

Coupling between the N- and C-Terminal Domains Influences Transducin- α Intrinsic GDP/GTP Exchange[†]

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ABSTRACT: The N-terminal regions of the heterotrimeric G-protein α -subunits represent one of the major G $\beta\gamma$ contact sites and have been implicated in an interaction with G-protein-coupled receptors. To probe the role of the N-terminal domain of transducin- α in G-protein function, a chimeric Gt α subunit with the 31 N-terminal Gt α residues replaced by the corresponding 42 residues of Gs α (Ns-Gt α) has been examined for the interaction with light-activated rhodopsin (R*). Gt α displayed a somewhat higher R*-stimulated rate of GTP γ S binding relative to Ns-Gt α , suggesting modest involvement of the Gt α N-terminal sequence in recognition of the receptor. However, the intrinsic rate of nucleotide exchange in Ns-Gt α was significantly faster ($k_{app} = 0.014 \text{ min}^{-1}$) than that in Gt α ($k_{app} = 0.0013 \text{ min}^{-1}$) as judged by the GTP γ S binding rates. Substitution of 42 N-terminal residues of Gs α by the Gt α residues in a reciprocal chimera, Nt-Gs α , had an opposite effect—noticeable reduction in the intrinsic GTP γ S-binding rate ($k_{app} = 0.0075 \text{ min}^{-1}$) in comparison with Gs α ($k_{app} = 0.028 \text{ min}^{-1}$). Residue Val30 (His41 in Gs α) within the N-terminal region of Gt α interacts with the C-terminal residue, Ile339. To test the hypothesis that observed changes in the intrinsic nucleotide exchange rate in chimeric G α subunits might be attributed to this interaction, Gt α Val30His, Gt α Ile339Ala, and Ns-Gt α His41Val mutants have been made and analyzed for basal GTP γ S binding. Gt α Val30His and Gt α Ile339Ala had increased GTP γ S binding rates ($k_{app} = 0.010$ and 0.009 min^{-1} , respectively), whereas Ns-Gt α His41Val had a decreased GTP γ S binding rate ($k_{app} = 0.0011 \text{ min}^{-1}$) relative to their parent proteins. These results suggest that the coupling between the N-terminal and C-terminal domains of Gt α is important for maintaining a low nucleotide exchange rate in unstimulated transducin.

The visual transduction cascade in vertebrates is a classical G-protein signaling pathway with a characteristic low noise and high gain signal amplification. In the dark, the rate of basal GDP–GTP exchange on photoreceptor G-protein transducin (Gt $\alpha\beta\gamma$)¹ is very slow (10^{-6} s^{-1}). Photoexcited rhodopsin (R*) accelerates the exchange rate up to 10^3 s^{-1} . The key rate-limiting step catalyzed by R* is GDP release. GTP binding to the empty nucleotide pocket on Gt α is driven by conformational changes that it causes followed by dissociation of Gt α from Gt $\beta\gamma$ and R* (1, 2). Extensive biochemical studies coupled with the solution of crystal structures of transducin have provided a basis for modeling the mechanisms of R*-induced Gt activation (3–6). The lipid modifications, heterogeneous acylation at the Gt α N-terminus and farnesylation of the G γ C-terminus, suggest a presumable orientation of the transducin molecule on the photoreceptor disk membrane (5). The main R* interaction sites, the C-terminus (Gt α -340–350) and α 4- β 6 loop (aa 305–315),

are localized on the receptor surface of Gt α that faces the membrane. The key receptor recognition determinant is the Gt α C-terminus. An original finding that ADP-ribosylation of Gt α Cys347 by pertussis toxin uncouples Gt from R* (7, 8) has been supported and extended by mutational and synthetic peptide analyses (9–11). Binding of R* to Gt α -340–350 and the Gt α α 4- β 6 loop at the membrane surface is likely to trigger conformational changes of Gt α that are transmitted via the α 5 helix and the β 6 sheet to the β 6- α 5 loop. The Gt α β 6- α 5 loop contains the guanine ring binding residues, and GDP release occurs when these residues are “disturbed” by receptor binding (5, 6). Gt $\beta\gamma$ is absolutely required for effective activation of Gt. Direct interaction of R* with Gt $\beta\gamma$ (12, 13) may participate in Gt activation by conformationally altering the switch I/switch II region via Gt β /Gt α contacts and facilitating release of GDP (6).

