

Chapter 7

Signaling through immune system receptors 免疫系統受器的訊息傳遞

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Learning objectives

- General principles of transmembrane signaling
- Antigen receptor structure and signaling pathways
- Other signaling pathways related to lymphocyte behavior

How do cells respond to external stimuli?

■ Recognition phase

- Ligand-receptor interaction
 - Ligand: antigen, pathogen, ...etc.
 - Receptor: membrane-bound proteins

■ Transmission phase

- 'signaling transduction'
 - Relays, sustains, and amplifies the signal onward
 - Lots of proteins involved

■ Response phase

- changes of cytoskeleton
- activation of secretory apparatus
- activation of effector cells (e.g. cytotoxic T cells)

Binding of Ag-receptors (early events)

- Conformational change of receptors
- Clustering of receptors
 - via cross-linking antigens
 - Anti-receptor Ab (at least bivalent is required)
 - Ag (e.g. bacteria) with repetitive epitopes
 - Degree of cross-linking determines the intensity of the signal transmitted
 - Proven true for B cells (Fig. 6.11)
 - Less certain for T cells (3 models) (Fig. 6.12 & 6.13)

Degree of cross-linking on receptor determines the signal intensity

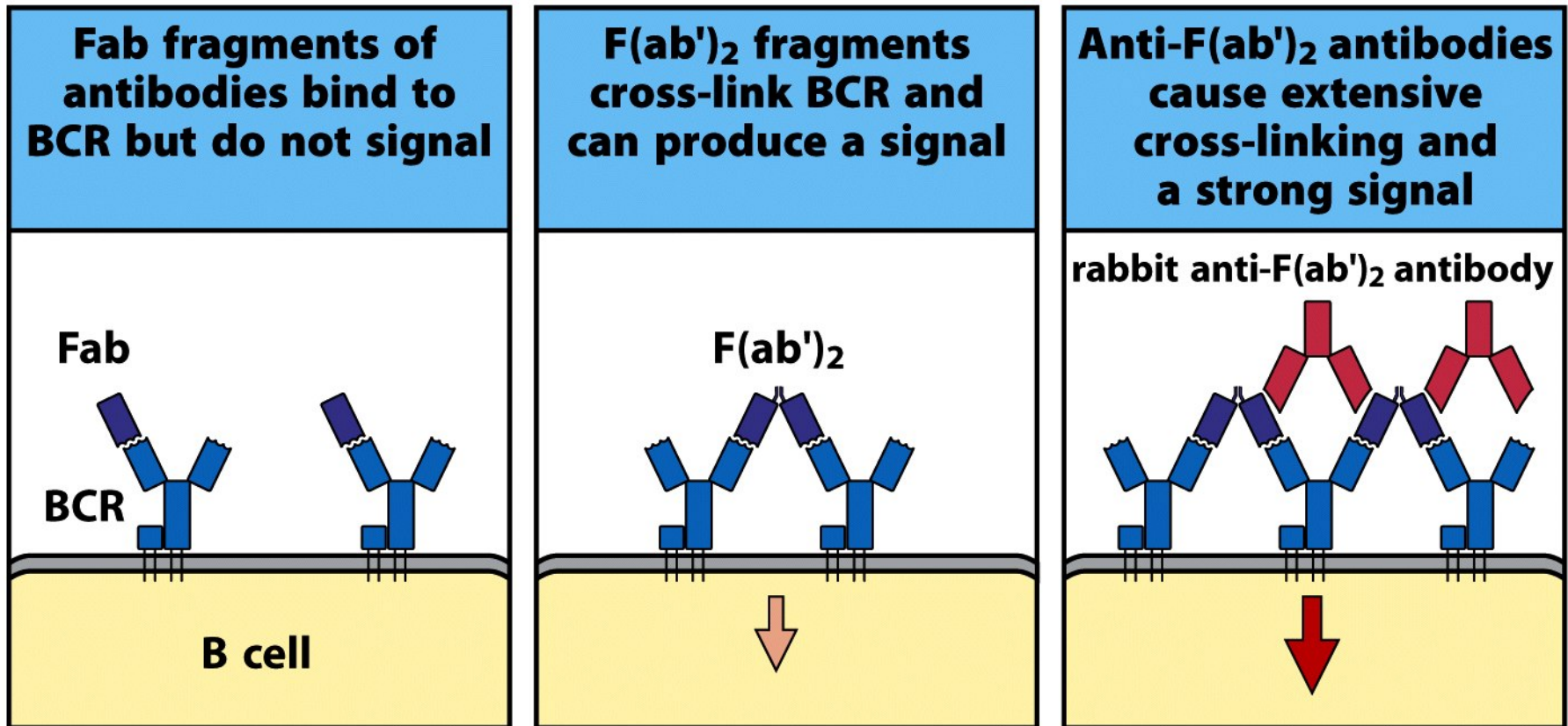


Figure 6-11 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

Signal intensity

None **Weak** **Strong**

Binding of Ag-receptors (late events)

- Activation of intracellular signal molecules
 - Protein tyrosine kinase (TK)
 - Phosphorylates tyrosine residue
 - Two types of TK
 - intrinsic TK (Fig 6.1)
 - Receptor itself possesses the TK activity
 - e.g. Kit receptor (CD117); although Kit is a non-Ag receptor
 - receptor-associated TK (non-receptor TK)
 - Activated receptor provides a docking site for other molecules that possess TK activity; e.g. receptor for TGF- β
- Final destination of the signal is the nucleus

(Fig. 7.1) Tyrosine kinase class I (intrinsic)

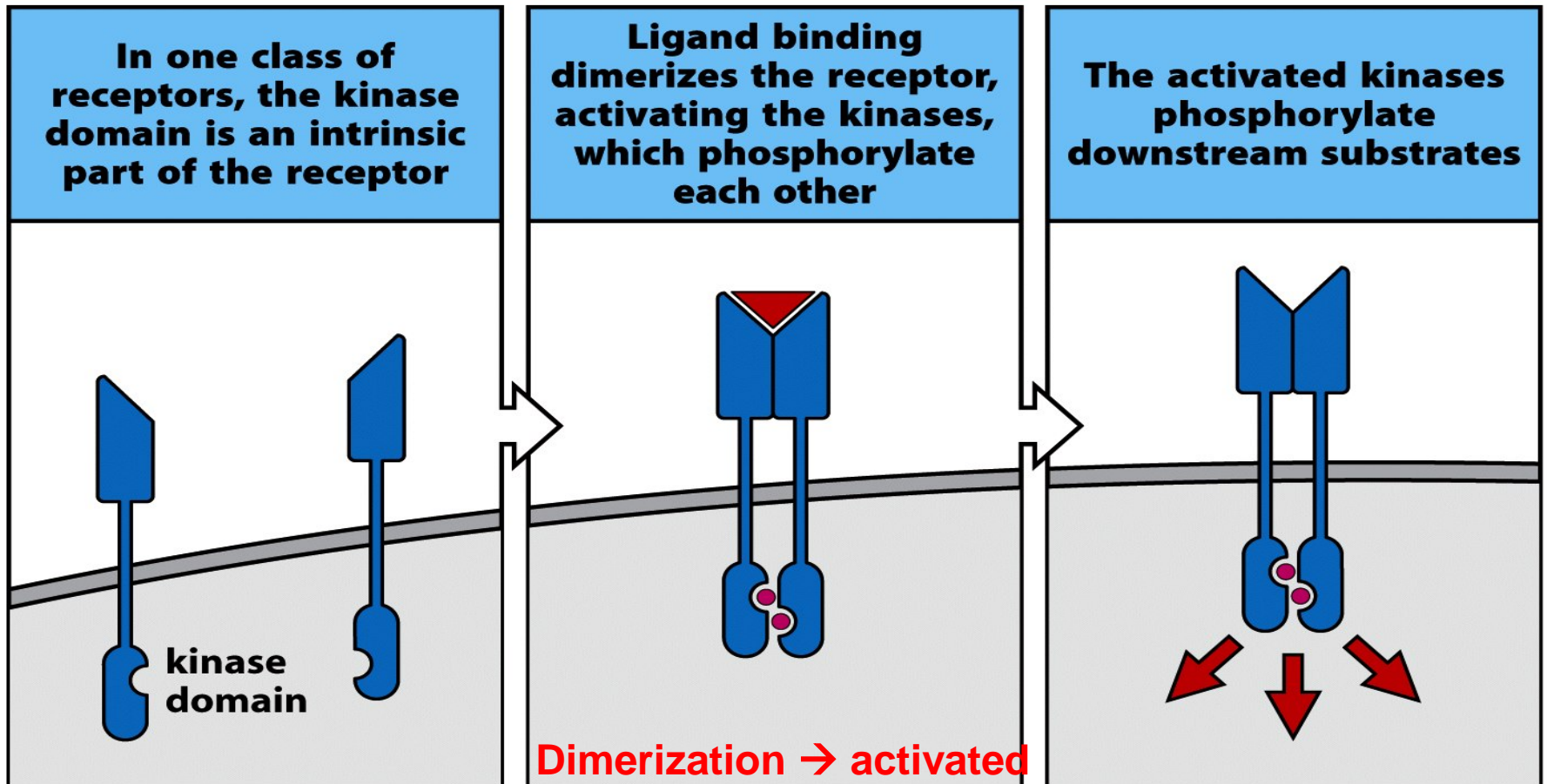


Figure 6-1 part 1 of 2 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

Tyrosine kinase class II (receptor-associated)

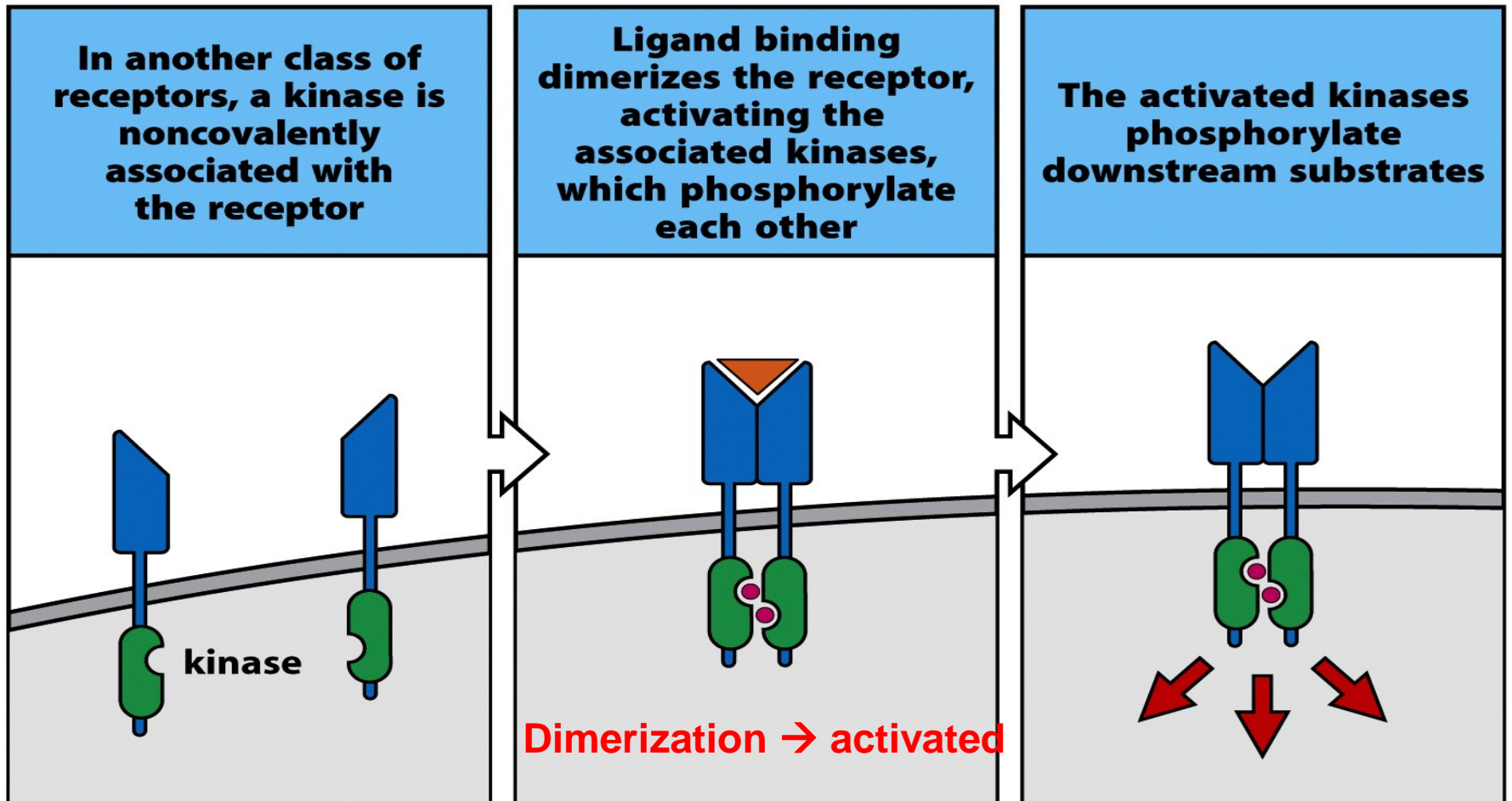


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Phosphorylation vs. Dephosphorylation

- Adding vs removing phosphate group onto/from a protein

- Amino acids:

- Tyr, Ser/Thr → involved in immune signaling
- His → not involved in immune signaling

- Via the action of

- Kinase or Phosphorylase (addition)
- Phosphatase (removal)

- Proteins then become either activated or inactivated (or vice versa)

Raf (a MAPKKK): Ser/Thr kinase
Mek (a MAPKK): dual Tyr/Thr kinase



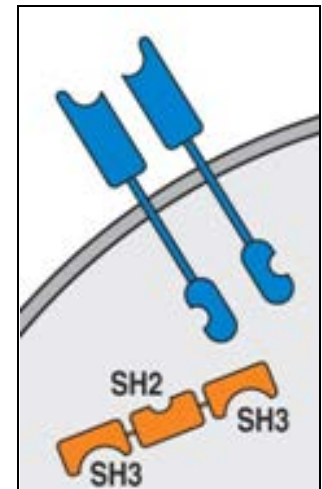
Kinase vs Phosphatase

Crucial outcomes of phosphorylation

- Activation of proteins
- Creation of binding sites on activated proteins
 - Recruitment of other non membrane-anchored signaling molecules involved in the cascade

Molecules in signaling pathways often contain the following structural domains:

1. SH2 → binds to Tyr-p
2. SH3 → bind to Proline-rich domain



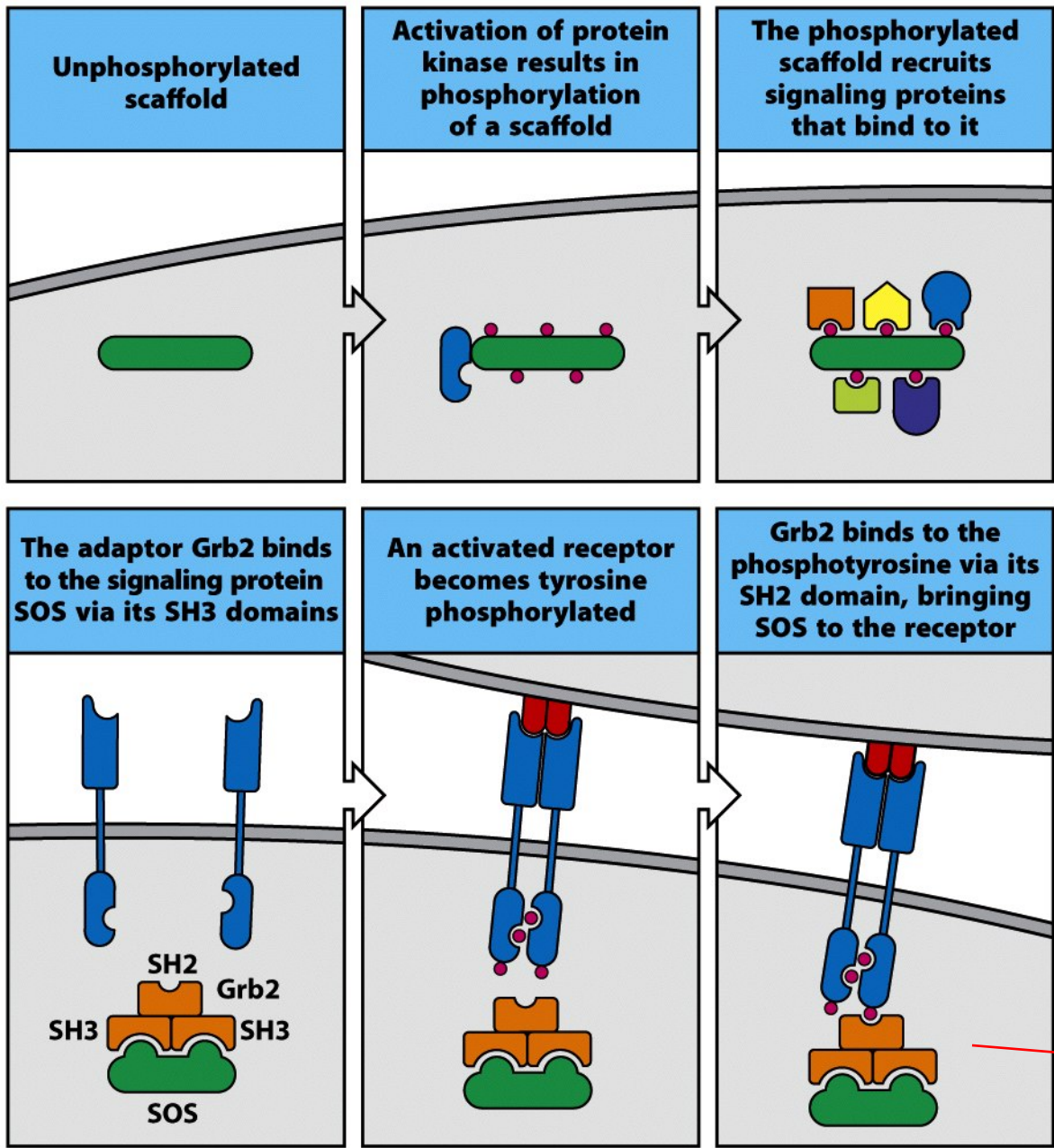
(Fig. 7.2) Signaling proteins interact via their modular protein domains

(Signaling molecules) (scaffold or adaptor molecules)

Protein domain	Found in	Ligand class	Example of ligand
SH2	Lck, ZAP-70, Fyn, Src, Grb2, PLC- γ , STAT, Cbl, Btk, Itk, SHIP, Vav, SAP, PI3K	phosphotyrosine	pYXXZ
SH3	Lck, Fyn, Src, Grb2, Btk, Itk, Tec, Fyb, Nck, GADS	proline	PXXP
PH	Tec, PLC- γ , Akt, Btk, Itk, SOS	phosphoinositides ⁱ	PIP ₃ ⁱ
PX	P40 ^{phox} , P47 ^{phox} , PLD	phosphoinositides	PIP ₂
PDZ	CARMA1	C termini of proteins	IESDV, VETDV

Figure 6-2 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

(Fig. 7.3) Formation of signaling complexes



Via **scaffold protein**
 → Phosphorylation first
 → Recruitment of signaling proteins to its Tyr-p sites

Via **adaptor protein**
 → Bound by other signaling protein (via SH3 domain)
 → Binds to activated receptor (via its SH2 domain)

Signal is passed to downstream '**small G proteins**' (Fig. 6.5)

Figure 6-3 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

Signal amplification (1)

(Fig. 7.7) Small initial signal intensity can be amplified by relaying proteins

Small G proteins = Small GTPases = G-proteins
(e.g. Ras GTPase)

