

Regulation of Class IA PI 3-kinases: C2 domain-iSH2 domain contacts inhibit p85/p110 α and are disrupted in oncogenic p85 mutants

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We previously proposed a model of Class IA PI3K regulation in which p85 inhibition of p110 α requires (i) an inhibitory contact between the p85 nSH2 domain and the p110 α helical domain, and (ii) a contact between the p85 nSH2 and iSH2 domains that orients the nSH2 so as to inhibit p110 α . We proposed that oncogenic truncations of p85 fail to inhibit p110 due to a loss of the iSH2-nSH2 contact. However, we now find that within the context of a minimal regulatory fragment of p85 (the nSH2-iSH2 fragment, termed p85ni), the nSH2 domain rotates much more freely ($\tau_c \approx 12.7$ ns) than it could if it were interacting rigidly with the iSH2 domain. These data are not compatible with our previous model. We therefore tested an alternative model in which oncogenic p85 truncations destabilize an interface between the p110 α C2 domain (residue N345) and the p85 iSH2 domain (residues D560 and N564). p85ni-D560K/N564K shows reduced inhibition of p110 α , similar to the truncated p85ni-572^{STOP}. Conversely, wild-type p85ni poorly inhibits p110 α N345K. Strikingly, the p110 α N345K mutant is inhibited to the same extent by the wild-type or truncated p85ni, suggesting that mutation of p110 α -N345 is not additive with the p85ni-572^{STOP} mutation. Similarly, the D560K/N564K mutation is not additive with the p85ni-572^{STOP} mutant for downstream signaling or cellular transformation. Thus, our data suggests that mutations at the C2-iSH2 domain contact and truncations of the iSH2 domain, which are found in human tumors, both act by disrupting the C2-iSH2 domain interface.

cancer | glioblastoma | phosphoinositide 3-kinase | PIK3CA

PI 3-kinases are important cellular regulators of growth, survival, and motility, and deregulation of PI 3-kinase signaling contributes to cancer and other human diseases (1). Class IA PI 3-kinases, which produce PI[3,4,5]P3 in intact cells (2), are obligate heterodimers of a regulatory subunit (p85 α , p85 β , p55 α , p50 α , or p55 γ) and a catalytic subunit (p110 α , p110 β , or p110 δ) (reviewed in ref. 3). The regulatory subunits have two major functions: they stabilize the catalytic subunits against thermal denaturation, and they maintain the catalytic subunit in an inhibited, low activity state (4, 5).

p85 and p110 are both multidomain proteins that bind to each other and to upstream activators such as Rac and Cdc42, Ras, and tyrosine phosphorylated receptors and adapters (reviewed in ref. 6). p85 contains an SH3 domain, a Rac/Cdc42-binding domain homologous to a GAP domain in the BCR gene product, and two SH2 domains that flank an antiparallel coiled coil domain (the iSH2 domain). While NMR, EPR, and crystal structures have been obtained for the individual domains (7–15), there are currently no structures that define how these domains are arranged in space. The p110 α catalytic subunit has been better defined, with structures of the N-terminal adapter-binding domain (ABD) or the entire p110 α bound to the coiled coil (iSH2) domain of p85 (15, 16). Like the related Class IB catalytic subunit p110 γ (17), p110 α contains Ras-binding, C2, helical, and

kinase domains. In the p110 α structure, p110 α is anchored by the binding of the N-terminal ABD to the far end of the rod-like iSH2 domain, consistent with previous biochemical studies (18–20). The kinase and C2 domains drape over the iSH2 domain like a saddle, with the Ras-binding domain facing upward above the ABD. The helical domain is positioned at the opposite end of the molecule from the ABD, and is therefore close to the ends of the iSH2 domain that are linked to the two SH2 domains.

