

Cell membranes

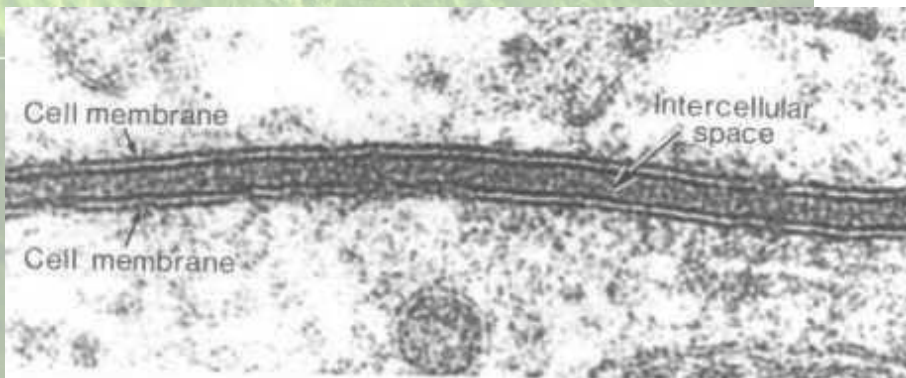
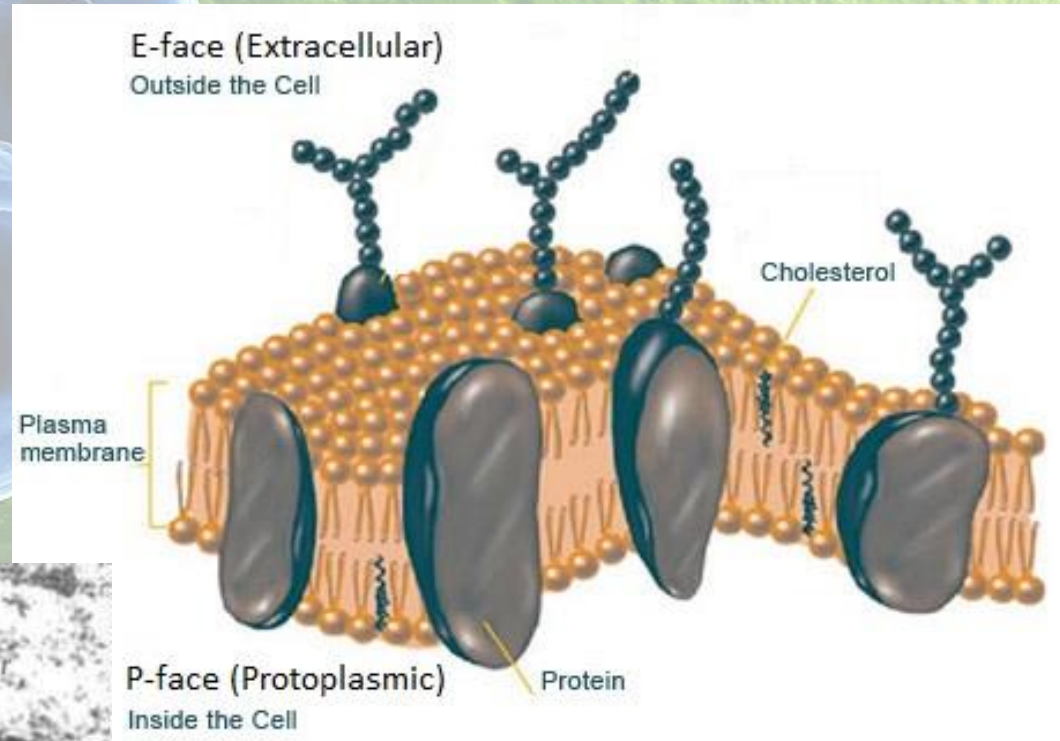
Principles of cell transport and cell signaling

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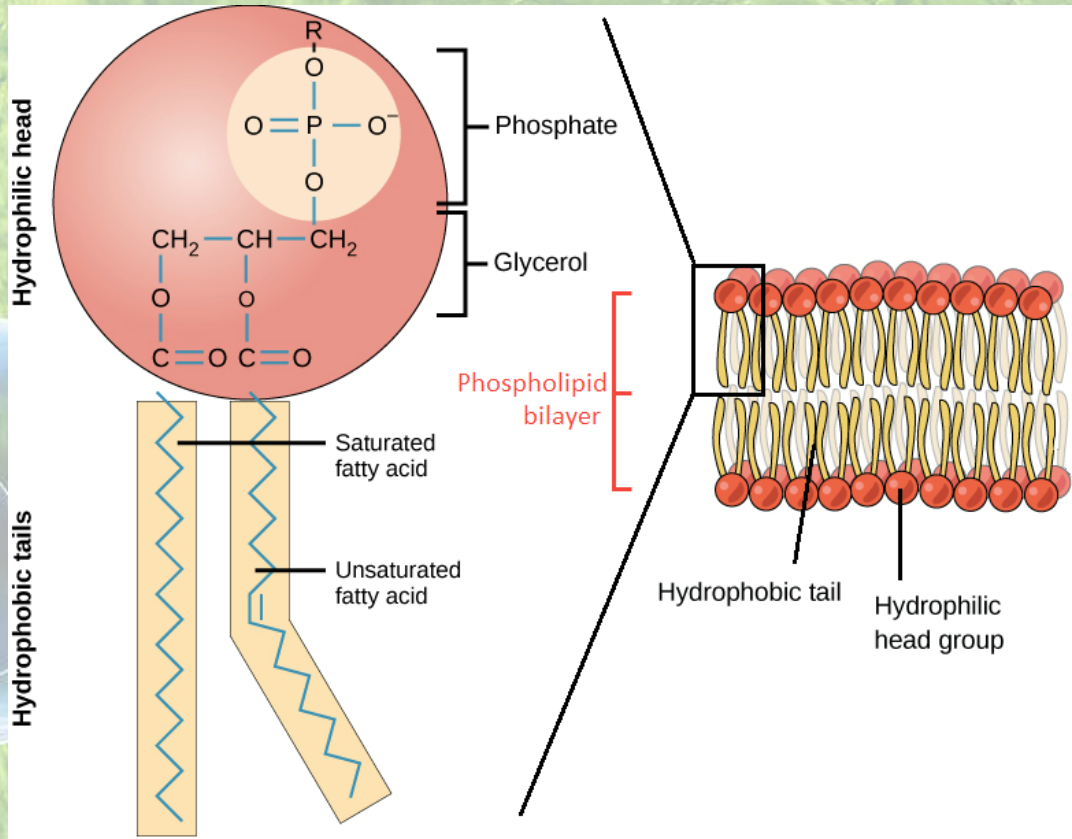


Plasma membrane

- * biological structure that separates the inside of the cell from the outside
- * lipid bilayer, total thickness 6-10 nm
- * dynamic
- * semipermeable
- * primarily consists of:
 1. phospholipids
 2. cholesterol
 3. protein molecules



Phospholipids

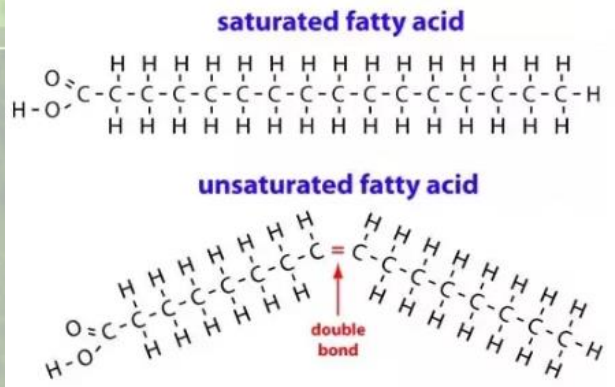


HYDROPHILIC
= with affinity for water / polar

HYDROPHOBIC
= no affinity for water / non-polar

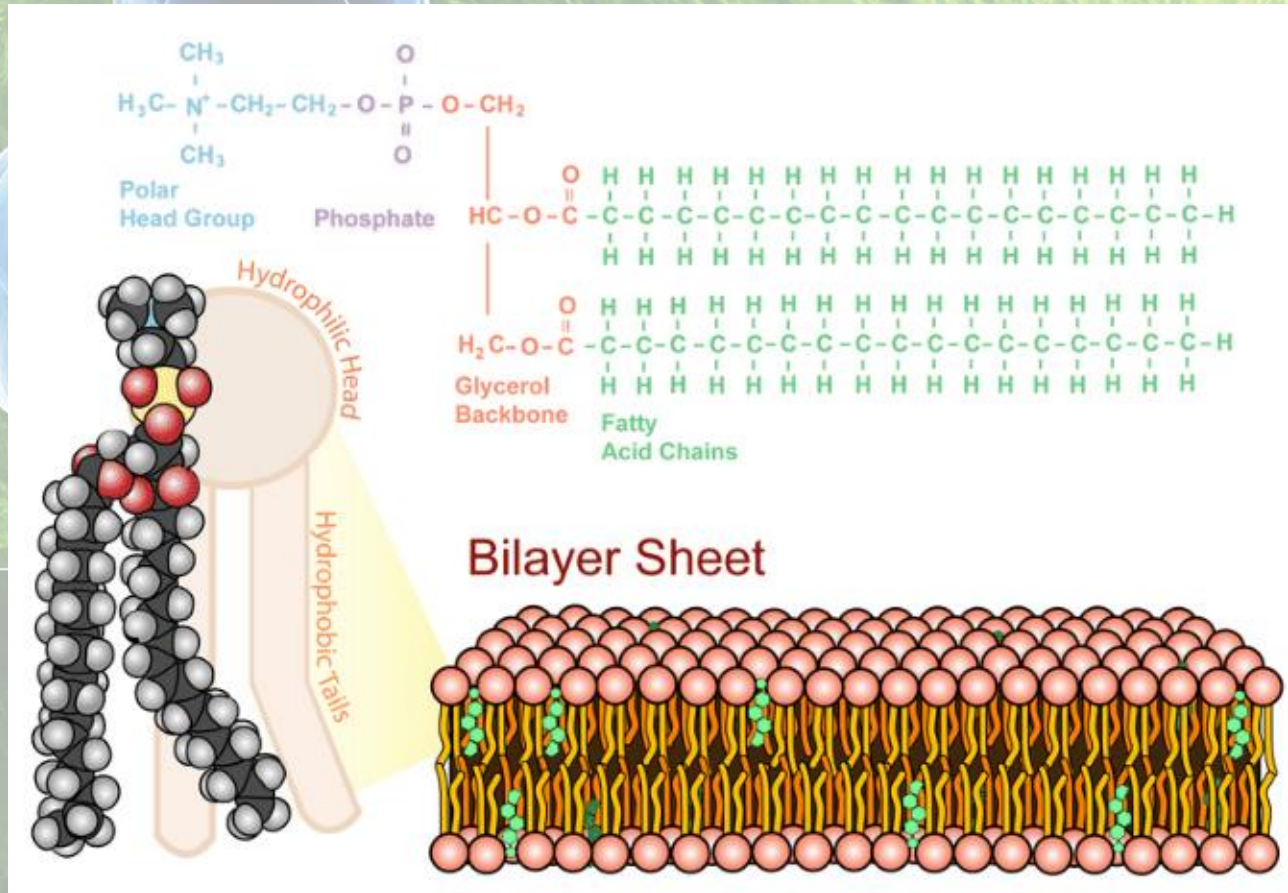
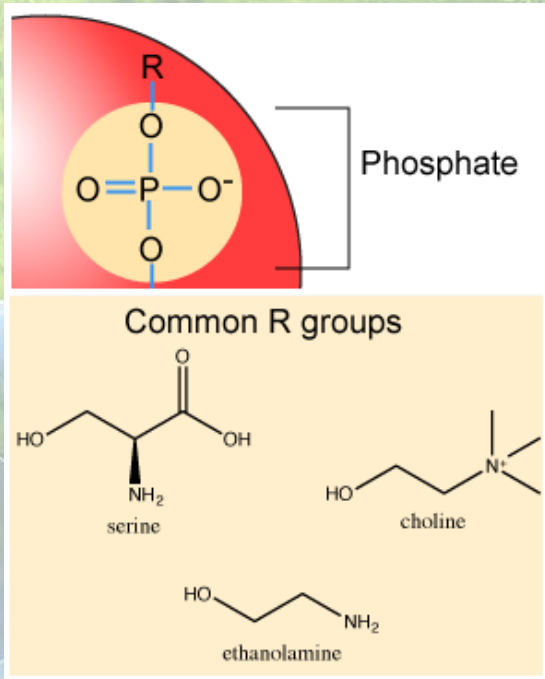
* the fatty acid chains of the lipid molecules face each other (inner portion of the membrane)

* the surfaces of the membrane are formed by the polar head groups of the lipid molecules



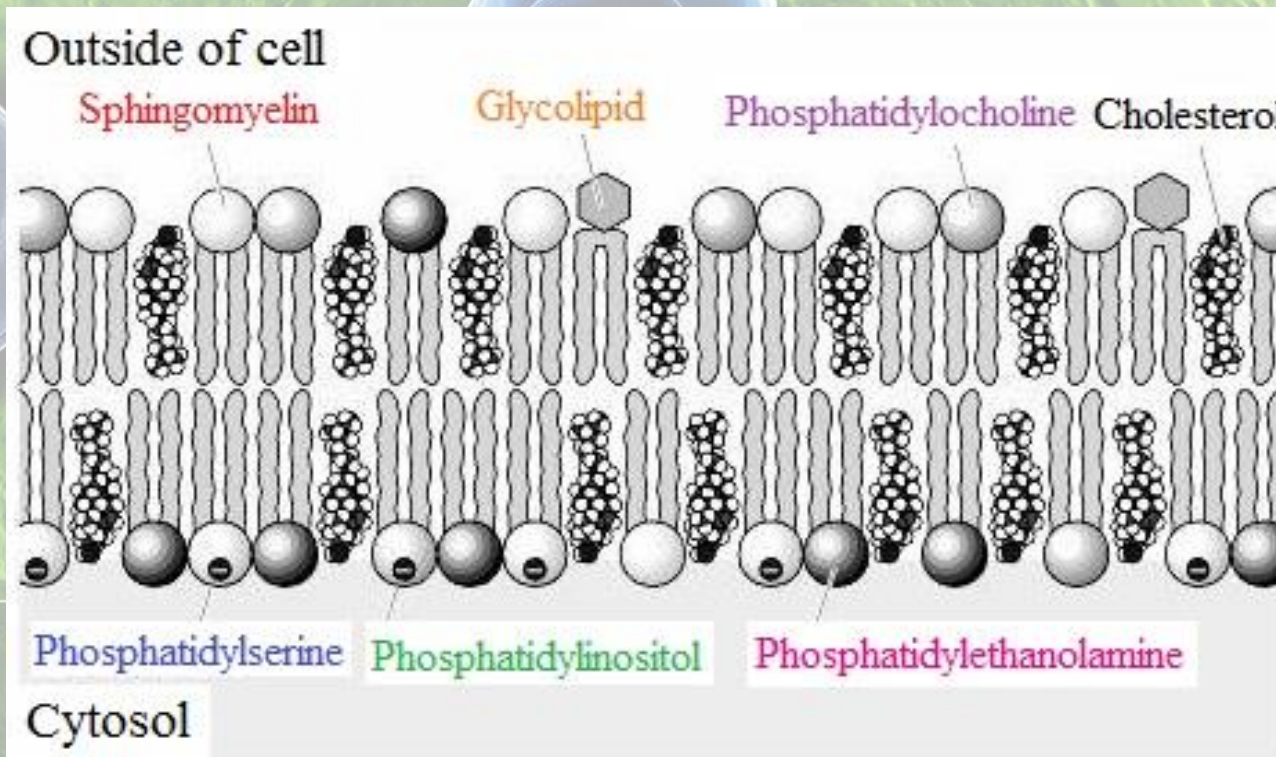
Most membranes are **AMPHIPATHIC** (both polar and non-polar properties).

