

Distinct conformations of GPCR $-\beta$ -arrestin complexes mediate desensitization, signaling, and endocytosis

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 β -Arrestins (β arrs) interact with G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) to desensitize G protein signaling, to initiate signaling on their own, and to mediate receptor endocytosis. Prior structural studies have revealed two unique conformations of GPCR– β arr complexes: the "tail" conformation, with β arr primarily coupled to the phosphorylated GPCR C-terminal tail, and the "core" conformation, where, in addition to the phosphorylated C-terminal tail, β arr is further engaged with the receptor transmembrane core. However, the relationship of these distinct conformations to the various functions of β arrs is unknown. Here, we created a mutant form of β arr lacking the "finger-loop" region, which is unable to form the core conformation but retains the ability to form the tail conformation. We find that the tail conformation preserves the ability to mediate receptor internalization and β arr signaling but not desensitization of G protein signaling. Thus, the two GPCR– β arr conformations can carry out distinct functions.

GPCR | arrestin | endocytosis | signaling | desensitization

Over the past decade, significant efforts have been made to understand the molecular properties and regulatory mechanisms that control the function of β -arrestin (β arr) interactions with G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) (1, 2). Once activated, GPCRs initiate a highly conserved signaling and regulatory cascade marked by interactions with: (*i*) heterotrimeric G proteins, which mediate their actions largely by promoting second-messenger generation (3); (*ii*) GPCR kinases (GRKs), which phosphorylate activated conformations of receptors (4); and (*iii*) β arrs, which bind to the phosphorylated receptor internalization (5, 6). In addition to their canonical function of desensitization and internalization, β arrs have been appreciated as independent signaling units by virtue of their crucial role as both adaptors and scaffolds for an increasing number of signaling pathways (7–11).

There are two driving forces that mediate β arr interactions with an activated GPCR: phosphorylation of the C-terminal tail of the receptor by GRKs and/or binding to the transmembrane core of the receptor. How each of these interactions contributes to β arr functionality remains unclear. Moreover, GPCRs tend to either interact with β arr transiently, termed "class A" GPCRs [e.g., β_2 -adrenergic receptor (β_2 AR)], or tightly, known as "class B" GPCRs [e.g., vasopressin type 2 receptor (V₂R)]. For the current study, we use a previously described chimeric β_2 V₂R construct, which comprises the β_2 AR with its C-terminal tail exchanged with the V₂R C-terminal tail (12–14). The β_2 V₂R construct provides an ideal system for studying a GPCR– β arr complex in vitro, because it maintains identical pharmacological properties to the WT $\beta_2 AR$ and has a robustly increased class B affinity for $\beta_3 rr1$, which allows stable $\beta_2 V_2 R$ - $\beta_3 rr$ complexes to be formed and purified.

Structural insights have shed some light onto the complexity of the interaction between GPCRs and β arrs. A recent structural study of a constitutively active rhodopsin–arrestin fusion protein revealed high-resolution information about a single conformation of the complex in which the arrestin engaged via the transmembrane core of the receptor (12). However, negative-stain electron microscopy (EM) analysis of an antigen-binding fragment 30 (Fab30)–stabilized β_2V_2R – β arr1–Fab30 complex demonstrated that the β_2V_2R – β arr1 complex assumes two unique conformations: one in which ~63% of the β arr1 in the complex is bound only to the phosphorylated receptor C-terminal tail and appears to hang from the receptor ("tail" conformation) and a second more fully engaged conformation representing ~37%, in which, in addition to the tail interaction, the

Significance

 β -Arrestins (β arrs) interact with G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) to desensitize G protein signaling, initiate signaling on their own, and mediate receptor endocytosis. Using a panel of GPCRs believed to couple differently to β arrs, we demonstrate how distinct conformations of GPCR- β arr complexes are specialized to perform different subsets of these cellular functions. Our results thus provide a new signaling paradigm for the understanding of GPCRs, whereby a specific GPCR- β arr conformation mediates receptor desensitization, and another drives internalization and some forms of signaling.

