

The human $G\beta 4$ subunit: gene structure, expression, $G\gamma$ and effector interaction¹

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Abstract The aim of this study was the characterization of the human $G\beta 4$ subunit of heterotrimeric G proteins. Human $G\beta 4$ is widely expressed. Its gene is located on chromosome 3 with a genomic structure indistinguishable from that of the genes of $G\beta 1$ to $G\beta 3$, but entirely different from $G\beta 5$. In vitro translation co-precipitation analyses revealed that $G\beta 4$ can form stable dimers with $G\gamma 1$, $G\gamma 2$, $G\gamma 3$, $G\gamma 4$, $G\gamma 5$, $G\gamma 7$, $G\gamma 10$, $G\gamma 11$, $G\gamma 12$, and $G\gamma 13$, dimers which were also able to stimulate phospholipase $\beta 2$.

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Key words: G protein; Signal transduction; Phospholipase C; WD domain

1. Introduction

Heterotrimeric G proteins, which are composed of $G\alpha$, $G\beta$ and $G\gamma$ subunits, are key components for signal transduction from an activated heptahelical receptor to effector systems including enzymes (e.g. adenylyl cyclases, phospholipases C (PLC)), adapter proteins and ion channels (for review [1]). The $G\alpha$ subunit is a GTPase that interacts in the GDP-bound state with $G\beta\gamma$ dimers. In the human genome 16 genes for $G\alpha$, five genes for $G\beta$, and 12 genes for $G\gamma$ subunits have been identified [2]. The proteins encoded by these genes give rise to the formation of more than 1000 different G protein heterotrimers and may thus determine receptor and effector specificity [1]. However, available evidence suggests that not all theoretically possible heterotrimers do exist or are of functional relevance in vivo [3]. The five known $G\beta$ isoforms can be divided into the subfamily of $G\beta 1$ – $G\beta 4$ proteins which share high homology (~80–90%) and the $G\beta 5$ / $G\beta 5L$ protein which is only ~50% homologous to the other $G\beta$ proteins and which exhibits distinct biochemical properties [4]. All $G\beta$ subunits belong to the superfamily of propeller proteins and are made up of seven regular WD domains (referring to a recurrent Trp-Asp motif among others) which form a toroid-like structure [5]. At the N-terminus an α -helical extension of 20 amino acids forms a coiled-coil domain [5]. Each of the

WD domains is composed of four anti-parallel β -sheets, which are referred to as a–d, with the a strand located in the center of the tunnel and the d strand at the outside surface of the protein [5]. Beside the WD motif at the end of strand c, there is a highly conserved aspartate in the loop connecting strands b and c and a glycine-histidine motif following the d strand [5].

$G\beta 1$ and $G\beta 2$, which were cloned first, and $G\beta 5$, which differs considerably from the other $G\beta$ proteins, have been intensively characterized [1–3]. $G\beta 3$ and its splice variant $G\beta 3s$ have attracted considerable pathophysiological and pharmacogenetic interest [6,7]. However, information on the biochemical and pharmacological properties of $G\beta 4$ is scarce. Recently, the cDNA of the human $G\beta 4$ subunit has been published and its properties have been analyzed with special focus on the activation of N-type Ca^{2+} channels [9]. Here, we report an in-depth analysis of the $G\beta 4$ gene (*GNB4*) structure; we also determined the dimerization of $G\beta 4$ with different $G\gamma$ subunits and their ability to activate PLC $\beta 2$.

2. Materials and methods

RNA, prepared from different tissues using the RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), was in vitro transcribed as detailed [10]. Human, rat, and mouse $G\beta 4$ cDNAs were amplified by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) using *Pfu* polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). Amplicons were A-tailed, cloned into the pGEM-T easy vector (Promega) and sequenced. The same procedure was used to clone and sequence the various $G\gamma$ subunits (except $G\gamma 2$, $G\gamma 3$, $G\gamma 5$, $G\gamma 7$ and $G\beta 1$ which were kind gifts of Dr. Lohse, Würzburg, Germany). All G protein subunits used were subcloned into the pcDNA3.1⁺ expression vector (Invitrogen). For control purposes, transcripts of $G\alpha_{16}$, a G protein confined to hematopoietic cells, was amplified by RT-PCR with oligonucleotide primers encompassing the entire open reading frame (for sequences see the Table in the Supplementary material in the Web version).

For analysis of the exon–intron boundaries genomic DNA was purified from whole blood using the QiAMP blood kit and exons were amplified using primers located in the adjacent introns and sequenced.

