# Visualization of G Protein $\beta\gamma$ Dimers Using Bimolecular Fluorescence Complementation Demonstrates Roles for Both $\beta$ and $\gamma$ in Subcellular Targeting\*

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To investigate the role of subcellular localization in regulating the specificity of G protein  $\beta \gamma$  signaling, we have applied the strategy of bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) to visualize  $\beta \gamma$  dimers in vivo. We fused an amino-terminal yellow fluorescent protein fragment to  $\beta$  and a carboxyl-terminal yellow fluorescent protein fragment to  $\gamma$ . When expressed together, these two proteins produced a fluorescent signal in human embryonic kidney 293 cells that was not obtained with either subunit alone. Fluorescence was dependent on  $\beta\gamma$  assembly in that it was not obtained using  $\beta_2$  and  $\gamma_1$ , which do not form a functional dimer. In addition to assembly, BiFC βγ complexes were functional as demonstrated by more specific plasma membrane labeling than was obtained with individually tagged fluorescent  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits and by their abilities to potentiate activation of adenylyl cyclase by  $\alpha_s$  in COS-7 cells. To investigate isoform-dependent targeting specificity, the localization patterns of dimers formed by pair-wise combinations of three different  $\beta$  subunits with three different  $\gamma$  subunits were compared. BiFC  $\beta\gamma$  complexes containing either  $\beta_1$  or  $\beta_2$  localized to the plasma membrane, whereas those containing  $\beta_5$  accumulated in the cytosol or on intracellular membranes. These results indicate that the  $\beta$  subunit can direct trafficking of the  $\gamma$  subunit. Taken together with previous observations, these results show that the G protein  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  subunits all play roles in targeting each other. This method of specifically visualizing  $\beta \gamma$  dimers will have many applications in sorting out roles for particular  $\beta \gamma$  complexes in a wide variety of cell types.

More than a thousand G protein-coupled receptors play roles in a vast range of biological processes. An important but poorly understood issue is how signaling specificity is maintained in vivo. Most combinations of the 5 G protein  $\beta$  subunits and 12  $\gamma$  subunits that have been identified in mammals (1) can form dimers in vitro that exhibit similar abilities to modulate the activities of effectors such as adenylyl cyclase (2), phospho-

lipase C (3), and G protein-gated inwardly rectifying K<sup>+</sup> channels (4). However, emerging evidence suggests that the specificity of receptor-G protein signaling is determined by specific  $\alpha\beta\gamma$  combinations (5). Inactivation of specific G protein subunits in vivo using antisense (6–10) and ribozyme (11, 12) strategies has demonstrated a remarkable specificity of interaction between receptors,  $\alpha\beta\gamma$  combinations, and effectors. For instance, ribozyme-mediated suppression of  $\gamma_7$  in HEK-293 cells specifically reduces expression of  $\beta_1$  and disrupts activation of G<sub>s</sub> by  $\beta$ -adrenergic, but not prostaglandin E<sub>1</sub> receptors (11, 12). Knockout of  $\gamma_7$  in the mouse results in behavioral changes and reductions in the level of  $\alpha_{\rm olf}$  in the striatum (13).

Reconstitution experiments indicate clear differences in the  $\alpha\beta\gamma$  combinations that are preferred by particular receptors (14–18). However, these differences generally do not appear to be great enough to account for the large effects seen with in vivo knockout models such as the  $\gamma_7$ -deficient mouse (13). In addition, studies of how G protein subunits are organized and localized in vivo suggest that cell type-specific expression and subcellular localization also play major roles in signaling specificity (19). In support of this idea, rescue of  $\alpha_{\rm s}$  and  $\alpha_{\rm q}$  mutants with decreased affinities for  $\beta\gamma$  by co-expressed  $\beta\gamma$  dimers indicates differences in the abilities of particular  $\beta\gamma$  dimers to target these  $\alpha$  subunits to the plasma membrane (20).

The G protein subunits are peripheral membrane proteins that associate with the plasma membrane as a result of fatty acid modifications and interaction with each other. Targeting of  $\beta$  subunits to the plasma membrane requires association with prenylated  $\gamma$  subunits (21).  $\alpha$  subunits attach to the plasma membrane as a result of amino-terminal palmitoylation and/or myristoylation and association with  $\beta\gamma$  subunits (22). A  $\gamma$  subunit that is mislocalized to the mitochondria can cause  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  to mislocalize (23). Conversely, when  $\alpha_{\rm s}$  is targeted to the mitochondria,  $\beta_1\gamma_2$  follows (24). A role for the  $\beta$  subunit in targeting G proteins has not been reported.

Here we apply the strategy of bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC)<sup>1</sup> (25) to visualize specific  $\beta\gamma$  dimers in vivo. BiFC involves the production of a fluorescent signal by two nonfluorescent fragments of YFP when they are brought together by interactions between proteins fused to each fragment. We fused an amino-terminal YFP fragment to  $\beta$  and a carboxyl-terminal YFP fragment to  $\gamma$ . When expressed together, these two proteins produce a fluorescent signal in HEK-293 cells that is not obtained with either subunit alone. This

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S The on-line version of this article (available at http://www.jbc.org) contains Supplemental Video 1.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The abbreviations used are: BiFC, bimolecular fluorescence complementation; GFP, green fluorescent protein; YFP, yellow fluorescent protein; CFP, cyan fluorescent protein; mRFP, monomeric red fluorescent protein; HEK cells, human embryonic kidney cells; ECFP, enhanced CFP; RGS, regulator of G protein signaling.

