

REGULATION BY PROTEIN SWITCHES

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Cell need many switches

- Molecular switches
 - Many cellular processes are not continuous, which require cycle between “on” and “off” states
 - To control
 - Cell growth
 - Cell division
 - Cellular response to extracellular signaling
 - Vesicular transport
 - Protein synthesis
 - Cytoskeleton dynamics
 - ...

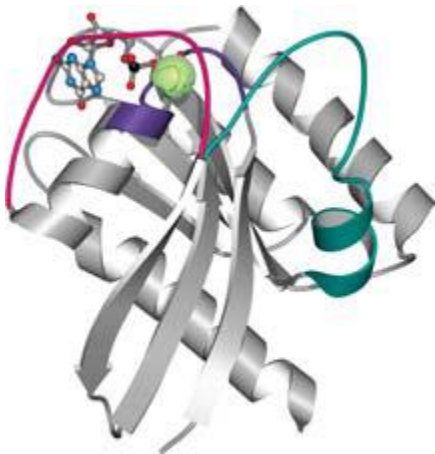


The basis of protein switch

- **Conformational changes** driven by **nucleotide binding and hydrolysis**
 - Most protein switches are enzymes that catalyze the hydrolysis of a nucleoside triphosphate to the diphosphate
 - **GTPase**
 - GTP \rightarrow GDP
 - GTP bound state
 - GDP bound state
 - **ATPase**
 - ATP \rightarrow ADP
 - ATP bound state
 - ADP bound state
 - **Two-component response regulator**
 - Found only in microbes and plants
 - composed of a histidine protein kinase and a second “response regulator” protein

Nucleotide switch proteins share common structural and functional features

The minimal GTPase G domain
(PDB 4Q21)



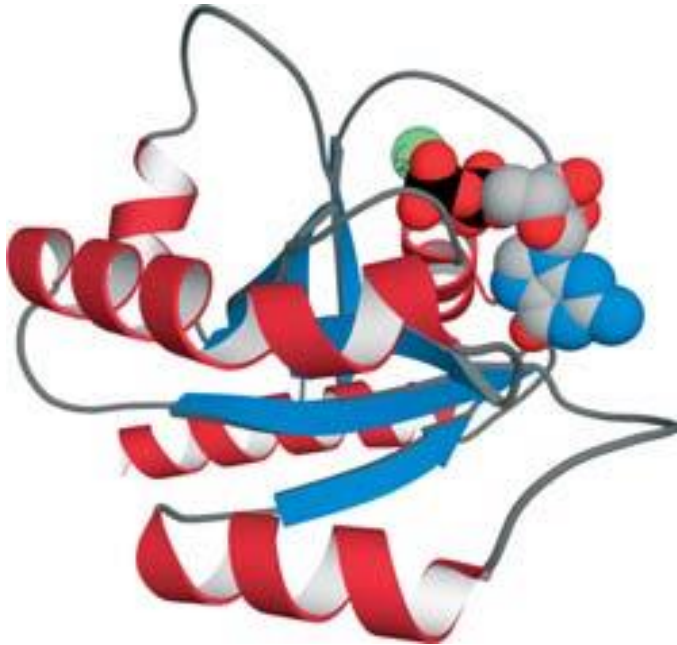
The ATPase domain of the mitotic
spindle kinesin Eg5 (PDB 1II6)



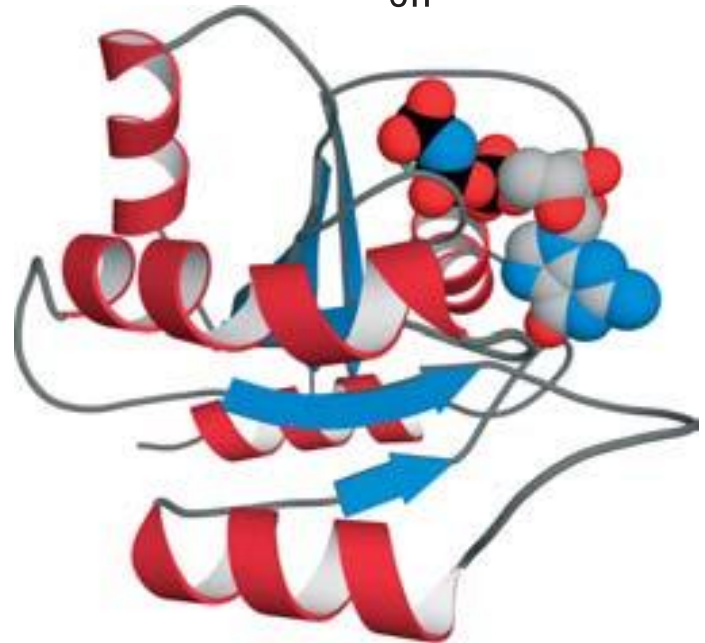
P-loop: phosphate-binding loop, binding the α - and β -phosphates of the nucleotide
Switch I & Switch II: together with Mg^{2+} ion to bind with the triphosphate forms and undergo conformational changes after hydrolysis

