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Crystal structure of the multifunctional Gβ5–RGS9 complex

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Abstract

Regulators of G-protein signaling (RGS) proteins enhance the intrinsic GTPase activity of G protein α (G α) subunits and are vital for proper signaling kinetics downstream of G protein–coupled receptors (GPCRs). R7 subfamily RGS proteins specifically and obligately dimerize with the atypical G protein β 5 (G β 5) subunit through an internal G protein γ (G γ)-subunit–like (GGL) domain. Here we present the 1.95-Å crystal structure of the G β 5–RGS9 complex, which is essential for normal visual and neuronal signal transduction. This structure reveals a canonical RGS domain that is functionally integrated within a molecular complex that is poised for integration of multiple steps during G-protein activation and deactivation.

Multifarious hormones, neurotransmitters, growth factors and other extracellular stimuli produce their physiological effects by activating G protein–coupled receptors (GPCRs) and their associated heterotrimeric G proteins¹. RGS proteins attenuate heterotrimeric G-protein signaling by enhancing the intrinsic GTPase activity of Ga subunits and are vital for proper signal transduction kinetics^{2–4}. The R7 (class C) subfamily of RGS proteins encompasses the four mammalian proteins RGS6, RGS7, RGS9 and RGS11 (ref. 4), which are all highly expressed in the central nervous system^{5,6}. RGS9 is the best-characterized R7-RGS protein and is expressed in two isoforms: RGS9-1 mediates the rate-limiting step during response recovery of rod phototransduction⁷, whereas RGS9-2 is required for proper signal transduction downstream of certain opioid and dopamine receptors^{8–10}. Humans lacking functional RGS9-1 are temporarily visually impaired by sudden changes in light levels¹¹. Mice without RGS9-2 develop exacerbated dependence and withdrawal to morphine and exhibit dyskinesias

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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induced by the stimulation of D_2 -dopamine receptors that are similar to the side effects observed in patients treated for psychoses and Parkinson's disease¹⁰.

Members of the R7 subfamily of RGS proteins contain functional domains in addition to the characteristic RGS domain, which provides catalytic GTPase activating function. A Dishevelled/Egl-10/Pleckstrin homology (DEP) domain participates in proper subcellular localization of these RGS proteins through interaction with the recently discovered membrane-targeting proteins RGS9 anchor protein (R9AP) and R7 binding protein (R7BP)^{12–14}. A G protein γ (G γ)-like (GGL) domain, which shares sequence homology with the G γ subunits of heterotrimeric G proteins, mediates obligate heterodimerization with the most divergent G protein β (G β) subunit, G β 5 (ref. 15). Although it has been suggested that G β 5–R7-RGS complexes might support nucleotide exchange on G protein α (G α) subunits in conjunction with agonist-stimulated GPCRs¹⁶, the function of G β 5 in these complexes remains unknown.

To better understand the functional implication of G β 5–R7-RGS complexes in mediating the activation and deactivation of G protein–mediated signaling cascades, we present here the high-resolution crystal structure of G β 5–RGS9. In this structure, G β 5 scaffolds the various domains of RGS9 and contains a highly conserved surface that is consistent with its ability to bind G α subunits but that is occluded by RGS9. The structure highlights features that dictate the exclusive pairing of G β 5 with R7-RGS proteins and suggests a mechanism for filtering the interactions between activated G α proteins and the RGS domain that uses other portions of G β 5–RGS9.

RESULTS

Overall structure of G_{β5-RGS9}

We solved the crystal structure of mouse G β 5 in complex with a fragment of mouse RGS9 (residues 1–422) that encompasses all domains (DEP, GGL and RGS) common to both the retinal and neuronal forms of RGS9 (Fig. 1). G β 5 recapitulates the toroidal β -propeller common to domains of WD repeats and is sandwiched between the N- and C-terminal lobes of RGS9 (Fig. 1a). Three distinct RGS9 interfaces bury more than 25% of the total solvent-accessible surface area of G β 5 and involve 96 out of 353 G β 5 amino acids (Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2 online). First, the N-terminal lobe of RGS9 packs against the 'top' surface of G β 5, which is analogous to the surface used by G α subunits to bind conventional G $\beta\gamma$ dimers^{17,18} (Fig. 1). Second, similar to what is seen in G γ subunits, the centrally located GGL domain of RGS9 intertwines with the N-terminal helical extension of G β 5 before wrapping around the side of the β -propeller. Finally, the RGS domain packs against the bottom face of G β 5. The congruent C $_{\alpha}$ atoms from both independent dimers in the asymmetric unit superimpose with a root mean square (r.m.s) deviation of 1.0 Å, supporting the biological relevance of the observed domain packing.