Structural studies on p110 γ and p110 α have not provided a mechanism to explain the inhibition of p110 α by p85 binding, or the activation of p85/p110 α dimers by phosphoprotein binding to the SH2 domains of p85 (21, 22). We and others have shown that the iSH2 domain-ABD interface is structurally rigid and does not regulate p110 activity (23–25). In contrast, the N-terminal SH2 (nSH2) domain of p85 is required for inhibition of p110 α . Recent biochemical studies suggest that basic residues surrounding the phosphopeptide binding site in the nSH2 domain make an inhibitory contact with an acidic patch in the helical domain of p110 α (15). Phosphoprotein binding to the SH2 domain would presumably disrupt this inhibitory contact and activate the p85/p110 dimer. This interface is also disrupted by oncogenic mutations in the helical domain of p110 that have been identified in human cancers (15, 26). Helical domain mutations in p110 α synergize with activated Ras for activation of PI 3-kinase (27).

Oncogenic mutations have been described in p85, mostly truncations or deletions in the C-terminal end of the iSH2 domain (28–30); more recent sequencing studies have identified additional deletion and point mutations in the iSH2 domain (31, 32). The oncogenic p85 mutations presumably act by disrupting inhibitory contacts with p110 α , and the p85572^{STOP} and p85(Δ 583–605) mutants (28, 30) fail to inhibit p110 α in vitro (33). We previously examined the structure of the minimal regulatory portion of p85, the nSH2-iSH2 fragment (p85ni) (23). Based on NMR experiments that measured the relaxation of nSH2 domain amide protons by spin probes in the iSH2 domain within p85ni, we proposed that contacts between the C-terminal end of the iSH2 domain and the nSH2 domain position the latter domain such that it forms an inhibitory contact with p110 α (33). Loss of these contacts in the oncogenic p85 mutants would explain the loss of p110 α inhibition. However, several recent data have led

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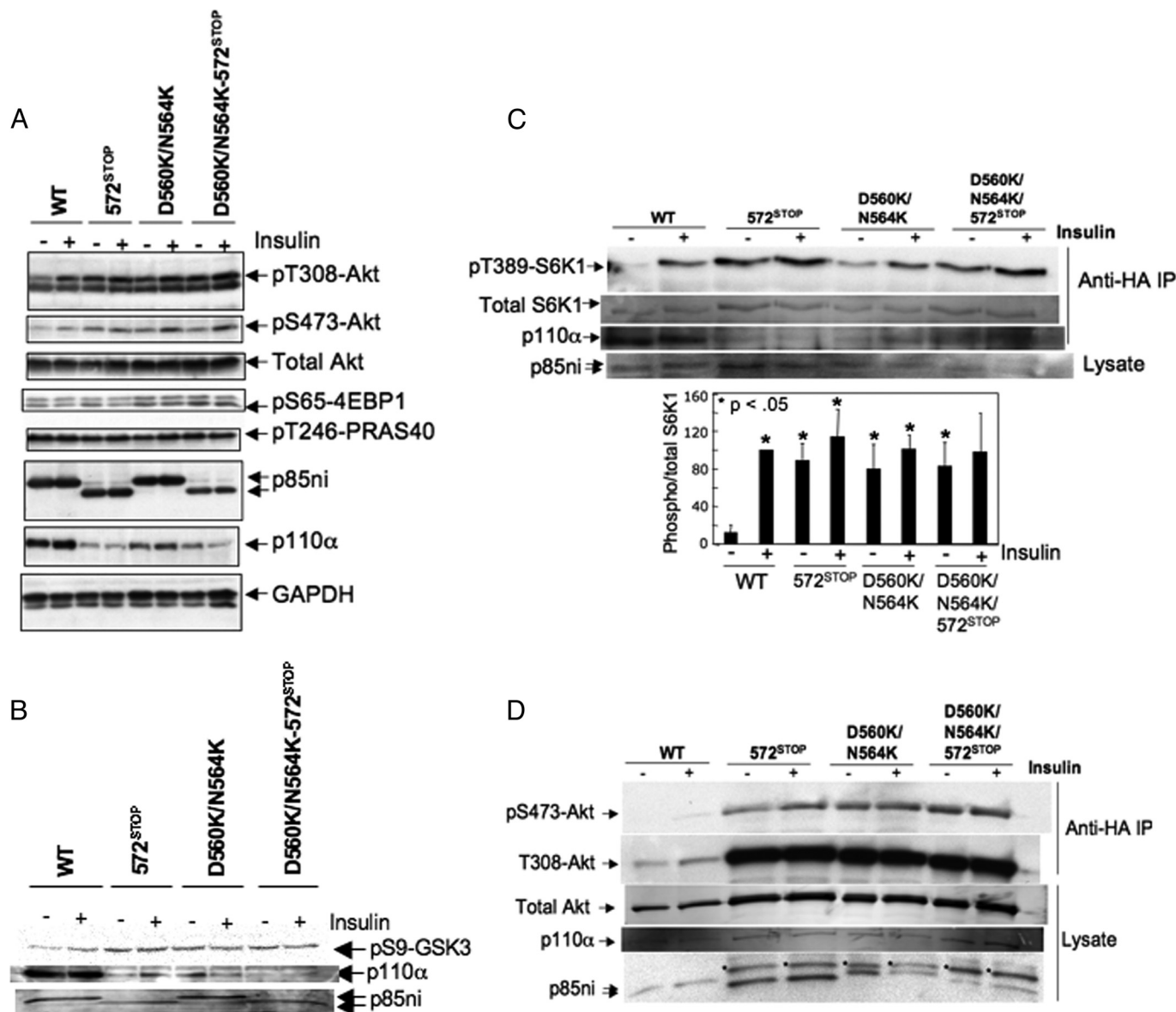