Ras

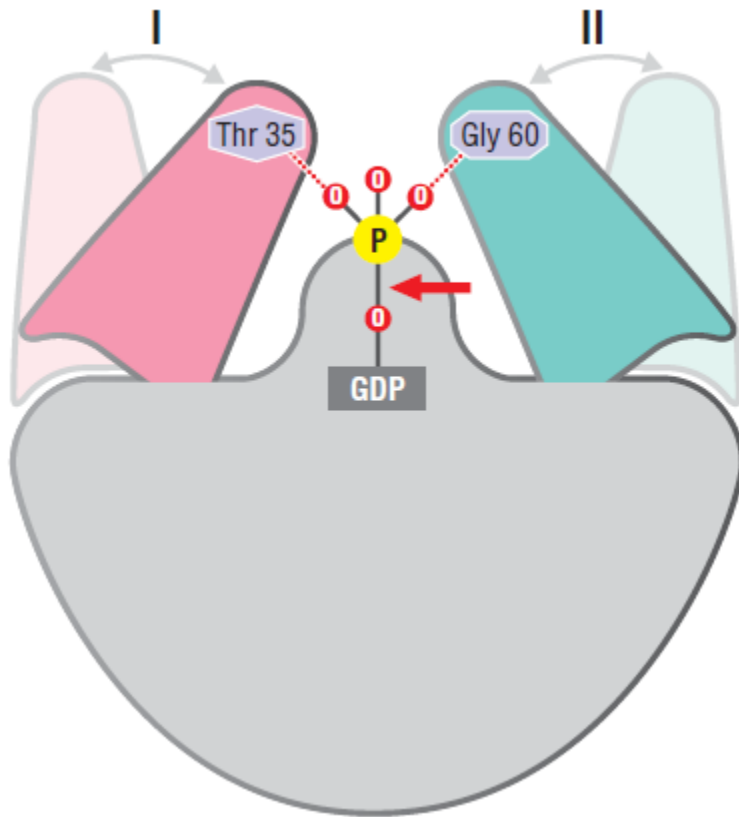
"off"



"on"



The universal switch mechanism of GTPase/ATPase



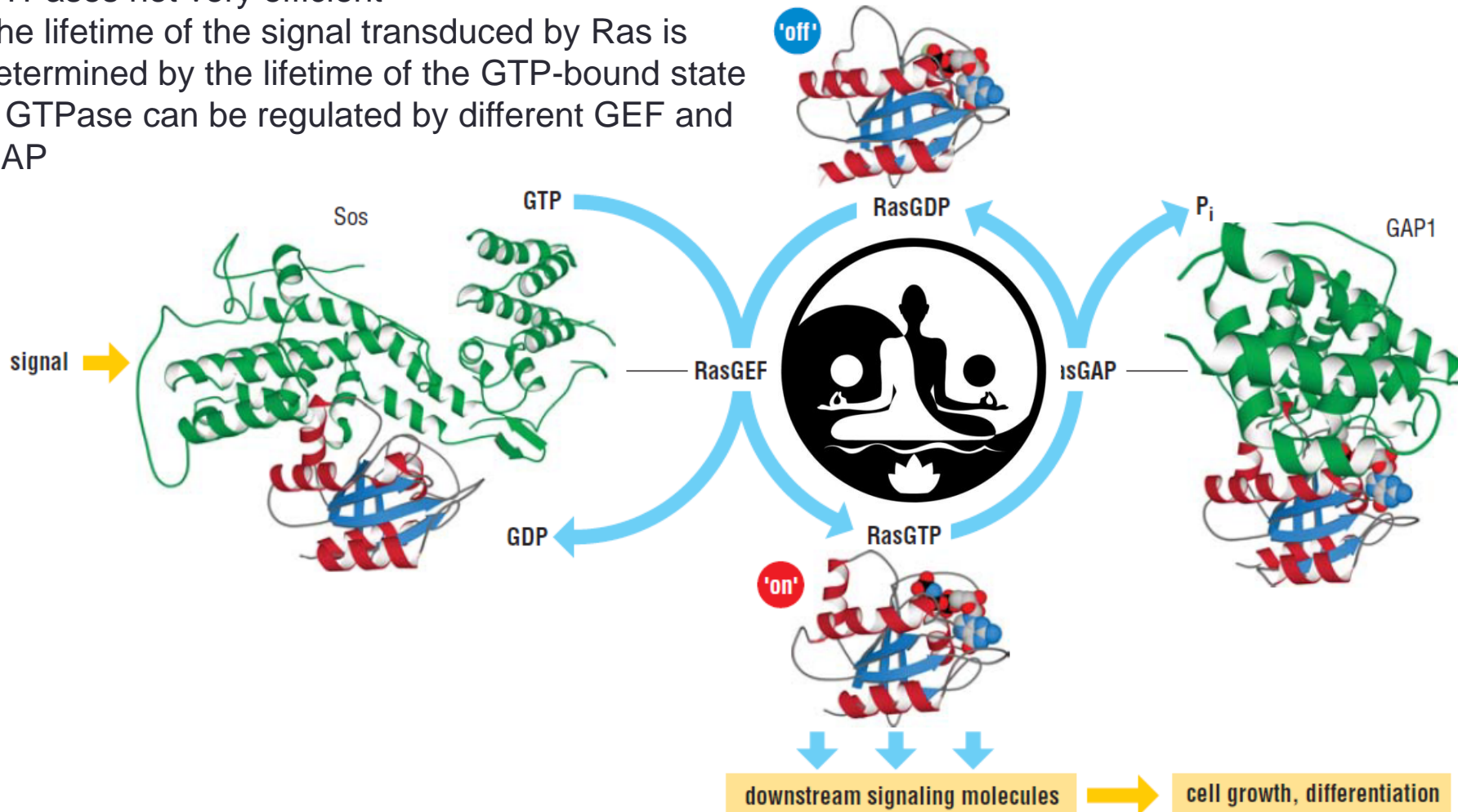
- The “on” state
 - Triphosphate-bound state
 - “Spring-loaded”
 - the terminal γ -phosphate group of the bound nucleotide makes a number of interactions with the two switch regions
- The “off” state
 - Diphosphate-bound state
 - Loss of the γ -phosphate group by hydrolysis provides the trigger for conformational change

