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**Active state structures of G protein-coupled receptors highlight the similarities and differences in the G protein and arrestin coupling interfaces**

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**Abstract**

G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) regulate cellular signalling through heterotrimeric G proteins and arrestins in response to an array of extracellular stimuli. Structure determination of GPCRs in an active conformation bound to intracellular signalling proteins has proved to be highly challenging. Nonetheless, three new structures of GPCRs in an active state have been published during the last year, namely the adenosine  $A_{2A}$  receptor ( $A_{2A}R$ ) bound to an engineered G protein, opsin bound to visual arrestin and the  $\mu$  opioid receptor ( $\mu$ OR) bound to a G protein-mimicking nanobody. These structures have provided novel insight into the sequence of events leading to GPCR activation, and have highlighted both similarities and differences in the structure of the interface between GPCRs and different signalling proteins.

## Highlights

- Active state structures of a  $\mu$ OR–nanobody complex determined to 2.3 Å resolution.
- The first GPCR–arrestin structure defines the arrestin–opsin interface.
- Structure determined of  $A_{2A}$ R coupled to an engineered G protein.
- Inactive, intermediate-active and active structures have now been solved for  $A_{2A}$ R.
- G protein and arrestin complexes provide insight into GPCR coupling specificity.

## Introduction

The most significant development in G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) structural biology in recent years has been the crystallisation of receptors in an active state, *i.e.* the conformation of the receptor when it is coupled to a cytoplasmic signalling partner such as a G protein or arrestin (Figure 1). This has been possible only by co-crystallisation of the receptor with a binding partner that stabilises the active conformation (Figure 1). However, due to the technical challenges of working with native signalling complexes, a number of novel G protein-mimicking surrogates have been developed to simplify crystallisation of GPCRs in their active state. At present, six different binding partners have been used (Table 1): (1) the C-terminal peptide (G $\alpha$ CT) from the G protein transducin  $\alpha$ -subunit [1-7]; (2) single chain camelid antibodies (nanobodies; Nb) raised against specific GPCRs [8-12]; (3) the heterotrimeric G protein G<sub>s</sub>, composed of G $\alpha_s$ ,  $\beta_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  subunits, and stabilised by a nanobody (Nb35) [13]; (4) the finger loop peptide from visual arrestin [14]; (5) visual arrestin [15]; (6) an engineered minimal G protein, mini-G<sub>s</sub>, composed of a single domain from the G $\alpha_s$  subunit [16]. The first active state structure of a GPCR solved was that of opsin complexed with G $\alpha$ CT, published in 2008 [5]. In 2011 the structure of the  $\beta_2$  adrenergic receptor ( $\beta_2$ AR) was determined in complex with either a nanobody [10] or heterotrimeric G<sub>s</sub> [13]. Since then three additional GPCRs have been determined in their active state, namely the muscarinic acetylcholine receptor M2 [9],  $\mu$  opioid receptor ( $\mu$ OR) [8], and most recently, the adenosine A<sub>2A</sub> receptor (A<sub>2A</sub>R) [16].

This review will focus on structures of GPCRs in their active conformation, therefore, we must start by defining what constitutes the active state. From a structural perspective, the conformational changes that occur within the core of the receptor upon coupling to a cytoplasmic binding partner appear to be the best marker of activation. In particular, there is a characteristic rearrangement of three highly conserved residues, Tyr<sup>5.58</sup>, Tyr<sup>7.53</sup> from the NPxxY motif and Arg<sup>3.50</sup> from the DRY motif (superscripts indicate Ballesteros-Weinstein numbering [17]). These residues adopt almost identical positions in all active state structures determined to date, irrespective of the binding partner involved (Figure 1; see References [8] and [18] for detailed comparisons of active state structures). Importantly, the conformational changes of these three residues can be used to differentiate the active G protein-coupled conformation of A<sub>2A</sub>R [16] from the agonist-bound intermediate-active state [19-21], *i.e.* the conformation of A<sub>2A</sub>R when it is bound to an agonist, but *not* coupled to a cytoplasmic signalling partner (Figure 2; discussed below). Pharmacological analyses have confirmed that all the different binding partners reproduce the increase in agonist-binding affinity induced by coupling to native signalling proteins [8-11,13,16]. The most notable difference between GPCR complexes involving a G protein or arrestin compared to a peptide or nanobody is the extent to which the intracellular end of helix six (H6) moves away from the transmembrane helical bundle. The magnitude of this movement, which is typically between 8 Å [5] and 17 Å [16], is highly dependent on the

binding partner involved, with the largest displacements observed for G protein complexes, but this does not influence the conformational changes that occur in the core of the receptor. Therefore, the structures solved to date (Table 1) likely represent a range of closely related active conformations, but, critically, the receptors have all undergone the core conformational changes that appear to represent transition into the active state.