The DEP–DHEX domains

The N-terminal lobe of RGS9 consists of two extended regions flanking a DEP domain adjacent to a novel fold, here termed a DEP helical extension (DHEX). The DEP domain forms a core tri-helical bundle capped by an antiparallel β -sheet with two divergent loops (Fig. 2a and Supplementary Fig. 1). The core regions of the RGS9 and Dishevelled¹⁹ DEP domains are similar and superpose with a 1.3-Å r.m.s. deviation (Fig. 2a). The RGS9 da1-d β 1 loop shows alternate conformations in the two complexes within the crystal asymmetric unit and is likely to be inherently flexible. The DHEX domain, previously referred to as the interdomain¹² or R7 homology domain²⁰, has no close structural homologs and instead forms a 'helix-wrap' composed of a central helix encircled by three antiparallel α -helices (Fig. 2b) (see the discussion of the Dali search in the Methods section). The fourth DHEX helix (x α 4) interfaces with the

β-sheet and variable loops of the DEP domain to form a single DEP-DHEX superdomain that packs against the extended flanking regions (the N-terminal portion of RGS9 and the DHEX-GGL linker; Fig. 1a and Fig 2b). Whereas the DHEX domain makes no direct contacts with Gβ5, the DEP domain, the N-terminal region of RGS9 and the DHEX-GGL linker provide an extensive interface that buries 2600 Å² of surface area between the two proteins (Fig. 2c,d). Most of the surface of Gβ5 that contacts the N-terminal region of RGS9 and the DHEX-GGL linker is congruent with the surface of Gβ1 that contacts the switch II region of Gα-GDP subunits^{17,18} (Fig. 2d and Fig 3, and Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2 online). In contrast, Gβ5 and the DEP domain interact through a hydrophobic core surrounded by a ring of electrostatic interactions, and this interface does not include analogous regions of Gβ subunits that are needed to engage Gα-GDP (Fig. 2c, and Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2). Consistent with this extensive interface, the isolated N-terminal lobe functions *in trans* with separately expressed GGL-RGS fragments for the *Caenorhabditis elegans* R7-RGS proteins, which are known as EGL-10 and EAT-16 (ref. 21).

The N-terminal lobe of R7-RGS proteins is also important for subcellular localization through interaction with the membrane-targeting proteins R9AP and R7BP^{12–14}. The DEP domain is necessary, but not sufficient, to bind these anchoring proteins^{14,22}, and recent studies also implicate the DHEX domain²⁰. The apposition of the DEP and DHEX domains observed in the Gβ5–RGS9 structure (Fig. 1a and Fig 2b) supports a model whereby anchoring proteins bind to a surface that includes both domains.

The G_{β5} propeller

The structure revealed here illustrates that G β 5 and G β 1 fold into essentially identical sevenbladed β -propellers (β -sheets S1–S7) with equivalent N-terminal helical extensions²³ (r.m.s. deviation of 1.1 Å; Fig. 1a,b). The most substantial structural difference between G β 5 and G β 1 involves the insertion of a 3₁₀ helix in the loop between β -strands 3 and 4 of β -sheet S3 (Supplementary Fig. 1).

G β 1, G β 2, G β 3 and G β 4 share 80–90% sequence identity, whereas G β 5 shows approximately 50% sequence conservation with G β 1–4 (ref. 24[;] Supplementary Fig. 1). Not surprisingly, most of the functionally divergent residues within G β 5 cluster at the interfaces with the DEP and RGS domains (Fig. 3a). As previously noted for other G β subunits²³, surface-exposed residues within the N-terminal helix are also notably nonconserved (Fig. 3a). Conversely, the surface of G β 5 that interacts with the GGL domain is highly conserved in other G β subunits, probably reflecting a common origin of GGL and G γ domains and their role in heterodimerization with G β subunits.