Switching cycle

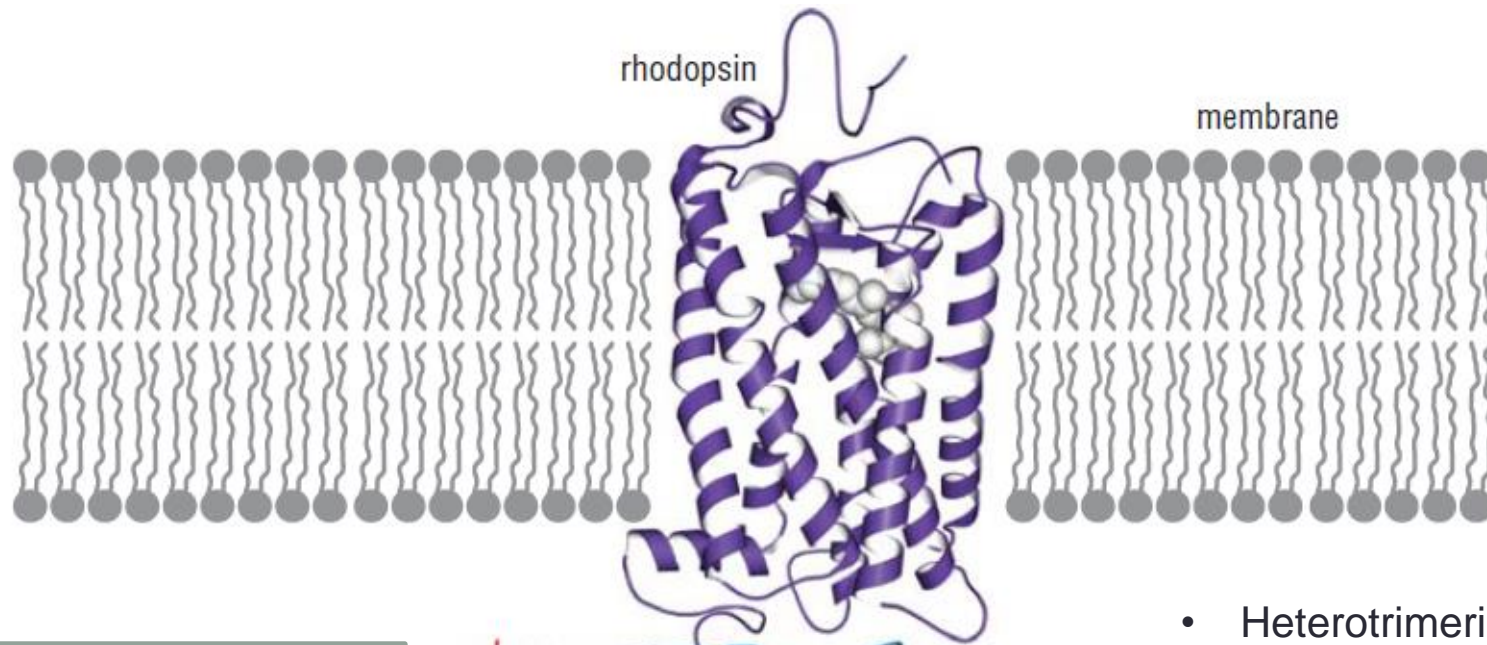
- The switching cycle of nucleotide hydrolysis and exchange in G proteins is modulated by the binding of other proteins
- **GEF**: guanine-nucleotide exchange factor
 - Activator, “off” -> “on”
 - Accelerating the GDP to GTP exchange on GTPase
- **GAP**: GTPase-activating protein
 - Inhibitor, “on” -> “off”
 - Accelerating the GTP hydrolysis

Small G proteins

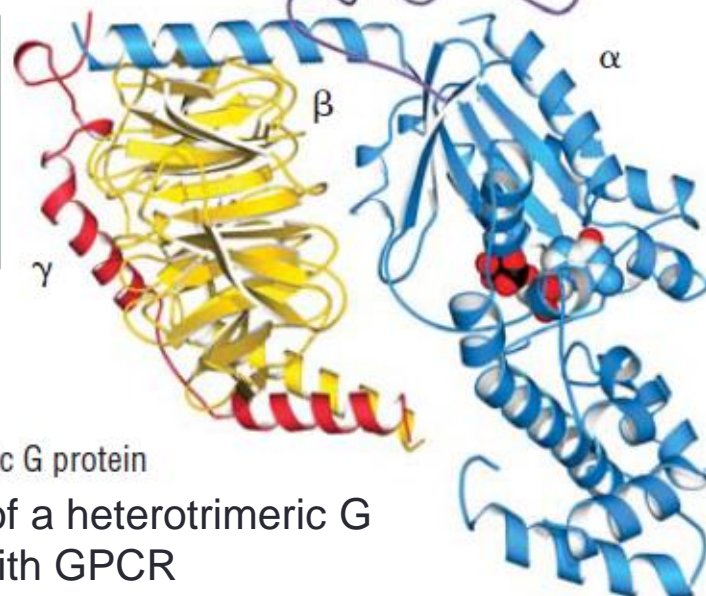
- Without other factors, GTP usually binds weaker with GTPase than GDP
- GTPases not very efficient
- The lifetime of the signal transduced by Ras is determined by the lifetime of the GTP-bound state
- A GTPase can be regulated by different GEF and GAP



Heterotrimeric G protein



Functional specificity of G protein is achieved at least in part by specific RGS protein