MAPKKK (activated by small G proteins)



phosphorylates (on Ser/Thr)

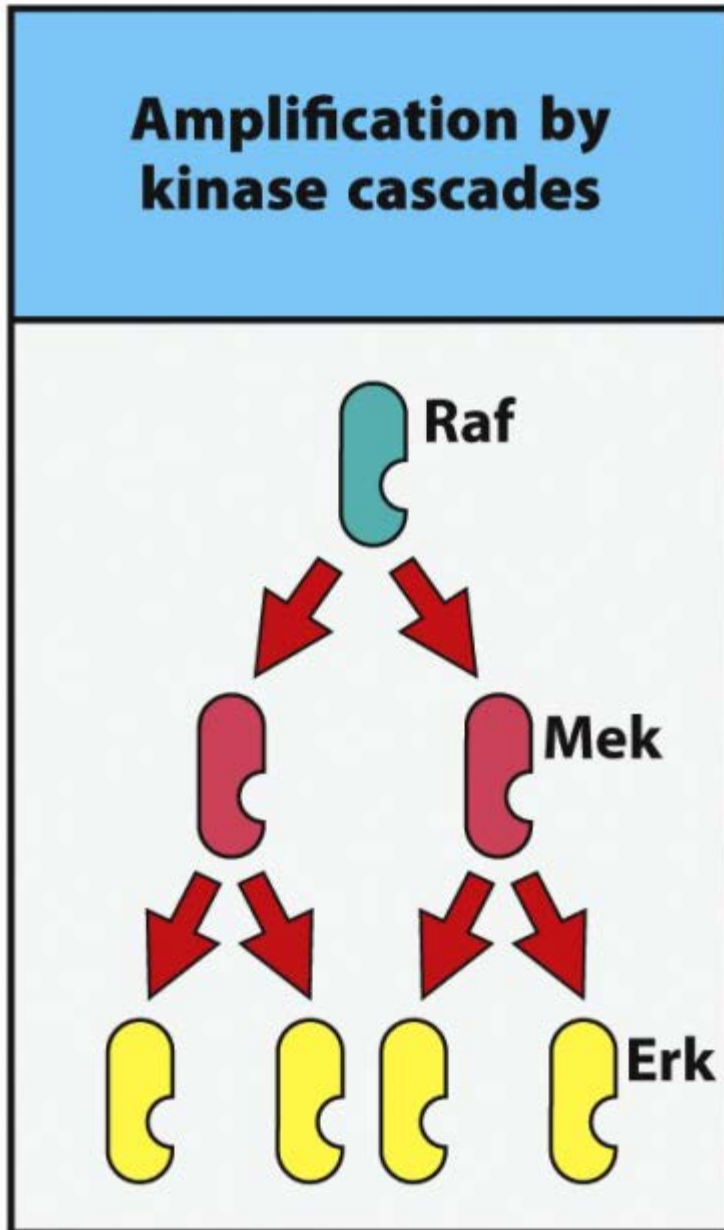
MAPKK



phosphorylates (on Tyr/Thr)

MAPK (mitogen-activated protein kinase)

Fig. 6.4-L



Signaling causes the generation of small-molecule ('second messenger')

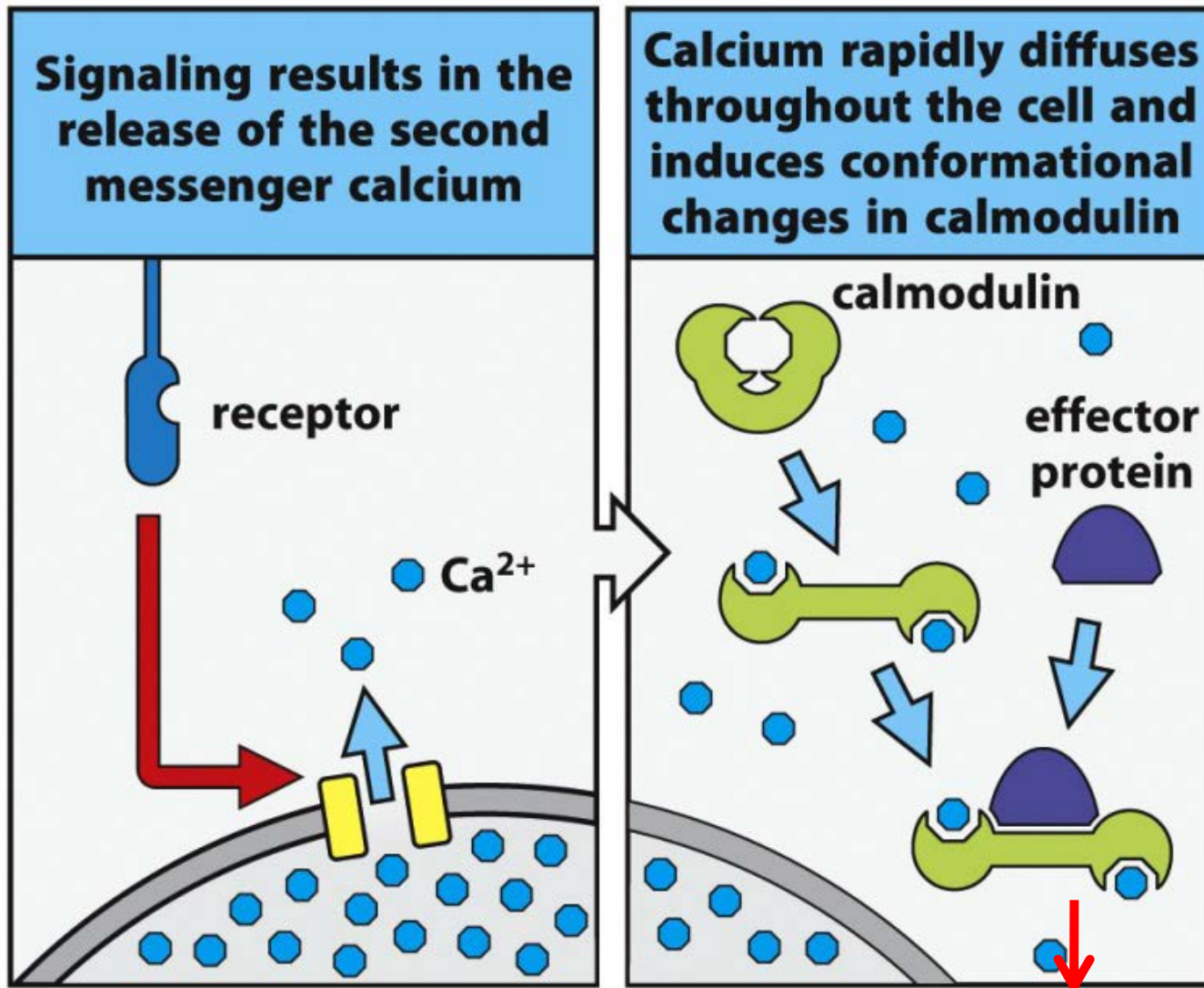
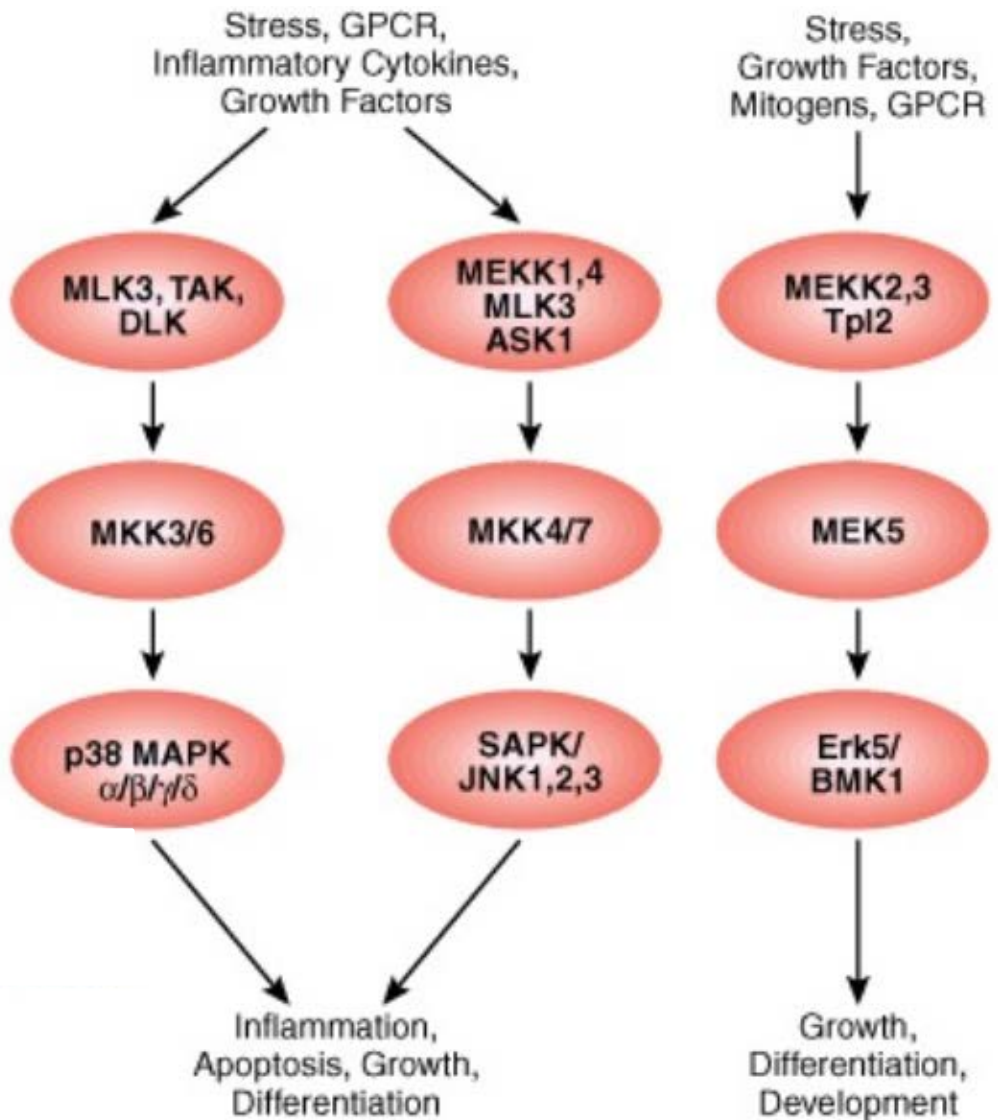
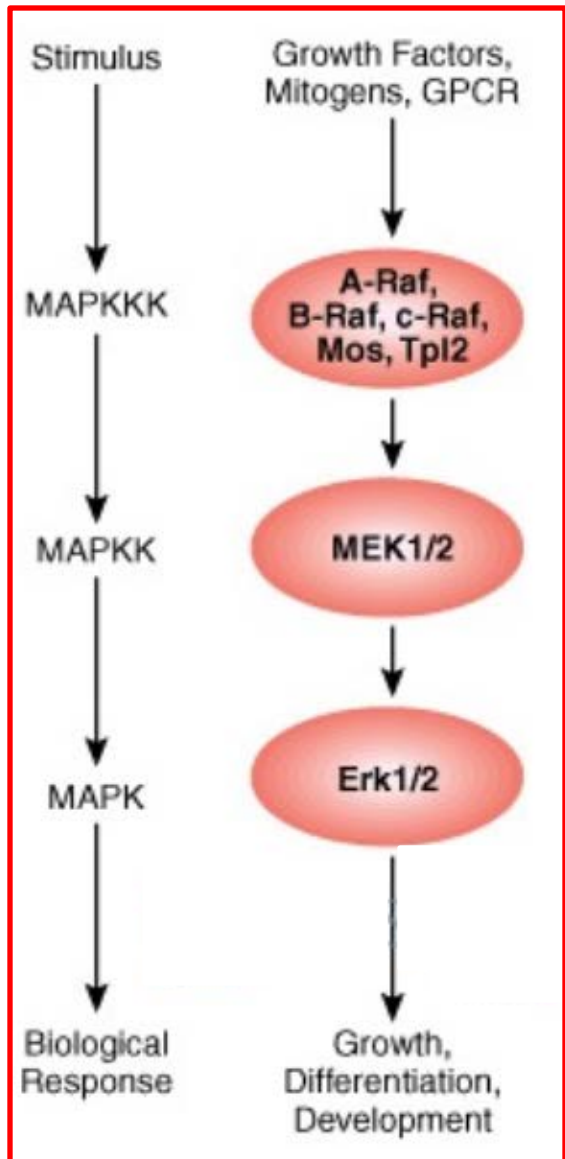


Fig. 7.7

e.g.
Calcineurin
(a phosphatase)

Signal amplification (2)

Calcineurin dephosphorylates NFATc



(Fig. 7.4) Small G proteins are downstream of tyrosine kinase-associated receptor

GEF (+) → Small G proteins (e.g. Ras, Rac) → MAPK → AP-1 activation (Fig. 6.19)

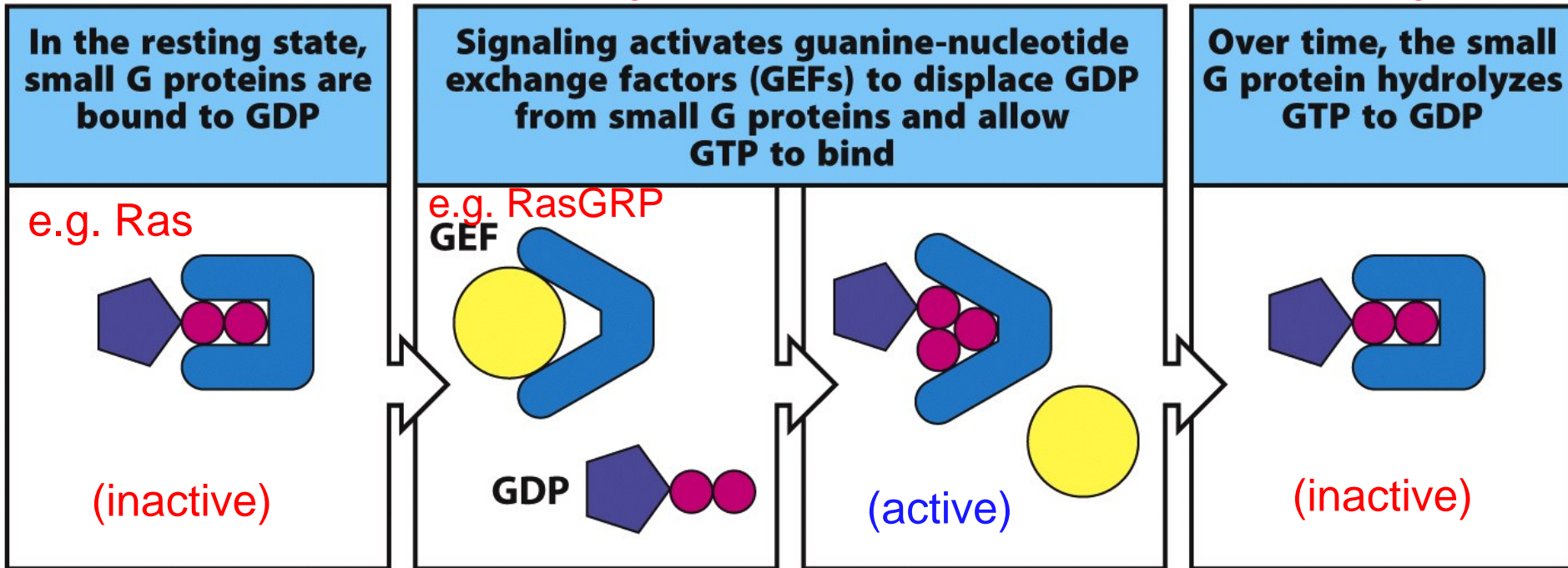


Figure 6-5 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

- Small G-GDP (inactive, resting state) v.s. small G-GTP (active, transient)
- GEF assists the -GDP to -GTP transformation
- Small G proteins have intrinsic **GTPase activity**
 - To ensure activation signal would only be present transiently!!
 - GTPase-activating proteins (**GAPs**) will accelerate this reaction..

(Fig. 7.5) Summary: 3 different ways to recruit signaling molecules to the membrane

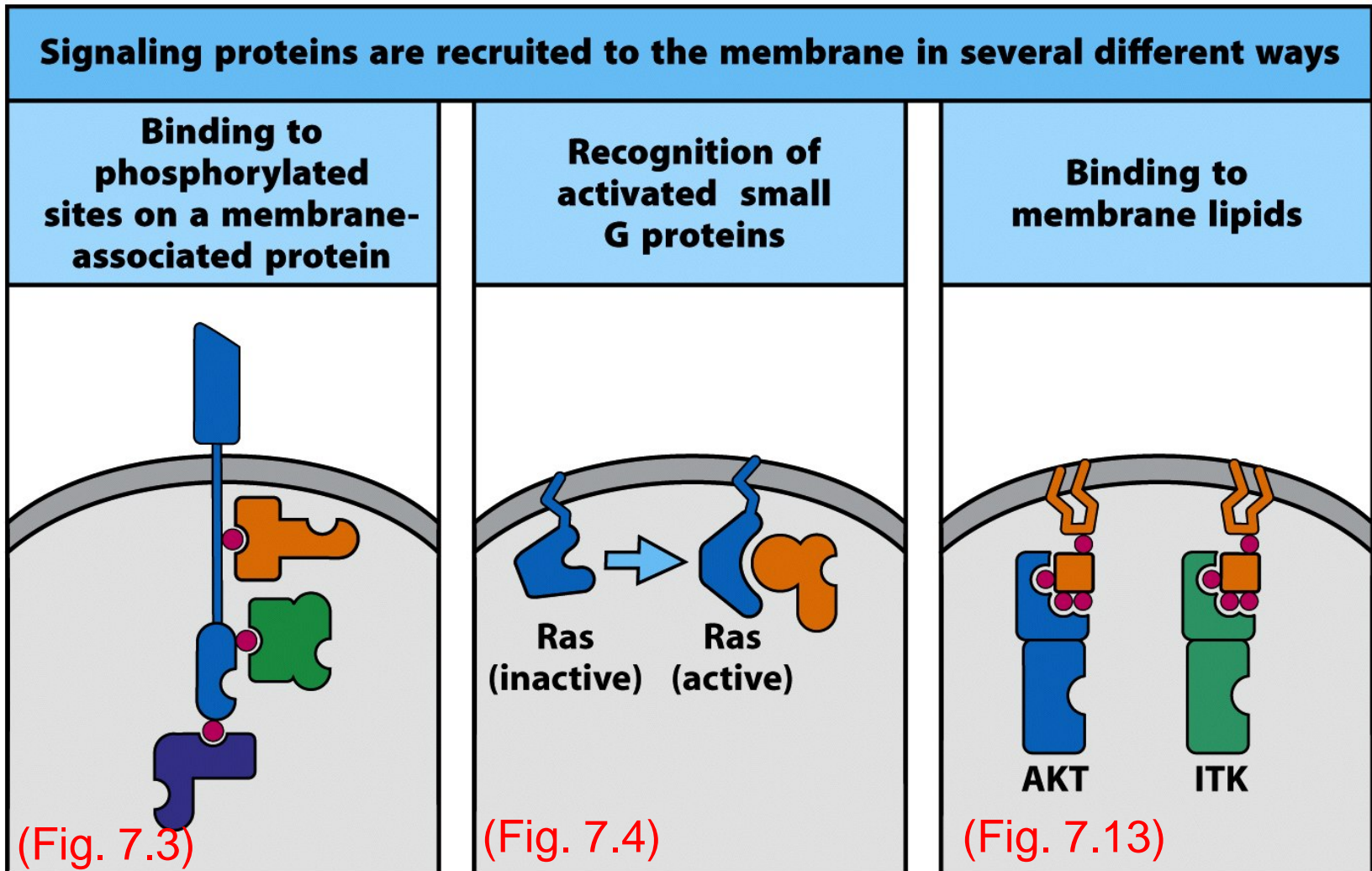


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Membrane localization of signaling molecules