The discovery that R7-RGS proteins interact with G β 5 subunits naturally led to the hypothesis that these complexes share structural and functional commonalities with conventional G $\beta\gamma$ dimers²⁵, and the structure of G β 5–RGS9 indicates that the main determinants of G α binding are retained in G β 5 (refs. 17^{,26}) (Fig. 3b,c). Only two residues of G β 5 (Gly63 and Leu67) differ from analogous residues (Leu55 and Tyr59) of G β 1 that interact with G α -GDP subunits, and these differences are unlikely to affect the interaction with G α -GDP. Indeed, Leu55 and Tyr59 of G β 1 can be mutated to alanine without a substantial loss of G α binding or receptor-catalyzed nucleotide exchange²⁶. Trp99 of G β 1 is necessary for high-affinity binding of G α -GDP subunits²⁶, and the analogous residue in G β 1 (Trp107) adopts a distinct rotameric conformation that is probably influenced by its interaction with the N-terminal lobe of RGS9. Nevertheless, despite these minor differences, it has not been possible to reconstitute heterotrimers consisting of G β 5, various R7-RGS proteins and G α -GDP subunits^{25,27}, presumably because the N-terminal lobe of R7-RGS proteins 'cap' the top of G β 5, which is needed to engage G α -GDP subunits (Fig. 1a and Fig 3).

The GGL domain

The interface of G β 5 with the GGL domain is the most extensive of the three interfacial regions. Contacts occur between 54 Gβ5 residues and 39 RGS9 residues, which together bury 4,700 Å² of solventaccessible surface area (Fig. 4a, and Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2). Our G β 5– RGS9 crystal structure clearly demonstrates that the RGS9-GGL domain is structurally identical to conventional Gy subunits¹⁷, and the GGL domain superposes on equivalent atoms from the transducin Gy structure with an r.m.s. deviation of 1.1 Å (Fig. 1 and Fig 4b). Whereas the pattern of interactions between GB5 and the GGL domain largely mirror those observed between G β and G γ subunits (Fig. 4a, and Supplementary Fig. 1 and 2), R7-RGS proteins show stringent specificity for G β 5 (refs. 25,²⁸). Conversely, G γ subunits do not form stable complexes with G β 5 but instead specifically bind G β 1–4 (refs. 28,²⁹). Comparison of the Gβ5–RGS9 structure with other Gβy complexes suggests that the different Gβ specificity of the GGL domain versus Gy results from the cumulative effect of several individually minor alterations. For example, RGS9-Ser251 forms a hydrogen bond with Gβ5-Tyr248 that cannot be recapitulated with either the equivalently positioned $G\gamma$ hydrophobic residues or the phenylalanine of G β 1–4, respectively (Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2). More importantly, RGS9-Trp270 forms many contacts as it inserts into a deep hydrophobic cleft within G β 5 (Fig. 4c, and Supplementary Fig. 2), and its replacement with the analogous phenylalanine found in Gy subunits would be likely to reduce specificity of GGL domains for Gβ5 (Fig. 4c,d). The small G β 5 residues Thr338 and Ala353 better accommodate Trp270 than would the larger Gβ1-4 methionine and asparagine residues. Gβ5-Thr338 also contributes to a unique hydrogen bond with RGS9-Trp270, and both residues participate in a water-mediated hydrogen bond network with several neighboring residues (Fig. 4c). The role of RGS9-Trp270 in conferring specificity of binding to $G\beta5$ is supported by previous mutational and binding studies using other R7-RGS proteins²⁸. A cluster of hydrophobic residues centered on RGS9-Trp270 is extended by residues from a novel GGL domain helix ($g\alpha$ 5), which folds back against the shorter and conformationally altered GGL domain $g\alpha 3$ -g $\alpha 4$ loop (Fig. 4c). This $g\alpha 5$ helix provides additional specific interactions with G β 5 and also provides a bridge to the RGS domain.

The RGS domain

The structure of the RGS domain is not altered by incorporation into the G β 5–RGS9 heterodimer and superimposes well with the structure of the isolated RGS domain of bovine RGS9 (ref. 30) (r.m.s. deviation = 0.9 Å). The structures of this and other RGS domains are similarly composed of terminal and bundle subdomains³¹ (Fig. 5a). Coalescence of the bundle subdomain (r α 4–r α 7) brings the termini of the RGS domain in apposition to form the terminal subdomain (r α 1–r α 3 and r α 8–r α 9). The interface between the RGS domain and G β 5 is the smallest of the three G β 5–RGS9 interfaces, burying only 1,450 Å² of solvent-accessible surface area (Fig. 5a,b, and Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2). Most of the direct contacts occur between two RGS domain loops (r α 4–r α 5 and r α 6–r α 7) and the loops within β -sheets S4 and S5 of G β 5 (Fig. 5a,b). Loops between S4 β 1–S4 β 2 and S5 β 1–S5 β 2 of G β 5 are longer than their counterparts in other G β subunits and contribute to the RGS9–G β 5 interface (Fig. 5a,b, and Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2). However, several residues in this subdomain also show interdomain interactions with residues of the GGL domain g α 2–g3₁₀1 elements and the g α 5 helix, which further stabilize the G β 5–RGS domain interface (Supplementary Fig. 1).