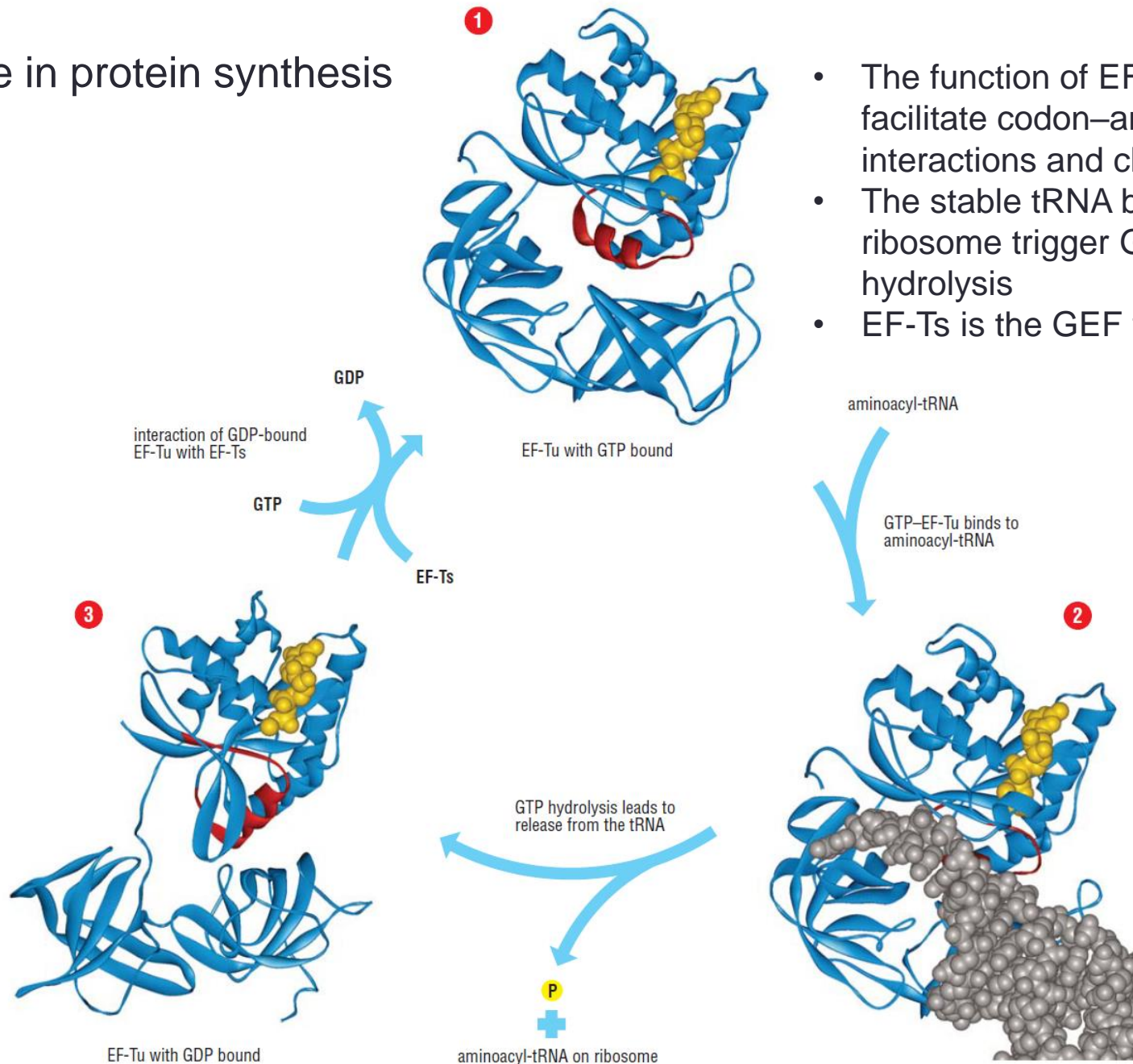


heterotrimeric G protein

Hypothetical model of a heterotrimeric G protein in complex with GPCR

- Heterotrimeric G proteins are large GTPases
- The switching cycle of the heterotrimeric G proteins resembles that of the small monomeric GTPases
- GPCRs act as GEF
- GAPs for G proteins are called regulator of G-protein signaling proteins (RGS proteins)

