

Multiscale simulations suggest a mechanism for integrin inside-out activation

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Integrins are large cell-surface adhesion receptors that can be activated to a high affinity state by the formation of an intracellular complex between the integrin β -subunit tail, the membrane, and talin. The F2 and F3 subdomains of the talin head play a key role in formation of this complex. Here, activation of the integrin α IIB/ β 3 dimer by the talin head domain was probed using multiscale molecular dynamics simulations. A number of novel insights emerge from these studies, including (i) the importance of the integrin α IIB subunit F992 and F993 residues in stabilizing the “off” state of the α IIB/ β 3 dimer, (ii) a crucial role for negatively charged groups in the F2-F3/membrane interaction, (iii) binding of the talin F2-F3 domain to negatively charged lipid headgroups in the membrane induces a reorientation of the β transmembrane (TM) domain, (iv) an increase in the tilt angle of the β TM domain relative to the bilayer normal helps to destabilize the α / β TM interaction and promote a scissor-like movement of the integrin TM helices. These results, combined with various published experimental observations, suggest a model for the mechanism of inside-out activation of integrins by talin.

Integrins are heterodimeric ($\alpha\beta$) cell-surface receptors; each subunit contains a large extracellular (ecto) domain, an α -helical transmembrane (TM) domain, and a cytoplasmic domain (1). Integrins are crucial for signal transduction events involved in cell adhesion, migration, and differentiation (2–5). In mammals, combinations of the 18 α and 8 β subunits may form at least 24 different integrins. TM signaling can occur via outside-in (6) and inside-out pathways. In inside-out activation, the cytoplasmic tail of the integrin β subunit forms a complex with a cytoplasmic protein, talin, at the membrane surface (7–14).

Talin consists of a flexible rod and a globular head that has four subdomains (F0 to F3) (15, 16). The F3 subdomain alone is sufficient for α IIB/ β 3 integrin activation (17), but interactions between a positively charged patch in the F2 surface (14, 18) and negatively charged groups in the membrane are also crucial for integrin activation and clustering (19). Structural and functional studies suggest that the F0-F1 subdomain also contributes to the activating membrane complex (16, 20), partly via a flexible loop in the F1 domain. PIP₂ is also believed to play a role (19).

The inactive state of integrins is maintained by intersubunit associations in the TM (21–26) and cytoplasmic regions (27–29) of the two integrin subunits. Integrin activation is believed to involve dissociation or destabilization of the two integrin TM helices (29–33), followed by rearrangement of the ectodomain to an extended conformation (34–37). Recent NMR and modeling studies (24) revealed similar structures for the α IIB and β 3 TM helices in a membrane-like environment. Two main interaction surfaces between the two TM helices of the α IIB/ β 3 complex were identified in the NMR structure. These were called an outer membrane clasp (OMC), in which close packing of the helices is facilitated by a Gx₃G motif in α IIB, and an inner membrane clasp (IMC), which involves interactions of F992 and F993 in α IIB with the β 3 tail together with a salt bridge between α IIBR995 and β 3D723 (24).

Different models have been proposed for structural changes in the membrane region during activation, including “piston” and “scissors” movements of the TM helices (38). However, more

recent studies (7, 23, 29, 32, 39, 40) have been interpreted in terms of a model in which the binding of talin to the integrin β cytoplasmic tail and the TM domain disrupts the OMC and IMC interactions between the two TM helices, leading to helix separation and subsequent switching of the integrins to a high affinity state (14). Resolution of the underlying mechanism of activation thus requires information about the conformational dynamics of integrin/talin/membrane interactions that is not readily available from experimental methods.

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations (41) can play a key role in understanding the dynamic interactions of membrane proteins with their environment (42). They have been used to investigate the interactions of TM helices with one another in a bilayer environment (43) as well as the interactions of peripheral proteins with membranes (44–47). MD studies of the F2-F3 domain of talin (18) in a bilayer demonstrated a key role for electrostatic interactions between the protein and anionic lipid headgroups.

Here, we use a multiscale MD simulation approach (48, 49) to explore the conformational dynamics of the interaction of the integrin TM helix dimer with talin F2-F3 and a lipid bilayer. The aim was to understand the inside-out activation mechanism. On the basis of these studies, we suggest how talin can weaken the α / β TM association and promote an integrin conformation that corresponds to a high affinity state.

Results and Discussion

Conformation and Dynamics of the Integrin α IIB/ β 3 TM Helix Dimer.