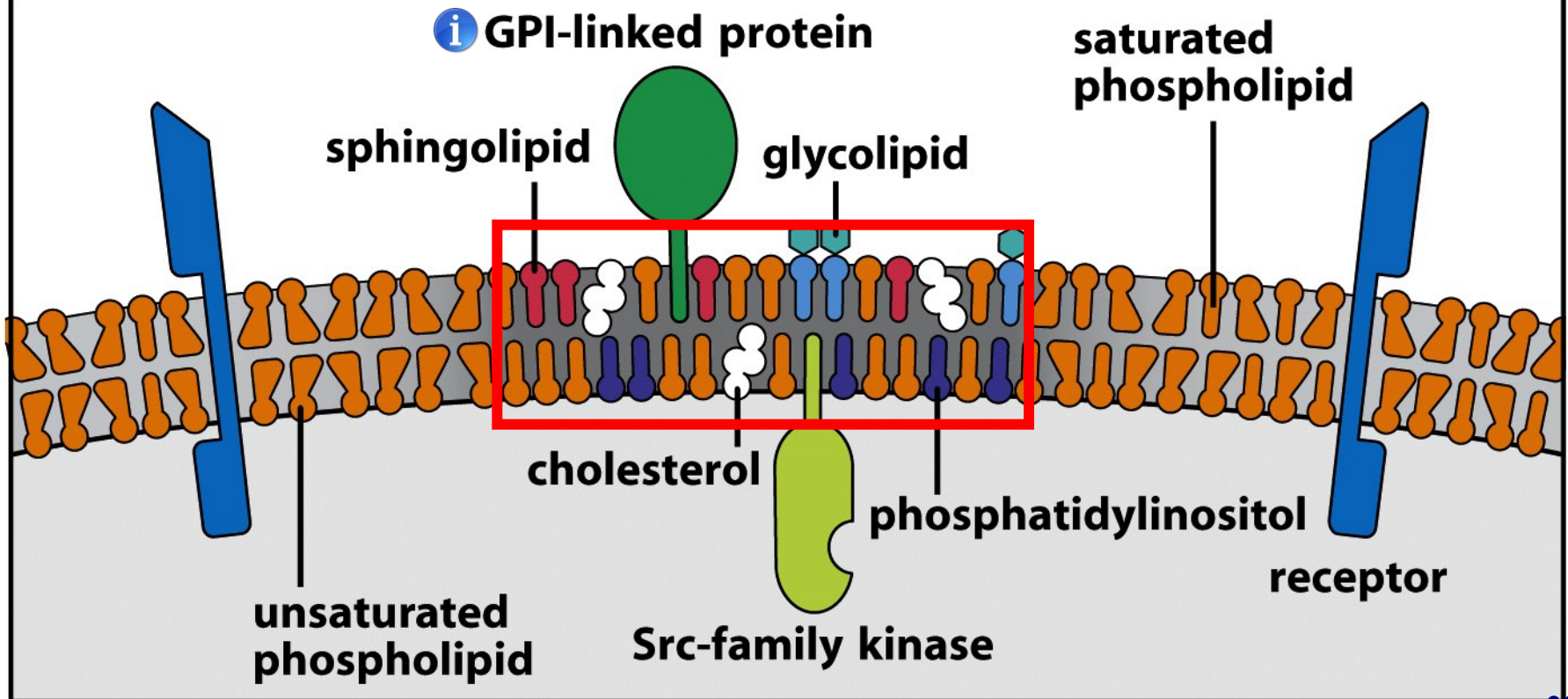
- Constrained in specific ‘microdomain’
 - Rich in lipids (e.g. sphingolipid, cholesterol)
 - Structurally more rigid than surrounding areas
 - Resistant to treatment by detergents
- Some common description of such feature
 - Lipid raft
 - glycolipid-enriched microdomain (**GEM**)
 - Detergent-insoluble glycolipid-rich domain (**DIG**)

Lipid raft

- More rigid (higher% of saturated phospholipids)
- Harbors molecules important in signaling events
 - e.g. Src-family kinase
- Dynamic structure
 - can change size
 - proteins can migrate in and out of raft
 - e.g. cross-linked T- or B-cell receptors migrate into raft
- Crucial for signaling events to occur
 - depletion of cholesterol disrupts T-cell activation

Association of signaling molecules with lipid raft

Membrane rafts are specialized regions of the cell membrane enriched for saturated lipids and cholesterol. GPI-linked proteins and acylated proteins such as Src-family kinases are found in lipid rafts



Lipid rafts are dynamic structures that can change size and protein content. Some proteins migrate into lipid rafts when they are oligomerized by binding ligand

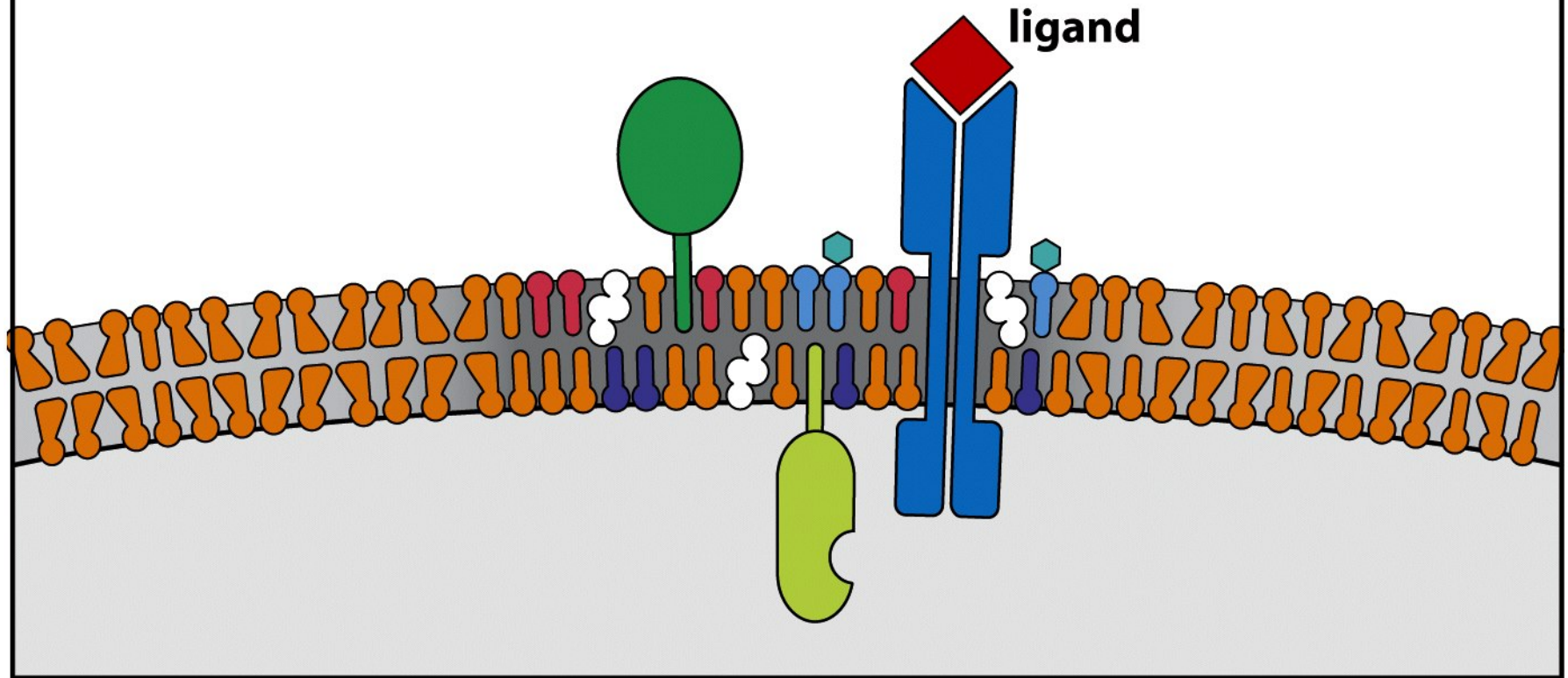


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(Fig. 7.6) How are signals turned off? (via phosphatase or Ubi. ligase)

SHP: phosphatase

Cbl: ubiquitin ligase

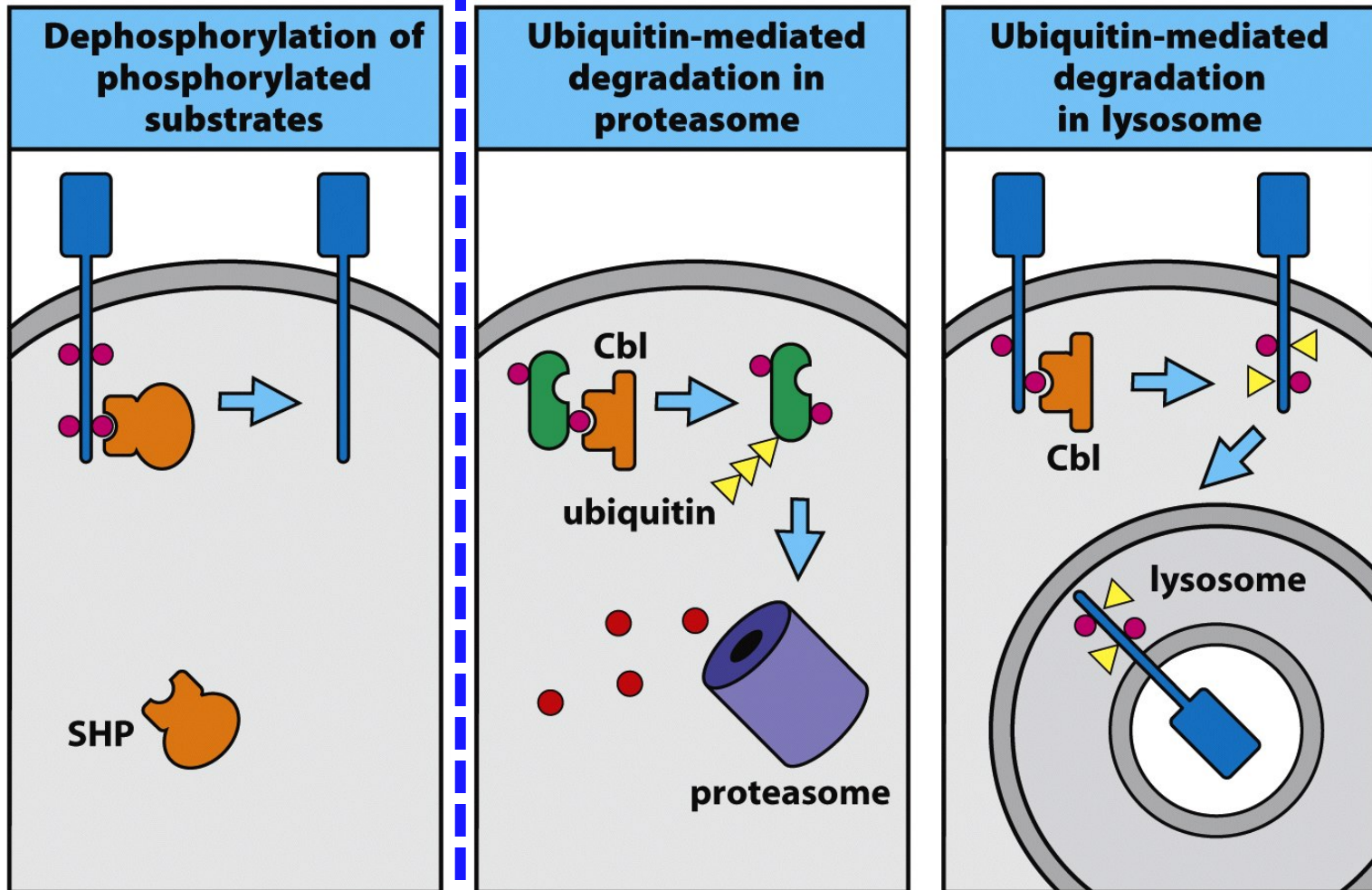


Figure 6-8 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2018)



Ag receptor signaling and lymphocyte activation

(Fig. 7.10) Antigen receptor complex (B cell receptor)

■ BCR complex

□ B-cell receptor (membrane-bound Ig)

□ Accessory proteins

■ $Ig\alpha$ and $Ig\beta$ (heterodimer)

□ Both are required for complete surface expression of BCR complex

■ No $Ig\alpha/Ig\beta \rightarrow$ no surface BCR complex expressed

□ Crucial for signaling (due to the “ITAM motif”)

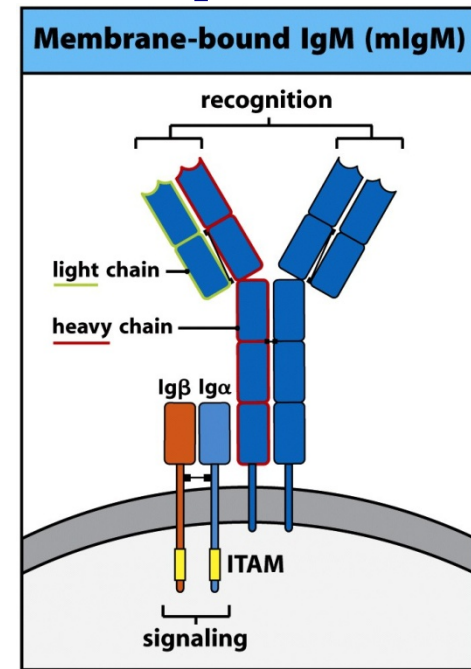


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Membrane-bound IgM (mIgM)

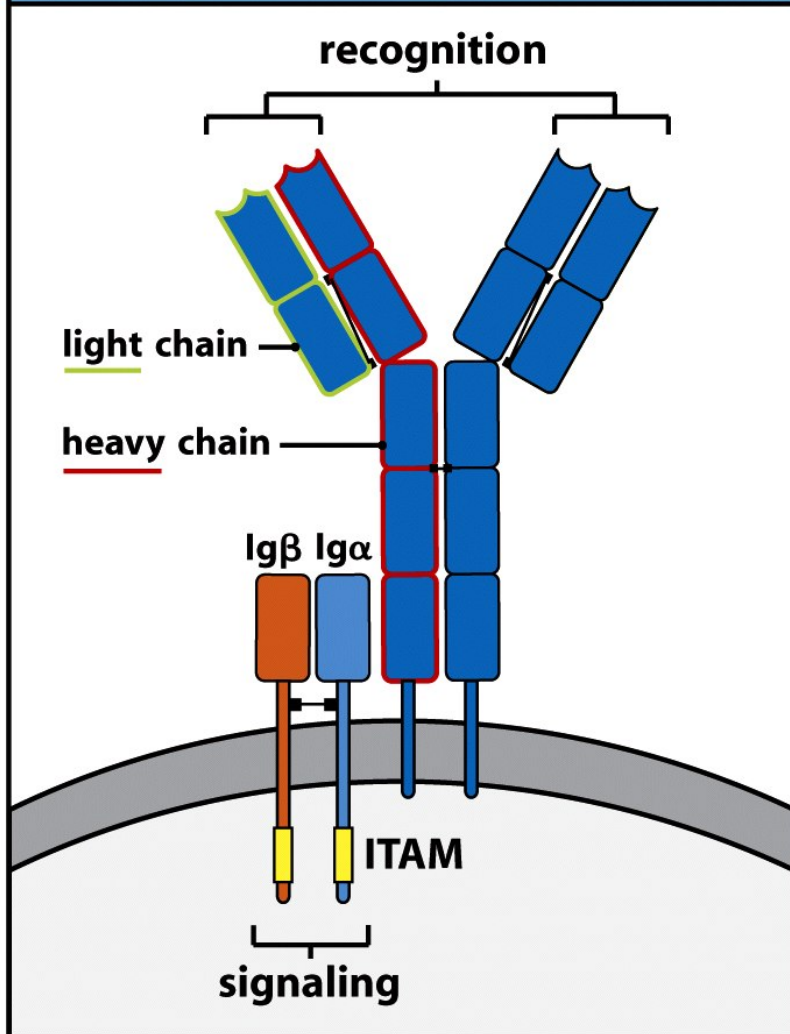


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BCR complex

■ ITAM motif

- Immunoreceptor tyrosine-based activation motif
- Responsible for intracellular signaling
- Canonical sequence
 - **Y**XX[L/I]X₆₋₉**Y**XXX[L/I]
- Present in other immune cells
 - FcεRI, CD3, NK receptor, ...etc.
 - vs. ITIM motif

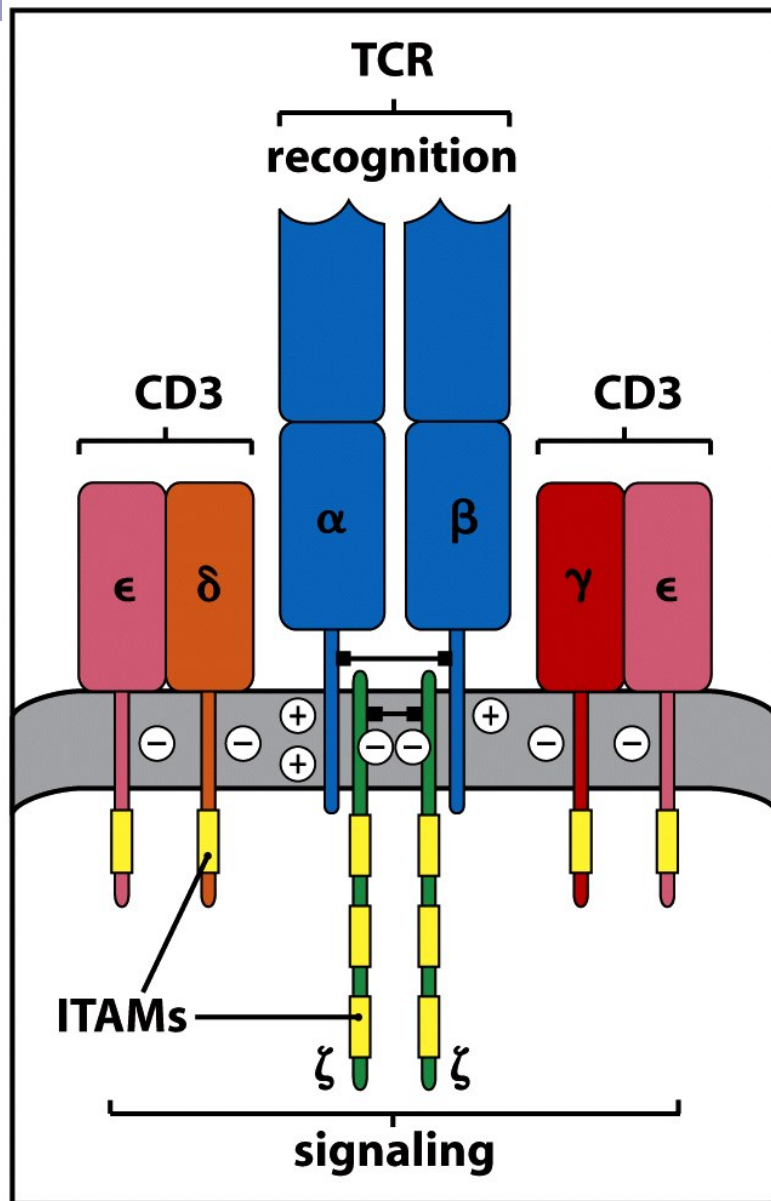


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TCR complex

- Structural composition similar to BCR complex
- Genes for CD3 ($\epsilon/\gamma/\delta$) are clustered on chromosome
 - Required for expression of α/β dimer!!
- More ITAM motif
 - TCR (10) vs. BCR (2)
 - Greater ability/flexibility in signaling