To study $G\beta$ / $G\gamma$ interactions co-precipitation analyses were performed with in vitro translated hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged $G\gamma$ subunits as devised by E. Neer [11]. $G\gamma$ subunits were tagged at the N-terminus with the HA epitope by PCR using the above generated vectors as templates with modified sense primers carrying the sequence for the HA epitope, an improved Kozak sequence and suitable restriction sites. The resulting PCR amplicons were ligated into pcDNA3.1⁺ vector and sequenced. The primer sequences for all PCRs are detailed in the Table in the Supplementary material in the Web version.

$G\beta$ and HA- $G\gamma$ subunits were in vitro translated with the TNT quick-coupled transcription/translation system (Promega) driven by

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the T7 promoter of the pcDNA3.1⁺ vector. In brief, 1 µg vector DNA was mixed with 40 µl reticulocyte lysate and 0.8 MBq [³⁵S]L-methionine (Hartmann Analytic, Braunschweig, Germany), adjusted to a total of 50 µl with H₂O and incubated at 30°C for 90 min. Aliquots of all in vitro translated Gβ and Gγ subunits were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE) and the translation efficacy was determined by phosphoimaging. In vitro translation mix of each HA-tagged Gγ (15 to 32 µl, depending on the translation efficacy) was mixed with 20 µl of in vitro translated Gβ1 or Gβ4 and incubated for 90 min at 37°C. Subsequently, 20 µl protein A agarose (Santa Cruz Biotechnologies, Heidelberg, Germany) was added to these reaction mixes and pelleted by centrifugation. The supernatants were transferred into new reaction tubes and 10 µl (4 µg) of a monoclonal anti-HA antibody (clone 12CA5, Roche Mannheim) was added and incubated for 90 min at 4°C under constant shaking. Thereafter, 40 µl of protein A agarose was added and incubated for 60 min at 4°C. The reaction mixes were centrifuged, the supernatants were removed and the agarose pellets washed four times in 500 µl ice-cold RIPA buffer. Finally, the agarose pellets were washed in 400 µl ice-cold 50 mM Tris–HCl buffer (pH 7.5), resuspended in 70 µl of a modified SDS sample buffer (use of *m*-cresol as dye to allow for separation of Gγ subunits), incubated at 95°C for 5 min and separated on 15% SDS–PAGE. Gels were vacuum-dried, exposed to phospho-screens and the radioactive bands were visualized with a PhosphoImager.

Activation of PLCβ2 by Gβγ subunits was studied essentially as described [12]. The PLCβ2 clone was a kind gift of Dr. M.I. Simon, Pasadena, CA, USA. It was subcloned into the pcDNA3.1⁺ vector. COS-7 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal calf serum, 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Invitrogen). 6 × 10⁴ cells were plated onto each well of a 24 well cell culture dish. After 24 h cells were transfected using the Effectene transfection reagent (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Onto each well 0.07 µg vector DNA was applied containing equal amounts of PLCβ2, Gβ and Gγ (non-modified wild-type) vector. In controls without PLCβ2 or G protein subunits the total amount of transfected DNA was kept constant by addition of empty pcDNA3.1⁺ vector DNA. The next day, cells were labelled with 0.5 ml inositol-free DMEM containing 3.5 µCi *myo*-[³H]inositol for another 24 h. Thereafter, the label medium was removed and the cells were incubated in 0.5 ml inositol-free DMEM containing 10 mM LiCl for 1 h at 37°C. Cells were lysed and water-soluble inositol phosphates were separated by anion exchange chromatography as described [12]. COS-7 cells transfected with Gγ subunits but no Gβ subunits served as controls and Gβγ-mediated stimulation of PLCβ2 was defined as the percent ratio of water-soluble inositol phosphates produced in the presence of overexpressed Gβγ versus the inositol phosphates formed in cells overexpressing the respective Gγ. All experiments were performed in triplicate and the results shown in Fig. 4 are means ± S.E.M. from three or four independent experiments. Gβγ-mediated activation of PLCβ2 was assumed if this ratio exceeded the 100% value (Student's *t*-test; *P* < 0.05). Expression of the transfected Gβ subunits was verified by Western blot analysis using a anti-Gβ1 and anti-Gβ4 antibodies according to the supplier's instructions (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, antibodies sc-379 and sc-382). Likewise, expression of HA-Gγ subunits upon transfection was controlled with the anti-HA antibody.

