

Review

# Structural determinants involved in the activation and regulation of G protein-coupled receptors: lessons from the $\alpha 1$ -adrenergic receptor subtypes

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## Abstract

The aim of a large number of studies on G protein-coupled receptors was centered on understanding the structural basis of their main functional properties. Here, we will briefly review the results obtained on the  $\alpha 1$ -adrenergic receptor subtypes belonging to the rhodopsin-like family of receptors. These findings contribute, on the one hand, to further understand the molecular basis of adrenergic transmission and, on the other, to provide some generalities on the structure-functional relationship of G protein-coupled receptors.

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## 1. Introduction

G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR), the largest group of membrane-bound receptors, are the target in the human body for a large percentage of clinically used drugs (30% of the top 50 sellers in 2001). All GPCR sequences share the presence of seven hydrophobic regions forming a bundle of transmembrane  $\alpha$ -helices connected by alternating intracellular (i) and extracellular (e) hydrophilic loops (Fig. 1). The mammalian GPCRs can be divided in three main classes according to sequence homology: class I or rhodopsin-like (which is the largest subfamily), class II or secretin-like, and class III or glutamate-metabotropic-like. Within class I, the adrenergic receptors (AR) mediate the functional effects of epinephrine and norepinephrine. The AR family includes nine different gene products: three  $\beta$  ( $\beta 1$ ,  $\beta 2$ ,  $\beta 3$ ), three  $\alpha 2$  ( $\alpha 2A$ ,  $\alpha 2B$ ,  $\alpha 2C$ ) and three  $\alpha 1$  ( $\alpha 1a$ ,  $\alpha 1b$ ,  $\alpha 1d$ ) receptor subtypes.

GPCRs share three main "classical" functional properties: 1) they discriminate and bind the appropriate ligands; 2) they

activate specific G protein-effector systems; 3) their functional response can be dynamically regulated resulting in the attenuation of receptor-mediated effects (desensitization). Beyond these classical features, a number of additional functional paradigms of GPCRs have recently emerged including constitutive activity, oligomerization and their interaction with a variety of signaling proteins.

The focus of much investigation has centered on understanding the structural basis for each of these functional properties. We have performed an extensive mutational analysis of the  $\alpha 1$ -AR subtypes aiming, on the one hand, at elucidating the molecular basis of adrenergic transmission and, on the other, at providing some generalities on the structure-functional relationship of GPCRs belonging to the rhodopsin-like subfamily.

## 2. Molecular modelling of the $\alpha 1$ -AR subtypes

To probe the structure-functional relationships of GPCRs several useful molecular models of these membrane proteins were built using different methods. To investigate the potential intramolecular motions underlying different functional states of the  $\alpha 1$ -AR subtypes, we combined 3-D model build-

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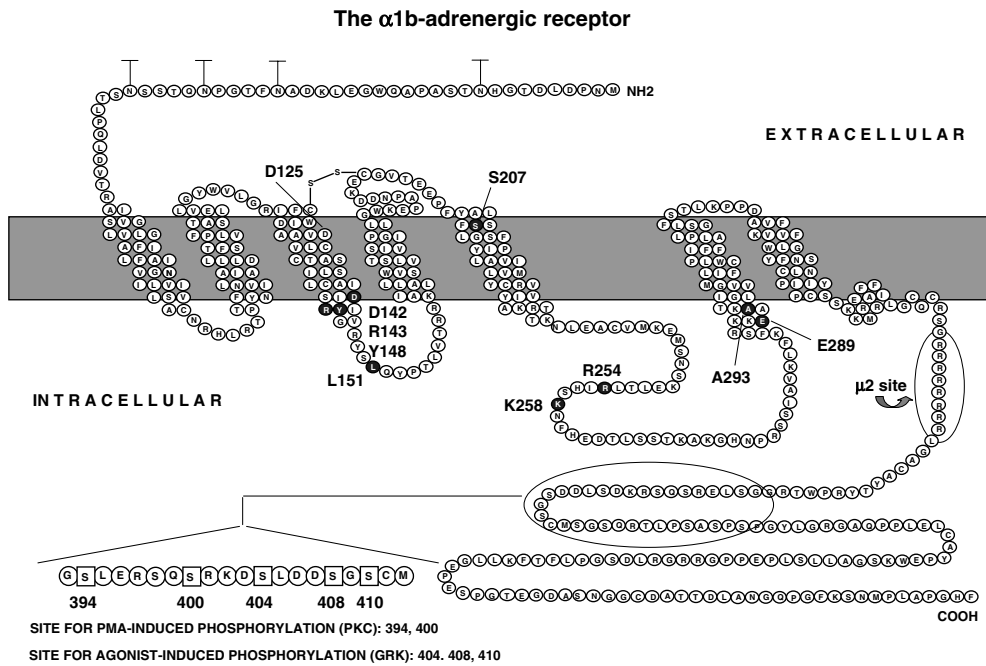


