Stimulation of Mammalian G-protein-responsive Adenylyl Cyclases by Carbon Dioxide* S

Received for publication, September 18, 2008, and in revised form, October 30, 2008 Published, JBC Papers in Press, November 13, 2008, DOI 10.1074/jbc.M807239200

Philip D. Townsend $^{\pm 1}$, Phillip M. Holliday $^{\pm \S 1}$, Stepan Fenyk $^{\pm}$, Kenneth C. Hess $^{\$}$, Michael A. Gray $^{\|}$, David R. W. Hodgson § , and Martin J. Cann $^{\pm 2}$

From the $^{\pm}$ School of Biological and Biomedical Sciences, the $^{\$}$ Department of Chemistry, Durham University, South Rd., Durham, DH1 3LE, United Kingdom, the [¶]Department of Pharmacology, Joan and Sanford I. Weill Medical College of Cornell University, New York, New York 10065, and the $^{\parallel}$ Institute for Cell and Molecular Biosciences, The Medical School, Newcastle University, Framlington Place, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE2 4HH, United Kingdom

Carbon dioxide is fundamental to the physiology of all organisms. There is considerable interest in the precise molecular mechanisms that organisms use to directly sense CO₂. Here we demonstrate that a mammalian recombinant G-protein-activated adenylyl cyclase and the related Rv1625c adenylyl cyclase of Mycobacterium tuberculosis are specifically stimulated by CO₂. Stimulation occurred at physiological concentrations of CO₂ through increased k_{cat} CO₂ increased the affinity of enzyme for metal co-factor, but contact with metal was not necessary as CO₂ interacted directly with apoenzyme. CO₂ stimulated the activity of both G-protein-regulated adenylyl cyclases and Rv1625c in vivo. Activation of G-protein regulated adenylyl cyclases by CO₂ gave a corresponding increase in cAMP-response element-binding protein (CREB) phosphorylation. Comparison of the responses of the G-protein regulated adenylyl cyclases and the molecularly, and biochemically distinct mammalian soluble adenylyl cyclase revealed that whereas G-protein-regulated enzymes are responsive to CO₂, the soluble adenylyl cyclase is responsive to both CO2 and bicarbonate ion. We have, thus, identified a signaling enzyme by which eukaryotes can directly detect and respond to fluctuating CO2.

Inorganic carbon $(C_i)^3$ is central to prokaryotic and eukaryotic physiology. The predominant biologically active forms of C_i are CO₂ and HCO₃ and their relative contributions to the total C_i pool are pH-dependent. Biological roles for CO₂ and HCO_3^- include photosynthetic carbon fixation (1), pH homeostasis (2), carbon metabolism (3), activation of virulence in pathogenic organisms (4), sperm maturation (5), and as an alarmone in *Drosophila* (6, 7).

Given its importance in biology, the identification of CO₂ responsive signaling pathways is key to understanding how organisms cope with fluctuating CO_2 . Two seven transmembrane receptors, Gr21a and Gr63a, have been shown to confer CO₂ responsiveness in *Drosophila* neurons (6, 7). Guanylyl cyclase D expressing olfactory neurons also mediate sensitivity to CO₂ in mice (8). A role for cGMP-activated channels in CO₂ sensing has been observed in CO2 avoidance behavior in Caenorhabditis (9, 10). Despite these impressive advances, no eukaryotic signaling enzymes unequivocally demonstrated to respond to CO₂ have been identified.

The mammalian soluble adenylyl cyclase (sAC) synthesizes the second messenger 3',5'-cAMP and is directly stimulated by HCO₃⁻ (11–13). Stimulation of sAC by HCO₃⁻ has an unequivocal role in sperm maturation (5, 14-16). sAC is a member of the Class III family of adenylyl cyclases (ACs), a family that also includes the G-protein-regulated ACs and many examples from prokaryotic genomes (17, 18). The Class III ACs can be divided into four subclasses (a-d) based upon polymorphisms within the active site (19). sAC is a member of Class IIIb, a subclass characterized partly by replacement of a substrate binding Asp with Thr. The Class IIIa ACs include the mammalian G-protein-stimulated ACs and numerous prokaryotic examples. These have been previously assumed to be non-responsive to C_i (12).

All prokaryotic Class IIIb ACs examined to date respond to Ci including enzymes from organisms as diverse as Anabaena PCC 7120, Mycobacterium tuberculosis, Stigmatella aurantiaca, and Chloroflexus aurantiacus (20, 21). Two Class IIIb ACs, Slr1991 of Synechocystis PCC 6803 and CyaB1 of Anabaena PCC 7120, have been proven to respond to CO₂ and not HCO₃, giving rise to the idea of AC as a true gas-sensing molecule (22, 23). The finding that Class IIIb ACs respond to CO₂ and not HCO₃ necessitates an examination of the assumption that G-protein-regulated ACs and related prokaryotic enzymes do not respond to C_i.

Here we demonstrate, contrary to previous work, that a recombinant G-protein-regulated AC and the Class IIIa Rv1625c AC of M. tuberculosis H37Rv show a pH-dependent response to C_i due to specific stimulation by CO₂ at physiologically relevant concentrations. CO2 interacted directly with the apoprotein and modulated the activity of both the prokaryotic enzyme and G-proteinregulated AC in vivo. Finally, we contrasted the responses of sAC- and G-protein-regulated ACs to different species of C_i



^{*} This work was supported by the Wellcome Trust, the Leverhulme Trust, and the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council. The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact. *Author's Choice—Final version full access.

 $^{{}^{{}}_{{}^{{}_{{}}}}}$ The on-line version of this article (available at http://www.jbc.org) contains supplemental Table 1.

¹ These authors contributed equally to this work.

² To whom correspondence should be addressed: School of Biological and Biomedical Sciences, Durham University, South Rd., Durham, DH1 3LE, UK. Tel.: 44-191-3341313; Fax: 44-191-3341201; E-mail: m.j.cann@durham.ac.uk.