(Fig. 7.9) ITAMs recruit signaling molecules with tandem SH2 domains

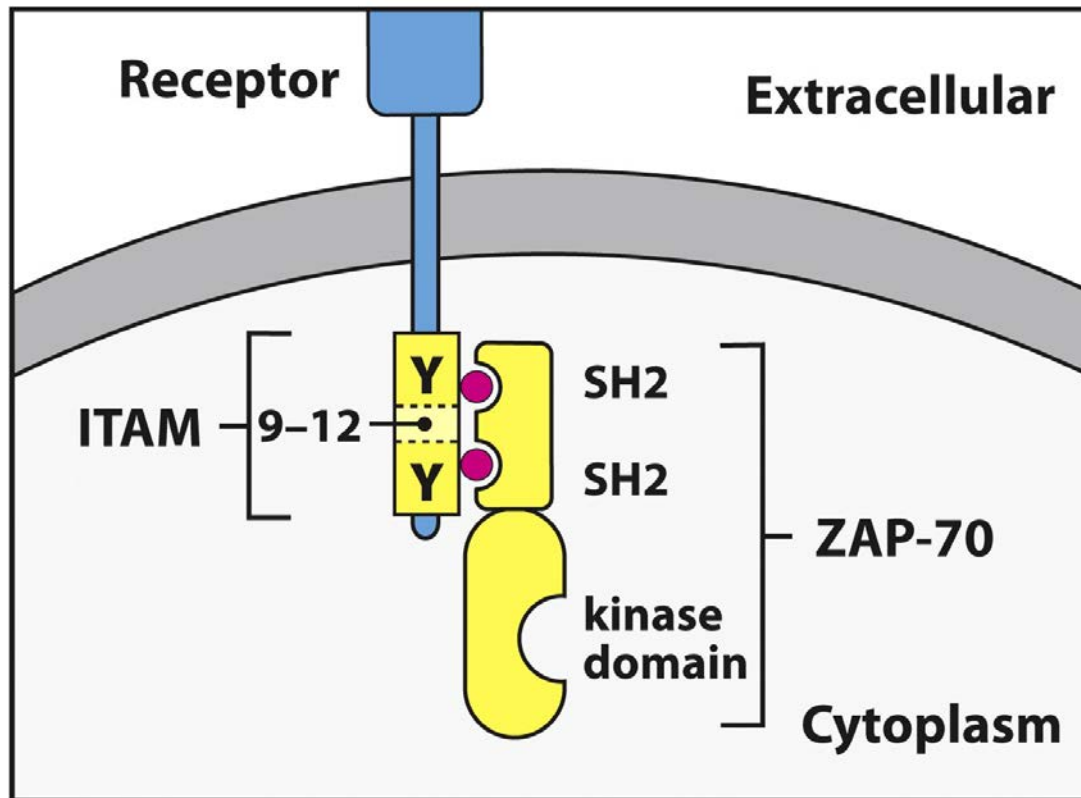


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(Fig. 7.11) Antigen receptor complex (T cell receptor)

■ TCR complex

□ T-cell receptor ($\alpha:\beta$ heterodimer)

- Different from the $Ig\alpha/Ig\beta$ in BCR complex!!

□ Accessory proteins

- CD3 complex ($2\varepsilon:\delta:\gamma$, or $\varepsilon:\delta/\varepsilon:\gamma$)
- ζ chains (homodimer)
- ITAM motif responsible for relaying signals

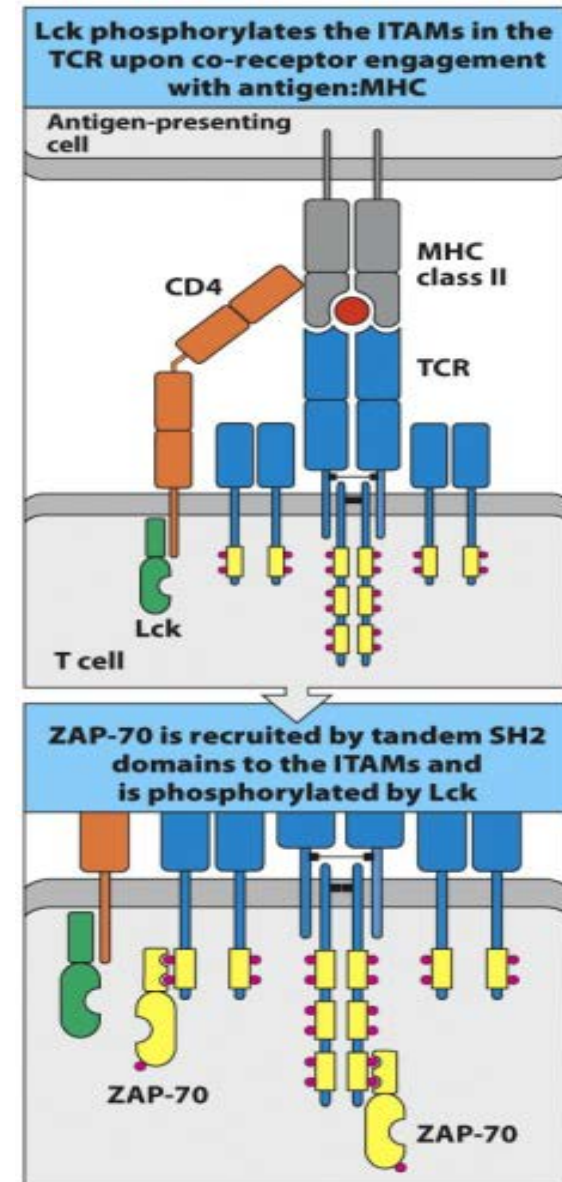


Figure 7.11 Janeway's Immunobiology, 8ed. |

Ag-binding causes ITAM phosphorylation on Ag receptor

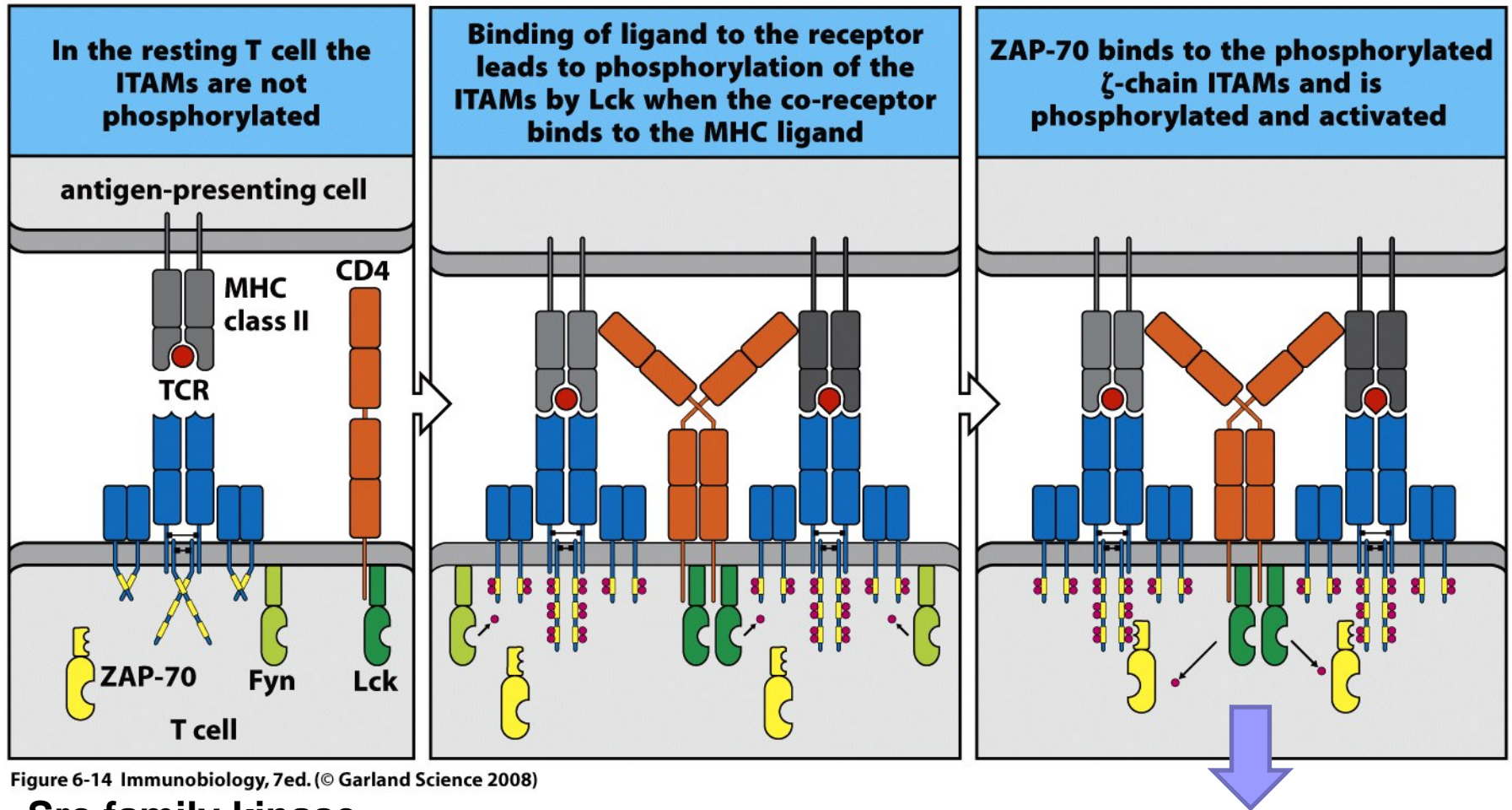


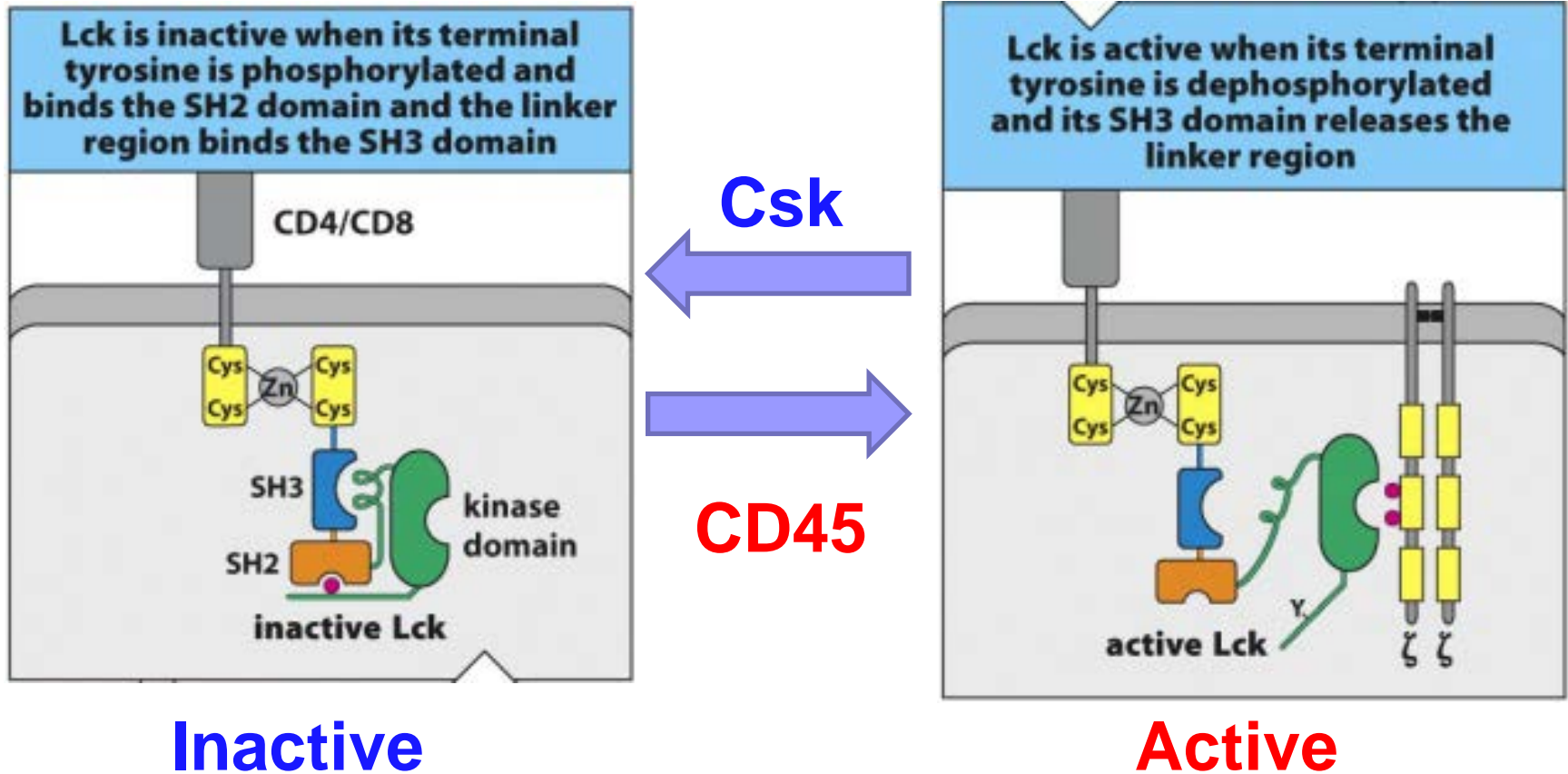
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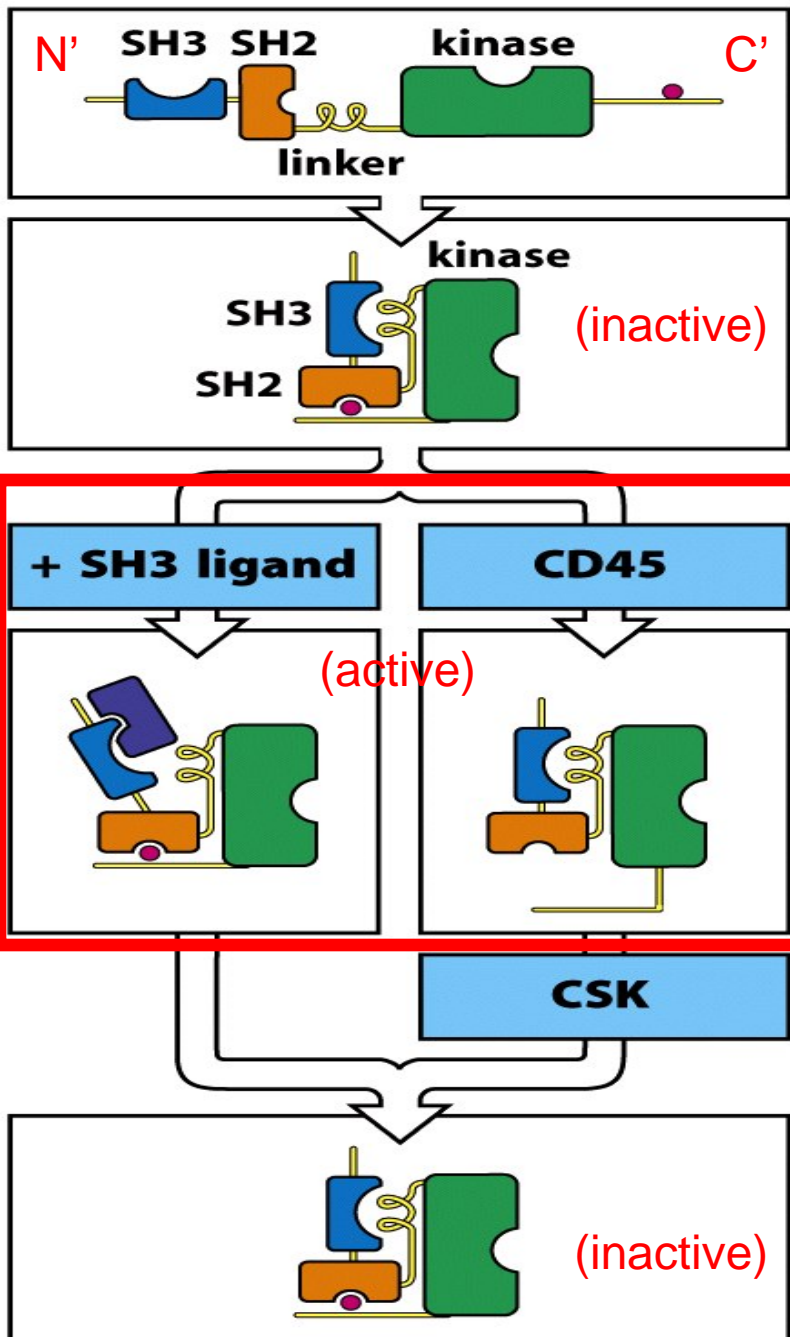
Src family kinase

1. Fyn: weakly associated with TCR ζ chain & CD3
2. Lck: constitutively associated with CD4 and CD8

Lck phosphorylates ZAP-70

(Fig. 7.12) Lck activity is regulated by phosphorylation & dephosphorylation

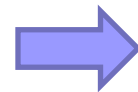




Regulation of Src-family kinases

CD45: phosphatase

CSK: C-terminal Src kinase

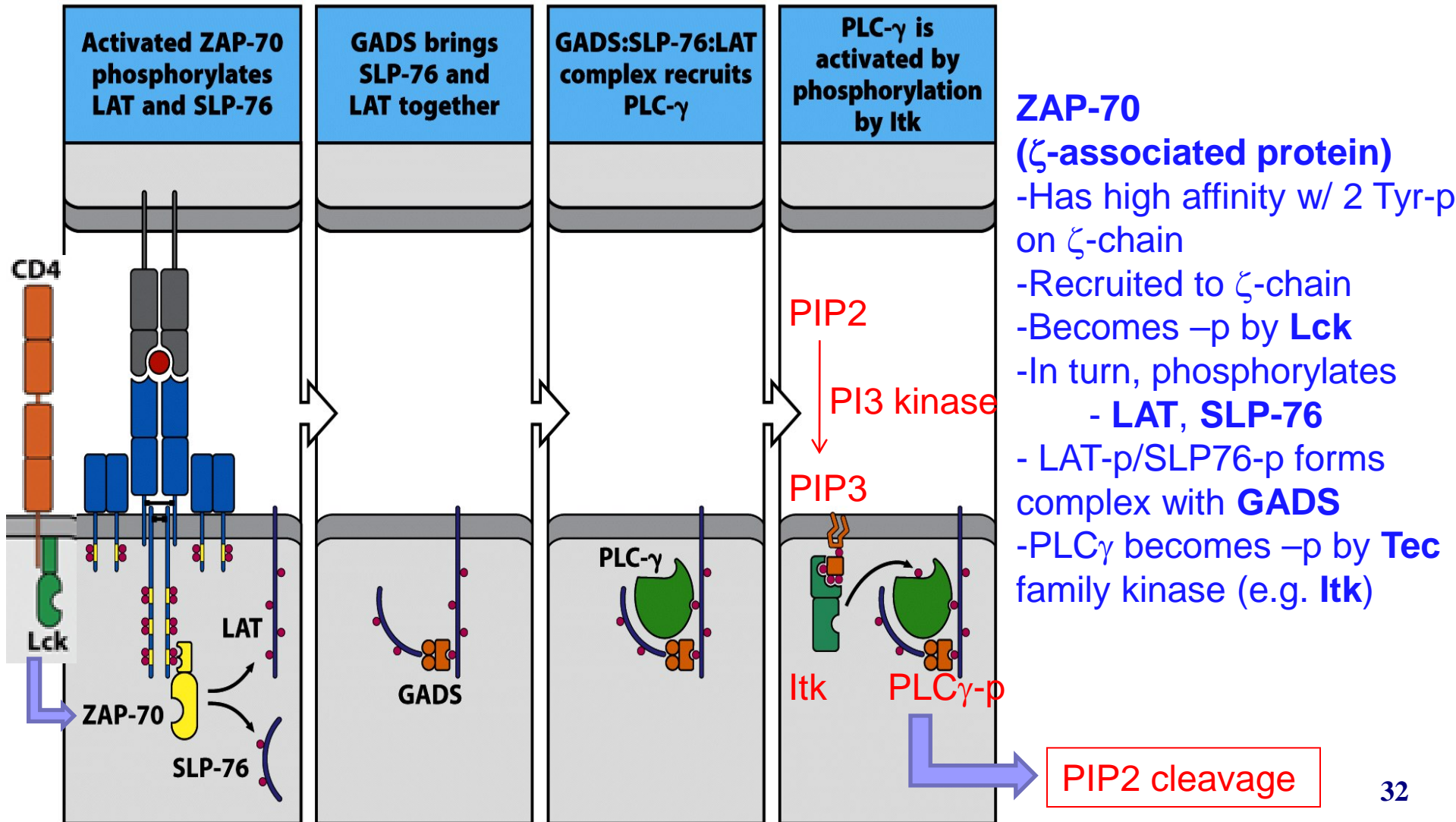


Relays signaling process

Lck can phosphorylate:

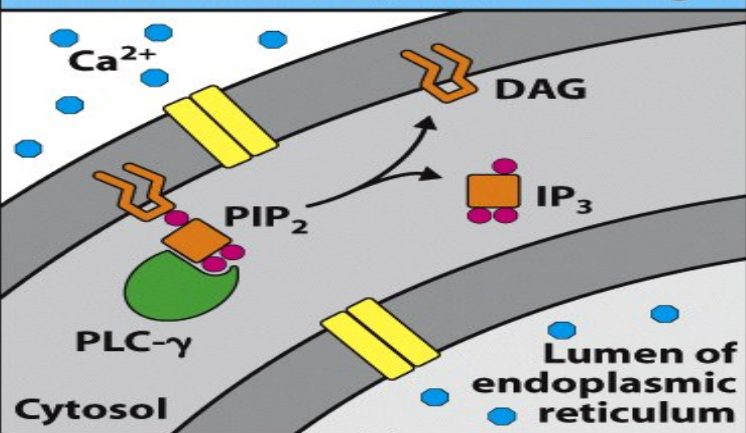
- ZAP-70
- CD3 ϵ
- ζ chain
- Itk (Tec kinase)
- Phospholipase C γ (PLC γ)

(Fig. 7.13) The recruitment and activation of PLC γ is crucial in T-cell activation



(Fig. 7.14) PLC γ cleaves PIP $_2$ during signaling

Phospholipase C- γ (PLC- γ) cleaves phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate (PIP $_2$) into diacylglycerol (DAG) and inositol trisphosphate (IP $_3$)



IP $_3$ opens calcium channels to allow Ca $^{2+}$ entry from the ER. Depletion of Ca $^{2+}$ from the ER leads to opening of CRAC channels in the plasma membrane allowing entry of extracellular calcium

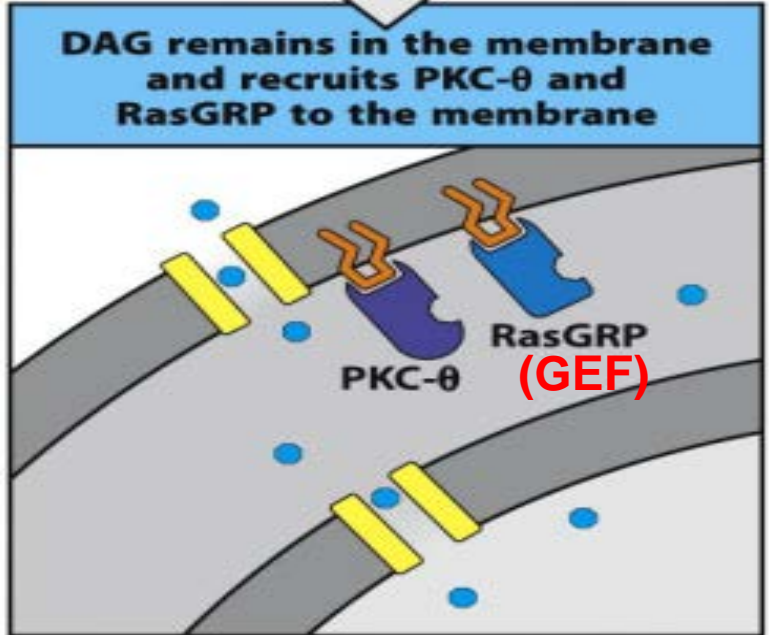
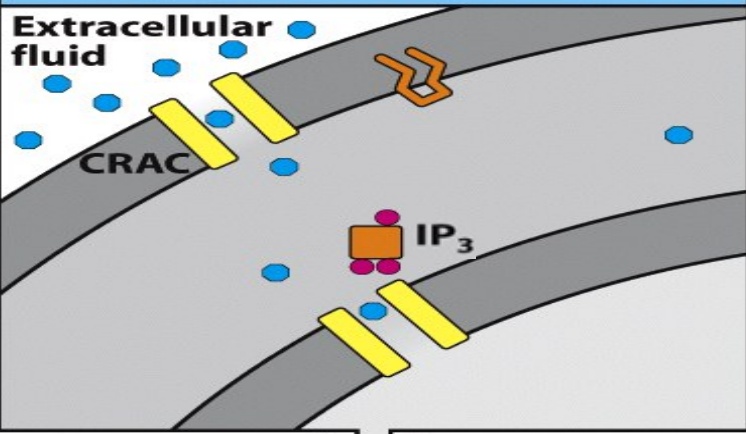
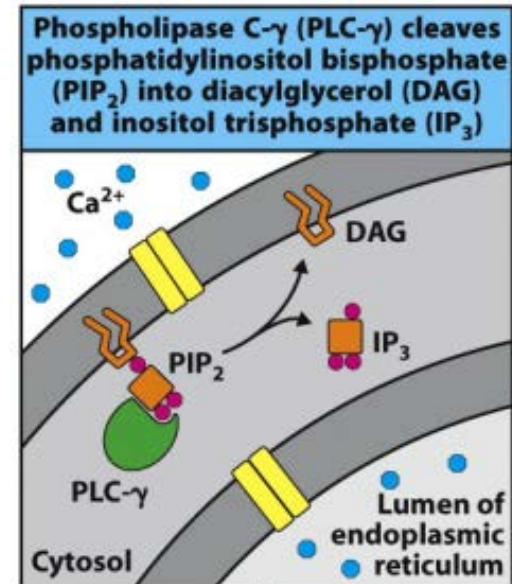
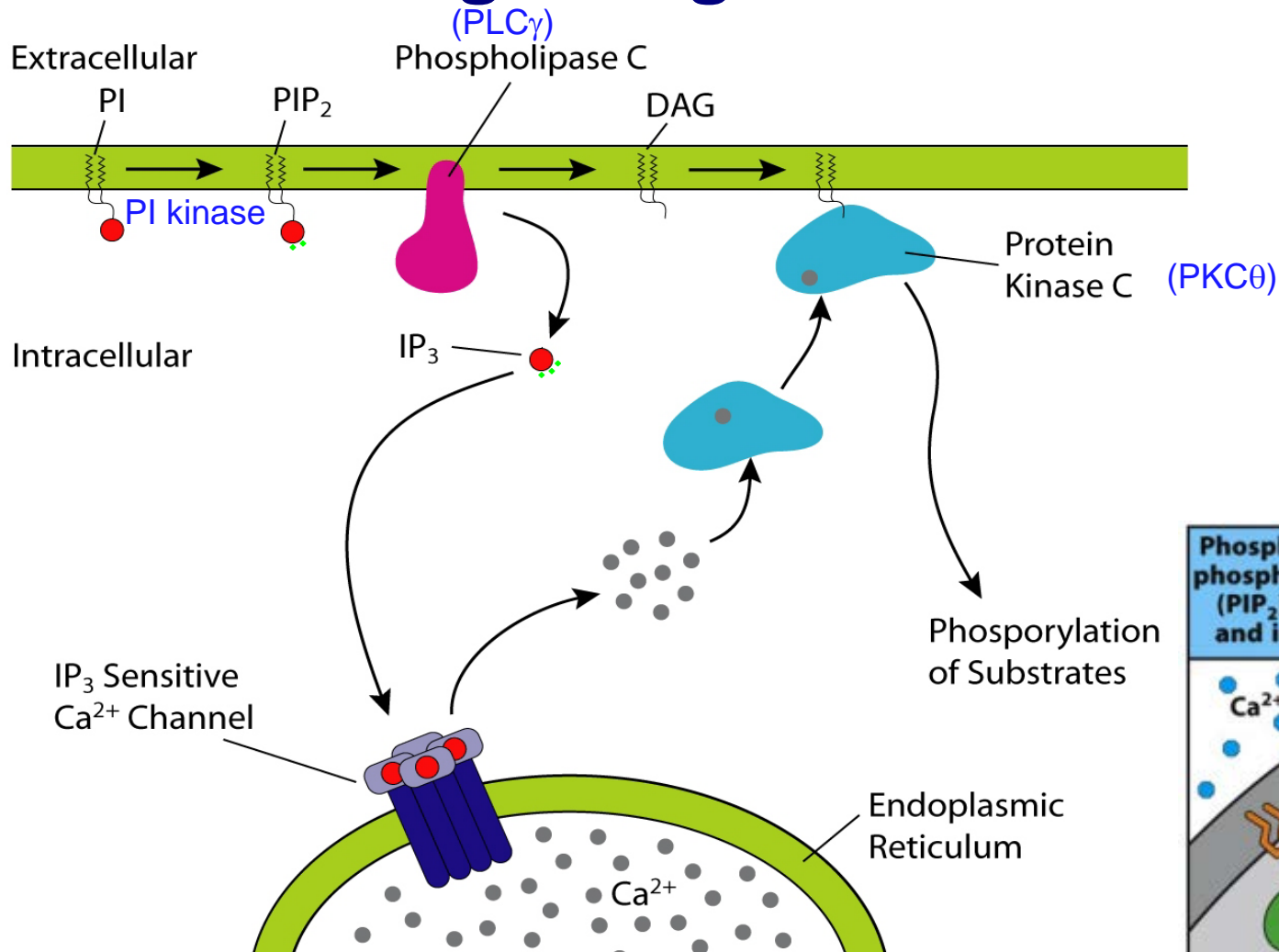


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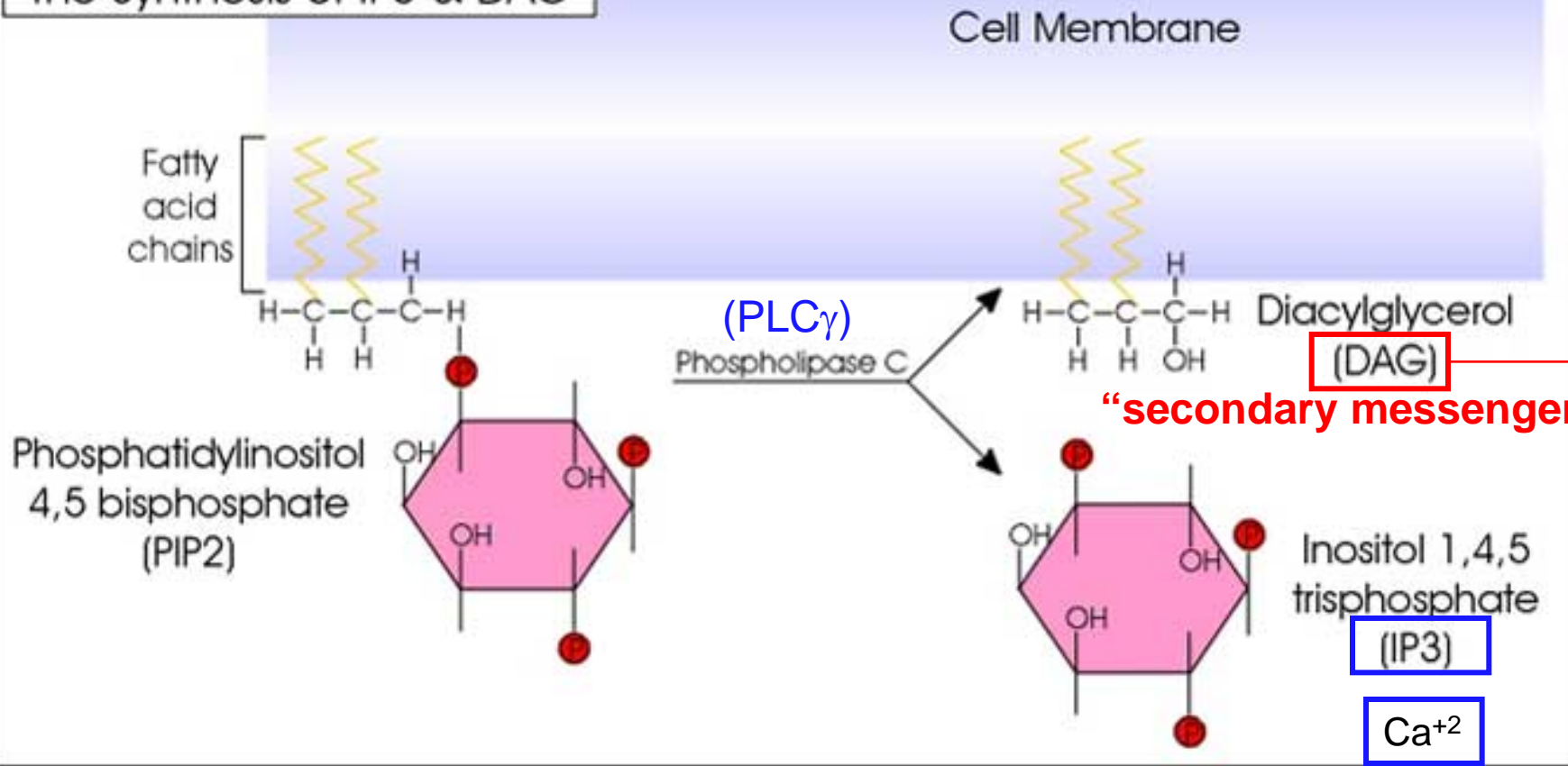
Secondary messengers:
IP $_3$,
DAG, (PMA is its analog)
Ca $^{++}$ (inomycin could mimic its action)

Lead to 3 signaling pathways (Fig. 7-15)

Activation of membrane lipids by signaling molecules



The Synthesis of IP3 & DAG



3. NFAT activation

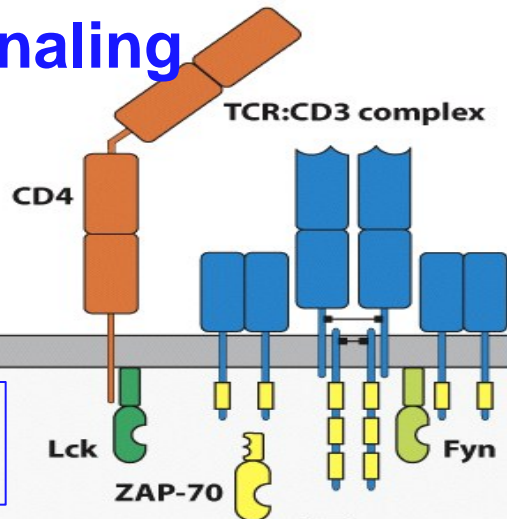
Activation of calcineurin

"secondary messenger"

- 1. **NF κ B activation (by PKC θ)**
- 2. **AP-1 activation (by MAPK)**

- 1. Activation of protein kinase C θ (PKC θ)
→ Phosphorylates Ser/Thr
- 2. Activation of GEF, and Ras
→ MAPK activation

T-cell receptor signaling



Co-receptor:
 CD4 (T helper)
 CD8 (T cytotoxic)

ZAP-70 needs to be activated by Lck !!

Lck phosphorylates tyrosine residues on the CD3 and ζ ITAMs, allowing ZAP-70 to bind

Lck activates ZAP-70, which in turn phosphorylates LAT and SLP-76. SLP-76 and LAT bind phospholipase C- γ (PLC- γ).

PLC- γ is activated by Itk, and cleaves phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate (PIP₂) to yield diacylglycerol (DAG) and inositol trisphosphate (IP₃)

(1) IP₃ increases intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration, activating a phosphatase, calcineurin

Calcineurin activates a transcription factor, NFAT (nuclear factor of activated T cells)

Fig. 7-16

(2) DAG recruits protein kinase C- θ

Protein kinase C- θ activates CARMA, which leads to activation of NF κ B

Fig. 7-19

(3) DAG recruits RasGRP, which in turn activates Ras

Ras activates the MAP kinase cascade, which activates Fos, a component of the AP-1 transcription factor

Fig. 7-17

Fig. 7-18

The transcription factors NF κ B, NFAT, and AP-1 act to induce specific gene transcription, leading to cell proliferation and differentiation

(1) NFAT activation by Ca^{2+} signaling

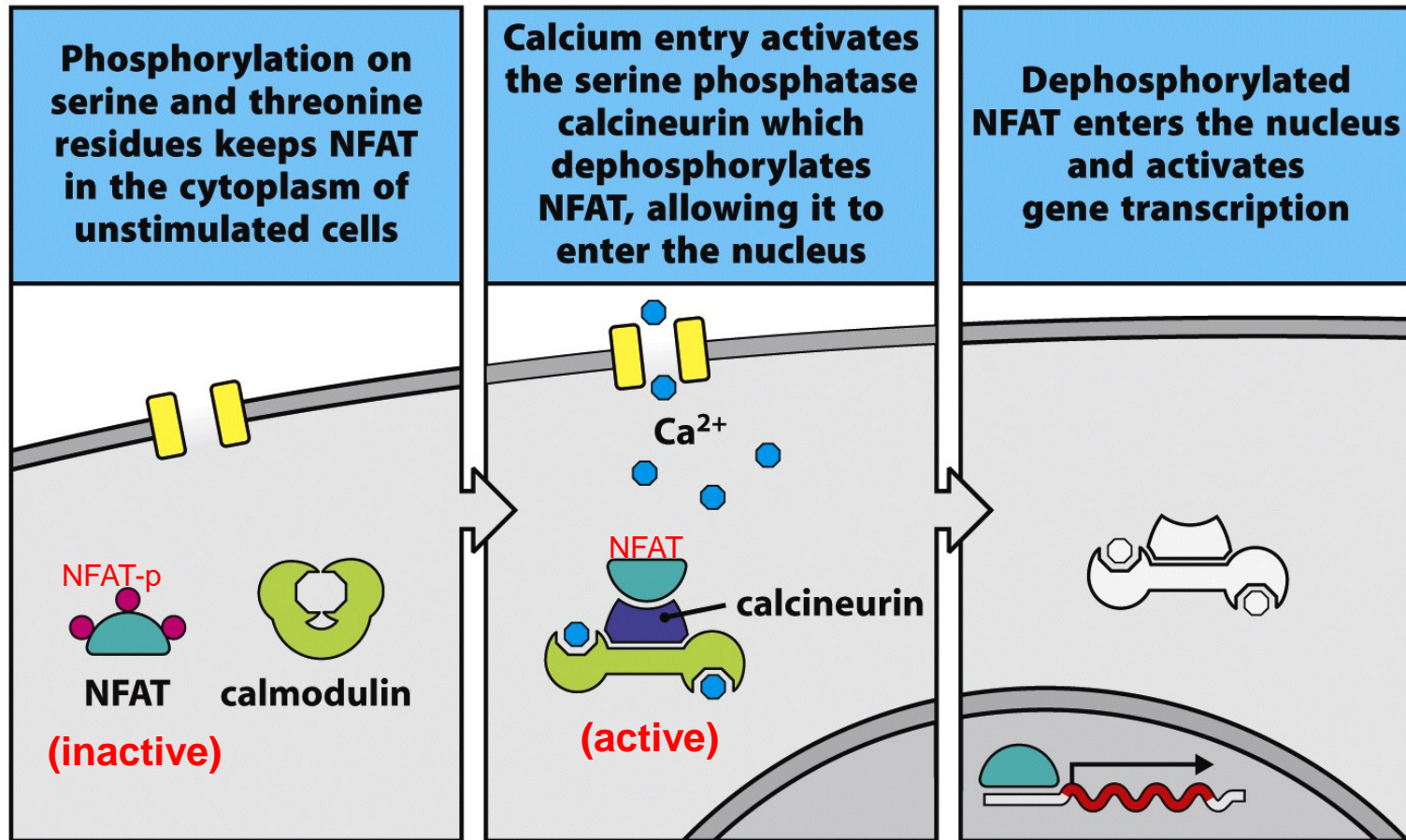


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NFAT-p: inactive, phosphate can be removed by [calcineurin](#) (Ca^{2+} -dependent)