Lys397 within the RGS domain of RGS9 is the only G β 5 contact residue that also interacts with G α ; however, this residue is positioned similarly in both complexes and could participate in electrostatic interactions with both proteins concomitantly³⁰ (Fig. 5b,c, and Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2). Other G α binding residues generally have the same orientation as analogous residues in the structure of the isolated RGS9-RGS domain, particularly Glu324, Asn325,

Ala359, Trp362, Asn364 and Asp399, which participate in enhancing G α -GTPase activity³⁰ (Fig. 5c). We conclude that G β 5 association does not directly influence the functional architecture of the RGS9-RGS domain.

The loop-to-loop nature of the G β 5–RGS domain interface potentially allows flexibility, although conservation of the contacts and relative orientations between the RGS domain and $G\beta 5$ in both dimers of the crystal asymmetric unit support the functional relevance of the observed interface. To ascertain whether this orientation would allow binding of $G\alpha$ -GTP and GTPase acceleration, we superimposed the structure of the isolated RGS domain of bovine RGS9 bound to $G\alpha t/i1$ -GDP-AlF₄ (ref. 30) onto the structure of Gβ5–RGS9 (Fig. 5d). Notably, the docked Ga molecule fits well, with the exception of several residues in the $\alpha B - \alpha C$ region of the all-helical domain that clash with the GGL domain and G β 5 (Fig. 5d,e). Clashes in these elements could explain why Ga subunits have decreased affinity for G β 5–R7-RGS complexes compared with isolated RGS domains from R7-RGS proteins³². Slight rotation of the RGS domain around its interface with GB5 (Fig. 5d) could allow activated Ga to bind GB5-RGS9 without steric hindrance. An alternative, and possibly complementary, mechanism is that side chains from the $\alpha B-\alpha C$ region of G α and the RGS9-GGL domain could adopt rotomer orientations that produce specific interactions between the two proteins (Fig. 4a and Fig 5e). Such an interface would provide an attractive mechanism for orchestrating the G α subunit binding selectivity of R7-RGS proteins. Confirmation of the precise nature and functional role of this proposed interface awaits future experiments.

DISCUSSION

Several pieces of evidence suggest an overall orientation of G β 5–RGS9 relative to membranes (Fig. 6a). For instance, the N terminus of RGS-bound G α must be directed toward the membrane to allow anchoring through its lipophilic post-translational modifications³³. Also, the R7-RGS N-terminal lobe would be oriented in a way that supports its interaction with membrane-anchoring proteins. A model accounting for these factors reveals a cluster of positive charge from the RGS9 N-terminal lobe favorably oriented toward the negatively charged membrane surface (Supplementary Fig. 3 online).

The structure of G β 5–RGS9 represents a conjunction of signaling modules necessary for both G-protein activation and deactivation. Extensive genetic studies of *C. elegans* describe a model of reciprocal activation and deactivation of two G α subunits mediated by distinct G β 5–R7 complexes operating downstream of individual GPCRs^{34,35}. In this model, GPB-2 (the G β 5 ortholog), in complex with the R7-RGS proteins EGL-10 or EAT-16, heterotrimerizes with GDP-bound EGL-30 (G α q) or GOA-1 (G α 0), respectively^{34,35}. Thismodel suggests that GPCR-promoted nucleotide exchange on the G α subunit of one GPB-2–R7-RGS–G α heterotrimer results in release of the GPB-2–R7-RGS dimer, which functions as a GTPase-activating protein to inhibit the opposing G-protein signaling pathway. Consistent with such a G β 5–R7-RGS–G α heterotrimer model and the conserved G α binding interface on G β 5 described earlier (Fig. 3b,c), mouse G α +GDP was shown to stoichiometrically immunoprecipitate with RGS9 and G β 5 from retinal rod outer segments¹³. Although these studies did not characterize the interaction mechanism of G α t, its confirmed GDP-loaded state suggests that binding was mediated not by the RGS domain but by another element of this complex.