Phospholipids



Plasma membrane

* asymmetrical distribution of specific phospholipids in the bilayer



Phospholipids

Phospholipids' movement:

Rotational movement

occurs $\sim 10^9$ /sec,
phospholipids rotate on its axis to
interact with its immediate neighbours

Lateral movement

occurs $\sim 10^7$ times/sec

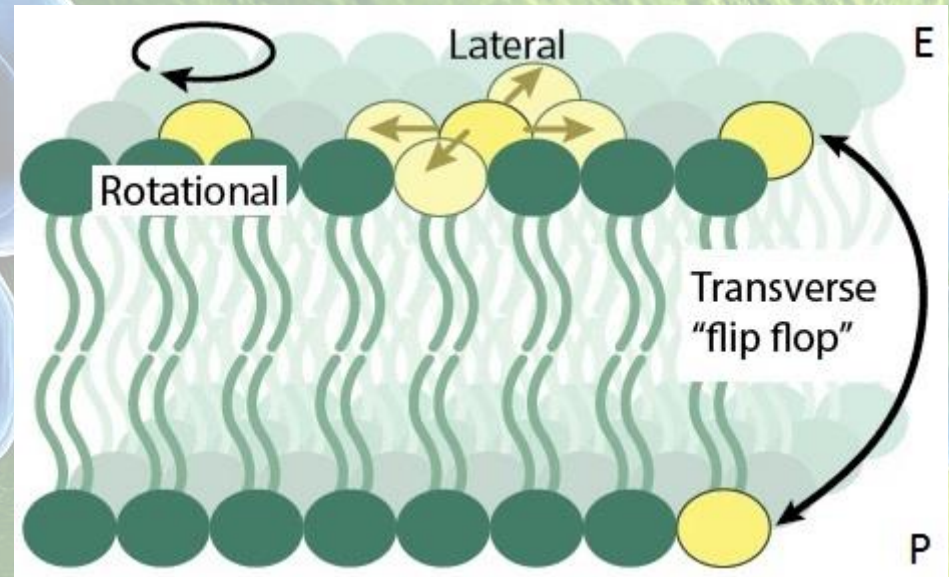
Transverse diffusion = flip-flop

from one half of the bilayer to the
other, catalyzed by:

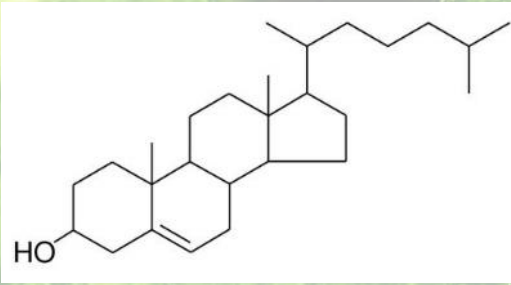
flippase (E \rightarrow P), more often

floppase [scramblase] (P \rightarrow E),

very **slow** and **rare**: once/month



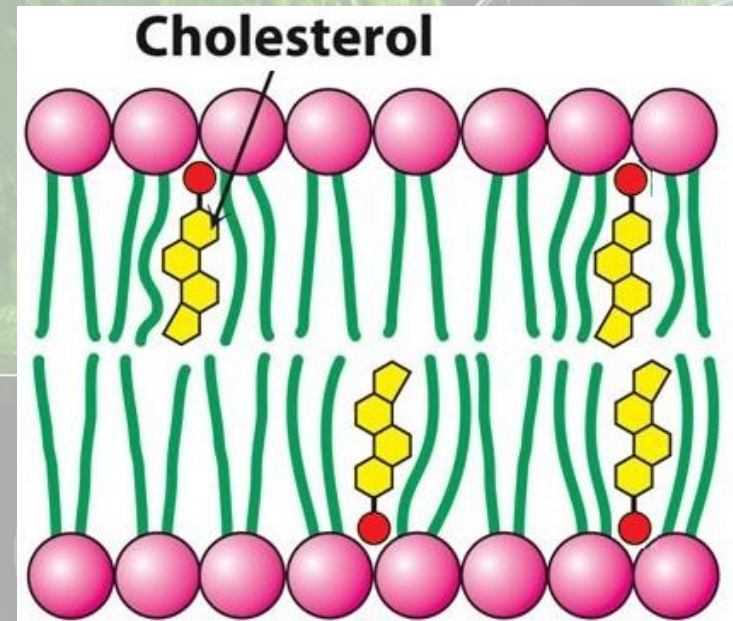
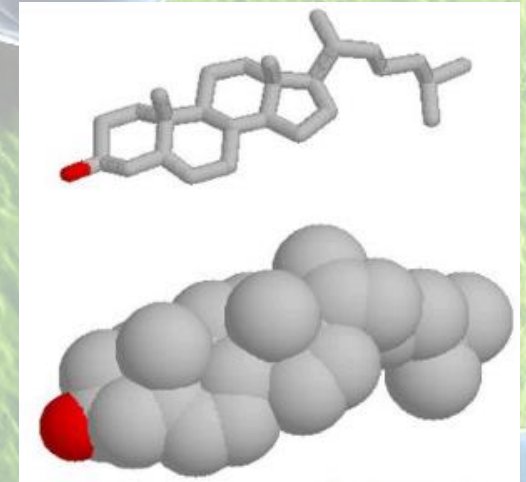
Cholesterol



- * has a rigid ring system and a short-branched hydrocarbon tail
- * largely hydrophobic but **one polar hydroxyl group** makes it amphipathic
- * incorporated within the gaps between phospholipids equally on both sides of the membrane, with its hydroxyl group oriented towards the aqueous phase

Plasma membrane with a high concentration of cholesterol have a fluidity intermediate between the

liquid crystalline and **crystalline** state.



Membrane fluidity

In the **crystalline state (solid ordered)** fatty acid tails are fully extended, packing is highly ordered, van der Waals interactions between adjacent chains are max.

In the **liquid crystalline state (liquid disordered)** chains of phospholipids are disordered and in constant motion.

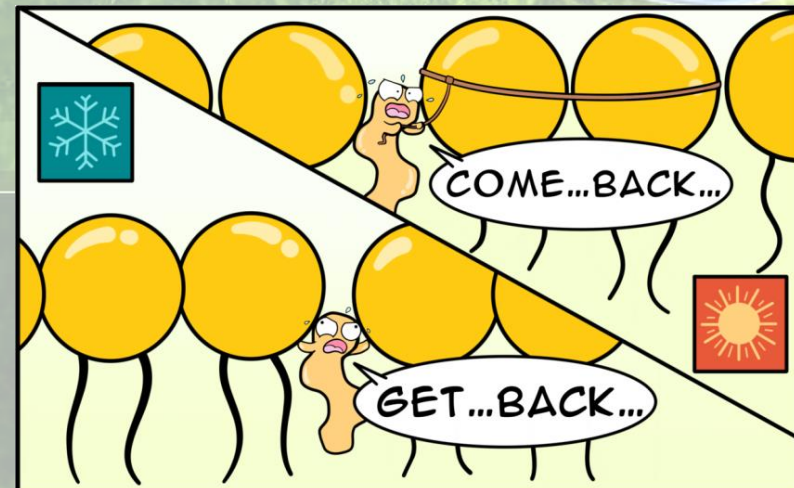
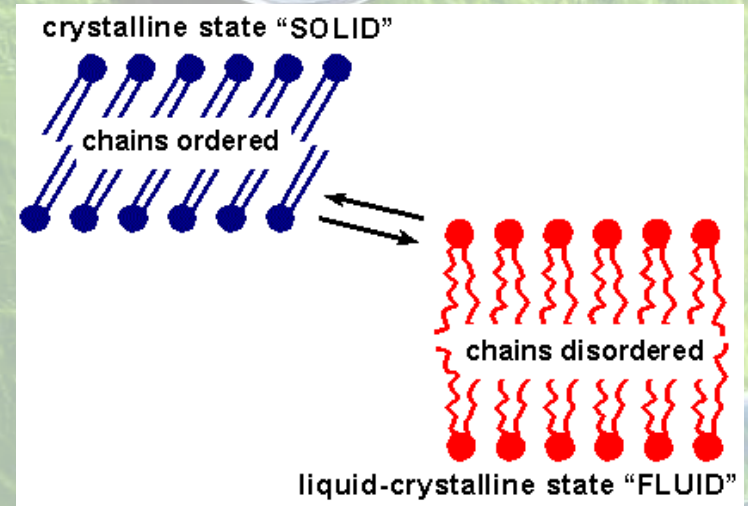
Influenced by several factors:

Saturation of fatty acids – more unsaturated C=C bonds increase fluidity
– kinks prevent tight packing

Lipid packing – lipids with shorter fatty acid tails are less stiff

Temperature – lipids move around more with increased T

Cholesterol – decreases fluidity at warmer T, increases at lower T

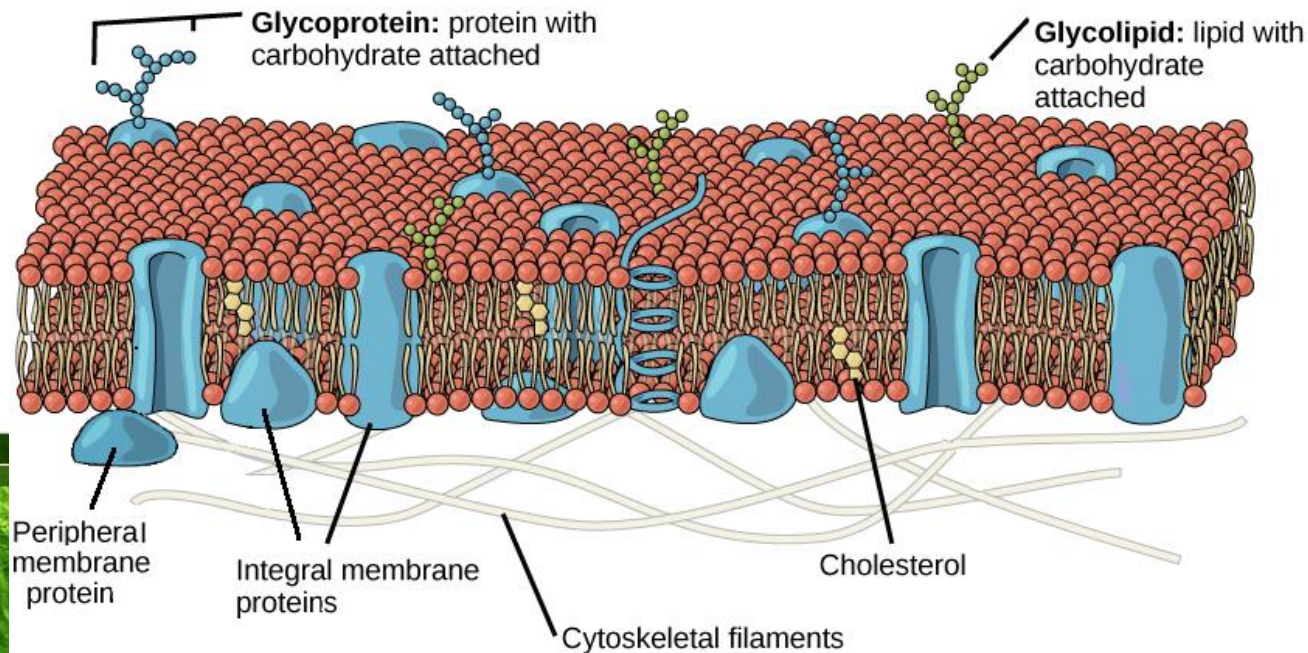


Cholesterol: Taking care of membrane fluidity business

Membrane proteins

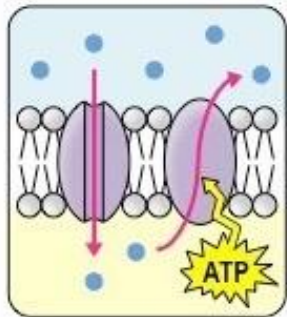
In most plasma membranes proteins constitute approximately **half of the total membrane mass**.

1. **Integral membrane proteins** – embedded within the bilayer or pass through it completely, can move – like an iceberg floating in the ocean
2. **Peripheral membrane proteins** – not embedded, but associated with the plasma membrane by strong ionic interactions, on both the extra- and intra-cellular surfaces of the membrane
3. **Peripheral**, having a **lipid anchor**

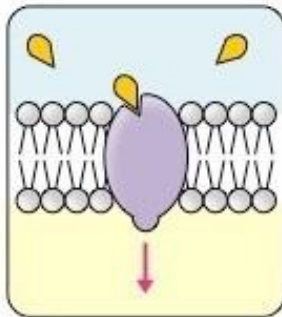


Functions of membrane proteins

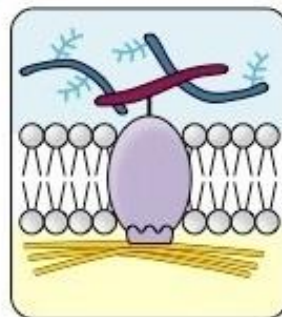
- **Pumps** – to transport certain ions and macromolecules (aa, sugars) actively across the membrane
- **Channels** – allow the passage of small ions and molecules across the plasma membrane in either direction through passive diffusion e.g. gap junctions
- **Receptor proteins** – allow recognition and localized binding of ligands
- **Linker proteins** – anchor the intercellular cytoskeleton to the extracellular matrix e.g. integrins in focal adhesions
- **Enzymes** – e.g. ATP synthase at the inner mitochondrial membrane
- **Structural proteins** – form junctions with neighbouring cells e.g. claudins and occludins in tight junctions / cell recognition



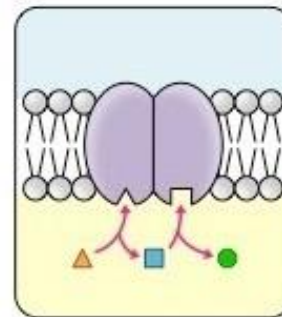
Transport
Active / Passive



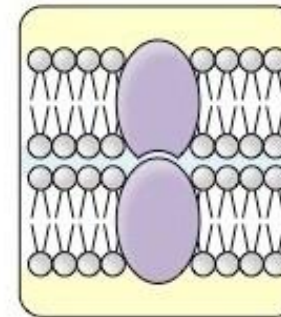
Signal
Transduction



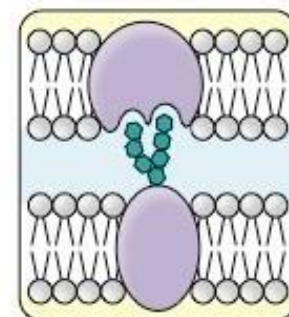
Anchorage /
Attachment



Enzymatic
Activity



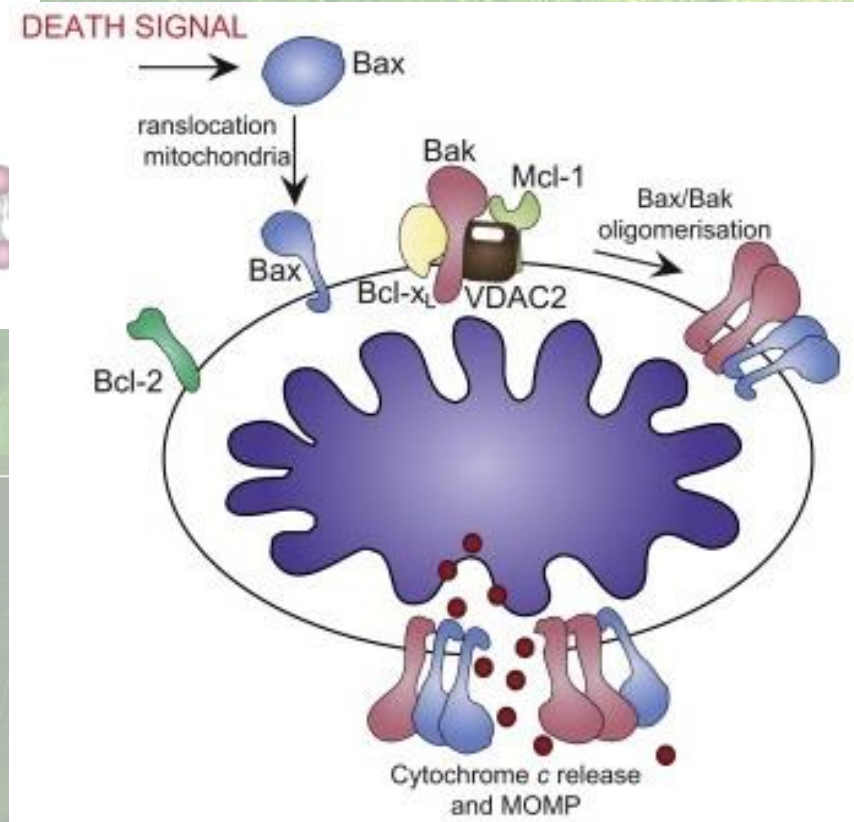
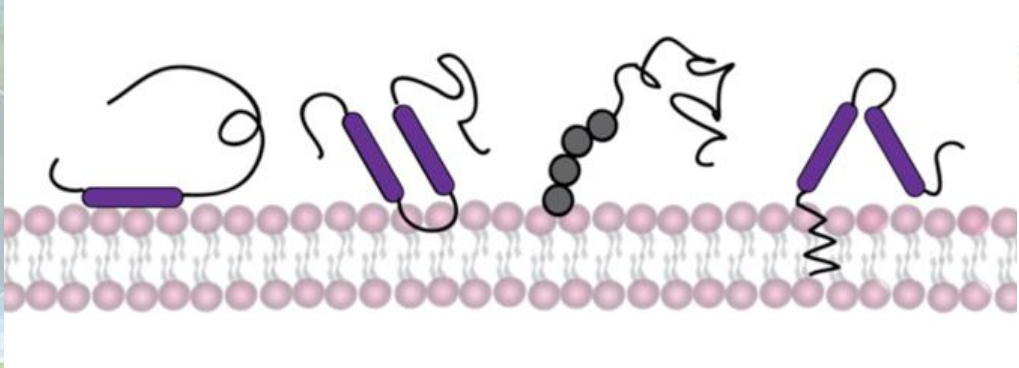
Intercellular
Joinings



Cell-Cell
Recognition

Peripheral membrane proteins (PMP)

