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PKA regulatory subunits mediate synergy among conserved G-protein-coupled receptor cascades

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G-protein-coupled receptors sense extracellular chemical or physical stimuli and transmit these signals to distinct trimeric G-proteins. Activated G α -proteins route signals to interconnected effector cascades, thus regulating thresholds, amplitudes and durations of signalling. G α s- or G α i-coupled receptor cascades are mechanistically conserved and mediate many sensory processes, including synaptic transmission, cell proliferation and chemotaxis. Here we show that a central, conserved component of G α s-coupled receptor cascades, the regulatory subunit type-II (RII) of protein kinase A undergoes adenosine 3'-5'-cyclic monophosphate (cAMP)-dependent binding to G α i. Stimulation of a mammalian G α i-coupled receptor and concomitant cAMP-RII binding to G α i, augments the sensitivity, amplitude and duration of G α i: $\beta\gamma$ activity and downstream mitogen-activated protein kinase signalling, independent of protein kinase A kinase activity. The mechanism is conserved in budding yeast, causing nutrient-dependent modulation of a pheromone response. These findings suggest a direct mechanism by which coincident activation of G α s-coupled receptors controls the precision of adaptive responses of activated G α i-coupled receptor cascades.

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Cells use versatile molecular signalling circuits to integrate and distinguish the quantity of extracellular signalling cues and to implement appropriate physiological responses. Cell surface plasma membrane receptors sense and the associated signal transducer guides the signal to adaptive intracellular effector circuits^{1,2}. Adaptation is an essential feature of life, observed in a range of phenomena, including buffering of genetic variation in populations for the maintenance of homeostasis against perturbations in organisms and individual cells^{3,4}. Signal transduction pathways often show adaptation to input signals, notably, allowing for sensing of chemical or light gradients over a wide range of concentrations or intensities as well as for polarization and direction sensing in chemotaxis^{5–8}. Molecular mechanisms for adaptation are attributed to integral negative feedback circuits⁸ that robustly convey the information sensed by cell surface receptors to accomplish the proper physiological response^{2,9,10}. A key question about signalling is how sensitivities, amplitudes and durations of adaptive responses are controlled; particularly when coincident, potentially contradictory signals are received by a cell.

An important class of signalling pathways in which to explore coincident signalling is among those coupled to the largest family

of cell surface receptors, the G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) superfamily that are implicated in a large number of cellular processes, from light and hormone sensing to chemotaxis and memory consolidation^{2,7,11–14}. Heterotrimeric G-proteins function as transducers of extracellular signals detected by GPCRs to intracellular effectors². The adenosine 3'-5'-cyclic monophosphate (cAMP)-dependent protein kinase A (PKA) is the main and evolutionarily conserved cAMP effector of signal transduction in response to an assortment of hormones and physical stimuli^{11,15–17}. In the canonical description of GPCR signalling, G-protein α ($G\alpha$ s)-coupled receptors activate adenylate cyclase (AC)-mediated synthesis of the second messenger cAMP, which in turn binds to PKA regulatory subunits (R), inducing dissociation of tetrameric $R_2:PKAc_2$ (PKAc=PKA catalytic subunit) holoenzymes, resulting in active PKAc subunits (Fig. 1a)^{15,17,18}. In contrast to the AC 'stimulatory' G-protein α ($G\alpha$ s)-coupled pathway, G-protein α i ($G\alpha$ i)-coupled receptors 'inhibit' AC activities¹⁹. In addition various G-protein-dependent (for example, *via* $G\alpha$ i: $\beta\gamma$) and G-protein-independent pathways link GPCRs to mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signalling cascades (Fig. 1a)^{20–23}. The main cellular effectors of free