Fig. 1. Topographical model of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR

The sequence of the hamster  $\alpha 1b$ -AR is topographically arranged according to its alignment with the crystal structure of bovine rhodopsin. The four N-linked glycosylation sites of the receptor are indicated with crosses. Key amino acids playing a role in catecholamine binding (D125, S207), receptor activation (D142, R143, E289, A293), coupling to Gq (L151, R254, K258), phosphorylation and interaction with the  $\mu 2$  subunit of the AP2 complex are highlighted.

ing of the receptor structure with computational simulation of receptor dynamics (Fanelli et al., 1998). The first  $\alpha 1$ -AR model was built using an iterative *ab initio* procedure started with a comparative molecular dynamics (MD) study on the  $\alpha$ -helical bundle of seven GPCRs ( $\alpha 1b$ -AR,  $\alpha 2$ -AR,  $\beta 2$ -AR, dopamine D2, serotonin 5-HT1A, muscarinic M1 and the bovine rhodopsin not complexed with retinal). The arrangement of the helices was based on the structural constraints inferred from the analysis of a large number of GPCR sequences (Baldwin et al., 1997). In addition, the model was completed by adding the intracellular and extracellular loops (Fanelli et al., 1998). Recently, another model of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR was built by comparative modeling using the recently determined 2.8Å x-ray structure of rhodopsin (Palczewski et al., 2000) as a template (Fig. 2). The analysis of the MD trajectories was used to compare the structural/dynamic features of functionally different receptor mutants with those of the wild type  $\alpha 1$ -AR subtypes, to predict key residues the mutations of which would either activate or inactivate the receptor and to investigate the potential effects of mutations (Greasley et al., 2002).

### 3. Mutational analysis of the "classical" functional properties of the $\alpha 1$ -AR subtypes

Mutational analysis of several GPCRs has revealed that the  $\alpha$ -helical bundle and the extracellular portions contribute to the formation of the ligand binding site, whereas the amino acid sequences of the intracellular loops appear to mediate the interaction of the receptor with G proteins as well as with a variety of signalling and regulatory proteins (Wess, 1997).

**Ligand binding.** Most GPCRs undergo N-linked glycosylation. Recently it was shown that the V2 vasopressin receptor, the  $\delta$ -opioid receptor and octopus rhodopsin can undergo O-linked glycosylation next to N-linked glycosylation (Petaja-Repo et al., 2000; Nakagawa et al., 2001). The role of N-glycosylation has been studied in a number of GPCRs. For some receptors it has been shown that N-linked glycosylation is important for the expression at the plasma membrane (Rands et al., 1990). However, only in few cases removal of this modification impaired receptor function. The results from our recent study on the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR, in which the four N-linked glycosylation sites were all mutated individually or in different combinations, strongly suggest that all four sites can undergo N-linked glycosylation (Fig. 1). However, mutations of the N-linked glycosylation sites did not have a significant effect on the pharmacological and signaling properties of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR or on its expression at the cell surface (Björklöf et al., 2002). No evidence of O-linked glycosylation was found for the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR.