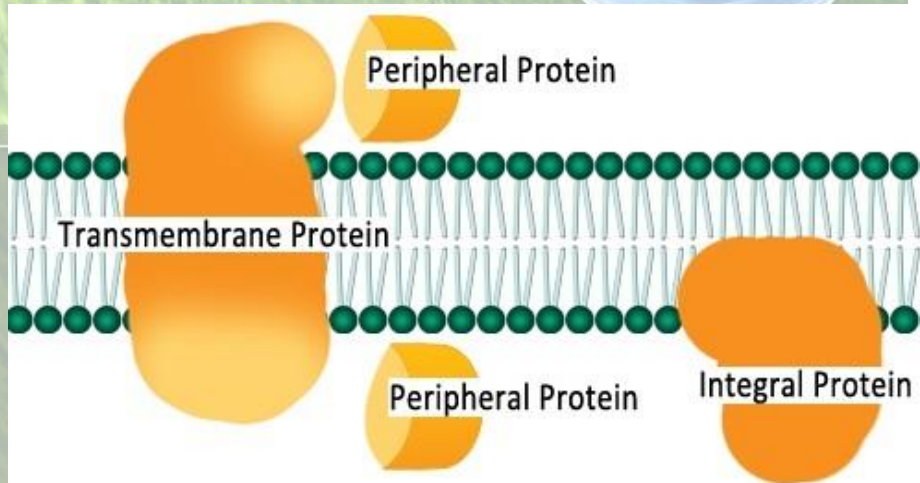
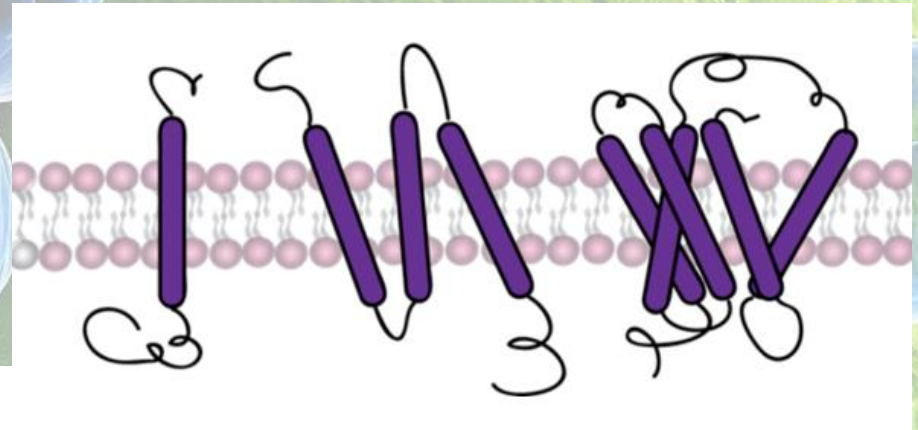
- * attached to integral membrane proteins or penetrate the peripheral regions of the lipid bilayer, water soluble e.g. Bcl-2
- * attachment is **reversible**, some associate irreversibly and can form transmembrane channels during e.g. Bax



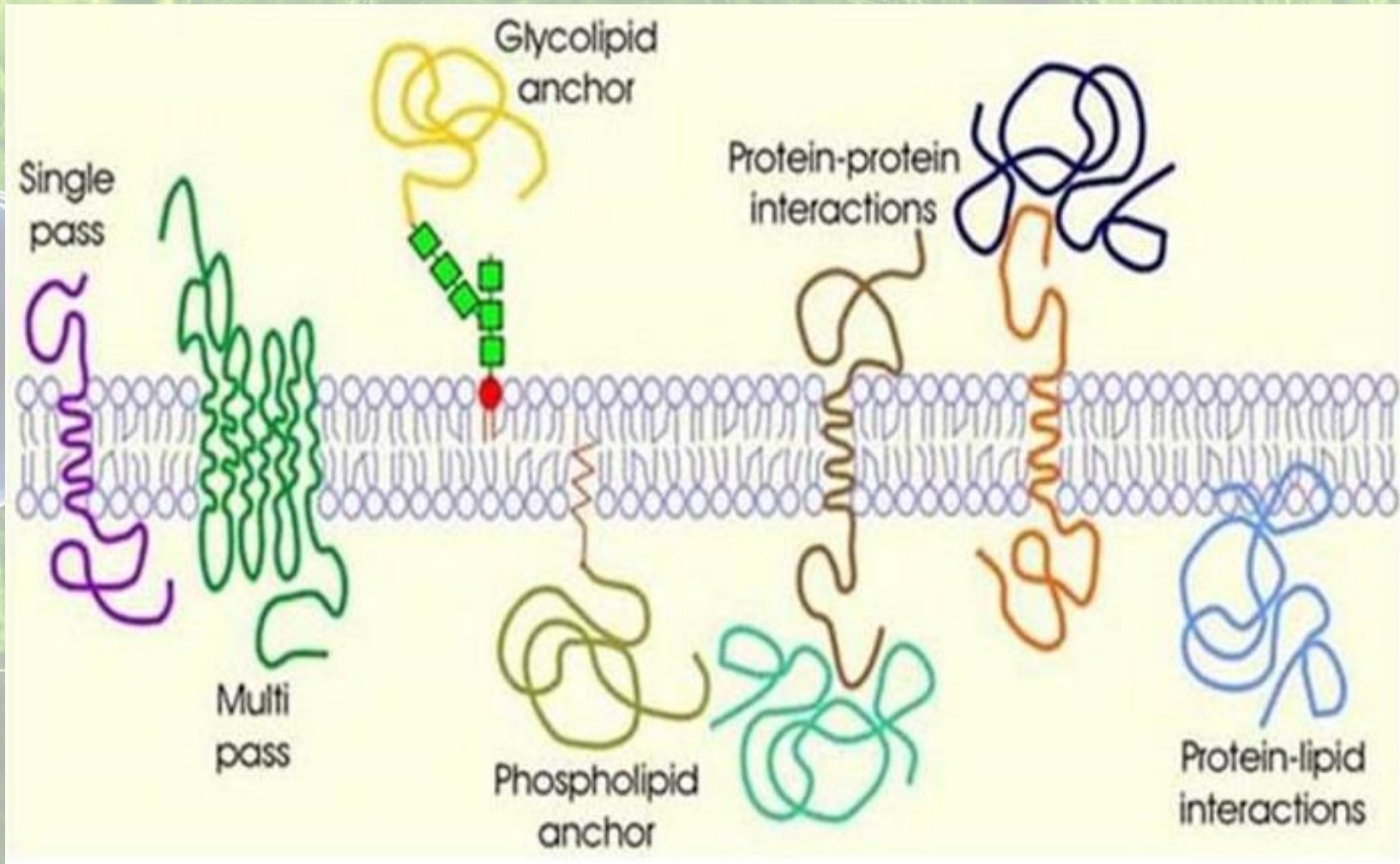
Integral membrane proteins (IMP)

- * have **intra**membrane domain(s) that extend into the core of the membrane, often span the whole bilayer
- * the intramembrane domains have largely hydrophobic surfaces that interact with membrane lipids' tails
- * permanently attached to the membrane
- * have **the same orientation** relative to the membrane = flip-flop movement does not occur

Integral \neq transmembrane

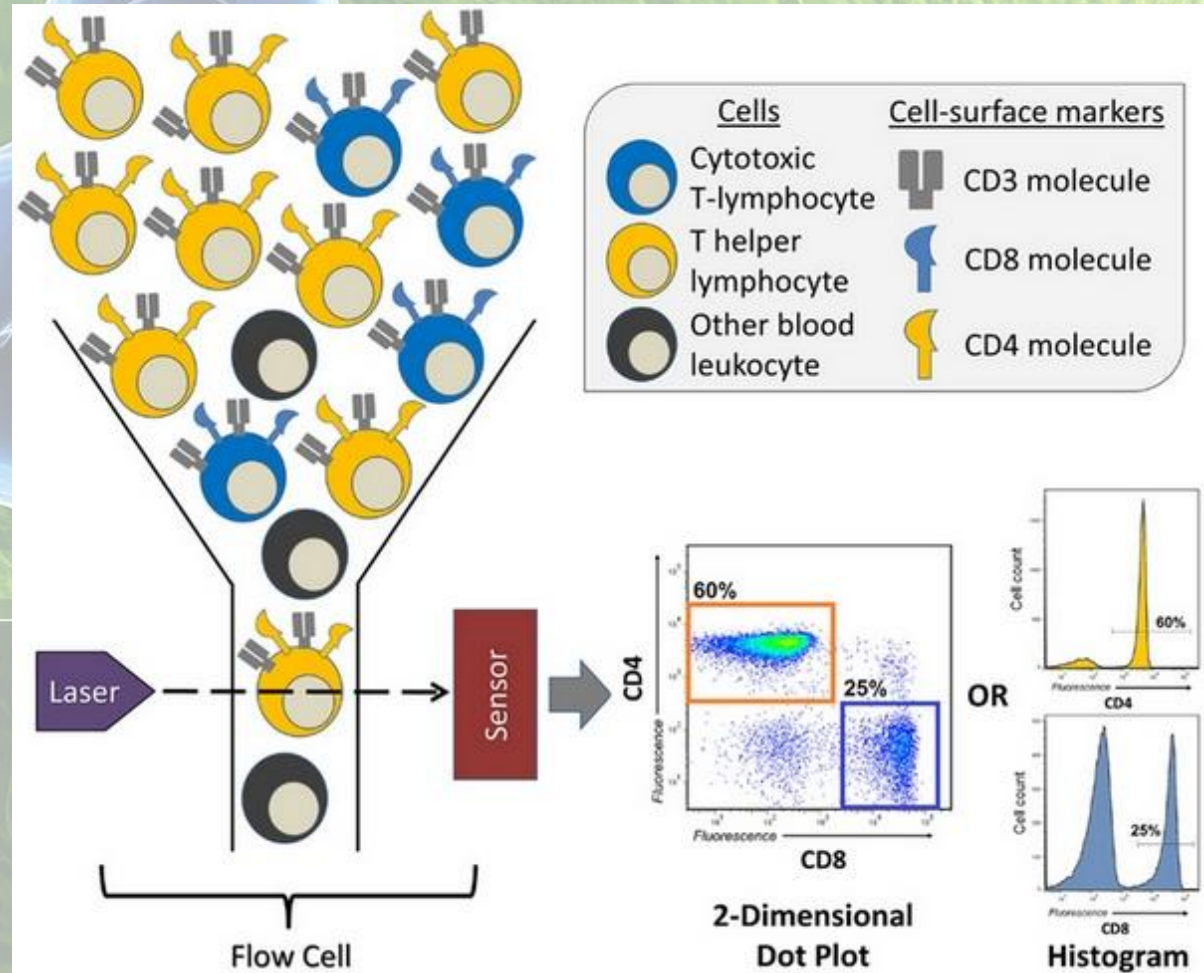
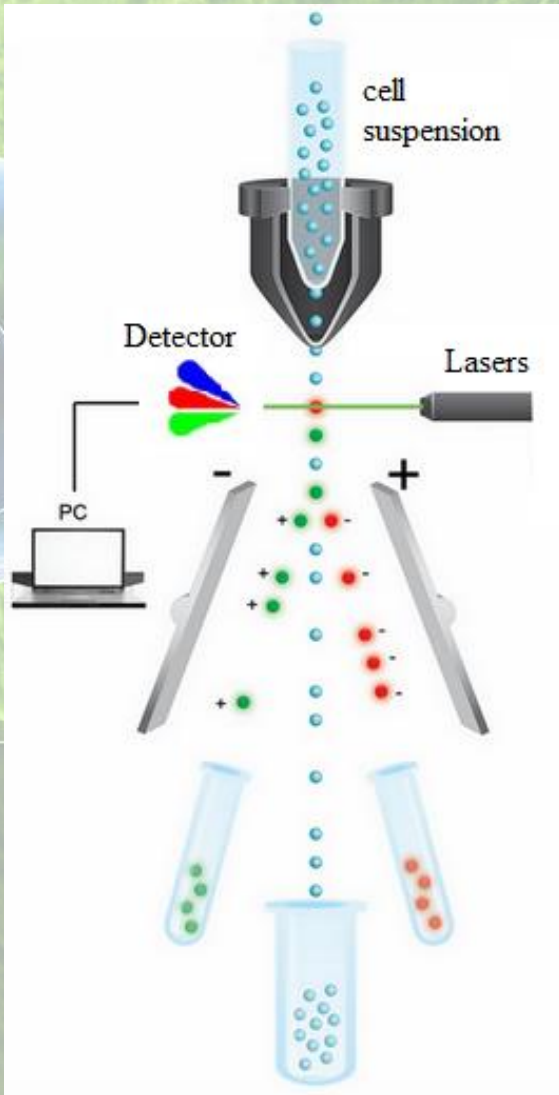


Association of proteins with the plasma membrane



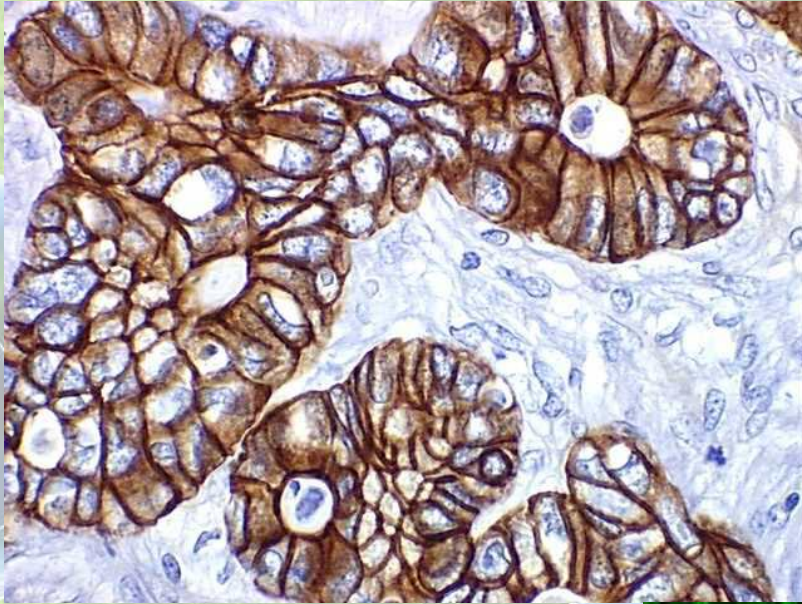
Association of proteins with the plasma membrane

High throughput flow cytometry



Association of proteins with the plasma membrane

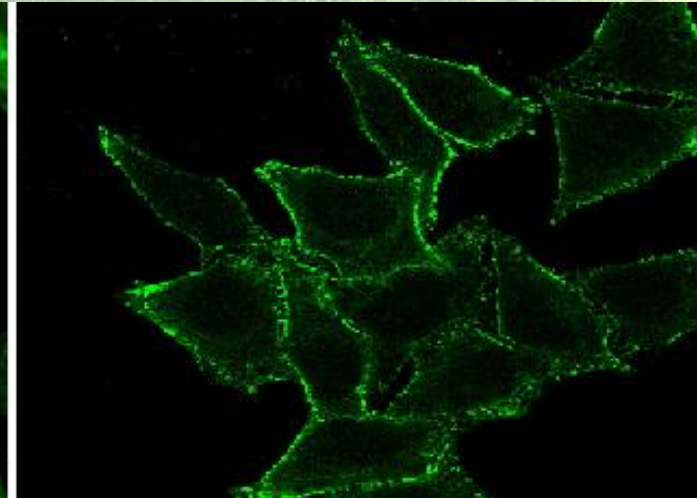
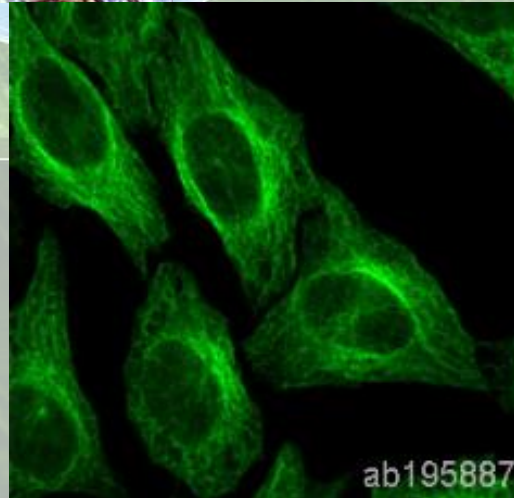
Immunohistochemistry



Immunofluorescent staining

Cytoplasmic vs. Membrane protein

E-cadherin

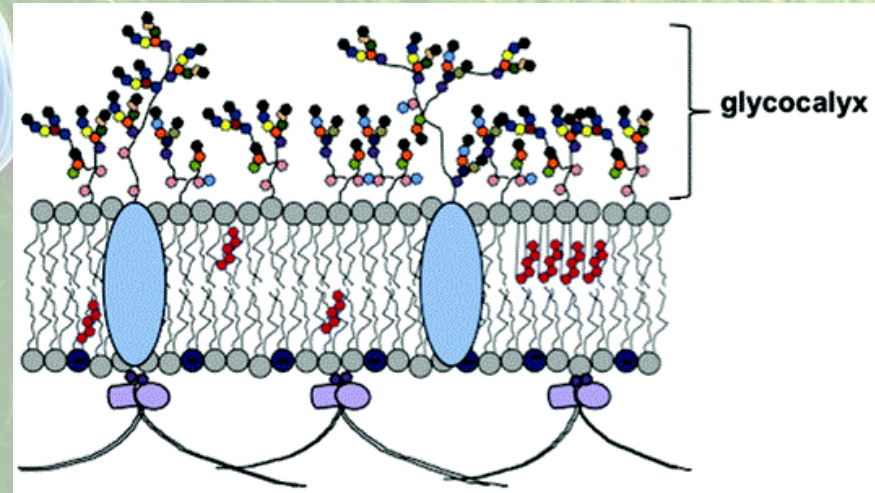


Glycocalyx

* carbohydrate moieties attached to both integral and peripheral membrane proteins: **GLYCOPROTEINS**
and to polar phospholipid heads: **GLYCOLIPIDS**

Function:

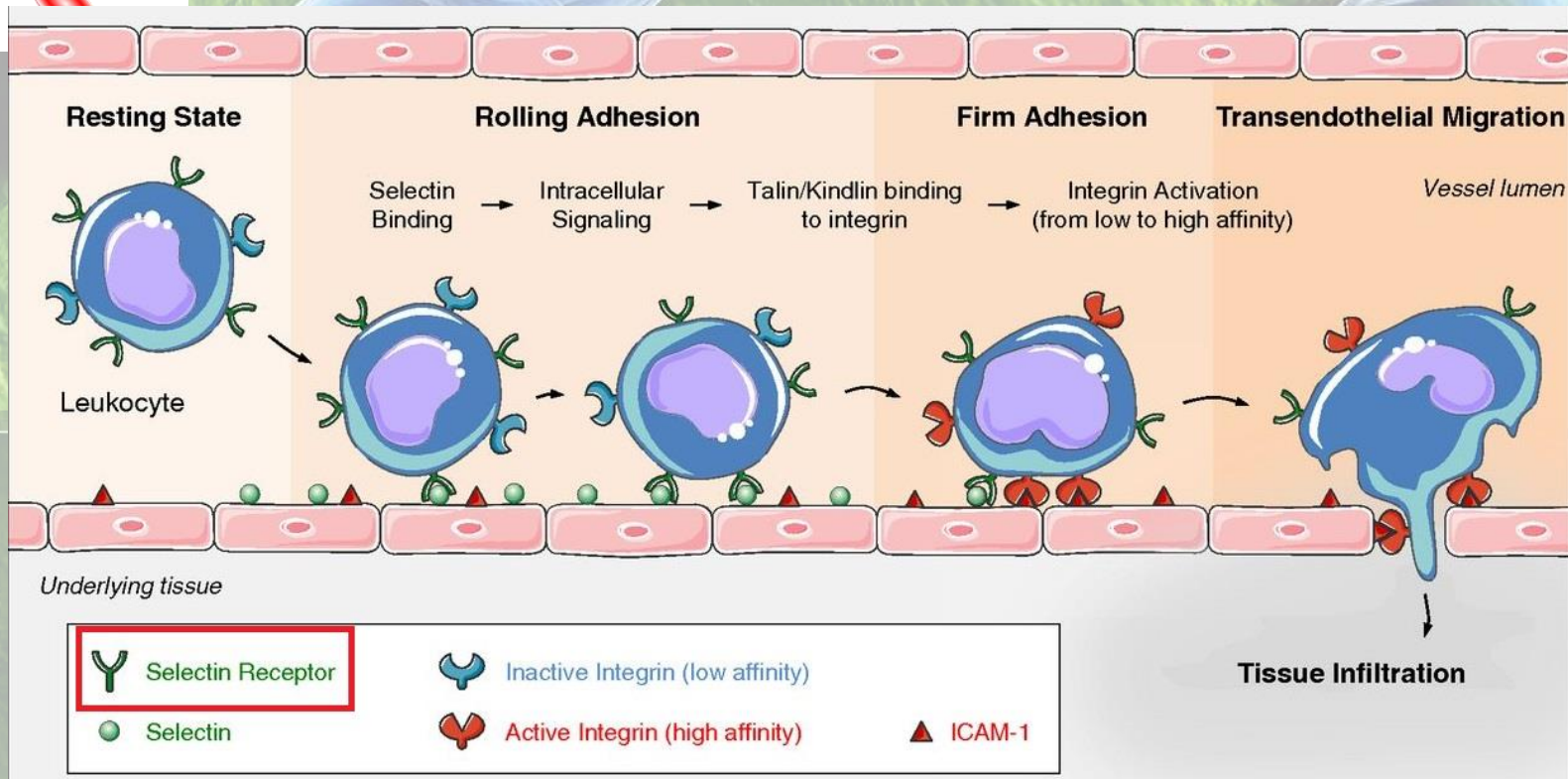
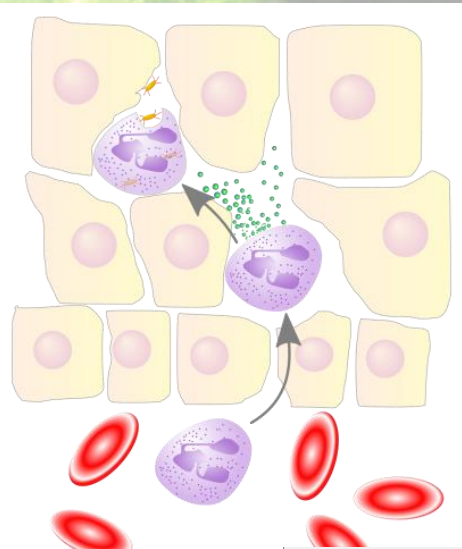
- cell protection
- cell recognition (e.g. inflammation)
- cell-to-cell adhesion
- receptor sites for hormones
- defense against cancer
- fertilization and embryonic processes
- helps establish extracellular microenvironment (cell-to-cell / cell-to-EXM adhesion)
- red blood cells group antigens



Glycocalyx

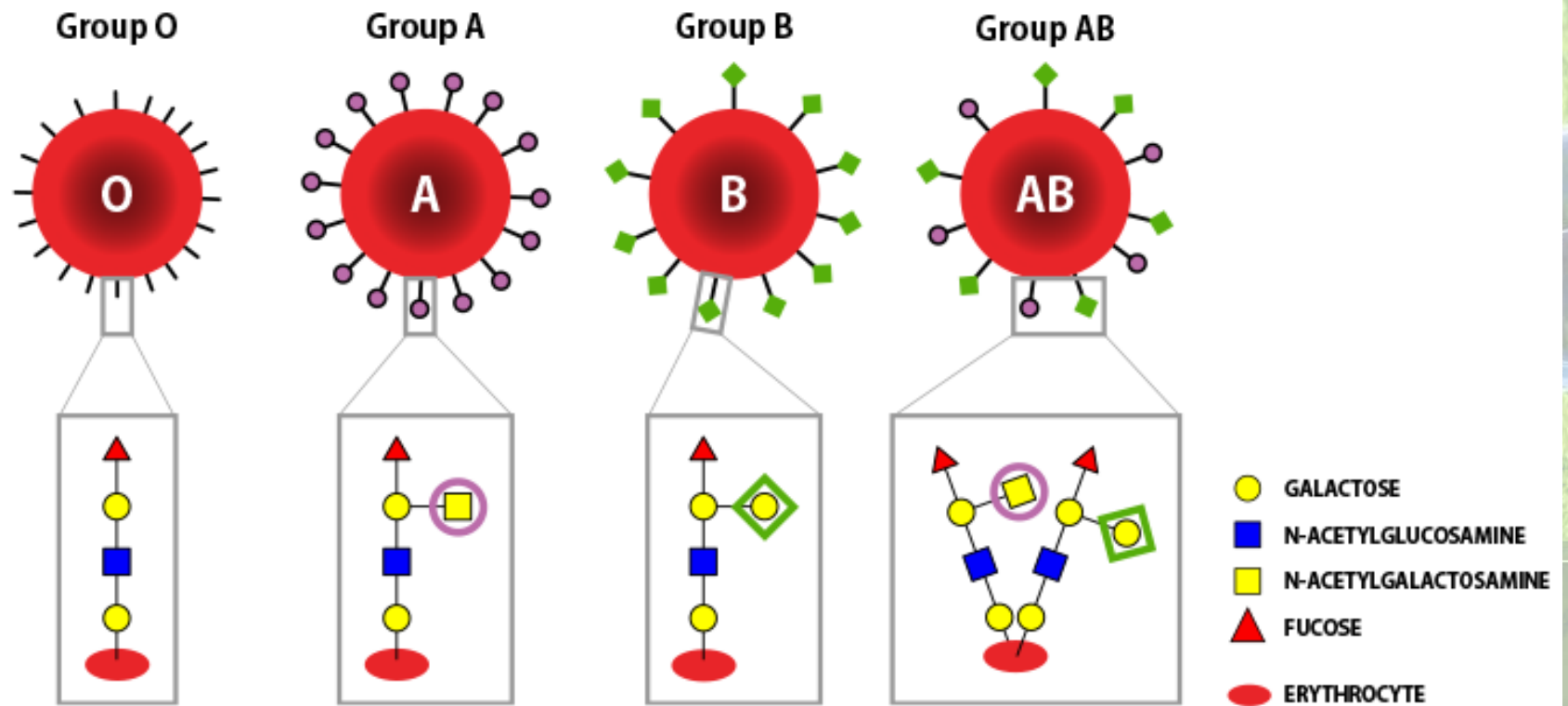
Leukocyte extravasation

Movement of leukocytes out of the circulatory system towards the site of infection/damage (inside the tissue).



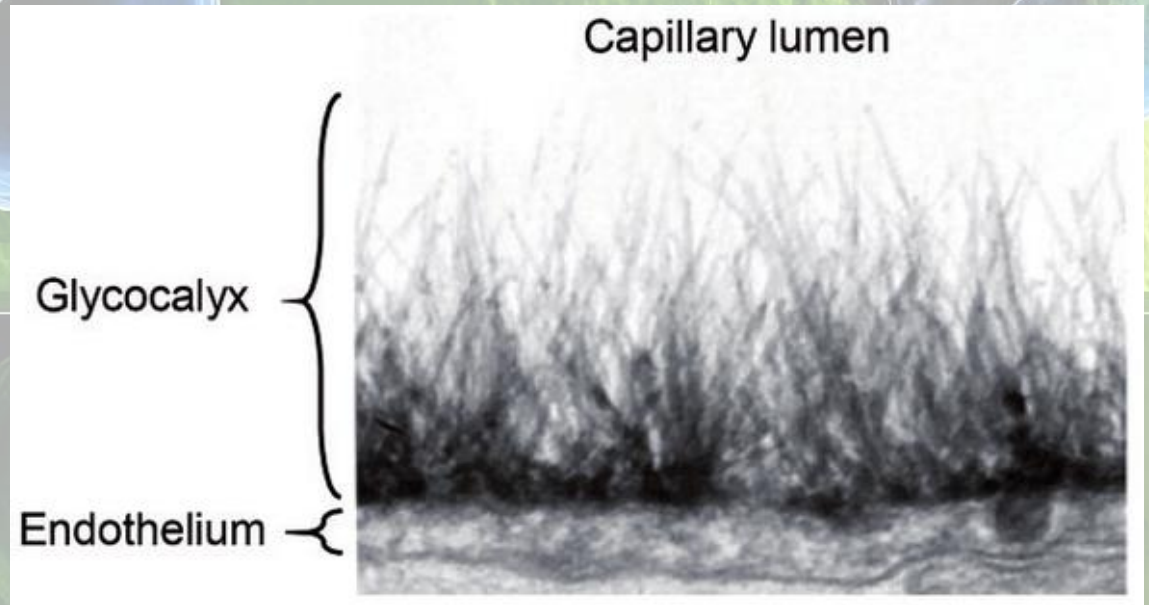
Glycocalyx

Red blood cell types

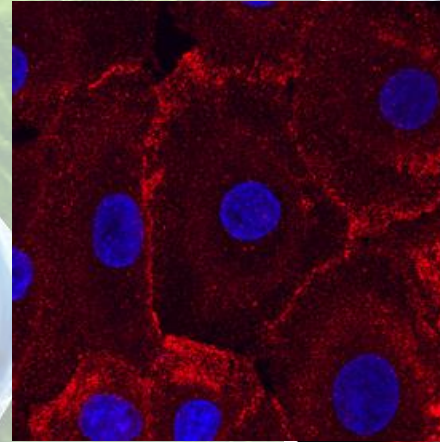
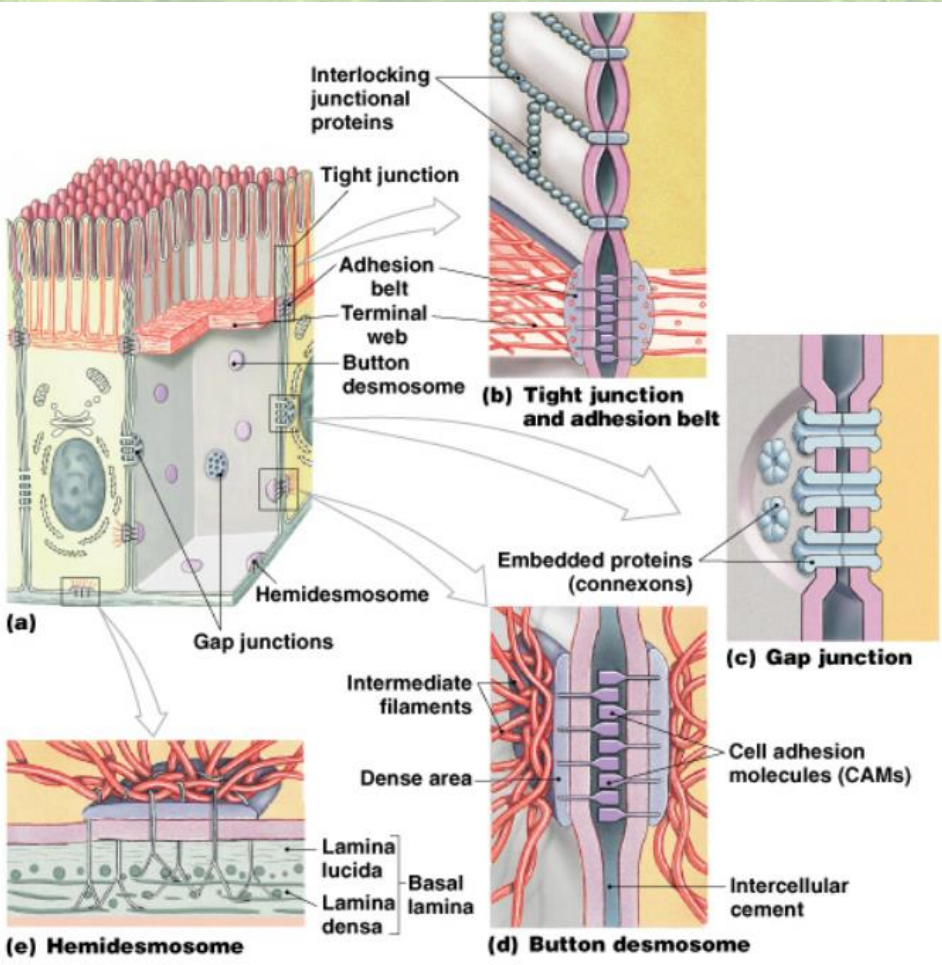


Glycocalyx

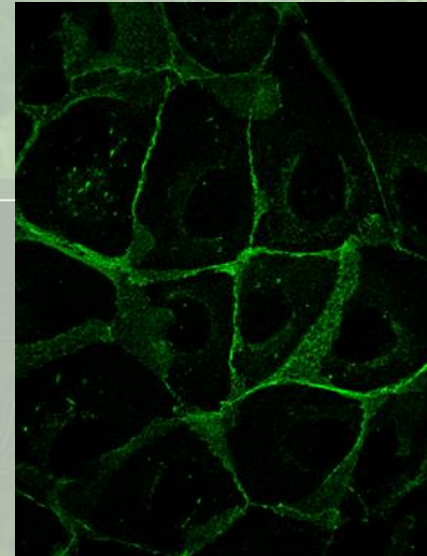
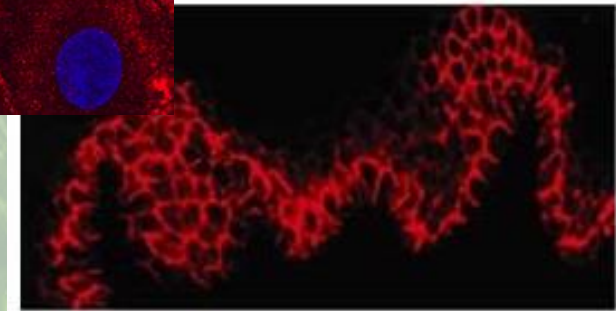
the apical surface of endothelial cells in small intestine –
carbohydrates + proteoglycans + enzymes
thick meshwork (0,3 μm)



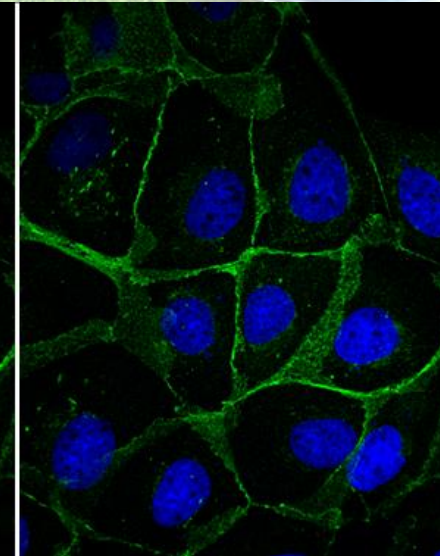
Glycocalyx



Desmoglein 1

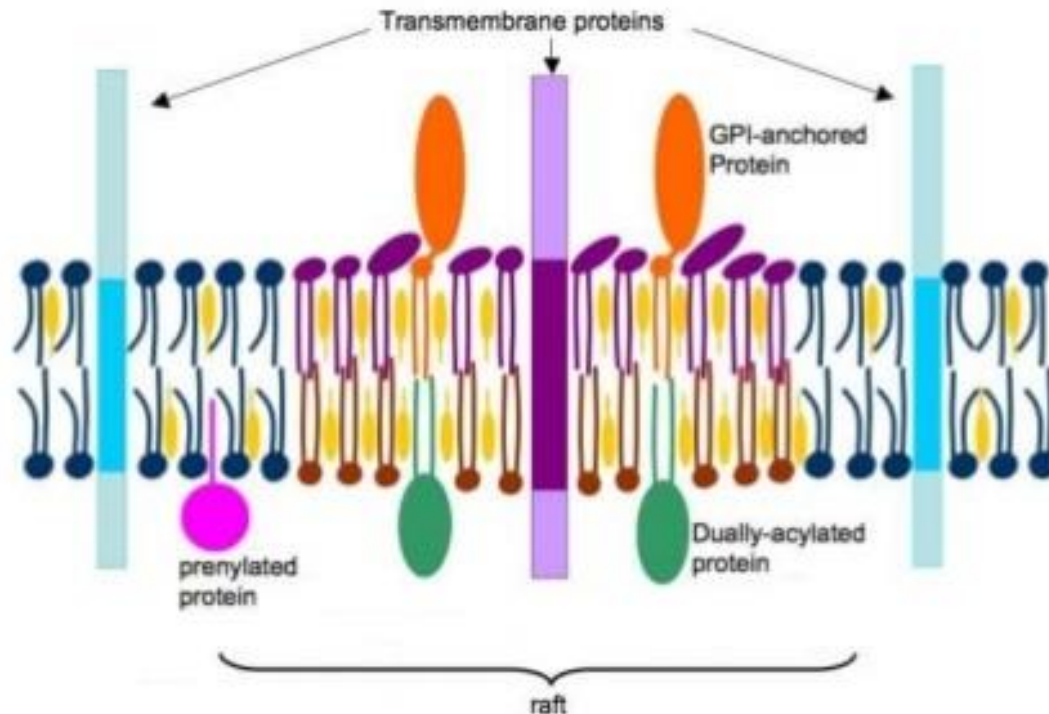


Beta catenin



Lipid rafts

- * complex fragments of the lipid membrane
- * **sphingolipids** that co-localize with **cholesterol** in the membrane microdomains
- * proteins can be induced
- * tightly packed – tighter than the surrounding bilayer but float freely
- * resistant to detergent solubilization
- * very common structure in the plasma membrane but present also in GA and lysosomes