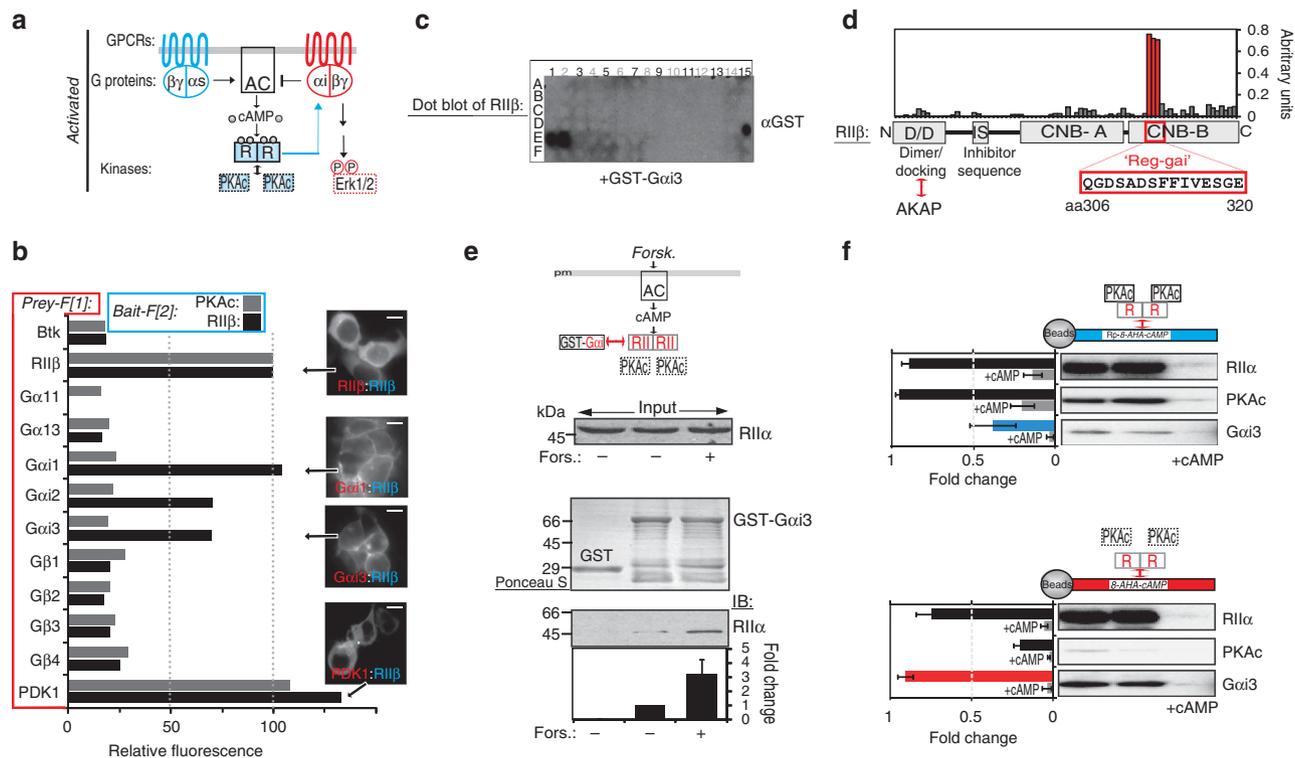


Figure 1 | PKA regulatory subunits form cAMP-dependent complexes with $G\alpha$ i isoforms. (a) Schematic representation of GPCR cascades linked to cAMP turnover and MAPK activation. $G\alpha$ -proteins modulate AC activities. Activation is shown by the arrows and inhibition is shown by T-bars. Blue arrow indicates novel connection of R subunits to G-protein- α i. Dotted lines indicate activated kinases (PKA subunits: R, PKAc; P stands for phosphorylated MAP kinase Erk1/2). (b) Fluorometric analysis of transiently transfected COS7 cells co-expressing PKA subunits as bait tagged with Venus-YFP PCA fragment[2] (RII β -F[2], PKAc-F[2]) with indicated prey proteins fused to F[1]. Fluorescence images of HEK293 cells co-expressing indicated protein pairs. Scale bar, 10 μ m. (c) Spotted peptides (25 mers, 20 aa overlap) of RII β (aa1-25 spotted on A1, aa6-30 on A2 and so on) were overlaid with recombinant GST-G α i3 followed by immunoblotting (IB). (d) Bar graph illustrates the densitometric quantification of the average of $n = 3$ dot blot experiments as shown in c. Red bars point to the sequence of the only binding interface of Reg: $G\alpha$ i (red box; referred as 'Reggai peptide') in the illustrated modular structure of RII β . (e) Under basal conditions and following forskolin treatment (15 min, 100 μ M) of HEK293 cells, we precipitated endogenously expressed RII α with GST-G α i3. Total RII α and GST-G α i3 are constant, but the quantity of co-precipitated GST-G α i3:RII α complexes increases following forskolin treatment. Fold enrichment of RII α upon forskolin-mediated cAMP elevation is shown (normalized to levels of GST fusion proteins, \pm s.e.m. of $n = 3$; pm, plasma membrane). (f) cAMP precipitation of endogenously expressed PKA complexes using 8-AHA-cAMP or Rp-8-AHA-cAMP immobilized to agarose resin from total brain lysates of mice. In the negative control experiment we added excess of cAMP (5 mM) to the brain lysates to mask the cAMP-binding sites in the R subunits for precipitation. We have performed densitometric quantification of RII β , PKAc and $G\alpha$ i3 (normalized in each case to the most abundant protein) from the same immunoblot to compare complex formation and fold enrichment between holoenzyme (Rp-8-AHA-cAMP) and activated R complexes (8-AHA-cAMP). Results are presented as means \pm s.e.m. from three independent experiments for each two independent precipitation. Treatments (italic) and readouts (red) are indicated.

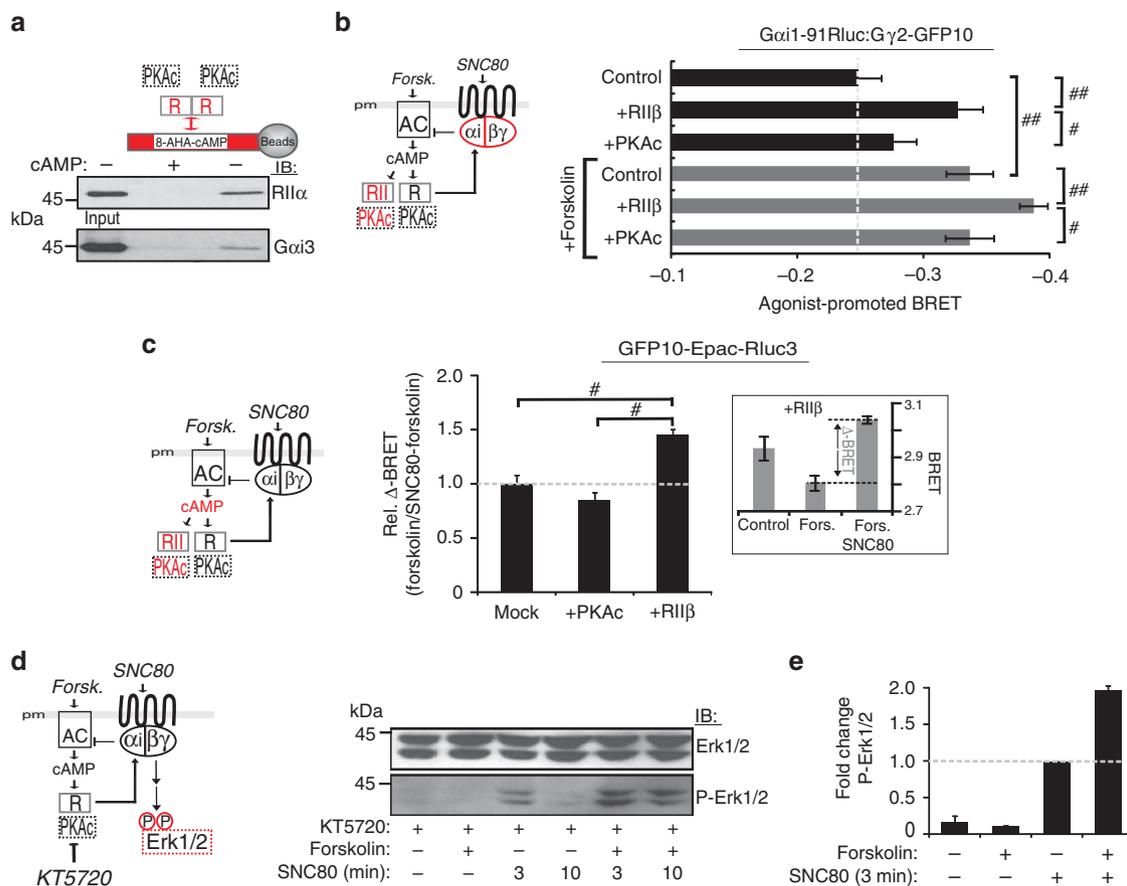


Figure 2 | cAMP-bound R subunit enhances ligand triggered G α i activation and MAP kinase phosphorylation. (a) Endogenous R:G α i3 complexes precipitated from HEK293 cells using 8-AHA-cAMP agarose (representative experiment of $n = 3$). (b) Conformational changes of trimeric G-proteins measured in δ OR-HEK293 cells co-expressing the indicated BRET protein reporter pair and PKA subunits following stimulation with forskolin (100 μ M, 15 min) and then by SNC80 (1 μ M, 3 min; \pm s.e.m., $n = 3$ independent experiments). (c) cAMP levels measured in δ OR-HEK293 cells co-expressing the cAMP sensing EPAC BRET reporter and PKA subunits following stimulation with forskolin (50 μ M, 12 min) and then SNC80 (1 μ M, 6 min; \pm s.e.m., representative experiment, $n = 3$). Decrease in BRET ratio (Δ -BRET) indicates an increase in cAMP concentration *in vivo*. Inset shows forskolin (\pm SNC80)-induced cAMP changes measured with EPAC-BRET in cells overexpressing RII β (\pm s.e.m.). (d) Effects of combinations of forskolin (100 μ M, 15 min) and SNC80 (1 μ M, minutes) on Erk1/2 phosphorylation in δ OR-HEK293 cells; 60 min pretreatment with KT5720 (2 μ M), representative experiment of $n = 3$. (e) Densitometric quantification of Erk1/2 phosphorylation upon SNC80/forskolin treatment, \pm s.e.m. from $n = 3$. Statistical significance was assessed using a paired Student's *t*-test. Significance of individual results were determined at different levels as indicated with # and ## (#*P*-values < 0.05; ##*P*-values < 0.01). Treatments (italic) and readouts (red) are indicated.

diffusible cAMP are PKA R subunits. In addition to the function as cAMP sensors and inhibitor of PKAc activity, PKA R subunits bind to a variety of A kinase-anchoring proteins (AKAPs), thereby, facilitating spatial and temporal compartmentalization of PKA signalling^{15,24–26}.

Here we report that PKA regulatory subunits actively participate in G α i signalling. We describe a novel and conserved mechanism through which cAMP-bound R subunits associate specifically with G α i causing sensitization and increased amplitude and duration in response to G α i-receptor activation.

Results

RII subunits form cAMP-dependent complexes with G α i. In a systematic screen for protein:protein interactions in mammalian COS7 cells, we identified novel interactions of PKA regulatory subunits type II β (RII β), but not PKAc subunits, with all the three isoforms of G α i (G α i_{1,2,3}) using a 'Venus' yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) protein-fragment complementation assay (PCA; Fig. 1b; Supplementary Fig. S1a)^{27–29}. In addition, the phosphoinositide-dependent kinase 1 (PDK1) interacted with both RII β and PKAc, suggesting different modes of binding to PKA for this protein. Further,

RII β :RII β and PDK1:RII β complexes were restricted to the cytosol, but G α i:RII β complexes were localized at the plasma membrane, consistent with known localization of G α i proteins (Fig. 1b). We confirmed the RII β :G α i3 interaction in glutathione *S*-transferase (GST) pulldown assays. GST-RII β binds to endogenously expressed G α i3 and GST-G α i3 binds to purified RII β , suggesting that this interaction is direct (Supplementary Fig. S1b,c). In a dot blot screen of overlapping peptides derived from RII β (protein accession number: EAL24395), we identified a unique binding motif for G α i3 within the evolutionarily conserved cyclic nucleotide binding domain B (CNB-B) and identified four amino acid (aa) positions required for binding to G α i3: Asp 308, Phe 313, Phe 314 and Glu 317 (Fig. 1c and d; Supplementary Fig. S1d).