The molecular interactions of the endogenous catecholamines, epinephrine and norepinephrine, with different AR subtypes has been explored in different studies. Epinephrine and norepinephrine contain a protonated amino group separated from the aromatic catechol ring by a  $\beta$ -hydroxyethyl chain. Mutagenesis studies of the  $\beta 2$ ,  $\alpha 2A$ -AR as well as  $\alpha 1b$ -AR (Cavalli et al., 1996; Hwa et al., 1995 and references herein included) suggested that the amino group of the catecholamines makes an electrostatic interaction with the carboxylate side chain of an aspartate on helix III which is highly conserved in all GPCRs binding amine ligands (Fig. 1). On the other hand, there is evidence that the catechol

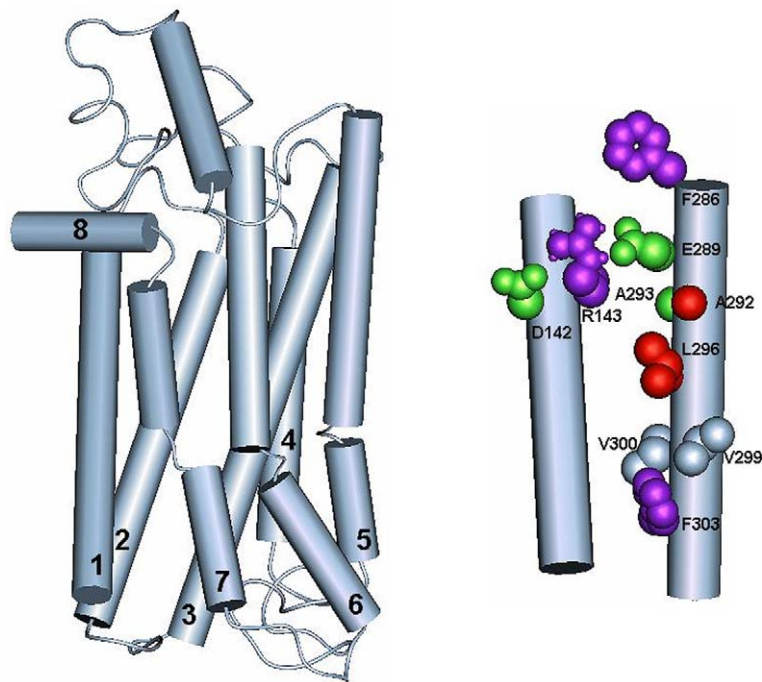


Fig. 2. Homology model of the wild type  $\alpha 1b$ -AR

Comparative modeling and Molecular Dynamic simulations were performed as described in Greasley et al., *Mol Pharm.* 2002. The receptor is seen from a direction parallel to the membrane surface with the extracellular side on the bottom and the intracellular one on the top. The right view displays the amino acids of helices III and VI involved in receptor activation. Van der Waals spheres whose radius has been reduced by 40% depict each side chain. The effect of mutations at each residue is depicted by their colour, with white representing no effect, green being constitutively active, red impaired receptor mediated signalling and violet being either impairing or constitutively activating depending upon the substituent amino acid.

meta- and para-hydroxyl groups interact with serine residues present in helix V of all GPCRs which bind catecholamines with high affinity (Fig. 1). In contrast, very little is known so far about the receptor amino acids which interact with different antagonists as well as about the structural basis underlying receptor selectivity for different ligands.

**Receptor-G protein coupling.** Several studies aimed at identifying the amino acids of different GPCRs involved in G protein coupling at both experimental and theoretical levels (Wess, 1997). However, what has become abundantly clear is that there is no simple sequence determinant that can be attributed to receptor-G protein coupling. In a previous study on chimeric  $\beta 2/\alpha 1b$ -AR, we reported that a stretch of 27 residues of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR (residues 233–259) derived from the N-terminal portion of its i3 loop was sufficient to confer to the  $\beta 2$ -AR the ability to activate the Gq/PLC signaling pathway (Cotecchia et al., 1990). This provided strong evidence that the i3 loop contains the main structural determinants involved in  $\alpha 1b$ -AR coupling to Gq.