NFAT: active, can bind to active Ca^{2+} -bound calmodulin

Calcineurin: Serine phosphatase

(2) PKC θ activates NF κ B through DAG signaling

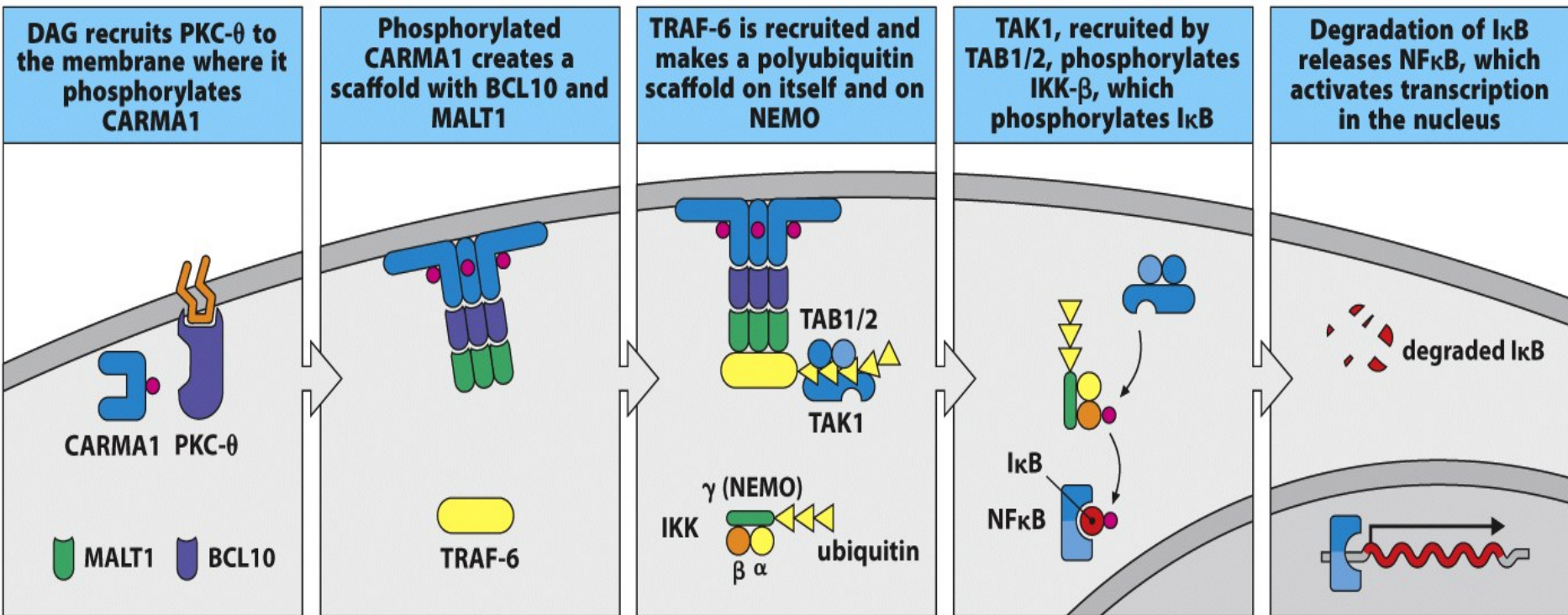


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CARMA1: scaffold protein, binds to other adaptor proteins (e.g. Bcl10, MALT1)
I κ B kinase complex (IKK α :IKK β :IKK γ): phosphorylates I κ B \rightarrow NF κ B translocation

(3) Formation of AP-1 transcription factor by the MAPK pathway

[Step 1] Activation of small G protein (Ras) leads to MAP kinase (MAPK) activation

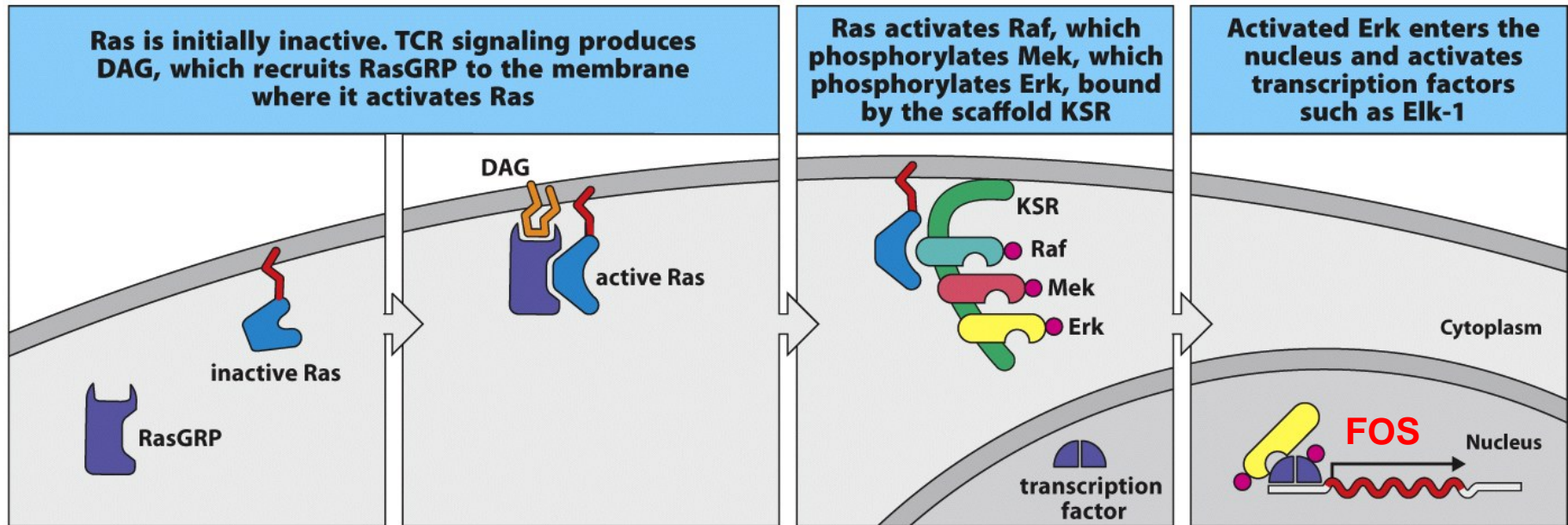


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KSR: scaffold protein

Raf: MAPKKK

Mek: MAPKK

Erk: MAPK

上游依序磷酸化下游 → activation

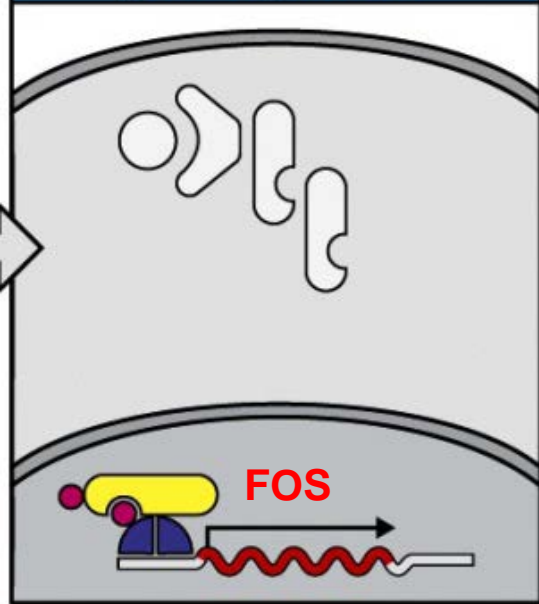
MAPK can migrate to the nucleus and activate transcription factors, which induce new gene expression

(3) Formation of AP-1 transcription factor by the MAPK pathway

[Step 2] Formation of AP-1 by joining of c-Fos and c-Jun

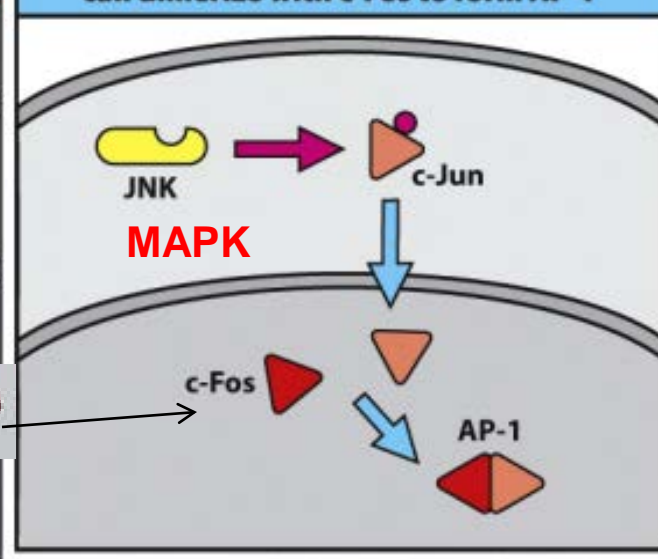
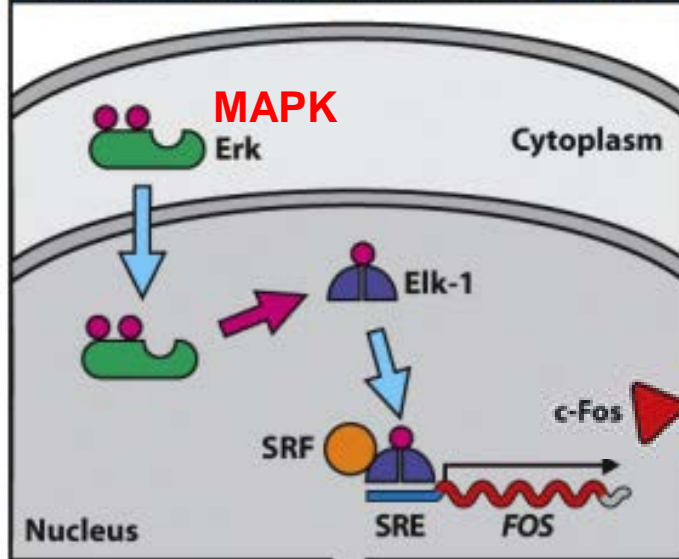
- Erk-p phosphorylates Elk1
- Elk1-p increases *FOS* transcription

- JNK phosphorylates c-Jun
- c-Jun-p nuclear translocation
- Formation of AP-1



Activation of the MAP kinase Erk allows it to enter the nucleus where it phosphorylates the transcription factor Elk-1. Elk-1 stimulates transcription of the *FOS* gene

Activation of the MAP kinase JNK allows it to phosphorylate c-Jun, inducing c-Jun to translocate to the nucleus where it can dimerize with c-Fos to form AP-1



Erk-p translocated into the nucleus

(Fig. 7.20) T cell activation also requires co-stimulatory signal

APCs:
B7.1 (CD80)
B7.2 (CD86)



Naïve T cells:
CD28

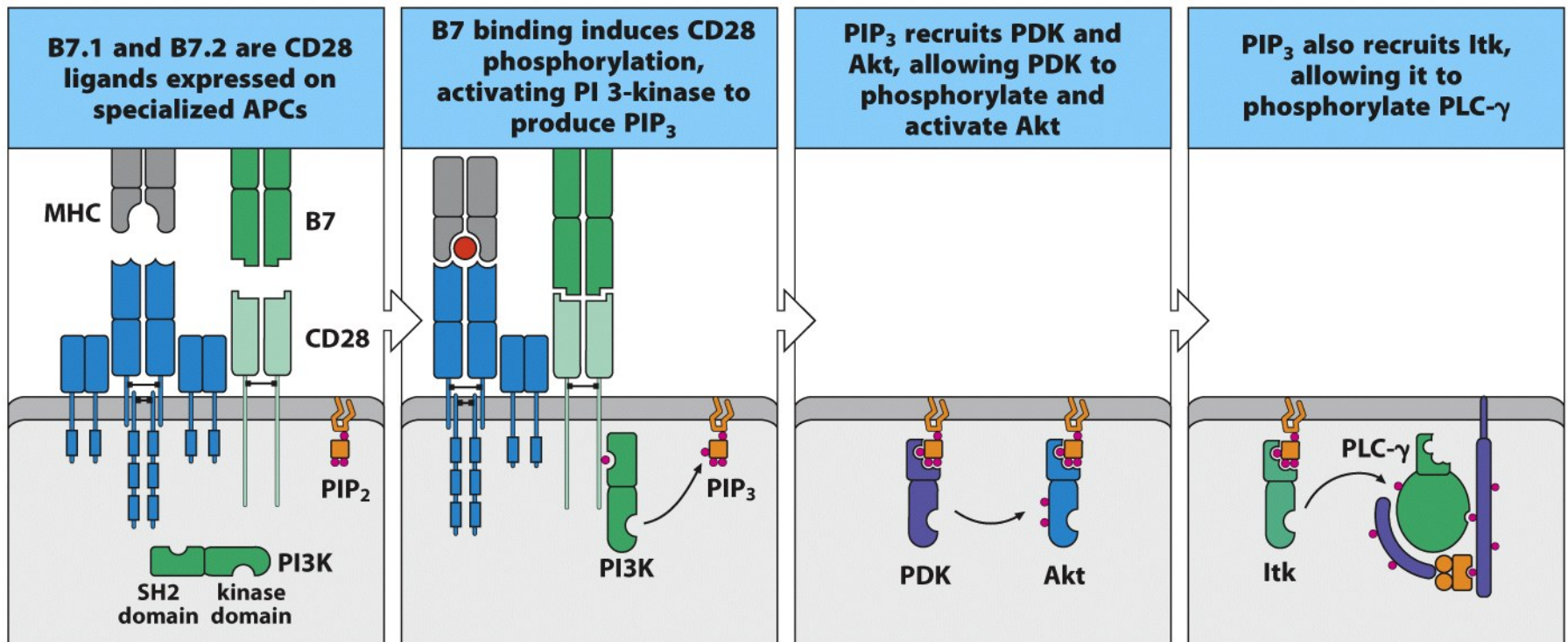


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IL-2 transcription requires converge of multiple signaling pathways

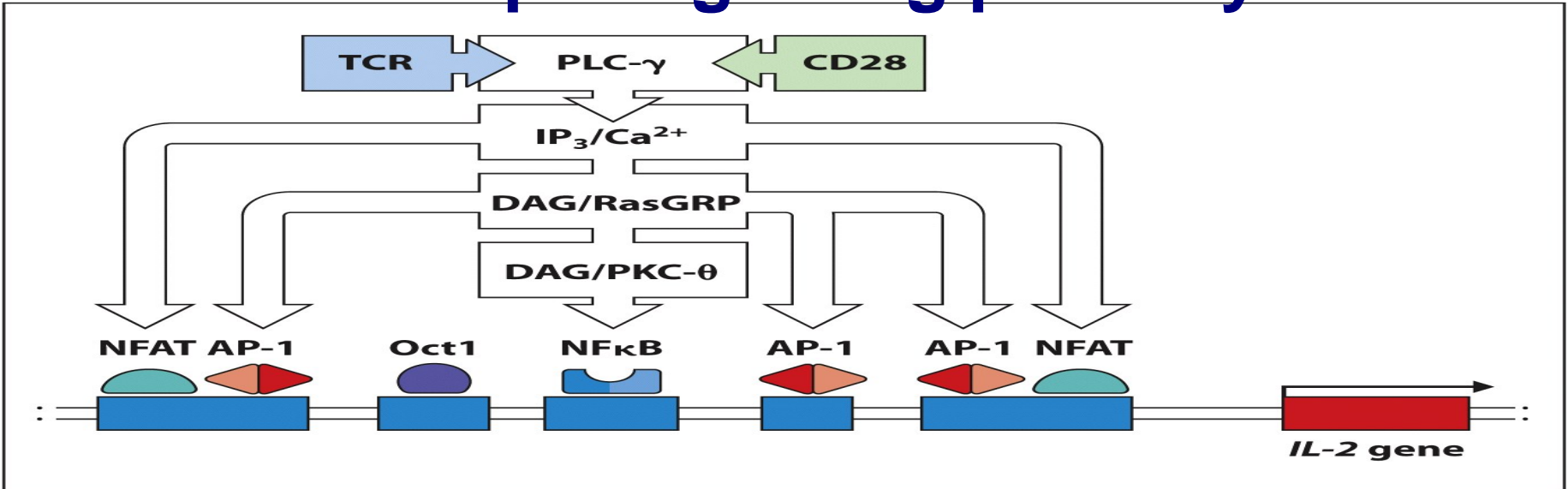


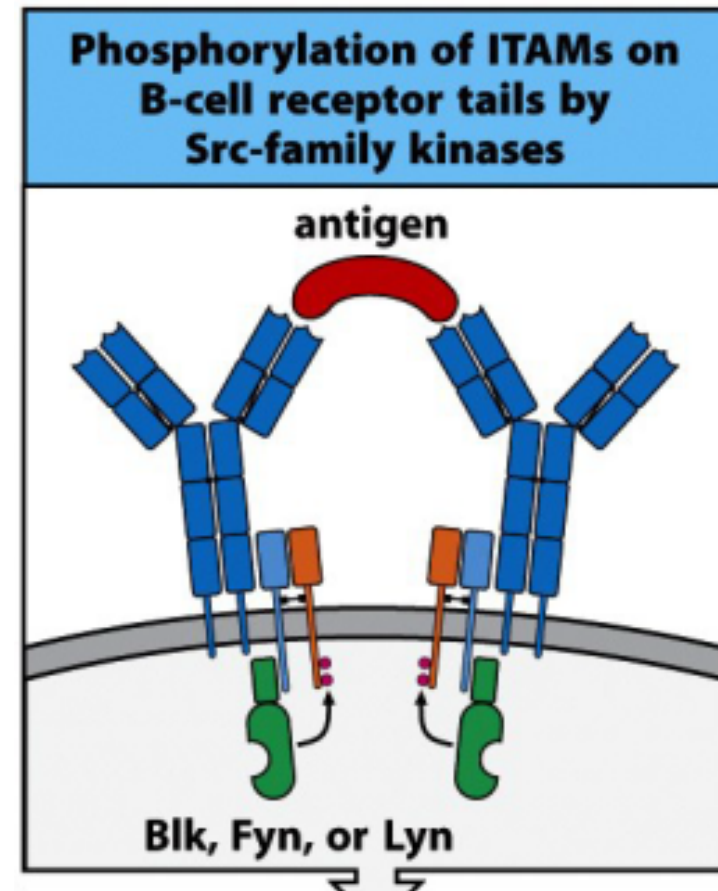
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- AP-1: MAPK signaling (Fig. 6-20)
- NFAT: calcium signaling (Fig. 6-21)
- NFκB: DAG/PKCθ signaling (Fig. 6-22)
- Oct-1: constitutively bound, so not regulated by signaling
- ALL are required for IL-2 transcription!!