We next asked whether the binding of R subunits to G α i could be cAMP-dependent and therefore actively mediated by GPCR signalling. First, in a GST pulldown assay from HEK293 cell lysates we confirmed the interaction of GST-G α i3 and RII α under basal conditions. However, pretreatment of cells with forskolin, a general activator of AC activity augments binding of endogenous cAMP-bound RII α to GST-G α i3 (Fig. 1e). Second, we applied total brain lysates of mice to 8-AHA-cAMP-coupled (precipitates 'active'

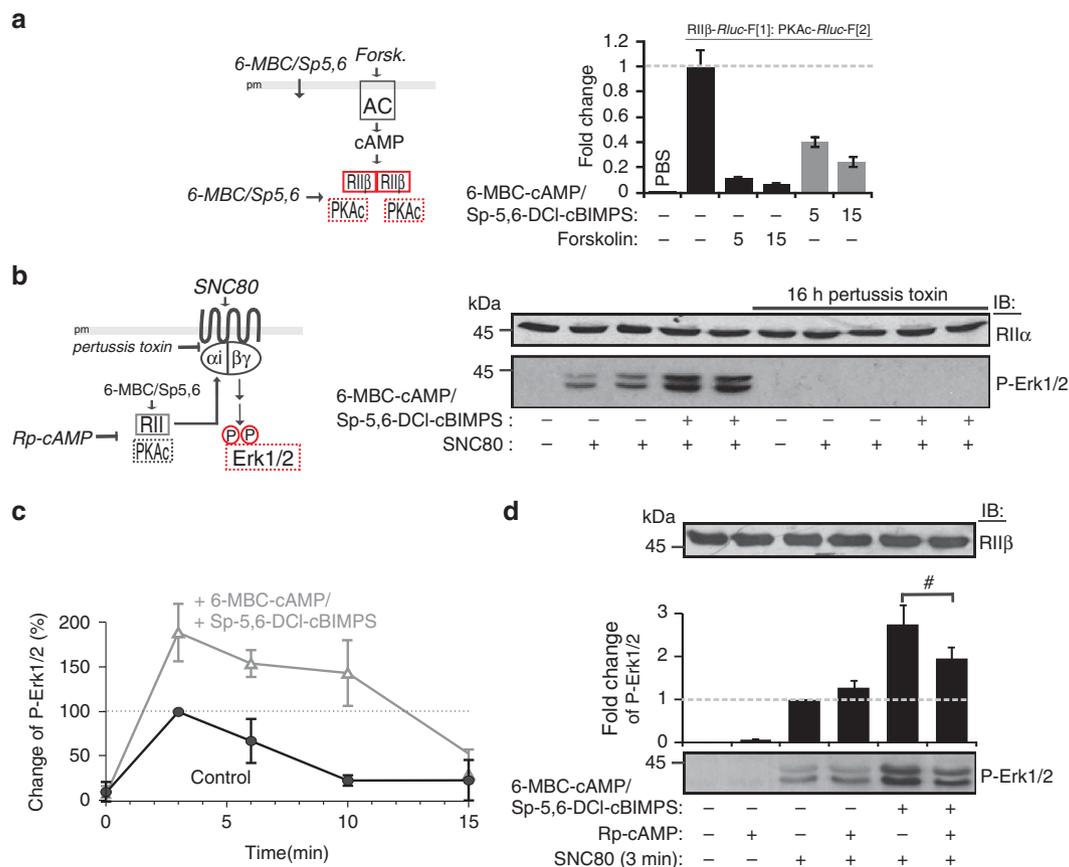


Figure 3 | cAMP-activated RII:G α i enhances amplitude and duration of the MAP kinase pathway to δ OR activation. (a–d) Effects of schematically indicated treatments (chemical modulators, overexpression) and combinations of 6-MBC-cAMP, Sp-5,6-DCI-cBIMPS (each 50 μ M, 15 min) and the selective δ OR agonist SNC80 (1 μ M) on Erk1/2 phosphorylation (P-Erk1/2) in δ OR-HEK293 cells. RII serves as loading control. **(a)** Time-dependent effects (in minutes) of combinations of Forskolin (50 μ M) or 6-MBC-cAMP and Sp-5,6-DCI-cBIMPS (each 50 μ M) on PKA type II holoenzyme dissociation measured from intact HEK293 cells stably expressing the indicated Rluc-PCA-based PKA reporter. **(b)** Effect of combinations of SNC80 (1 μ M, 3 min) and 6-MBC-cAMP and Sp-5,6-DCI-cBIMPS on P-Erk1/2. Uncoupling of G α i from the receptor through pretreatment with pertussis toxin (16 h, 100 ng ml⁻¹; representative experiment). **(c)** Time-dependent effects of combinations of SNC80 and 6-MBC-cAMP, Sp-5,6-DCI-cBIMPS on P-Erk1/2; \pm s.e.m. from $n=3$. **(d)** Effect of pretreatment with Rp-cAMP (250 μ M; 60 min) on P-Erk1/2. Densitometric quantification of Erk1/2 phosphorylation, \pm s.e.m. from $n=3$. Statistical significance was assessed using a paired Student's t -test. Significance of individual results were determined at different levels as indicated with # (# P -values < 0.05).

R subunits) and Rp-8-AHA-cAMP-coupled (precipitates R:PKAc holoenzymes) agarose beads. Endogenous R subunits, bound to both types of agarose beads, co-precipitated endogenous G α i3. In line with the observation from Figure 1e, we verified preferential binding of G α i3 to endogenous and 'activated' R subunit complexes *in vivo* (Fig. 1f). These results were surprising, suggesting that in addition to cAMP binding to R subunits and mediating the dissociation of the R₂:PKAc₂ holoenzyme, cAMP may mediate the active association of R subunit complexes to G α i proteins.

cAMP-bound R subunits modulate δ OR-triggered G α i activities.

To examine the potential role of R:G α i complexes in GPCR signaling, we used a well-defined model cell, HEK293 cells stably expressing the exclusively G α i-coupled δ -opioid receptor (δ OR)³⁰. First, we confirmed complex formation of R:G α i3 in two independent cell lines under basal conditions, in HEK293 cells and in the osteosarcoma cell line U2OS, respectively (Fig. 2a; Supplementary Fig. S2a). Next we determined how formation of cAMP-triggered R:G α i complexes could effect δ OR coupling to and activation of G α i. For this purpose, we utilized bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET)-based assays. The advantage of the first assay is that it directly reports on a known conformational rearrangement of the trimeric G α i:βγ complex driven by ligand binding to a GPCR, coupled to the

G α i-protein complex (Fig. 2b)³¹. As expected, we observed that the δ OR agonist SNC80 induced a decrease in BRET between G α i1 and G γ 2, reflecting activation of the G-protein. However, and interestingly, direct activation of cAMP production by forskolin potentiated the G α i1:G γ 2 conformational rearrangement resulting from receptor activation, suggesting that cAMP-mediated activation of PKA enhanced activation of G α i, possibly *via* the formation of the R:G α i1 complex. Forskolin treatment alone had no effect on the conformation of the trimeric G-protein complex (Supplementary Fig. S2b). Further, overexpression of RIIβ and the BRET sensor, but not of catalytically active PKAc, enhanced both SNC80 and SNC80 + forskolin effects on the G α i activation monitored by BRET (Fig. 2b).

As activated G α i is known to inhibit AC, we predicted that cAMP and R-mediated augmentation of G α i activity should potentiate the δ OR-mediated inhibition of AC and consequently decrease cAMP production. We tested this hypothesis using a BRET cAMP reporter based on the structure of the cAMP-regulated guanine nucleotide exchange factor (Epac) that undergoes conformational changes upon binding to cAMP. This assay enables accurate detection of *in vivo* cAMP levels indicated through a decrease of BRET³². We observed that overexpression of RIIβ, but not of PKAc, caused a further decrease in cAMP production when cells were treated with SNC80 + forskolin compared with cells treated with forskolin alone (Fig. 2c).

