

G protein diversity: A distinct class of α subunits is present in vertebrates and invertebrates

(GTP-binding protein/signal transduction/*Drosophila*)

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ABSTRACT Heterotrimeric guanine nucleotide-binding proteins (G proteins) are integral to the signal transduction pathways that mediate the cell's response to many hormones, neuromodulators, and a variety of other ligands. While many signaling processes are guanine nucleotide dependent, the precise coupling between a variety of receptors, G proteins, and effectors remains obscure. We found that the family of genes that encode the α subunits of heterotrimeric G proteins is much larger than had previously been supposed. These novel alpha subunits could account for some of the diverse activities attributed to G proteins. We have now obtained cDNA clones encoding two murine α subunits, $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{11}$, that are 88% identical. They lack the site that is ordinarily modified by pertussis toxin and their sequences vary from the canonical Gly-Ala-Gly-Glu-Ser (GAGES) amino acid sequence found in most other G protein α subunits. Multiple mRNAs as large as 7.5 kilobases hybridize to $G\alpha_q$ specific probes and are expressed at various levels in many different tissues. $G\alpha_{11}$ is encoded by a single 4.0-kilobase message which is expressed ubiquitously. Amino acid sequence comparisons suggest that $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{11}$ represent a third class of α subunits. A member of this class was found in *Drosophila melanogaster*. This α subunit, $DG\alpha_q$, is 76% identical to $G\alpha_q$. The presence of the G_q class in both vertebrates and invertebrates points to a role that is central to signal transduction in multicellular organisms. We suggest that these α subunits may be involved in pertussis toxin-insensitive pathways coupled to phospholipase C.

The G proteins are a family of guanine nucleotide-binding proteins that relay signals from cell surface receptors to intracellular effectors. Members of this family are heterotrimers composed of α , β , and γ subunits. The α subunit is believed to confer receptor and effector specificity on the heterotrimer. When the G protein is activated by interaction with receptor, the α subunit exchanges bound GDP for GTP. The intrinsic GTPase activity of the α subunit restores it to the basal state in which GDP is bound. This form of signal transduction is basic to the mechanisms that cells use in responding to hormones, neurotransmitters, and a variety of other ligands (for reviews see refs. 1–3). The process is highly conserved in evolution. Indeed, G proteins are central to intercellular communication among even simple eukaryotes. For example, G proteins are involved in the yeast mating-type pathway (4, 5), and several G protein α subunits are differentially expressed during development in the slime mold *Dictyostelium discoideum* (6, 7).

We are interested in how G protein-mediated signal transduction has adapted to the diverse signaling requirements of complex multicellular organisms. Reconstitution studies and the use of pertussis and cholera toxins to modify specific G protein α subunits have demonstrated the involvement of the

$G\alpha_s$ and $G\alpha_i$ subtypes in gating of specific ion channels (8, 9) and in the regulation of adenylyl cyclase in a variety of organisms (10). In the highly specialized visual system in mammals, biochemical experiments have led to the elucidation of the role of $G\alpha_{11}$ (rod transducin) in regulating phosphodiesterase and subsequently in controlling the levels of cyclic GMP (11). There are, however, many processes that are refractory to toxin inhibition but nonetheless appear to be mediated by guanine nucleotide-binding proteins (12, 13). To understand the extent of involvement of the G protein system and the nature of the specificity required for function, we have examined the diversity of the G protein family in complex organisms.

Recently, we developed an approach involving the polymerase chain reaction (PCR, ref. 14) to detect novel sequences that share highly conserved domains common to all G protein α subunits. We found evidence for extensive diversity in the mammalian G protein α subunit family (15). A small screen uncovered five novel sequences termed $G\alpha_{10}$ through $G\alpha_{14}$. In this paper we present the cDNA sequences of two α subunits that define another class of G proteins. This class, termed G_q , is distinguished by amino acid sequence homology and includes $G\alpha_q$, $G\alpha_{11}$, and $G\alpha_{14}$. We argue that the G_q class appeared early in evolution; it is found in both vertebrates and invertebrates. We present the sequence of a member of the G_q class in *Drosophila*.*

MATERIALS AND METHODS

PCR. PCR was performed as described previously (15). cDNA was made from poly(A)⁺ RNA with random hexanucleotide primers by using reverse transcriptase from Moloney murine leukemia virus. Conditions were those described by the supplier (BRL). The oligonucleotides used for PCR amplification of the cDNA were as follows:

oMP19, CGGATCCAARTGGATHCAYTGYYT;
oMP20, GGAATTCRTCYYTYYTTRTTNAGRAA;
oMP21, GGAATTCRTCYYTYYTTRTTYAARAA;
GQ112, CTGAAGGAGTACAACTGGT;
GQ3, GACACGAATGACAGGAGTGCT; and
G113, CCTCAAGCCACATTGAGTCA,

in which R = A or G, Y = C or T, H = A, C, or T, and N = A, C, G, or T. PCR was performed on a Perkin Elmer Cetus thermal cycler. During each cycle, samples were denatured for 1.0 min at 94°C, extended for 1.0 min at 72°C, and annealed for 0.5 min at the following temperatures: oMP19 + oMP20 + oMP21, 42°C; GQ112 + GQ3, 53°C; and GQ112 + G113, 53°C. Each oligonucleotide was used in the PCR at 10 ng/ μ l. Thirty-five cycles were performed on approximately 5