The role of the N-terminal region of Gt α in the interaction with R* is not fully understood. The N-terminus constitutes one of the two Gt α /Gt $\beta\gamma$ interaction interfaces. The N-terminal acylation (myristoylation) contributes to the membrane attachment and stability of the Gt $\alpha\beta\gamma$ complex on the membrane, which is essential for Gt activation (14). Also, in all probability, the lipid insertion into the membrane brings the N-terminus close to intracellular loops of R*. However, it is not clear whether the N-terminal domain directly interacts with R*. A synthetic peptide corresponding to Gt α -8–23 competed with Gt α for binding to R* in the MII

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¹ Abbreviations: Gt α , rod G-protein (transducin) α -subunit; Gt $\beta\gamma$, transducin $\beta\gamma$ subunits; R*, light-activated (bleached) rhodopsin; ROS, rod outer segment(s); uROS, urea-stripped ROS membranes; GTP γ S, guanosine 5'-O-(3-thiotriphosphate).

stabilization assays. But unlike Gt α -340–350, Gt α -8–23 was unable to mimic Gt $\alpha\beta\gamma$ effects on MII formation (11). Ala-scanning mutational analysis of Gt α revealed defects of R* activation only in those Gt α N-terminal mutants that had substitutions of the Gt β contact residues (15). In addition to a potential role in the interaction with R*, the N-terminal domain of Gt α may be involved in maintaining a low basal GDP/GTP exchange rate on Gt α . Loss of interactions between the N- and C-terminal regions was thought to lead to decreased affinity of truncated Go α and Gi α for GDP (16, 17).

In this study, we examined roles of the N-terminal region in intrinsic GDP/GTP exchange and in Gt α activation by R* using chimeric Gs α /Gti α proteins containing the N-terminal domains of Gt α or Gs α . Chimeras between Gti α and Gs α were designed because Gs α showed no appreciable interaction with the visual receptor.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials. [³⁵S]GTP γ S (1160 Ci/mmol) was purchased from Amersham Pharmacia Biotech. Restriction enzymes were from New England Biolabs. T4 DNA ligase was from Boehringer Mannheim. Cloned Pfu DNA polymerase was from Stratagene. TPCCK-treated trypsin was from Worthington Biochemical Corp. All other chemicals were from Sigma or Fisher. Bovine ROS membranes were prepared as previously described (18). Urea-washed ROS membranes (uROS) were prepared according to the protocol in Yamanaka et al. (19). Gt $\beta\gamma$ was purified according to Kleuss et al. (20).

Cloning and Site-Directed Mutagenesis of Chimeric Gti α and Gs α . Chimeric Gti α subunit, Ns-Gti α , with the 31 N-terminal Gt α residues replaced by the corresponding 42 residues of Gs α was made using the pHis6-Gs α vector for expression of Gs α (21) as a template in the first round of PCR amplification. The PCR reaction included a forward primer carrying a *Nco*I site with a start codon for Gs α cDNA and a reverse primer coding for the sequence Gs α -37–42 linked to Gt α -32–39. The PCR product was then used as a forward primer in a second round of PCR amplification with the vector for expression of Gt α /Gi α ₁ chimera 8 (pHis6-Gti α) as a template (22). A reverse primer contained a *Bam*HI site overlapping codons for residues Gt α -207–209. The PCR product was digested with *Nco*I and *Bam*HI and subcloned into pHis6-Gti α . Chimeric Gs α 's with 42 N-terminal residues of Gs α substituted by the 31 N-terminal Gt α residues, Nt-Gs α and Nt-Gs α -Ct, were generated using the pHis6-Gti α vector as a template in the first PCR round. A forward primer carried a *Nco*I site with a start codon for Gti α cDNA and a reverse primer coding for the sequence Gt α -25–31 linked to Gs α -43–49. The PCR product was paired with a reverse primer containing a *Hind*III site and a stop codon of Gs α in a second round of PCR amplification with pHis6-Gs α as a template. The PCR product was then cut with *Nco*I and *Bgl*II (a *Bgl*II site overlaps codons for residues Gs α -294–296) and ligated to the large *Nco*I/*Bgl*II fragments of pHis6-Gs α and pHis6-Gs α -Ct (23). Similar two-round PCR procedures were utilized to make mutant proteins. Gti α mutants, Val30Ala and Val30His, were obtained using pHis6-Gti α as a template, a forward primer with a *Nco*I site, and reverse primers coding for these mutations in the first PCR round. The PCR products were

used as forward primers in the second PCR round on the same template with the reverse primer containing a *Bam*HI site. Mutants Ns-Gti α His41Val and Gs α His41Val were generated using an analogous two-step PCR mutagenesis with pHis6-Ns-Gti α and pHis6-Gs α as templates, respectively. The Gti α mutations Ile339Ala and Ile339His were introduced using a one-step PCR procedure with a forward primer containing a *Bam*HI site and reverse primers carrying mutations, a *Hind*III site, and a stop codon. Sequences of all chimeras and mutants were confirmed by automated DNA sequencing at the University of Iowa DNA Core Facility.

Typically, for protein expression, 500 mL of 2 \times TY media was inoculated with 10 mL of overnight culture of BL21-(DE3) cells transformed with chimeric or mutant G α DNAs. At A_{600} = 0.8, expression was induced by 30 μ M IPTG for 3 h at 24 °C. Cells were pelleted and kept frozen at –70 °C. Purifications of recombinant proteins were carried out as described (22, 24). Yields for 80–90% pure G α 's were normally 3–5 mg.

Trypsin Protection Assay. Mutant G α 's (20 μ M) were incubated for 5 min at 25 °C in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 8.0) containing 130 mM NaCl, 50 μ M GDP, and 5 mM MgSO₄. Where indicated, 10 mM NaF and 30 μ M AlCl₃ were included in the buffer. Trypsin digestions were performed with 25 μ g of trypsin/mL for 15 min at 25 °C and stopped with simultaneous addition of SDS sample buffer and heat treatment (100 °C, 5 min).