A more detailed analysis of the molecular basis of the receptor-Gq coupling was carried on recently combining molecular modeling and experimental mutagenesis of  $\alpha 1b$ -AR (Fanelli et al., 1999). Docking simulations between the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR and Gq heterotrimer led us to suggest that the positive surface of the cytosolic portion of GPCRs could complement a negative surface found on different G protein  $\alpha$ -subunits and thereby play a role in receptor-G protein coupling. In particular, docking solutions between active

forms of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR and the Gq heterotrimer identified a number of cationic residues (R148, R160, R232, R243, R254, K258, K282, and R288) on the cytosolic surface of the receptor as being available to make contact with anionic amino acids in the  $\alpha q$  subunit. Thus, to investigate the role of cationic residues in receptor-G protein coupling, we have mutated all the basic amino acids located in the i1, i2, and i3 loops of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR and investigated the effect of these mutations on receptor mediated production of inositol phosphate. In addition, we have also characterised the effects resulting from mutations of conserved hydrophobic residues in the cytosolic portion of the receptor.

Among the 23 basic amino acids mutated, we found that only mutations of R254 and K258 in the i3 loop (Fig. 1) and of K291 at the cytosolic extension of helix VI markedly impaired the receptor mediated inositol phosphate production (Greasley et al., 2001). The functional analysis of the receptor mutants in conjunction with the predictions of molecular modelling support the hypothesis that R254 and K258 in the i3 loop as well as L151 in the i2 loop (Fig. 1) are directly involved in receptor-G protein interaction and/or receptor-mediated activation of the G protein. It is important to highlight that mutations of the homologous leucine or hydrophobic residue in the i2 loop resulted in receptor-G protein uncoupling for other GPCRs as well (Wess, 1997).

**Receptor desensitization.** Agonist-induced desensitization has been described for a variety of G protein coupled receptors (Ferguson et al., 2001). We have provided evidence

that the response mediated by the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR expressed in various cell types could undergo desensitization upon exposure to agonists as well as to the phorbol ester PMA (Lattion et al., 1994; Diviani et al., 1996). In addition, a correlation between agonist-induced phosphorylation and desensitization could be demonstrated. Our results indicated that the biochemical mechanisms underlying epinephrine versus phorbol ester-induced phosphorylation of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR are different. This was demonstrated by the fact that the PKC inhibitor RO-318220 could abolish the effect of PMA on phosphorylation of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR without altering that of epinephrine. Rapid agonist-dependent regulation of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR seems, instead, to be mainly mediated by G protein-coupled receptor kinases (GRK) (Diviani et al., 1996). GRK have the unique property of phosphorylating G protein-coupled receptors once they are occupied by agonists. We demonstrated that overexpression of GRK2 or GRK3 could increase epinephrine-induced phosphorylation of the wild type  $\alpha 1b$ -AR above basal as compared to that of the receptor expressed alone. In agreement with these findings, overexpression of the dominant negative GRK2 (K220R) mutant impaired agonist-induced phosphorylation of the receptor. Recently, we have assessed that a stretch of serines in the C-tail of the receptor represent the main sites of phosphorylation (Fig. 1). Following extensive mutagenesis studies, we have been able to identify the three serines (S404, S408 and S410) involved in agonist-induced phosphorylation from the two serines (S394 and S400) involved in PKC-mediated phosphorylation of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR (Diviani et al., 1997). Our findings provide strong evidence that GRK2-mediated phosphorylation of Ser404, Ser408 and Ser410 is crucially involved in the desensitization of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR. In fact, the combined mutation of these three serines impaired the receptor's ability to undergo GRK2-mediated receptor desensitization. The potential role of these serines in receptor endocytosis remains to be explored.

The findings on the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR are coherent with those reported on several other GPCRs coupled to different signaling pathways. For those receptors having a large C-tail, this receptor domain contains the main phosphorylation sites whereas phosphorylation occurs on specific sites in the large 3i loop for those GPCRs having a short C-tail.