Fig. 2. Truncation mutants and C2-iSH2 contact mutants of p85 are redundant for activation of downstream signaling. (A) HEK293T cells were transiently transfected with myc-p110 α and wild-type or mutant p85ni. Cells were incubated without or with insulin, lysed, and blotted for p85 and p110 α , for total and phosphorylated forms of Akt, and for phosphorylated 4EBP1, and PRAS40 as shown. The data are representative of five separate experiments. (B) Cells were transfected and stimulated as above and blotted for pSer9-GSK3, p85ni and p110 α . The data are representative of three separate experiments. (C) HEK293E cells were transiently transfected with HA-S6K1, myc-p110 α and wild-type or mutant p85ni. Anti-HA immunoprecipitates were blotted for total and phosphorylated S6K1 and for myc-p110 α (which binds to HA-p85ni). Lysates were blotted for p85ni. The ratio of pT389/total S6K1 was determined using a LICOR Odyssey imaging system, and is the mean \pm SD from three experiments. (D) HEK293T cells were transiently transfected with HA-Akt, myc-p110 α and wild-type or mutant HA-p85ni. Anti-HA immunoprecipitates were blotted for total and phosphorylated Akt and for myc-p110 α (which binds to HA-p85ni). Lysates were blotted for p85ni. The data are representative of two separate experiments.

p85niD560K/N564K/572^{STOP}, caused similar increases in both basal and insulin stimulated activation of endogenous Akt (measured by phosphorylation at T308 and S473) (Fig. 2A). Phosphorylation of PRAS40 at T246 was unaffected by the mutations, whereas phosphorylation of 4EBP1 at S65 was increased under basal conditions in cells expressing the p85ni mutants (Fig. 2A), as was phosphorylation of GSK3 (Fig. 2B). We also produced stably transfected Baf3 cells, and found that although the basal activation of Akt was higher in cells expressing p85ni571STOP as opposed to p85niD560K/N564K, no additively was seen with the double mutant (Fig. S2A). We were unable to clearly detect changes in endogenous S6K1 in whole cell lysates, so we co-transfected cells with wild-type or mutant p85ni and

HA-tagged S6K1. Phosphorylation of S6K1 at T389 was somewhat higher in cells expressing p85ni571STOP as opposed to p85niD560K/N564K, but once again no additively was seen with the double mutant (Fig. 2C, top); this is more evident when the ratio of phosphorylated to total S6K1 is calculated (Fig. 2C, lower panel). Co-transfection of wild-type or mutant p85ni with HA-Akt led to similar increases in phosphorylation of S473 with all of the mutants as compared to cells expressing wild-type p85ni (Fig. 2D). These data show that deletion of p85ni after residue 571, or mutation of the C2/iSH2 domain interface, have similar effects on downstream signaling.