³ The abbreviations used are: C_i, inorganic carbon; AC, adenylyl cyclase; sAC, soluble AC; CREB, cAMP-response element-binding protein; Mes, 2-[Nmorpholino]ethanesulfonic acid; Mops, 3-[N-morpholino]propanesulfonic acid; GTP γ S, guanosine 5'-3-O-(thio)triphosphate.

and propose that the mammalian cAMP signaling pathway is able to discriminate between CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ in vivo.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Recombinant Proteins—Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ wild type and mutant proteins, Slr1991¹²⁰⁻³³⁷ wild type and mutant proteins, recombinant protein corresponding to amino acids 1-469 of human sAC (truncated splice variant (13); sAC_T), recombinant protein corresponding to the first catalytic domain (amino acids 263– 476; 7C₁) of human AC type 7, and recombinant protein corresponding to the second catalytic domain (amino acids 821-1090; 2C₂) of rat AC type 2 were expressed and purified as previously described (22, 24-27). A mixture of 7C₁ with an excess of 2C₂ (7C₁·2C₂) represents a catalytically active G-protein responsive AC without the transmembrane domains of the native molecule. Recombinant protein representing the short splice variant of bovine $G_s\alpha$ was purified and activated with GTPγS·Mg²⁺ as previously described (28). Single amino acid mutations were introduced by site-directed mutagenesis using appropriate primers and the appropriate wild type construct as template. Double amino acid mutations were introduced by site-directed mutagenesis using appropriate primers and the appropriate single amino acid mutant construct as template. All constructs were confirmed by double-stranded sequencing. Mutagenic primer sequences are provided in Table S1. Plasmids encoding Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ K296A and D256A mutagenic proteins were a kind gift of Joachim Schultz (25).

Adenylyl Cyclase Assays—AC assays were performed at 37 °C (Rv1625c $^{204-443}$) or 30 °C (7C $_1$ ·2C $_2$) in a final volume of 100 μ l and contained 50 mm buffer, 2 mm [2,8-3H]cAMP (150 Bq), and $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ ATP (25 kBq) if not stated otherwise (29). Protein concentrations were adjusted to maintain substrate utilization at <10%. The following buffers were used at pH 6.5 (Mes), pH 7.0-7.5 (Mops), and pH 8.0-8.5 (Tris-hydrochloride). Enzyme, buffer, and substrate were prepared at the appropriate pH. CO₂ was quantified by titration against NaOH. Assay pH was stable over a period of at least 40 min. For dose-response experiments, NaHCO3 was added to the assay, and the CO2 concentration was calculated using the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation, and the total salt concentration was adjusted with NaCl. All errors correspond to the S.E. If absent, errors were smaller than the symbol used to depict the data point.

Adenylyl Cyclase Assays at C_i Disequilibrium—For C_i disequilibrium assays, dissolved CO2 was prepared by bubbling into double-distilled H₂O at 0 °C to saturation and quantified by titration against NaOH. NaHCO₃ and NaCl were prepared in double-distilled H_2O at 0 °C. CO_2 , HCO_3^- , or Cl^- were subsequently added to the assay at 0 °C simultaneous with substrate to the required concentration. Buffer and substrate for assays were prepared at the appropriate pH and temperature for the experiment. pH changes in assays were monitored using a pH electrode (Biotrode; Hamilton) connected to a computer with a PC card (Orion Sensorlink). The pH was measured in a time-driven acquisition mode in assays identical to those used for biochemistry. All pH measurements were accurate to ± 0.02 pH units (manufacturers specifications). All errors correspond to the S.E.

CO2 Activation of AC in Vivo-pCTXLacZ, a plasmid with lacZ expression driven from a cAMP-responsive promoter, and pQE30-Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ (25) were transformed into Escherichia coli M15 (pREP4). Cells were grown in Luria broth with 100 μ g ml^{-1} ampicillin, 50 μg ml^{-1} kanamycin, and 5 μg ml^{-1} tetracycline at 30 °C until an A_{600} of 0.6. Rv1625c^{204–443} protein production was induced with 30 μ M isopropyl 1-thio- β -D-galactopyranoside for 3 h. Cells were pelleted at $4000 \times g$ for 10 min and resuspended in Luria broth containing 50 mm Tris, pH 7.1. Cell suspensions were bubbled with either 10% (v/v) CO_2 in air or in air for 30 min at 30 °C. Cells were disrupted with 0.1 mg of sodium deoxycholate and 1% (v/v) toluene and mixed for 10 min at 30 °C. The lysate was made up to 50 mm sodium phosphate, pH 7.0, 0.5 mm ortho-nitrophenol-β-Dgalactopyranoside and incubated for 15 min at 30 °C. Reac-

CO₂ Binding Assays—1 ml of 50% (v/v) Sephadex G50 in 50 mm Mes, pH 6.5 (bed volume 0.5 ml), was pre-spun at $1500 \times g$ for 30 s. A freshly prepared binding reaction of 23 nmol of protein, 30 mm NaH¹⁴CO₃, pH 6.5, and 50 mm Mes, pH 6.5, (total volume 50 µl) was immediately added and centrifuged at $1500 \times g$ for 30 s, and the flow-through collected into 50 μ l of 2 м NaOH. Scintillation counting was used to measure ¹⁴C counts in the flow-through.

tions were stopped with 2 M sodium carbonate, and absorb-

ance was read at 420 nm. A standard curve was generated

using $0-250 \mu \text{M}$ ortho-nitrophenol.