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Abbreviation: PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

*The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the GenBank data base (accession nos. M55412 for $G\alpha_q$ and M55411 for $G\alpha_{11}$).

bined in equimolar ratios and labeled by random priming as described (15). This probe was hybridized to the filters at 50°C in 0.90 M NaCl/6 mM EDTA/60 mM NaH₂PO₄ (6× SSPE)/0.1% SDS/5× Denhardt's solution containing denatured salmon sperm DNA at 100 µg/ml (1× Denhardt's solution = 0.02% bovine serum albumin/0.02% Ficoll/0.02% polyvinylpyrrolidone). The filters were washed in 6× SSC/0.1% SDS three times for 5 min at room temperature and once at 50°C for 15 min. To obtain the entire sequence of G α_q and G α_{11} , a random hexanucleotide or oligo(dT)-primed mouse brain cDNA library in λ JSM8 or λ ZAPII (Stratagene) was screened by using standard techniques. DG α_q was cloned from a *Drosophila melanogaster* head-specific library (see Results) kindly provided by B. Hamilton (Biology Division, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA).

RESULTS

Nucleotide Sequence of G α_q and G α_{11} . The clone G69, which encodes part of G α_q , was isolated from a mouse brain cDNA library by low-stringency hybridization. It cross-hybridized to a probe consisting of a mixture of cDNAs encoding all the previously known G protein α subunits (see Materials and Methods). Further screening yielded overlapping cDNA clones containing the entire G α_q coding sequence (Fig. 1A). The cloned PCR product corresponding to G α_{11} , which included 180 base pairs of sequence (15), was used as a probe to screen a mouse brain cDNA library. Several clones were purified and sequenced. Fig. 1B shows the sequence of G α_{11} derived from overlapping cDNA fragments. The deduced amino acid sequence of G α_{11} is 88% identical to that of G α_q . Almost all of the amino acid differences between G α_q and G α_{11} are concentrated in the N-terminal half of the protein. Of 42 amino acid differences, 38 are found in the N-terminal region composed of amino acids 1–200, while there are only 4 amino acid changes in a stretch of polypeptide encompassed by amino acids 201–359.

When G α_q and G α_{11} are compared with the other α subunits, a number of noteworthy differences emerge. Fig. 1C shows a comparison of the N-terminal sequences of G α_q and G α_{11} with those found for other α subunits. The methionine predicted by homology to be the first codon in G α_q and G α_{11} is preceded by other methionines in frame. The six additional amino acids found in these two α subunits are highly conserved, suggesting that they are functionally significant. The nucleotide sequences of the two cDNAs diverge upstream of these codons, indicating that there may be no further extension of this reading frame. Also in this 5' region, the G α_{11} cDNA contains a stop codon in frame with the downstream coding sequence.

The N termini of some α subunits are N-myristoylated on a glycine at the second position (Gly-2) (17). On the basis of their deduced amino acid sequences, G α_q and G α_{11} are not substrates for myristoylation (Fig. 1C); this may affect their membrane association properties. However, G α_s is not myristoylated, yet this α subunit is membrane associated. Perhaps other forms of post-translational modification will prove to be responsible for anchoring these hydrophilic proteins to the membrane.

Fig. 1D compares the amino acid sequences in the region of the "GAGE-box." This domain is highly conserved among all α subunits and has been implicated in GTP binding. Mutations in this region affect the GTPase activity of the α subunit (18, 19). G α_z [also named G α_x (20, 21)] differs in this region from the other α subunits. The slow rates of guanine nucleotide exchange and GTP hydrolysis exhibited by G α_z may be due in part to these sequence changes (22). G α_q and G α_{11} show differences in this region as well (Fig. 1D). Consequently, these α subunits may display unusual kinetic

properties when the proteins are characterized (see Discussion).

The C-terminal region of the α subunit is of considerable interest. The cysteine residue that lies four amino acids from the end of most mammalian α subunits can be ADP-ribosylated by pertussis toxin, thereby inactivating the G protein. Among the known α subunits, only G α_s , G α_{olf} , and G α_z lack this cysteine. These proteins are refractory to modification by pertussis toxin (2, 22). Fig. 1E shows that G α_q and G α_{11} also lack the cysteine residue at this position. Thus it is likely that the proteins corresponding to these cDNA clones will be insensitive to pertussis toxin modification.