GTP γ S Binding Assay. G α 's (1 μ M) alone or mixed with 2 μ M Gt $\beta\gamma$ or 2 μ M Gt $\beta\gamma$ and uROS membranes (100 nM rhodopsin for Gti α and its mutants; 300 nM for Gs α and its mutants) in 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) buffer containing 130 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgSO₄, and 10 mM dithiothreitol (buffer A) were incubated for 3 min at 25 °C. Binding reactions were started by addition of 5 μ M [³⁵S]GTP γ S (1 Ci/mmol) in buffer A. Aliquots of 50 μ L were withdrawn at the indicated times, mixed with 1 mL of ice-cold buffer A, and passed through Whatman cellulose nitrate filters (0.45 μ m). The filters were then washed 2 times with buffer A (2 mL, ice-cold). Upon complete dissolution in a 3a70B cocktail, the filters were counted in a liquid scintillation counter. The k_{app} values for the binding reactions were calculated by fitting the data to the equation: GTP γ S bound (% bound) = 100 \times (1 – e^{– k_{app} t}). A linear regression fit was used when less than 25% of total G α or mutant bound GTP γ S during the time course of binding reactions, and the k_{app} values were calculated as slopes of linear functions. The results are expressed as the mean \pm SE of triplicate measurements.

RESULTS

Analysis of the Gti α /Gs α Chimera Containing the Gs α N-Terminus. The N-terminal region of Gs α (42 aa) was replaced into Gt α /Gi α ₁ chimeric protein, Chi8 (22). Chi8 contains greater than 90% of the Gt α sequence including the Gt α N-terminal half. For clarity, Chi8 is termed Gti α throughout the text. Gti α is fully capable of interaction with Gt $\beta\gamma$ and R* (22, 24). As expected, Gti α showed a low spontaneous rate of GDP release as assessed in GTP γ S binding assays (k_{app} = 0.0013 min^{–1}) (Figure 1A, Table 1). The basal rate of GTP γ S binding to Gti α was practically unaffected in the presence of Gt $\beta\gamma$ (k_{app} = 0.002 min^{–1}), but the combined addition of uROS membranes (100 nM

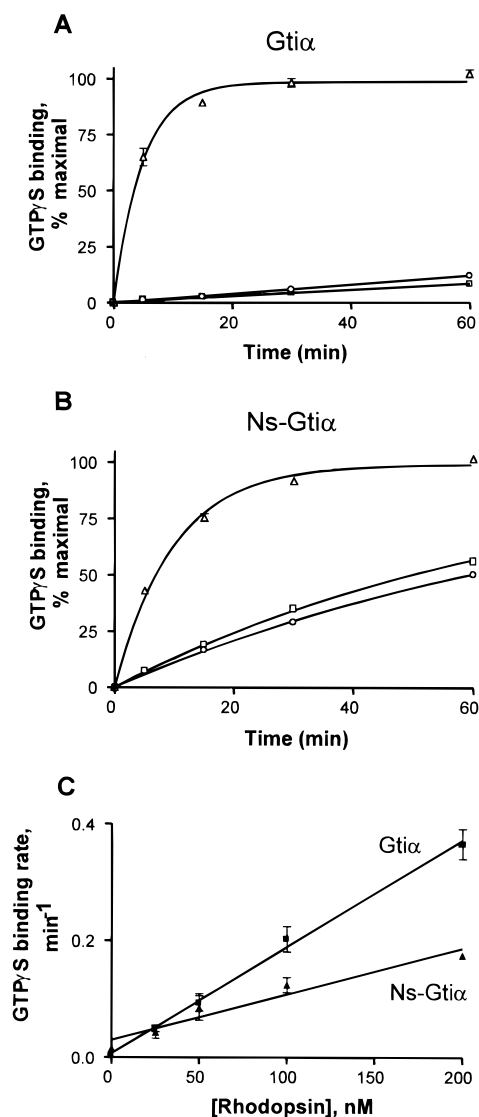


FIGURE 1: Kinetics of GTP γ S binding to Gt α and Ns-Gt α . The binding of GTP γ S to Gt α (A) and Ns-Gt α (B) (1 μ M each) alone (\square) or mixed with 2 μ M Gt $\beta\gamma$ (\circ) or 2 μ M Gt $\beta\gamma$ and uROS membranes (100 nM rhodopsin) (Δ) was initiated by addition of 5 μ M [3 S]GTP γ S. G α -bound GTP γ S was counted by withdrawing aliquots at the indicated times and passing them through Whatman cellulose nitrate filters (0.45 μ m). GTP γ S binding is expressed as percent of maximal, calculated based on protein concentration. The calculated k_{app} values (min^{-1}) are the following: (A) 0.0013 ± 0.0001 (\square), 0.0020 ± 0.0001 (\circ), 0.21 ± 0.01 (Δ); (B) 0.014 ± 0.001 (\square), 0.012 ± 0.001 (\circ), 0.10 ± 0.01 (Δ). (C) The binding of GTP γ S to Gt α (\blacksquare) or Ns-Gt α (\blacktriangle) (1 μ M each) was measured in the presence of 2 μ M Gt $\beta\gamma$ and ROS membranes containing the indicated concentrations of rhodopsin. The apparent GTP γ S binding rates are plotted as functions of R* concentration. The apparent activation constants ($10^{-6} \text{ M}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) calculated as slopes of the linear fits are 1.8 ± 0.1 (\blacksquare) and 0.8 ± 0.1 (\blacktriangle).