3. Results and discussion

Based on the published mouse Gβ4 sequence we performed BLAST analyses in public data bases and identified the EST clone AK001890 from human placenta as a potential human Gβ4 clone. Using oligonucleotide primers derived from this sequence and starting with RNA from human B lymphoblasts and brain tissues we amplified the cDNA of the Gβ4 open reading frame and short adjacent 5'- and 3'-untranslated sequences (Fig. 1). The sequences from four independent clones confirmed the sequence of the EST clone (AK001890) and were identical to the one published recently (AF300648 [9]). However, in two independent Gβ4 cDNA clones from different individuals we identified single nucleotide polymorphisms

	Exon 1	
126	gactgggtgtgacccggcgctctggtctggtgtgagatcagctctcc	
	agccgggtccgcctcccaagggctctctdaagccacccagggatccacccgagccagctccgac	
	Exon 2	
-63	gggggctgagctccctccagctggttttctactattagctctctgaggttaacaaatggaaaaa	
1	ATG AGC GAA CTG GAA CAG TTG AGG CAA GAA GCA GAA CAA CTG CGG AAT	48
1	Met Ser Glu Leu Glu Gln Leu Arg Gln Glu Ala Glu Gln Leu Arg Asn	16
	Exon 3	
49	CAG ATT CAG GAT GCT CCG AAA GCA TGT AAT GAT GCA ACG CTT GTT CAG	96
17	Gln Ile Gln Asp Ala Arg Lys Ala Cys Asn Asp Ala Thr Leu Val Gln	32
	Exon 4	
97	ATT ACA TCA AAT ATG GAC TCC GTG GGT CGA ATA CAA ATG CGA ACA AGA	144
33	Ile Thr Ser Asn Met Asp Ser Val Gly Arg Ile Gln Met Arg Thr Arg	48
	Exon 5	
145	CCT ACA CTG AGG GGC CAC CTA GCT AAA ATC TAT GCT AAG CAT TGG GGA	192
49	Arg Thr Leu Arg Gly His Leu Ala Lys Ile Tyr Ala Met His Trp Gly	64
	Exon 6	
193	TAC GAT TCC AGC CTG CTA GTC AGT GCT TCT CAA GAT GGA AAA TTA ATT	240
65	Tyr Asp Ser Arg Leu Leu Val Ser Ala Ser Gln Asp Gly Lys Leu Ile	80
	Exon 7	
241	ATT TGG GAT AGC TAT ACA ACA AAT AAG ATG CAT GCT ATT CTT TTG AGC	288
81	Ile Trp Asp Ser Tyr Thr Thr Asn Lys Met His Ala Ile Pro Leu Arg	96
	Exon 8	
289	TCC TCC TGG GTG ATG ACC TGT GCT TAT GGT CCC TCT GGT AAT TAT GTT	336
97	Ser Ser Trp Val Met Thr Cys Ala Tyr Ala Pro Ser Gly Asn Tyr Val	112
	Exon 9	
337	CGC TGT GGA GGC TTG GAC AAC ATC TGC TCT ATA TAT AAC TTA AAG ACC	384
113	Ala Cys Gly Gly Leu Asp Asn Ile Cys Ser Ile Tyr Asp Leu Lys Thr	128
	Exon 10	