We compared the ability of wild-type and mutant p85ni to bind to activated PDGF receptors at the plasma membrane. Both

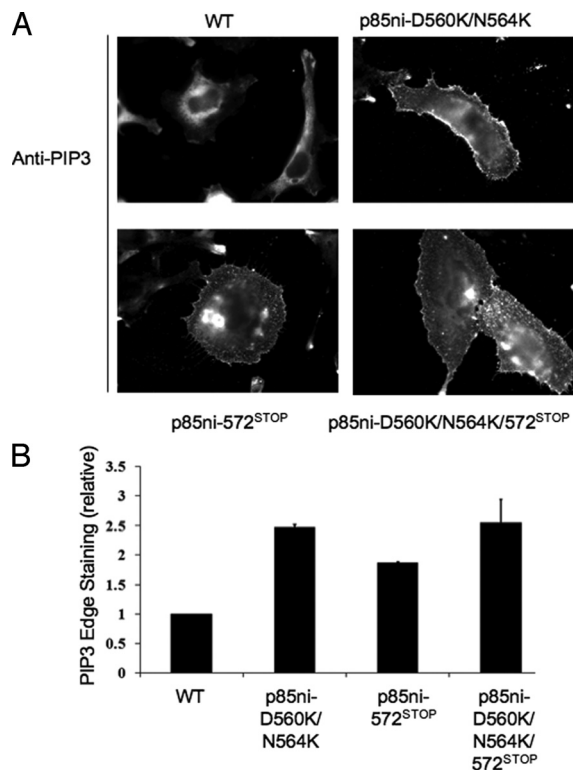


Fig. 3. Effects of truncation mutants and C2-iSH2 contact mutants of p85 on PIP3 production in vivo. HeLa cells were transfected with myc-p110 α and wild-type or mutant p85ni. The cells were rendered quiescent overnight, fixed, and stained with anti-PIP3 antibody. Cells were imaged using a Nikon 60 \times 1.4 NA objective and a Roper cooled-CCD camera. Quantitation of PIP3 was performed as described in ref. 44. The data are the mean \pm SD from two independent experiments.

wild-type and mutant p85ni showed similar binding, as would be expected for an SH2-mediated process (Fig. S2B). To evaluate the effects on intracellular PIP3 production, we stained quiescent cells expressing wild-type or mutant p85ni and stained cells with an anti-PIP3 antibody that we have previously characterized (38). Quiescent cells expressing mutant p85ni showed increased PIP3 production at the cell edge as compared to cells expressing wild-type p85ni, and no additively between the truncation and C2/iSH2 interface mutants was seen (Fig. 3A and B). Unlike PIP3 staining at the cell periphery, the diffuse staining in the center of the cell is nonspecific, as it has been previously shown to be resistant to wortmannin (38).

Finally, we measured transformation in NIH 3T3 cells co-transfected with wild-type or N345K p110 α , and wild-type or mutant p85ni, using a soft agar growth assay. Minimal colony formation was found in cells expressing p110 α and wild-type p85, whereas cells expressing p85ni571^{STOP}, p85niD560K/N564K, or p85niD560K/N564K/572^{STOP} showed similar \approx 4-fold increases in colony number (Fig. 4A). Cells expressing p110 α -N345K showed an \approx 5-fold increase in colony formation, and no additional increase in transformation was seen in cells co-transfected with mutant p85ni (Fig. 4B). Taken together, these biochemical data fail to show additivity between the two types of p85 mutant, or between the C2-domain p110 α mutant and iSH2 domain mutants of p85. These data suggest that these mutations all exert their effect on p110 α activity by disruption of the inhibitory C2-iSH2 domain interface.