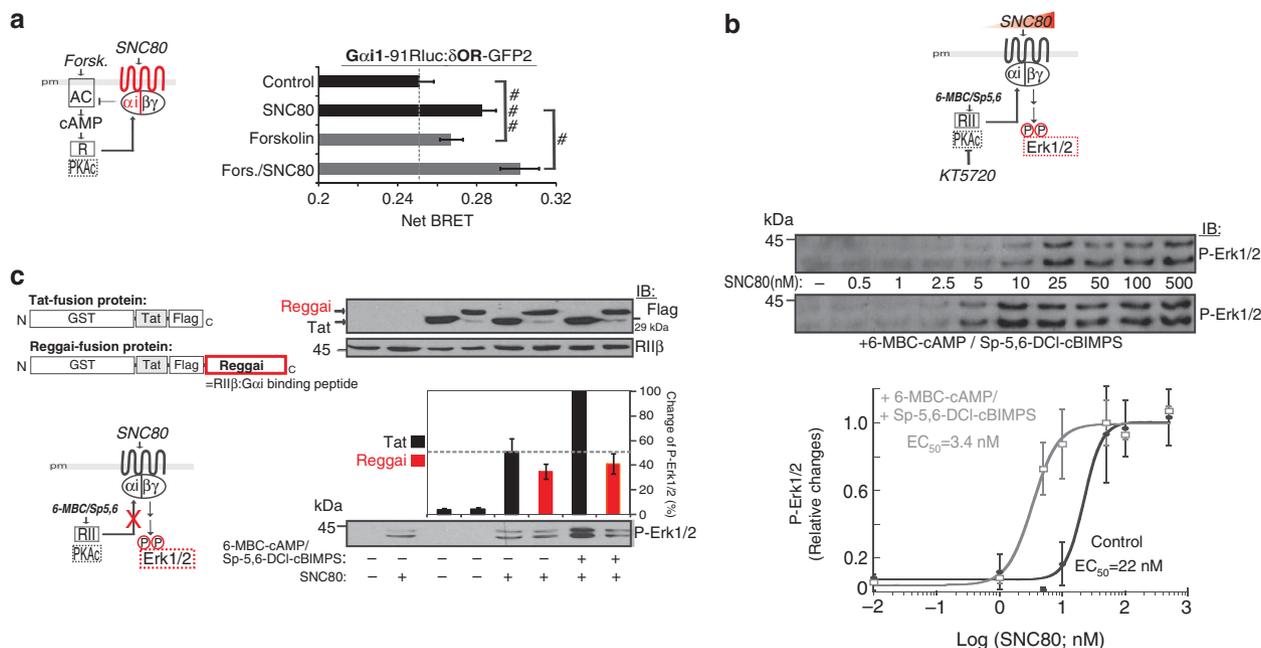


Figure 4 | cAMP-activated RII:G α i enhances sensitivity of the MAP kinase pathway to δ OR activation. Effects of schematically indicated treatments (chemical modulators, hybrid fusion proteins) and combinations of forskolin (100 μ M, 15 min), 6-MBC-cAMP, Sp-5,6-DCI-cBIMPS (each 50 μ M, 15 min) and varying concentrations of the selective δ OR agonist SNC80 (3 min) on G-protein coupling and Erk1/2 phosphorylation (P-Erk1/2) in δ OR-HEK293 cells. **(a)** Conformational changes of G α i1-protein coupling to δ OR measured in HEK293 cells co-expressing indicated BRET protein reporter pairs following stimulation with forskolin (100 μ M, 15 min) and then by SNC80 (1 μ M, 3 min; \pm s.e.m., $n = 3$ independent experiments). Statistical significance was assessed using a paired Student's t -test. Significance of individual results were determined as indicated with # and ### (# P -value < 0.05; ### P -value < 0.001). **(b)** Dose-dependent effects of combinations of SNC80 (3 min) and 6-MBC-cAMP and Sp-5,6-DCI-cBIMPS on P-Erk1/2 following pretreatment with KT5720 (60 min, 2 μ M), \pm s.e.m. from $n = 3$. **(c)** Domain structure for the Reggali peptide fused to GST-TAT-Flag peptide. Treatments of δ OR-HEK293 cells with either TAT control or the Reggali fusion peptides (each -3 μ M; 30 min) on P-Erk1/2 are shown; \pm s.e.m. from $n = 4$. RII β serves as loading control. **(b, c)** Pretreatment with KT5720 (60 min, 2 μ M). Treatments (italic) and readouts (red) are indicated.

We next examined the potential function of R:G α i complex formation on receptor-mediated activation of MAPK in mammalian cells²⁰ (Figs 2–4) and budding yeast³³ (Figs 5 and 6). We used the human δ OR-HEK293 model for these experiments because they have the advantage that under basal condition and upon only Forskolin or only cAMP analogue treatments, no collateral effects on MAP kinase Erk1/2 activation are observed. As already known, the δ OR-selective agonist SNC80 induces a transient increase of the Erk1/2 phosphorylation in δ OR-HEK293 cells. Pretreatment with forskolin potentiated SNC80-induced Erk1/2 phosphorylation (Fig. 2d,e). These data support the notion that the cAMP-dependent R:G α i complexes increase the sensitivity of this G α i signalling pathway to δ OR activation. The increase in sensitivity is distinct from activation through cross-talk in which a MAPK is activated by a G α s-coupled receptor and dependent on PKA catalytic activity^{22,34}. To exclude the possibility that PKA kinase activity could account for this potentiation, we pretreated cells with the PKA inhibitor KT5720 (unless noted otherwise, all subsequent experiments were carried out in the presence of this kinase activity inhibitor). The inhibition of catalytic PKA phosphotransferase activity did not prevent the forskolin-mediated potentiation of the MAPK activation (Fig. 2d). We confirmed that KT5720 inhibits PKA kinase activity under the conditions used in Figure 3 by monitoring the cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB) phosphorylation (activated independently of G α i signalling; Supplementary Fig. S2c,d).

cAMP-RII subunits modulate δ OR-triggered G α i activities. We next asked whether cAMP-bound forms of distinct PKA regulatory subunits type I (RI) or R type II (RII) increase the sensitivity of G α i-mediated δ OR signalling¹⁵. We thus directly activated endogenous

PKA with combinations of membrane permeable cAMP analogues that bind selectively to the CNB-A or CNB-B of RI or RII^{35,36}. We first determined the concentration- and time-dependent effects of each cAMP analogue on RII:PKAc dissociation in intact cells (using a *Renilla* luciferase (Rluc)-based PKA reporter assay²⁹; Fig. 3a; Supplementary Fig. S3). Maximally active RI subunit cAMP analogues (8-PIP-cAMP, 2-Cl-8-MA-cAMP) had no effect, but the RII subunit-binding analogues (6-MBC-cAMP, Sp-5,6-DCI-cBIMPS^{35,36}) potentiated the amplitude and duration of SNC80-induced Erk1/2 phosphorylation (Fig. 3b,c; Supplementary Figs S3c,4a). These observed effects occurred through G α i signalling as pretreatment of cells with pertussis toxin, which uncouples G α i from the receptor, prevented both receptor and cAMP analogue-potentiated Erk1/2 phosphorylation (Fig. 3b).

We next asked whether RII binding to G α i may enhance sensitivity of G α i-coupled receptor signalling by somehow shifting G α i to its active, GTP-bound state. We used an antibody to selectively precipitate GTP-loaded G α i in untreated, SNC80 or SNC80 plus RII-specific cAMP-analogue-treated δ OR-HEK293 cells. By immunoblotting (IB) with the isoform selective G α i3 antibody we observed elevated levels of immunoprecipitated GTP-G α i3, following both RII and δ OR activation (Supplementary Fig. S4b). Exclusive treatment with RII-specific cAMP-analogues shows no activation of Erk1/2 in HEK293 cells (see below, Fig. 4b). These results, together with our observation of enhanced conformational change of G α i: $\beta\gamma$ complex under the same conditions (Fig. 2b), suggest that the active GTP-G α i complex is favoured when bound to cAMP-RII:G α i following G α i-coupled receptor activation.