Distribution of G α_q and G α_{11} . To determine the relative size of the mRNAs corresponding to G α_q and G α_{11} and their distributions, Northern hybridization was performed with RNA purified from a variety of mouse tissues. Both G α_q and G α_{11} are ubiquitously expressed (Fig. 2). Using a probe specific to the 3' untranslated region of each cDNA clone, we found that G α_q has multiple messages, whereas G α_{11} shows a single band of approximately 4 kb. The three largest G α_q transcripts (approximately 5, 6, and 7.5 kb) were evident (Fig. 2A) in other RNA preparations, suggesting that they are not the products of a single degraded message (data not shown). The very large size of the G α_q message and the variation in signal strength in some of the tissues led us to use another method to probe for the presence of G α_q and G α_{11} specific RNA. This technique, termed PCR Northern analysis (T. M. Wilkie and M.I.S., unpublished), utilizes oligonucleotide primers designed to amplify a pool of α subunits by PCR. Specific sequences in the pool are detected by oligonucleotide hybridization. The G α_{11} message (Fig. 2C) was found to be expressed in all tissues that were examined. The G α_q message (Fig. 2C) was also found in all tissues, although the relative levels appeared to be lower in RNA samples derived from intestine and testes and higher in brain and lung.

Analysis of the Relationships Among the G Protein α Subunits. Itoh *et al.* (23) have described the relationships between the α subunits on the basis of amino acid identity. These comparisons suggest evolutionary relationships that may exist among the G proteins. An expansion of this analysis

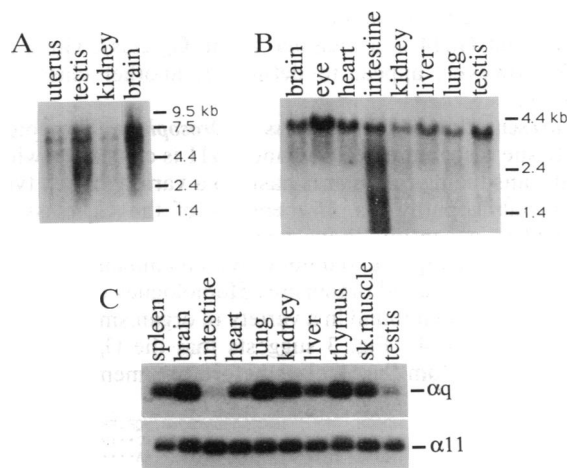


FIG. 2. Northern and PCR Northern analysis of G α_q and G α_{11} . Probes specific to G α_q (A) and G α_{11} (B) were hybridized to poly(A)⁺ RNA (A) and total RNA (B) from various mouse tissues. Loads were 20 µg of total RNA per lane and 4 µg of poly(A)⁺ RNA per lane; however, ethidium bromide staining revealed that the amount of ribosomal RNA contamination varied among the different tissues. kb, Kilobases. PCR Northern analysis (C) was performed on various mouse tissues by using the degenerate oligonucleotides oMP19, oMP20, and oMP21. The amplified products were hybridized with radiolabeled oligonucleotides specific to G α_q and G α_{11} .

are good candidates for this role. Furthermore, there are a variety of isoforms of phospholipase C; many cells contain multiple related but distinct phospholipase C gene products (39). Members of the G_q class could be involved in the activation of specific phospholipase C isozymes. Speculation about the possible interaction of the G_q class with phospholipase C is strengthened by the recent finding that $DG\alpha_q$ message is localized mainly to the *Drosophila* eye and ocellus structures (40). Earlier work indicated that regulation of phospholipase C in invertebrate eyes is central to the phototransduction cascade (41). There are a variety of other roles that are possible for the α subunits described here—e.g., ion channel activation and phospholipase A2 activation.

cDNA clones with deduced amino acid sequences that are identical to $G\alpha_{11}$ have been found in RNA preparations from human tissue (T. T. Amatruda and M.I.S., unpublished results). The partial amino acid sequences found by Pang and Sternweiss (36) suggest that both $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{11}$ exist in rat brain extracts, and experiments with specific probes in our laboratory have detected $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{11}$ messages in a variety of tissues and cloned cell lines. These results suggest that both α subunits are expressed together in at least some cells.

The diversity of the G protein family continues to grow. As more α subunits are cloned, more classes will emerge. Within each class, highly homologous members are likely to display apparent crosstalk in reconstitution experiments. Indeed, it is difficult to discriminate between $G\alpha_{11}$ and $G\alpha_{13}$ by *in vitro* assays (27, 42). $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{11}$ may behave in similar fashion, since they are 97% identical over the domains apparently responsible for receptor and effector specificity. However, the strict evolutionary conservation of amino acid sequence differences that identify these α subunits argues that they are not redundant (2). The distinctions may become apparent as we begin to use more sophisticated assays of G protein function that include different combinations of $\beta\gamma$ dimers. There is evidence to suggest that all $\beta\gamma$ subunits are not equivalent (43, 44). Perhaps the diversity afforded by combinatorial associations of α , β , and γ subunits allows a cell to "fine tune" G protein function to the specific requirements of a particular signaling response.

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