R*) and Gt $\beta\gamma$ (2 μ M) to Gt α resulted in a large rate increase ($k_{app} = 0.21 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 1A). Expression levels of soluble chimeric G α containing the Gs α N-terminus (Ns-Gt α) were similar to those of Gt α ($\sim 5 \text{ mg/L}$ of culture). The trypsin protection assay demonstrated that Ns-Gt α was capable of undergoing an activation conformational change upon the binding of GDP \cdot AlF $_4^-$ (Figure 2A). In comparison to Gt α , Ns-Gt α demonstrated a significant (~ 10 -fold) increase in the basal rate of GTP γ S binding ($k_{app} = 0.014 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 1B, Table 1). Importantly, this increased basal rate in Ns-

Table 1: GTP γ S Binding Properties of Chimeric and Mutant G α Subunits

chimera or mutant	k_{app} values, min^{-1}		
	basal	+Gt $\beta\gamma$	+Gt $\beta\gamma$, R*
Gt α	0.0013 ± 0.0001	0.0020 ± 0.0001	0.21 ± 0.01
Gs α	0.028 ± 0.001	0.0055 ± 0.0006	0.0075 ± 0.0005
Ns-Gt α	0.014 ± 0.001	0.012 ± 0.001	0.10 ± 0.01
Nt-Gs α	0.0075 ± 0.0005	0.0065 ± 0.0005	0.018 ± 0.001
Gs α -Ct	0.020 ± 0.001	0.0045 ± 0.0005	0.12 ± 0.01
Nt-Gs α -Ct	0.0085 ± 0.001	0.0075 ± 0.0005	0.027 ± 0.002
Gt α Val30His	0.010 ± 0.002	0.015 ± 0.002	0.17 ± 0.01
Gt α Val30Ala	0.003 ± 0.0001	0.004 ± 0.0002	0.16 ± 0.02
Gt α Ile339Ala	0.009 ± 0.0005	0.014 ± 0.001	0.33 ± 0.04
Ns-Gt α His41 Val	0.0011 ± 0.0001	0.0014 ± 0.0001	0.11 ± 0.01
Gs α His41 Val	0.012 ± 0.001	0.0015 ± 0.0002	0.002 ± 0.0002

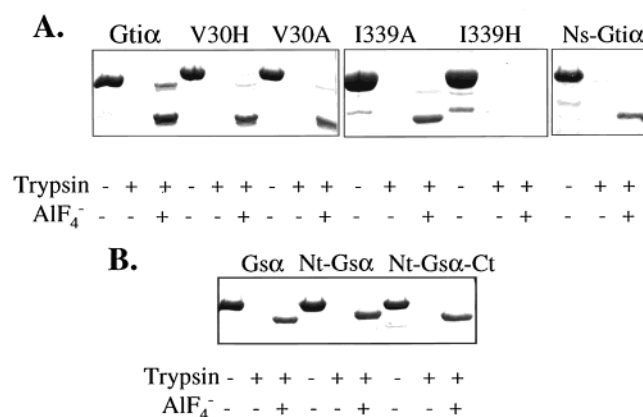


FIGURE 2: Trypsin protection test for Gt α , mutant Gt α , Ns-Gt α (A) and for Gs α , Nt-Gs α , Nt-Gs α -Ct (B). SDS-polycrylamide gel (12%) stained with Coomassie Blue. Gt α , the Val30His, Val30Ala, Ile339Ala, and Ile339His mutants of Gt α , and Ns-Gt α (A) or Gs α , Nt-Gs α , and Nt-Gs α -Ct (B) (20 μ M each) were treated with trypsin (25 μ g/mL) for 15 min at 25 $^{\circ}$ C in the absence or presence of 30 μ M AlCl $_3$ /10 mM NaF.

Gt α was not notably inhibited by addition of Gt $\beta\gamma$ ($k_{app} = 0.012 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 1B), which is known to suppress a relatively high intrinsic GDP/GTP exchange of Gs α (25). The lack of Gt $\beta\gamma$ effect was not due to potential disruption of the G α /Gt $\beta\gamma$ interaction, since together with R* Gt $\beta\gamma$ enhanced the GTP γ S binding rate of Ns-Gt α ($k_{app} = 0.10 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 1B). Intermediate concentrations of Gt $\beta\gamma$ (0.25 μ M) in the presence of uROS produced proportional acceleration in GTP γ S binding rates of Gt α ($k_{app} = 0.036 \text{ min}^{-1}$) and Ns-Gt α ($k_{app} = 0.05 \text{ min}^{-1}$), further pointing to the intact Ns-Gt α /Gt $\beta\gamma$ interaction. To compare the relative abilities of Gt α and Ns-Gt α to interact with R*, the apparent rates of GTP γ S binding to these proteins were determined at varying concentrations of ROS membranes (Figure 1C). The GTP γ S binding rates were linear functions of rhodopsin concentration, and the apparent activation constants for Gt α and Ns-Gt α calculated as slopes in Figure 1C were 1.8×10^6 and $0.8 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$, respectively. The lower degree of activation of Ns-Gt α by R* in comparison to Gt α suggests that the N-terminal region of Gt α may contain sequence-specific determinants for receptor recognition.