Our results suggest that preventing cAMP-triggered PKA dissociation and hence formation of RII:G α i complexes would

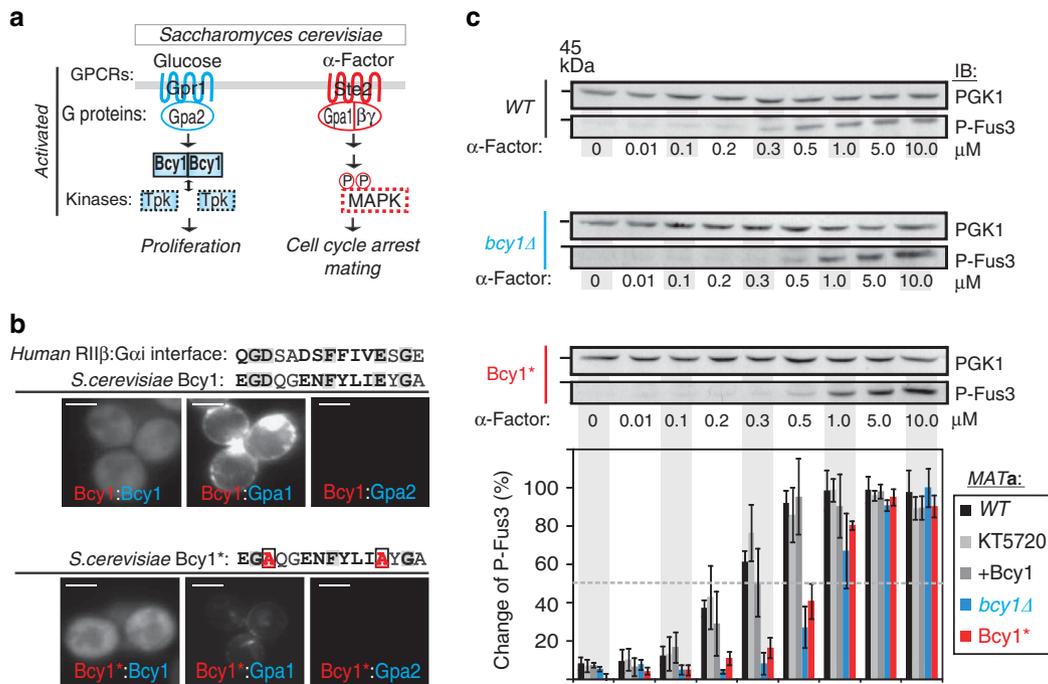


Figure 5 | Conservation of cAMP-dependent modulation of MAP kinase signalling via R:G α i (Bcy1:Gpa1) in yeast. (a) Schematic illustration of the conserved components of glucose and α -factor triggered signalling pathways in *S. cerevisiae* and their functional/morphological effects. (b) Fluorescence images of yeast cells expressing the indicated protein pairs fused to Venus YFP PCA F[1] and F[2] reporter protein fragments. Alignment of the human RII β :G α i interface ('Reggai peptide') to yeast homologue Bcy1 (grey box = conservation, bold = conserved substitutions, grey = semi-conserved substitution). Indication of double mutations (in red) in the conserved sequence regions of Bcy1. Scale bar, 5 μ m. (c) Dose-dependent effects of α -factor exposure (15 min) on phosphorylation of MAP kinase Fus3 in following *MATa* strains: WT, WT+KT5720, WT+Bcy1, *bcy1* Δ and *bcy1* Δ +Bcy1* (in the presence of glucose detected by IB using an anti-phospho MAPK antibody). Densitometric quantification of the Fus3 phosphorylation upon dose-dependent α -factor treatment normalized on the loading control PGK1, \pm s.d. from $n = 3$.

prevent G α i-coupled receptor signal augmentation by cAMP. To test this prediction, we used the cAMP analogue Rp-cAMP, an inhibitor of PKA holoenzyme dissociation. Pretreatment with Rp-cAMP decreased SNC80+RII subunit activator (6-MBC-cAMP, Sp-5, 6-DCl-cBIMPS) and SNC80+forskolin-mediated Erk1/2 phosphorylation (Fig. 3d) to a similar extent as it prevented PKA holoenzyme dissociation (Supplementary Fig. S4c,d).

cAMP-RII:G α i complexes modulate ligand sensitivity. We next tested whether the induction of cAMP-'activated' RII:G α i complexes affect receptor:G protein coupling. First, we performed a BRET assay that reports directly on G α i1 coupling to δ OR in response to agonist binding to the GPCR^{30,31}. We observed that forskolin potentiated the SNC80-induced increase in BRET between δ OR and G α i1 (Fig. 4a), which is consistent with the idea that the formation of the RII:G α i complex potentiates the receptor-mediated activation of G α i1. Moreover, a dose-response of the δ OR agonist SNC80-mediated ERK1/2 phosphorylation following pretreatment with the selective PKA phosphotransferase inhibitor KT5720 performed in the presence and absence of RII subunit-specific cAMP analogues showed a significant, sevenfold increase in sensitivity of the MAPK pathway to stimulation (Fig. 4b).

To test whether direct disruption of the RII:G α i complex would prevent cAMP-dependent sensitization of G α i to receptor activation, we created a membrane-permeable peptide competitive antagonist of RII:G α i binding based on the G α i3 binding motif that we identified in RII (Fig. 1c,d). Coding sequence for this peptide was fused to that of the membrane-permeant HIV TAT peptide and expressed in and purified from *Escherichia coli*³⁷. Treatment of cells with this peptide (we call Reggai) prevented the potentiation of SNC80-mediated Erk1/2 phosphorylation by RII subunit-specific

cAMP analogues (Fig. 4c). A TAT control peptide had no effect. These data highlight that formation of cAMP-dependent RII:G α i complexes are required for the transmission of signal from G α s- to activated G α i-cascades.

cAMP-RII modulation of G α i is conserved in budding yeast.

The evolutionary conservation of PKA R subunits and notably of two critical aa's for interaction in the Reggai sequence, Asp 308 and Glu 317 (Fig. 5b; Supplementary Fig. S1d), prompted us to evaluate whether the cAMP-bound R subunit-mediated modulation of G α i signalling is also conserved in yeast. The budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (*S. cerevisiae*) has homologues of the mammalian signalling components for both PKA and MAPK pathways downstream of GPCRs. Yeast express the glucose-sensing G α s-coupled receptor Gpr1 and in the *MATa* haploid strain, the Ste2 pheromone receptor, which is G α i-coupled (Fig. 5a)^{17,38}. The signalling counterpart to the G α i: $\beta\gamma$ -MAPK cascade in *S. cerevisiae* is activated by the mating pheromone α -factor (in *MATa* haploid cells), resulting in a distinct morphogenic 'shmoo' response (Figs 5a and 6a,b)³³. We first tested for interactions of the single G α i and G α s homologues (Gpa1 and Gpa2) with the single yeast PKA R subunit Bcy1, using the Venus YFP PCA and observed that Gpa1, but not Gpa2, interacts with Bcy1 in a complex at the plasma membrane (Fig. 5b; Supplementary Fig. S5). These results are consistent with our observations in mammalian cells (Fig. 1b). Furthermore, point mutations of homologous Asp 308 and Glu 317 residues in the Reggai binding motif of Bcy1 decreased the interaction of Bcy1 with Gpa1, but did not affect the Bcy1:Bcy1 or Bcy1:Tpk2 (Tpk=PKAc) complexes (Fig. 5b; Supplementary Fig. S5). Finally, we observed that mammalian RII β and G α i3 interacted with the yeast R subunit Bcy1 (Supplementary Fig. S6).