The biochemical and genetic studies discussed above indicate that an uncapping mechanism may exist *in vivo* to disrupt interactions between G β 5 and the R7-RGS N-terminal lobe, and thus allow G β 5 interaction with G α subunits. Binding of R9AP and R7BP to the N-terminal lobe of R7-RGS proteins^{20,22} could contribute to the release of contacts with the putative G α -interacting surface of G β 5. Additionally, interactions between the DEP domain and certain

GPCRs could participate in uncapping the conserved G α binding surface of G β 5 (refs. 10[,] ³⁶). Several RGS9 residues in the DHEX-GGL linker (Asn210–Thr218) make no contacts with G β 5 (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1) and could function as a hinge upon which the RGS9 N-terminal lobe pivots away from G β 5. This same region of RGS6 and RGS7 is 25 residues longer than that region in RGS9 or RGS11 (Supplementary Fig. 1), perhaps introducing functional variability in the magnitude of N-terminal lobe in our membrane orientation model would allow a ground-state G α subunit to bind to G β 5 with a similar membrane orientation to that generally accepted for conventional G $\alpha\beta\gamma$ heterotrimers¹⁷ (Fig. 6b). Although understanding of the full implications of this arrangement awaits further work, the crystal structure of G β 5–RGS9 together with existing biochemical and cellular studies point to a role of G β 5–R7 dimers interacting directly with specific GPCRs and G α subunits to modulate visual and neuronal signal transduction.

METHODS

Expression and crystallization of G_{β5} and RGS9

The coding sequences of *Mus musculus* G β 5 (full-length short isoform) and RGS9 (residues 1–422) were amplified by PCR as described previously^{25,37} and inserted into the NcoI and XhoI endonuclease restriction sites of pFastBacHT (Invitrogen) and a modified pFastBacHT vector in which the His₆ tag was replaced with a glutathione S-transferase (GST) tag (pFastBacGST), respectively. Baculovirus isolates were prepared following the Bac-to-Bac method (Invitrogen).

Recombinant His₆-G β 5 and GST-RGS9 proteins were coexpressed in High-Five insect cells for 48 hours at 27 °C after virus infection. Insect cells were lysed in 20 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole (pH 7.5), 1 mM DTT, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 0.5% (w/v) 3-[(3cholamidopropyl)dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulfonate (CHAPS) and Complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) using an Emulsi-Flex C5 homogenizer (Avestin). His₆-G β 5 and GST-RGS9 complex was purified using sequential His Trap HP and GSTrap FF (GE Healthcare) column chromatography steps, and both the His₆ and GST tags were cleaved with TEV protease. The cleaved tags and TEV protease were removed by repeating both affinity chromatography steps. The final purified complex was dialyzed and concentrated to 6.5 mg ml⁻¹ in 20 mM PIPES (pH 6.5), 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM DTT and 5% (v/v) glycerol for crystallization.

Crystals of G β 5–RGS9 were grown at 18 °C in sitting drops over a reservoir containing 100 mM Bis-Tris (pH 6.3), 5% (v/v) MME-PEG 550 and 10 mM DTT. Crystals were cryoprotected by stepping up to 20% (v/v) MME-PEG 550 and 20% (v/v) glycerol in the drop buffer. Rhenium or platinum derivatives were prepared by soaking crystals for 20–24 h in reservoir buffer with 5% (v/v) glycerol and 5 mM K₂ReCl₆ or 1 mM K₂Pt(NO₂)₄, respectively, followed by back-soaking and cryoprotection. Derivatives with iodide were prepared by soaking cryoprotected crystals for 30–60 s in a final cryoprotection buffer containing 1 M NaI. Crystals were screened for diffraction after derivatization and cryoprotection at the University of North Carolina structural X-ray facility (Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA).

Structure determination and analysis

The G β 5–RGS9 structure was solved by combining phases obtained using both multiple isomorphous replacement with anomalous scattering (MIRAS) and molecular replacement (MR) techniques. All X-ray diffraction data sets for native and derivative crystals were collected at 100 K on SER-CAT beamline 22-ID at the Advanced Photon Source at the Argonne National Laboratory in Argonne, Illinois, USA. The data were indexed, integrated and scaled