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finger-loop region (FLR) of β arr1 inserts into the transmembrane core of the receptor ("core" conformation) (13).

It is not known whether different GPCR- β arr conformations mediate distinct functional outputs. Thus, we sought to identify β arr1 mutants that predominantly form complexes with $\beta_2 V_2 R$ in one or the other conformation, and then to test their ability to promote β arr-mediated internalization, signaling, and desensitization of G protein signaling.

Results

We focused our mutagenesis approach on the FLR of $\beta arr1$ because this region mediates an essential interaction with the receptor transmembrane core (13, 15) that stabilizes the GPCR– βarr complex core conformation (16). Disrupting this interaction through $\beta arr1$ mutagenesis, we reasoned, would allow us to obtain a $\beta arr1$ that predominantly forms GPCR– βarr tail conformation complexes, and not any core-conformation complexes, when bound to GPCRs. To identify β arr1 mutants that primarily form $\beta_2 V_2 R$ - β arr1 complexes in the tail conformation, we devised a method to form (and purify) these complexes on a small scale (Fig. 1*A*), and then applied single-particle classification analysis using negative-stain EM to assess their structural features (Fig. 1*B*–*E*). Furthermore, we developed a camelid nanobody, Nb32, which binds to and stabilizes active β arr1 that predominantly complexes with $\beta_2 V_2 R$ in the core conformation (Fig. 1*B*–*F* and Figs. S1 and S2). Using our method, the addition of Nb32 to the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ – β arr1–Fab30 complex increased the percentage of $\beta_2 V_2 R$ – β arr1 complexes in the core conformation from 34 to 63% (Fig. 1*F* and Figs. S1 and S2), thus allowing a more precise assessment of β arr1 mutants defective in their ability to form $\beta_2 V_2 R$ – β arr1 core-conformation complexes.

None of the mutations in the FLR of $\beta arr1$ that were tested prevented $\beta arr1$ from forming complexes with $\beta_2 V_2 R$ as analyzed by pull-down assays and EM (Fig. 1 and Figs. S1 and S2). However, several mutants severely reduced the ability of $\beta arr1$ to bind to receptor via the core conformation in the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ - $\beta arr1$ -Fab30



Fig. 1. T4 lysozyme $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1$ complexes formed and analyzed via EM with a newly developed functional purification method. (A) Schematic representation of the purification method to generate $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1$ complexes. (*B*) Coomassie gel showing WT $\beta arr1$ interaction with $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R$ in the absence or presence of conformation-stabilizing antibodies (Fab30, Nb32). IP, immunoprecipitation. (C) Representative negative-stain raw EM image of $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1-Fab30$ complexes. (*D*) Class averages of the $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1-Fab30$ complexes (*Top*) and $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1-Fab30-Nb32$ complexes (*Bottom*) from negative-stain EM classification analysis. (*E*) Representative class averages (with cartoon representations) of the $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1-Fab30$ complex in the tail and core conformations. (Scale bars: *C*, 20 nm; *D* and *E*, 10 nm.) (*F*) Summarized results of the different $\beta arr1$ FLR constructs tested for their ability to form the $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1-Fab30$ core conformation in the presence or absence of Nb32. Note that the tail conformation encompasses all those $(T4L)\beta_2V_2R-\beta arr1$ complexes that are not in the core conformation.

complex, even in the presence of Nb32 (Fig. 1*F*). Most notable is the $\beta arr1$ (Δ FLR) mutant (Fig. 1*F*, construct 2), with the entire FLR removed, which led to a substantial decrease in the core conformation of the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ - $\beta arr1$ -Fab30 complex even in the presence of Nb32. Together, these results demonstrate that the $\beta arr1$ (Δ FLR) mutant is strongly impaired in its ability to interact with the receptor transmembrane core, and thus serves as a model for $\beta arr1$ that forms a complex with the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ predominantly in the tail conformation.