Discussion

We have previously shown that inhibition of p110 α by p85 requires a charge-based interaction between the nSH2 domain of

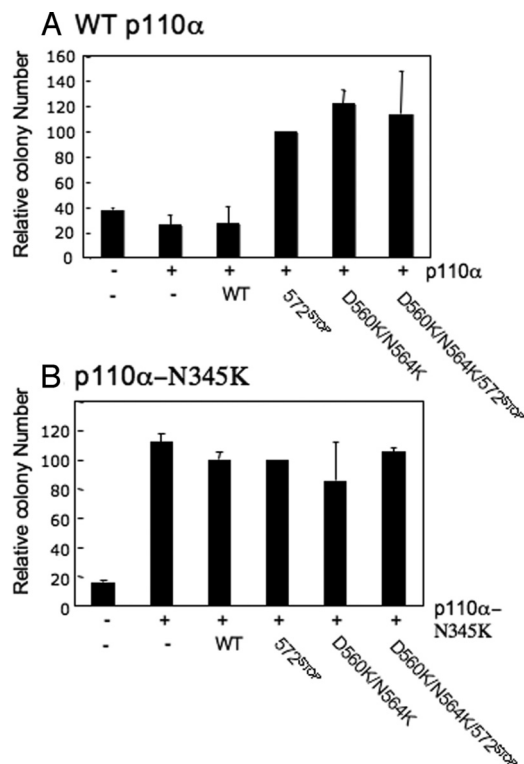


Fig. 4. Effects of truncation mutants and C2-iSH2 contact mutants of p85 on transformation. (A) NIH 3T3 cells were transiently transfected with myc-p110 α and wild-type or mutant p85ni. The cells were plated in soft agar as described and colonies were counted after 3 weeks. Colony counts were normalized to the number produced by cells expressing p85ni572^{STOP}. The data are the mean \pm SEM from three experiments. (B) NIH 3T3 cells were transiently transfected with p110 α -N345K and wild-type or mutant p85ni. Colony counts were normalized to the number produced by cells expressing p85ni572^{STOP}. The data are the mean \pm SD from 2–3 experiments.

p85 and the helical domain of p110 α (15). We now show that a second interaction, involving the residues D560 and N564 of the iSH2 domain and residue N345 in the C2 domain of p110, is also required for inhibition of p110 α . Disruption of this second interface leads to a loss of inhibition in vitro, and constitutive activation of Akt in transfected cells. The importance of the C2-iSH2 domain interface was first predicted based on the crystal structure of the p110 α /iSH2 dimer (16), and sequencing studies have identified mutations at p110 α N345, as well as p85 α D560 and N564, in human cancers (26, 31, 32). Mutational disruption of the C2-iSH2 domain interface is likely to lead to constitutive activation of Class IA PI 3-kinase in vivo and contribute to tumorigenesis, and we find that mutations in p85ni or p110 α that disrupt this interface lead to constitutive increases in downstream signaling as well as increased rates of transformation. A previous study showed that the p110 α -N345K mutant had strong transforming potential, but was less potent than the hotspot mutations (E545K and H1047R) (39). Based on our mechanistic data, one would expect a similar potency for the iSH2 mutants, although their ability to interact with p110 β and p110 δ could increase their tumorigenicity in vivo even more.

A second aspect of this study examines the mechanism by which oncogenic mutations in the C-terminal end of the iSH2 domain (28–30) lead to PI 3-kinase activation. We previously proposed that oncogenic truncations of p85 remove nSH2-iSH2 domain contacts that orient the nSH2 domain so as to inhibit p110 α (33). This hypothesis was based on the finding that spin probes in the iSH2 domain produced significant relaxation

effects on NMR crosspeaks from residues in one face of the nSH2 domain, which we interpreted as showing a preferred orientation of the nSH2 domain relative to the iSH2 domain. However, based on the NMR data present in this paper, we think it more likely that within the context of p85ni, the nSH2 domain moves rapidly with respect to the iSH2 domain, with a rotational correlation time on the order of 13 ns. These data make it unlikely that the nSH2 domain is constrained by interactions with the iSH2 domain. In a related study, a pulsed EPR analysis of the relative positions of the nSH2 and iSH2 domains within p85ni strongly suggest that the nSH2 domain is not rigidly fixed (K. I. Sen and G. J. Gerfen, unpublished observations). Interestingly, the EPR data suggest that the motion of the nSH2 domain is not random, but is restrained to a torus-like distribution around the proximal end of the iSH2 domain. Thus, the nSH2 domain moves in a hinge-like manner, and not like a ball on a string. This restricted motion presumably explains why relaxation effects from iSH2 spin labels were only seen on one face of the nSH2 domain in our earlier study (33). Preliminary data suggest that the nSH2 domain is also mobile in the context of intact p85; studies to evaluate the relative mobility of the nSH2 domain in p85/p110 dimers are currently being pursued.