Measurement of Intracellular pH—HEK 293T cells attached to a 24-mm diameter glass coverslip were loaded with the pHsensitive fluorescent dye 2',7'-bis(carboxyethyl)-5(6)-carboxyfluorescein (BCECF) through exposure to 1 μ M BCECF-AM (an acetoxymethyl ester derivative) for 30 min. Intracellular pH was measured by exciting a small patch of cells at 490 and 440 nm using a microspectroflourometric system and measuring emission at 535 nm. pH, was calibrated using the high potassium nigericin method (30).

cAMP Accumulation in Vivo-HEK 293T cells were cultured in 12-well plates and labeled overnight with 1.5 μ Ci of [3 H]adenine at 80 - 90% confluence. Cells were washed with phosphatebuffered saline solution and incubated at the required CO₂ concentration in preincubation media (10 mM HEPES-NaOH, 117 mm NaCl, 4.5 mm KCl, 1 mm MgCl₂, 11 mm glucose, 10 mm sucrose, and 2.5 mm CaCl₂) containing 1 mm isobutylmethylxanthine. Preincubation mixes were pre-gassed with the desired CO₂ concentration and adjusted to pH 7.0. The assay was initiated after 30 min by the addition of agonist and incubated at the required CO₂ concentration. Assays were stopped with 5% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid containing 1 mm ATP and 1 mm cAMP. Products were quantified by twin column chromatography (29). For immunoblotting, samples were harvested after treatment as above except in the absence of [3H]adenine and isobutylmethylxanthine. Immunoblotting was performed using standard methodologies with anti-phospho-CREB (Ser¹³³) and anti- α -tubulin as load control.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The M. tuberculosis H37Rv genome contains at least 15 putative ACs and one cAMP phosphodiesterase, suggesting an important role for cAMP in the physiology of Mycobacterium



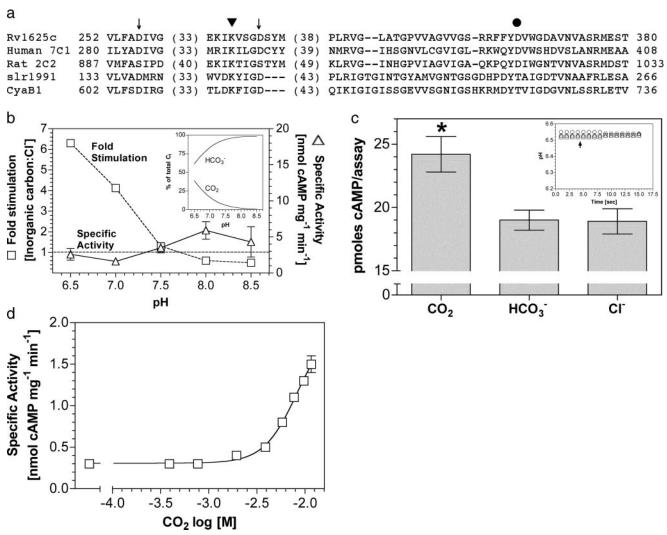


FIGURE 1. Rv1625c is stimulated by CO2. a, alignment of the catalytic domains of Rv1625c, human AC type 7 C1 domain, rat AC type 2 C2 domain, Slr1991 of Synechocystis, and CyaB1 of Anabaena. Numbers denote the amino acid sequence number. Arrows indicate conserved metal binding aspartate residues. The triangle indicates the substrate binding lysine residue, and the circle is the polymorphic D/T of Class Illa/b ACs. b, ratio of the specific activities of Rv1625c^{204–443} when assayed in the presence of 30 mm total C_i or NaCl at various pH values (1.8 μ m protein, 200 μ m Mn²⁺-ATP, n=8). The inset shows the percentage of total C_i made up by CO_2 and HCO_3 over the pH range tested. The figure shows specific activity in the presence of 20 mm NaCl (*triangles, right-hand axis*) and relative stimulation with Ci (*squares, left hand axis*). c, cAMP produced by Rv1625c^{204–443} under conditions of C_i disequilibrium (36 μ m Rv1625c^{204–443}, 0 °C, 10 s, 20 mm CO₂, 20 mm NaCl, 100 mm Mes, pH 6.5, 200 μ m Mn²⁺-ATP, n=20; *, p<0.05). The *inset* shows a representative control experiment demonstrating that the pH was identical in all assays (*circles*, NaCl; *triangles*, NaHCO₃; *squares*, CO₂; *arrow*, assay start point). d, Rv1625c^{204–443} specific activity (n=6) was plotted against increasing CO₂. The assay mixture contained 433 nm protein and 200 μ m Mn²⁺-ATP, pH 6.5. The total salt concentration was adjusted to 30 mm for all data points.

(31–34). cAMP is implicated in the pathogenesis of mycobacteria, and CO₂ has been suggested as a signal to enable Mycobacterium to avoid phagosomal acidification (35, 36). The Rv1625c gene of M. tuberculosis encodes an enzyme consisting of six putative transmembrane helices and a single Class IIIa AC catalytic domain (25, 37). The predicted topology, therefore, resembles one-half of a mammalian G-protein-regulated AC enzyme. A further similarity arises in the active site where six key catalytic residues distributed among the two catalytic domains of the G-protein-regulated ACs are present in Rv1625c to generate a homodimeric enzyme with two active sites (Fig. 1*a*).

The Class IIIa Rv1625c AC was reported to be insensitive to C_i under experimental conditions where HCO₃ was the predominant form of C_i. We expressed the AC domain of Rv1625c as a recombinant protein (Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³) and investigated the response of enzyme to constant C_i at varying pH (Fig. 1b). Relative stimulation (C_i:Cl⁻) varied from less than 1 at pH 8.5 (0.1 $\,$ mm $\rm CO_2$, 19.6 mm $\rm HCO_3^-$, 0.3 mm $\rm CO_3^{-2-})$ to 6.3 at pH 6.5 (7.7 mm CO₂, 12.3 mm HCO₃). Stimulation of Rv1625c specific activity was most evident below pH 7.5, explaining a failure to previously observe a stimulation with C_i (20). A requirement for low pH to observe a response to C_i is consistent with a role for CO₂ as the activating species but may also be due to the altered protonation status of Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ limiting the ability of the enzyme to respond to HCO₃⁻ at higher pH. We, therefore, assayed Rv1625c^{204–443} under conditions of C_i disequilibrium to determine whether CO₂ or HCO₃ is the activating species (22, 38). AC assays performed under conditions of C_i disequilibrium exploit the fact that acquisition of the CO₂/HCO₃ equilibrium is significantly slowed at low temperature. We defined conditions for assaying AC under conditions of dis-

TABLE 1 Kinetic parameters for Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ and 7C₁·2C₂

433 n^M Rv1625c^{204–443} (n = 12) or 1.1 μ M 7C₁ and 5.8 μ M 2C₂ (n = 9) were assayed at pH 6.5 in the presence of 20 mm total salt (7.7 mm CO₂).