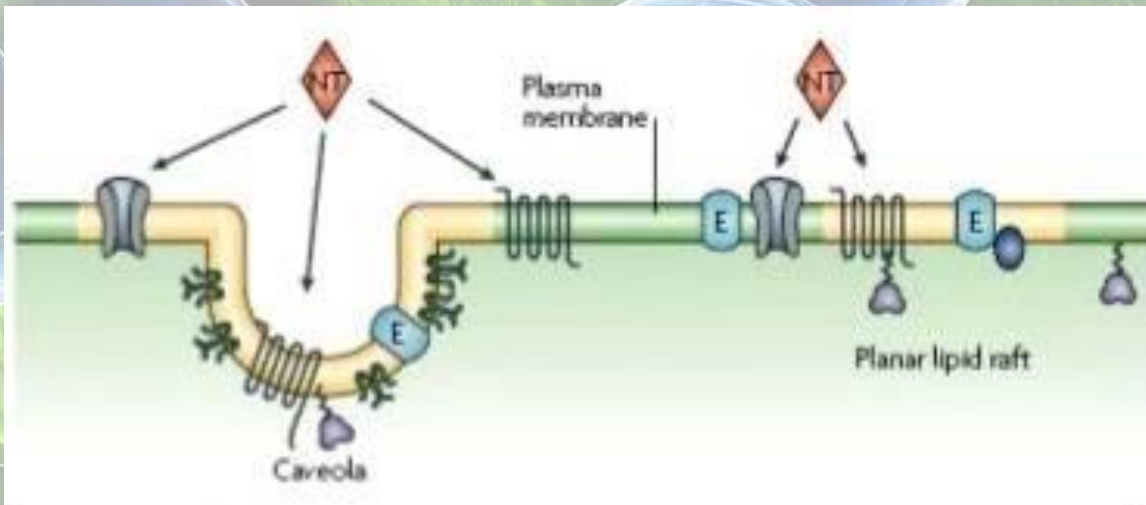
Lipid rafts

CAVEOLAE – small flask-shaped invagination, contain **caveolin** proteins,

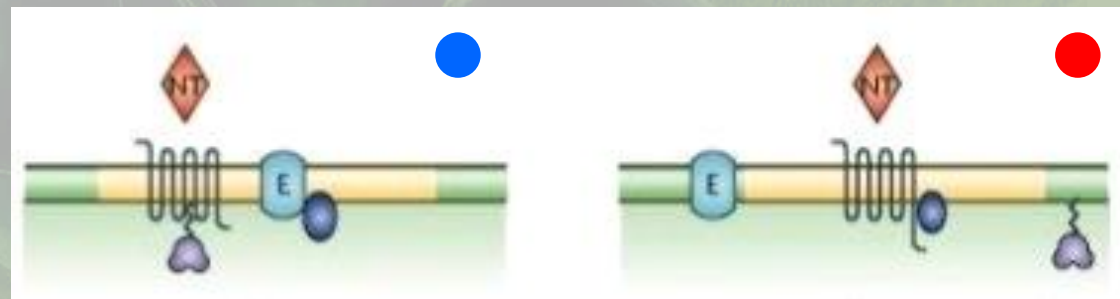
* signal transduction (e.g. EGF, IgE, T and B cell antigen receptor signaling)

* membrane internalization

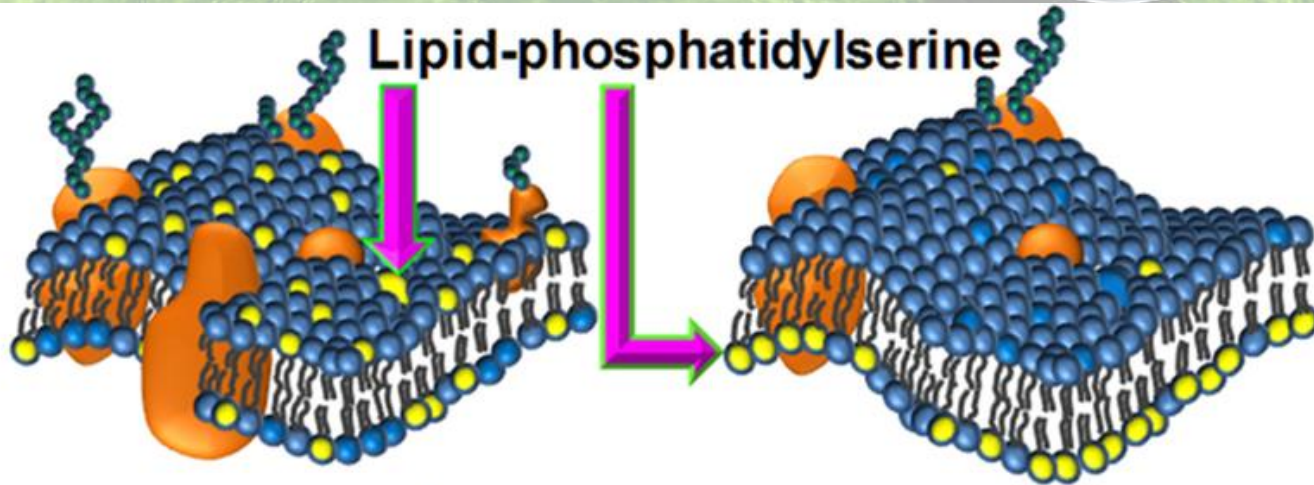
PLANAR (non-caveolar, glycolipid rafts) – not invaginated, contain **flotillin** protein, found in nerve tissue cells where caveolae are absent



Receptors and effectors can be organized into rafts to **promote** signaling or be separated by the raft to **prevent** signaling.

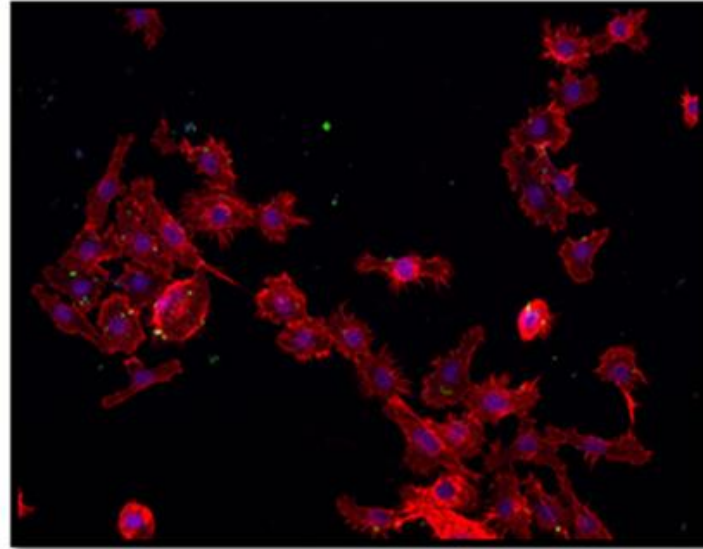
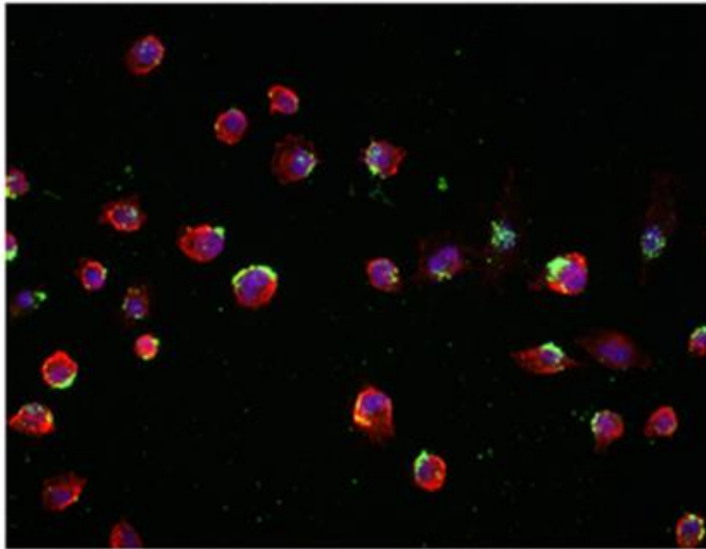


Lipid rafts



Cancer cell surface

Normal cell surface



A microscopic view of several cells. The cells have a blue cytoplasm and a green nucleus. The background is a textured green surface. The text "Cellular transport principles" is overlaid in white.

Cellular transport principles

Cellular transport

2 types:

MEMBRANE & VESICULAR

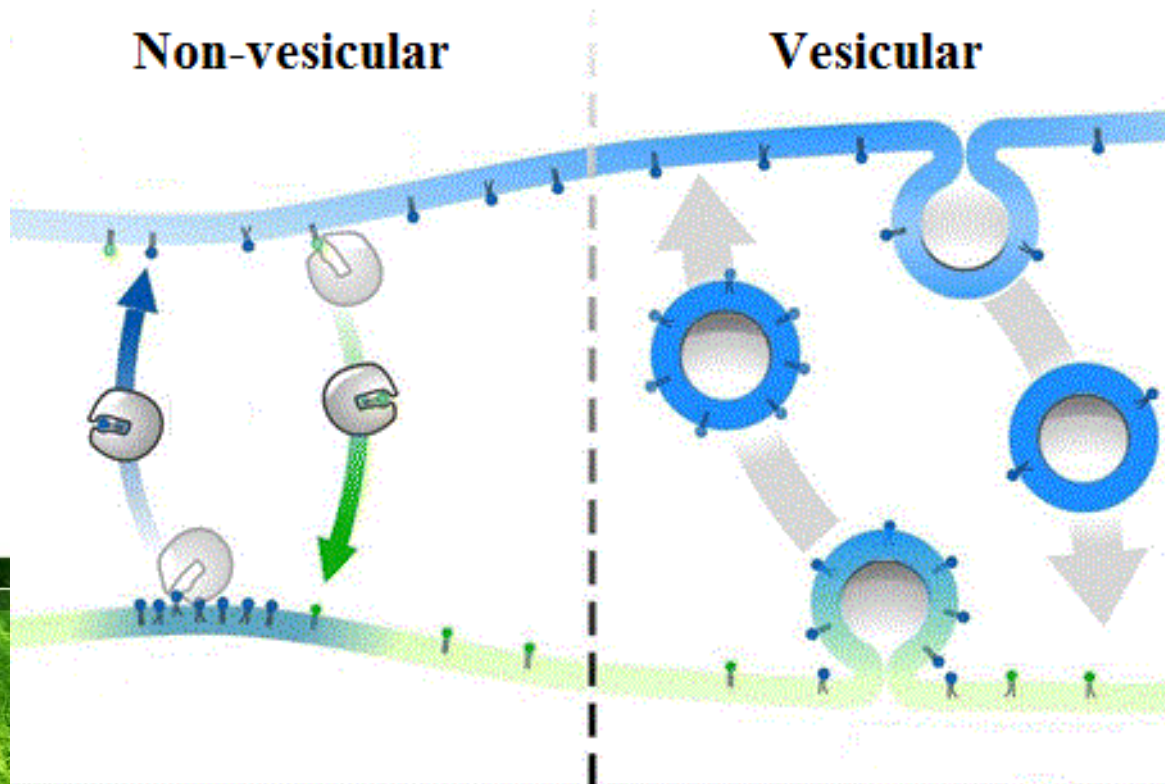
MEMBRANE

(Non-vesicular)

through the membrane,
membrane is **untouched**

VESICULAR

uses the membrane but maintains its integrity, involves configurational changes, formation of vesicles from the membrane, fusion of the vesicles with the membrane



MEMBRANE transport

PASSIVE

SIMPLE DIFFUSION

(no additive proteins)

PASSIVE

FACILITATED DIFFUSION

(with additive proteins, e.g. channels, carrier proteins)

ACTIVE!

ATP

FACILITATED DIFFUSION (active transport)

(with additive proteins, e.g. channels, carrier proteins)

MEMBRANE transport

SIMPLE DIFFUSION

* substances cross spontaneously the plasma membrane down their concentration gradient

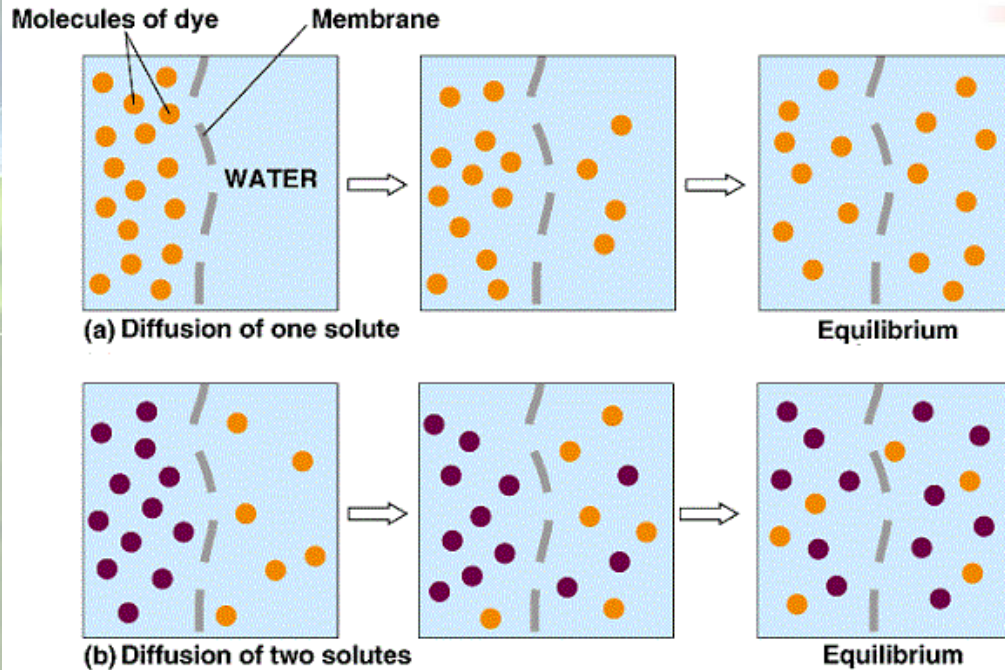
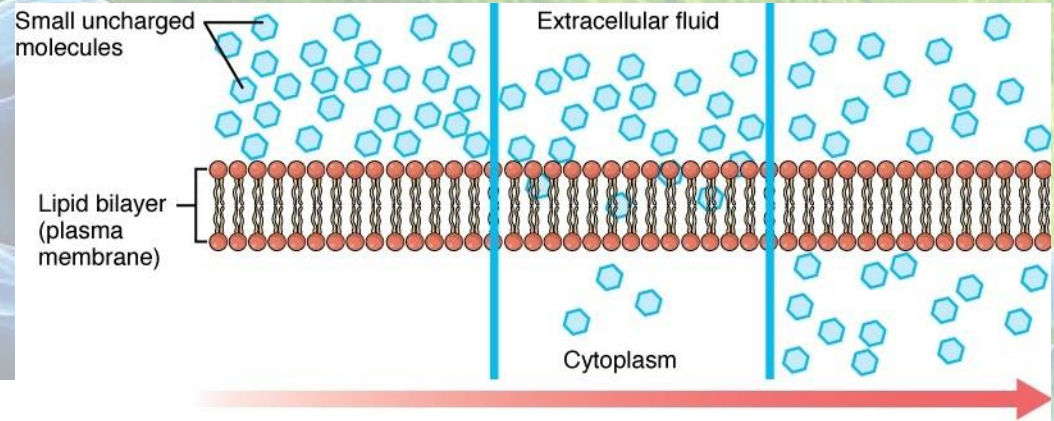
* non-selective

gases (CO_2 , O_2 , N_2),

fat-soluble (steroids),

small, uncharged molecules

(ethanol, urea)



PASSIVE

MEMBRANE transport

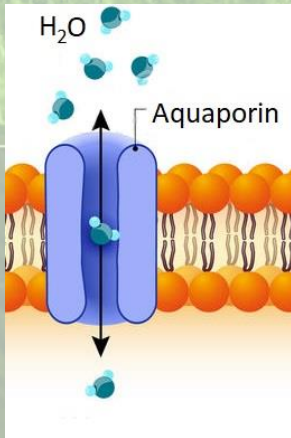
FACILITATED DIFFUSION

- * small, water-soluble molecules (ions and small polar molecules)
- * regulated on the basis of cell's needs:
 - by **membrane potentials** (voltage-gated ion channels in neurons),
 - **mechanically-gated** (mechanical stress in the internal ear)
 - by ligands (ligand-gated receptors) (neurotransmitters)