GTPase in protein synthesis

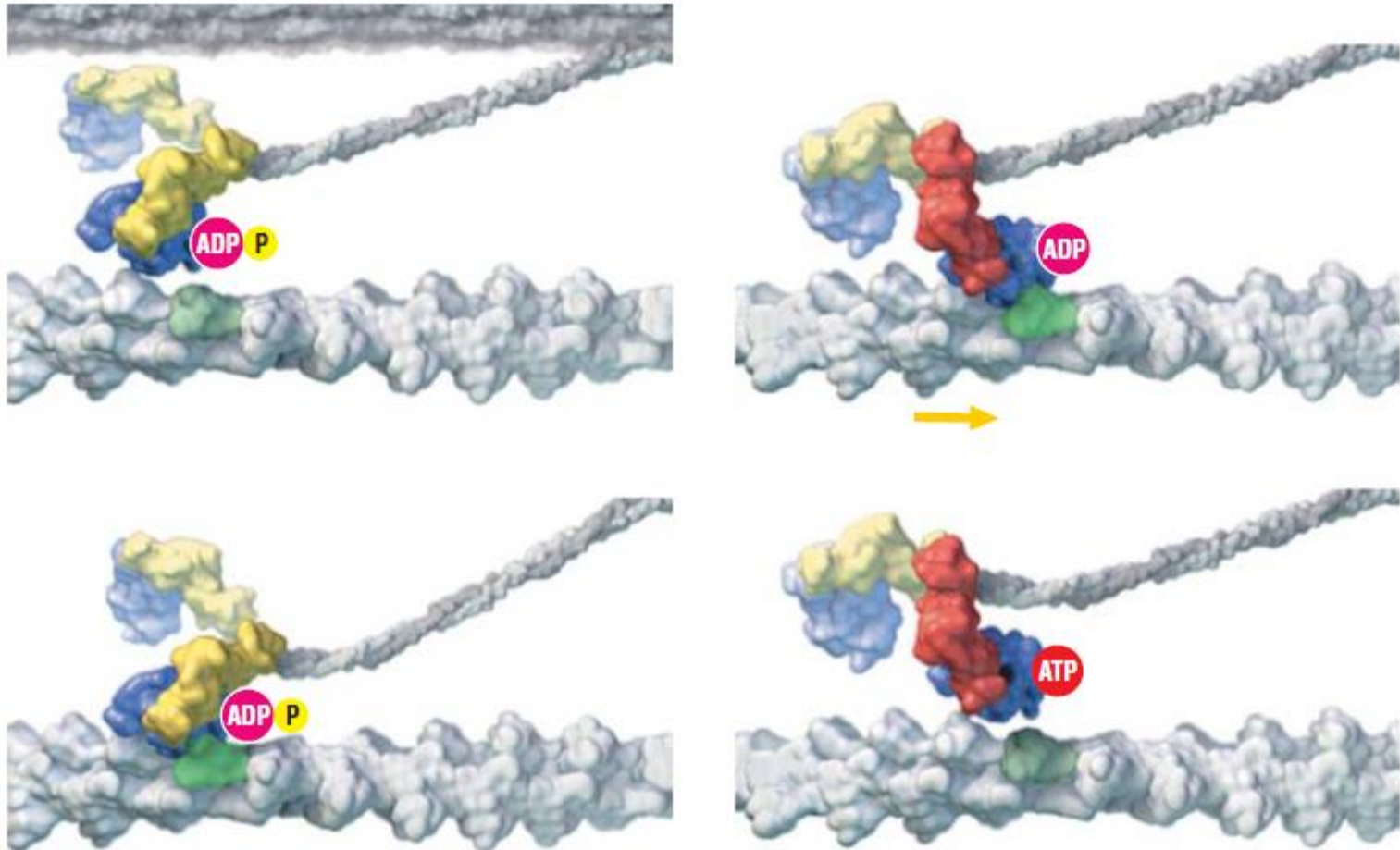


- The function of EF-Tu is to facilitate codon–anticodon interactions and check their fit
- The stable tRNA binding of ribosome trigger GTP hydrolysis
- EF-Ts is the GEF for EF-Tu

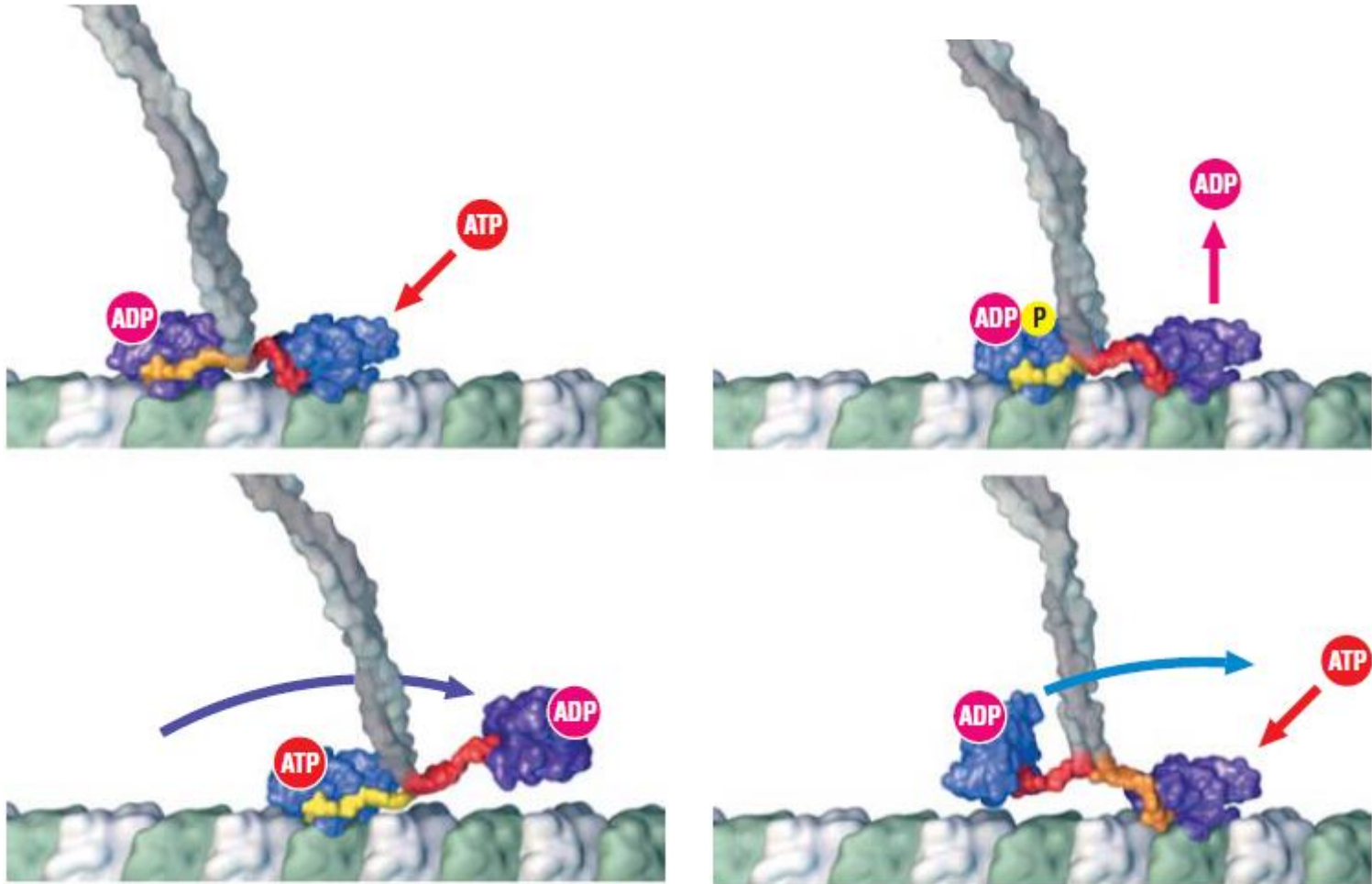
Motor protein switches

- Molecular motor are mostly ATPases
 - Cytoskeleton motors
 - Myosin/Kinesin/Dynein
 - ATP-dependent nucleotide switches that move along actin filaments and microtubules respectively
 - Rotary motors
 - ATP synthase/flagellum
- Common feature of molecular motors
 - Containing a core **ATPase domain**
 - Binds and hydrolyzes ATP
 - Switching between different conformations
 - ATP bound state
 - ADP bound state