using HKL2000 (ref. 38). Heavy atom binding positions for eight rhenium, one platinum and ten iodine atoms were located and refined with CCP4 (ref. 39) programs, including FFT⁴⁰ and MLPHARE³⁹. The phasing power values (acentric/centric) were 0.78/0.54, 2.33/1.27, 2.48/1.29, 2.46/1.28 and 0.69/0.50 for the K₂ReCl₆ peak, K₂Pt(NO₂)₄ peak, inflection and remote and NaI data sets, respectively. Phases obtained from heavy atom substructures were improved by solvent flattening, histogram matching and noncrystallographic symmetry averaging using the program DM⁴¹. MR replacement was performed using Phaser⁴² with a first search ensemble containing G $\beta\gamma$ structures^{23,43} (PDB 1TBG, 2TRC) and a second search ensemble composed of RGS9-RGS domain structures³⁰ (PDB 1FQI, 1FQJ, 1FQK). MIRAS and MR phase combination was performed using Sigma-A⁴⁴. The model building and refinement were done with Coot⁴⁵ and Refmac5 (ref. 46). Translation, libration and screwrotation displacement (TLS) refinement was performed using different TLS groups for each of the two G β 5–RGS9 dimers in the crystal asymmetric unit and for the various structural domains and elements of both RGS9 (residues 7-15, 16-104, 105-118, 119-192, 193-218, 219-273, 274-289 and 290-421) and G β 5 (residues 9-36, 37-53 and 54-353). Data collection and structure refinement statistics are shown in Table 1. For the final refined structure, 91.9% and 8.1% of the residues were in the favored and allowed regions, respectively, of the Ramachandran plot. The mean B factor reported reflects the sum of both TLS-derived and residual B factor components. Electron density was visible for residues 7–421 from both RGS9 molecules (chains A and C) and for residues 9-353 and 1-353 of G_β5 chains B and D, respectively. The increased N-terminal stability of the GB5 chain D results from crystal contacts and is not likely to reflect native structure.

Ungapped superposition of the two G β 5–RGS9 complexes in the crystal asymmetric unit was performed with the LSQKAB module of CCP4 (ref. 39) using C_a atoms from 415 RGS9 and 345 G β 5 residues. Additional structure superpositions were performed with the SSM function of Coot⁴⁵. Superposition of the DEP domains from RGS9 and Dishevelled (PDB 1FSH) was carried out using 71 out of 86 and 85 C_a atoms, respectively, with six gaps. G β 5 and G β 1 (PDB 1GOT) were superimposed using 330 out of 353 and 339 C_a atoms, respectively, with five gaps. G γ transducin (PDB 1GOT) and the RGS9 GGL domain were superimposed using 50 out of 55 and 54 C_a atoms, respectively, with two gaps. The bovine (PDB 1FQI) and mouse RGS9-RGS domains were superimposed using 134 C_a atoms from each, without gaps. Sequence alignments were initially performed with ClustalX⁴⁷ then hand edited based on comparison of superposed structures.

A Gat/i docked model was prepared by superimposing the RGS domain from the Gβ5-RGS9 structure with an RGS9-RGS domain and Gαt/i complex structure³⁰ (PDB 1FQJ). A fragment of PDEy that was also present in this structure would have been positioned directly behind the model of $G\alpha t/i$ as it is presented in Figure 6a, but was removed from the figure to minimize clutter. An N-terminal helix was positioned on the docked Gat/i (Fig. 6a) by superposition with a Gat structure containing this structural element 17 (PDB 1GOT). Gat was docked on the top surface of G_β5 (Fig. 6b) by superposition of G_β5 with G_β1 from the heterotrimeric structure¹⁷ (PDB 1GOT). Buried solvent-accessible surface area was calculated with CCP4 program AreaIMol⁴⁸. Specific residue contact distances were determined as atoms within 120% of their summed van der Waals radii for van der Waals contacts or atoms closer than 3.5 Å for hydrogen bonds, as measured using the CCP4-Molecular Graphics⁴⁹ program. The PDB was searched for structures with similarity to the DHEX domain using DALI⁵⁰, and the closest structural homolog had a z score of 4.5 and an r.m.s. deviation of 3.4 Å over 76 C_{α} atoms in ten fragments. Electrostatics calculations were performed, and Supplementary Fig. 3 was prepared using SPOCK⁵¹. Although electrostatic potential maps calculated at $\pm 2 kT$ or ± 5 kT were qualitatively similar, Supplementary Figure 3 was prepared using those from the ± 2 kT calculations to highlight the basic patch near the N-terminal lobe of RGS9.

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Figure 1.