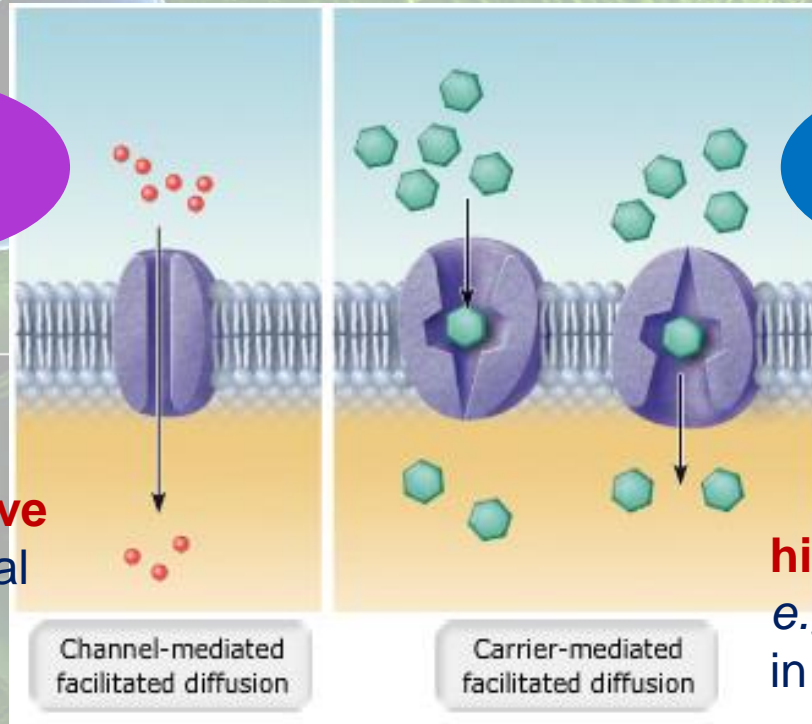
PASSIVE

Channel proteins

Carrier proteins



non-selective
water- cannal



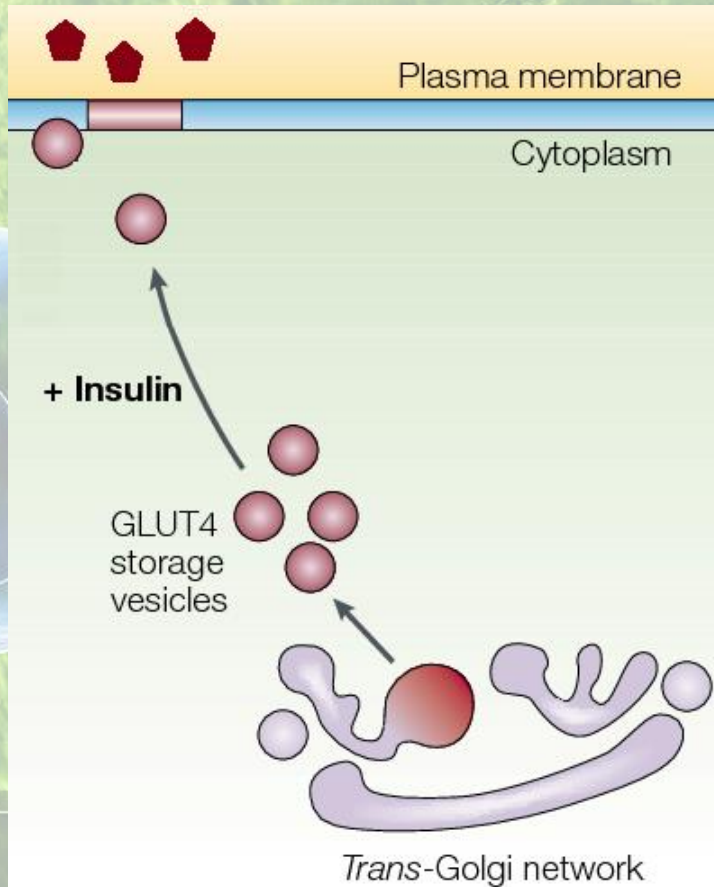
Channel-mediated facilitated diffusion












Carrier-mediated facilitated diffusion

highly selective
e.g. glucose
in adipocytes

e.g. glucose transporter

PASSIVE



Transporter	Tissues	Function
GLUT1	All tissues, especially red cells and blood-brain barrier  	Basal uptake of glucose
GLUT2	Liver, kidney, gut, beta cells of pancreas  	Regulation of insulin release, glucose homeostasis, low affinity
GLUT3	Brain, kidney, placenta, neurons, sperm  	Uptake into neurons, high affinity
GLUT4	Skeletal muscle, heart, adipose   	Insulin-mediated uptake of glucose
GLUT5	Kidney, gut Epithelium  	Absorption of fructose

MEMBRANE transport

FACILITATED DIFFUSION

- * transport with **carrier proteins**
- * water-soluble molecules
- * **highly selective**
- * requires energy for **ACTIVE TRANSPORT** of molecules

ACTIVE!

ATP

against their concentration!

Facilitated diffusion

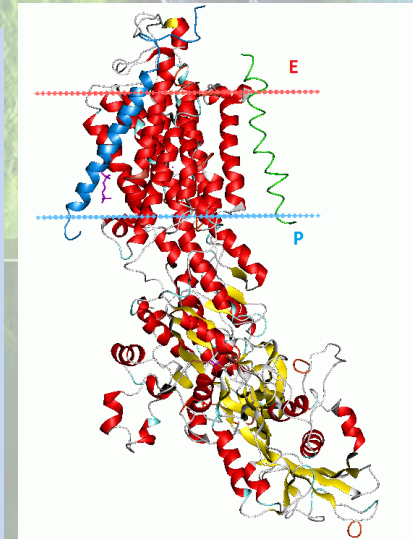
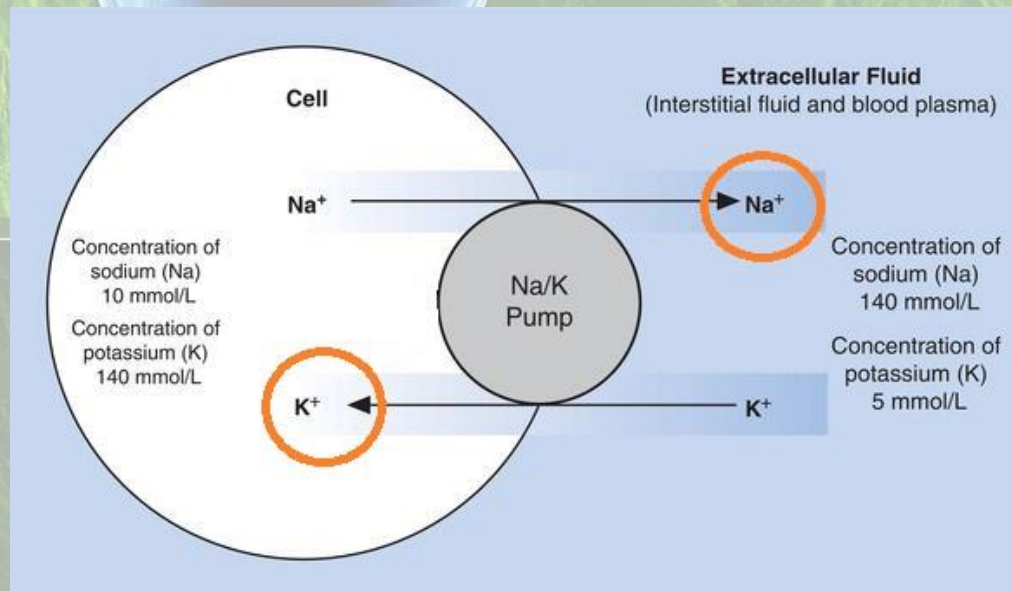
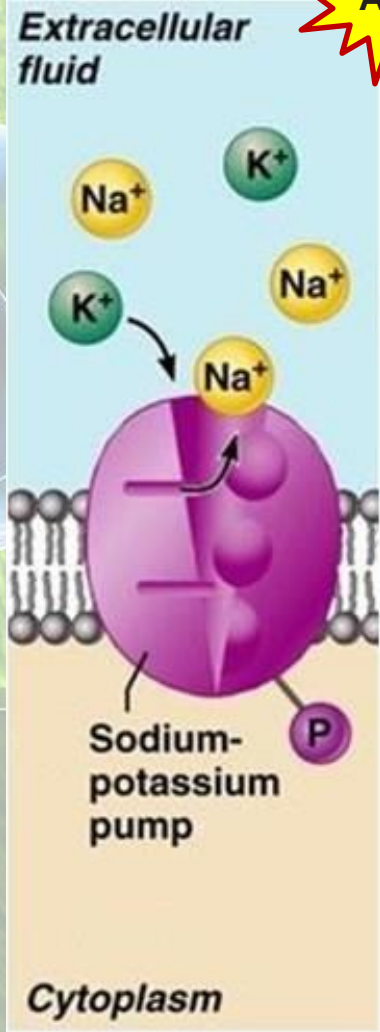
ACTIVE!

ATP

**e.g. Na^+/K^+ pump
sodium-potassium pump**

Actively pumps potassium INTO cell (2 ions) while pumping sodium OUT of cell (3 ions), both **against their concentration gradients**.

e.g. nerve cells, muscle cells, renal tubular cells

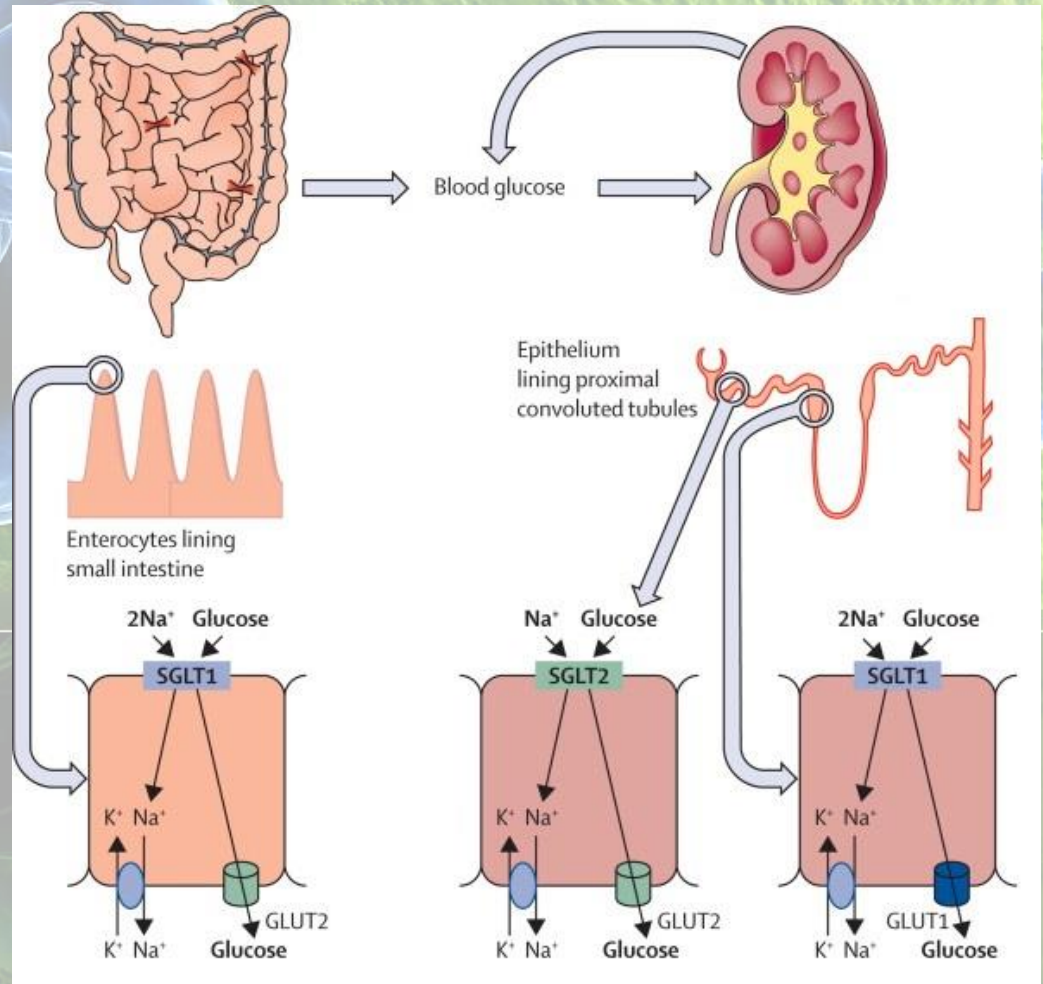
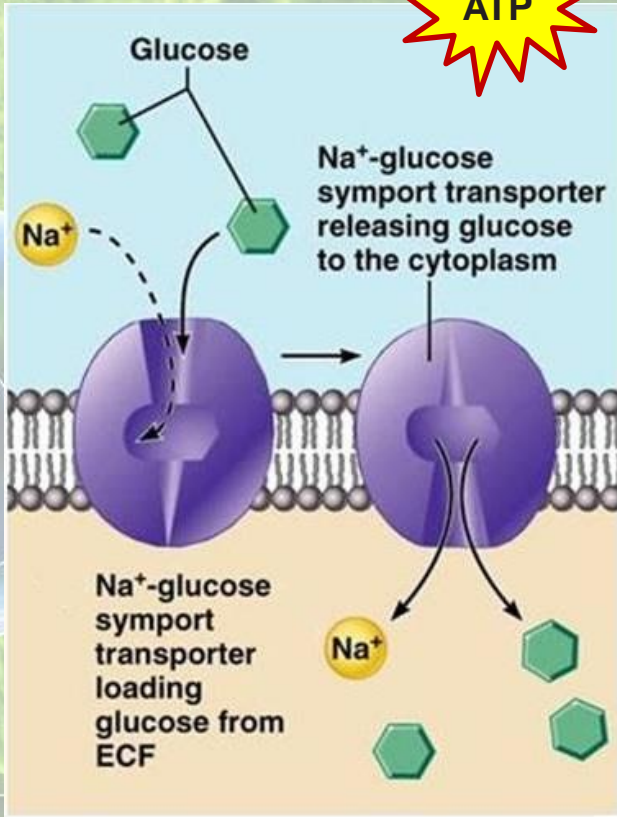


Facilitated diffusion

ACTIVE!

ATP

e.g. Co-transporter of Na^+ -glucose
SGLT (Sodium-dependent glucose
co-transporter)

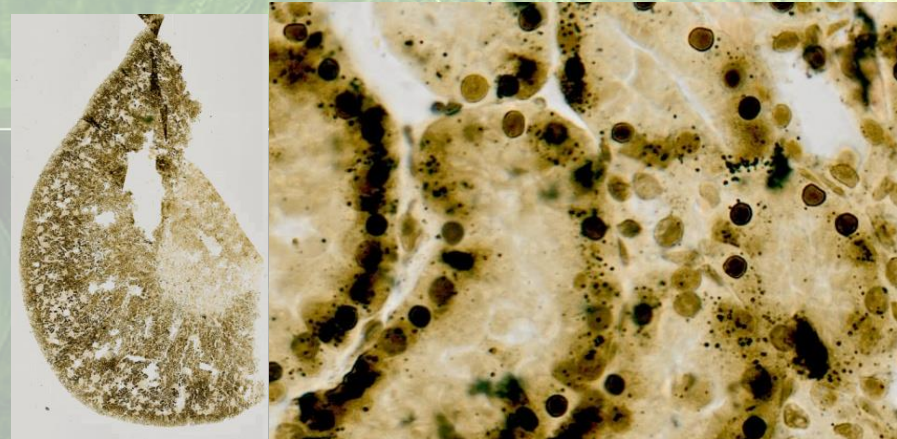
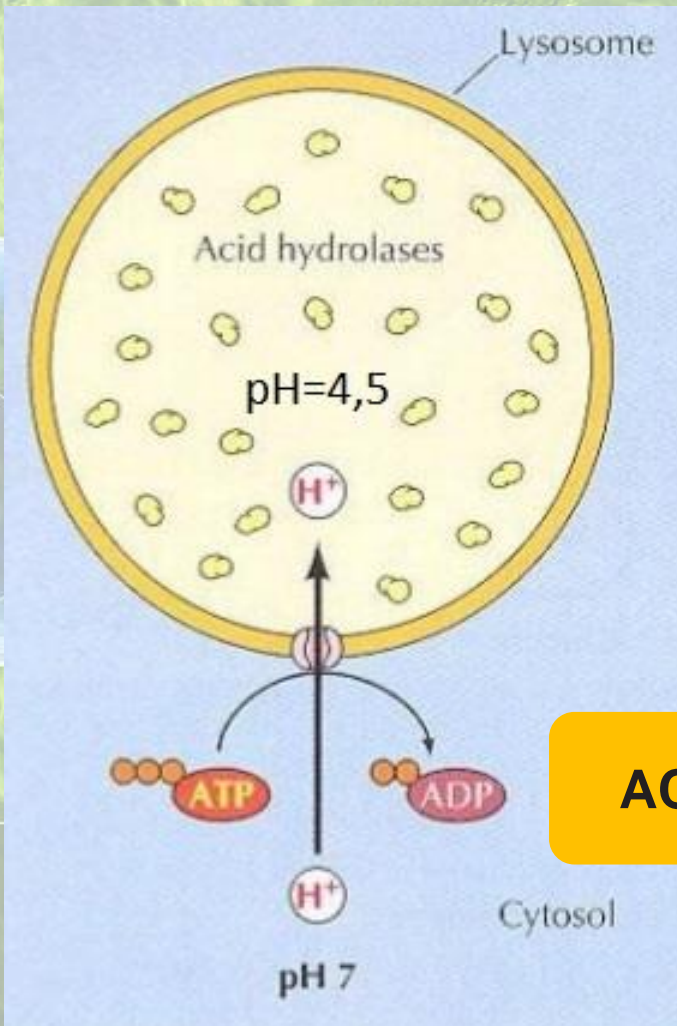