Owing to the technical challenges of crystallising active state GPCRs, the frequency of publication of these structures has been relatively low, nonetheless, during the past year three new structures have been reported that have significantly enhanced our knowledge of GPCR activation. First, the high resolution structure of the  $\mu$ OR–Nb39 complex provided insight into activation of  $\mu$ OR and revealed a conserved polar network in the active state [8]. Second, the opsin–arrestin complex structure provided insight into how non-G protein signalling partners interact with GPCRs [15]. Third, publication of an  $A_{2A}R$ –mini- $G_s$  complex made  $A_{2A}R$  the first hormone receptor for which structures have been solved in the active [16] and intermediate-active [19-21] conformations in addition to the inactive state [22-25], *i.e.* the conformation of the receptor when it is bound to an antagonist or inverse agonist. In light of these recent developments, this review will focus on two main topics: (1) The conformational changes associated with activation of  $A_{2A}R$ ; (2) Comparison of the interface between GPCRs and binding partners derived from native signalling proteins.

### **Conformational changes involved in $A_{2A}R$ activation**

In 2011 two structures of agonist-bound  $A_{2A}R$  were solved [19,21], which showed significant conformational differences compared to either the antagonist or inverse agonist-bound inactive states [23-25] (Figure 2). However, the agonist-bound conformation did not fully resemble the active state of  $\beta_2AR$  [10,13], particularly in regard to the positioning of residues Tyr197<sup>5.58</sup>, Tyr288<sup>7.53</sup> and Arg102<sup>3.50</sup>, and it was concluded that it most likely represented an intermediate conformation [19]. A similar intermediate-active state has subsequently been observed in structures of the neurotensin receptor (NTSR1) [26,27], but this conformation is *not* observed in agonist-bound structures of  $\beta_1AR$  [28] or  $\beta_2AR$  [29]. The propensity of receptors to occupy the intermediate-active state is probably dependant on the energy landscape of receptor activation, which has been shown by <sup>19</sup>F-NMR and DEER spectroscopy to differ significantly between  $A_{2A}R$  [30] and  $\beta_2AR$  [29,31]. Two distinct active states of  $A_{2A}R$  have indeed been identified in <sup>19</sup>F-NMR spectra [30], however, it is not yet clear if the intermediate-active state of  $A_{2A}R$  trapped in the crystal structures [19-21] directly correlates to one of these species.

The structure of  $A_{2A}R$  bound to mini- $G_s$  completes a series of structures (Figure 2) from the inactive state [22-25], through an intermediate-active conformation [19-21] to the fully active state [16]. The conformational changes associated with the transition from the inactive to intermediate-active state are

distributed throughout the receptor and include a 0.8 Å contraction of the ligand-binding pocket (measured between H5 and H7), bulging of H5 around the NPxxY motif and a combined rotation and outward movement of H6 by 40° and 5 Å, respectively [19,32]. In contrast, the conformational changes associated with the transition from the intermediate-active to active state are confined to the intracellular half of A<sub>2A</sub>R (Figure 2). The most striking rearrangement is a 14 Å outward movement of the cytoplasmic end of H6 [16], which generates a cavity on the cytoplasmic surface of the receptor that engages the α5 helix of Gα<sub>s</sub>. Rotamer changes in Tyr197<sup>5,58</sup>, Tyr288<sup>7,53</sup> and Arg102<sup>3,50</sup> position these side chains to occupy the space generated by the outward movement of H6 (Figure 2). Thus, rearrangement of these residues appears to stabilise the receptor in its active conformation by improving packing in the core of the transmembrane bundle, furthermore, the extended conformation of Arg102<sup>3,50</sup> forms the upper surface of the cytoplasmic cavity and directly interacts with the G protein. No significant changes were observed in the ligand-binding pocket of A<sub>2A</sub>R upon G protein coupling, suggesting that the intermediate-active structure may already represent the high affinity agonist-bound state. Thus the modest 10-40 fold increase in agonist-binding affinity observed for either the A<sub>2A</sub>R–G<sub>s</sub> [33,34] or A<sub>2A</sub>R–mini-G<sub>s</sub> [34] ternary complex could arise by a different mechanism, for example a reduction in conformational dynamics associated with G protein binding.