Structure of G β 5–RGS9. (**a**) Stereo ribbon diagram of G β 5 (blue) in dimeric complex with RGS9 including its N-terminal (light gray), Dishevelled/Egl-10/Pleckstrin homology (DEP; orange), DEP helical extension (DHEX; maroon), G protein γ (G γ)-subunit–like (GGL; red), regulators of G-protein signaling (RGS; green) and DHEX-GGL linker (dark gray) regions. (**b**) Ribbon representation of the transducin G $\alpha\beta\gamma$ heterotrimer¹⁷ (PDB 1GOT), with the G β subunit oriented similar to G β 5 in **a**. G α , gold; G α -switch regions, magenta; G β , blue; G γ , red; GDP, purple spheres. Structure figures were generated with PyMOL software (http://pymol.sourceforge.net).



Figure 2.

RGS9 N-terminal lobe. (**a**) Ribbon diagram of superposed RGS9 (orange) and Dishevelled (blue) Dishevelled/Egl-10/Pleckstrin homology (DEP) domains. RGS9-DEP domain secondary structure elements are labeled. (**b**) RGS9-DEP helical extension (RGS9-DHEX; maroon) domain with secondary structure elements labeled. (**c**) Specific contact residues between the RGS9-DEP domain (orange) and Gβ5 (blue) are represented as balls and sticks. (**d**) $2F_o - F_c$ electron density map of the RGS9 DHEX-Gγ–like (GGL) linker (dark gray) and N-terminal (light gray) elements with neighboring Gβ5 residues (blue) contoured at 1σ (dark-blue mesh).

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Figure 3.

Conserved G α binding interface on G β 5. (**a**) Surface representation of the N-terminal lobe (top) and regulators of G-protein signaling (RGS) domain (bottom) binding faces of G β 5. Divergent residues as indicated in Supplementary Figure 1 are blue. A transparent ribbon representation of RGS9 is shown and colored according to Figure 1a. The DEP helical extension (DHEX) domain and RGS domain elements that have no G β 5 contacts are deleted for clarity. (**b**) Surface representation of G β 1 (ref. 17) oriented similarly to the top face of G β 5 in **a**. The residues that align with divergent G β 5 residues are colored blue for comparison with the figure in **a**, and the surfaces of G β 1 (that interface with G α subunits are indicated with black outlines. (**c**) Superposed G β 5 (blue) and G β 1 (gold) structures with G α t-binding residues of G β 1 (refs. 17,²³) and structurally equivalent G β 5 residues depicted as balls and sticks.



Figure 4.

Gy-subunit-like (GGL) domains and Gy subunits are structurally equivalent. (a) Structurebased sequence alignments of the RGS9-GGL domain with Gy subunits and other mammalian R7-RGS-GGL domains. Residue numbers indicated above the R7-RGS-GGL domain sequences are for mouse RGS9. The helical elements of the RGS9-GGL domain are indicated above the R7-RGS-GGL domain alignments as cylinders. Residues contacting Gß subunits^{17,18} are boxed in green. The residues that are identical or strongly conserved with RGS9-GGL residues are colored red, and residues that are weakly conserved are colored blue. RGS9-GGL domain residues supporting G β 5-specific contacts are indicated with blue dots. These are defined as contacts that could not be reproduced in a complex with other G β subunits owing to chemical or steric conflicts. Residues proposed to contact an RGS-domain-bound Ga subunit are labeled with gold dots. (b) Backbone trace of the superposed RGS9-GGL (red) domain and $G\gamma 1$ (ref. 17; dark-blue) structures. GGL domain secondary structure elements are labeled. (c) RGS9-W270 binding pocket shown as a translucent surface with individual Gβ5 (blue) and GGL domain (red) residues shown as balls and sticks. The GGL domain backbone is represented as a transparent ribbon. A hydrogen-bonded water molecule (yellow sphere) is depicted. (d) Gy1-F64 (red) and GB1 (blue) binding interface, depicted similarly to the figure in c.

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Figure 5.

