Cell Biology Lecture 10

Cell Signaling - principles Sesilja Aranko 22.11.2023 Alberts • Johnson • Lewis • Morgan • Raff • Roberts • Walter

Molecular Biology of the Cell

Sixth Edition

Chapter 15 Cell Signaling, Part II

Pages: 832-843, 850-866

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Course overview – Tentative schedule

Date	Lecture		Chapters & Topics		Assignments	
25.10.	1		Course overview, DNA, Chromosomes, Genome, Ch. 4			
27.10.	2 -G	ut 1	Replication, Repair, Recombination, Ch. 5			
1.11.	3	Ĩ	From DNA to protein, Ch. 6			
3.11.	4		Control of gene expression, Ch. 7			
8.11.	5		Membrane structures, Ch. 10 Membrane transport, Ch. 11			Assignment I (Essay) Draft I (8.11.)
10.11.	6 -G	2	Intracellular compartments and protein sorting, Ch. 12			
15.11.	7	Part	Intracellular compartments and protein sorting, Ch. 12 Susanna Mäkinen, Solar Foods		Assignment II – Draft I (15.11.)	
17.11.	8		Membrane Traffic, Ch. 13 iGEM team 2023		+i <u>GEM</u> intro	
22.11.	9		Cell signalling, Ch. 15		Assignment II – Peer review (22.11.)	
24.11.	10 -G	<u>م</u>	Cell signalling, Ch. 15		Assignment I (Essay) Draft II (24.11.)	
29.11.	11	Part	Cell cycle, Ch. 17 Jere Weltner, Folkhälsan			
1.12.	12		Apoptosis, Ch. 18		Assignment II – final version (1.12.)	
7.12.	EXAM		December 7th			
8.12.	Final version essay		December 8th		Assignment I (Essay) Final version (8.12.) Aim at finishing before exam date. Use last days for polishing.	

LEARNING OUTCOMES

 Can describe the mechanisms of G-protein coupled receptors and enzyme-coupled receptors and apply these to real cases in which they are used

THREE CLASSES OF CELL-SURFACE **RECEPTOR PROTEINS**



- G-protein mediates signal from receptor to target protein
 - Receptor is an enzyme that act directly or by activating an associated enzyme

G-PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTOR (GPCR)

- Largest family of cell-surface receptors
- Ligands can we very diverse, proteins, peptides, small molecules or even photons of light
- All share similar structure



Enzyme or ion channel 3.

G-protein

mediates signal

from receptor to

target protein

G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR)

- Typical cylindrical arrangement of the seven transmembrane helices in a GPCR
- The ligand binds in a pocket between the helices → conformational changes on the cytoplasmic surface of the receptor → G-protein activation



G-PROTEINS

 Heterotrimeric G proteins relay signals from GPCRS



- Inactive G-protein shown
- α and γ subunits have covalently attached lipid molecules that help them bind to the plasma membrane,
- α subunit has GDP bound

ACTIVATION OF A G PROTEIN BY AN ACTIVATED GPCR

Heterotrimeric G proteins relay signals from GPCRs:

- Binding of an extracellular signal molecule to a GPCR → change in the conformation of the receptor
- Receptor binds G protein and alters its conformation
- The AH domain of the G protein α subunit moves outward to open the GTP-binding site, thereby promoting dissociation of GDP



ACTIVATION OF A G PROTEIN BY AN ACTIVATED GPCR

- GTP binding promotes closure of the binding site \rightarrow conformational changes \rightarrow dissociation of the α subunit from the receptor and from the $\beta\gamma$ complex
- The GTP-bound α subunit and the βγ complex each regulate the activities of downstream signaling molecules
- The receptor stays active while the extracellular signal molecule is bound to it, and it can therefore catalyze the activation of many Gprotein molecules



SIGNALING THROUGH G-PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS

 GPCR Desensitization depends on receptor phosphorylation



A GRK phosphorylates only activated receptors because it is the activated GPCR that turns on the GRK. The binding of an arrestin to the phosphorylated receptor prevents the receptor from binding to its G protein and also directs its endocytosis

GPCR PATHWAYS

Examples of GPCR pathways:

- cAMP + PKA pathway
- Inositol phospholipid pathway
- Ca2+ mediated
- Directly to ion gates