Parameter	Rv1625 ²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³		$7C_1 \cdot 2C_2$	
	Cl-	CO_2	Cl-	CO_2
$V_{ m max}$ (nmol of cAMP mg $^{-1}$ min $^{-1}$)	30.4 ± 0.8	76.0 ± 2.8	44.9 ± 2.8	76.4 ± 4.1
$K_{m[ATP]}$ (mm) (S.D.)	0.54 ± 0.02	1.72 ± 0.09	1.89 ± 0.25	2.04 ± 0.23
$k_{\rm cat}$ (s ⁻¹)	5.9	14.6	6.4	10.7

equilibrium by following the acquisition of the CO₂/HCO₃ equilibrium through measuring the pH of a weakly buffered (5 mm) Mes solution on the addition of 20 mm CO₂ or NaHCO₃ in the presence or absence of carbonic anhydrase at 0 °C (data not shown). In this manner we defined conditions for assaying AC under conditions of disequilibrium using 20 mm CO₂ or HCO₃ as a 10-s assay period at 0 °C after the addition of C_i. Under these conditions, C_i is predominantly in the form added to the assay (CO₂ or HCO₃) and has not significantly advanced toward the equilibrium determined by assay pH (clamped with 100 mm Mes in the actual AC assays). Control experiments demonstrated that under the conditions used for the assay final pH was equivalent when either CO₂, HCO₃, or Cl were added, demonstrating that any observed stimulation was due to addition of C_i and not a change in assay pH (Fig. 1c; inset). C_i disequilibrium assays proved that Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ responded to CO_2 and not HCO_3^- (Fig. 1c). This demonstrates that a Class IIIa AC is able to respond to C_i and confirms that the response is to CO₂, as with Class IIIb ACs.

Given the similarity in response to CO_2 seen in Rv1625c^{204–443} and Class IIIb ACs, we examined the kinetic parameters for Rv1625c and compared them to the Class IIIb ACs (Table 1). CO_2 stimulated $\mathrm{Rv}1625\mathrm{c}^{204-443}$ specific activity through an increase in k_{cat} , similar to findings with Class IIIb ACs, supporting the idea that the two subclasses share a similar mechanism of response to CO₂ (20, 22). A dose-response curve with increasing C_i revealed a 5-fold stimulation at 11.6 mм CO₂ (Fig. 1d). Concentrations over 12 mm caused a gradual decrease in specific activity from this peak, making an EC₅₀ impossible to unambiguously calculate. Stimulation was significant to a 95% confidence interval at 1.9 mm CO₂.

Given the clear relationship between Rv1625c and the Class IIIb ACs with respect to the kinetics of activation in response to CO₂, we investigated the activation mechanism. Mutation of a key substrate determining lysine (Lys-646) in the Class IIIb CyaB1 AC of *Anabaena* ablated the response of the enzyme to CO₂ (20). We generated recombinant protein for the corresponding mutation in Rv1625c (K296A) and assessed its response to CO₂. Surprisingly, Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ K296A retained responsiveness to CO2.4 This finding was not unique to Rv1625c as the corresponding mutation in the Class IIIb Slr1991 AC of Synechocystis (K177A) was also responsive to CO_2 . It is plausible that the substrate determining lysine is not actually a direct site of action for CO₂, and we sought evidence for an alternative binding site. C_i has been proposed to help

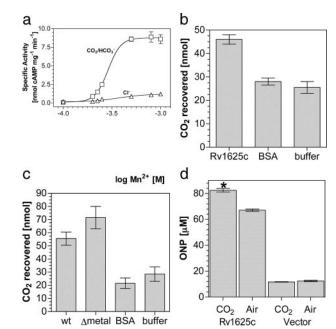


FIGURE 2. $\mathbf{CO_2}$ binds $\mathbf{Rv1625c}$ in vitro and activates in vivo. a, $\mathbf{Rv1625c}^{204-443}$ specific activity (n = 6) was plotted against increasing Mn²⁺. The assay mixture contained 1.8 µm protein and 200 µm Mn²⁺-ATP, pH 6.5, and 20 mm NaCl (triangles) or 20 mm NaHCO $_3$ (7.7 mm CO $_2$, squares). b, recovered CO $_2$ from a binding assay in the presence of Rv1625c $^{204-443}$, bovine serum albumin (BSA), or buffer alone. c, recovered CO $_2$ from a binding assay in the presence of Slr1991 $^{120-337}$ wild type (wt), Slr1991 $^{120-337}$ D137A D181A (Δ metal), BSA, or buffer alone. d, cAMP-dependent lacZ activity in *E. coli* under control (*vector*) conditions or in the presence of Rv1625c^{204–443} in samples treated with air or 10% (v/v) $\rm CO_2$ in air (n = 9; *, p < 0.05). The y axis denotes the concentration of orthonitrophenol (ONP) in the lacZ assays performed.

recruit the second metal ion to the active site of the Class IIIb CyaC AC of Spirulina platensis (39). Assay of Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ at varying Mn²⁺ concentrations revealed that CO₂ increased the slope of the dose response (6.6) compared with NaCl (3.0), indicating an increase in cooperativity between binding sites (Fig. 2a). On the basis of their findings in CyaC, Steegborn et al. (39) suggested that C_i interacted directly with an active site metal ion. Given our findings on Mn2+ recruitment for Rv1625c, we further investigated this hypothesis. Attempts to identify the metal co-factor as a site of CO₂ interaction through enzyme assay proved uninformative, and we, therefore, developed an alternative methodology.

