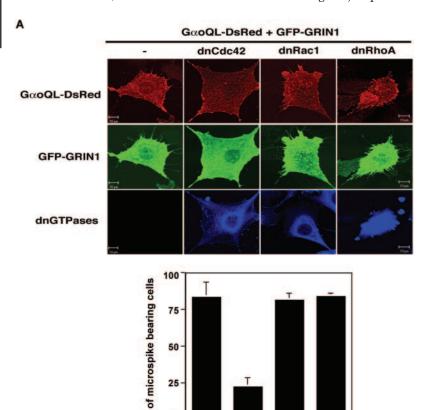


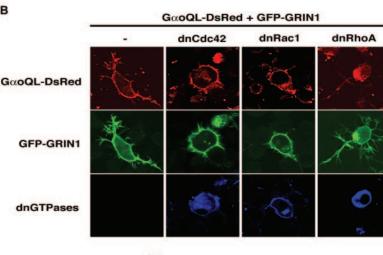
Fig. 4. Effects of coexpression of constitutively active  $G\alpha$  subunit and GRIN1 in Swiss 3T3 cells. Expression plasmids encoding the indicated constitutively active mutant of Gα subunit and GFP-GRIN1 were microinjected into the nucleus of Swiss 3T3 cells. After 20 to 22 h, the cells were fixed and stained with rhodamine-phalloidin and observed by fluorescence confocal microscopy. Top, higher magnifications of actin-stained images. Scale bar, 10  $\mu$ m. Top and bottom magnification, 3780 $\times$  and 1260×, respectively. Bottom graph, the percentage of microinjected cells with more than 10 microspikes per cell. Results are mean ± S.E. from three to four independent experiments (n = 56-88).

Downloaded from molpharm.aspetjournals.org by guest on December 1, 2012

Using deletion mutants of GRIN1, the  $G\alpha$ 0 binding domain of GRIN1 was mapped to its carboxyl-terminal regions (716–746 and 797–827).  $G\alpha$ 0 interacts with both of these regions,

and the presence of either region in GRIN1 could show activation-dependent association with  $G\alpha o$ . Amino acid sequences of these binding regions are highly conserved in





dnCdc42 dnRac1 dnRhoA

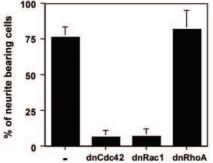
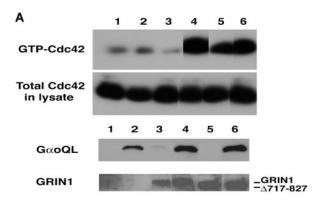


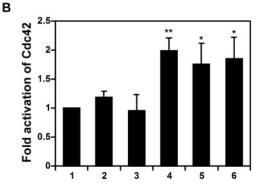
Fig. 5. Effect of dominant-negative mutants of Rho family GTPases on the morphology of cells expressing GRIN1 and GαoQ205L. A, expression plasmids encoding for  $\mbox{G}\alpha\mbox{o}\mbox{Q}205\mbox{L-DsRed}$  and GFP-GRIN1 were microinjected with the dominant-negative mutant of RhoA, Rac1, or Cdc42 into the nucleus of Swiss 3T3 cells. After 20 h, the expression of Flag-tagged RhoA, Rac1, or Cdc42 mutant was detected using anti-Flag antibody. Scale bars, 10 μm. Magnification, 1260×. Bottom graph, the percentage of microinjected Swiss 3T3 cells coexpressing GRIN1 and GaoQL with more than 10 microspikes per cell. Results are the mean ± S.E. from three to five independent experiments (n = 45-56). B, expression plasmids encoding for GαoQ205L-DsRed and GFP-GRIN1 were transfected with the dominantnegative mutant of RhoA, Rac1, or Cdc42 into Neuro2a cells. After 20 h, the expression of Flag-tagged RhoA, Rac1, or Cdc42 mutant was detected using anti-Flag antibody. Scale bars, 10 µm. Magnification, 1260×. Bottom graph, the percentage of transfected cells with neurite growth of more than one body length is shown. Results are mean ± S.E. from 3-5 independent experiments (n = 127-163).