CYCLIC AMP (CAMP) AND GPCRS

- Some G proteins regulate the production of cyclic AMP
 - Catalysis of cyclic AMP (cAMP)
 synthesis by enzyme adenylyl cyclase
 - Large transmembrane protein, active site in cytosol
 - cAMP is synthesized from ATP through a cyclization reaction that removes two phosphate groups as pyrophosphate (PP)
 - pyrophosphatase drives this synthesis by hydrolyzing the released pyrophosphate to phosphate
 - Cyclic AMP is short-lived (unstable) in the cell because it is hydrolyzed by specific phosphodiesterases to form 5'-AMP



CYCLIC AMP (CAMP) AND GPCRS

- Some G proteins regulate the production of cyclic AMP
 - Stimulatory G protein (G_s) activates adenylyl cyclase
 - Inhibitory G-protein (G_i) inactivates adenylyl cyclase



CYCLIC-AMP-DEPENDENT PROTEIN KINASE (PKA)

 Cyclic-AMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) mediates most of the effects of cyclic AMP



- Binding of cAMP to the *regulatory subunits* of the PKA tetramer → conformational change → subunits dissociate from the catalytic subunits → kinase activity of the catalytic subunits activated
- The release of the catalytic subunits requires the binding of more than two cAMP molecules to the regulatory subunits in the tetramer → sharpens the response of the kinase to changes in cAMP concentration (lecture 9)

Effect of PKA can be in seconds or in hours

Slow effect e.g. by altering gene transcription

- A rise in intracellular cyclic AMP concentration can alter gene transcription:
- The binding of an extracellular signal molecule to its GPCR activates adenylyl cyclase via G_s → increases cAMP concentration in the cytosol
- Activates PKA → released catalytic subunits of PKA enter the nucleus → phosphorylate the transcription regulatory protein CREB
- Phosphorylated CREB recruits the coactivator CBP → stimulates gene transcription



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- The binding of an extracellular signal molecule to its GPCR activates adenylyl cyclase via G_s → increases cAMP concentration in the cytosol
- Activates PKA → released catalytic subunits of PKA enter the nucleus
- Catalytic subunits of PKA phosphorylate the transcription regulatory protein CREB
- Phosphorylated CREB recruits the coactivator CBP → stimulates gene transcription



G PROTEINS AND PHOSPHOLIPIDS

Some G proteins signal via phospholipids

Phospolipase C-β

- A plasma membrane bound enzyme
- Cleaves PI(4,5)P to IP3 and diaglycerol

There are several classes of phospholipase C:

- β class is activated by GPCRs
- γ class is activated by a class of enzyme-coupled receptors called receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs)





The α subunit and $\beta\gamma$ complex of G_q are both involved in this activation.





Activated PLC hydrolyzes $PI(4,5)P_2$ \rightarrow Inositol 1,4,5trisphosphate (IP₃) \rightarrow Diacylglycerol

Diacylglycerol remains in the plasma membrane and helps to activate protein kinase C (PKC), which is recruited from the cytosol to the cytosolic face of the plasma membrane



SIGNALING THROUGH G-PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS

 Ca²⁺ functions as a ubiquitous intracellular mediator, e.g. muscle contraction and secretion in nerve cells

Mammalian Cell*					
Component	Cytoplasmic concentration (mM)	Extracellular concentration (mM)			
Cations					
Na ⁺	5–15	145			
K^+	140	5			
Mg^{2+}	0.5	1–2			
Ca ²⁺	10-4	1–2			
H+	$7 imes 10^{-5}$ (10 ^{-7.2} M or pH 7.2)	$4 imes10^{-5}$ (10 ^{-7.4} M or pH 7.4)			
Anions					
Cl⁻	5–15	110			

*The cell must contain equal quantities of positive and negative charges (that is, it must be electrically neutral). Thus, in addition to Cl⁻, the cell contains many other anions not listed in this table; in fact, most cell constituents are negatively charged (HCO₃⁻, PO₄³⁻, nucleic acids, metabolites carrying phosphate and carboxyl groups, etc.). The concentrations of Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ given are for the free ions: although there is a total of about 20 mM Mg²⁺ and 1–2 mM Ca²⁺ in cells, both ions are mostly bound to other substances (such as proteins, free nucleotides, RNA, etc.) and, for Ca²⁺, stored within various organelles (such as the endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondria).