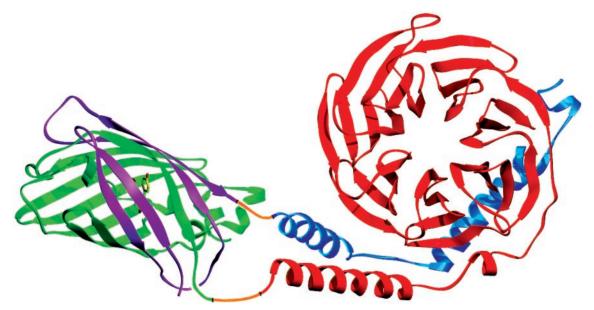


Fig. 1. Model of YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$ -, YFP-N (green) is fused to the G protein  $\beta$  subunit (red), and YFP-C (magenta) is fused to the G protein  $\gamma$ subunit (blue). Linker sequences between the YFP fragments and the G protein subunits are orange. The structures of YFP-N and YFP-C are adapted from the structure of GFP (54). The structures of  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are from the structure of an  $\alpha_t/\alpha_{i1}$  chimera complexed with  $\beta_t\gamma_t$  (55).

procedure enables visualization of  $\beta \gamma$  pairs that form complexes, producing no fluorescence for a  $\beta\gamma$  combination known to be unable to assemble. BiFC  $\beta\gamma$  complexes were functional, as demonstrated by more specific plasma membrane labeling than was obtained with individually tagged fluorescent  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ subunits and by their abilities to modulate adenylyl cyclase activity. Comparisons of the localization patterns of  $\beta\gamma$  complexes formed by pairwise combinations of three different  $\beta$ subunits with three different  $\gamma$  subunits showed clear differences in localization patterns. This study also showed that the  $\beta$  subunit can direct  $\beta\gamma$  targeting in that complexes containing either  $\beta_1$  or  $\beta_2$  localized to the plasma membrane, whereas those containing  $\beta_5$  accumulated in the cytosol or on intracellular membranes. This method of specifically visualizing  $\beta \gamma$ dimers will have many applications in sorting out the roles of particular  $\beta \gamma$  complexes in a wide variety of cells and tissues.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Production of Fluorescent Fusion Proteins-To produce YFP-(1- $158)\beta_1$  in pcDNAI/Amp, YFP-(1-158) was amplified by a PCR from enhanced YFP (Clontech) that introduced a substitution of Met for Gln-69 (26). The PCR introduced a BamHI site at the 5' end of YFP-(1-158) and a BgIII site at the 3' end. A BgIII site was introduced into the polylinker of pcDNAI/Amp 3' to the BamHI site, and YFP-(1-158) was subcloned into these sites to produce YFP-(1-158)pcDNAI/Amp. A BgIII site in the human  $\beta_1$  cDNA<sup>2</sup> was removed using the QuikChange site-directed mutagenesis kit (Stratagene), and the cDNA was amplified by a PCR that added a linker sequence (Arg-Ser-Ile-Ala-Thr) containing a BamHI site on the 5' end and a BglII site on the 3' end. This PCR product was digested with BamHI and BglII and subcloned into the BgIII site of YFP-(1-158)pcDNAI/Amp so that YFP-(1-158) was fused to the amino terminus of  $\beta_1$ . To produce YFP- $(1-158)\beta_2$  and YFP- $(1-158)\beta_5$  in pcDNAI/Amp, the human  $\beta_2$  cDNA<sup>2</sup> and the human  $\beta_5$  cDNA were each amplified by PCR, digested with BamHI and BglII, and subcloned into the BgIII site of YFP-(1-158)pcDNAI/Amp as described for  $\beta_1$ .

A similar strategy was used to produce YFP-(159–238) $\gamma_7$ . YFP-(159– 238) was amplified from enhanced YFP by a PCR that introduced a BamHI site at the 5' end of YFP-(159-238) and a BgIII site at the 3' end and subcloned into the BamHI and BglII sites of the modified pcDNAI/ Amp vector described above to produce YFP-(159-238)pcDNAI/Amp. The human  $\gamma_7$  cDNA (27) was amplified by a PCR that added a BamHI site and a linker sequence (Arg-Ser) to the 5' end and a BgIII site to the 3' end. This PCR product was digested with BamHI and BglII and

subcloned into the BgIII site of YFP-(159-238)pcDNAI/Amp so that YFP-(159-238) was fused to the amino terminus of  $\gamma_7$ . To produce YFP-(159–238) $\gamma_1$  and YFP-(159–238) $\gamma_2$ , the bovine  $\gamma_1$  cDNA<sup>2</sup> and the human  $\gamma_2$  cDNA (27) were each amplified by PCR, digested with BamHI and BgIII, and subcloned into the BgIII site of YFP-(159-238)pcDNAI/ Amp as described for  $\gamma_7$ .

YFP-N-β and YFP-C-γ in the *Dictyostelium* expression vector pCV5 were produced as follows. For YFP-N-β, PCR of YFP-(1-158) introduced a BamHI site followed by a Dictyostelium ribosomal binding site at the 5' end and a BgIII site at the 3' end. The Dictyostelium  $\beta$ -coding sequence was amplified with introduction of a BamHI site and a linker sequence (Ile-Ala-Thr) at the 5' end and a BglII site at 3' end. The two PCR fragments were sequentially subcloned into the BgIII site in pCV5. For YFP-C-γ, a BamHI site and the codons for Met-Ser were introduced before YFP-(159-238), and the YFP stop codon was eliminated and substituted with a BgIII site. The Dictyostelium y subunit-coding sequence was flanked by a BamHI site on the 5' end and a BglII site on the 3' end. These two fragments were sequentially subcloned into pCV5.

To produce GFP- $\beta_1$ , the human  $\beta_1$  cDNA was amplified by PCR and ligated into pWay5, a derivative of pCR3.1 (Invitrogen), in the presence of Srf I, as described (28). This procedure added a linker sequence (Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-Ser) in between the amino-terminal GFP and the carboxyl-terminal  $\beta_1$  sequences.