385	AGA GAG GGA AAT CTC AGA CTA AGC CGA GAG TTG CCA GGT CAC ACA GGG	432
129	Arg Glu Gly Asn Val Arg Val Ser Arg Glu Leu Pro Gly His Thr Gly	144
	Exon 11	
433	TAC ATG TCC TGC TGT CGT TTT TTA GAT GAC ACC CAA ATT GAT ACA AGT	480
145	Tyr Leu Ser Cys Cys Arg Phe Leu Asp Asp Ser Gln Ile Val Thr Ser	160
	Exon 12	
481	TCA GGA GAT ACA ACT TGT GCT TTA TGG GAC ATC GAA ACT GCC CAG CAG	528
161	Ser Gly Asp Thr Thr Cys Ala Leu Trp Asp Ile Glu Thr Ala Gln Gln	176
	Exon 13	
529	ACC ACC ACA TTC ACT GGG CAT TCT GGA GAT GTG ATG AGT CTT TCT TTG	576
177	Thr Thr Thr Phe Thr Gly His Ser Gly Asp Val Met Ser Leu Ser Leu	192
	Exon 14	
577	AGT CCT GAC ATG AGG ACT TTT GTT TCT GGT GCT TGT GAT GCC TCT TCC	624
193	Ser Pro Asp Met Arg Thr Phe Val Ser Gly Ala Cys Asp Ala Ser Ser	208
	Exon 15	
625	AAA TTA TGG GAT ATT CGA GAT GGA ATG TGT AGA CAG TCT TTC ACG GGA	672
209	Lys Leu Trp Asp Ile Arg Asp Gly Met Cys Arg Gln Ser Phe Thr Gly	224
	Exon 16	
673	CAT CTC TCA GAT ATC AAT GCT GTC AGT TTT TTC CCA AAT GGA TAT GCC	720
225	His Val Ser Asp Ile Asn Ala Val Ser Phe Phe Pro Asn Gly Tyr Ala	240
	Exon 17	
721	TTC GCC ACT GCC TCT GAT GAT GCC ACT TGC CGG CTC TTT GAC CTT CGT	768
241	Phe Ala Thr Gly Ser Asp Asp Ala Thr Cys Arg Leu Phe Asp Leu Arg	256
	Exon 18	
769	GCA GAT CAA GAG TTA TTA TFG TAT TCT CAT GAC AAT ATC ATC TGT GGA	816
257	Ala Asp Gln Glu Leu Leu Tyr Ser His Asp Asn Ile Ile Cys Gly	272
	Exon 19	
817	ATC TCT TCT GTA GCC TTC TCA AAA AGT GGG CGT CTC TTG TTG GCT GGT	864
273	Ile Thr Ser Val Ala Phe Ser Lys Ser Gly Arg Leu Leu Ala Gly	288
	Exon 20	
865	TAC GAT GAC TTT AAT TGT AAT GTA TGG GAC ACG CTA AAA GGA GAT CGT	912
289	Tyr Asp Asp Phe Asn Cys Asn Val Trp Asp Thr Leu Lys Gly Asp Arg	304
	Exon 21	
913	GCA GGT GTC CTT GCT GGT CAT GAC AAC CCT GTG AGC TGC TTA GGT GTA	960
305	Ala Gly Val Leu Ala Gly His Asp Asn Arg Val Ser Cys Leu Gly Val	320
	Exon 22	
961	ACT GAT GAT GGC ATG GCT GTG GCA ACA GCC TCT TGG GAC AGT TTT CTT	1008
321	Thr Asp Asp Gly Met Ala Val Ala Thr Gly Ser Trp Asp Ser Phe Leu	336
	Exon 23	
1009	AGA ATC TGG AAT TAA cagtgctcaccatattgtctctccattgatatatctggagaaa	341
337	Arg Ile Trp Asn ***	
1066	tcaatgctacagcctatagctgtgaaaaattctaccttatatttgcaggtgaagatctttctc	
1128	attagattacc	