One of many outstanding questions about the mechanism of GPCR activation is which conformation of the receptor is responsible for G protein recognition? Spectroscopic studies have demonstrated that some receptors partially occupy the active state in the absence of G protein [30,31,35], but it is unclear if the active conformation is actually responsible for recognition of the G protein. Significant conformational changes are observed in the G protein upon receptor binding, which are thought to be coupled to GDP release [13], and it is likely that these rearrangements are driven by simultaneous conformational changes in the receptor. Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the intermediate-active state crystallised for A<sub>2A</sub>R [19-21] and NTSR1 [26,27] represents a conformation that is responsible for initial recognition of the G protein, before cooperative conformational changes drive GDP release from Gα and result in formation of the nucleotide-free ternary complex. Intriguingly, recent NMR data on μOR [36] suggest that agonists induce a distinct change in environment of residues at the H1/H8 interface in the absence of a G protein mimetic, but upon binding of the G protein mimetic the largest changes are observed around H6. Although the NMR data cannot define what the change in environment at these positions entails (e.g. a rotamer change, helix movement etc), it is noticeable in the A<sub>2A</sub>R structures that there is a distinct conformation change at the H1/H8 interface upon agonist binding, but not upon G protein coupling (Figure 2).

### **Comparison of the interfaces between GPCRs and binding partners derived from native signalling proteins**

Crystal structures have now been published for receptors in complex with five binding partners that are derived from native signalling proteins, namely  $G_s$  [13],  $G\alpha CT$  [1-7], mini- $G_s$  [16], visual arrestin finger loop peptide [14] and visual arrestin [15]. As expected from extensive mutagenesis work on a number of different receptors [37], the major areas of the receptor that interact with the G protein are at the cytoplasmic ends of H3, H5 and H6 and also in cytoplasmic loop 2 (Figure 3). The structural information has now allowed a more detailed analysis of the similarities and differences between the interfaces of different complexes. The  $A_{2A}R$ -mini- $G_s$  complex [16] aligned well with the  $\beta_2AR$ - $G_s$  structure [13], with only a slight variation in the orientation of G protein binding.  $\beta_2AR$  and  $A_{2A}R$  share only ~30% sequence identity, but the majority of residues that form direct interactions are conserved (Figure 3). The positions of 14 interacting residues within the two interfaces are conserved, with 8 of these amino acid residues being identical between  $A_{2A}R$  and  $\beta_2AR$ . In contrast, the positions of 6 contacting residues are unique to  $A_{2A}R$ , with 10 positions that are exclusive to  $\beta_2AR$ . The most significant difference between the complexes is the additional contacts involving the H7-H8 boundary of  $A_{2A}R$  (discussed below). The buried surface area of the interface is similar in both complexes, involving approximately  $1050 \text{ \AA}^2$  of  $A_{2A}R$  and  $1280 \text{ \AA}^2$   $\beta_2AR$ , and the number of direct contacts across the two interfaces varies by less than 10%. In most cases, when a contact is lost, due to the divergent amino acid sequence of the receptors, it is compensated for by the formation of an additional contact elsewhere in the interface. The overall density of interactions in the interface is relatively low, which may allow the reorganisation of contacts in response to the divergent amino acid sequence of different receptors (Figure 3). This may explain how a large number of different receptors with low sequence homology are able to couple a common G protein.

The only structural information available for binding of non- $G_s$ -coupled receptors to a G protein-derived partner comes from the opsin- $G\alpha CT$  structures (Table 1) [1-7].  $G\alpha CT$  binds opsin in a significantly different orientation compared to  $G_s$  binding to either  $\beta_2AR$  or  $A_{2A}R$  ( $G\alpha CT$  is rotated by  $\sim 30^\circ$  compared to  $G_s$ ), however the conformational changes in the core of opsin are similar to other active state GPCRs. It is plausible that transducin does indeed bind opsin in a different conformation to that observed for the  $G_s$ -coupled receptors. However, it is also possible that the isolated  $G\alpha CT$  peptide is incapable of stabilising H6 of the receptor in its fully extended conformation, which could potentially explain the different binding orientation observed in the crystal structures. A similar situation is observed for the opsin-arrestin complex, where the binding orientation of an arrestin-derived peptide [14] differs significantly from the whole arrestin molecule [15]. Thus, at present, the molecular determinants of specificity between different classes of GPCRs and G proteins remain unclear.