To produce CFP- $\gamma_2$  and CFP- $\gamma_7$ , the GFP sequence in pWAY5 was replaced with that of ECFP (Clontech) containing a substitution of His for Asn-164 (29), and the  $\gamma_2$  and  $\gamma_7$  sequences were each amplified by PCR and subcloned into this vector in the presence of Srf I. The resulting constructs contained a linker sequence (Gly-Gly-Gly-Pro-Tyr-Pro-Tyr-Asp-Val-Pro-Asp-Tyr-Ala-Ser-Leu-Gly-Gly-Pro-Gly-Ile-Leu-Arg) that includes the hemagglutinin epitope in between the ECFP and  $\gamma$ sequences, similar to that described in Manahan et al. (30). All constructs were verified by DNA sequencing.

Transient Expression and Assay for cAMP Accumulation— $0.8 \times 10^6$ COS-7 cells (obtained from Henry Bourne) in 60-mm dishes were transfected with plasmids as described in the legends to Figs. 3 and 4 using 10 µl of LipofectAMINE 2000 reagent (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. 24 h after transfection, the cells were replated in 24-well plates and labeled with [3H]adenine. After an additional 24 h, intracellular cAMP levels were determined as described previously (31). cAMP accumulation was measured in the presence of 1 mm 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine, a phosphodiesterase inhibitor.

Imaging of Fluorescent Fusion Proteins-HEK-293 cells (ATCC, CRL-1573) were plated at a density of 10<sup>5</sup> cells per well on Lab-Tek II 4-well chambered coverslips and transiently transfected with 0.075  $\mu g$ each of plasmids encoding YFP-N-β and YFP-C-γ constructs and 0.0125 μg each of pECFP-Mem (Clontech), which encodes a fluorescent fusion protein targeted to the plasma membrane by the amino-terminal 20 residues of neuromodulin (32), and mRFP, expressed in pcDNA3 (33) as

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> J. Robishaw, unpublished information.

a marker for the cytosol, using 0.25 μl of LipofectAMINE 2000 Reagent (Invitrogen). For studies of GFP- $\beta_1$ , CFP- $\gamma_2$ , and CFP- $\gamma_7$ , cells were transfected with 0.075 µg each of fluorescent and/or untagged G protein subunits, as described in the legend to Fig. 4. The cells were imaged 2 days after transfection at 63× using a Zeiss Axiovert 200 fluorescence microscope equipped with computer-controlled filter wheels, shutters, xyz stage (Ludl), and an ORCA-ER camera (Hamamatsu) under the control of IPLab software (Scanalytics). A single triple pass dichroic mirror (86006bs, Chroma) was used to ensure image registration. Excitation and emission filters for CFP (430/25, 465/30), YFP (495/20, 535/25), and mRFP1 (565/25, 630/60) were obtained from Chroma (Brattelboro, VT). One hour before imaging the culture medium was replaced with 20 mm HEPES-buffered minimal essential medium with Earle's salts without bicarbonate. During imaging the cells were maintained at 37 °C using a CSMI stage incubator (Harvard Apparatus). For each YFP-N- $\beta$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma$  and GFP- $\beta_1$ ·CFP- $\gamma$  combination, 40–70 cells were imaged from plates transfected on 3 different days.

Measurement of Intensity and Membrane Targeting of YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C-y Complexes—The membrane marker (ECFP-Mem) was used as the primary criterion for selecting cells for imaging and analysis. Cells having a clear plasma membrane border and adjacent region of cytoplasm were identified. If the cell also had detectable intensity of the cytoplasm marker (mRFP) and YFP-N-β·YFP-C-γ, then the cell image was recorded. Exposure times and gain for each image varied depending on cell intensity, and the following corrections were made so that the intensity values correspond to a 1-s exposure, gain of 1, with instrument background subtracted. Instrument background as a function of exposure time and gain was determined from images of dishes containing media without cells. The instrument background was subtracted from each image, and the remaining intensity was scaled to correspond to an exposure time of 1 s and a gain of 1. Fluorescence intensity was determined empirically to be related linearly to exposure time and gain. A small amount of bleed-through of CFP intensity into the YFP images (0.6%) was then subtracted. All image processing was performed using IPlab software.

The average fluorescence intensity of each YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  combination was determined by tracing the border of each cell using the ECFP-Mem image and calculating the average pixel intensity of the entire cell including the border for the YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  image. The average intensity of YFP-C- $\gamma$ , which does not contain the chromophore, expressed alone (7.5, S.E. = 0.16, n=18) was used to determine the intensity due to autofluorescence. Images with average intensity values below 7.5 were not included in the calculation of average intensity or of plasma membrane fraction, described in the next paragraph.

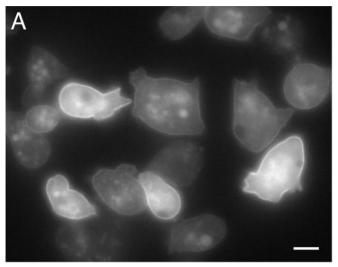
The plasma membrane fraction of the YFP-N-β-YFP-C-γ complexes in each cell was determined as follows (see Fig. 6, C-F). Plasma membrane pixels corresponding to a length of plasma membrane were identified and marked using the ECFP-Mem image. Cytoplasm pixels were marked with a 12 × 12-pixel box adjacent to the plasma membrane pixels in a region that was devoid of intracellular membranes, which were not quantified. The plasma membrane to cytoplasm ratios of YFP-N-β·YFP-C-γ (βγR), plasma membrane marker (PMR), and cytoplasm marker (CR) were calculated by dividing the average intensity of each label in the marked plasma membrane region by the average intensity in the marked cytoplasm region. PMR and CR were very consistent, with mean values of 1.24 (S.D. = 0.15, n = 375) and 0.66 (S.D. = 0.099, n = 375), respectively. The plasma membrane fraction of YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$ , PMF( $\beta\gamma$ ), is defined as the plasma membrane to cytoplasm ratio of YFP-N-β-YFP-C-γ relative to that of the plasma membrane and cytoplasm markers in the same cell and was calculated using the following equation.

$$\label{eq:pmf} PMF(\beta\gamma) = (\beta\gamma R - CR)/(PMR - CR) \,. \tag{Eq. 1}$$

A value of zero corresponds to a completely cytoplasmic distribution, and a value of one corresponds to a completely plasma membrane distribution.