The RGS9-RGS domain interfaces with G β 5 and activated G α subunits. (a) Ribbon diagram of the RGS9-RGS domain (green) interface with the Gy-subunit-like (GGL) domain (red) and GB5 (blue). GB5 loop residues contacting the RGS domain are purple. Bundle and terminal RGS subdomains are indicated with green lines. (b) Transparent ribbon diagram of the RGS domain (green) and $G\beta5$ (blue) with interfacial contact residues depicted as balls and sticks. (c) Superimposed structures from the isolated RGS9-RGS domain (wheat) and RGS9-RGS domains in complexes with $G\alpha t/i$ (coral) and $G\beta 5$ (green) are depicted as transparent ribbon diagrams along with the G β 5 (blue) structure. The G α t/i contact residues from all three RGS domain structures and the GB5 residue (Glu207) that shares a common RGS domain contact (Lys397) with $G\alpha t/i^{30}$ are depicted as balls and sticks. The isolated and $G\alpha t/i$ -bound RGS9-RGS domain coordinates PDB accession numbers are 1FOI and 1FOJ, respectively. (d) A model of Gat/i (ref. 30; gold) docked onto the RGS domain (green) of G β 5–RGS9 is depicted and colored similarly to Figure 1. The GTPase and all-helical subdomains of the $G\alpha$ subunit are indicated with gold lines. A region where the $G\alpha$ subunit clashes with the GGL domain and $G\beta5$ is circled. The direction of a proposed reorientation of the RGS domain is indicated with a curved arrow. The orientation of this image is rotated clockwise $\sim 90^{\circ}$ around the y axis with respect to the image in **a**. (e) Magnified and $\sim 90^{\circ}$ rotated view of the encircled region of d, with sterically clashing residues shown as balls and sticks.



Figure 6.

Membrane orientation of the G β 5–RGS9 complex. (a) A model of the membrane-relative orientation and interprotein interactions of the G β 5–RGS9 complex. G β 5 and RGS9, colored as in Figure 1, with G α t/i (ref. 30; gold) docked and colored as in Figure 5d. A modeled N-terminal helix for G α t/i is depicted as a cylinder, and a wheat-colored R9AP cartoon is positioned near the RGS9-Dishevelled/Egl-10/Pleckstrin homology (DEP) and RGS9-DEP helical extension (DHEX) domains. (b) A model of the G β 5–RGS9 complex, colored and positioned as in **a**, with the DEP and DHEX domains arbitrarily repositioned to allow docking of a G α t structure¹⁷ on G β 5. The G α subunit is colored as in Figure 1b. A cartoon depiction of a G protein–coupled receptor (GPCR)⁵² (cyan) is positioned in the membrane.

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Data collection and refinement statistics for multiple isomorphous replacement with anomalous scattering (MIRAS) structures Table 1

	Native	K2ReCl ₆		K ₂ Pt(NO ₂)4		Nal
Data collection Space group Cell dimensions <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> (Å)	P2 ₁ 2 ₁ 21 110.2, 119.0, 132.0	P2 ₁ 2 ₁ 2 ₁ 109.3, 120.8, 129.6		P2 ₁ 2 ₁ 21 110.2, 119.1, 130.1		P2 ₁ 2 ₁ 2 ₁ 110.7, 118.9, 131.0
		Peak	Peak	Inflection	Remote	
Wavelength	1.0000	1.1766	1.0719	1.0722	1.0630	1.5400
Resolution (Å)	50-1.95	50-2.80	50-2.20	50-2.25	50-2.45	50-2.90
	$(2.02-1.95)^{a}$	(2.90–2.80)	(2.28 - 2.20)	(2.33–2.25)	(2.54–2.45)	(3.00–2.90)
R_{sym}	0.075 (0.434)	0.108 (0.518)	0.075 (0.460)	$0.076\ (0.588)$	$0.080\ (0.614)$	0.116(0.470)
Ι / σΙ	22.4 (3.3)	20.5 (2.1)	35.3 (1.9)	33.3 (1.9)	34.7 (1.8)	21.6 (2.2)
Completeness (%)	(2.66) (2000) (20	95.0 (69.1)	92.6 (60.2)	92.4 (57.7)	96.7 (74.0)	90.9 (58.6)
Redundancy	4.1 (4.1)	8.9 (5.3)	13.1 (7.8)	12.8 (6.9)	13.2 (7.0)	9.3 (5.2)
Refinement						
Resolution (Å)	20.0–1.95					
No. reflections	119,175					
$R_{ m work}/R_{ m free}$	18.3/22.5					
No. atoms						
Protein	12365					
Water	890					
B-factors						
Protein	34.8					
Water	40.2					
r.m.s. deviations						
Bond lengths (Å)	0.010					
Bond angles $(^{\circ})$	1.16					

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A total of four crystals were used in solving the structure. a Values in parentheses are for the highest-resolution shell.