Fig. 1. Nucleotide and amino acid sequence of human Gβ4. Under-scored is the N-terminal coiled-coil region. Arrows refer to the β-strands of the WD domains (numbered in lower case). Conserved motifs of WD domains (GH, WD motifs, aspartate between strands c and d) are marked in gray. The exons of Gβ4 are alternately indicated in gray and black in the cDNA sequence.

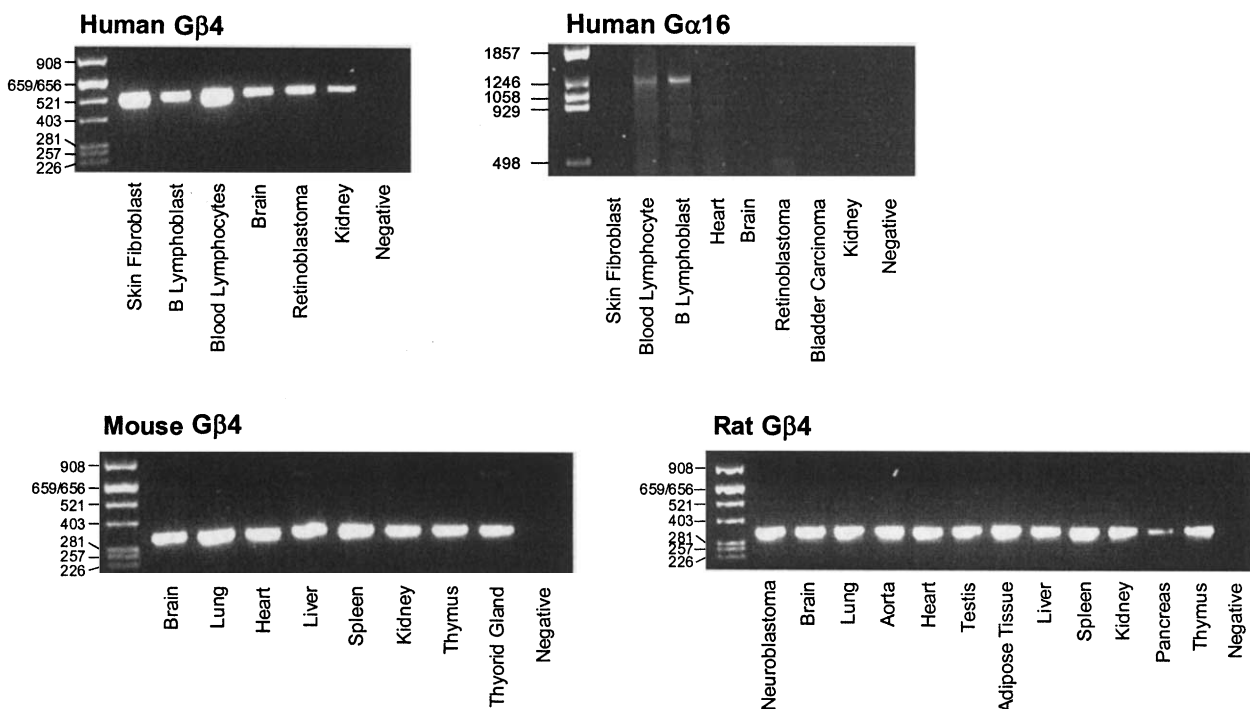


Fig. 2. Gβ4 transcript expression in different tissues of man, mouse, and rat demonstrated by RT-PCR. A control RT-PCR was performed to demonstrate Gα₁₆ transcripts. In contrast to Gβ4, Gα₁₆ transcripts were confined to hematopoietic cells only, indicating that our RT-PCR conditions are suitable to demonstrate differential transcript expression.