# RESULTS

Development of a Method to Visualize Functional Fluorescent  $\beta\gamma$  Dimers—We have applied the strategy of BiFC (25) to visualize  $\beta\gamma$  dimers. This approach involves the production of a fluorescent signal by two nonfluorescent fragments of YFP when they are brought together by interactions between proteins fused to each fragment. The G protein  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits appeared to be ideal candidates for this technique because they associate irreversibly into a complex that functions as a single



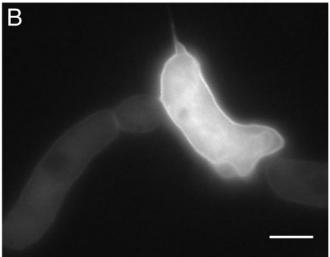


Fig. 2. Imaging of YFP-N-β-YFP-C-γ in D. discoideum. Wild-type D. discoideum Ax-3 cells were transformed by electroporation with YFP-N- $\beta$  and YFP-C- $\gamma$ , and transformants were selected using 20  $\mu$ g/ml G418 in HL-5 media. A, distribution of YFP-N-β·YFP-C-γ in vegetative (growth phase) cells. B, distribution of YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  in polarized chemotaxing cells. D. discoideum lives as a single cell organism when the environment is favorable, whereas adverse conditions such as starvation trigger aggregation of cells to form multicellular structures. During aggregation, chemotaxis of amoebae to cAMP secreted by other cells is mediated by a G protein-coupled receptor. In these chemotaxing cells YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  complexes were also distributed uniformly around the plasma membrane.  $Bar = 5 \mu m$ . A video is available as supplemental material (Video 1). In this video, Ax-3 cells expressing YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  were starved for 5 h before being exposed to a chemoattractant gradient produced with a micropipet filled with cAMP. The circle indicates the location of the micropipet tip.

unit and the amino termini of the two subunits are associated into a coiled-coil (34). To produce fluorescent  $\beta\gamma$  dimers we fused an amino-terminal YFP fragment (residues 1–158, referred to as YFP-N) to the amino terminus of the  $\beta$  subunit to produce YFP-N- $\beta$  and a carboxyl-terminal YFP fragment (residues 159–238, referred to as YFP-C) to the amino terminus of the  $\gamma$  subunit to produce YFP-C- $\gamma$  (Fig. 1). As an initial test of this approach, one of us (L. T.) produced YFP-N- $\beta$  and YFP-C- $\gamma$  constructs derived from the single  $\beta$  and single  $\gamma$  subunits that are encoded in the genome of the cellular slime mold, *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Expressing both of these YFP-N- $\beta$  and YFP-C- $\gamma$  constructs resulted in a fluorescence signal that was enriched on the plasma membrane (Fig. 2 and Supplemental Video 1), whereas expressing either recombinant protein alone did not produce a detectable fluorescent signal (data not

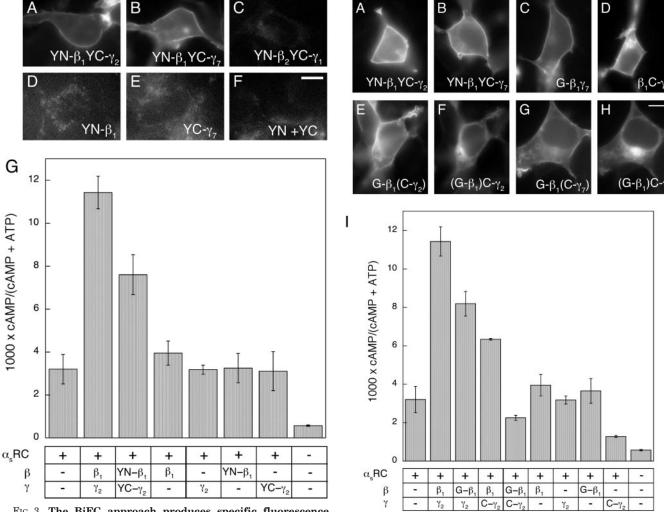


Fig. 3. The BiFC approach produces specific fluorescence from functional  $\beta \gamma$  dimers. YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (A) and YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  (B) produce strong signals in the plasma membranes of HEK-293 cells. C, YFP-N- $\beta_2$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_1$ , which does not form a functional dimer (2, 35, 36), does not produce a specific fluorescent signal. When expressed by themselves, YFP-N- $\beta_1$  (D) and YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  (E) are not fluorescent. In addition, co-expression of YFP-N and YFP-C does not produce fluorescence (F). Considerable variation in signal strength required adjusting the brightness of the final images by plotting restricted ranges of the pixel values (normalized to a 1 s exposure) as follows: A, 5-80; B, 5-80; C, 4-12; D, 6-12; E, 6-12; F, 6-12. HEK-293 cells were transfected and imaged as described under "Experimental Procedures."  $Bar = 10 \mu m. G$ , YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  dimers potentiate activation of adenylyl cyclase. The adenylyl cyclase activity in COS-7 cells is stimulated by  $\beta\gamma$  in the presence of activated  $\alpha_s$  (37). cAMP accumulation was measured in COS-7 cells transfected with a total of  $2.025 \mu g$  of plasmid consisting of vector alone (pcDNAI/Amp) or varying amounts of vector plus 0.025  $\mu g$  of plasmid encoding  $\alpha_s R201C$  (56), a constitutively activated  $\alpha_s$  mutant (38), and 1  $\mu g$  each of plasmids encoding the indicated  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits. YN indicates YFP-N, and YC indicates YFP-C. Values represent the means ± S.E. of 3-6 independent experiments performed in triplicate.