Facilitated diffusion

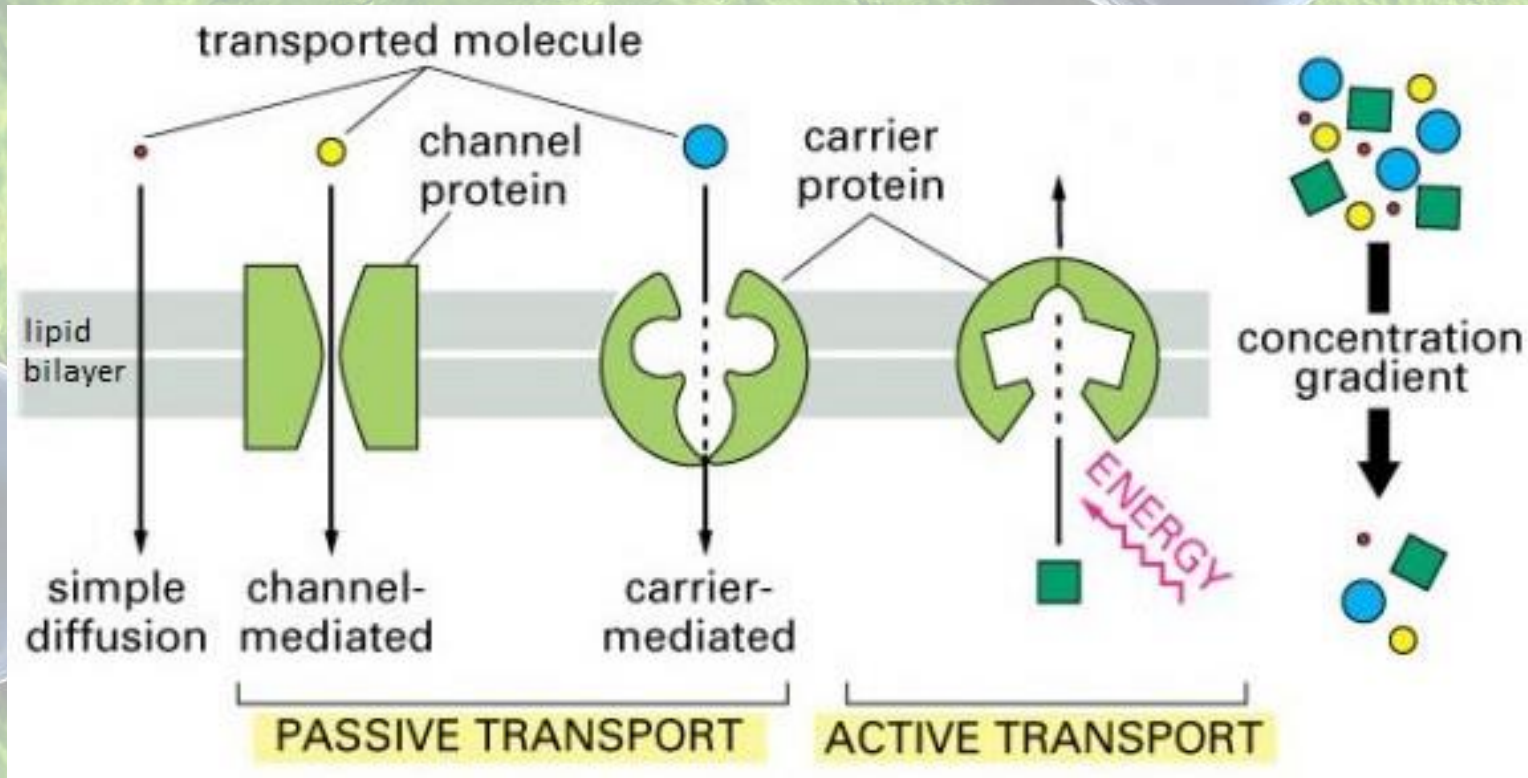
e.g. Proton pump

Most digestive enzymes are **acid hydrolases**.

The acidic internal pH is a result of an action of proton pump, which imports protons from the cytosol into the vesicle.



MEMBRANE transport - summary



PASSIVE

PASSIVE

PASSIVE

ACTIVE!

ATP

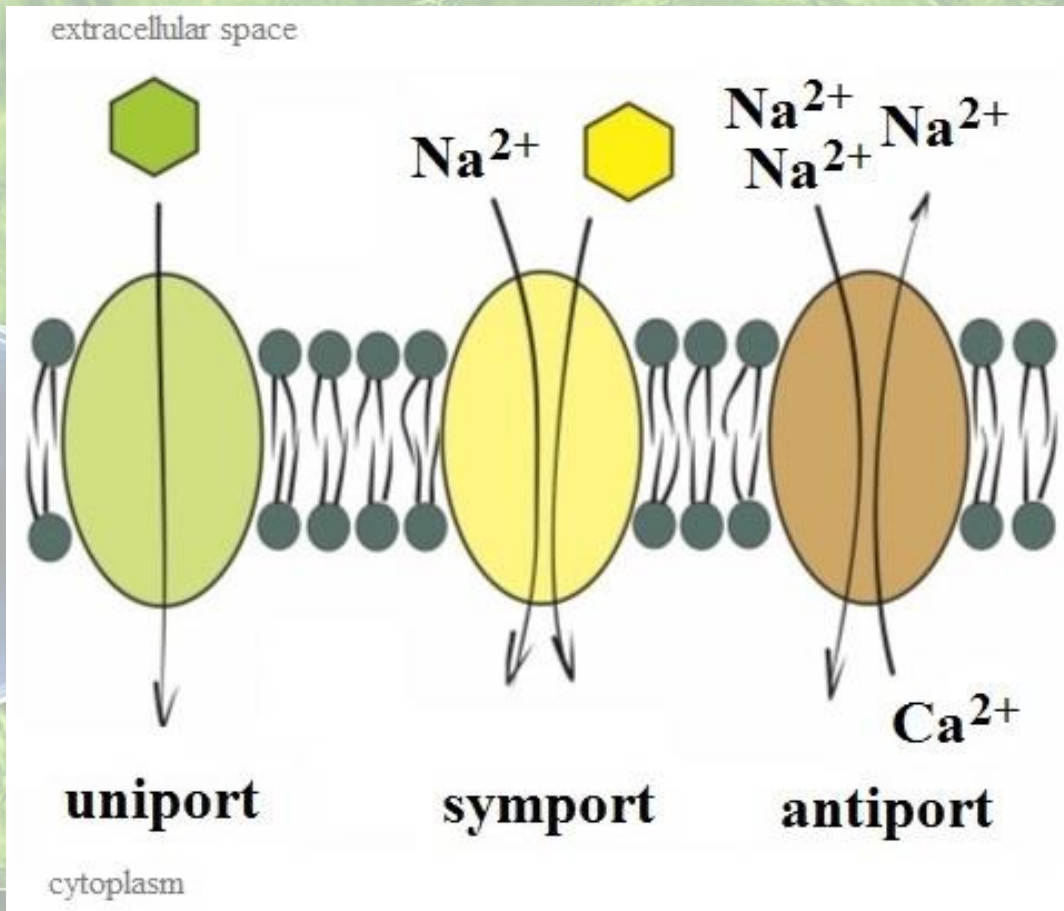
Channel proteins

Carrier proteins

Carrier proteins

Channel proteins

Transport



e.g. passive
glucose
transport

e.g.
 Na^+ /glucose
(in gut)

exchange,
counter-transport
e.g. Na^+ / Ca^{2+}
exchanger
(in cardiac muscle)

VESICULAR transport

ACTIVE!

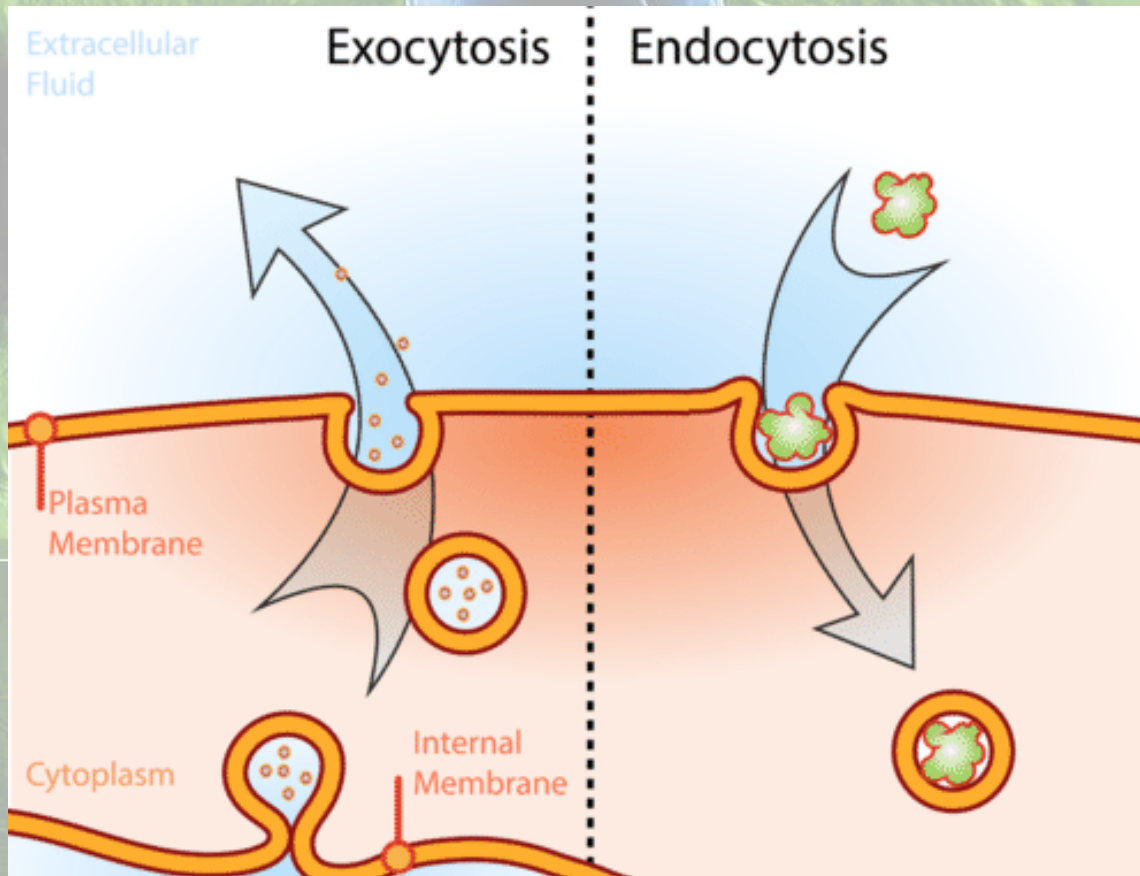
ATP

EXOCYTOSIS

when substances leave the cell

ENDOCYTOSIS

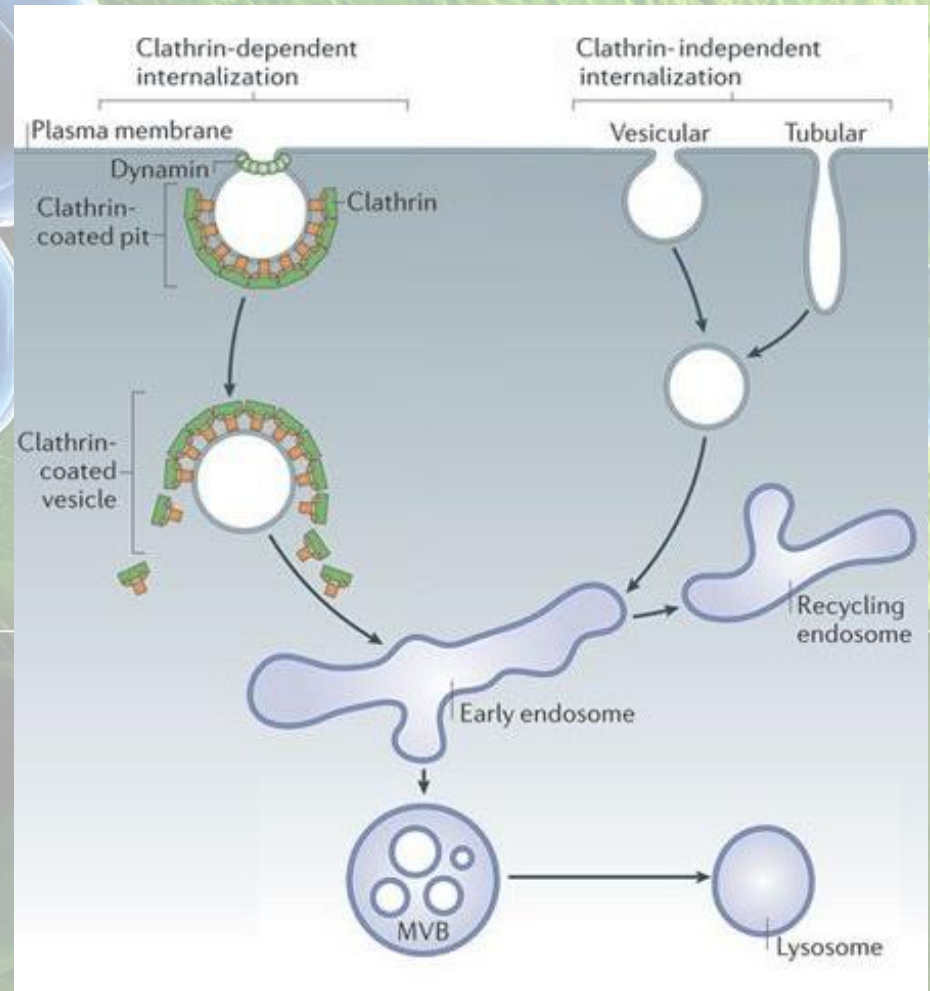
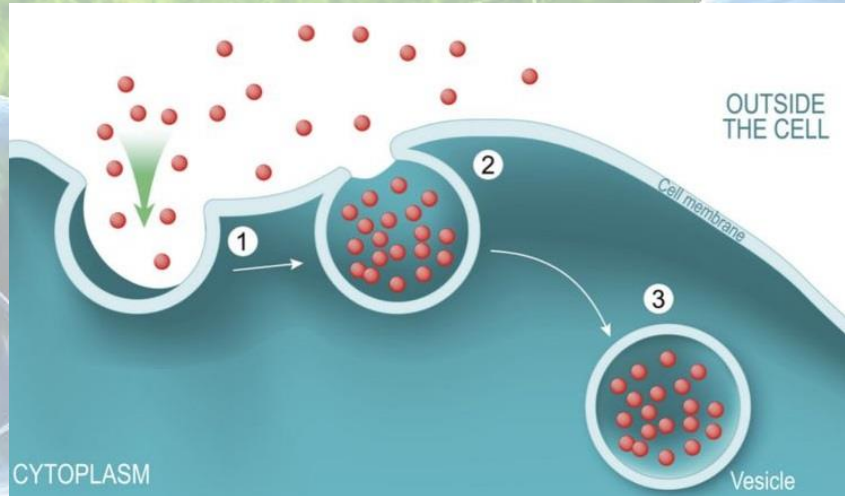
when substances enter the cell



ENDOCYTOSIS

* may require **CLATHRIN** protein that interacts with the plasma membrane during vesicle formation:

→ clathrin-independent & clathrin-dependent (receptor-mediated endocytosis)



ENDOCYTOSIS

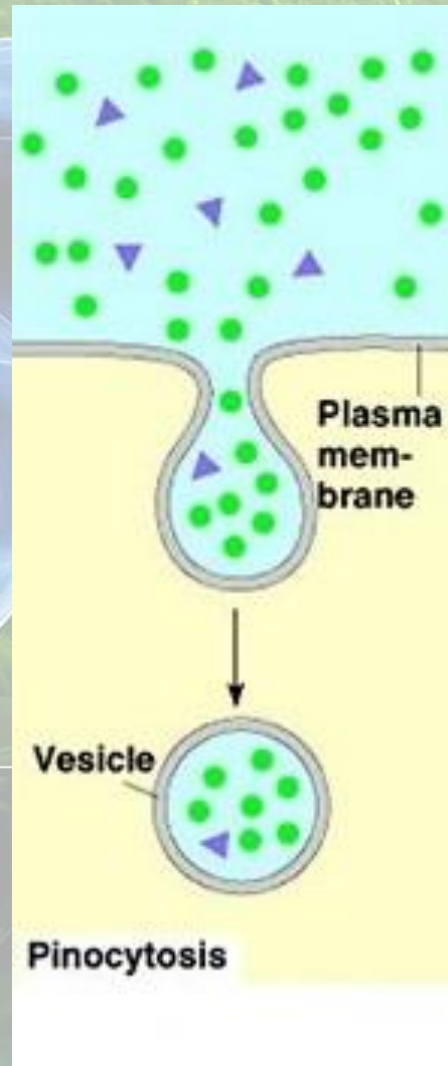
PINOCYTOSIS

(„cell-drinking”)

* intake of fluids or small proteins (<150 nm)

* **CLATHRIN-independent**

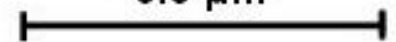
* performed by all the cells in the body



Pinocytosis vesicles forming (arrows) in a cell lining a small blood vessel (TEM)



0.5 μm



ENDOCYTOSIS

PHAGOCYTOSIS („cell-eating”)

* ingestion of large particles, cell can send pseudopodia to engulf particle to form large vesicle (~250 nm)

=phagosome

* performed by specialized group of cells:

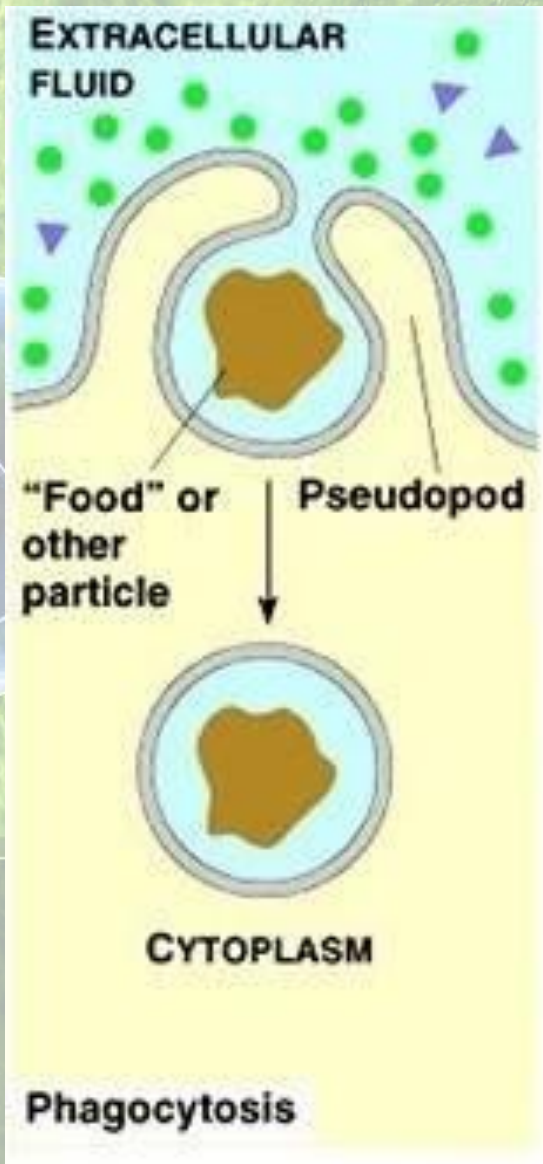
Mononuclear Phagocytotic System (MPS):

Macrophages (adipose tissue m., Kupffer cells, sinus histiocytes, osteoclasts, peritoneal m., red pulp = sinusoidal m., etc.)