Radiolabeled CO₂ bound to protein has been previously recovered after mixing and rapid gel filtration (40). We, therefore, performed a binding analysis to examine the requirements for ${\rm CO_2}$ binding to enzyme. ${\rm CO_2}$ bound ${\rm Rv}1625^{204-443}$ with no requirement for metal or substrate (Fig. 2b). Identical results were obtained for the Class IIIb ACs Slr1991 and CyaB1.4 Control proteins including bovine serum albumin and an alternative hexahistidine-tagged protein⁴ showed recovery indistinguishable from buffer alone, indicating an absence of any specific CO₂ binding. These data would appear to eliminate a requirement for metal in the active site for CO₂ binding, but it is possible that metal co-purified with protein and remained bound to enzyme. We, therefore, investigated CO₂ binding in a mutant protein in which both metal binding aspartate residues were mutated to alanine (39, 41). The low yield of protein for Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ D256A/D300A made this experiment impossi-



⁴ P. D. Townsend, P. M. Holliday, D. R. W. Hodgson, and M. J. Cann, unpublished observations.

Adenylyl Cyclase and Carbon Dioxide

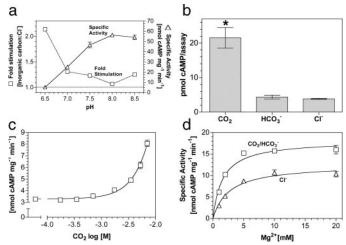


FIGURE 3. Stimulation of a G-protein regulated AC by CO₂ in vitro. a, ratio of the specific activities of 1.1 μ M 7C₁ and 5.8 μ M 2C₂ when assayed in the presence of 20 mm total C_i or NaCl at various pH values (500 μ m Mg²⁺-ATP, 7 μ M G α_{s} , n=6). The figure shows specific activity in the presence of 20 mM NaCI (triangles; right-hand axis) and relative stimulation with Ci (squares, lefthand axis). b, cAMP produced by 7C₁·2C₂ under conditions of C_i disequilibrium (20 μ M 7C₁, 3.2 μ M 2C₂, 0 °C, 10 s, 20 mM CO₂/NaHCO₃/NaCl, 100 mM Mes, pH 6.5, 1 mm Mg²⁺-ATP, 100 μ m forskolin, n = 6, *, p < 0.05). Control experiments demonstrated that the pH was identical in all assays. c, $7C_1 \cdot 2C_2$ specific activity (n=9) was plotted against increasing CO_2 at pH 6.5. The assay mixture contained 1.1 μ m $7C_1$, 5.8 μ m $2C_2$, 7 μ m $G\alpha_s$, and 500 μ m Mg^{2+} -ATP. The total salt concentration was adjusted to 30 mm for all data points. d, 7C₁·2C₂ specific activity (n = 6) was plotted against increasing Mg²⁺. The assay mixture contained 1.1 μ M 7C₁, 5.8 μ M 2C₂, 7 μ M G α _s, and 500 μ M Mg²⁺-ATP, pH 6.5, and 20 mm NaCl (triangles) or 20 mm NaHCO₃ (7.7 mm CO₂; squares).

ble for Rv1625c. We, therefore, performed the equivalent experiment in the mutant protein Slr1991¹²⁰⁻³³⁷ D137A/ D181A (Fig. 2c). This confirmed that CO₂ binding occurred in the absence of metal despite the fact that the protein was catalytically inactive. 4 At physiological pH and CO₂ concentrations, only N-terminal α -amino groups and lysine side chain ϵ -amino groups are likely to be sufficiently dissociated to react with CO₂ (42). This is borne out in crystal structures in which carbamates are formed at lysine side chain ϵ -amino groups (e.g. Refs. 43-45). It is also possible that changes in the local environment may permit arginine to participate in a CO₂ binding site (46). Our findings indicate that the hypothesis that C_i interacts with active site metal is incorrect and that future mechanistic studies should be directed toward sites within the apoprotein.

No prokaryotic ACs have been demonstrated to respond *in vivo* to increases in CO₂/HCO₃. This is of obvious importance if prokaryotic ACs are to be posited as sensors of CO₂. A demonstration that Rv1625c is responsive to CO2 in vivo is problematic as the numerous ACs in Mycobacterium make specific effects on Rv1625c impossible to distinguish. We, therefore, monitored the activity of Rv1625c expressed in E. coli using a cAMP responsive lacZ reporter construct as a suitable alternative. Using cAMPdriven expression of lacZ as readout, we observed a consistent increase in Rv1625c^{204–443} activity at elevated CO₂ (Fig. 2d). LacZ produced due to endogenous cAMP was not responsive to CO₂ (Fig. 2d, Vector). As transcription of the E. coli cya gene (the Class I E. coli AC) is down-regulated by cAMP, expression of Rv1625c²⁰⁴⁻⁴⁴³ likely reduced endogenous cAMP production and eliminated the possibility that our observations were due to the

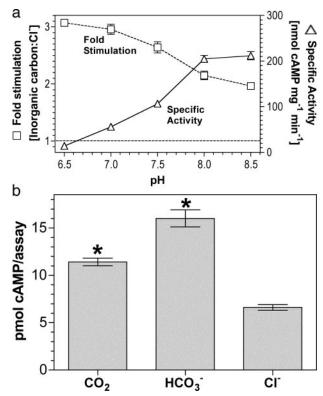


FIGURE 4. sAC is activated by CO_2 and HCO_3^- . a, 300 ng of sAC_T was assayed at 30 °C for 30 min with 0.8 mm ATP, 5 mm MgCl₂, and 5 mm CaCl₂ and either 20 mm total Ci or NaCl (n = 4). The figure shows specific activity in the presence of 20 mm NaCl (triangles; right-hand axis) and relative stimulation with Ci (squares; left-hand axis). b, 5 μ g of sAC_T was assayed at 0 °C for 10 s at pH 6.4 with 0.8 mm ATP, 5 mm MgCl₂, and 5 mm CaCl₂ with either 20 mm CO₂, NaHCO₃, or NaCl (n = 15; *, p < 0.05).

endogenous Cya AC (47). This demonstrates that a prokaryotic AC can be stimulated by CO₂ in an intact bacterium and, thus, fulfils a key criterion for AC as a functional CO₂ sensor in bacteria.