The overall architecture of the opsin-arrestin structure [15] is similar to that of the  $\beta_2AR$ - $G_s$  [13] and  $A_{2A}R$ -mini- $G_s$  [16] complexes. Arrestin forms a larger interface with the receptor than a G protein, which



involves contacts with intracellular loop 1 (ICL1) that are not observed in the G protein complexes (Figure 3). Both arrestin and  $G_s$  bind with a high degree of shape complementarity to a cavity in the cytoplasmic surface of the receptor created by the outward movement of H6. Recent negative stain electron microscopy data demonstrate that receptor–arrestin complexes in which arrestin is bound only to the phosphorylated C-terminus of the receptor are still capable of binding and activating G proteins [38]. Therefore, competitive binding between the arrestin and G protein to a common cytoplasmic binding pocket on the receptor appears to be critical for terminating G protein signalling. Despite the fact that arrestin and  $G_s$  interact with common regions of the receptors, namely the intracellular ends of H3, H5 and H6, and ICL2, the organisation of the interfaces differs significantly. For example, the finger loop of arrestin, forms a helical segment analogous to the  $\alpha 5$  helix of  $G\alpha_s$ , which fits into the cytoplasmic cavity of the receptor [14], however, the finger loop helix is rotated by  $\sim 45^\circ$  compared to the  $\alpha 5$  helix of  $G\alpha_s$  [15] (Figure 3). One of the most interesting regions of the interface is the H7-H8 boundary, which forms direct contacts with the finger loop of arrestin (Figure 3), and has been implicated in potentiating signalling by arrestin-biased ligands [39,40]. No contacts involving this region are observed in the  $\beta_2AR$ – $G_s$  complex [13], but, in contrast, four residues from the H7-H8 boundary of  $A_{2A}R$  form direct contacts with mini- $G_s$  [16] (Figure 3). Therefore, it now appears that this region could play a wider role in the coupling specificity of both arrestins and G proteins. A unique feature of the opsin–arrestin complex is the central role played by electrostatic interactions [15,41,42]. Two  $\beta$ -arrestins are potentially responsible for the desensitisation of  $\sim 800$  human GPCRs, so they need to be far more promiscuous than G proteins. Complementation between negatively charged finger loop residues and positively charged regions on the cytoplasmic surface of the receptor may represent a simple mechanism that has evolved to facilitate arrestin binding to a large number of GPCRs with low sequence homology [15,43].

### **Future perspectives**

GPCR activation [44] and the subsequent activation of heterotrimeric G proteins [45] are both highly conserved mechanisms. However, despite the similarities between the active-state structures of opsin,  $\beta_2AR$ , M2,  $\mu OR$  and  $A_{2A}R$  [8-10,13,16], there are also differences, which are probably a reflection of their different amino acid sequences, the different kinetics of activation, their coupling to different binding partners and, ultimately, their different roles in human physiology. Atomic resolution structures are a necessary prerequisite to understand the molecular mechanism of receptor function and, more specifically, structures are required of a given receptor in a minimum of four different states, the inactive state bound to an inverse agonist, the receptor bound to an agonist, the agonist–receptor–G protein complex and the agonist–receptor–arrestin complex. Using the same agonist for each of the activated states will avoid confounding ligand-specific changes with receptor conformational changes. GPCR complexes remain

difficult targets for structural studies, and the development of new technologies, such as nanobodies [46-48] and mini G proteins [34], is key to ensuring the continued elucidation of new structures.