High concentrations also in ER

FEEDBACK GENERATES CA²⁺ WAVES AND OSCILLATIONS

Positive and negative feedback produce cytosolic Ca²⁺ waves and oscillations

- Cytosolic IP₃ rises to high levels in response to a strong extracellular signal → occupies most IP₃ receptors on the ER membrane.
- A few IP₃-bound receptors are activated by the low amount of cytosolic Ca²⁺ present in the unstimulated cell
- The local release of Ca²⁺ by an activated receptor cluster promotes the opening of nearby IP₃ receptors, resulting in more Ca²⁺ release
- This positive feedback produces a regenerative wave of Ca²⁺ release that spreads across the cell
- The regenerative wave produces a high Ca²⁺ concentration across the entire cell



FEEDBACK GENERATES CA²⁺ WAVES AND OSCILLATIONS

- When it reaches high concentrations, Ca²⁺ inactivates IP₃ receptors and ryanodine, shutting down the Ca²⁺ release
- Ca²⁺-pumps reduce the local cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentration to its low resting levels
- The result is a cytosolic Ca²⁺ pulse: positive feedback drives a rapid rise in cytosolic Ca²⁺, and negative feedback sends it back down again.
- The Ca²⁺ channels remain refractory to further stimulation for some period of time, delaying the generation of another Ca²⁺ spike
- Eventually the negative feedback wears off, allowing IP₃ to trigger another Ca²⁺ wave.
- The end result is repeated Ca²⁺ oscillations



CALMODULIN

- Two globular ends, which can bind to many different target proteins.
- The globular ends are connected by a long, exposed α helix, which allows the protein to adopt a number of different conformations, depending on the target protein it interacts with.
- Each globular head has two Ca²⁺-binding sites



Binding of Ca²⁺ causes conformational change

2nd major structural change occurs in Ca²⁺/calmodulin when it binds to a target protein

E.g. activates Ca2+ pump that reduces Ca2+ concentration – *negative* feedback

A, PDB code: 1CLL; B, PDB codes: 1CDL and 2BBM.

CAM KINASES

 Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinases mediate many responses to Ca²⁺ signals



- Six CaM-kinase II proteins are assembled into a giant ring
- The complete enzyme contains two stacked rings, for a total of 12 kinase proteins



Inactive compact state:

- kinase domains interact with the hub domains
- regulatory segments are buried in the kinase active sites and block catalytic activity
- kinase domain has popped out, linked to its hub domain by its regulatory segment,

Ca²⁺

calmodulin

INACTIVE

continues to inhibit the kinase domain but is now accessible to Ca²⁺/calmodulin



ACTIVE

If present, Ca²⁺/calmodulin will bind the regulatory segment and prevent it from inhibiting the kinase, thereby locking the kinase in an active state



ACTIVE

return to basal values for at least 10

seconds





Propose specific types of mutations in the gene for the regulatory subunit of cyclic-AMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) that could lead to either a permanently active PKA or a permanently inactive PKA?



ENZYME-COUPLED RECEPTORS



RECEPTOR TYROSINE KINASES (RTKS)

• ~60 in human

Signals typically small proteins

TABLE 15-4 Some Extracellular Signal Proteins That Act Via RTKs

Signal protein family	Receptor family	Some representative responses
Epidermal growth factor (EGF)	EGF receptors	Stimulates cell survival, growth, proliferation, or differentiation of various cell types; acts as inductive signal in development
Insulin	Insulin receptor	Stimulates carbohydrate utilization and protein synthesis
Insulin-like growth factor (IGF1)	IGF receptor-1	Stimulates cell growth and survival in many cell types
Nerve growth factor (NGF)	Trk receptors	Stimulates survival and growth of some neurons
Platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)	PDGF receptors	Stimulates survival, growth, proliferation, and migration of various cell types
Macrophage-colony-stimulating factor (MCSF)	MCSF receptor	Stimulates monocyte/macrophage proliferation and differentiation
Fibroblast growth factor (FGF)	FGF receptors	Stimulates proliferation of various cell types; inhibits differentiation of some precursor cells; acts as inductive signal in development
Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)	VEGF receptors	Stimulates angiogenesis
Ephrin	Eph receptors	Stimulates angiogenesis; guides cell and axon migration