Next, using the $\beta_2 V_2 R$, the cellular functionality of $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) was confirmed using well-established $\beta arr1$ recruitment and internalization assays (Fig. S3.4). Removal of the FLR did not impair agonist-mediated recruitment of $\beta arr1$ or $\beta arr1$ mediated receptor internalization, indicating that $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) can perform these functions for the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ (Fig. S3.4). We then set out to test whether distinct conformations of GPCR- $\beta arr1$ complexes determine differential functional outcomes by using an array of well-established biochemical, cellular, and biophysical assays. In addition to the chimeric $\beta_2 V_2 R$, its more physiological relatives, $\beta_2 AR$ and $V_2 R$, were studied in parallel.

Classical GPCR activation promotes translocation of β arr1 from the cytosol to the GPCRs in the plasma membrane, and subsequently facilitates intracellular trafficking of GPCRs to endosomes (14). Thus, to ascertain the impact of the β arr1 (Δ FLR) mutant on recruitment to the β_2 AR, β_2 V₂R, and V₂R, as well as subsequent trafficking, confocal microscopy imaging was applied. Using this approach, we tracked the cellular localization of N-terminal SNAP-tagged GPCRs (SNAP- β_2 AR, SNAP- β_2 V₂R, or SNAP-V₂R) prelabeled with SNAP-Surface 649 fluorescence substrate and GFP- β arr1 (WT) or GFP- β arr1 (Δ FLR) in β arr1/ β arr2 double-knockout (DKO) HEK293 cells following agonist treatment (16). The experiments demonstrate that β arr1 (WT or Δ FLR) is recruited to both the β_2 V₂R and V₂R, and that both mediate receptor internalization to endosomes, 30 min post-stimulation, to a similar extent (Fig. 2). In contrast, only the β arr1 (WT), but not the β arr1 (Δ FLR), is recruited to the β_2 AR upon agonist stimulation followed by receptor internalization.

The cellular trafficking pattern of $\beta arr1$ (WT or ΔFLR) was further quantified using bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET) biosensors to monitor recruitment to the plasma membrane [Renilla reniformis green fluorescent protein (rGFP)-CAAX as a plasma membrane marker)] and early endosome (rGFP-FYVE as an early endosomal marker) upon agonist stimulation of the three GPCRs in DKO HEK293 cells (17) (Fig. 3A). Agonist stimulation of $\beta_2 AR$, $\beta_2 V_2 R$, or $V_2 R$ caused an increase in the BRET signal between RlucII-Barr1 (WT) and the plasma-membrane rGFP-CAAX biosensor (Fig. 3B and Fig. S3B). With the β arr1 (Δ FLR), agonist stimulation of either $\beta_2 V_2 R$ or $V_2 R$ also increased the BRET signal between RlucII- β arr1 (Δ FLR) and rGFP-CAAX, but to a slightly reduced extent for the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ compared with RlucIIβarr1 (WT) (Fig. 3B and Fig. S3B). These findings indicate that both $\beta_2 V_2 R$ and $V_2 R$ are not dependent, to any large extent, on the core interaction to form a stable complex with Barr1. However, for the β_2AR , there was no increased BRET signal between RlucII- β_{arr1}



Fig. 2. Cellular localization of SNAP- $\beta_2 AR$ (*A*), SNAP- $\beta_2 V_2 R$ (*B*), or SNAP- $V_2 R$ (*C*), prelabeled with SNAP-surface 649 fluorescent substrate (red) and GFP- $\beta_3 rr1$ (WT or Δ FLR) (green), visualized by confocal microscopy. Cellular localization of fluorescently tagged proteins is shown before agonist addition (0 min) or 30 min after agonist stimulation. To stimulate the GPCRs, 1 μ M BI-167107 was applied for the SNAP- $\beta_2 AR$ and SNAP- $\beta_2 V_2 R$, and 100 nM arginine vasopressin was applied for the SNAP- $V_2 R$ (100× objective, n = 3 independent experiments, n = 20–50 cells per experiment). (Scale bar: 10 μ m.)