Building on our findings with Rv1625c, we investigated CO₂ as a stimulating ligand for a related mammalian G-protein regulated AC, an experiment of some importance as CO₂-stimulated signaling enzymes are not known in eukaryotes (7C₁·2C₂; Fig. 1a). We investigated the response of $7C_1 \cdot 2C_2$ to 20 mm total C_i over the pH range 6.5–8.5 (Fig. 3a). Similar to Rv1625c, optimal stimulation of 7C₁·2C₂ by C_i occurred at low pH, suggesting a direct response to CO₂. Assay under conditions of C_i disequilibrium proved 7C₁·2C₂ was responsive to CO₂ but not HCO_3^- (Fig. 3b). A dose response with increasing CO_2 revealed a maximum 2–3-fold stimulation at 7 mM CO_2 (Fig. 3c). Specific activity decreased rather than plateaued at higher CO_2 concentrations; therefore, an E.C.₅₀ was impossible to calculate. Stimulation was significant to a 95% confidence interval at 1.7 mm CO_2 . Relative stimulation of $7C_1 \cdot 2C_2$ by CO_2 was similar when forskolin and/or $G\alpha_s$ were used to activate the enzyme, and CO_2 did not affect the affinity of $7C_1 \cdot 2C_2$ for $G\alpha_s$.⁴ CO_2 increased the affinity of $7C_1 \cdot 2C_2$ for its metal co-factor (Fig. 3d), indicating a common mechanism of activation with Rv1625c supported by kinetic analysis (Table 1).

As sAC is proposed but not proven to respond to HCO_3^- , we investigated any overlap in specificity for C_i between sAC and the G-protein regulated ACs. sAC_T relative stimulation $(C_i:Cl^-)$ varied from 2.0 at pH 8.5 to 3.1 at pH 6.5 (Fig. 4a). The



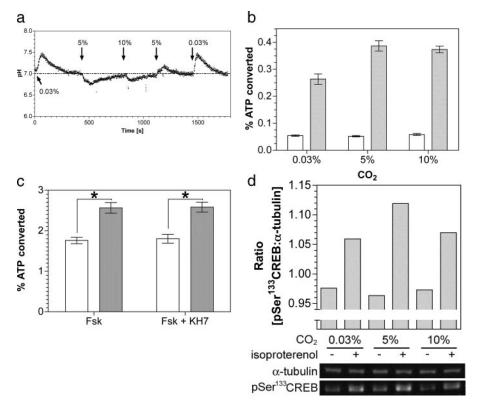


FIGURE 5. Stimulation of a G-protein regulated AC by CO₂ in vivo. a, monitoring of HEK 293T cell pH, in response to changing CO₂. b, percentage conversion of ATP into cAMP in HEK 293T cells exposed to varying CO_2 under basal conditions (empty bars) or in the presence of 50 nm isoproterenol (filled bars) (n = 12). c, percentage conversion of ATP into cAMP in HEK 293T cells exposed to air (0.03% CO₂; open bars) or 5% (v/v) CO_2 (filled bars) with 5 μ m forskolin and 1 μ m KH7 (n=12; *, p<0.05). d, lower panel shows immunoblot of HEK 293T cell material after treatment with and without isoproterenol at varying CO₂. The upper panel shows the ratio of phospho-CREB: α -tubulin bands from the quantified bands.

result at pH 8.5 is consistent with a role for HCO₃ as an activating ligand; however, the slight increase in -fold stimulation as pH is lowered suggests a response to CO₂. Under conditions of C_i disequilibrium, both CO₂ and HCO₃ stimulated sAC_T

We next investigated whether CO₂ stimulated G-protein activated cAMP signaling in vivo. As CO₂/HCO₃ is a potent biological buffer, we defined conditions under which changes in internal pH (pH_i) were minimized on changing CO₂. Moving from a lower to a higher CO2 concentration gave a transient cellular acidification and vice versa (Fig. 5a). Assays were, therefore, performed after allowing pH homeostasis to occur, although it is pertinent to note that G-protein-regulated ACs have been demonstrated to be offered some protection from changes in pH, through the action of Na^+/H^+ antiporters (48). Stimulation of G-protein-activated ACs with the β -adrenergic receptor agonist isoproterenol gave an increase in cAMP accumulation in 5% (v/v) CO₂ in air versus air (0.03% CO₂; atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ in solution are $\sim 0.015 \mu M$, although the true cellular concentration is likely to be higher due to the continual production of metabolic CO_2) (Fig. 5b). The magnitude of this response was similar to that observed when sAC was challenged with C_i in vivo (12, 13). No further stimulation was observed at 10% (v/v) CO₂ as it is likely that full CO₂ activation in a precise physiological setting requires an associated carbonic anhydrase to maintain CO₂ flux (49, 50). Similar results were obtained when cAMP production was stimulated with forskolin, indicating that the stimulating effect of CO₂ does not occur upstream of AC (Fig. 5c). The lack of stimulation by CO₂ in the absence of agonist for G-protein-regulated AC confirmed that sAC was not the source of cAMP. The inclusion of the antisAC inhibitor KH7 confirmed this finding (Fig. 5c). We assessed downstream activation of cAMP signaling by immunoblotting using an antibody against the phosphorylated form of the cAMP-dependent protein kinase target protein cAMP-response element-binding protein (CREB). A small but significant and independently repeatable increase in phosphorylation on serine 133 of CREB in the presence of agonist was observed at 5% (v/v) CO_2 compared with 0.03% (v/v) CO₂ (Fig. 5d).

Our findings demonstrate that the G-protein-activated ACs are specifically CO₂-activated signaling enzymes, and this is supported by similar data in a related prokaryotic enzyme. It is possible that our findings are specific only for the $7C_1 \cdot 2C_2$ protein used in this study, as any

amino acid residue(s) required for CO2 binding may not be conserved among G-protein-regulated ACs in general. We hypothesize, however, that CO₂ regulation will be a general feature of most if not all G-protein-activated AC isoforms. A diverse range of Class IIIa, -b, and -d ACs have been demonstrated to respond to C_i. Given the extent of sequence diversity between these AC subclasses, it is unlikely that the relatively closely related G-protein-regulated ACs of Class IIIa will differ significantly in their responses to CO₂, but an examination of individual isoforms will be required to formally prove this.