RECEPTOR TYROSINE KINASES (RTKS)

 Activated receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs) phosphorylate themselves



ACTIVATION OF RTKS BY DIMERIZATION



No extracellular signals → monomers → the internal kinase domain is inactive

Binding of ligand \rightarrow dimerization \rightarrow two domains phosphorylate each other

domains

The ligand itself can be a dimer or two ligands can bind independently on two receptors to promote receptor dimerization

ACTIVATION OF RTKS BY DIMERIZATION



1. Phosphorylation at some tyrosines in the kinase domains \rightarrow complete activation of the domains

2. Phosphorylation at tyrosines in other parts of the receptors \rightarrow docking sites for intracellular signaling proteins \rightarrow large signaling complexes

ACTIVATION OF RTKS BY CONFORMATIONAL CHANGE



In the absence of ligand, the EGF receptor exists primarily as an inactive monomer.

EGF binding results in a conformational change that promotes dimerization of the external domains.

ACTIVATION OF RTKS BY CONFORMATIONAL CHANGE



In the dimer one kinase domain (the *activator*) y causing an activating conformational change in the other domain (*receiver*)

The active receiver domain phosphorylates multiple tyrosines in the Cterminal tails of both receptors, generating docking sites for intracellular signaling proteins

Not transautophosphorylation!

 Proteins with SH2 Domains Bind to Phosphorylated Tyrosines

Phosphorylated RTKs as docking sites for intracellular signaling proteins



- Phosphorylated tyrosines on RTKs serve as docking sites for intracellular signaling proteins (typically in intrinsically disordered regions)
- Binding molecules recognize phospotyrosine+flanking residues
- Activation by 1) phosphorylation, 2) conformational change, or 3) proximity
- Scaffold proteins grow the complexes further
- Can also mediate inhibition by e.g. directing to lysosomes

PRINCIPLES OF CELL SIGNALING

 Modular interaction domains mediate interactions between intracellular signaling proteins



MULTIPLE DOCKING SITES IN AN ACTIVATED RTK



Five phosphotyrosines are shown, three in the kinase insert region and two on the C-terminal tail; these form three docking sites, each of which binds a different signaling protein as indicated

THE BINDING OF SH2-CONTAINING INTRACELLULAR SIGNALING PROTEINS TO AN ACTIVATED RTK





The binding pocket for phosphotyrosine, and a pocket for binding a specific amino acid side chain (valine, in this case). The RTK polypeptide segment binds the SH2 domain

The SH2 domain is a compact, "plug-in" module, which can be inserted in disordered regions of a protein without disturbing the protein's folding or function

RAS SUPERFAMILY

- Consists of families of monomeric GTPases
- Ras and Rho families mediate signals from cell-surface receptors



TABLE 15–5 The Ras Superfamily of Monomeric GTPases				
Family	Some family members	Some functions		
Ras	H-Ras, K-Ras, N-Ras	Relay signals from RTKs		
	Rheb	Activates mTOR to stimulate cell growth		
	Rap1	Activated by a cyclic-AMP-dependent GEF; influences cell adhesion by activating integrins		
Rho*	Rho, Rac, Cdc42	Relay signals from surface receptors to the cytoskeleton and elsewhere		
ARF*	ARF1-ARF6	Regulate assembly of protein coats on intracellular vesicles		
Rab*	Rab1-60	Regulate intracellular vesicle traffic		
Ran*	Ran	Regulates mitotic spindle assembly and nuclear transport of RNAs and proteins		
The Rho family is discussed in Chapter 10, the ARF and Rab proteins in Chapter 13, and Ran				
in Chapters 12 and 17. The three-dimensional structure of Ras is shown in Figure 3–64.				