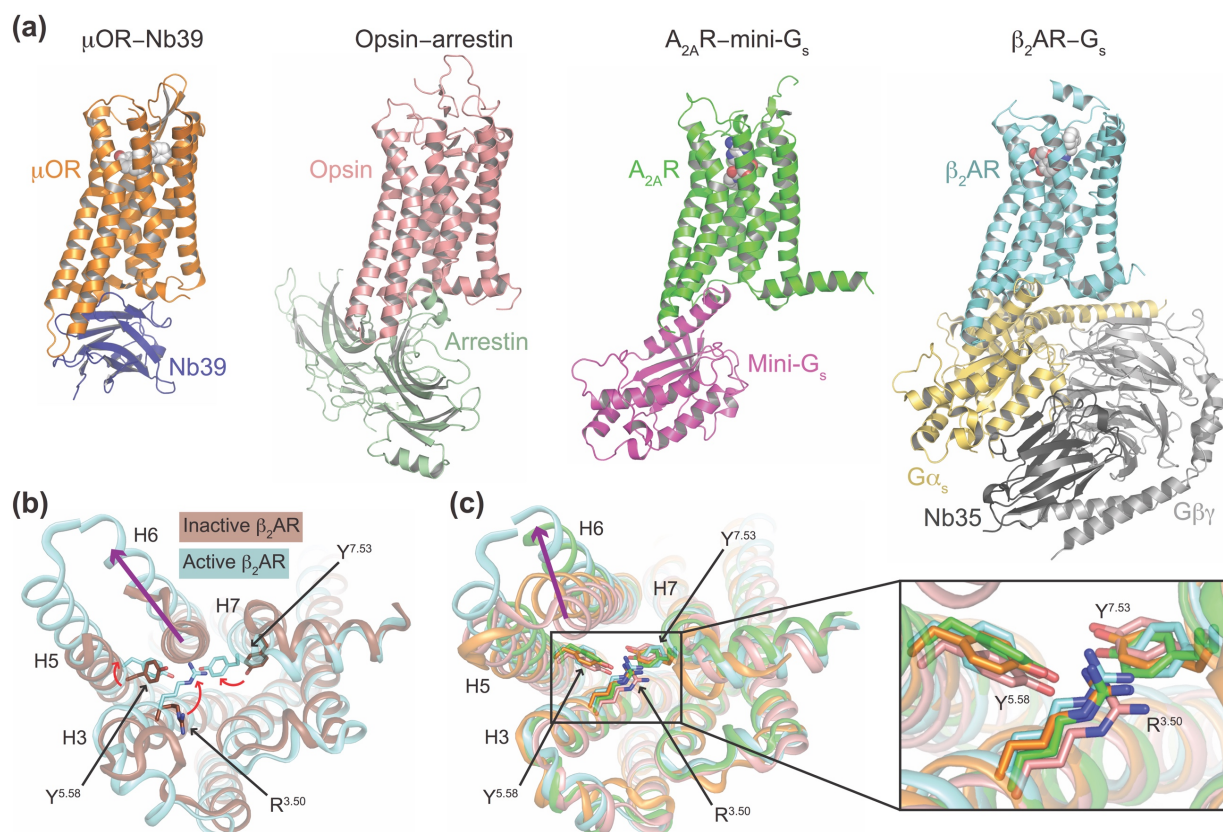
More structures of receptor–G protein and receptor–arrestin complexes will allow us to address key questions with respect to the specificity of coupling. What determines whether a receptor couples to either  $G_s$ ,  $G_i$  or  $G_q$ , or perhaps to more than one different G protein? How can only 2 arrestins couple to hundreds of different GPCRs? How do the affinities of G protein/arrestin coupling vary between different GPCRs and how does this impact what happens in a cell? A recent study that tested the ability of specific GPCRs to couple to 14 different  $G\alpha$  subunits found widely different patterns of coupling in 4 different GPCRs, both in terms of specificity, kinetics and maximal responses [49]. It remains to be seen whether the pattern of activation differs when there is competition between different G proteins coupling to the same receptor, something that may be expected in cells that typically express multiple different G proteins. How the conformational dynamics of the GPCRs impacts upon the coupling processes within the cell are also only understood poorly. Spectroscopic studies [30,31,35] are providing evidence of multiple conformational states in the absence of ligands, with specific states becoming more populated in the presence of inverse agonists, agonists and agonists plus a G protein mimetic. A key objective will be to correlate these spectroscopic data with crystallographic structures of different conformational states to produce a concerted model of activation for individual receptors. In this regard, differences in the agonist bound structures of  $\beta_1AR$  [28] and  $\beta_2AR$  [29] compared to  $A_{2A}R$  [19-21] indicate a very different energy landscape of activation between receptors. New structures of other agonist-bound receptors will no doubt expand the repertoire of energy landscapes further, whilst maintaining the evolutionary conserved mechanism of receptor–G protein coupling.

