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1 Review

$_{\mathbf{Q}1}$ Dynamic regulation of lipid–protein interactions

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ABSTRACT

We review the importance of helix motions for the function of several important categories of membrane ⁶⁶ proteins and for the properties of several model molecular systems. For voltage-gated potassium or sodium ⁷⁷ channels, sliding, tilting and/or rotational movements of the S4 helix accompanied by a swapping of cognate ⁸⁸ side-chain ion-pair interactions regulate the channel gating. In the seven-helix G protein-coupled receptors, ⁸⁹ exemplified by the rhodopsins, collective helix motions serve to activate the functional signaling. Peptides ²⁰ which initially associate with lipid-bilayer membrane surfaces may undergo dynamic transitions from surface-²¹ bound to tilted-transmembrane orientations, sometimes accompanied by changes in the molecularity, formation ²² tyrosine kinases, an interplay between juxtamembrane and transmembrane domains is likely to be crucial for the ²⁴ regulation of dimer assembly that in turn is associated with the functional responses to external signals. ²⁵ Additionally, we note that experiments with designed single-span transmembrane helices offer fundamental insights into the molecular features that govern protein–lipid interactions. ²⁷⁷ This article is part of a Special Issue entitled: Lipid–protein interactions. ²⁸⁸

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49 **1. Overview**

50 Dynamic properties as well as time-averaged structural features are 51 crucial for the functions performed by membrane proteins. In this 52 review article, we address the nature and importance of transmem-53 brane helix motions for selected functional membrane proteins and

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbamem.2015.01.019 0005-2736/© 2015 Published by Elsevier B.V. model single-span helical peptides. The collected results reveal that 54 subtle molecular interactions can govern the stabilities of model 55 systems, the resting states of membrane proteins, and the activation 56 of biological function. 57

2. Helix motions in voltage-gated channels

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Although the overall ionic concentration is similar on both sides of a 59 cell membrane, the concentrations of individual ion species vary. A 60 membrane potential on the order of -100 mV can be generated by 61 the charge separation resulting from the pumping of specific ions 62

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against their concentration gradients. The cell membrane acts as an 63 64 insulating barrier separating the charges, with the low dielectric inner hydrophobic core sandwiched on both sides by the high dielectric 65 66 media of the inside and outside of the cell. The thinness of the hydrophobic section (~27 Å) causes the membrane potential to form a robust 67 electric field reaching values up to 107 V/m, which many membrane 68 69 proteins use to regulate cell functions. A change in the electric field 70causes reorientation of electric charges or dipoles within a protein, 71triggering conformational changes that may regulate protein function. 72The movement of charges or dipoles induces a "gating current" that can be measured experimentally to obtain direct indications of the 73conformational changes. 74

Proteins sense voltage by multiple methods: 1) Polar residues 75such as Asp, Glu, Arg, Lys and His can reorient in an electric field, a 76 mechanism found to be important in voltage-gated ion channels 77 (Fig. 1A). 2) Side chains with an intrinsic dipole moment such as Tyr 78 may also orientate in the electric field (Fig. 1B), 3) Though not 79 80 recognized yet as a voltage sensor, the α -helix with its intrinsic dipole can also be a voltage-sensing structure, with the ability to reorient in 81 the field (Fig. 1C). 4) Some proteins contain cavities within which free 82 ions can associate (Fig. 1D). A change in the electric field may move 83 free ions, initiating a conformational change, a mechanism found in 84 85 Na^+-K^+ pump. The complex molecular structure of the channel causes the field strength near the voltage center to be different from the field 86 strength near the lipid bilayer [1]. 87

Voltage-gated Na⁺, K⁺ and Ca⁺² channels play crucial roles in 88 excitable cells. Each of these channels contains voltage sensors and a 89 90 selective ion-conduction pore. Their general structure comprises either four independent protein subunits (K⁺ channels) or one long poly-91 peptide containing four homologous domains (eukaryotic Na⁺ and 92 93 Ca⁺² channels). Each domain contains six transmembrane segments (S1–S6) and a pore loop between segments S5 and S6. The voltage 9495sensor is made up of the first four transmembrane segments, with the conduction pore formed by the last two segments and the pore loop. 96 The channels are arranged symmetrically around a central conduction 97 pore, surrounded by four copies of the voltage sensor. The S4 segment 98 99 was early recognized as a potential candidate for voltage sensing owing to the arrangement of basic residues (Arg and Lys) at every 100 third position [2]. The first four most extracellular basic residues of S4 101

and the most intracellular acidic residue of S2 are involved in gating 102 currents [3,4].