With regard to oncogenic truncation mutants of p85, our mutagenesis data strongly support an alternative hypothesis, originally proposed by Huang et al. (16) and elaborated in a recent study of mutations in glioblastoma (32). These two studies suggest that truncation of p85 after residue 571 might destabilize a contact between the iSH2 domain and the C2 domain of p110 α . Consistent with this hypothesis, we find that mutation of p85ni D560 and N564 to Lys mimics the effects of truncation after p85 residue 571, and inhibition of p110 α N345K by wild-type or truncated p85ni is similar. Furthermore, the effects of mutation at p85ni-D560/N564 and truncation after residue 571 lead to similar levels of constitutive PI 3-kinase-dependent signaling in vivo and similar levels of transformation. While there is some variability between different downstream enzymes as to whether the D560/N564 mutant or the 572^{STOP} mutant has the larger effect, in no cases are the mutations additive. Our data thus support the hypothesis that iSH2 domain truncations destabilize iSH2-C2 domain contacts (16, 32).

It should be noted that the mobility of the nSH2 in the context of p85ni, or even intact p85, might not reflect its motion within the p85/p110 dimers. However, the ability of the nSH2 domain to move is in fact consistent with our previous model of p85/p110 regulation by nSH2 domain occupancy (15). Given that the nSH2 phosphopeptide binding site contacts the E542/E545 acidic patch in the helical domain of p110 α , the nSH2 domain must move away from the helical domain to accommodate the binding of tyrosine phosphorylated activators. Biochemical data in fact suggest that the ability of nSH2 domain to move about the proximal end of the iSH2 domain is necessary for PI 3-kinase activation, as introduction of an engineered disulfide bond between the nSH2 and iSH2 domains produces a mutant that inhibits p110, but cannot be activated by phosphopeptides.

Our data demonstrate the in addition to the inhibitory nSH2-helical domain interface, a second interface involving the iSH2 domain and the p110 α C2 domain is also inhibitory. While our data show that recently identified mutations at the iSH2-C2 interface (31, 32) lead to increased PI 3-kinase signaling, it is not yet known whether this interface is regulated in wild-type p110 α . It also remains to be seen whether the inhibitory interfaces involving the C2 and helical domains of p110 α are mechanistically related. Given that the primary tethering site between p110 and p85 involves the iSH2 domain and the N-terminal ABD of p110 α , a second stabilizing contact between the C2 and iSH2 domains may be required for the proper alignment of the helical domain-nSH2 domain interface, which is the site of phosphopeptide regulation of p85/p110. Alternatively, the C2-iSH2 domain

contact may directly affect the conformation of the kinase domain. If so, it will be interesting to see if known activators of p85/p110 α , such as Rac/CDC42, Ras, and tyrosine phosphoproteins (6), cause changes in the intersubunit contacts at C2-iSH2 domain interface. Finally, it is worth noting that the identification of regulated inhibitory interfaces between p85 and p110 could facilitate the development of pharmacological compounds that inhibit PI 3-kinases by stabilizing these interfaces, rather than by blocking the ATP-binding site.

Experimental Procedures

Protein Expression and Purification. Uniformly ¹⁵N-labeled recombinant human p85ni (residues 321–600) was produced as a GST fusion in bacteria grown in minimal medium supplemented with ¹⁵NH₄Cl, and harvested by thrombin cleavage of glutathione-Sepharose-bound material. The final sample was \approx 1 mM protein in PBS, pH 7.4, containing 0.5% Nonidet P-40. Mutants of bovine p110 α or p85ni were produced using 4-primer PCR methods. All constructs were confirmed by sequencing. Wild-type and mutant p110 α was produced in baculovirus-infected Sf-9 cells. Wild-type and mutant p85ni were produced as above.