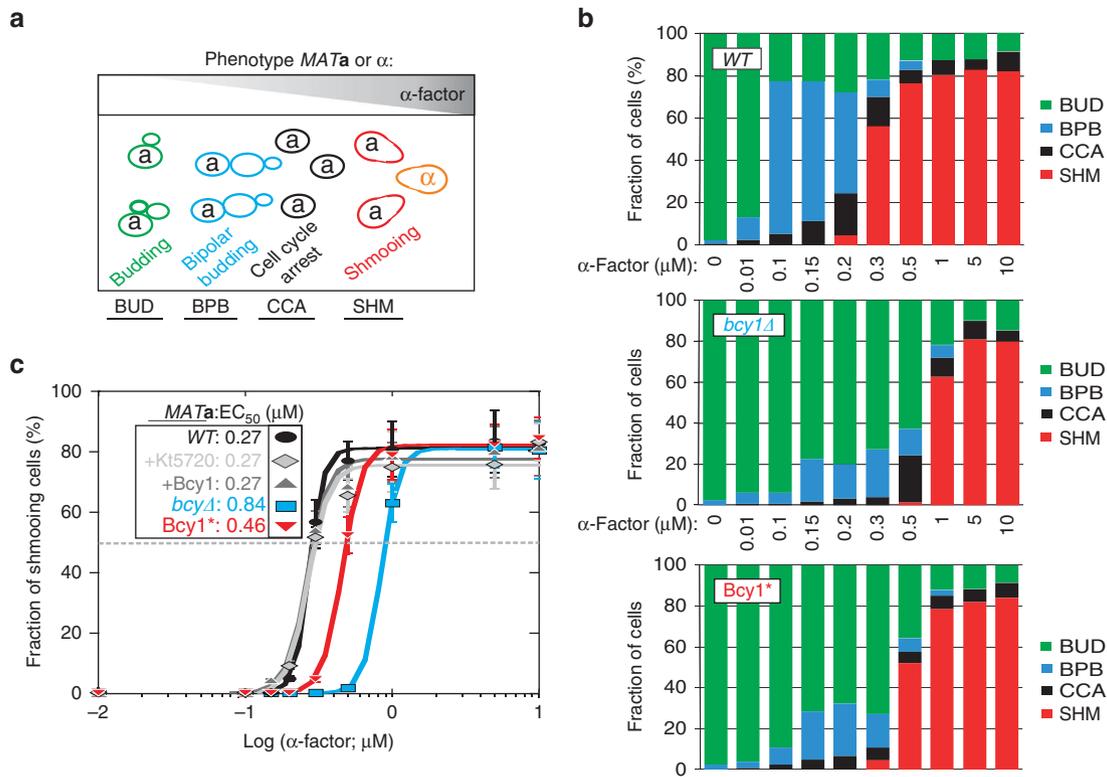


Figure 6 | Impact of cAMP-dependent modulation of MAP kinase signalling on morphological changes in yeast. (a) Schematic illustration of morphological changes upon activation of the α-factor pheromone pathway in *S. cerevisiae*. **(b)** Quantification of the phenotypic (morphological) consequences of dose-dependent α-factor exposure (3–4 h) in *wildtype* (WT), *bcy1Δ* strains and in the *bcy1Δ* strain expressing *Bcy1** in the presence of glucose (BUD, budding; BPB, bipolar budding; CCA, cell cycle arrest; SHM, Shmooing). **(c)** Dose-response curves with indicated α-factor EC₅₀ concentrations for shmooing under the indicated conditions in the yeast *Mata* strains WT, WT+KT5720, WT+ Bcy1, *bcy1Δ* and *bcy1Δ*+*Bcy1**; ±s.d. from three independent experiments.

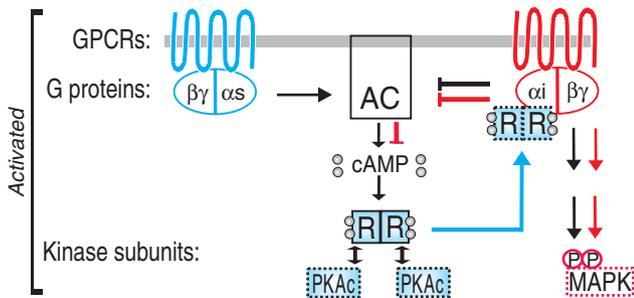


Figure 7 | Schematic representation of the role of R subunits in Gαi signalling. Activation is shown by arrows and inhibition is shown by T-bars. The blue arrow indicates the novel binary protein:protein interaction between the PKA regulatory subunit (R) and the Gαi; PKAc stands for PKA catalytic subunit. Dotted lines indicate activated kinases or kinase subunits. The red arrows indicate the cAMP-bound R-subunit-mediated augmentation of receptor triggered Gαi activities: cAMP elevation promotes dissociation of the PKA heterotetramer (R₂:PKAc₂) and recruitment of R subunits to Gαi, which amplifies the duration and amplitude of Gαi-coupled receptor triggered signalling responses along with sensitization of GPCR-mediated signal transmission. This mechanism elevates ligand triggered MAPK responses (phosphorylation [P] of Erk1/2 in mammalian cells and of Fus3 in *S.cerevisiae*) and inhibition of ACs.

These results suggest that the specific R:Gαi interaction has been conserved for at least 1.5 billion years since Metazoa and Fungi lineages separated³⁹.

We next examined the role of *Bcy1* on downstream pheromone signalling, including activation of the yeast MAPK homologue Fus3 phosphorylation and the ‘shmoo’ response³³ in the presence of the trigger for cAMP-production, glucose. We observed an approximately threefold decrease in sensitivity to α-factor-induced Fus3 phosphorylation and ‘shmoo’ response (EC₅₀ right shift) in an isogenic knockout of the *bcy1* gene (*bcy1Δ*) (Fig. 5c lower panel, Fig. 6c). These data correlate with the observation that in mammalian cells activation of PKA RII shifts the EC₅₀ curve of Gαi-coupled receptor activation to the left (Fig. 4b). Expression of a Reggai-binding motif mutant of *Bcy1* (= *Bcy1**) expressed in the *bcy1Δ* strain produced an intermediate decrease in both Fus3 phosphorylation (twofold) and also the ‘shmoo’ response (1.6-fold). Overall, the reduced MAP kinase activation and ‘shmoo’ response in yeast resulting in an EC₅₀ shift of α-factor to higher concentration indicates that, as in mammalian cells, the yeast R subunit *Bcy1* potentiated the Gαi:βγ-mediated MAPK pathway (Figs 5c and 6). However, we observed no impact of *Bcy1* overexpression on MAPK activation and on the shmooing response, suggesting that *Bcy1* is already highly expressed in yeast and that the pathway is less sensitive to overexpression. Further, consistent with our model, the PKA inhibitor KT5720 had no effect on MAPK phosphorylation or the shmoo response (Fig. 5c lower panel, Fig. 6c). In summary, data presented in Figures 4–6 support our argument for an evolutionarily conserved function of R subunits in regulating the sensitivity of Gαi-coupled signalling responses (shift of EC₅₀ curves). Application of the Reggai peptide in mammalian cells (Fig. 4c) and mutational modification of the same motif in budding yeast R subunits (*Bcy1*; Figs 5c and 6b,c) suggests a conserved mechanism for cAMP-bound R subunits to modulate Gαi signalling.

Discussion

Over the past 40 years, the canonical view of GPCR cascades regulating cAMP synthesis has placed the PKA R subunit in the role of inhibiting PKAc subunit activity^{15,16}, and more recently, localizing specific signalling complexes to subcellular locations through AKAP scaffolding proteins^{24,26}. We now report the discovery that cAMP-activated R subunits (functioning as pivotal component of G α s-coupled receptor cascades) directly bind to and modulate G α i-coupled receptor signalling (Fig. 7). In contrast to AKAP binding *via* the N-terminal docking domain of R subunits, the cAMP-dependent interaction between RII:G α i is mediated by the flexible, cAMP-binding CNB domain, which is conserved in all organisms, except in plants⁴⁰. We describe how this dynamic binary interaction provides a simple means to control sensitivity, amplitude and duration of adaptive signalling responses.