Importantly, our findings overturn previous assumptions about these enzymes as non-responsive to C_i. Furthermore, we demonstrate that CO2 interacts directly with apoprotein to stimulate metal recruitment and not through metal contact as previously proposed. We demonstrate that sAC is not the sole Ci-sensitive AC in mammals as thought and that sAC and G-protein-regulated ACs show differential sensitivity to C_i species with G-protein-regulated ACs responsive to CO2 and sAC responsive to HCO₃ and CO₂. Not only is the cAMP signaling pathway in its entirety, therefore, able to act as a sensing system for C_i, but different aspects of this pathway are able to discriminate between CO₂ and HCO₃. An interesting facet of this differential regulation is that sAC detection of C_i may be entirely independent of intracellular pH, whereas the G-protein-responsive AC signaling in response to C_i may occur predominantly under conditions of pathophysiology, e.g. severe respiratory acidosis or alkalosis. Some tissues are,

Adenylyl Cyclase and Carbon Dioxide

however, exposed to large variations in pCO₂ and have G-protein-activated cAMP signaling central to their physiology. The duodenum is exposed to a pCO₂ of up to 400 mm Hg, and the cAMP activated cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator is key to HCO₃⁻ secretion in this tissue (51). Acidification of the epididymal lumen with an associated low HCO₃ concentration is essential to maintain stored spermatozoa in a quiescent state (52). It might be envisaged that these conditions would be sufficient to maintain sAC in an inactive state, but our data demonstrating that sAC is able to respond to CO₂ suggest that this cannot be the sole mechanism for keeping sAC activity switched off. A potential specific role for CO₂ signaling through G-proteinregulated ACs is evident in respiratory alkalosis. A key marker of this systemic hypocapnia is a blunted phosphaturic response to cAMP signaling through parathyroid hormone and may be explained by reduced activation of AC in response to a lowered pCO₂ (53). Further to this, CO₂ is known to regulate cAMP concentrations in the carotid body, a peripheral chemosensor, independent of pH (54). Although a role for sAC versus G-protein-regulated ACs in this tissue remains to be investigated, the clear role for adenosine-mediated cAMP production in the carotid body is supportive of the latter (55).

As is the case with sAC, G-protein-regulated ACs respond to CO₂ with activation of downstream signaling molecules. Changes in cAMP concentrations and CREB activation are unlikely to be an artifact of the cell culture conditions used or the composition of the assay buffer as the results obtained are clearly corroborated by data using recombinant protein. Although the percentage activation of CREB detailed in this study is far below the increase in cAMP concentrations observed, it is important to consider that HEK 293T cells may not be representative of cAMP signaling systems that are responsive to CO2 in the organism (for example, see the hypothesized roles for cAMP signaling through CO2 discussed). Despite these drawbacks, the system used here has successfully demonstrated that CO2-regulated changes in hormone-activated cAMP concentrations can activate CREB phosphorylation. This is an important proof of principle even if the activation is not functional within the context of the HEK 293T cells used in this study. *In vivo* activation of AC is also conserved in a prokaryotic counterpart of the mammalian Class IIIa enzyme. Future research from these key findings should assess the role of G-protein-regulated ACs in response to fluctuating CO_2 as discussed. The cAMP signaling pathway, therefore, represents a novel signaling pathway able to directly respond to CO_2 in eukaryotes.

Acknowledgments—We thank Roger Sunahara, Matthew Wolfgang, Joachim Schultz, Lonny Levin, and Jochen Buck for the kind gift of reagents used in this work and Lonny Levin for comments on the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Falkowski, P. G., and Raven, J. A. (2007) Aquatic Photosynthesis, 2nd Ed., pp. 156–200, Princeton University Press, Princeton
- 2. Roos, A., and Boron, W. F. (1981) Physiol. Rev. 61, 296-434