Myosin



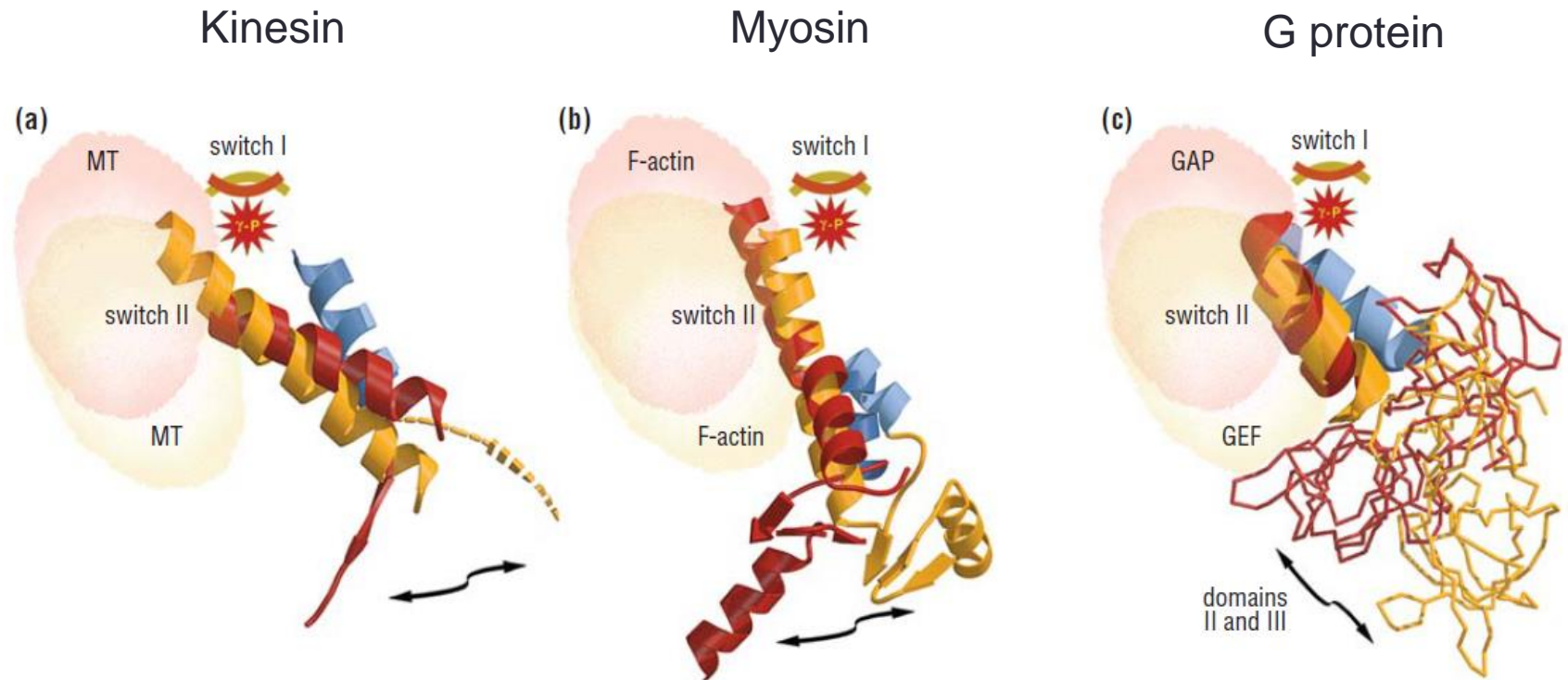
Kinesin



Dynein



Motor share similar switching mechanism with G protein



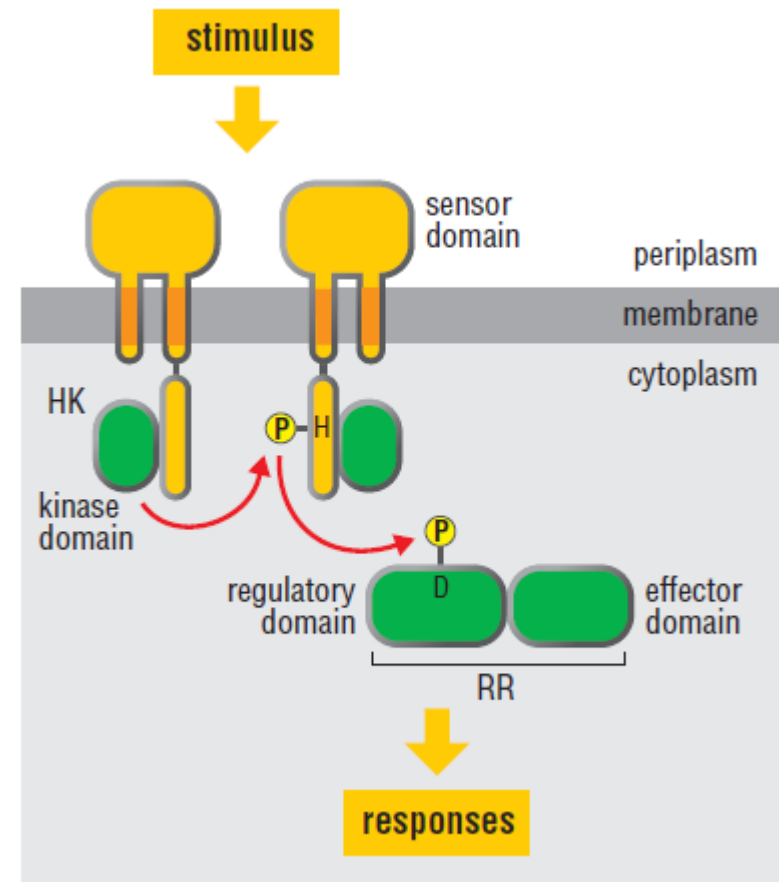
Yellow for the nucleoside diphosphate-bound conformation
Red for the triphosphate-bound conformation

Two-component signaling systems

- Bacteria use a different class of molecular switches with eukaryotic cells
 - G proteins and motor ATPases are generally absent from prokaryotes
 - Two-component systems
- Component 1: histidine protein kinase (HK)
 - Typically a transmembrane protein
 - Composed of a periplasmic sensor domain
 - detects stimuli
 - and cytoplasmic histidine kinase domains
 - catalyze ATP-dependent autophosphorylation
- Component 2: cytoplasmic response regulator protein (RR)
 - Activated by the histidine kinase