NMR Spectroscopy. All NMR relaxation data were acquired at 28 °C on a cryoprobe-equipped Bruker 800 MHz spectrometer at the New York Structural Biology Center, using TROSY-based pulse sequences adapted from those described by Zhu et al. (40). All sequences were modified to maintain water magnetization along Z throughout the experiment by using selective flip-back water 90° pulses and selectively nonexciting 180° pulses via a watergate 3–9–19 motif. All three pulse sequences used TROSY component selection via echo-antiecho strategy using both ¹H and ¹⁵N gradients, as well as phase cycling. T₁/T₂ sequences were written to run in pseudo3d mode with ¹H and ¹⁵N being the two time/frequency dimensions while the third dimension was a list of relaxation delays. The indirect time increment was interleaved with the relaxation delays; that is, for each indirect time point, data for all of the relaxation delays were acquired, subsequently incrementing the T₁ value.

For the T₁ and T₂ data, 32 transients were averaged for datasets consisting of 1,024 by 128 complex points using a recycle delay of 3 s. The relaxation delays for the T₁ (1/R₁) measurements were 0, 90, 200, 320, 460, 620, 820, 1,080, 1,450, 2,070, 3,000, and 5,000 ms. The relaxation delays for the T₂ (1/R₂) measurements were 0, 8, 16, 24, 32, 40, 48, 56, 64, 80, 96, 120, 160, and 248 ms. The NOE and no NOE experiments were run in an interleaved fashion with recycle delays of 5 s, 128 transients per increment, as 1,024 by 90 complex points in proton and nitrogen, respectively. NMR data were processed using NMRPipe (41), and analyzed using NMRView (42). The selection of ordered, nonexchanging resonances from the nSH2 domain, and the estimation and error analysis of rotational correlation times were done using DASHA (43). HYDRONMR (34) was used to calculate the expected rotational correlation times and relaxation rates for the individual and combined p85ni domains.

PI 3-Kinase Assays. Wild-type or mutant p110 α , produced in Sf-9 cells, was incubated without or with wild-type or mutant p85ni, and PI 3-kinase activity were measured as described in ref. 33. Statistical significance was determined using ANOVA and the Tukey HSD test (at <http://faculty.vassar.edu/lowry/VassarStats.html>).

Transfections and Western Blot Analysis. HEK 293T cells were transiently transfected with myc-p110 α and wild-type or mutant p85ni. Cells were starved overnight, stimulated with insulin for 5–30 min, lysed, and blotted for Akt, pS473-Akt, pT308-Akt, pS65–4EBP1, total, and pS389-S6K1 (Cell Signaling Technologies), and pT246-PRAS40 (Biosource). When indicated, cells were cotransfected with HA-S6K1 or HA-Akt, and phosphorylation was analyzed in anti-HA immunoprecipitates.

BaF3 Stable Cell Lines and Signaling. Wild-type or mutant p85ni and wild-type myc-p110 α was stably transfected into IL-3-dependent mouse pre-B BaF3 cells using retrovirus produced using the pRetro-IRESdsRed vector (Clontech), or a variant expressing GFP. Cells were sorted by flow cytometry based on expression of dsRed and GFP, expanded and characterized for expression of proteins and signaling by Western blot.

PDGF-R Binding Assays. HEK293T cells were co-transfected with myc-p110 α , wild-type or mutant HA-p85ni, and human PDGF β receptor. Cells were stimulated without or with PDGF for 10 min, and anti-HA immunoprecipitates were blotted with anti-PDGF-R antibody.

Transformation Assays. NIH 3T3 cells were transiently transfected with myc-p110 α and wild-type or mutant p85 β . Two days after transfection, the cells (2,500 cells/well) were plated in 1 mL of 0.3% top agar, on 1 mL of 0.6% bottom agar, in a six-well dish. Cell colonies were counted after 3 weeks.

Anti-PIP3 Staining. Cells were fixed and stained with anti-HA antibody (to detect transfected cells) and anti-PIP3 IgG (Echelon) as described in ref. 39. For fluorescence quantification, all digital images were imported in NIH image software and analyzed by using a previously described macro (45). This macro collects pixel intensities from the perimeter of the cell in a 0.22-m stepwise manner. The pixel intensities in the leading-edge compartment, defined as

0.66 m from the perimeter of the cells, were averaged and normalized to the edge intensity of nonstimulated cells.

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