Analysis of Chimeric Gs α Containing the Gt α N-Terminus. A reciprocal to the Ns-Gt α chimera, Nt-Gs α , has been made to further investigate the role of the Gt α N-terminus in the interaction with R*. Second, Nt-Gs α was utilized to determine if the N-terminus of Gt α can render Gs α with the low

intrinsic GDP/GTP exchange rate characteristic for transducin. The trypsin protection assay confirmed the ability of Nt-Gs α to assume an active conformation upon binding of GDP•AlF $_4^-$ (Figure 2B). Consistent with previous reports, Gs α had a relatively high spontaneous GTP γ S binding rate ($k_{app} = 0.028 \text{ min}^{-1}$), which was sensitive to the presence of Gt $\beta\gamma$ (Table 1). Addition of a 2-fold molar excess of Gt $\beta\gamma$ inhibited the rate of GTP γ S binding to Gs α by ~ 5 -fold ($k_{app} = 0.0055 \text{ min}^{-1}$). As we demonstrated recently (23), R* and Gt $\beta\gamma$ together only slightly stimulated the Gs α GTP γ S binding rate ($k_{app} = 0.0075 \text{ min}^{-1}$) over that in the presence of Gt $\beta\gamma$ alone (Table 1). Substitution of 42 N-terminal residues of Gs α by the Gt α residues in Nt-Gs α had decreased the intrinsic GTP γ S binding rate ($k_{app} = 0.0075 \text{ min}^{-1}$) in comparison with Gs α , although this effect was not as strong as the opposite effect in Ns-Gti α (Figure 3A, Table 1). Surprisingly, spontaneous GTP γ S binding to Nt-Gs α was not meaningfully inhibited by Gt $\beta\gamma$ ($k_{app} = 0.0065 \text{ min}^{-1}$). Combined Gt $\beta\gamma$ and R* had a moderate stimulatory effect on Nt-Gs α ($k_{app} = 0.018 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 3A).

To test the possibility that Nt-Gs α may have impaired interaction with Gt $\beta\gamma$, the N-terminus of Gt α was replaced into chimeric Gs α , Gs α -Ct, containing the C-terminus of Gt α , Gt α -340–350 (Nt-Gs α -Ct). Analogously to Gs α , Gs α -Ct has a high intrinsic GDP/GTP exchange rate ($k_{app} = 0.020 \text{ min}^{-1}$), which is suppressed by Gt $\beta\gamma$ (0.0045 min^{-1}) (Figure 3B, Table 1). In contrast to Gs α , R* effectively enhances the nucleotide binding rate of Gs α -Ct in the presence of Gt $\beta\gamma$ ($k_{app} = 0.12 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 3B). Similarly to Nt-Gs α , the basal GTP γ S binding rate of Nt-Gs α -Ct ($k_{app} = 0.0085 \text{ min}^{-1}$) was insensitive to Gt $\beta\gamma$ ($k_{app} = 0.0075 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 3C, Table 1). R* and Gt $\beta\gamma$ accelerated the kinetics of GTP γ S binding to Nt-Gs α -Ct ($k_{app} = 0.027 \text{ min}^{-1}$) to a lesser extent than it was seen with Gs α -Ct (Figure 3). This result suggests that chimeric Gs α 's with the N-terminal domain of Gt α , Nt-Gs α and Nt-Gs α -Ct, are likely defective in their interaction with Gt $\beta\gamma$. Alternatively, the Nt- and Ct-terminal domains in Nt-Gs α -Ct are not optimally aligned with the corresponding binding sites in R*.

GTP γ S Binding Properties of Mutant Gti α with Substitutions of Val30 and Ile339. Crystal structures of Gt α suggest a plausible mechanism to explain the increase of intrinsic GTP γ S binding rate in Ns-Gti α . Gt α Val30 makes a contact with Ile339 at the C-end of the $\alpha 5$ helix. Such an interaction may increase Gt α affinity for GDP via stabilization of the $\alpha 5$ helix and, consequently, the $\beta 6$ - $\alpha 5$ loop. Gs α has a His residue (His41) at the corresponding position which might interfere with the N- and C-terminal coupling in Ns-Gti α . The Gti α Val30His, Val30Ala, Ile339His, and Ile339Ala mutants have been generated to probe the role of the interaction between Val30 and Ile339 in the control of intrinsic GDP/GTP exchange of Gt α . Gti α Val30His, Val30Ala, and Ile339Ala were functionally expressed in *E. coli* with yields similar to Gti α . The Ile339His mutation led to expression of inactive protein, which failed the trypsin protection test. The trypsin protection test for the Gti α Val30His, Val30Ala, Ile339Ala, and Ile339His mutants is shown in Figure 2A. Analysis of basal GTP γ S binding demonstrated that the Val30His and Ile339Ala mutants had significantly increased GTP γ S binding rates (k_{app} values of 0.010 and 0.009 min^{-1} , respectively) in comparison with Gti α (Figure 4, Table 1). The Gti α Val30Ala mutation had