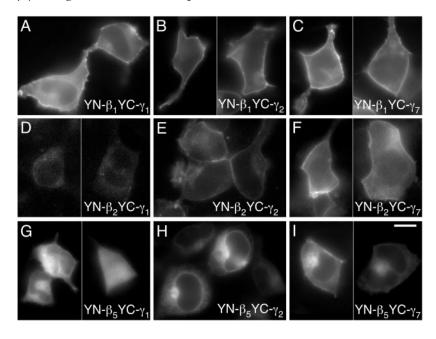
shown). This result demonstrates that BiFC can be used to image  $\beta\gamma$  dimers and led us to investigate whether this approach could distinguish among the numerous potential  $\beta\gamma$  dimers formed in mammals in terms of their efficiency of formation and their subcellular localization patterns.

To test the ability of the BiFC approach to produce functional fluorescent  $\beta\gamma$  dimers, we examined the properties of YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  and YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  complexes.  $\beta_1\gamma_2$  has been used extensively in studies of interactions between  $\beta\gamma$  and effectors such as adenylyl cyclase (2), phospholipase C (3), and G protein-gated inwardly rectifying K<sup>+</sup> channels (4). Ribozyme

FIG. 4. Comparison of YFP-N-β·YFP-C-γ dimers with those produced using GFP-β and CFP-γ. A-H, YFP-N-β·YFP-C-γ dimers produce more specific labeling of the plasma membrane than GFP-β·CFP-γ dimers. HEK-293 cells expressing the following constructs were imaged. A, YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_2$ . B, YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_7$ . C, GFP- $\beta_1$ · $\gamma_7$ . D,  $\beta_1$ ·CFP- $\gamma_7$ . E and F, same cell: E, GFP- $\beta_1$  (co-expressed with CFP- $\gamma_2$ ); F, CFP- $\gamma_2$  (co-expressed with GFP- $\beta_1$ ). G and H, same cell: G, GFP- $\beta_1$ (co-expressed with CFP- $\gamma_7$ ); H, CFP- $\gamma_7$  (co-expressed with GFP- $\beta_1$ ).  $Bar = 10 \mu \text{m}$ . I, GFP- $\beta \cdot \gamma$  and  $\beta \cdot \text{CFP-}\gamma$ , but not GFP- $\beta \cdot \text{CFP-}\gamma$ , dimers potentiate activation of adenylyl cyclase in COS-7 cells. cAMP accumulation was measured in COS-7 cells transfected with a total of 2.025  $\mu g$ of plasmid consisting of vector alone (pcDNAI/Amp) or varying amounts of vector plus 0.025  $\mu g$  of plasmid encoding  $\alpha_s R201C$  and 1  $\mu g$  each of plasmids encoding the indicated  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits. YN indicates YFP-N, YC indicates YFP-C, G indicates GFP, and C indicates CFP. Values represent the means  $\pm$  S.E. of 3–6 independent experiments performed in triplicate.

inactivation studies have shown that  $\beta_1\gamma_7$  mediates signaling from the  $\beta_2$ -adrenergic receptor to adenylyl cyclase via  $G_s$  in HEK-293 cells (11, 12). YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (Fig. 3A) and YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  (Fig. 3B) exhibited strong signals in the plasma membrane. However, when expressed by themselves, YFP-N- $\beta_1$  (Fig. 3D) and YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  (Fig. 3E) were not fluorescent. In addition, co-expression of YFP-N and YFP-C did not produce a specific fluorescent signal (Fig. 3F). Specific fluorescence was not obtained upon co-expression of YFP-N- $\beta_2$  and YFP-C- $\gamma_1$  (Figs. 3C, 5D, and 6A), confirming previous studies indicating that  $\beta_2$  and  $\gamma_1$  do not interact to form a functional dimer (2, 35, 36). These results indicate that the BiFC method only produces specific fluorescence when YFP-N and YFP-C are fused to  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits that interact.

Fig. 5. BiFC applied to imaging different  $\beta \gamma$  complexes. Images A-I represent different YFP-N-β·YFP-C-γ combinations expressed in HEK-293 cells. A, YFP- $N-\beta_1 \cdot YFP-C-\gamma_1$ ; B, YFP-N- $\beta_1 \cdot YFP-C-\gamma_2$ ; C, YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_7$ ; D, YFP-N- $\beta_2$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_1$ ; E, YFP-N- $\beta_2$  YFP-C- $\gamma_2$ ; F, YFP-N- $\beta_2$  YFP-C- $\gamma_1$ ; H, YFP-N- $\beta_5$ , YFP-C- $\gamma_2$ ; I, YFP-N- $\beta_5$ , YFP-C- $\gamma_7$ .  $Bar = 10 \ \mu m$ . YN indicates YFP-N, and YC indicates YFP-C. Considerable variation in signal strength (quantified in Fig. 6A) required adjusting the brightness of the final images by plotting restricted ranges of the pixel values (normalized to a 1-s exposure) as follows. A, 5-140; B 5-120; C, 5-140; D, 5-15; E, 5-24; F, 5-24; G, 5-80; H, 5-120; I, 5-70.



Functionality of BiFC  $\beta\gamma$  complexes was tested for by determining their abilities to modulate adenylyl cyclase activity. The adenylyl cyclase activity in COS-7 cells is stimulated by  $\beta\gamma$ in the presence of activated  $\alpha_{\rm s}$  (37). cAMP accumulation was measured in COS-7 cells that co-expressed  $\alpha_s$ R201C, a constitutively activated  $\alpha_s$  mutant (38), and fluorescent or unlabeled  $\beta\gamma$  complexes. YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  potentiated adenylyl cyclase activation with a somewhat lower efficacy than did  $\beta_1 \gamma_2$ , whereas individually expressed  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits did not potentiate activation of adenylyl cyclase (Fig. 3G). Comparisons of expression levels in immunoblots of membranes of COS-7 cells transfected with either  $\beta_1 \gamma_2$  or YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$ showed that attachment of YFP-C to  $\gamma_2$  had only minor effects on expression, but attachment of YFP-N to  $\beta_1$  resulted in a decreased level of expression (data not shown), which could account for the decreased activity of YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  compared with that of  $\beta_1 \gamma_2$ . Similar results were obtained with YFP-N- $\beta_1$ ·YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  (data not shown).