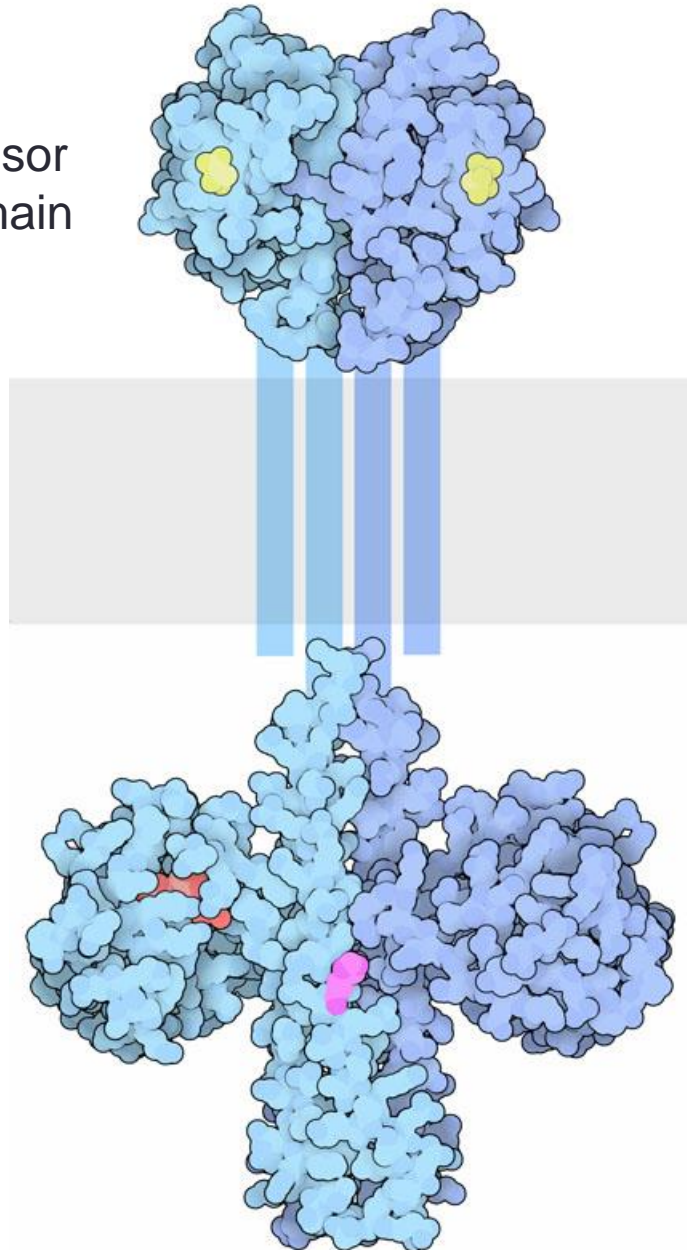
Two-component signaling mechanism

- Stimuli detected by the sensor domain of the histidine kinase regulate the kinase's activities
- The kinase catalyzes ATP-dependent autophosphorylation of a specific histidine residue
- The RR then catalyzes transfer of the phosphoryl group from this phosphorylated histidine to one of its own aspartate residues, located on the regulatory domain
- Phosphorylation of the regulatory domain of the RR activates an effector domain that produces the specific output response