IL-2 = T-cell growth factor

B-cell receptor signaling

1. BCR clustering by Ag
2. Activation of receptor-associated Src-family kinases
 - e.g. Blk, Fyn, Lyn
 - Activation of ITAMs on $Ig\alpha/Ig\beta$
3. Recruitment of cytosolic adaptor
 - **Syk** (B activation) by $Ig\beta$
 - vs. **ZAP-70** (T activation)
4. Binding of Syk to the Tyr-p on the ITAM motif of BCR
 - e.g. Syk has two SH2 domains



B-cell receptor signaling

5. Bound Syk kinases (2 on BCR) are activated
 - via transphosphorylation
6. Syk-p activates CD19/BLNK/PLC γ /...etc.

Definition: [Transphosphorylation](#)

- When two activated kinases are very close to each other, they can phosphorylate each other.

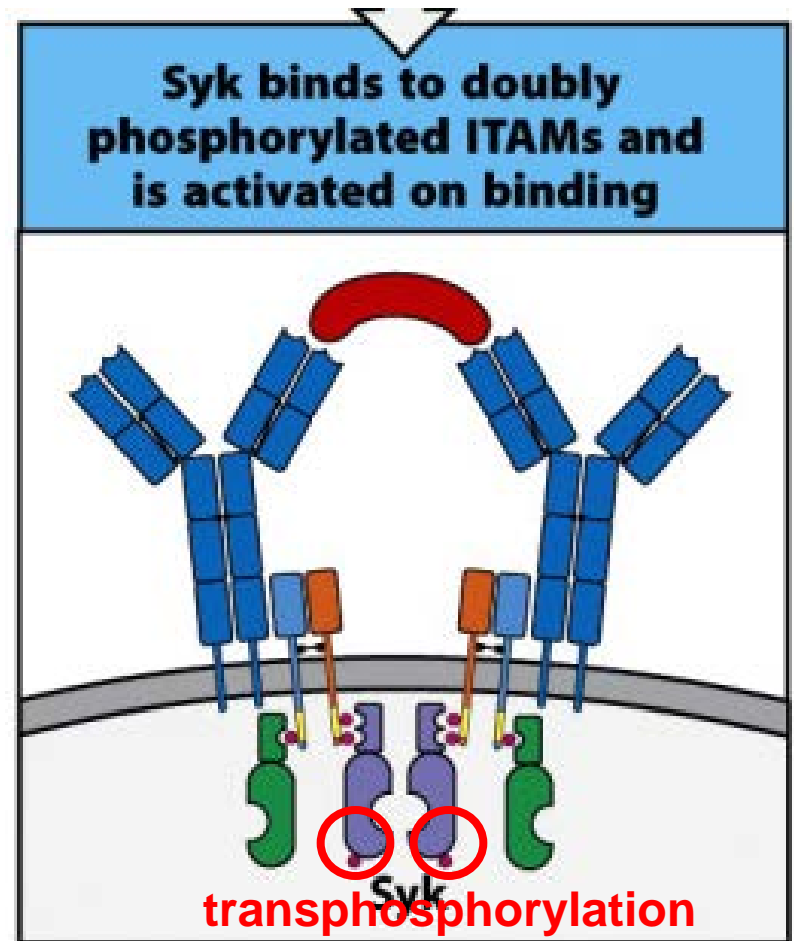


Figure 6-24 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Sci

(Fig. 7.23)

B-cell co-receptors

- Consisted of
 - CD19, CD21, CD81
- Expressed on mature B cells
- Clustering (Co-ligation) leads to activation of CD19 (phosphorylation)
 - By receptor-associated kinase (e.g Fyn-p)
 - Or, by other Src-family kinase (e.g. Syk-p)
- Activated CD19 binds to and phosphorylates Src-family kinases (e.g. Lyn/Blk) & PI-3 kinase
- Clustering ensures at least 1000-fold increase in signaling intensity
 - Amplification of BCR signals!!

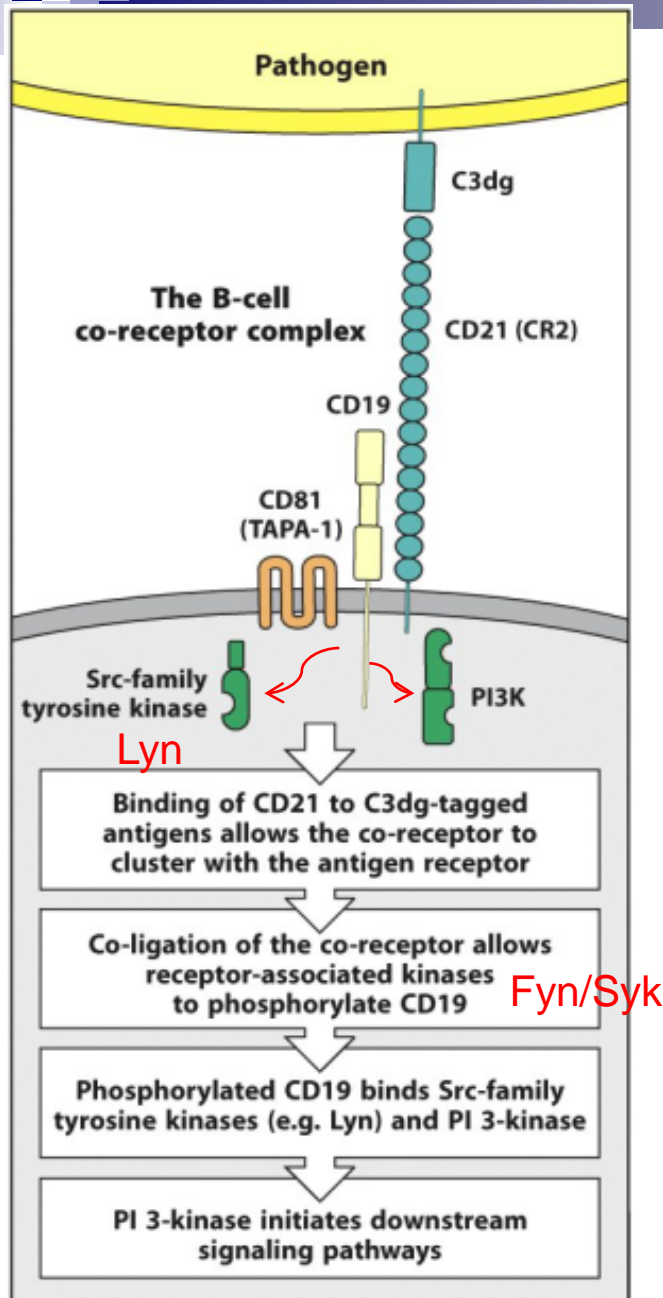
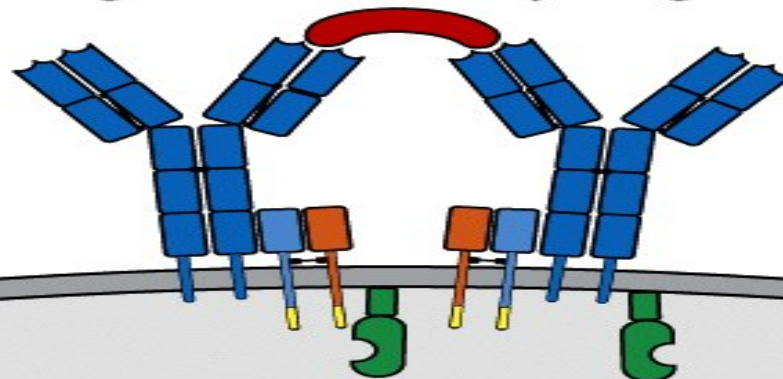


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IgM cross-linked by antigen



Binding of Syk to Igβ-p is sufficient to activate Syk !!

Src-family tyrosine kinases (Blk, Fyn, or Lyn)

Receptor-associated kinase (Syk)

Syk

Receptor cross-linking activates tyrosine kinases Blk, Fyn, and Lyn

Activated kinases phosphorylate the B-cell receptor cytoplasmic domains

Syk tyrosine kinase binds to phosphorylated Igβ and becomes activated

Co-ligation

Activated kinases phosphorylate CD19, BLNK, phospholipase C-γ (PLC-γ), GEFs, and Tec kinases (e.g. Btk)

PLC-γ cleaves phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate (PIP₂) to yield diacylglycerol (DAG) and inositol trisphosphate (IP₃)

DAG and Ca²⁺ activate protein kinase C

Small G proteins activate MAP kinase cascades

IP₃ increases intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration, activating a phosphatase, calcineurin

Protein kinase C activates a transcription factor, NFκB

The Ras-induced kinase cascade induces and activates Fos, a component of the AP-1 transcription factor

Calcineurin activates a transcription factor, NFAT (nuclear factor of activated T cells)

The transcription factors NFκB, NFAT, and AP-1 act to induce specific gene transcription, leading to cell proliferation and differentiation



**Clustering with co-receptors is crucial
in
both BCR and TCR signaling events**

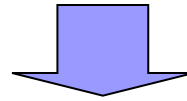
“Co-receptors”

Co-receptors of BCR and TCR

- BCR
 - CD19, CD21(CR2), and CD81(TAPA-1)
- TCR
 - CD4 (T_H)
 - CD8 (T_C)
- Purpose: Co-receptors can enhance BCR/TCR signaling by aggregating (clustering) with either BCR/TCR

Outcome of Ag recognition

Activation of transcription factors



**Induction of new gene synthesis
(for survival and proliferation)**

(Fig. 7.25) ITAMs are also present in immune cells other than B and T cells

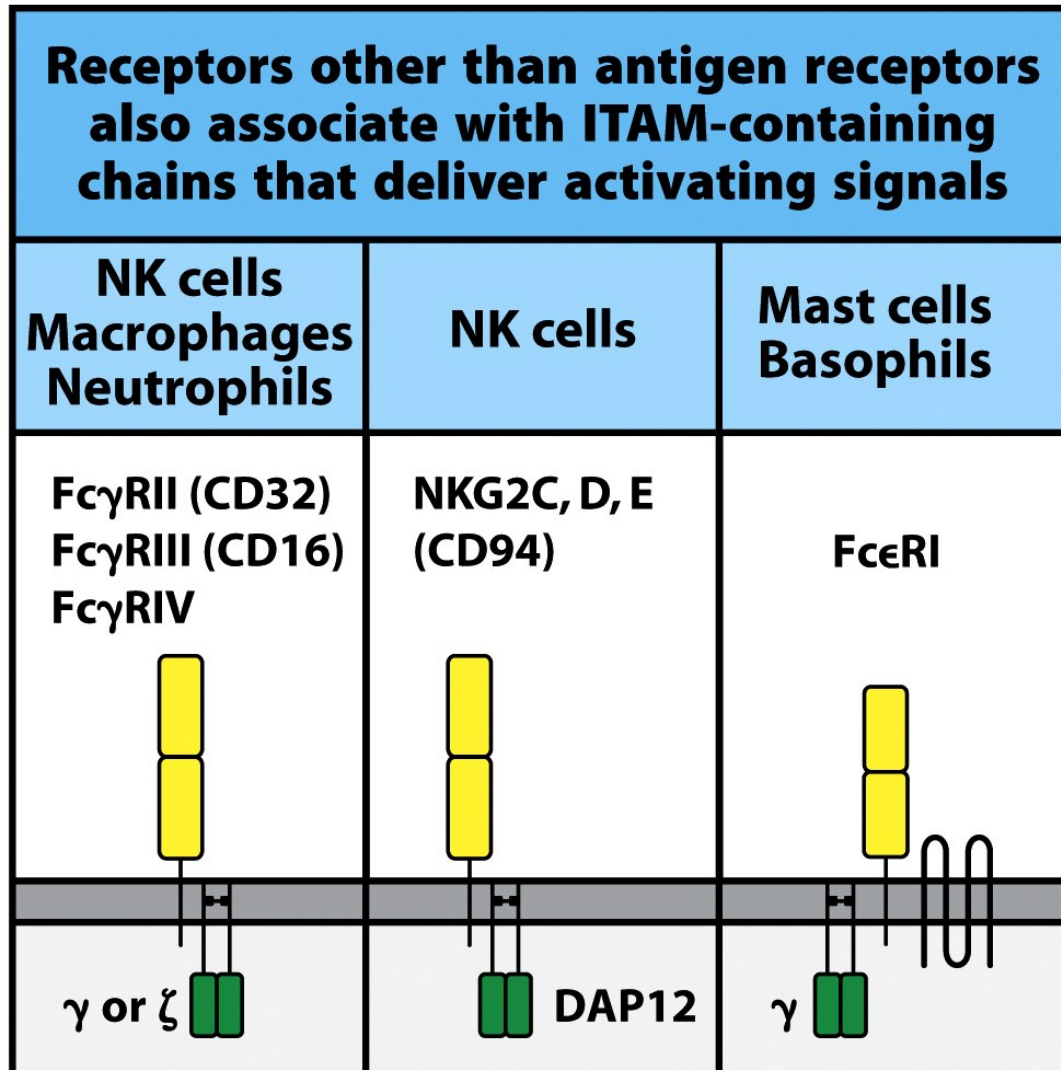


Figure 6-27 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

(Fig. 7.27) Immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motif (ITIM)

- Canonical sequence
 - [I/V]XYXXL
- Opposite function as to ITAM
- Recruits inhibitory phosphatase
 - SHP-1: removes phosphate group added by tyrosine kinase
 - SHIP: removes 5'-P on PIP3
- Transduces (-) signal for the inactivation of the receptors

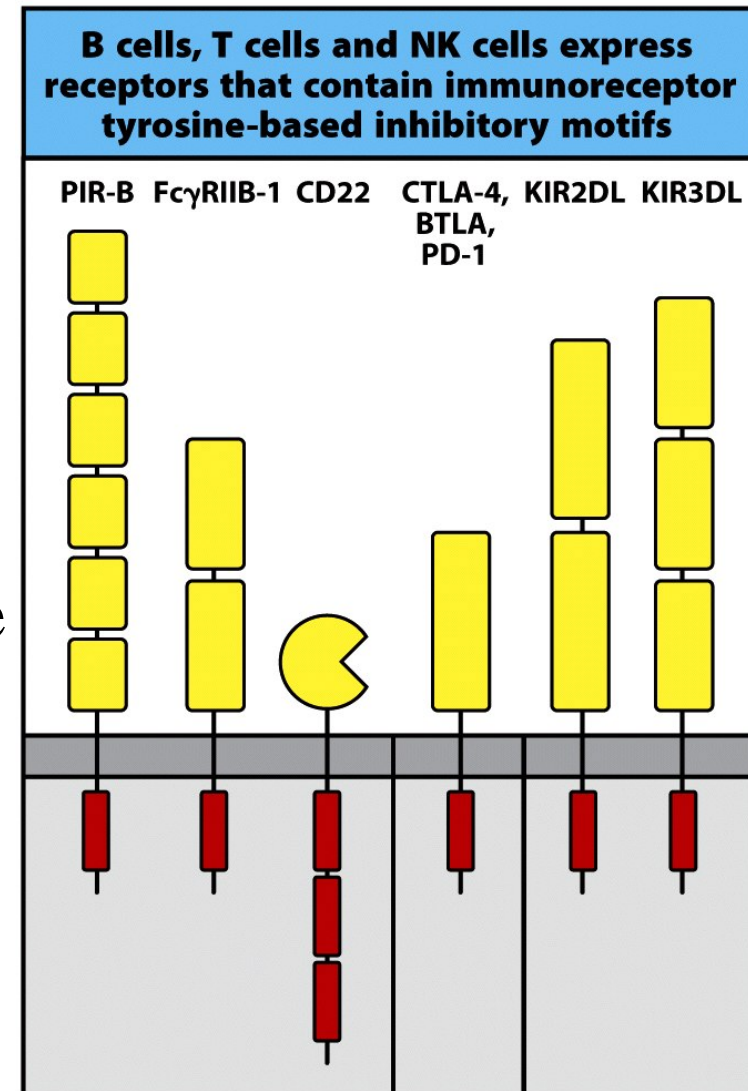



Figure 6-29 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)



Other receptors and signaling pathways

Cytokine-activated Janus kinases (JAKs) → the “JAK-STAT pathway”