We present a detailed molecular description of how activated R subunits in yeast and mammalian cells directly control G α i-mediated activation of MAPK responses. In the yeast model, the function of the R:G α i interaction is clear. Diploid yeast undergoes meiosis when starved and haploids mate when nutrients become available. Glucose, the preferred carbon source of yeast, activates a G α s-coupled receptor and in turn cAMP synthesis and PKA activation. It, thus, follows that the modulation of pheromone sensitivity that we observe is mediated by R subunit binding to G α i and serves to sensitize the pheromone response to the fact that the best carbon source is available¹⁷.

In mammalian cells, the phosphotransferase-independent function of cAMP-bound R subunits reported here will need to be understood in the context of known GPCR signalling dynamics^{11,12,41–43}. First, ACs and GPCRs are themselves targets of receptor-activated kinases that control ligand sensitivity and turnover and can lead to the activation of distinct G-protein pathways (switch from primary G-protein-coupling from G α s to G α i), as observed for human β_2 -adrenergic receptor activation^{19,44–46}. This is distinct from the mechanism we describe here, in which a constituent of G α s-coupled receptor signalling directly functions on G α i-coupled receptor signalling. Second, the distinct sites of protein:protein interaction for AKAPs and G α i (Fig. 1d) suggest that cAMP-activated RII subunits bring AKAPs into proximity of G α i and its receptor/effector (see also below, ‘fifth’), further organizing compartmentalized signalling complexes^{11,22,24,26,44}. Third, recently the mammalian E3 ubiquitin ligase paja2 has been shown to target R subunits for degradation in a cAMP-dependent manner and thus, could change the degree of sensitivity of G α i-coupled receptor signalling to cAMP-RII modulation of G α i²⁶. Fourth, the mechanism we propose creates a negative feedback loop, resulting in downregulation of cAMP synthesis *via* G α i activation and AC inhibition. This negative feedback could cause adaptation to G α i-coupled signalling itself and also function in concert with other feedback circuits to generate cAMP oscillations that couple to other, for example, calcium and MAPK oscillators, and may control spatial and temporal signalling by PKA^{25,47}. Fifth, beyond MAPK and AC modulation, G α i signalling has a broad spectrum of protein effectors, linking G α i to a variety of diverse cellular processes, for example, those involved in development and autophagy⁴⁶. It will, thus, be interesting to explore how co-incident modulation of G α i signalling by G α s-generated cAMP-RII may function in these pathways.

G α s-mediated control of G α i signalling *via* cAMP-RII could be a common mechanism of GPCR-mediated adaptive signalling in, as examples, chemotaxis or long-term potentiation in neuronal circuits^{7,13,14,44,47–49}. Chemokine and most neurotransmitter receptors mediate adaptive responses and are coupled to G α i, but G α s-proteins upstream of its main effector PKA are mostly activated by metabolic hormones or autonomic neurotransmitters⁵⁰. In this context, we confirmed complex formation of

‘activated’ PKA R subunit complexes and G-protein- α i3 in mammalian brains under physiological conditions (Fig. 1f). It will be interesting to explore how the mechanism we report contributes to controlling sensitivity to signals and chemotactic responses or neural information processing where a neuron responds to one synapse that releases a G α i-coupled receptor activator, while another simultaneously releases a G α s-coupled receptor binding hormone^{14,49}.

Finally, our results have at least four implications to understanding GPCR and PKA pharmacology. First, the fact that G α i signalling sensitivity is increased by G α s-coupled receptor signalling means that the sensitivity of G α i-coupled receptor signalling processes could be increased by drugs that positively function on G α s-coupled receptors (Fig. 4a,b)⁵¹. At the same time, the efficacy of G α i-coupled receptor agonists/antagonists could be modified by treatment with G α s-coupled receptor drugs. There are currently compounds in clinical trials for diseases of aberrant cell proliferation such as cancers (for example, compounds functioning on G α i-coupled CXCR4 and Smoothed receptors), and it would be interesting to test whether G α s-coupled GPCR agonists alter the efficacies of these compounds^{52–54}. Moreover, distinct mechanisms have been proposed to explain how cAMP regulates cell-type-specific MAPK signalling, which modulates cell growth and proliferation, either positively or negatively⁵⁵. For instance, human endocrine tumours have mitogenic MAPK activities caused by activating mutations of G α i2 (refs 20, 23, 56–58). Finally, cAMP analogues are being used to treat memory deficiencies caused by neurodegenerative diseases⁵⁹. The actions of these compounds will need to be considered in light of the mechanism that we have discovered. The Reggai peptide we report here may, itself prove a useful lead for development of drugs that modulate sensitivity of G α i-coupled, for example, neurotransmitter receptors.

Methods

Antibodies. Antibodies used were anti-RII β (BD Bioscience, #610626, 1:2000), anti-RII α (BD Bioscience, #612242, 1:2000), anti-PKAc α (BD Bioscience, #610981, 1:2000), anti-G α i3 (Santa Cruz, #sc-262, 1:200), anti-active G α i antibody (New East Biosciences, #26901, 1 microgram/precipitation), anti-Erk1/2 (Cell Signaling, #9102, 1:2000), anti-phospho-Erk1/2 (Cell Signaling, #9101, 1:2000), anti-CREB (Cell Signaling, #9104, 1:1000), anti-phospho-Serine133-CREB (Cell Signaling, #9198, 1:1000), anti-GFP (Roche, #11814460001, 1:2000), anti-Flag (Sigma, #F3165, 1:2000) and anti-GST (Sigma, #G1160, 1:1000).

Construction of plasmids.

Venus YFP PCA expression vectors and fusion constructs. The PKA regulatory subunit (rat, RII β) and the PKA catalytic subunit (mouse, PKAc α) were subcloned into the 5′-end to the Venus YFP PCA fragments, referred to here as N-terminal fragment (1–158 aa; F[1]) and the C-terminal fragment (159–239 aa; F[2]) as previously described^{27–29}. To screen for interacting proteins, we generated plasmids designed to serve as expression and destination vectors for lambda recombinase subcloning of mouse cDNAs harboured in Gateway-ready entry vectors (unpublished results). Venus YFP PCA fragments were subcloned into a pcDNA 3.1 expression vector with the appropriate Gateway reading frame cassette to generate the C- and N-terminal destination vectors for each PCA fragment. cDNAs of interest were subcloned into these destination vectors with LR (lambda recombinase) clone as recommended by the manufacturer (Invitrogen Corporation). **GST fusion protein constructs.** We constructed a fusion protein consisting of G α i3 and GST to be used in GST pulldown experiments and dot blot analysis. The cDNA for G α i3 was amplified from rat heart Marathon-Ready cDNA (BD Biosciences) by PCR and cloned into the multiple cloning site of the GST expression vector pGEX-5X-1 *via* EcoRI/XhoI. The GST-RII β construct was kindly provided by E. Klussmann (FMP-Berlin, Free University Berlin). Oligos coding for the 15 amino acids of the Reggai peptide were cloned into the multiple cloning site of pGEX-4T-2 (*via* EcoRI/XhoI) flanked upstream with the sequences for GST, *Tat* and *Flag* antigenic peptide tag³⁷. All GST fusion proteins were expressed in *E. coli* (strain BL21). Induction, cell lysis and affinity purification of fusion proteins were performed as recommended by the supplier of the pGEX vectors (GE Healthcare).