As a first step toward understanding how talin interactions may modulate the behavior of the integrin α IIB/ β 3 TM helix dimer, we simulated the conformational dynamics of the TM helix dimer. We started with the coordinates of the NMR structure [Protein data Bank (PDB) ID code 2K9J], which is probably a reasonable approximation of the low-affinity integrin “off” state. Coarse-grained (CG)-MD simulations were used to optimize the position of the TM helix dimer relative to a palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine/palmitoyl-oleoyl-phosphatidyl glycerol (POPC/POPG) bilayer, while restraining the α IIB TM helix to be perpendicular to the bilayer. This orientation of α IIB is suggested by the NMR structures of the α IIB helix (50) and the α IIB/ β 3 dimer in bicelles (24). The resultant CG system (i.e., helix dimer plus bilayer) was converted to atomistic resolution (49) to form the starting point for 3 \times 100 ns simulations.

In these $\alpha\beta$ 1-AT (Table 1) simulations, the TM dimer remained stable (Fig. 1A). Both IMC interactions [i.e., the α IIBR995- β 3D723R salt bridge and the α IIB(F992,F993)- β 3 aromatic cluster interactions] and the OMC interaction, involving the α IIB Gx₃G motif, were maintained throughout all three simulations.

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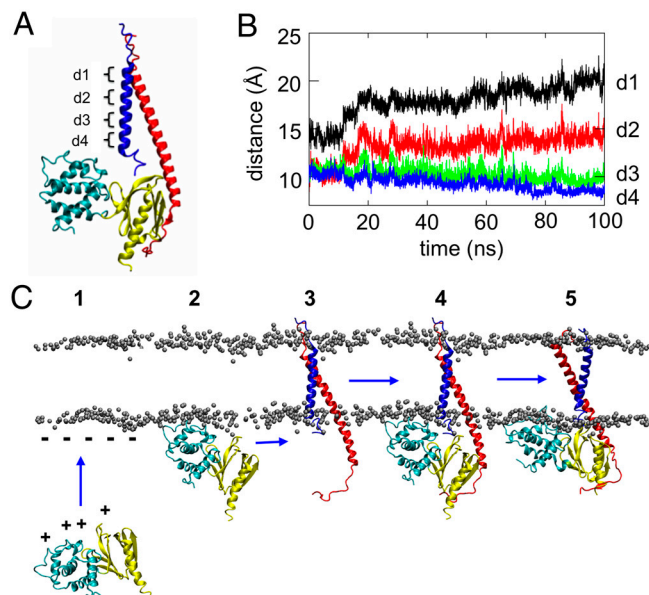


Fig. 4. (A) Proposed mechanism of integrin inside-out activation. The positively charged patch on the F2 and F3 subdomains of talin (1) interacts with the negatively charged headgroups on the membrane surface (2), orienting talin for binding to the β cytoplasmic tail (3). Upon talin binding (4), the α IbR995- β 3D723 salt bridge is disrupted because of the interactions of the α IbR995 with the talin F3 acidic loop. Strengthening of interactions between the positively charged surface patch of F2 and the membrane surface rotates the talin F2 subdomain approximately 34° in a plane perpendicular to the bilayer normal (i.e., parallel to the lipid-water interface). This in turn rotates F3 (approximately 26°) and the β tail (approximately 30°) in the opposite direction and in the same plane. This, in combination with an approximately 15° increase in the tilt angle of the β helix relative to the bilayer normal, disrupts the interactions in both the IMC and the OMC of the $\alpha\beta$ dimer (5). This is suggested to promote a switch of the integrin ectodomain to an active extended state. *B* and *C* illustrate the proposed scissors motion of the integrin α and β TM helices that occurs on activation by talin. *B* indicates four interhelix distances (d1 to d4) that characterize the scissors motion, and *C* shows the time evolution of d1 to d4 over the course of one of the three $\alpha\beta$ -F2F3o-AT simulations.

We have used the coordinates of the α Ib β 3 structure determined by NMR in bicelles (PDB ID code 2K9J) here. Other structures have been reported, determined either in organic solvents (PDB ID code 2KNC) (25, 27) or from computational approaches (26, 62). In 2KNC, which was obtained using a 1:1 mixture of acetonitrile and water, the IMC part is different from both 2K9J and the computational models, suggesting that the lipid environment is important for the formation of the IMC interactions. It is of interest, however, that 2KNC is rather like $\alpha\beta$ F2-F3p, suggesting that it might relate to an intermediate state between off and on (Fig. S4).