GRIN2, suggesting that GRIN2 will probably interact with  $G\alpha$ 0 through the corresponding regions. The  $G\alpha$ 0 binding domain did not show apparent homology with any known  $G\alpha$ -interacting motifs, and GRIN1 did not demonstrate GAP activity for  $G\alpha$ 0. Thus, these regions are considered to be novel  $G\alpha$  interacting motifs. Further characterization and identification of the critical residues of GRIN1 for interaction with  $G\alpha$ 0 will be pursued.

The inhibitory effect of GRIN1 on the GAP activity of RGS4 for  $G\alpha o$  indicates the competition of the interaction of RGS4 and GRIN1 on  $G\alpha o$ . However, the results do not exclude the possibility that other RGS proteins might associate  $G\alpha o$  simultaneously with GRIN1 and regulate the  $G\alpha o$ -GRIN1 signaling pathway. For example, in the retinal phototransduction system,  $G\alpha t$  has been shown to interact simultaneously with its effector, PDE $\gamma$ , and its GAP, RGS9–1 (Slep et al., 2001). The presence of RGS9–1 was critical for the temporal resolution of  $G\alpha t$ -mediated visual signal transduction (Skiba et al., 2001). In contrast to RGS4, which is an effective GAP for both  $G\alpha o$  and  $G\alpha i$ , members of R7 subfamily of RGS protein, such as RGS6 and RGS7, show specific GAP activity for  $G\alpha o$  but not for  $G\alpha i$  (Posner et al., 1999). Furthermore,





**Fig. 6.** Coexpression of GRIN1 and GαοQ205L activates Cdc42. Expression plasmids encoding the indicated proteins were transiently cotransfected with Flag-tagged wild-type Cdc42 in Swiss 3T3 cells. The amounts of GTP-bound Cdc42 in cell lysates was measured by the GST-PAK-PBD pull-down assay as described under *Materials and Methods*. A, GTP-bound Cdc42 was detected by immunoblotting using anti-Flag antibody. The amount of GTP-bound Cdc42 was quantified by densitometry. B, Cdc42 activity was indicated by the amount of GTP-bound Cdc42 normalized to total Flag-Cdc42 in whole-cell lysates. Expression of Gαo or GRIN1 in cell lysate was detected by immunoblotting with anti-Gαo or anti-GRIN1 antibody. 1, control; 2, GαoQ205L; 3, GRIN1; 4, GαoQ205L + GRIN1; 5, GRIN1Δ(717–827); 6, GαoQ205L + GRIN1Δ(717–827). The values are the mean  $\pm$  S.E. of four separate experiments. The asterisks indicate the results of the t test analysis. \*\*, p < 0.01; \*, p < 0.05 compared with the control.

they are expressed only in the brain, similar to GRIN1 (Witherow and Slepak, 2003). It will be important to further characterize the involvement of RGS proteins, such as R7 subfamily members, in the  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 pathway in brain.

We demonstrated that the carboxyl-terminal region of GRIN1 was involved in its membrane targeting. In particular, cysteines 818 and 819 were identified as critical residues for membrane localization. Mutation of these cysteine residues abolished the membrane distribution pattern of GRIN1. However, they are not required for the interaction with  $G\alpha o$ or the neurite-promoting activity of GRIN1. Similar to other signaling proteins, it is possible that these cysteine residues are modified by palmitoylation. In addition to the regulation of subcellular distribution, palmitoylation also participates in the regulation of biochemical function of various proteins (Wedegaertner and Bourne, 1994; Tu et al., 1999; Osterhout et al., 2003). It will be important to confirm whether GRIN1 is palmitoylated at these residues and, if it is palmitoylated, whether this modification regulates Gαo-GRIN1-mediated signaling.