Comparison of BiFC βγ Dimers with Those Obtained Using GFP-β and CFP-γ—Imaging of YFP-N-β-YFP-C-γ complexes ensures that only  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits that are associated as a dimer are visualized, whereas imaging of co-expressed GFP-β and CFP-γ subunits results in visualization of the total amount of  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits expressed in a cell. The plasma membrane signal exhibited by cells expressing YFP-N-β·YFP-C-γ complexes (Fig. 4, A and B) represented a greater percentage of the total signal than that in cells that co-expressed GFP- $\beta_1$  and either CFP- $\gamma_2$  (Fig. 4, E and F) or CFP- $\gamma_7$  (Fig. 4, G and H). Moreover, the cytosolic GFP- $\beta_1$  and CFP- $\gamma$  signals did not co-localize entirely. The  $\beta$  signal tended to be more diffuse, whereas the γ signal generally was attached to intracellular vesicles and membranes. This is consistent with the fact that the  $\gamma$  subunit, but not the  $\beta$  subunit, is prenylated, resulting in membrane attachment. When GFP- $\beta_1$  was co-expressed with unlabeled  $\gamma_7$  (Fig. 4C) and when CFP- $\gamma_7$  was co-expressed with unlabeled  $\beta_1$  (Fig. 4D), the relative amounts of signal in the plasma membrane were greater than when the two labeled constructs were co-expressed (Fig. 4, G and H). These results suggest that GFP- $\beta$  and CFP- $\gamma$  subunits do not assemble together into dimers.

Also in contrast to the BiFC approach, fusion of GFP derivatives to both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  did not result in  $\beta\gamma$  dimers that could potentiate activation of adenylyl cyclase. The activities of GFP-

 $\beta_1 \cdot \gamma_2$  and  $\beta_1 \cdot \text{CFP-}\gamma_2$  (Fig. 4I) were similar to that of YFP-N- $\beta_1 \cdot \text{YFP-C-}\gamma_2$  (Fig. 3G), but GFP- $\beta_1 \cdot \text{CFP-}\gamma_2$  was not functional (Fig. 4I). However, as determined in immunoblots of membranes of COS-7 cells transfected with either YFP-N- $\beta_1 \cdot \text{YFP-C-}\gamma_2$  or GFP- $\beta_1 \cdot \text{CFP-}\gamma_2$ , GFP- $\beta_1$  was expressed at the same level as was YFP-N- $\beta_1$ , and CFP- $\gamma_2$  was expressed at a higher level than was YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (data not shown). Corresponding results were obtained with GFP- $\beta_1 \cdot \gamma_7$ ,  $\beta_1 \cdot \text{CFP-}\gamma_7$ , and GFP- $\beta_1 \cdot \text{CFP-}\gamma_7$  complexes (data not shown). Most likely, this indicates that, whereas the  $\beta\gamma$  complex can tolerate fusion of a single GFP molecule to the amino terminus of  $\beta$  or  $\gamma$ , attachment of GFP to the amino termini of both subunits disrupts proper folding.

Imaging of BiFC  $\beta\gamma$  Dimers Indicates Roles for Both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  in Targeting—To investigate whether different  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  combinations can be distinguished in vivo in terms of their abilities to form dimers, we imaged HEK-293 cells expressing pairwise combinations of YFP-N- $\beta_1$ , YFP-N- $\beta_2$ , and YFP-N- $\beta_5$ , with YFP-C- $\gamma_1$ , YFP-C- $\gamma_2$ , and YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  (Fig. 5). There were clear differences in the average intensities of different  $\beta\gamma$  dimers (Fig. 6A). Based on these average intensities, complexes containing  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_5$ , with the exception of  $\beta_5\gamma_1$ , were formed to a greater extent than complexes containing  $\beta_2$ . As described above, application of BiFC to  $\beta_2$  and  $\gamma_1$ , which do not interact to form a functional dimer (2, 35, 36), did not produce specific fluorescence (Figs. 5D and 6A). However, both YFP-N- $\beta_2$  (Fig. 5, E and F) and YFP-C- $\gamma_1$  (Fig. 5, A and G) produced fluorescent complexes upon co-expression with other binding partners.

Different YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  complexes exhibited distinguishable localization patterns (Figs. 5 and 6B). A distinct plasma membrane signal was obtained with YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_1$ , the  $\beta\gamma$  complex associated with transducin (Fig. 5A), and with YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (Fig. 5B), YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (Fig. 5C), YFP-N- $\beta_2$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (Fig. 5E), and YFP-N- $\beta_2$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (Fig. 5F), which have similar abilities to modulate the activities of adenylyl cyclase and phospholipase C (3). As quantified in Fig. 6, YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  exhibited the greatest amount of signal in the plasma membrane compared with the cytoplasm followed by YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  and then YFP-N- $\beta_1$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_1$  and YFP-N- $\beta_2$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$ . In contrast, none of the  $\beta_5$  complexes localized primarily to the plasma membrane. YFP-N- $\beta_5$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_1$  (Fig. 5G) predominantly exhibited a diffuse cytosolic pattern. YFP-N- $\beta_5$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  (Fig. 5H) targeted to intracellular