Recap: Ran GTPase imposes directionality on nuclear transport



Players:

- Ran GTPase
- Ran GTPase activating
 protein (Ran-GAP) Cytosol
- Ran guanine exchange factor (Ran-GEF) anchored to chromatin

Figure 12-12 Molecular Biology of the Cell 6e (© Garland Science 2015)

- Ran is a molecular switch that exists in two conformational states (GTP and GDP bound)
- Cytosol contains mainly Ran-GAP, nucleus Ran-GEF
- Gradient of the two forms (GTP/GDP form) drives nuclear transport

RECAP: **RAB PROTEINS** GUIDE TRANSPORT VESICLES TO THEIR TARGET MEMBRANE

- *Membrane bound* state, bind *GTP* (active)
 - Interact with Rab effector proteins on the target and/or vesicle membrane
- Soluble state, bind GDP (+GDI) (inactive)
 - Hydrolysis of GTP to GDP during docking causes Rab to dissociate



RAS SUPERFAMILY

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TABLE 10-0 THE Has Superlaining of Monomenic GTPases					
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*The Rho family is discussed in Chapter 16, the ARF and Rab proteins in Chapter 13, and Ran in Chapters 12 and 17. The three-dimensional structure of Ras is shown in Figure 3–64.					



The **Grb2 adaptor** protein recognizes a specific **phosphorylated tyrosine** on the activated receptor by means of an **SH2** domain

Recruits the Ras GEF Sos by means of an interaction between its **SH3** domains and **proline-rich** regions in Sos

The Ras GAP increases hydrolysis of bound GTP in Ras -> inactivates. Hyperactive Ras=resistant to Ras GAP -> cancer



downstream.

 Both Tyr phosphorylation and activation of Ras typically transient (tyrosine phosphatases and Ras GAPs)



Modified from H. Murakoshi et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 101:7317–7322, 2004. Copyright 2004 National Academy of Sciences, USA. With permission from National Academy of Sciences.

- Ras activates a MAP (mitogen-activated protein) kinase signaling module
 - Signal downstreams + sustained after primary signal runed off
 - MAP kinase (MAPK) → phosphorylates diverse set of proteins → changes in protein activities, gene expression



MAP KINASE SIGNALING MODULE

- Ras activates a MAP (mitogen-activated protein) kinase signaling module
 - MAPK activates effector protein
 - MAPKK activates MAPK
 - MAPKKK activates MAPK



 Scaffold proteins reduce cross-talk between different MAP kinase modules

 Same kinase "unit" can be used in different pathways without crosstalk



PI 3-KINASE

PI 3-kinase binds the phosphorylated tail of RTK receptors



PI 3-KINASE

plasma membrane

• PI 3-kinase produces lipid docking sites in the plasma membrane



PI-3-KINASE-AKT SIGNALING PATHWAY

- The PI-3-kinase—Akt signaling pathway stimulates animal cells to survive and grow
- 1. An extracellular survival signal activates an RTK



4. $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ serves as a docking site for two serine/threonine kinases with PH domains

Phosphoinositides



Pleckstrin homology

PI-3-KINASE-AKT SIGNALING PATHWAY

 The PI-3-kinase–Akt signaling pathway stimulates animal cells to survive and grow
 5. Akt is phosphorylated on a



6. Phosphorylation alters the conformation of the Akt \rightarrow can be phosphorylated on a threonine by PDK1 \rightarrow activates Akt

PI-3-KINASE-AKT SIGNALING PATHWAY

 The PI-3-kinase—Akt signaling pathway stimulates animal cells to survive and grow

survival signal



8. Unphosphorylated Bad holds the apoptosis-inhibitory Bcl2 in an inactive state (lecture 12). Phosphorylated, Bad releases Bcl2, which now can block apoptosis and thereby promote cell survival.

Two mechanisms for PIPs to take part in signaling



Activated PLC hydrolyzes $PI(4,5)P_2$ \rightarrow Inositol 1,4,5trisphosphate (IP₃) \rightarrow Diacylglycerol



 Cytokine receptors activate the JAK–STAT signaling pathway

1. The binding of the cytokine either causes two separate receptor polypeptide chains to dimerize or re-orients the receptor chains in a preformed dimer



 Cytokine receptors activate the JAK–STAT signaling pathway

2. The associated JAKs are brought together so that they can phosphorylate each other on tyrosines to become fully activated, after which they phosphorylate the receptors to generate binding sites for the SH2 domains of STAT proteins



 Cytokine receptors activate the JAK–STAT signaling pathway

3. JAKs phosphorylate the STAT proteins

4. Phosphorylated STAT proteins dissociate from the receptor to form dimers

5. STAT dimers enter the nucleus to control gene expression.



SUMMARY