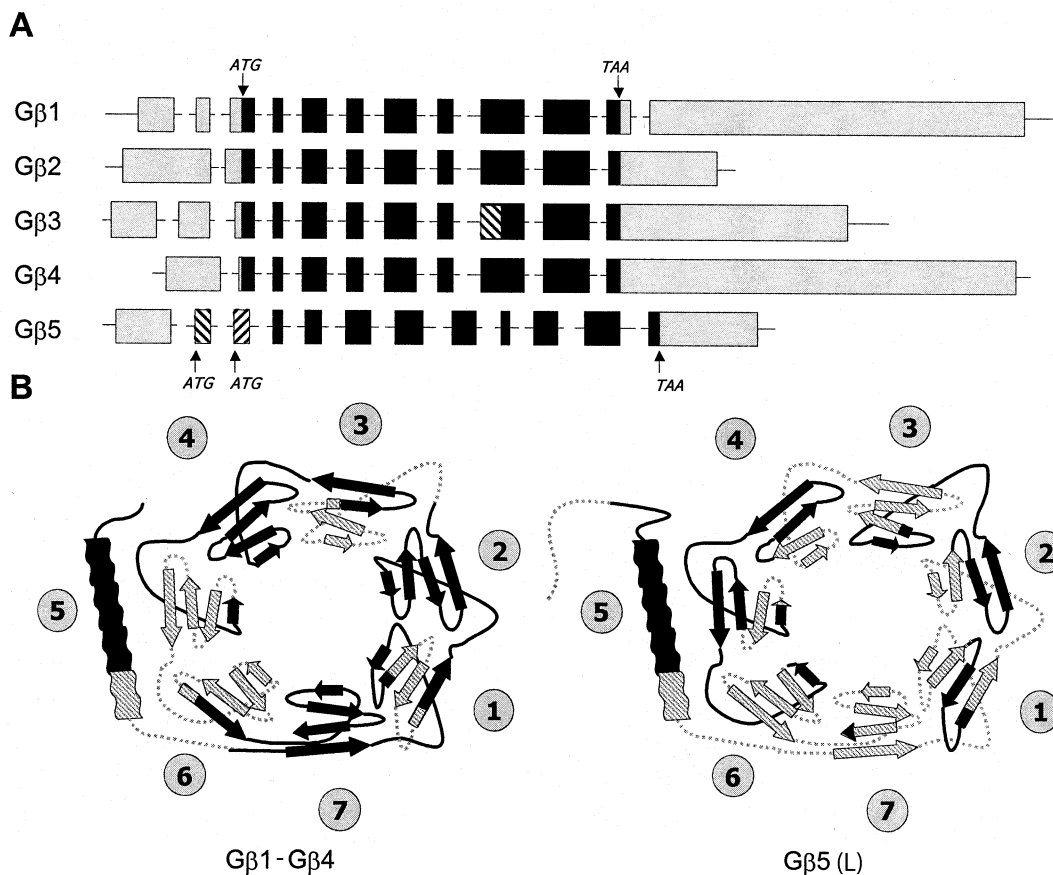


Fig. 3. Genomic organization of Gβ proteins. A: Exons are indicated by boxes, the open reading frame is shown in black. ‘ATG’ refers to the start codon. Hatched bars refer to alternatively spliced exons observed in Gβ3 and Gβ5. Schematic drawing, intron lengths not to scale. B: Schematic drawing of the seven-blade propeller structure of Gβ proteins according to [5]. Arrows indicate β-sheets. Exons are represented alternately by black solid and gray hatched boxes and black solid and gray interrupted lines.

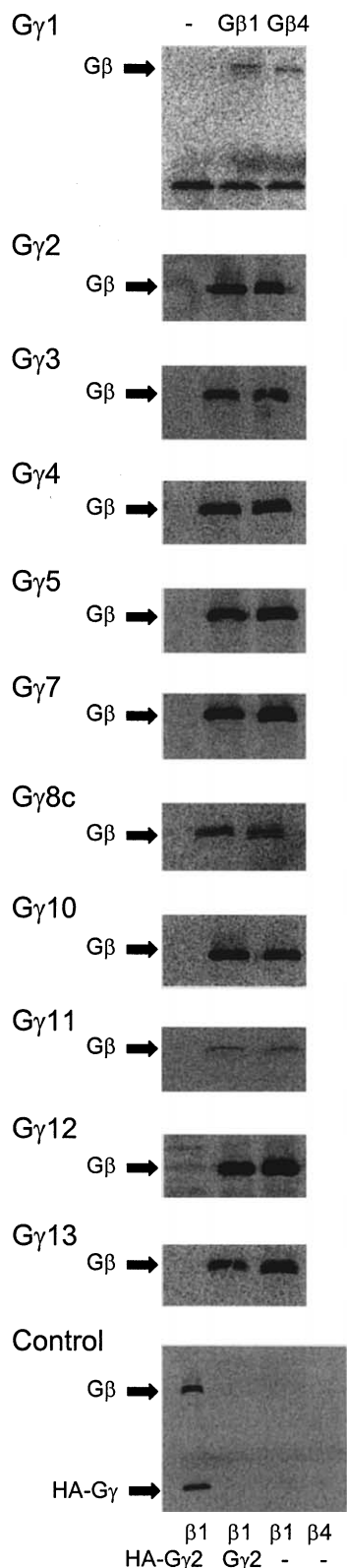


Fig. 4. Co-precipitation assays of in vitro translated G β and G γ subunits. G β 1, G β 4 and HA-G γ s were in vitro translated separately, mixed and after formation of the G β γ dimer immunoprecipitated. Control experiments (bottom) show that a G β precipitate is observed only in the presence of HA-G γ .