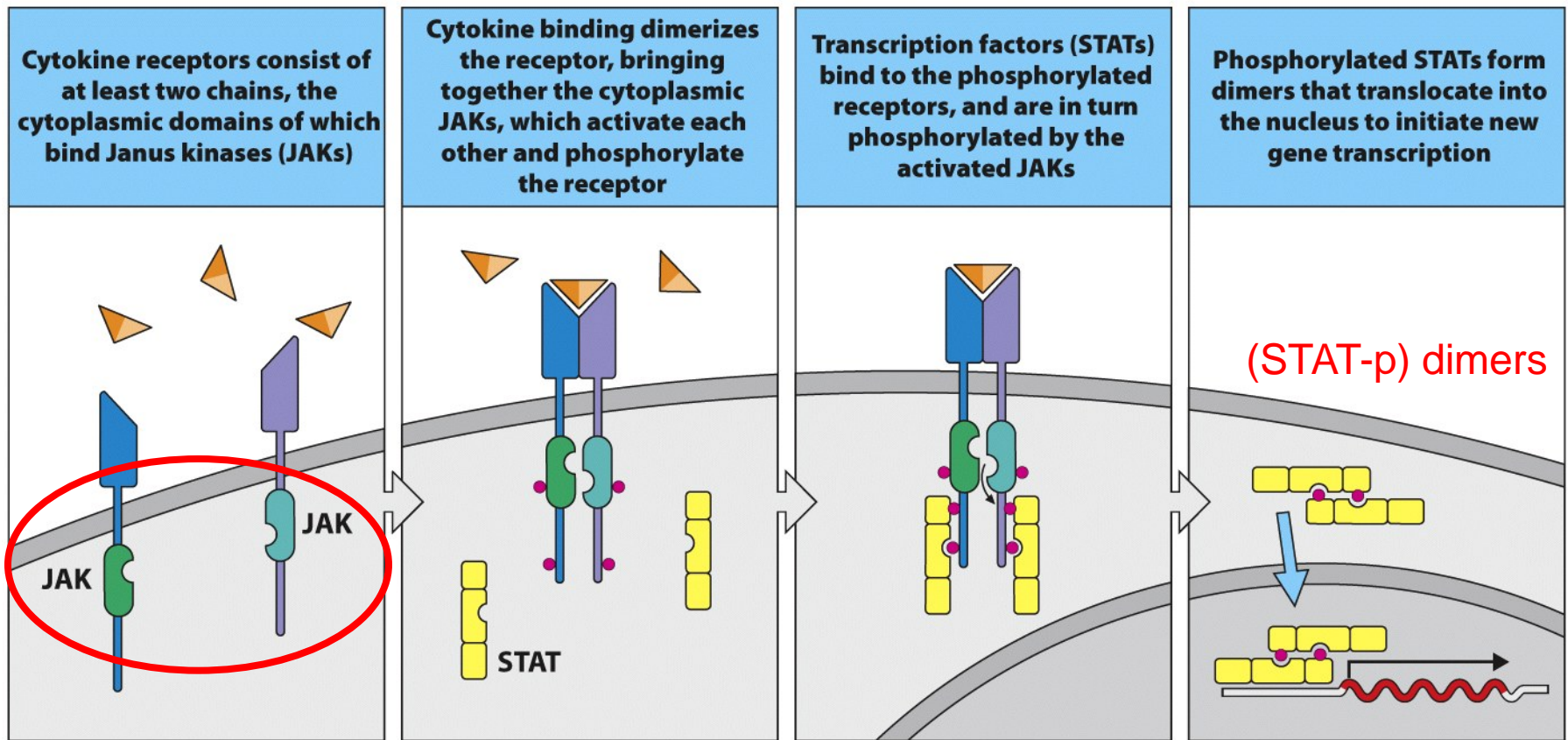
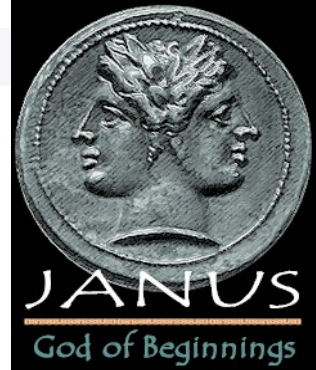
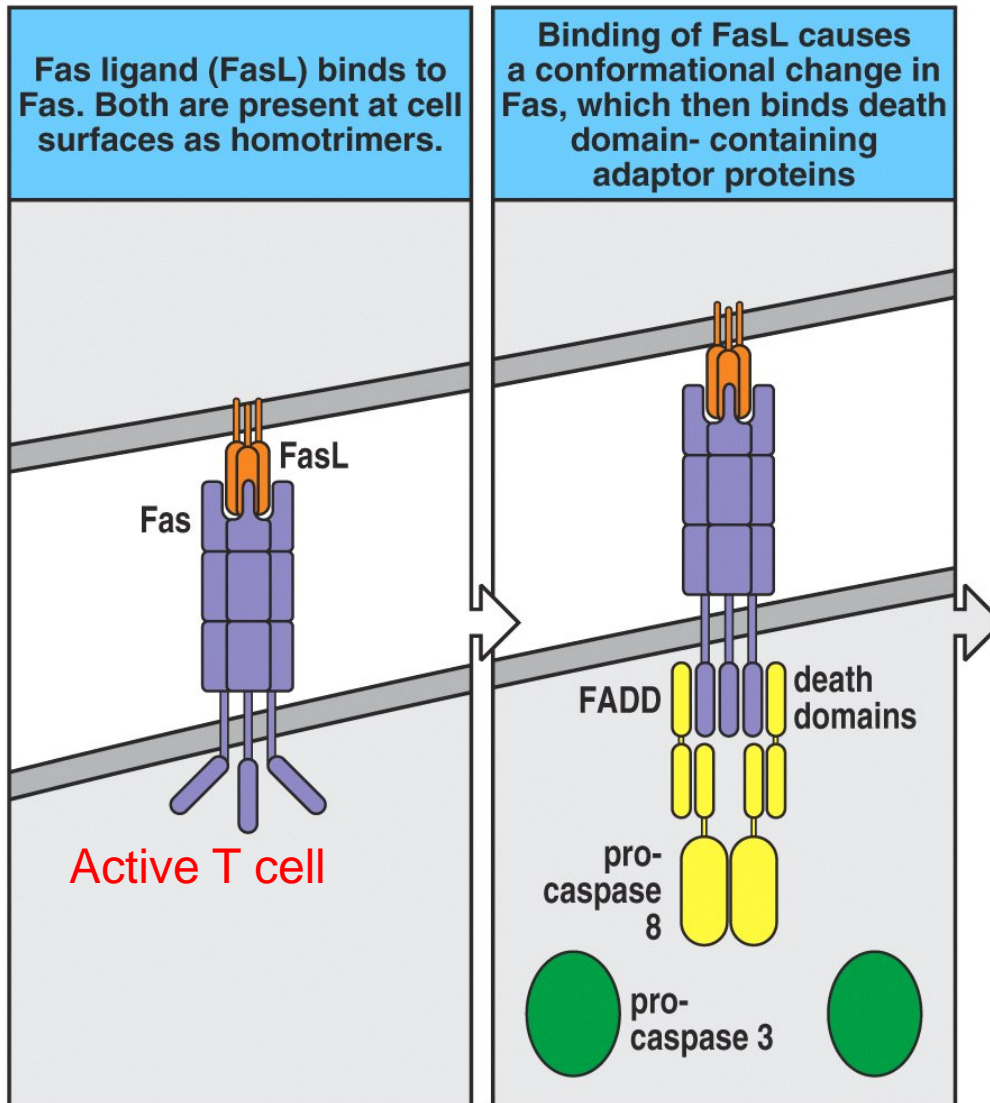


Figure 7.29 Janeway's Immunobiology, 8ed. (© Garland Science 2012)

“Signal transducers and activators of transcription” (STAT)

(Fig. 7.30) Fas-FasL pathway



Apoptosis:

Purpose → To 'inactivate' activated T cells once the infection is gone!!

Pathway involves the activation of a series of cysteine protease that cleave at the C-terminus of the subsequent protein in play.

Apoptosis

Extrinsic

Intrinsic

(initiator caspase)

caspase 8

caspase 9

(effector caspases)

3

6

7

**Caspase-activated DNase
(CAD)**

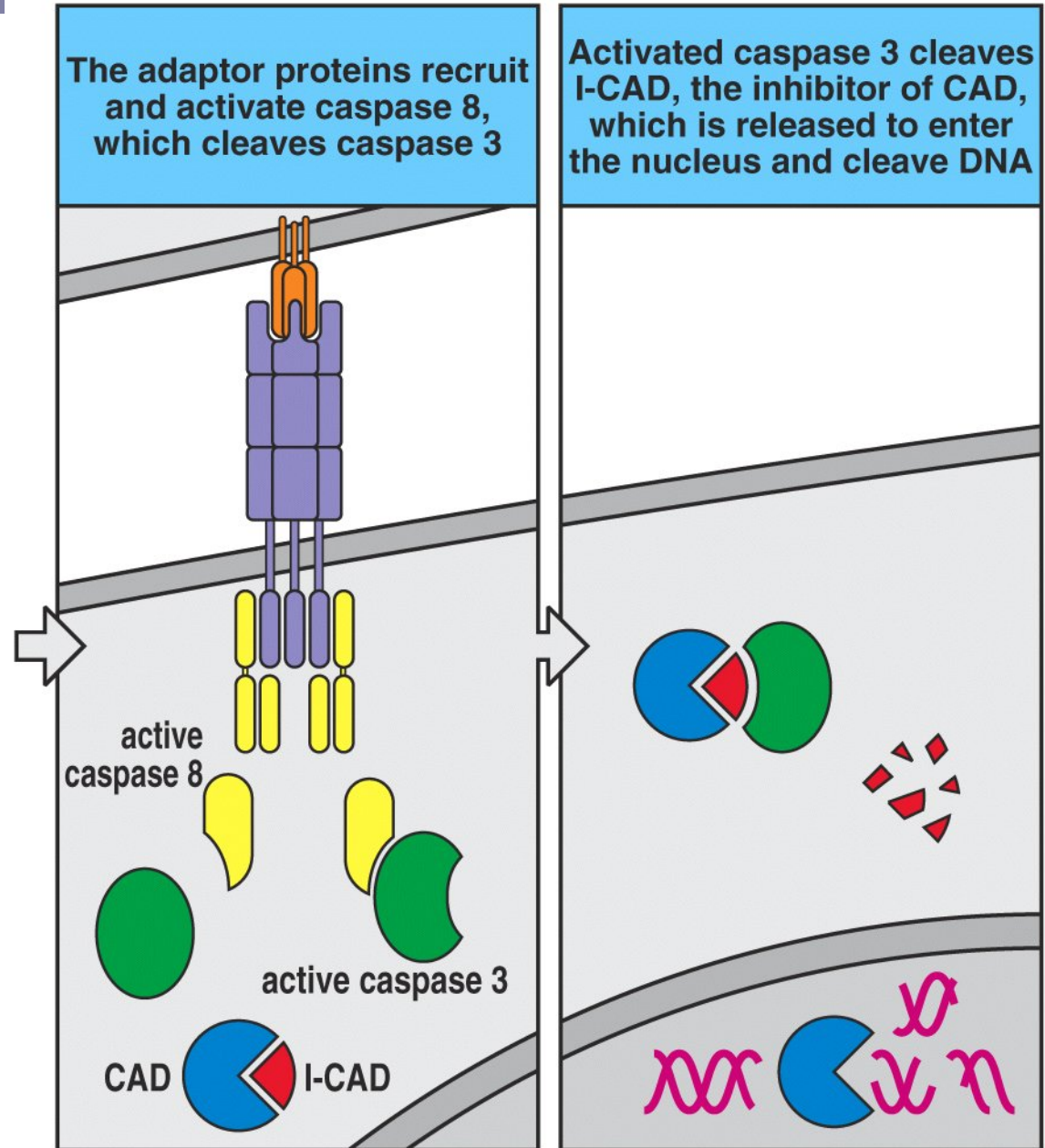
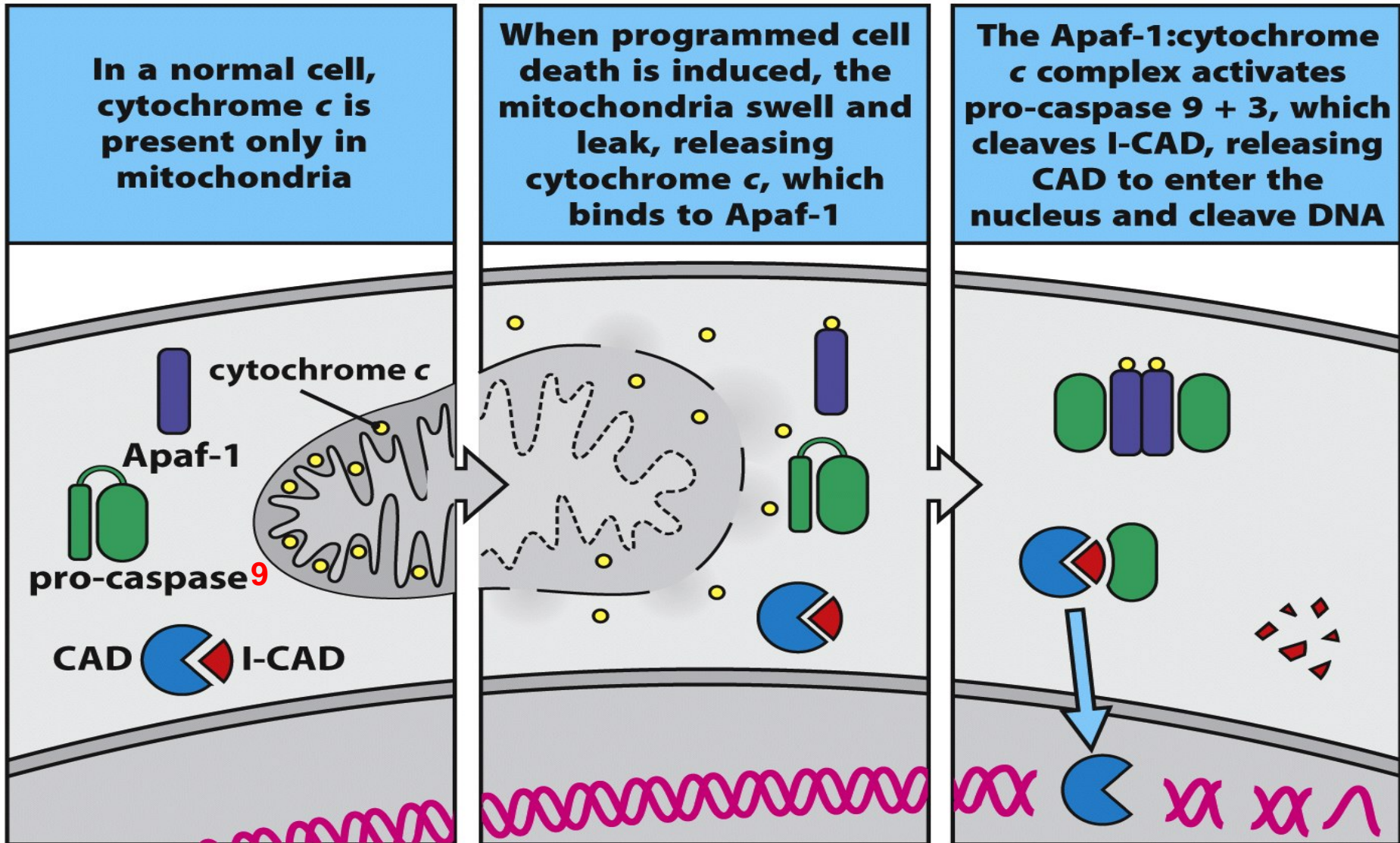


Figure 6-24 part 2 of 2 Immunobiology, 6/e. (© Garland Science 2005)

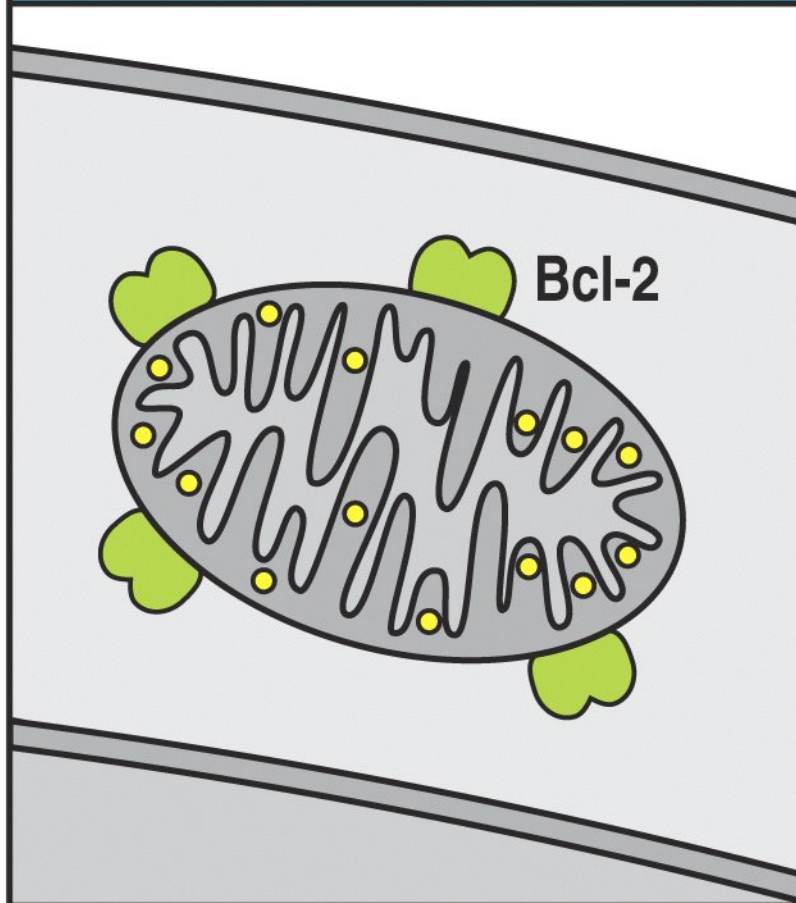
(Fig. 7.32) Swelling/Leaking of mitochondria can induce the CAD-mediated cell death



Death-inhibiting gene family

- First identified from B-cell lymphoma
 - *bcl-2* (encodes Bcl-2)
 - Belonged to a gene family containing BOTH death-promoting and death-inhibiting genes
 - Inhibiting: *bcl-2*, *bcl-XL*
 - Promoting: *bax*, *bad*
 - Requires dimerization to become active
 - All members possess the Bcl-2 homology (BH2) domains
 - Cell lives or dies is dependent upon the abundance of either death-inhibiting or -promoting protein products

Bcl-2 binds to mitochondrial membranes, blocking the swelling and so blocking the process that leads to cell death

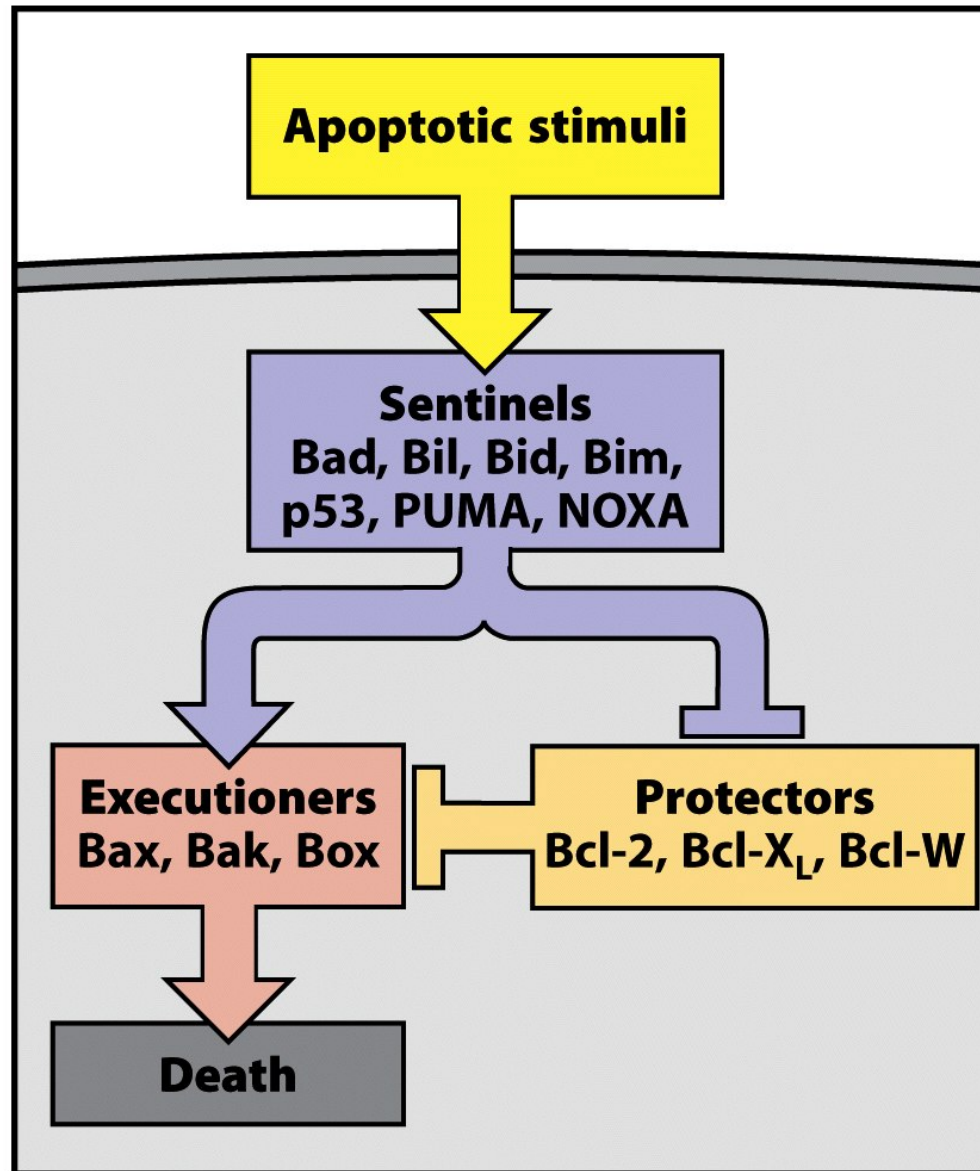


Bcl-2 can inhibit cell death by binding to and maintaining the integrity of mitochondria

(Fig. 7.33) Two Bcl-2 family members

1. Pro-apoptotic

1. Pro-apoptotic



2. Anti-apoptotic
(or pro-survival)

Figure 6-34 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

Summary

- Both B and T lymphocytes require signaling through their membrane-bound receptors for activation.
- Multiple signaling pathways contribute to lymphocyte behavior.



End of Chapter

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