### **Acknowledgements**

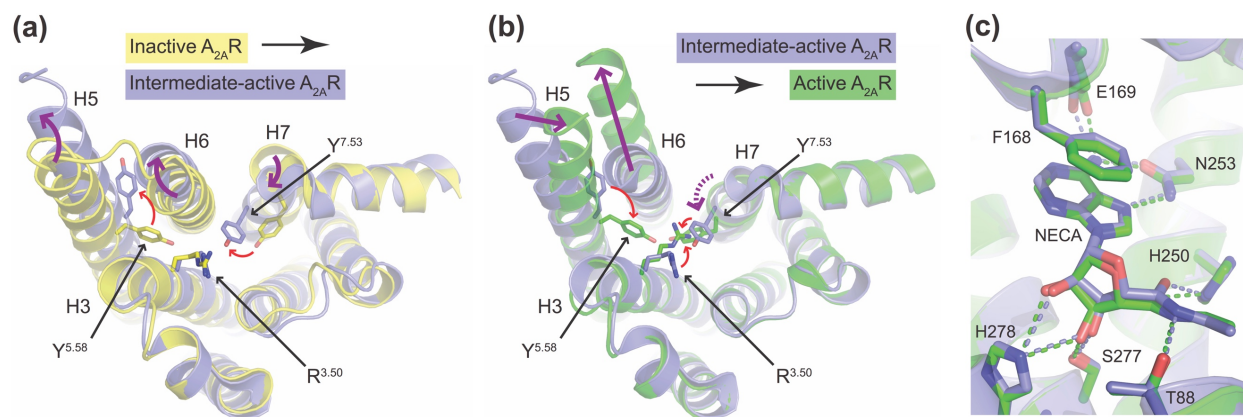
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<b>Table 1</b>					
<b>Active state structures of GPCRs</b>					
GPCR	Binding partner	Agonist	Resolution (Å)	PDB code	Reference
A <sub>2A</sub> R	Mini-G <sub>s</sub>	NECA	3.4	5G53	[16]
β <sub>2</sub> AR	Nb80	BI-167107	3.5	3P0G	[10]
	G <sub>s</sub> -Nb35	BI-167107	3.2	3SN6	[13]
	Nb6B9	BI-167107	2.8	4LDE	[11]
	Nb6B9	HBI	3.1	4LDL	[11]
	Nb6B9	Adrenaline	3.2	4LDO	[11]
M2	Nb6B9	FAUC37	3.3	4QKX	[12]
	Nb9-8	Iperoxo	3.5	4MQS	[9]
	Nb9-8	Iperoxo, LY2119620 <sup>a</sup>	3.7	4MQT	[9]
μOR	Nb39	BU72	2.1	5C1M	[8]
Opsin	GαCT peptide	All- <i>trans</i> -retinal	3.2	3DQB	[5]
	GαCT peptide	All- <i>trans</i> -retinal	3.0	2X72	[7]
	GαCT peptide	All- <i>trans</i> -retinal	2.9	3PQR	[2]
	GαCT peptide	All- <i>trans</i> -retinal	3.3	4A4M	[3]
	GαCT peptide	No ligand <sup>b</sup>	2.7	4J4Q	[4]
	GαCT peptide	Mixed <i>cis</i> -retinals	2.9	4BEY	[6]
	GαCT peptide	No ligand <sup>b</sup>	2.3	4X1H	[1]
	Arrestin peptide	No ligand <sup>b</sup>	2.8	4PXF	[14]
	Arrestin	No ligand	3.3	4ZWJ	[15]