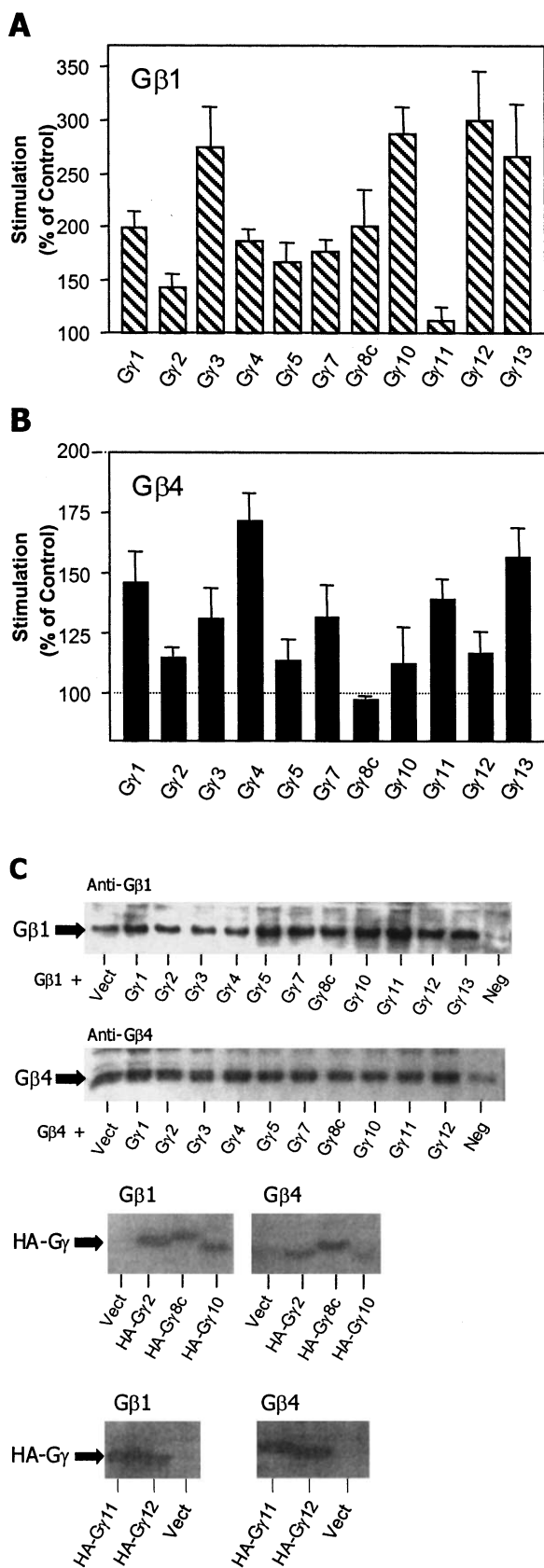
(SNPs). One SNP involved a C117T exchange (number refers to the translation start codon $\underline{A}TG=1$) another a T186C exchange. Both SNPs do not affect the amino acid composition of the human G β 4 and their biological significance – if any – remains to be determined.

In parallel, we generated a mouse G β 4 clone which exhibited several nucleotide exchanges compared to the original G β 4 sequence (M87286). Two variations resulted in amino acid exchanges (D132N; A140P; Figure in the Supplementary material in the Web version). We verified our sequence in independent clones and we obtained a rat G β 4 clone. All of these G β 4 clones have a proline at position 140 and an asparagine at position 132. The latter is located in the loop between strands c and d at the outer face of the protein and it is highly conserved in G β 1–G β 3 [5]. It is tempting to speculate that the weak biological activities observed with the M87286 clone are caused by these probable sequence errors [13,14].

The human G β 4 protein shares the highest homologies with G β 1 and G β 2. The amino acid and nucleotide sequences of the human G β 4 and an annotation of its structural elements derived from the comparison with the crystallized G β 1 [5] are shown in Fig. 1. Two groups have analyzed the expression of mouse [8] and human [9] G β 4 by RT-PCR and obtained diverging results. Whereas von Weizsäcker reported a ubiquitous expression of G β 4 with high levels in brain, heart and spleen, Ruiz-Velasco observed a more restricted G β 4 expression with low levels of G β 4 transcripts in brain, heart and spleen. Our data, obtained from human, rat and mouse tissues and cultured cells, favor a wide if not ubiquitous tissue distribution (Fig. 2). A definite confirmation by Western blot analysis is needed.

Next, we performed genomic BLAST analyses and identified the clone NT005950 as a potential genomic clone of G β 4. Based on this sequence we designed oligonucleotide primers adjacent to the putative exons, amplified them, and determined the genomic structure. The *GNB4* gene is located on chromosome 3 and consists of 10 exons and nine introns (Fig. 1). We have previously characterized human *GNB3* [15], and the genomic sequences of human *GNB1*, *GNB2*, and *GNB5* are obtainable by BLAST analyses in the human genome project database (AL109917, AC009488 and AC010674). With the exception of the 5'- and 3'-non-translated regions, G β 1–G β 4 exhibit an identical genomic organization (Fig. 3). G β 5, the least homologous G β subunit (~53%), has a completely different genomic structure. This is in accordance with the notion that G β 1–G β 4 and G β 5 belong to different ancient G β families [2]. In Fig. 3B the genomic organizations of the G β 1–G β 4 proteins and the G β 5 protein are superimposed on their presumed three-dimensional structures as derived from crystallization studies [5]. Of note, there is no close correlation between exon structures and protein motifs, e.g. WD domains or propeller blades. Again, the totally different genomic organization of G β 5 is evident.