The scissor model for inside-out activation of integrins suggests how the integrin ectodomain might be stimulated to go from a bent inactive state to an extended active state (34–36). Talin weakens α Ib β 3 interactions, thus promoting a scissor movement of the TM part of the two helices with a perturbed IMC as the center of the scissor movement. This is in agreement with the recent suggestion that disruption of the $\alpha\beta$ dimer involves competition between an $\alpha\beta$ tail salt bridge and a talin/ β tail salt bridge as well as a 20° reorientation of the β integrin tail in a plane perpendicular to the membrane. There is ample experimental data to suggest that OMC and IMC interactions are required for integrin activation (23–25, 30–32, 53, 63–66). Our results have clarified the role of the IMC and OMC claps and explain much of the

experimental data. Deletion or mutation of residues in the GFFKR motif in the α tail lead to integrin activation (30, 40, 65, 66). Similarly, deletion of the β tail cytoplasmic region leads to activation (39, 64). Further, leucine or isoleucine mutations in the GxxxG motif in the OMC clasp cause steric clashes and thus disruption of the packing of the $\alpha\beta$ dimer (24, 31, 53). Our results are also in good agreement with mutational experimental results that suggest that disruption of the F3/ β tail interface or on the talin F2-F3 interface with the membrane reduce the ability of talin to activate integrins (7–14). Fluorescent resonance energy transfer (FRET) studies (29) using α L and β 2 integrin subunits tagged with fluorescent proteins suggested significant reduction in the FRET signal in the presence of talin, and this was interpreted in terms of tail separation. A scissor movement around the IMC might be expected to separate the scissor handles as well as the blades. Fig 4B (d4) does not indicate an increase in separation, but the α IbR995- β 3D723R is broken and the largely cytoplasmic α and β tails are flexible, so increased tail separation is not inconsistent with our model.

Recent structures of integrin ectodomains shows that the membrane-proximal C-terminal regions of the two ectodomain subunits are in close proximity (26, 36, 67). It is therefore plausible that the scissor movement that causes dissociation of the OMC clasp promotes a rearrangement of the integrin ectodomain.

In summary, our results suggest a mechanism for integrin inside-out activation that explains the role of the talin head domain, the membrane and the $\alpha\beta$ TM interactions. We have shown that the $\alpha\beta$ TM helix dimer is conformationally stable in a lipid bilayer on a 100-ns timescale, that the β TM helix has a propensity to tilt relative to the lipid bilayer and that this tilt motion is resisted by the presence of the α TM helix. Binding of talin destabilizes interactions between the TM helices and permits a scissor-like motion in part driven by the propensity of the β helix to tilt. This model shows how protein/membrane interactions can disrupt the TM helix interactions of complex receptors and potentially lead to structural changes in ectodomains. It also demonstrates the strength of multiscale simulations for developing models of the conformational dynamics of a complex membrane receptor.

Materials and Methods

CG-MD Simulations. CG-MD simulations were performed using a local variant (68) of the Martini force field (69) with an elastic network applied to backbone particles using a cutoff distance of 7 Å, and the protein inserted in a POPC/POPG bilayer. The system was solvated, energy minimized for 200 steps, and equilibrated for 5 ns with the protein backbone particle restrained. After that, five production simulations were carried out for 5 μ s each.

All CG-MD simulations were performed using GROMACS 3.3.3 (www.gromacs.org) (70, 71). A Berendsen thermostat (72) (coupling constant of 1.0 ps; reference temperature 310 K) and barostat (coupling constant of 1.0 ps; compressibility value of 5.0×10^{-6} bar $^{-1}$; reference pressure 1 bar) were used. The integration time step was 40 fs. Lennard-Jones and Coulombic interactions were shifted to zero between 9 and 12 Å, and 0 and 12 Å, respectively. CG to atomistic conversion used a fragment-based approach (49).

Atomistic MD Simulations. Atomistic MD simulations were performed using the GROMOS96 43a1 force field (73). The Parinello-Rahman barostat (74) and Berendsen thermostat (72). The LINCS algorithm was used to constrain bond lengths (75), and particle mesh Ewald particle mesh was used to model electrostatics up to 10 Å. A 10-Å cutoff distance was also used for van der Waals interactions. Systems were equilibrated for 2 to 5 ns with the protein C α atoms restrained, followed by unrestrained MD simulations as in Table 1. Analyses used Gromacs, VMD (76), and locally written codes.

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