Coexpression of G $\alpha$ oQ205L and full-length GRIN1 stimulates microspike formation in Swiss 3T3 cells and promotes neurite extension in Neuro2a cells. Similar morphological changes were observed under conditions of GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717–827) overexpression, which lacks the G $\alpha$ o binding region. Coexpression of G $\alpha$ oQ205L was not required for the morphological changes induced by GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717–827). These results suggest that deletion of the G $\alpha$ o binding domain may change the conformation of GRIN1 into a constitutively active form. It is possible that the G $\alpha$ o binding domain acts to inhibit GRIN1 function and that the binding of G $\alpha$ o to GRIN1 releases the autoinhibitory effect of the G $\alpha$ o binding domain.

We also presented evidence suggesting the possible link of the  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 pathway to the activation of Cdc42. Overexpression of dominant-negative Cdc42 blocked microspike formation induced by  $G\alpha$ oQ205L and GRIN1 in Swiss 3T3 cells. Similarly, overexpression of dominant-negative Cdc42 inhibited the neurite growth in Neuro2a cells. Furthermore, GST pull-down assays to detect GTP-bound Cdc42 in cells showed that GRIN1 activated Cdc42 synergistically when coexpressed with  $G\alpha$ oQ205L. Consistent with the morphological studies, GRIN1 $\Delta$ (717–827) stimulated Cdc42 independent of  $G\alpha$ oQ205L. Thus, the binding of activated  $G\alpha$ o to the carboxyl-terminal region of GRIN1 is likely to induce activation of Cdc42, which will then lead to these morphological changes.

Rho family GTPases, Rho, Rac, and Cdc42, are well known for playing critical roles in the regulation of synaptogenesis, growth-cone guidance, or neurite outgrowth (Ziv and Smith, 1996; Threadgill et al., 1997; Jay, 2000). Gao is expressed most abundantly in the brain, and expression of a constitutively active mutant of  $G\alpha o$  promoted neurite extension in PC12 cells (Strittmatter et al., 1994). The molecular mechanisms for these Go-mediated effects has remained poorly characterized. As indicated in this study, one possibility is that Gαo regulates neurite outgrowth through GRIN1 by controlling the activity of Cdc42. Further analysis of the function of endogenous GRIN1 in Gαo-mediated Cdc42 activation and neurite growth, and the characterization of the mechanism of regulation of Cdc42, such as the identification of a guanine nucleotide exchange factor for Cdc42 downstream of GRIN1, will be critically important to further un-



derstand the physiological role of  $G\alpha$ o-GRIN1 signaling in neuronal cells.

## Acknowledgments

We thank Drs. X. Du and N. Yokoyama for helpful suggestions and Drs. G. Bokoch and T. Satoh for the gift of plasmids for GST-PAK-PBD and Flag-tagged Rho GTPases, respectively. We also thank Dr. S. Nakamura at National Institute of Neuroscience in Japan for encouragement and helpful discussions.

### References

- Benard V, Boh BP, and Bokoch GM (1999) Characterization of Rac and Cdc42 activation in chemoattractant-stimulated human neutrophils using a novel assay for active GTPases. J Biol Chem 274:13198-13204.
- Berman DM, Wilkie TM, and Gilman AG (1996) GAIP and RGS4 are GTPaseactivating proteins for the  $G_i$  subfamily of G protein alpha subunits. Cell 86:445—
- Chen LT, Gilman AG, and Kozasa T (1999) A candidate target for G protein action in brain. J Biol Chem 274:26931-26938.
- Dickson BJ (2001) Rho GTPases in growth cone guidance. Current Opin Neurobiol **11:**103-110.
- Etienne-Manneville S and Hall A (2002) Rho GTPases in cell biology. Nature (Lond) 420:629-635.
- Gilman AG (1987) G proteins: transducers of receptor-generated signals. Annu Rev
- Biochem 56:615-649. Hepler JR and Gilman AG (1992) G proteins. Trends Biochem Sci 17:383-387.
- Jay DG (2000) The clutch hypothesis revisited: ascribing the roles of actin-associated proteins in filopodial protrusion in the nerve growth cone. J Neurobiol 44:114-125. Kozasa T and Gilman AG (1995) Purification of recombinant G proteins from Sf9 cells by hexahistidine tagging of associated subunits: characterization of  $\alpha_{12}$  and
- inhibition of adenylyl cyclase by  $\alpha_z$ . J Biol Chem **270**:1734–1741. Nagata Y, Oda M, Nakata H, Shozaki Y, Kozasa T, and Todokoro K (2001) A novel regulator of G-protein signaling bearing GAP activity for Gai and Gaq in megakaryocytes. Blood 97:3051-3060.
- Osterhout JL, Waheed AA, Hiol A, Ward RD, Davey PC, Nini L, Wang J, Milligan G, Jones TLZ, and Druey KM (2003) Palmitoylation regulates regulator of G-protein signaling (RGS) 16 function. J Biol Chem 278:19309-19316.
- Posner B, Gilman AG, and Harris B (1999) Regulators of G protein signaling 6 and