Next, we focused on the biochemical properties of G β 4 and investigated its ability to dimerize with G γ proteins. Available evidence suggests that G β γ dimers (except G β 5) are stable upon dimerization and that G β γ diversity may determine receptor and effector specificity [1,3]. With G β 2 and G β 3 not all theoretically possible G β γ dimers are formed [3]. Several assays exist to test for G β γ association. One possibility is to investigate the activation of G β γ -dependent effector systems upon overexpression of G β γ subunits. However, if the effector



system is not activated, it is impossible to differentiate absent Gβγ dimerization from failure of the respective dimer to activate the effector. Therefore, we performed co-precipitation assays as described [11]. Gβs and HA-tagged Gγs were in vitro

Fig. 5. Activation of PLCβ2 by Gβ1γ and Gβ4γ. PLCβ2 and the respective Gβs and Gγs were transfected into COS-7 cells and the Gβγ-mediated activation of PLCβ2 was quantified. Means ± S.E.M. from at least three different experiments for Gβ1 (A) and Gβ4 (B) with measurements made in triplicate. Results were normalized for the activation of PLCβ2 upon expression of Gγ only. C: Upper two panels: Western blot analyses demonstrating similar expression levels of Gβ1 and Gβ4 with each of the investigated Gγ subunits. Lower two panels: Western blot analyses for different HA-Gγ subunits expressed in the presence of Gβ1 or Gβ4. The results indicate that the absent PLCβ2 stimulation by Gβ1γ11 and Gβ4γ8c is not attributable to an altered expression of the respective Gγ subunits.

translated separately in the presence of [³⁵S]methionine. Thereafter, labelled Gβs and Gγs were mixed and incubated. In the presence of reticulocyte lysate which contains chaperonins, Gβs fold correctly, interact with Gγs and can dimerize [3,11]. These dimers can then be precipitated with an anti-HA antibody. Co-precipitation of a Gβ with a HA-Gγ indicates their mutual interaction. Here, we analyzed the interaction of Gβ4 – and as a control Gβ1 – with all known mammalian Gγ proteins except the highly specialized Gγ_{olf}. As shown in Fig. 4 (bottom), Gβ1, Gβ4 and wild-type Gγs were not recognized by the anti-HA antibody. Precipitation of a Gβ protein was only observed in the presence of a HA-modified Gγ subunit. Our data indicate that both Gβ1 and Gβ4 form dimers with all known Gγ proteins although the interactions with Gγ1 and Gγ11 were quantitatively weaker. By yeast two-hybrid screen Yan et al. analyzed dimerization of some Gβγs [16]. In their assay, Gβ4 interacted with the tested Gγ2, Gγ3, Gγ4, Gγ5, and Gγ7, but not with Gγ1 [16], which was also the weakest interaction in our experiments.

Next, we investigated whether these Gβγ dimers activate a Gβγ-dependent effector system, in this case PLCβ2. Despite comparable protein levels upon transfection of Gβ1 and Gβ4, as determined by Western blot analysis (Fig. 5C, upper two panels), dimers with Gβ4 were generally weaker in activating PLCβ2 than dimers with Gβ1. Overexpression of most Gβγ dimers resulted in a significant although sometimes modest (e.g. Gβ4γ2, Gβ4γ5, Gβ4γ10, Gβ4γ12) activation of PLCβ2. However, the dimers Gβ1γ11 and Gβ4γ8c did not stimulate PLCβ2, although the respective Gβ and Gγ subunits could easily be detected by Western blotting (Fig. 5C, lower two panels). These results are interesting since the dimers Gβ4γ8c and Gβ1γ11 could be co-precipitated in the in vitro translation assays and may indicate Gβγ specificity to activate PLCβ2. On the other hand, Gβ1γ1, Gβ4γ1 and Gβ4γ11, for which weaker interactions were observed in the co-precipitation assays, did activate PLCβ2. The most active Gβ4γ dimer to stimulate PLCβ2 was Gβ4γ4. Similarly, Gβ4γ4 was found to be most effective in inhibiting N-type Ca²⁺ channels and activating GIRK potassium channels [9,17]. Beside Gβ4γ4 these latter studies examined only Gβ4γ2 and Gβ4γ3, which were also biologically active.

Taken together, our data show that the human Gβ4 is widely expressed and is able to dimerize with almost all Gγ subunits. Available evidence suggests that Gβ4 modulates important effector systems, i.e. N-type Ca²⁺ channels, GIRK potassium channels and phospholipase isoforms.

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