Fig. 3. Interaction between $\beta arr1$ (WT or Δ FLR) and either rGFP-CAAX (plasma membrane marker) or rGFP-FYVE (early endosomal marker) upon agonist stimulation of β_2AR , β_2V_2R , or V_2R . (*A*) Schematic representation of the experimental design used to monitor agonist-promoted BRET between Rlucll- $\beta arr1$ (WT or Δ FLR) and rGFP-CAAX or rGFP-FYVE. (*B*) BRET concentration-response experiments assessing the agonist-stimulated Rlucll- $\beta arr1$ (WT or Δ FLR) recruitment to plasma membrane-located rGFP-CAAX. Upon agonist addition, a difference in BRET was detected between $\beta arr1$ (WT) and β_2AR (P = 0.0022), but not between $\beta arr1$ (Δ FLR) and β_2AR (P = 0.4306). Agonist-mediated changes in net BRET between $\beta arr1$ (WT) and $\beta arr1$ (Δ FLR) were detected for both the β_2AR (P = 0.0015) and β_2V_2R (P < 0.0001), but not for V_2R (P = 0.0820). (C) BRET concentration-response experiments assessing the agonist-stimulated Rlucll- $\beta arr1$ (WT or Δ FLR) localization to early endosomal-located rGFP-FYVE. Upon agonist addition, no BRET difference was detected between either $\beta arr1$ (WT) and β_2AR (P = 0.0015) and β_2AR (P = 0.0016, respectively). Agonist-mediated changes in net BRET between $\beta arr1$ (WT) and $\beta arr1$ (Δ FLR) were detected for $\beta arr1$ (Δ FLR) and β_2AR (P = 0.016, respectively). Agonist-mediated changes in net BRET difference was detected between either $\beta arr1$ (WT) β_2V_2R (P = 0.0034) and V_2R (P = 0.0014), but not for β_2AR (P = 0.9057). In all experiments, BRET was measured 30 min following addition of agonist or vehicle. To stimulate the GPCRs, 1 μ M BI-167107 was applied for the β_2AR and β_2V_2R , and 100 nM arginine vasopressin (AVP) was applied for the V_2R . Data are expressed as net BRET absolute values, represent the mean \pm SE, are pooled from four to six experiments, and are analyzed using either a paired *t* test (two conditions) or one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons post hoc test (three or more conditions).

(Δ FLR) and rGFP-CAAX upon agonist stimulation, suggesting that the β arr1 (Δ FLR) is unable to be recruited to this GPCR (Fig. 3*B* and Fig. S3*B*).

A significant, but slightly reduced, agonist-promoted BRET increase between RlucII- $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) and the early endosomal marker, rGFP-FYVE, biosensor was detected compared with $\beta arr1$ (WT) for the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ or $V_2 R$. These results suggest that $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) is capable of mediating internalization of the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ or $V_2 R$ to early endosomes, although to a lesser extent than $\beta arr1$ (WT) (Fig. 3*C* and Fig. S3*B*). In agreement with previous work (16) on the $\beta_2 AR$ and its interaction with $\beta arr1$ showing that this class A GPCR recycles quickly and that $\beta arr1$ is not present in endosomes, no change in the BRET signal was detected between RlucII- β arr1 (WT or Δ FLR) and rGFP-FYVE following agonist treatment of β_2 AR-transfected DKO HEK293 cells (Fig. 3*C* and Fig. S3*B*).