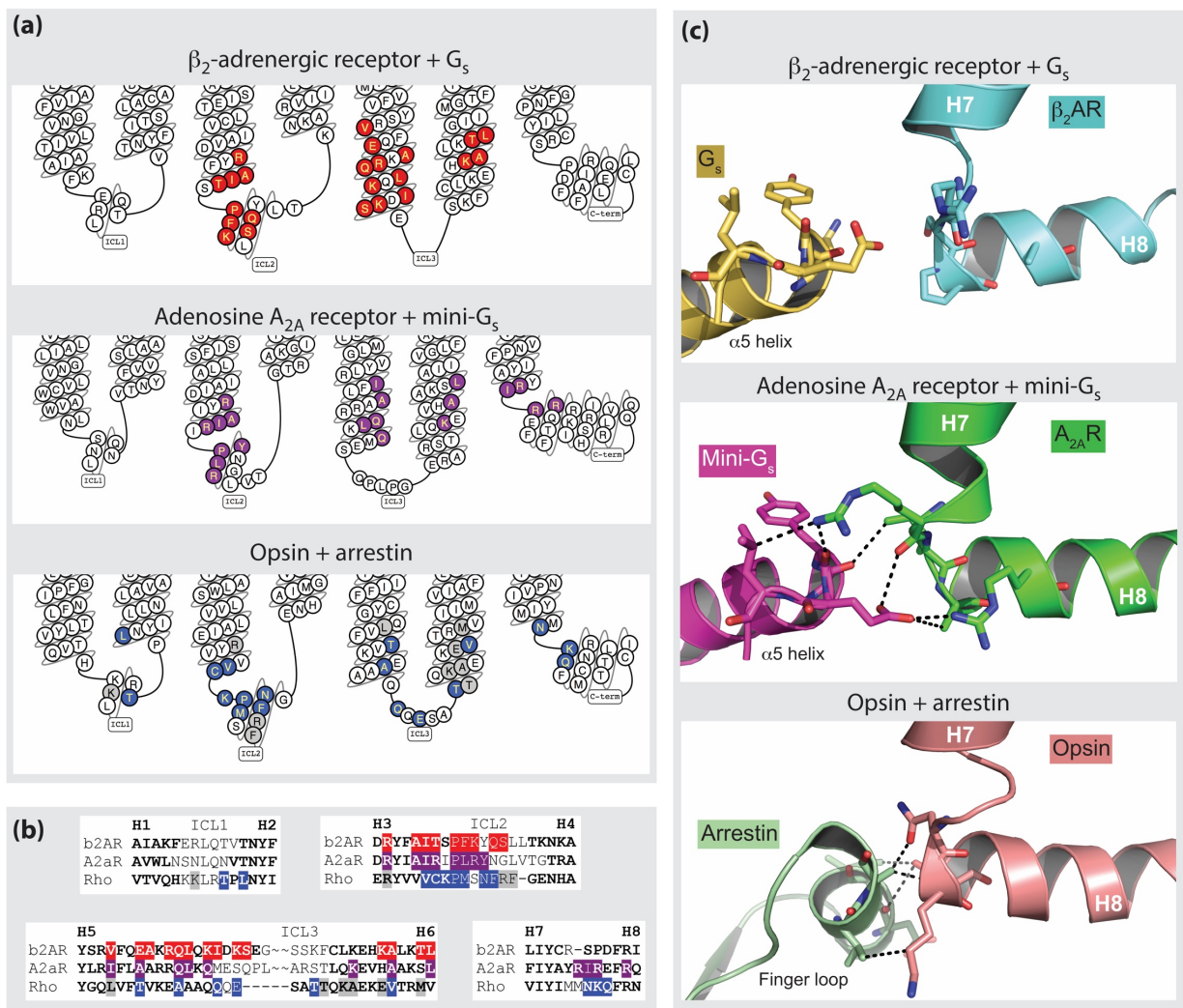
<sup>a</sup> Positive allosteric modulator.  
<sup>b</sup> The receptor contains a detergent molecule in its orthosteric ligand binding pocket.



**Figure 1.** Structural features of active-state GPCRs. **(a)** Comparison of the structures of  $\mu$ OR (orange) in complex with nanobody Nb39 (PDB ID 5C1M [9]), opsin (pink) coupled to arrestin (PDB ID 4ZWJ [15]) and  $A_{2A}$ R (green) coupled to mini- $G_s$  (PDB ID 5G53 [16]), which were all determined during the past year, with the archetypal active-state structure of  $\beta_2$ AR (cyan) coupled to heterotrimeric  $G_s$  (PDB ID 3SN6 [13]). **(b)** Cytoplasmic view of an alignment between  $\beta_2$ AR in its inactive antagonist-bound state (brown; PDB ID 2RH1 [50]) and the active  $G_s$  bound conformation (cyan; PDB ID 3SN6 [13]). The 14 Å outward movement of H6 that is induced by G protein binding is indicated by a purple arrow. Rearrangements of three highly conserved residues ( $Y^{5.58}$ ,  $Y^{7.53}$  and  $R^{3.50}$ ; shown as sticks) within the core of the receptor are indicated by red arrows. **(c)** Intracellular view of an alignment between the four active-state GPCRs in **(a)**. Sidechains of residues  $Y^{5.58}$ ,  $Y^{7.53}$  and  $R^{3.50}$  are shown as sticks; binding partners have been omitted for clarity. The outward movement of H6, which varies between 10 and 17 Å in these structures, is indicated by a purple arrow. An expanded view of residues  $Y^{5.58}$ ,  $Y^{7.53}$  and  $R^{3.50}$  (shown as sticks), demonstrates that they adopt highly conserved positions in all active active-state GPCR structures.