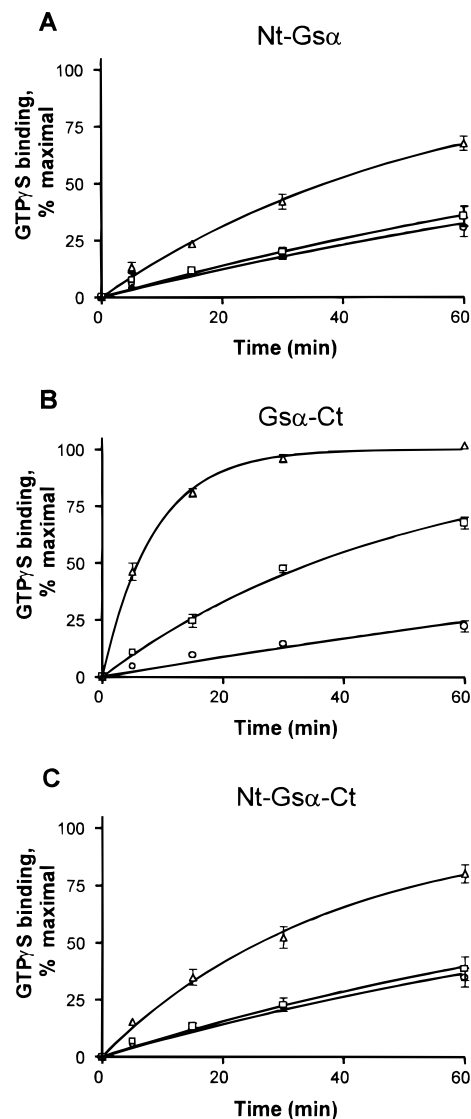


FIGURE 3: Time courses of GTP γ S binding to Nt-Gs α , Gs α -Ct, and Nt-Gs α -Ct. The binding of GTP γ S to Nt-Gs α (A), Gs α -Ct (B), or Nt-Gs α -Ct (C) (1 μ M each) alone (□) or mixed with 2 μ M Gt $\beta\gamma$ (○) or 2 μ M Gt $\beta\gamma$ and uROS membranes (300 nM rhodopsin) (Δ) was initiated by addition of 5 μ M [35 S]GTP γ S. Gt α -bound GTP γ S was counted by withdrawing aliquots at the indicated times and passing them through Whatman cellulose nitrate filters (0.45 μ m). GTP γ S binding is expressed as percent of maximal, calculated based on protein concentration. The calculated k_{app} values (min^{-1}) are as follows: (A) 0.0075 ± 0.0005 (□), 0.0065 ± 0.0005 (○), 0.018 ± 0.001 (Δ); (B) 0.020 ± 0.001 (□), 0.0045 ± 0.0005 (○), 0.12 ± 0.01 (Δ); (C) 0.0085 ± 0.001 (□), 0.0075 ± 0.0005 (○), 0.027 ± 0.002 (Δ).

a more modest effect ($k_{app} = 0.003 \text{ min}^{-1}$) (Figure 4). The basal GTP γ S binding rates of all three Gti α mutants were slightly increased in the presence of Gt $\beta\gamma$ and potentially stimulated with the joint addition of Gt $\beta\gamma$ and R* (Figure 4).

GTP γ S Binding Properties of His41Val Mutants of Ns-Gti α and Gs α . If the increase of intrinsic GTP γ S binding rate in Ns-Gti α is caused by the His41 residue, the His41Val mutation in Ns-Gti α would be expected to reverse this effect. Indeed, the Ns-Gti α His41Val mutant displayed a large reduction in the intrinsic GTP γ S binding rate ($k_{app} = 0.0011 \text{ min}^{-1}$) relative to Ns-Gti α (Figure 4, Table 1). The R*-stimulated GTP γ S binding rate for Ns-Gti α His41Val was similar to that for Ns-Gti α (Figure 4). In the crystal structure

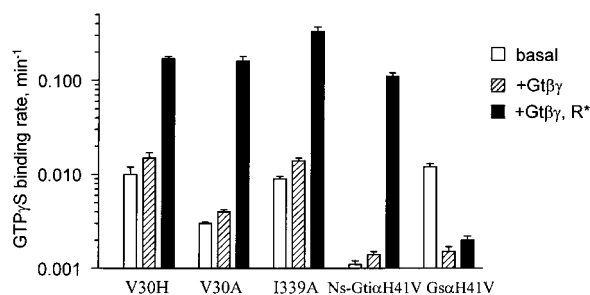


FIGURE 4: GTP γ S binding rates of Gt α and Gs α mutants. The binding of GTP γ S to the Gt α mutants Val30His, Val30Ala, and Ile339Ala and to the His41Val mutants of Ns-Gt α and Gs α was measured, and the k_{app} values were calculated as described under Experimental Procedures.