Two models of channel function, the sliding helix [5,6] and the 104 helical screw model [7], predict that the S4 segments have a transmem- 105 brane orientation and that the positively charged residues within S4 106 serve as gating charges. The charges would move outward across 107 the membrane in response to depolarization, thereby initiating the 108 activation process. Based on thermodynamic and structural consider- 109 ations, along with extensive structure-function studies and molecular 110 modeling, the sliding helix and helical screw models propose that the 111 positively charged residues in S4 form ion pairs with negatively charged 112 residues in the neighboring S1, S2 and/or S3 segments [8]. The negative 113 resting membrane potential draws the positively charged residues of S4 114 inward; upon depolarization, this electrostatic force is relieved, 115 allowing each of the S4 segments to move outward spirally such that 116 each positively charged side chain can form a new ion pair with a 117 negatively charged residue (Fig. 2). This configuration would provide 118 the thermodynamic stability required to allow the gating charges 119 of S4 segment to move within the hydrophobic environment of 120 membrane. Studies on the effects of mutating these charges on the 121 gating current of K⁺ channels have directly confirmed the importance 122 of the S4 positive charges and also the highly conserved second 123 negatively charged residue on S2 [3,4] for channel opening. 124

One of the most important tenets of the sliding helix model is that 125 S4 remains in a transmembrane position as it translocates the 126 gating charges. The intracellular end of S4 is linked covalently to the N- 127 terminal of S5, which forms the outer circumference of the pore. Site 128 specific mutagenesis and gating charge measurements reveal that the 129 S3–S4 linker is on the extracellular side of the membrane in the resting 130 state [9,10]. Real-time fluorescence quenching and energy transfer mea- 131 surements have confirmed S4 motions. Experiments in which selected 132 Arg-to-Cys mutants within S4 were labeled with methanethiosulfonate 133 (MTS) revealed that the inner Arg/Cys replacements are susceptible to 134 MTS from inside the cell in resting state, and accessible to MTS from 135 outside the cell after depolarization [11,12]. Fluorescent labeling studies 136 indicate that several residues on S4 spiral outward toward a hydrophilic 137 environment during activation. Detailed studies of channels labeled at 138 multiple S4 positions provided evidence for both outward translocation 139 and rotation of S4 up to 180° during activation [13,14]. 140

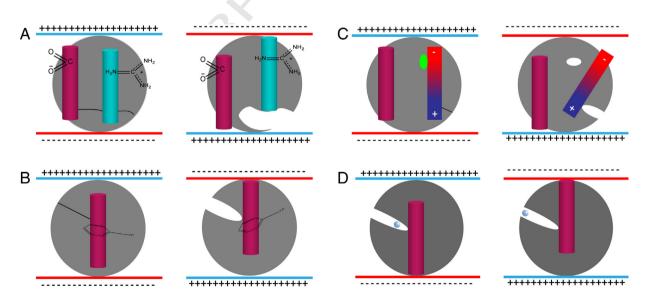


Fig. 1. Possible structures of voltage sensors. The diagram shows a hypothetical protein (gray circle) and a formation of an active site resulting from voltage-induced conformational change that is regulated by specific regions of the protein (magenta and cyan cylinders). A. Charged amino acids may move within membrane as a response to changes in membrane voltage. The carboxyl and guanidinium groups of Asp and Arg are shown. B. Changes in the field may result in reorientation of an intrinsic dipole such as Tyr. C. An α -helical protein the length of the membrane (red to blue gradient) has a dipole moment that can reorientate when field is changed. The oval attached to the helix represents a fluorophore that may be quenched as a consequence of the conformational change. D. A channel within the protein can redistribute ions (light blue circle) in the direction of the field to initiate a conformational change. Figure redrawn from [1].

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