#### 4. Constitutively active mutants as a tool to investigate receptor activation

Agonist binding to a GPCR is believed to induce a conformational change of the receptor which results in its productive coupling to heterotrimeric G proteins thus leading to intracellular signaling events. However, a structural description of the molecular changes underlying the conversion from the inactive states (R) to the active states (R\*) of the receptor is still lacking. An important contribution to our understanding of receptor activation has been provided by the finding that point mutations in the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR could increase

its constitutive or agonist-independent activity (Kjelsberg et al., 1992). These findings suggested that in the absence of agonist a structural constraint keeps the wild type receptor inactive (R) preventing sequences of the intracellular loops to interact with the G proteins. Activating mutations might release such constraint triggering the conversion into the active state (R\*), which couples to G proteins. One hypothesis is that activating mutations mimic, at least to some extent, the conformational change triggered by agonist binding to GPCR. This hypothesis was supported by a detailed analysis of the properties of the AR constitutively active mutants (CAMs) which proposed the "allosteric ternary complex model" (Samama et al., 1993). This extended version of the ternary complex model introduced for the first time an explicit isomerization constant regulating the equilibrium of GPCR between at least two interconvertible allosteric states, R (inactive or ground state) and R\* (active).

Which is the nature of the "constraint"? is it similar for GPCRs of different classes? how can mutations in apparently unrelated regions of a GPCR release this constraint? Are CAMs representative of the agonist-bound wild type receptor? A large number of studies have addressed these questions and the results from some of them are summarized here below (reviewed in Gether, 2000).

Studies from our laboratory combining site-directed mutagenesis of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR and molecular dynamics simulations of receptor models highlighted the important role played in receptor activation by the E/DRY motif at the cytosolic end of helix III (Fig. 1), which is highly conserved in GPCRs of the rhodopsin-like class. All possible amino acid substitutions of the aspartate of the E/DRY sequence increased the constitutive activity of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR at different extent (Scheer et al., 1997). Increased constitutive activity was also found after mutating the acidic residue of the E/DRY motif in other receptors including rhodopsin (Cohen et al., 1993) and the  $\beta 2$ -AR (Rasmussen et al., 1999). In contrast, mutations of the conserved arginine in a number of GPCRs can profoundly impair receptor function (Wess, 1997; Scheer et al., 2000).

Different mechanisms have been proposed to explain the role of the E/DRY motif in GPCR activation. In particular, we highlighted that the interactions between the arginine of the E/DRY and some amino acids forming a highly conserved "polar pocket" within the helical bundle contribute to stabilize the ground state of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR (Scheer et al., 1996). The recently published structure of rhodopsin in its inactive state suggests that the arginine of E/DRY sequence interacts with both the adjacent glutamic acid and a glutamate on helix VI (E247<sup>6.30</sup>) (Palczewski et al., 2000). Thus, in rhodopsin both the inter-helical and intra-helical salt bridges involving the highly conserved arginine of the E/DRY motif of helix III might play a role in stabilizing the dark state. Similarly to the rhodopsin structure, in the majority of the average minimized structures of the wild type  $\alpha 1b$ -AR obtained following MD simulations on a rhodopsin-based (homology) model, the arginine of the E/DRY motif makes a salt bridge with both