- 7. Purification of complexes with Gbeta5 and assessment of their effects on G protein-mediated signaling pathways. J Biol Chem 274:31087-31093.
- Rochdi MD, Watier V, Madeleine CL, Nakata H, Kozasa T, and Parent JL (2002) Regulation of GTP-binding protein  $\alpha q$  (G $\alpha q$ ) signaling by the Ezrin-Radixin-Moesin-binding phosphoprotein-50 (EBP50). J Biol Chem 277:40751-40759.
- Ross EM and Wilkie TM (2000) GTPase-activating proteins for heterotrimeric G proteins: regulators of G protein signaling (RGS) and RGS-like proteins. Annu Rev Biochem 69:795-827.
- Royal I, Lamarche-Vane N, Lamorte L, Kaibuchi K, and Park M (2000) Activation of Cdc42, Rac, PAK and Rho-kinase in response to hepatocyte growth factor differentially regulates epithelial cell colony spreading and dissociation. Mol Biol Cell 11:1709-1725
- Schmidt A and Hall A (2002) Guanine nucleotide exchange factors for Rho GTPases: turning on the switch. Genes Dev 16:1587-1609.
- Skiba NP, Martemyanov KA, Elfenbein A, Hopp JA, Bohm A, Simonds WF, and Arshavsky VY (2001) RGS9-G $\beta$ 5 substrate selectivity in photoreceptors. Opposing effects of constituent domains yield high affinity of RGS interaction with the G protein-effector complex. J Biol Chem 276:37365-37372.
- Slep KC, Kercher MA, He W, Cowan CW, Wensel TG, and Sigler PB (2001) Structural determinants for regulation of phosphodiesterase by a G protein at 2.0 A. Nature (Lond) 409:1071–1077.
- Strittmatter SM, Fishman MC, and Zhu X-P (1994) Activated mutants of the  $\alpha$ subunit of Go promote an increased number of neurites per cell. J Neurosci 14:2327-2338
- Symons M and Settleman J (2000) Rho family GTPases: more than simple switches. Trends Cell Riol 10:415-419
- Taussig R, Tang W-J, Hepler JR, and Gilman AG (1994) Distinct patterns of bidirectional regulation of mammalian adenylyl cyclases. J Biol Chem 269:6093-6100.
- Threadgill R, Bobb K, and Ghosh A (1997) Regulation of dendritic growth and remodeling by Rho, Rac and Cdc42. Neuron 19:625-634.
- Tu Y, Popov S, Slaughter C, and Ross EM (1999) Palmitoylation of a conserved cysteine in the regulator of G protein signaling (RGS) domain modulates the GTPase-activating activity of RGS4 and RGS10. J Biol Chem 274:38260-38267.
- Wedegaertner PB and Bourne HR (1994) Activation and depalmitoylation of Gs alpha. Cell 77:1063-1070.
- Witherow DS and Slepak VZ (2003) A novel kind of G protein heterodimer: the Gβ5-RGS complex. Receptors Channels 9:205–212.
- Ziv NE and Smith SJ (1996) Evidence for a role of dendritic filopodia in synaptogenesis and spine formation. Neuron 17:91-102.

Address correspondence to: Dr. Tohru Kozasa, Department of Pharmacology (M/C 868), University of Illinois at Chicago, 835 South Wolcott Avenue, Chicago, IL 60612. E-mail: tkozas@uic.edu