of Gs α , the corresponding Gt α Val30 and Ile339 pair of residues, His41 and Ile383, also contact each other (26). To probe the role of this contact in Gs α , we substituted His41 by Val. The Gs α His41Val mutant showed only a relatively small decrease in the basal GTP γ S binding rate ($k_{app} = 0.012$ min⁻¹) against Gs α ($k_{app} = 0.028$ min⁻¹), which can be further suppressed by addition of Gt $\beta\gamma$ ($k_{app} = 0.0015$ min⁻¹) (Figure 4, Table 1).

DISCUSSION

In vertebrate rod photoreceptors, the visual G-protein transducin couples light activation of rhodopsin to stimulation of cGMP phosphodiesterase (1, 2). Unlike Gi α or Gs α , Gt α has a distinctively slow basal (unstimulated) rate of GDP/GTP exchange, which is essential for low noise signaling in photoreceptors. Another key attribute of Gt is its ability of very rapid activation by R*. During the time of photoreponse (~200 ms), a single molecule of R* may activate up to several hundred molecules of Gt (1), ensuring high signal amplification and, thus, high sensitivity of photoreceptors. What molecular features of Gt α provide for its high affinity to GDP in the absence of R*? The guanine nucleotide is bound in a deep cleft between the helical and p21ras-like domains of Gt α (3). Although the helical domain contributes very little to direct binding of GDP, it occludes guanine nucleotide from solvent and serves as a lid that prevents exit of GDP or GTP. The interdomain interactions, Asp146–Lys266 and Arg174–Glu39, which are preserved in both GDP- and GTP-bound conformations of Gt α (3, 4), may help to secure the nucleotide in the cleft. Similar interdomain contacts are present in Gi α_1 •GTP γ S, but are lost in the GDP-bound conformation of Gi α_1 (27, 28). This may in part account for the relatively low affinity of Gi α for the nucleotide (28). The p21ras-like domain is a major contributor to the nucleotide binding energy. Five conserved motifs (G1–G5) from the p21ras-like domain and the linker 2 region participate in nucleotide binding (3, 29). Two of these motifs, G2 and G3, are localized within the conformation-sensitive switch regions I and II, respectively. The greater flexibility of the GDP binding regions and the low affinity of the GDP-bound Gs α , Gi α , and Go α for Mg²⁺ may explain their high intrinsic GDP dissociation rates (29). It is likely that Gt $\beta\gamma$ inhibits the rate of GDP release by interacting with and stabilizing the G α switch I and II regions. In contrast, the GDP binding regions in Gt α , primarily the switch regions, are probably more stable, leading to high affinity for GDP. Therefore, the already slow GDP dissociation rate

of Gt α is seemingly unaffected by addition of Gt $\beta\gamma$. Apparently, the activational role of R* is to destabilize the GDP binding sites on Gt α , particularly the G5 site (the β 6– α 5 loop) through binding to the Gt α C-terminus/ α 4– β 6 loop, and the G2/G3 regions via R*/Gt $\beta\gamma$ interaction. In addition to the C-terminus (Gt α -340–350) and the α 4– β 6 loop, the N-terminal region of Gt α is thought to be involved in an interaction with R* (11). Likewise, the N-termini of Go α and Gq α are believed to be important for G α /receptor coupling (13, 30). This study supports a rather modest role of the 31 N-terminal residues of Gt α in the specific recognition of R*. Ns-Gt α containing the Gs α N-terminus showed a lower rate of R*-induced GTP γ S binding in comparison to Gt α . If interaction between the N-terminus of Gt α and R* is comprised of several weak contacts, our results would be consistent with the mutational analysis of Gt α , which identified no N-terminal mutants outside the Gt $\beta\gamma$ contact residues with significantly impaired R* stimulation (15). To further the conclusion that the Gt α N-terminal sequence participates in the interaction with R*, we have generated and tested chimeric Gs α protein containing the Gt α N-terminal region, Nt-Gs α . Nt-Gs α was capable of weak stimulation by R*. Unfortunately, this chimera apparently had impairment of Gt $\beta\gamma$ binding, precluding more accurate examination of the interaction with R*. Nonetheless, the role of the N-terminal sequence of Gt α in interaction with R* might be more essential than it is implied by our results. All tested chimeric proteins had the His6-tag at the N-terminus instead of native myristoyl modification. The lipid insertion into the membrane might be required to fully engage the N-terminal sequence of Gt α in an interaction with R*.