The scaffolding function of β arrs, as signal transducers, has been characterized for multiple signaling proteins, including c-Src (18, 19). Formation of GPCR– β arr1–c-Src ternary complexes has been demonstrated to regulate multiple cellular functions downstream of various GPCRs (20). Thus, to investigate the capacity of β arr1 in the GPCR– β arr1 tail conformation to scaffold c-Src, we evaluated the ability of β arr1 (WT or Δ FLR) to interact with c-Src upon activation of β_2 AR, β_2 V₂R, or V₂R in DKO HEK293 cells by coimmunoprecipitation. As expected, βarr1 (WT) effectively binds c-Src upon stimulation of all three GPCRs (Fig. 4 A and B). We also observed that the ability of the $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) to scaffold c-Src, upon stimulation of the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ and $V_2 R$, was slightly reduced relative to $\beta_2 rr1$ (WT) (Fig. 4 A and B). In contrast, $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) does not interact with c-Src upon $\beta_2 AR$ stimulation, as might be expected, because $\beta arr1$ (Δ FLR) is not recruited to β_2 AR. The scaffolding function of β arr1 (Δ FLR) was further explored by Glutathione Sepharose (GST) pull-down assays using purified 6×His-βarr1 (WT or Δ FLR) and GST–c-Src either in the absence or presence of the phosphorylated V₂R C-terminal peptide (V₂Rpp). In the presence of V₂Rpp, an increased interaction was observed between βarr1 (WT or Δ FLR) and GST–c-Src (Fig. S3C). The β arr1 (Δ FLR) mutant is slightly impaired relative to *βarr1* (WT) with respect to scaffolding c-Src in vitro, a trend also observed in our aforementioned cellular studies of both Barr1-c-Src scaffolding and Barr1mediated GPCR internalization to endosomes (Figs. 3C and 4A).

βarr1 is known to promote desensitization of GPCR-stimulated G protein-mediated signaling. The mechanism underlying βarr1mediated desensitization is thought to involve the interaction between βarr and the receptor core; this core conformation, presumably, sterically blocks the G protein-binding site in the receptor core (21). To assess the importance of the FLR of βarr1 for receptor desensitization directly, we monitored the attenuation of agonist-stimulated heterotrimeric Gs protein signaling, measured here as cAMP accumulation, in either the DKO (for the β_2AR) or a $\beta arr1/\beta arr2/\beta_2AR$ triple-knockout (for the β_2V_2R and V_2R) HEK293 cell line expressing ICUE2, a fluorescence resonance energy transfer biosensor-detecting cytoplasmic cAMP (22). This ICUE2 biosensor measures cAMP concentration in real time, and thus represents equilibrium between production and degradation of cAMP. β_2AR , β_2V_2R , and V_2R were all expressed at near-endogenous levels (~100–400 fmol/mg), together with GRK2-CAAX, to ensure effective receptor phosphorylation and $\beta arr1$ recruitment upon agonist challenge. For all three GPCRs, agonist stimulation led to a rapid onset of cAMP generation, and this signal was only minimally reduced throughout the 30-min duration of the experiment (Fig. 4C).

We next coexpressed $\beta arr1$ (WT or ΔFLR) to test its ability to desensitize G protein signaling. Within the first 2 min of agonist challenge, β_2AR , β_2V_2R , and V_2R all stimulated cAMP production to a similar extent. Beyond 2 min, $\beta arr1$ (WT) attenuated the cAMP responses differently among these receptors (Fig. 4*C*), and most prominently for the WT β_2AR , where the addition of $\beta arr1$ (WT) led to rapid, but incomplete, desensitization. In contrast, $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) did not mediate any desensitization of the β_2AR -stimulated cAMP response because it is not recruited