Component 1

Sensor
domain

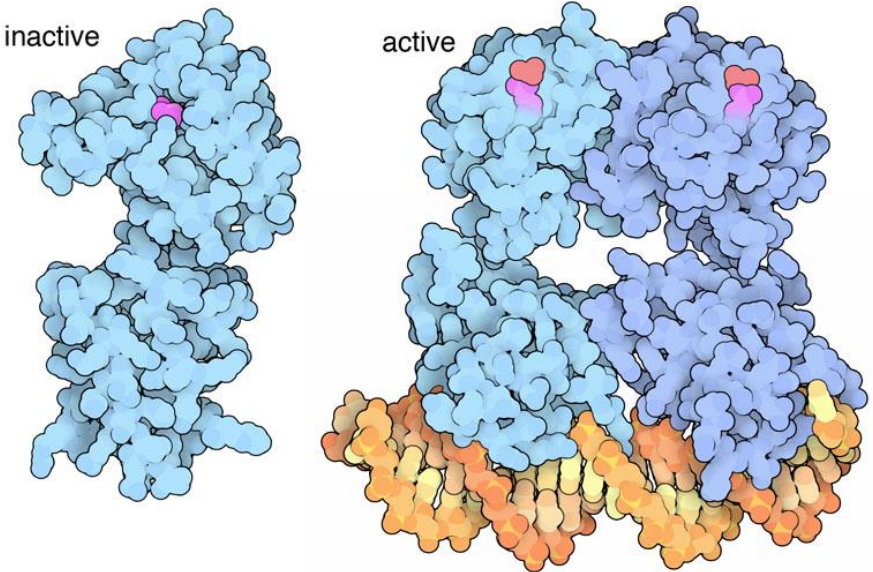


Kinase
domain

Component 2

inactive

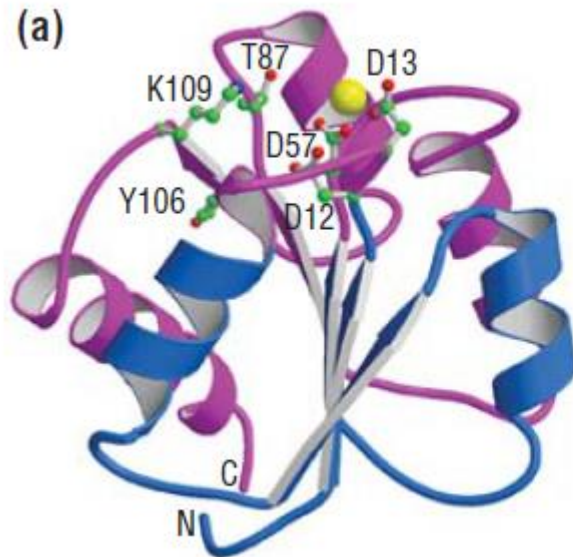
active



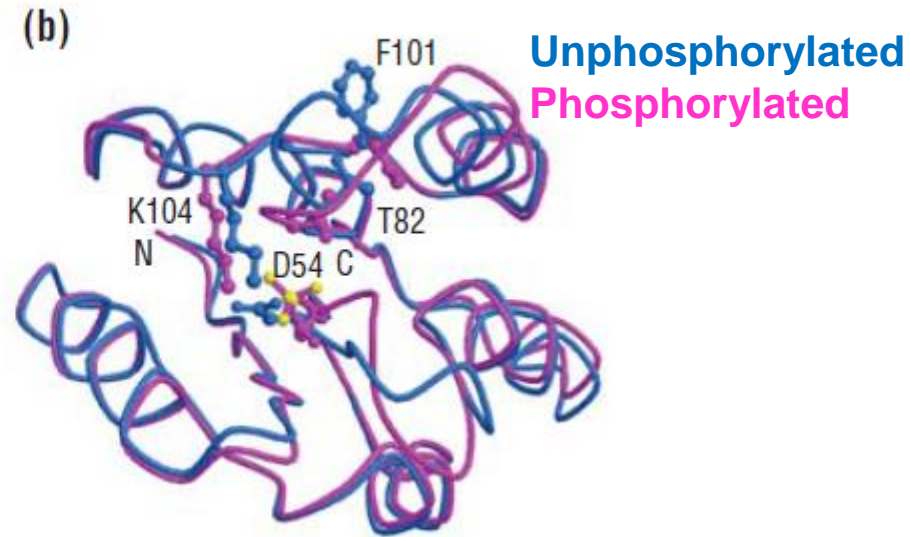
The regulatory domain of RR is the keys for switching

- The regulatory domains of RRs have three activities
 - Interacting with phosphorylated histidine kinase and catalyzing transfer of a phosphoryl group to one of their own aspartate residues
 - Acting as phosphatases that catalyze their own dephosphorylation
 - the counterpart to the GTPase activity of the G proteins
 - Regulating the activities of their associated effector domains (or effector proteins) in a phosphorylation-dependent manner
- The different lifetimes of different regulators allow two-component signal systems to regulate a wide variety of cellular processes

Conserved features of RR regulatory domains



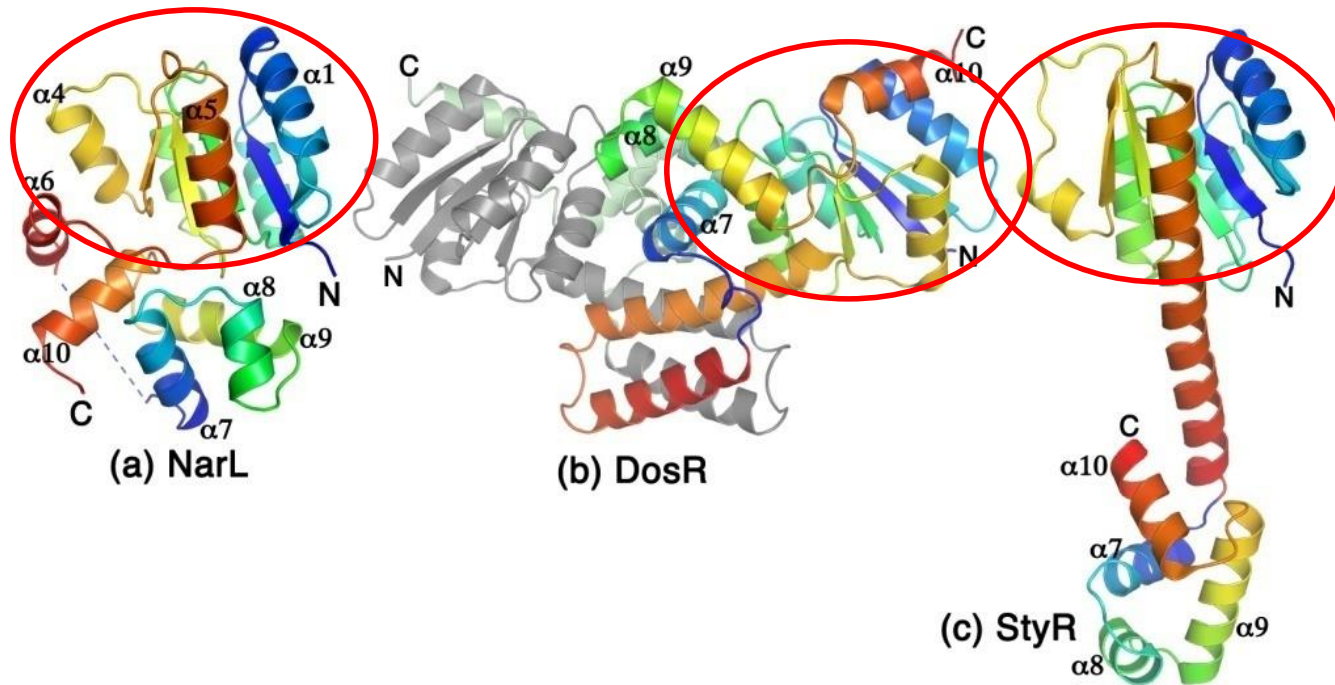
The bacterial RR CheY



The phosphorylation-induced conformational change

- RRs shares a common mechanism in regulatory domain
 - The conserved active-site aspartate, in which phosphorylation is associated with an altered conformation of the regulatory domain
 - The structural changes propagate from the active site

Three RRs' structures from different bacteria *Protein Phosphorylation in Human Health*



Differences in effector domain indicate different strategies adopted by RRs for regulation to achieve function diversity