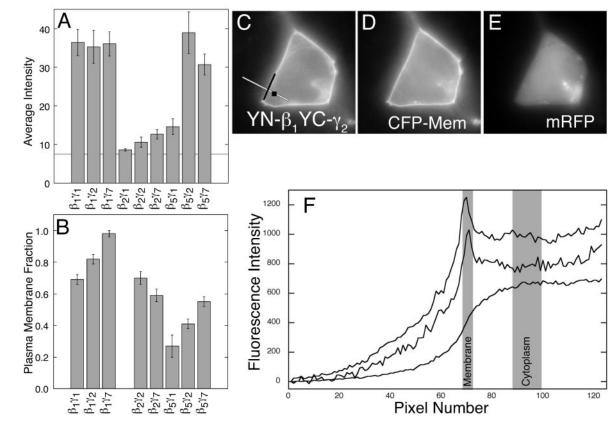


Fig. 6. Quantitative comparisons of YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  images. A, average fluorescence intensities of the different YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$ complexes. Intensity values correspond to a 1-s exposure with instrument background subtracted. The line at Average Intensity = 7.5 represents the value of YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  expressed alone. Because this YFP fragment does not contain the chromophore, this represents cellular autofluorescence, and images with values below this were not included in this analysis.  $\beta_2 \gamma_1$ , which does not form a functional dimer (2, 35, 36), exhibited a value just above this cut-off (8.62, S.E. = 0.31) in 8/46 images, whereas the other images collected for this combination fell below this cut-off. For  $comparison, 63/68 \text{ of } \beta_1\gamma_1 \text{ images, } 52/54 \text{ of } \beta_1\gamma_2 \text{ images, } 59/62 \text{ of } \beta_1\gamma_7 \text{ images, } 31/54 \text{ } \beta_2\gamma_2 \text{ images, } 28/56 \text{ } \beta_2\gamma_7 \text{ images, } 20/56 \text{ } \beta_5\gamma_1 \text{ images, } 51/52 \text{ } \beta_5\gamma_2 \text{ } \beta_$ images, and 63/74  $\beta_5 \gamma_7$  images had intensities above this cut-off. Values represent the mean intensities  $\pm$  S.E. of the images above the autofluorescence cut-off. B, plasma membrane fractions of the YFP-N- $\beta$ -YFP-C- $\gamma$  complexes. As described under "Experimental Procedures," cytoplasm intensity was measured in a region adjacent to the plasma membrane that was devoid of intracellular membranes, which were not quantified. A value of zero corresponds to a completely cytoplasmic distribution, and a value of one corresponds to a completely plasma membrane distribution. The plasma membrane fraction of  $\beta_2 \gamma_1$  is not included because the intensity of this combination was generally below the autofluorescence cut-off. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  S.E. of determinations using the same images with intensities above the autofluorescence cut-off as were used in A. C-F, illustration of plasma membrane fraction measurement using the cell shown in Fig. 4A. C, image of YFP-N- $\beta_1$ YFP-C- $\gamma_2$  with a black line marking the membrane pixels and a black square marking the cytoplasm pixels. A white line indicates the location of pixel intensities shown in F. YN indicates YFP-N, and YC indicates YFP-C. D, image of ECFP-Mem (plasma membrane marker). E, image of mRFP (cytoplasm marker); F, plot of fluorescence intensity along white line indicated in C. Top curve, ECFP-Mem; middle curve, YFP-N-β, YFP-C-γ,; bottom curve, mRFP. The location of the membrane pixels and cytoplasm pixels are indicated by the gray bars. The fluorescence intensities were scaled for clarity.

membranes, which appeared to include Golgi membranes, the endoplasmic reticulum, and the nuclear membrane, whereas YFP-N- $\beta_5$ -YFP-C- $\gamma_7$  (Fig. 5I) exhibited some signal in intracellular membranes, although generally not the nuclear membrane, and also some signal in the plasma membrane. As discussed below, the different localization patterns obtained with specific  $\beta\gamma$  complexes indicate that both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  play roles in determining subcellular localization.

# DISCUSSION

We have applied the strategy of BiFC (25) to image complexes of  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits. This strategy takes advantage of the ability of two nonfluorescent fragments of YFP to form a fluorescent signal when fused to the amino termini of  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits, which form a coiled-coil in the  $\beta\gamma$  structure (34). This method of imaging  $\beta\gamma$  subunits is superior to imaging  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits that are individually tagged with GFP derivatives for several reasons. First, individually tagged  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ , when expressed together, are unable to modulate the activity of adenylyl cyclase, although each is functional when co-expressed with an untagged binding partner, indicating that simultaneously

placing GFP derivatives at the amino termini of both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  is disruptive. This result suggests that FRET experiments using CFP and YFP-tagged  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits are not optimal ways to measure assembly of functional dimers, although in assays of calcium channel regulation functionality of such dimers has been reported (39, 40). Second, the localization patterns of  $\beta\gamma$ complexes imaged using BiFC differ from those of individually tagged subunits, generally exhibiting a more pronounced plasma membrane localization. In addition to localizing to the plasma membrane, GFP-β<sub>1</sub> displayed a diffuse cytosolic pattern, whereas CFP- $\gamma_2$  and CFP- $\gamma_7$  localized to intracellular membranes. Because  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are only functional when assembled into dimers, these additional locations of individually tagged subunits may either reflect unassembled proteins targeted for degradation or complexes of labeled proteins with endogenous binding partners. In contrast, the BiFC method ensures that only specific functional  $\beta\gamma$  complexes are visualized. We have demonstrated that this method can be used to determine which  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits form complexes *in vivo* and to compare the relative amounts of complex formation and

subcellular localization patterns of different complexes.