Results of this study highlight a different role of the Gt α N-terminus—its involvement in regulation of the low rate of Gt α intrinsic GDP/GTP exchange. We found that replacement of the Gt α N-terminus in Gt α by the N-terminal domain from Gs α resulted in a substantial increase in the basal GTP γ S binding rate. Furthermore, a single amino acid residue at the position corresponding to Gt α Val30 (His41 in Gs α) appears to be primarily responsible for the observed effect. Mutants of Gt α with single substitutions of Val30 by His and Ala exhibited ~8- and 2-fold increases in the basal GTP γ S binding rate, respectively. The basal rates of Ns-Gt α and the Gt α Val30 mutants were not inhibited by Gt $\beta\gamma$. The crystal structures of Gt α show the Val residue interacting with the C-terminal Ile339 at the C-terminal end of the α 5 helix (3, 4). The Gt α Ile339Ala mutant also displayed a significantly higher basal GTP γ S binding rate. Thus, the interaction between Val30 and Ile339 is likely to stabilize the overall GDP-bound conformation of Gt α , and especially the α 5 helix and the guanine binding β 6– α 5 loop. Destabilization of the β 6– α 5 loop in the Val30 and Ile339 mutants is consistent with the lack of the Gt $\beta\gamma$ inhibitory effect on the enhanced intrinsic GTP γ S binding rates since binding of Gt $\beta\gamma$ is not expected to directly affect this region of Gt α . A similar mechanism involving stabilization of the α 5 helix through interactions with the N-terminal domain has been proposed to explain decreased apparent affinities for GDP seen in C-terminally truncated Go α and Gi α (16, 17). Truncation of residues corresponding to Gt α ³³⁸Ile-Ile³⁴⁰ was necessary to yield the low-GDP-affinity phenotype (17). In Gs α , His41 also makes a van der Waals contact with the C-terminal Ile residue (26). This contact appears to

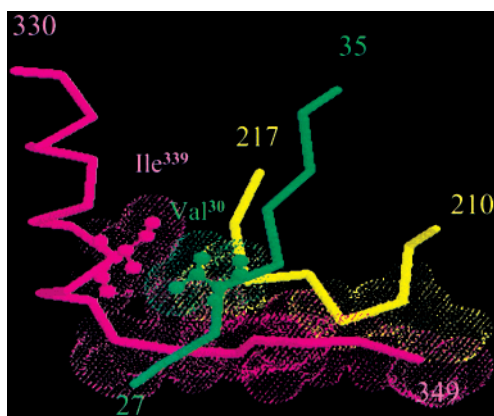


FIGURE 5: A two-site interaction of the Gt α C-terminus with the α 2- β 4 loop and the N-terminal region. A view of the N-terminal region, Gt α -27–35 (green), the α 2- β 4 loop (yellow), and the C-terminus (magenta) based on the structure of Gt α GTP γ S (3). The contact residues, Val30 and Ile339, are shown in “ball-and-stick” representation. The α 2- β 4/C-terminus linkage is formed by van der Waals contacts between residues 212, 213, and 215 from the α 2- β 4 loop and C-terminal residues 343–349. The image was generated using RasMol (v.2.6).

be weaker than the hydrophobic interaction between Val and Ile, possibly explaining a relatively small increase in affinity for GDP caused by the His41Val mutation of Gs α . Interestingly, replacement of the 42 N-terminal residues of Gs α by the Gt α residues led to a more significant increase in GDP affinity.

We speculate that in addition to the Val-Ile contact, which is present in all three G α subunits (Gt α , Gi α , and Go α), a second interaction between more distal C-terminal residues, Gt α -343–349, and the switch II residues, Gt α -212–215, helps to maintain the lower basal Gt α GDP/GTP exchange rate. The latter interaction was first identified in one of the Gt α GTP γ S crystal structures (3). Recently, we have shown that this interaction is likely present in the GDP-bound Gt α as well (23). Such an interaction would be weak, if possible at all, in Go α as it contains the Asp residue at the position occupied by Gt α Gly213. The Asp side chain at this position would cause multiple steric hindrances with the C-terminal residues, thus disrupting a potential interaction (23). The lack of stable interactions between switch II and the C-terminus in Go α is supported by a notably smaller effect of the C-terminal 10 residue deletion vs the 14 residue deletion on Go α affinity for GDP (16).

A view of the interacting sites, Val30 with adjacent residues, the α 2- β 4 loop, and the C-terminus, is shown in Figure 5. The coordinates of the Gt α ·GTP γ S structure were used as the C-terminal residues are not resolved in the Gt α ·GDP structure. However, positions of Val30 and the contact residues, Glu212, Gly213, and Thr215, from the α 2- β 4 loop are almost identical in Gt α ·GTP γ S and Gt α ·GDP (3, 4). The two-site interaction of the Gt α C-terminus with switch II and the N-terminal Val30 perhaps explains a larger GDP affinity decrease in the Gti α Val30His mutant relative to the Gti α Val30Ala mutant. The Val30Ala mutant may have weakened or lost contact with Ile339, whereas the larger His side chain may also disrupt the switch II/C-terminus contacts by pushing the C-terminus away from the interaction site. Overall, our data suggest that the stabilizing interaction between the N- and C-terminal regions of Gt α together with

the switch II/C-terminus coupling play important roles in maintaining a uniquely low rate of Gt α intrinsic GDP/GTP exchange.

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