Fig. 4. Functional outcomes of different GPCR– β arr1 complex conformations. (*A*) Schematic representation of the functional outcomes mediated by GPCR– β arr1 complex tail conformation and GPCR– β arr1 complex core conformation. (*B*) β arr1-mediated scaffolding of c-Src upon activation of β_2 AR, β_2 V₂R, or V₂R. HEK293 DKO cells were transfected with plasmids for β_2 AR, β_2 V₂R, or V₂R, c-Src, and HA- β arr1 (WT or Δ FLR). Serum-starved cells were stimulated with or without agonist BI-167107 (1 μ M) or AVP (100 nM) for 10 min and then cross-linked using dithiobis(succinimidyl propionate); finally, anti-HA beads were used to pull down β arr1 (WT or Δ FLR). The amount of total c-Src bound to HA- β arr1 (WT or Δ FLR) was determined by immunoblotting (IB). Data represent the mean \pm SE of four to five experiments. One-way ANOVA was performed to determine statistical differences between basal and agonist-stimulated states (*****P* < 0.0001), or agonist-stimulated states in β arr1 (WT)- and β arr1 (Δ FLR)-transfected cells (##*P* < 0.01, ####*P* < 0.0001). (*C*) β arr1-mediated desensitization of β_2 AR, β_2 V₂R, or V₂R. Real-time cAMP measurements, using ICUE2-expressing HEK293 cells, in response to agonist stimulation of β_2 AR, β_2 V₂R, and β_2 V₂R, 1 μ M BI-167107 was used to stimulate cells. For V₂R, 100 nM AVP was used to stimulate cells. For each GPCR, control plasmid (Mock, black), β arr1 (WT) (blue), or β arr1 (Δ FLR) (red) was transfected. Surface expression of each GPCR was matched within each β arr1 transfection condition. Data represent the mean \pm SE of three to four experiments and $n \ge 44$ cells. Area under the curve (A.U.C.) from 2 min after agonist stimulation to the end of the experiment was used to calculate desensitization of the cAMP response for each GPCR, and one-way ANOVA was performed to determine statistical differences relative to Mock (***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001) and β arr1 (WT) (#*P* < 0.05, ###*P* < 0.001) responses. Forsk, forskolin

to this receptor. $\beta arr1$ (WT)-mediated desensitization was also observed at the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ -stimulated cAMP response (Fig. 4*C*). $\beta arr1$ (WT) did not have a significant effect on $V_2 R$ -stimulated cAMP signaling, which agrees with previous work (23). Most strikingly, expression of $\beta arr1$ (ΔFLR) did not lead to any significant desensitization of G protein signaling for any of the GPCRs tested (Fig. 4*C*). These results (Fig. 4 *A* and *C*) demonstrate that the FLR domain of $\beta arr1$, presumably through its role in forming the core interaction, is crucial for $\beta arr1$ -mediated desensitization of G protein signaling.

Discussion

Our results can be interpreted in the context of the classification of GPCRs according to the strength of their interaction with Barrs. Class A GPCRs, such as the β_2 AR, bind β_2 rrs relatively weakly and dissociate from them in the course of internalization. They thus recycle rapidly to the plasma membrane. Class B GPCRs, such as the V_2R or the β_2V_2R chimera, bind β arrs much more tightly and, once internalized, remain bound to Barrs and resident in endosomes for significant periods of time. They recycle only slowly to the plasma membrane. For class B GPCRs, the GPCR- β arr complex, in the tail conformation, appears to be capable of promoting ßarr-mediated receptor internalization and some forms of signaling, but not desensitization of G protein signaling, which appears to be the exclusive purview of the core-conformation complex (Fig. 4A). A recent study showed that some β arr-mediated functions are maintained when recruited to a potential coredeficient GPCR mutant, which supports our conclusions with respect to the function of the tail conformation complex (24). However, the study did not experimentally demonstrate any biological role of the core conformation. Our finding that the core-conformation complex

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appears to be crucial for mediating desensitization is in agreement with the classical notion that G proteins and β arrs compete for overlapping binding sites in the receptor transmembrane core (21). Interestingly, for the class A β_2 AR, which binds β arr more weakly, the tail conformation complex appears to be too unstable to lead to effective recruitment of the β arr1 (Δ FLR). Our data thus suggest that for such GPCRs, the tail conformation complex might not exist in a stable enough form to participate in β arr-mediated activities.

In addition, we have recently demonstrated that some GPCRs, such as the $\beta_2 V_2 R$ and $V_2 R$ but not the $\beta_2 AR$, can form GPCR–Gs– βarr "megaplexes," and thus activate G protein from internalized compartments (16). In these megaplexes, the receptor binds βarr in the tail conformation complex. Interestingly, in the current study, we find a clear correlation between the GPCRs that form GPCR– $\beta arr1$ tail conformation complexes and GPCRs that can activate G protein from internalized compartments. In contrast, GPCRs that rely more heavily on the core conformation do not seem to activate G protein after being internalized by βarr .

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