Taken together with previous studies our results indicate that the G protein  $\alpha,\,\beta,$  and  $\gamma$  subunits all play roles in mutually targeting each other to the plasma membrane. Our studies indicate a role for the  $\beta$  subunit in targeting  $\gamma$  in that complexes containing  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  localized to the plasma membrane, whereas those containing  $\beta_5$  accumulated in the cytosol or on intracellular membranes. Previously,  $\beta\gamma$  was demonstrated to play a role in targeting the  $\alpha$  subunit in that specific  $\beta\gamma$  combinations exhibited differing abilities to restore plasma membrane targeting to  $\alpha_{\rm s}$  and  $\alpha_{\rm q}$  mutants with decreased abilities to interact with  $\beta\gamma$  (20), and a  $\gamma$  subunit targeted to the mitochondria caused  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  to mislocalize (23). Conversely, under certain conditions co-expression of  $\alpha_{\rm s}$  is required to target  $\beta_1\gamma_2$  to the plasma membrane, and an  $\alpha_{\rm s}$  mutant that is targeted to the mitochondria brings  $\beta_1\gamma_2$  with it (24).

The different localization patterns obtained with specific  $\beta\gamma$ complexes indicate that both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  play roles in determining subcellular localization. Based on the complexes we have studied, these roles appear to be distinct. Comparisons of dimers containing different  $\beta$  subunits indicate a role for the  $\beta$  subunit in determining whether the dimer localizes to the plasma membrane or intracellular membranes. In contrast, the γ subunit generally determined the degree of membrane association but did not specify whether the dimer localized to the plasma membrane or intracellular membranes. Dimers containing  $\gamma_2$ or  $\gamma_7$  associated with membranes to a greater extent than those containing  $\gamma_1$ , consistent with the fact that  $\gamma_1$  is farnesylated, whereas the other  $\gamma$  subunits are gernanylgeranylated. The 20-carbon isoprenoid geranylgeranyl is more hydrophobic than the 15-carbon farnesyl group and  $\beta_1 \gamma_1$ , but not geranylgeranylated  $\beta \gamma$  dimers, are soluble in the absence of detergents (22). However, in the context of  $\beta_5$ , the  $\gamma$  subunit also played a role in determining to which membranes the dimer localized in that  $\beta_5 \gamma_2$  and  $\beta_5 \gamma_7$  exhibited distinguishable membrane localization patterns. Perhaps in the case of  $\beta_5 \gamma$  compared with  $\beta_1 \gamma$  and  $\beta_2 \gamma$ dimers, the  $\gamma$  subunit plays a more dominant role in membrane targeting because  $\beta_5$  exhibits relatively weak interactions with endogenous  $\alpha$  subunits, as discussed below.

Localization of  $\beta_5 \gamma$  dimers to intracellular membranes rather than the plasma membrane could either indicate a direct targeting role for  $\beta$  or an indirect role related to association with  $\alpha$  subunits. Previous studies suggest that palmitoylation of the  $\alpha$  subunit is important for plasma membrane targeting because efficient plasma membrane targeting of  $\beta_1 \gamma_2$  expressed in HEK-293 cells required either co-expression of  $\alpha_s$  or introduction of a palmitoylation site into  $\gamma_2$  (24). We observed efficient localization of BiFC  $\beta_1 \gamma_2$  to the plasma membrane in the absence of co-expressed  $\alpha$  subunits, but this could be due to association with endogenous  $\alpha$  subunits. Based on fluorescence intensity, the  $\beta_5 \gamma$  dimers were expressed at similar or lower levels compared with other  $\beta\gamma$  dimers that associated primarily with the plasma membrane. However, since  $\beta_5 \gamma_2$  interacts with  $\alpha_{\rm o}$ , but not other  $\alpha$  subunits in vitro (41), relatively weak interactions with endogenous  $\alpha$  subunits might explain the localization pattern observed for  $\beta_5 \gamma$  dimers. One model for targeting of  $\alpha\beta\gamma$  heterotrimers, based on a study in which CFP- $\alpha_{i2}$  and YFP- $\gamma_2$  co-localized in both the region of the Golgi apparatus and the plasma membrane (42), proposes that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta \gamma$  associate on the Golgi apparatus, where the  $\alpha$  subunit is palmitoylated, leading to targeting of the heterotrimer to the plasma membrane. Future studies will investigate the potential role of  $\alpha$  subunits in regulating localization of  $\beta_5 \gamma$  dimers.

Functionality of  $\beta_5\gamma_2$  dimers has been demonstrated in that they can inhibit G protein-gated inwardly rectifying K<sup>+</sup> channels (43) and activate phospholipase C. Both  $\beta_5\gamma_1$  (44) and  $\beta_5\gamma_7$ 

(45) can also stimulate phospholipase C, but only modestly compared with  $\beta_5\gamma_2$ . However, when purified from native tissues,  $\beta_5$  is associated with RGS proteins that contain  $G\gamma$ -like domains, such as RGS7, with which it is associated in the brain (46). In PC12 cells, endogenously expressed  $\beta_5$  and RGS7 colocalize in the nucleus (47). Interaction with RGS7 is required for nuclear localization because  $\beta_5$  mutants that can dimerize with  $\gamma_2$ , but not RGS7, are excluded from the nucleus (48). In addition, co-expression of  $\beta_5$  and RGS6 promotes co-localization of both proteins in the nucleus (49). Our demonstration that  $\beta_5\gamma$  complexes localize to intracellular membranes, including the nuclear membrane, but are excluded from the nucleus itself is consistent with these previous studies. Future studies will directly compare the localization of  $\beta_5$  when complexed with either  $\gamma$  subunits or RGS proteins with  $G\gamma$ -like domains.

In some cases, differential localization patterns of G protein subunits may be due to differences in their association with membrane microdomains such as caveolae and focal adhesions (50–52). Cell-specific expression of these membrane domains may be responsible for differences in G protein subunit association observed in different cell types (53). In turn, differences in heterotrimer composition may account for cell-specific effects of receptors as well as the diverse cellular effects of receptors that apparently couple to the same G proteins. Application of the BiFC method to visualize specific  $\beta\gamma$  dimers in a wide variety of cells and tissues with distinctive morphologies will help to elucidate the ways in which subcellular localization can regulate signaling pathways.

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