the adjacent aspartate and a glutamate (E289<sup>6,30</sup>) (Fig. 2). Similarly to the effect induced by mutating the D142<sup>3,49</sup> of the E/DRY motif, mutations of the E289<sup>6,30</sup> markedly increased the constitutive activity of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR (Greasley et al., 2002). Therefore, whereas the interaction of the arginine with E289<sup>6,30</sup> constrains the receptor in the inactive state, its breakage would contribute to receptor activation. The hypothesis that the motion of the conserved arginine is constrained by both D142<sup>3,49</sup> and E289<sup>6,30</sup> is supported by the results of MD simulations on a large number of  $\alpha 1b$ -AR mutants, including D142A and E289K. Indeed, the structures of the active mutants are characterized by the release or weakening of both the charge reinforced H-bonding interactions involving R143<sup>3,50</sup> in the wild type or inactive state (Greasley et al., 2002). The structural conservation among different receptors suggests that the constraining interactions involving the E/DRY sequence might be a common feature of GPCRs belonging to the rhodopsin-like class (reviewed in Gether, 2000; Parnot et al., 2002). However, for GPCRs of the secretin- and metabotropic glutamate-like classes, lacking the E/DRY motif, the mechanisms of activation might involve other structural determinants of the receptor. In addition, other potentially constraining interactions have been identified in GPCRs beyond those involving helices III and VI (reviewed in Parnot et al., 2002). Altogether, these findings indicate that the analysis of CAMs has been instrumental to generate hypothesis on the molecular basis of receptor activation. However, because of the absence of structural information on GPCRs, a detailed mechanism describing receptor activation is still lacking. A particularly important challenge for the future will be to explain how agonists can activate GPCRs and to what extent a common mechanism of activation is shared by GPCRs of different classes.

## 5. Novel protein interactions involved in receptor regulation

Recently it has become increasingly apparent that, in addition to signalling via G proteins, GPCRs can act as scaffolds binding a variety of proteins and this might promote the activation of novel G protein-independent signalling pathways (reviewed in Pierce et al., 2002). In fact a number of proteins have been found to interact with GPCRs using the yeast-2-hybrid system and other biochemical methods. Beyond GRKs,  $\beta$ arrestins and heterotrimeric G proteins subunits, the list of proteins interacting with GPCRs include: calmodulin, calcyon, AKAP, RAMPs (receptor-associated modulating proteins), tubulin, SH3 domain-containing adaptor molecules like Grb2 and Src, EBP50 (Ezrin binding phosphoprotein 50)/NHERF ( $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchanger-regulatory factor) and PSD95 (post-synaptic density 95). The functional implications of these interactions are not fully understood; however they add an increasing complexity to the signalling mechanisms mediated by GPCRs.

To identify new proteins interacting with the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR that could potentially be involved in regulating receptor function,

we used the C-tail of the receptor as a bait in the yeast two-hybrid system and identified the  $\mu 2$  subunit of the AP2 complex as a binding partner. The AP2 complex is known to directly link the clathrin coat with cargo transmembrane proteins that are sorted into coated pits and vesicles (Haucke et al., 2000) and is composed of two large subunits,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta 2$  of about 100 kDa, and two smaller subunits,  $\mu 2$  and  $\alpha 2$  of 50 and 17 kDa, respectively. The AP2 adaptor can initiate endocytosis of single membrane spanning domain receptors by associating directly with their cytoplasmic tail (Pearse et al., 2000). Direct association between the C-tail of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR and  $\mu 2$  was demonstrated using a solid phase overlay assay (Diviani et al., 2003). The  $\alpha 1b$ -AR/ $\mu 2$  interaction occurred inside the cells as shown by the finding that the transfected  $\alpha 1b$ -AR and the endogenous  $\mu 2$  could be coimmunoprecipitated from HEK-293 cell extracts. Mutational analysis of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR revealed that the binding site for  $\mu 2$  does not involve canonical YXX $\Phi$  or dileucine motifs, but a stretch of eight arginines on the receptor C-tail (Fig. 1). The binding domain of  $\mu 2$  for the receptor C-tail involves both its N-terminus and the subdomain B of its C-terminal portion. The  $\alpha 1b$ -AR specifically interacted with  $\mu 2$ , but not with the  $\mu 1$ ,  $\mu 3$  or  $\mu 4$  subunits belonging to other AP complexes. The deletion of the  $\mu 2$  binding site in the C-tail markedly decreased agonist-induced receptor internalization as demonstrated by confocal microscopy as well as by the results of a surface receptor biotinylation assay.