Fluorometric analysis of Venus-PCA-tagged proteins. COS7 cells grown in 12-well plates were co-transfected with the Venus YFP PCA expression vectors (pcDNA3.1) coding for prey-F[1] and/or bait-F[2] using FuGENE6 reagent

(Roche). Fluorometric analysis and imaging have been performed as previously described^{27–29}. For localization of protein–protein interactions in *S. cerevisiae*, we utilized the same variants of Venus YFP PCA fragments as described above. We co-transformed *MATa* (strain BY4741) strains of *S. cerevisiae* with plasmid p413 (for F[1]; ADH promoter) and plasmid p415 (for F[2]; ADH promoter) encoding the following Venus YFP PCA fusions (Bcy1-F[1], Bcy1-F[2], Bcy1*-F[1], Bcy1*-F[2], Tpk2-F[1], Gpa1-F[2] and Gpa2-F[2]). Positive clones were selected on the synthetic complete media lacking Histidine (His) and Leucine (Leu). Cells were grown in low-fluorescent media, and images were taken using a Nikon Eclipse TE2000U inverted microscope (Nikon) with $\times 60$ objective and YFP filter cube (41028, Chroma Technologies). Images were captured with a CoolSnap CCD camera (Photometrics) using Metamorph software (Molecular Devices). We quantified the fluorescence intensities from individual cells using the ImageJ software.

SPOT synthesis and overlay experiments. Overlapping peptides, either of RII β or peptides-containing substitutions of conserved amino acids in the Reggai sequence, were SPOT synthesized on distinct coordinates of a cellulose membrane. Membranes were overlaid with recombinant GST-G α i3 (10 μ g ml⁻¹ blocking buffer). Interactions were detected with anti-GST and secondary horseradish peroxidase antibodies by a procedure identical to IB.

cAMP agarose protein precipitation assays. HEK293, U2OS cells and total brains of mice were homogenized using a Potter S (B. Braun Biotech International) with 15 strokes. We clarified the lysate (13,000 r.p.m., 15 min) and precipitated the R-subunit-associated protein complexes with PKA-selective 8-AHA-cAMP agarose and Rp-8-AHA-cAMP agarose resin (Biolog, #D014, #M012) for 2 h at 4°C. As negative control experiment we added excess of cAMP (5 mM) to lysates to mask the cAMP-binding sites in the R subunits for precipitation. Resin-associated proteins were washed four times with lysis buffer and eluted with Laemmli sample buffer. Equal amount of protein were subjected to polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis followed by IB. We performed densitometric quantification of RII β , PKAc and G α i3 (in each case, normalized to the most abundant precipitated protein) from the same immunoblot ($n = 3$) to compare complex formation and fold enrichment between holoenzyme (precipitated with Rp-8-AHA-cAMP) and activated R complexes (precipitated with 8-AHA-cAMP).

Bioluminescence resonance energy transfer measurements. δ OR-HEK293 cells were transiently transfected with G α i1 with the Rluc inserted at aa position 91 and the ultraviolet-shifted GFP variant GFP10 (substitutions: P64L, S147P and S202P) fused to the C-terminus of G γ 2 or the ultraviolet-shifted variant GFP2 (substitution: F64L) fused to the C-terminus of the δ OR. In overexpression studies, we co-expressed RII β or PKAc. For cAMP measurements, we co-expressed the cAMP-sensing Epac *in vivo* cAMP reporter assay GFP10-Epac-Rluc3 (Rluc3 = Rluc variant with following substitutions: A55T, C124A and M185V) and either RII β or PKAc. Forty-eight hours after transfection, cells were treated with combinations of forskolin (100 μ M) and SNC80 (1 μ M), washed twice with PBS, detached with PBS plus 5 mM EDTA and resuspended in PBS plus 0.1% (w/v) glucose. Equal amount of cells (100,000 cells per well) were distributed in a 96-well microtitre plate (Optiplat, PerkinElmer, Life Science). Total fluorescence and bioluminescence were evaluated for each well using a FlexStation II (Molecular Devices) and Mithras LB 940 (Berthold Technologies), respectively. uvGFP fluorescence was excited at 400 nm and read at 515 nm. Fluorescence values were corrected by subtracting the autofluorescence of cells that do not expressed uvGFP. BRET between Rluc and GFP2 or GFP10 was measured after the addition of 5 μ M Rluc substrate DeepBlueC (bisdeoxycoelenterazine, PerkinElmer, Life Science). BRET signals were derived from the emission detected with the energy-acceptor filter (515 \pm 15 nm; GFP2/10) divided by the emission detected with the energy-donor filter (410 \pm 40 nm; Rluc/Rluc3).

MAPK phosphorylation assay. *Mammalian cells.* δ OR-HEK293 cells were grown in 12- or 24-well plate formats. Either 24 or 48 h after splitting or co-transfection in overexpression studies, confluent cells were treated with inhibitors (KT5720 for 60 min, pertussis toxin for 16 h), chemical modulators (forskolin, 6-MBC-cAMP, Sp-5,6-DCl-cBIMPS, Sp-8-PIP-cAMPs, 2-Cl-8-MA-cAMP (all for 15 min) or Rp-cAMP for 60 min) and/or the δ OR ligand SNC80 (for 3, 6, 10 or 15 min). cAMP analogues were purchased from Biolog (6-MBC-cAMP, #M012; Sp-5,6-DCl-cBIMPS, #D014; Sp-8-PIP-cAMPs, #P005, 2-Cl-8-MA-cAMP, #C080; Rp-cAMP, #A002S)^{35,36}. Following treatments at 37°C, the reactions were stopped by direct addition of Laemmli sample buffer. Equal amount of protein were subjected to polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis followed by IB. *Yeast cells.* *S. cerevisiae MATa* cells (strain BY4741) were grown overnight to saturation in complete or appropriate selective medium (for example, synthetic complete medium lacking His and Leu). Overnight cultures were used to start fresh 250 ml cultures starting at a cell density of 0.05 OD₆₀₀ or less and grown to 0.1 OD₆₀₀. Cells were stimulated with different concentrations of α -factor (Zymo Research, #Y1001) for 15 min, and cell lysates were prepared as described previously³³. We used the same phospho-p44/42 MAP kinase antibody #9101 (Cell Signaling Technology) which cross-reacts with phosphorylated Kss1 or Fus3 MAP kinases that are activated by α -factor.

Analysis of yeast morphological phenotypes. *S. cerevisiae* cells were grown overnight in either complete or selective (-His, -Leu) low-fluorescence medium to make a preculture. From the preculture, fresh 3 ml cultures were started, beginning at 0.05 OD₆₀₀ or less cell density and grown at 30°C with shaking up to 0.1 OD₆₀₀. Cultures were treated with different concentrations of α -factor pheromone (Zymo Research #Y1001) and further incubated at 30°C with shaking. To avoid heterogeneities from different stages of the cell cycle, α -factor-treated cells were incubated for 3 to 4 h before taking the images. For image acquisition by microscopy, 96-well optical quality clear bottom plates (NUNC) were used. Differential interference contrast images were acquired on a Nikon eclipse TE2000-U inverted microscope connected to a CoolSNAP CCD camera using a $\times 60$ differential interference contrast H Plan APO oil objective. Numbers of cells showing different morphologies (axial budding, bipolar budding, cell cycle arrest and shmooing) were counted by eye following treatment of cells with pheromone α -factor³³. For each condition, 500 to 700 cells were counted.

Bcy1 mutagenesis and mutant analyses. Conserved residues of the 'Reggai peptide' of human RII β (protein sequence accession number: NP_002727) were mutated in the sequence of the yeast regulatory subunit Bcy1 (protein sequence accession number: P07278). We mutated aspartic acid (D308) and glutamic acid (E317) to alanine (see Fig. 5b). Mutagenesis was carried out using standard site-directed mutagenesis (Quikchange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit; Stratagene) following the manufacturer's instructions. The *S. cerevisiae* expression plasmid p415 (ADH promoter) bearing mutated *bcy1* (= Bcy1*) was transformed into the *bcy1 Δ* *MATa* strain for analysis of MAPK activation and morphological responses as described above³³.

The Rluc PCA²⁹ assay and the OyCD PCA⁶⁰ is performed as described previously.

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Author contributions

E.S. and S.W.M. conceived the project. E.S., M.M., B.B., P.H.E. and V.B. performed the experiments. M. Beyermann and M.B. contributed reagents. E.S., M.M., M.B. and S.W.M. analysed the results. E.S. and S.W.M. wrote the manuscript with contributions from M.M. and M.B.

Additional information

Supplementary Information accompanies this paper at <http://www.nature.com/naturecommunications>

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