- 3. Smith, K. S., and Ferry, J. G. (2000) FEMS Microbiol. Rev, 24, 335-366
- Bahn, Y. S., and Muhlschlegel, F. A. (2006) Curr. Opin. Microbiol. 9, 572–578
- Esposito, G., Jaiswal, B. S., Xie, F., Krajnc-Franken, M. A., Robben, T. J., Strik, A. M., Kuil, C., Philipsen, R. L., van Duin, M., Conti, M., and Gossen, J. A. (2004) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 101, 2993–2998
- 6. Jones, W. D., Cayirlioglu, P., Kadow, I. G., and Vosshall, L. B. (2007) *Nature* **445**, 86–90
- Kwon, J. Y., Dahanukar, A., Weiss, L. A., and Carlson, J. R. (2007) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 104, 3574–3578
- Hu, J., Zhong, C., Ding, C., Chi, Q. Y., Walz, A., Mombaerts, P., Matsunami, H., and Luo, M. M. (2007) Science 317, 953–957
- Bretscher, A. J., Busch, K. E., and de Bono, M. (2008) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 105, 8044 – 8049
- Hallem, E. A., and Sternberg, P. W. (2008) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 105, 8038 – 8043
- Buck, J., Sinclair, M. L., Schapal, L., Cann, M. J., and Levin, L. R. (1999) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 96, 79 – 84
- Chen, Y., Cann, M. J., Litvin, T. N., Iourgenko, V., Sinclair, M. L., Levin, L. R., and Buck, J. (2000) Science 289, 625–628
- 13. Jaiswal, B. S., and Conti, M. (2001) J. Biol. Chem. 276, 31698-31708
- Hess, K. C., Jones, B. H., Marquez, B., Chen, Y., Ord, T. S., Kamenetsky, M., Miyamoto, C., Zippin, J. H., Kopf, G. S., Suarez, S. S., Levin, L. R., Williams, C. J., Buck, J., and Moss, S. B. (2005) Dev. Cell 9, 249 –259
- 15. Xie, F., and Conti, M. (2004) Dev. Biol. 265, 196-206
- Xie, F., Garcia, M. A., Carlson, A. E., Schuh, S. M., Babcock, D. F., Jaiswal,
 B. S., Gossen, J. A., Esposito, G., van Duin, M., and Conti, M. (2006) *Dev. Biol.* 296, 353–362
- 17. Baker, D. A., and Kelly, J. M. (2004) Mol. Microbiol. 52, 1229-1242
- 18. Sunahara, R. K., and Taussig, R. (2002) Mol. Interv. 2, 168-184
- 19. Linder, J. U., and Schultz, J. E. (2003) Cell. Signal. 15, 1081-1089
- Cann, M. J., Hammer, A., Zhou, J., and Kanacher, T. (2003) J. Biol. Chem. 278, 35033–35038
- Kobayashi, M., Buck, J., and Levin, L. R. (2004) Dev. Genes Evol. 214, 503–509
- Hammer, A., Hodgson, D. R., and Cann, M. J. (2006) Biochem. J. 396, 215–218
- 23. Raven, J. A. (2006) Biochem. J. 396, e5-7
- Dessauer, C. W., and Gilman, A. G. (1996) J. Biol. Chem. 271, 16967–16974
- Guo, Y. L., Seebacher, T., Kurz, U., Linder, J. U., and Schultz, J. E. (2001) *EMBO J.* 20, 3667–3675
- Litvin, T. N., Kamenetsky, M., Zarifyan, A., Buck, J., and Levin, L. R. (2003)
 J. Biol. Chem. 278, 15922–15926
- 27. Yan, S. Z., and Tang, W. J. (2002) Methods Enzymol. 345, 231-241
- Lee, E., Linder, M. E., and Gilman, A. G. (1994) Methods Enzymol. 237, 146–164
- Salomon, Y., Londos, C., and Rodbell, M. (1974) Anal. Biochem. 58, 541–548
- Hegyi, P., Rakonczay, Z., Gray, M. A., and Argent, B. E. (2004) Pancreas 28, 427–434
- Shenoy, A. R., Capuder, M., Draskovic, P., Lamba, D., Visweswariah, S. S., and Podobnik, M. (2007) *J. Mol. Biol.* 365, 211–225
- 32. Shenoy, A. R., Sreenath, N., Podobnik, M., Kovacevic, M., and Visweswariah, S. S. (2005) *Biochemistry* 44, 15695–15704
- 33. Shenoy, A. R., and Visweswariah, S. S. (2006) *Trends Microbiol.* **14**, 543–550
- 34. Shenoy, A. R., and Visweswariah, S. S. (2006) FEBS Lett. 580, 3344-3352
- 35. Lowrie, D. B., Aber, V. R., and Jackett, P. S. (1979) *J. Gen Microbiol.* **110**,
- 36. Lowrie, D. B., Jackett, P. S., and Ratcliffe, N. A. (1975) Nature 254, 600 602
- Reddy, S. K., Kamireddi, M., Dhanireddy, K., Young, L., Davis, A., and Reddy, P. T. (2001) J. Biol. Chem. 276, 35141–35149
- 38. Cooper, T. G., and Filmer, D. (1969) J. Biol. Chem. 244, 1081-1083
- Steegborn, C., Litvin, T. N., Levin, L. R., Buck, J., and Wu, H. (2005) Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol. 12, 32–37
- 40. Lorimer, G. H. (1979) J. Biol. Chem. 254, 5599-5601



Adenylyl Cyclase and Carbon Dioxide

- 41. Tesmer, J. J., Sunahara, R. K., Johnson, R. A., Gosselin, G., Gilman, A. G., and Sprang, S. R. (1999) Science 285, 756-760
- 42. Lorimer, G. H. (1983) Trends Biochem. Sci. 8, 65-68
- 43. Golemi, D., Maveyraud, L., Vakulenko, S., Samama, J. P., and Mobashery, S. (2001) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 98, 14280-14285
- 44. Hall, P. R., Zheng, R., Antony, L., Pusztai-Carey, M., Carey, P. R., and Yee, V. C. (2004) EMBO J. 23, 3621-3631
- 45. Morollo, A. A., Petsko, G. A., and Ringe, D. (1999) Biochemistry 38, 3293-3301
- 46. Cotelesage, J. J. H., Puttick, J., Goldie, H., Rajabi, B., Novakovski, B., and Delbaere, L. T. J. (2007) Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol. 39, 1204-1210
- 47. Inada, T., Takahashi, H., Mizuno, T., and Aiba, H. (1996) Mol. Gen. Genet.
- 48. Willoughby, D., Masada, N., Crossthwaite, A. J., Ciruela, A., and Cooper, D. M. (2005) J. Biol. Chem. 280, 30864-30872

- 49. Klengel, T., Liang, W. J., Chaloupka, J., Ruoff, C., Schroppel, K., Naglik, J. R., Eckert, S. E., Mogensen, E. G., Haynes, K., Tuite, M. F., Levin, L. R., Buck, J., and Muhlschlegel, F. A. (2005) Curr. Biol. 15, 2021-2026
- 50. Missner, A., Kugler, P., Saparov, S. M., Sommer, K., Matthai, J. C., Zeidel, M. L., and Pohl, P. (2008) J. Biol. Chem. 283, 25340 -25347
- 51. Clarke, L. L., and Harline, M. C. (1998) Gastroenterology 114, 94
- 52. Pastor-Soler, N., Beaulieu, V., Litvin, T. N., Da Silva, N., Chen, Y., Brown, D., Buck, J., Levin, L. R., Breton, S., Sun, X. C., Zhai, C. B., Cui, M., and Bonanno, J. A. (2003) J. Biol. Chem. 278, 49523-49529
- 53. Hoppe, A., Metler, M., Berndt, T. J., Knox, F. G., and Angielski, S. (1982) Am. J. Physiol. 243, F471-F475
- 54. Summers, B. A., Overholt, J. L., and Prabhakar, N. R. (2002) J. Neuro*physiol.* **88,** 604 – 612
- 55. Chen, J., Dinger, B., and Fidone, S. J. (1997) J. Appl. Physiol. 82, 1771 - 1775