The direct association of the AP2 complex with a GPCR might represent a common mechanism underlying clathrin-mediated receptor endocytosis. Previous studies have shown that the AP2 complex is implicated in the agonist-induced endocytosis of the  $\beta 2$ -AR (Laporte et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2002). However, in this case the AP2 complex seemed to be recruited to the receptor through  $\beta$ -arrestins which can directly interact with the  $\mu 2$  subunit of AP2 (Pearse et al., 2000). Our findings on the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR indicate that, in addition to  $\beta$ -arrestins, the direct association of the receptor with the AP2 complex plays an important role in the clathrin-mediated endocytosis of GPCRs. Future studies should aim at elucidating the relationship between the structural determinants of GPCRs involved in binding the AP2 complex versus  $\beta$ -arrestins, the respective role of the AP2 complex and  $\beta$ -arrestins in targeting the receptor to clathrin-coated vesicles as well as their interplay with other yet unidentified mechanisms regulating receptor trafficking and function.

## 6. Receptor oligomerization

GPCRs were for a long time presumed to function as monomers according to the prevailing model: one ligand molecule-one receptor-one G protein (Angers et al., 2002). Recently, increasing complexity of GPCR function and regulation has progressively emerged. For example, one GPCR can adopt multiple conformational states able to differentially interact with signaling and regulatory proteins (Gha-

nouni et al., 2001). In addition, it was shown that cross-talk among GPCRs can also occur at the receptor level by means of receptor oligomerization (reviewed in Gomes et al., 2001). We combined biophysical, biochemical and pharmacological approaches to investigate the ability of the  $\alpha 1a$  and  $\alpha 1b$ -AR subtypes to form homo- and hetero-oligomers (Stanasila et al., 2003). Receptors tagged with different epitopes (HA and myc) or fluorescent proteins (CFP and GFP) were transiently expressed in HEK-293 cells either individually or in different combinations. Fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) measurements provided evidence that both the  $\alpha 1a$  and  $\alpha 1b$ -AR can form homo-oligomers with similar transfer efficiency of  $\sim 0.10$ . Hetero-oligomers could also be observed between the  $\alpha 1b$ - and the  $\alpha 1a$ -AR subtypes, but not between the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR and the  $\beta 2$ -AR, the NK1 tachykinin or the CCR5 chemokine receptors. Oligomerization of the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR did not require the integrity of its C-tail, of two glycoporphin motifs or of the N-linked glycosylation sites at its N-terminus. In contrast, helix I and, to a lesser extent, helix VII were found to play a role in the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR homo-oligomerization. Receptor oligomerization was not influenced by the agonist epinephrine or by the inverse agonist prazosin. A constitutively active (A293E) as well as a signaling-deficient (R143E) mutant displayed oligomerization features similar to those of the wild type  $\alpha 1b$ -AR.

Confocal imaging revealed that oligomerization of the  $\alpha 1$ -AR subtypes correlated with their ability to co-internalize upon exposure to the agonist. The  $\alpha 1a$ -selective agonist oxymetazoline induced the co-internalization of the  $\alpha 1a$ - and  $\alpha 1b$ -AR, whereas the  $\alpha 1b$ -AR could not co-internalize with the NK1 tachykinin or CCR5 chemokine receptors. Oligomerization might therefore represent an additional mechanism regulating the physiological responses mediated by the  $\alpha 1a$  and  $\alpha 1b$ -AR subtypes. The two receptors have an overlapping distribution in several tissues (e.g. heart, brain, prostate, etc.). One can expect that hetero-oligomerization might provide yet another means to fine tune the responses mediated by the  $\alpha 1a$  and  $\alpha 1b$ -AR subtypes like, for example, coordinating their internalization properties. GPCR oligomerization has clearly emerged as an important functional paradigm. It is possible that, despite some common features, the oligomerization mechanisms might differ among GPCRs thus increasing the complexity of receptor signaling and regulation. Future studies should aim at investigating the role of receptor oligomerization in physiological systems as well as at further unraveling its molecular basis.

## 7. Conclusions

Our mutational analysis on the  $\alpha 1$ -AR subtypes has clearly provided some generalities on the structure-functional relationship of GPCRs belonging to the rhodopsin-like family of receptors. However, structural information at high resolution on other GPCRs than rhodopsin will be necessary to challenge the predictions of molecular

modeling and improve our understanding of GPCR activation and drug action at a molecular level.

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