**Figure 2.** Conformational changes involved in A<sub>2A</sub>R activation. **(a)** Cytoplasmic view showing the transition of A<sub>2A</sub>R from the inactive antagonist-bound state (yellow; PDB ID 3REY [23]) to the intermediate-active agonist-bound state (blue; PDB ID 2YDV [19]). The outward movements of H5 and H6 and the inward movement of H7 are coupled to significant helix rotations shown as curved purple arrows. Side chain conformation changes in residues Y<sup>5.58</sup> and Y<sup>7.53</sup> (shown as sticks) are highlighted by red arrows. **(b)** Cytoplasmic view showing the transition of A<sub>2A</sub>R from the intermediate-active agonist-bound state (blue; PDB ID 2YDV [19]) to the active mini G protein-bound state (green; PDB ID 5G53 [16]). The linear movement of H5 and H6 is shown as straight purple arrows. The rotation within H7, which is not coupled to any significant lateral movement is highlighted by a dashed purple arrow. Side chain conformation changes in residues Y<sup>5.58</sup>, Y<sup>7.53</sup> and R<sup>3.50</sup> (shown as sticks) are highlighted by red arrows. **(c)** Comparison of the ligand-binding pocket of A<sub>2A</sub>R in the intermediate-active (blue; PDB ID 2YDV [19]) and active (green; PDB ID 5G53 [16]) state. No significant differences are observed in the orientation of the agonist (NECA), or the residues with which it forms direct contacts [16]. Direct polar contacts between A<sub>2A</sub>R and NECA are shown as dashed lines and are coloured to match the receptor.



**Figure 3.** Comparison of the interfaces between GPCRs and binding partners derived from native signalling proteins. **(a)** The intracellular halves of  $\beta_2$ AR,  $A_{2A}$ R and opsin are depicted as snake plots, with amino acid residues that are within 3.9 Å of the binding partner in either red, purple or blue, respectively. In the opsin–arrestin crystal, there were 4 opsin–arrestin complexes in the asymmetric unit; on the snake plot, residues coloured blue make contact to arrestin in either 3 or 4 of the complexes, whereas those coloured in grey occur in only 1 or 2 of the complexes. The figures were made using [www.gpcrdb.org](http://www.gpcrdb.org) [51]. **(b)** Structural alignment of  $\beta_2$ AR,  $A_{2A}$ R and opsin amino acid sequences with residues within 3.9 Å of the binding partner highlighted as in **(a)**. The alignments were based on data in [www.gpcrdb.org](http://www.gpcrdb.org) [51], but were adapted to remove gaps; ‘~’ represent non-conserved amino acid residues removed from the alignment of ICL3 for reasons of clarity, and ‘-’ represent gaps in the alignment. **(c)** Divergent interactions of the H7-H8 boundary in coupling to cytoplasmic signalling proteins. No interactions are observed between the H7-H8 boundary

of  $\beta_2$ AR (cyan) and  $G_s$  (gold) in the  $\beta_2$ AR– $G_s$  complex (PDB ID 3SN6 [13]), however, interactions are present between this region of  $A_{2A}$ AR (green) and the  $\alpha 5$  helix of mini- $G_s$  (magenta) in the  $A_{2A}$ AR–mini- $G_s$  complex (PDB ID 5G53 [16]). Extensive interactions are also observed between the H7-H8 boundary of opsin (pink) and the finger loop of arrestin (light green) in the opsin–arrestin complex (PDB ID 4ZWJ [15]). Residues that form direct contacts are shown as sticks, and direct interactions are shown as dashed lines (only the closest contact to each residue is shown and all are less than 3.9 Å).

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