Langerhans cells

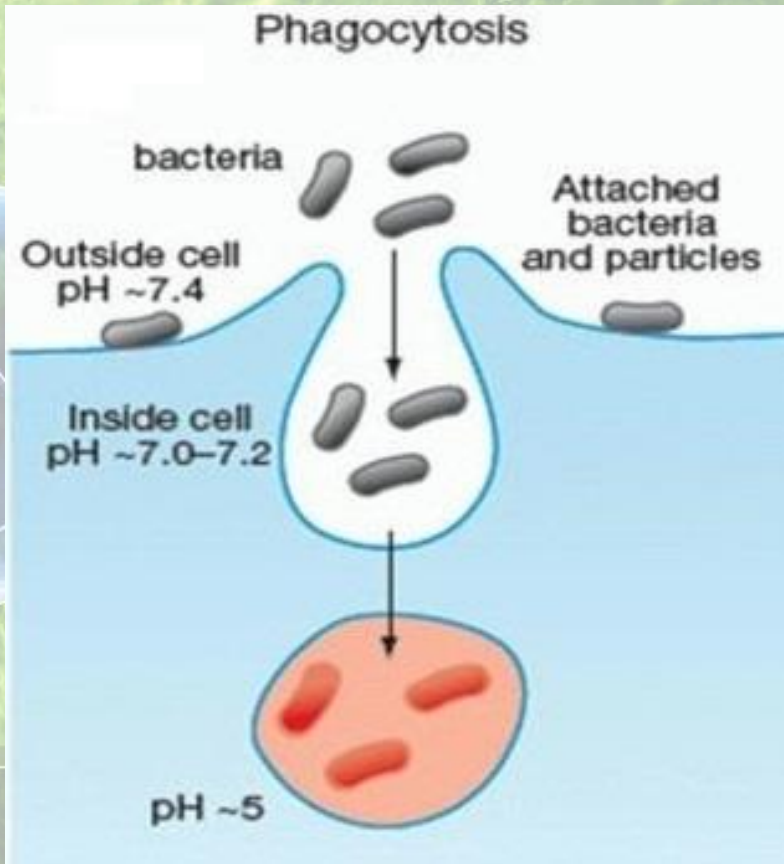
Microglia

Intraglomerular mesangial cell



ENDOCYTOSIS

PHAGOCYTOSIS („cell-eating”)



1. Without involvement of receptors

* **CLATHRIN-independent**

* non-selective

* less often

* dead cells' fragments, biological debris, inhaled carbon particles

ENDOCYTOSIS

PHAGOCYTOSIS („cell-eating”)

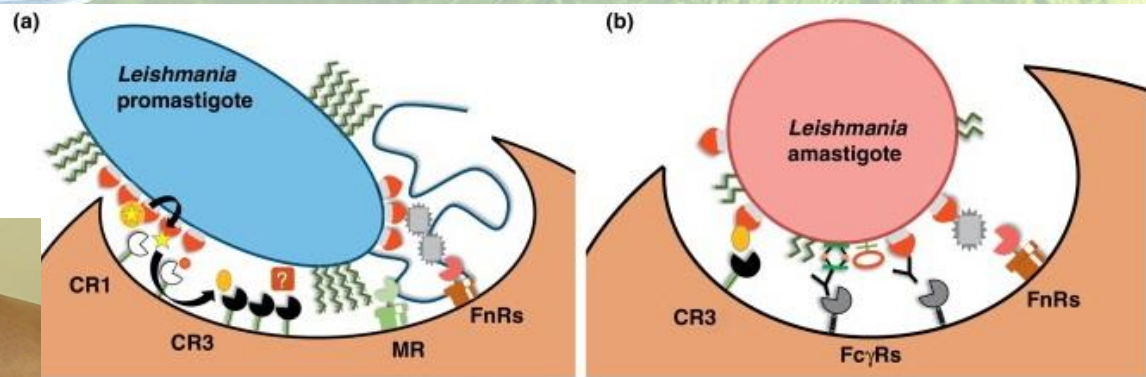
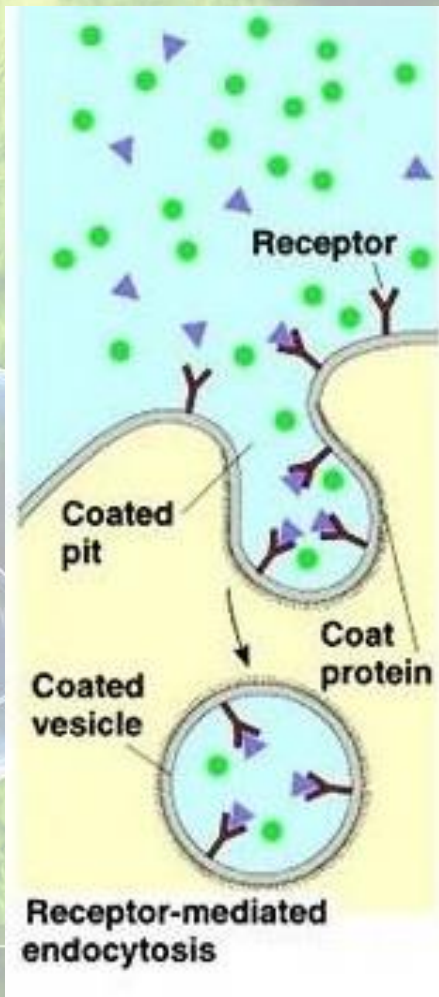
2. Receptor-mediated

* **most often**

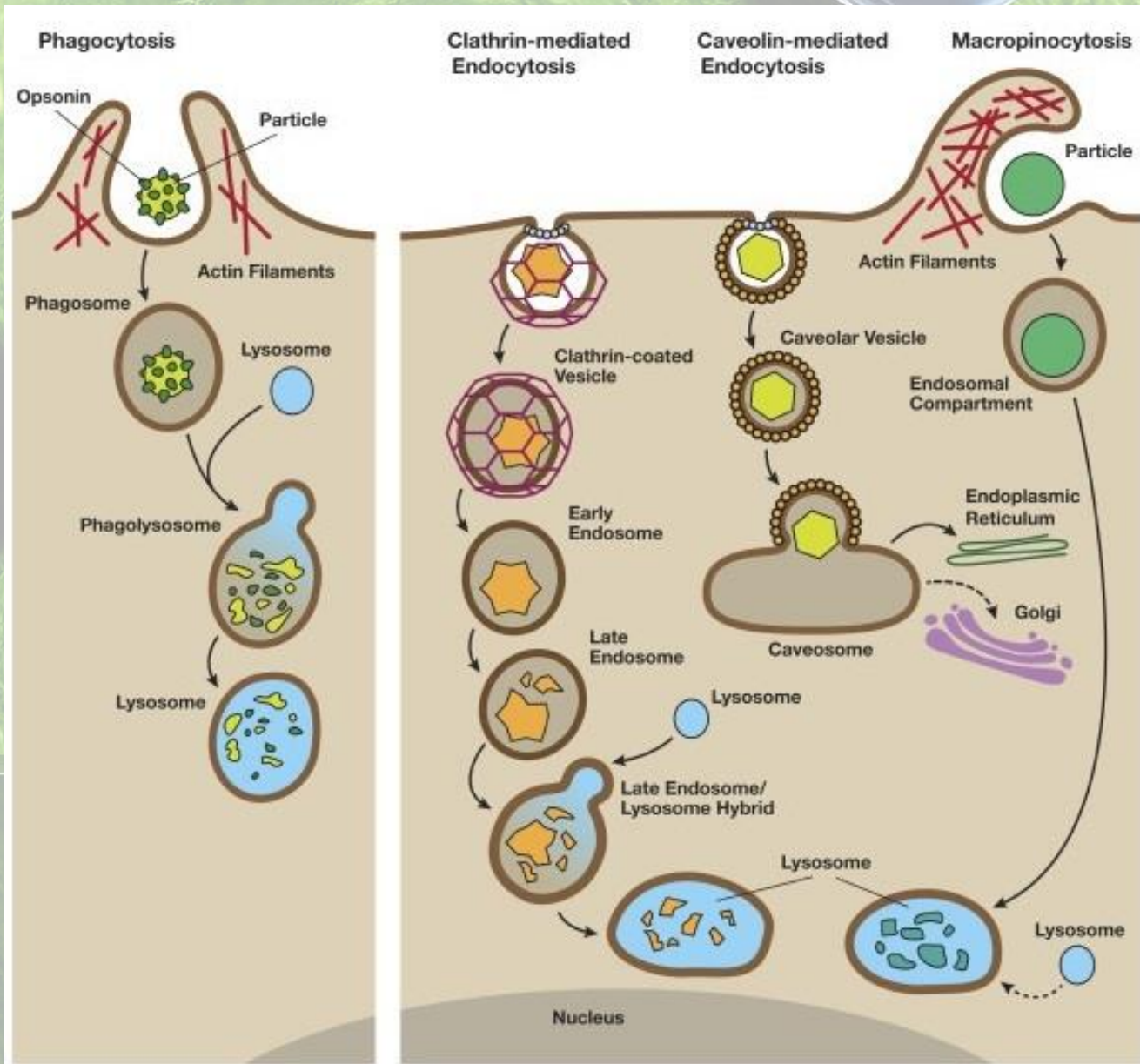
* selective – specific molecules enter the cell, receptors accumulate in well-defined regions of the plasma membrane, on the internal surface side of the PM **coated pit** is formed, accumulation of **clathrin** molecules (via adaptor proteins **adaptin**)

* **CLATHRIN-dependent**

e.g. pathogens, surrounded by the Ab – APCs;
some drugs



ENDOCYTOSIS



EXOCYTOSIS



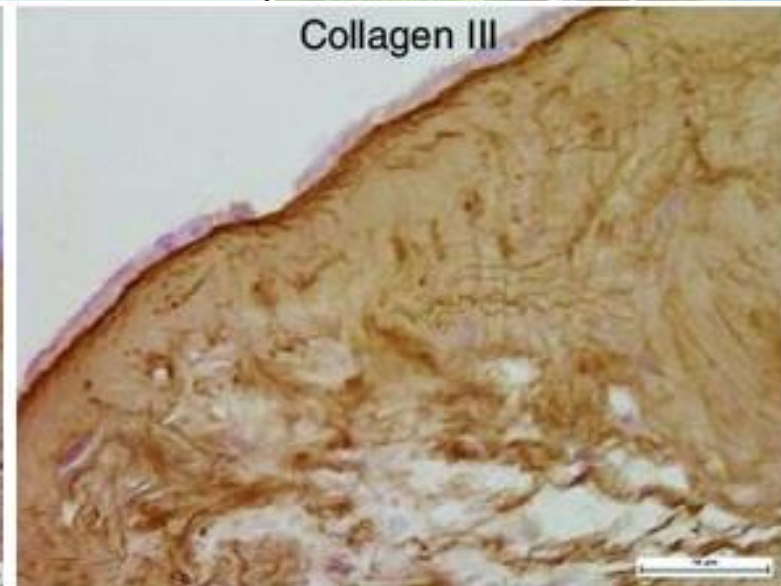
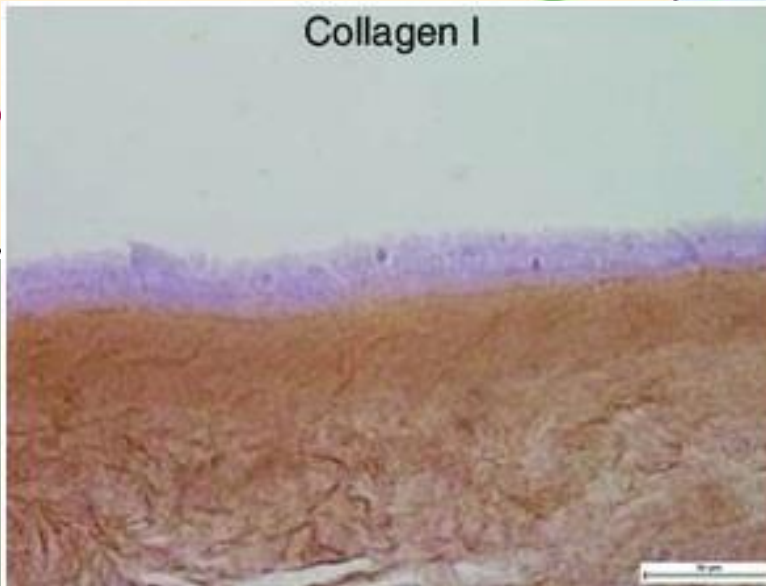
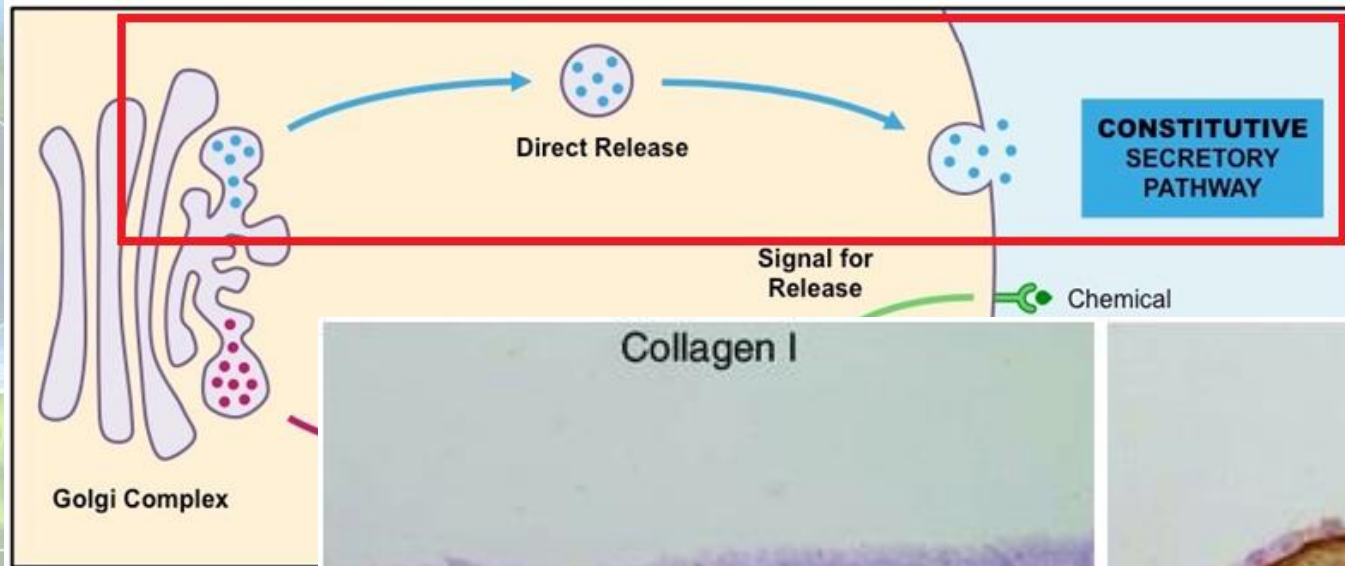
Expelling molecules (waste & products) through the active process using secretory vesicles that move from cytoplasm to the PM where they fuse and discharge its content to the extracellular space.

- 1. Constitutive pathway**
- 2. Regulated secretory pathway**

EXOCYTOSIS

1. Constitutive pathway:

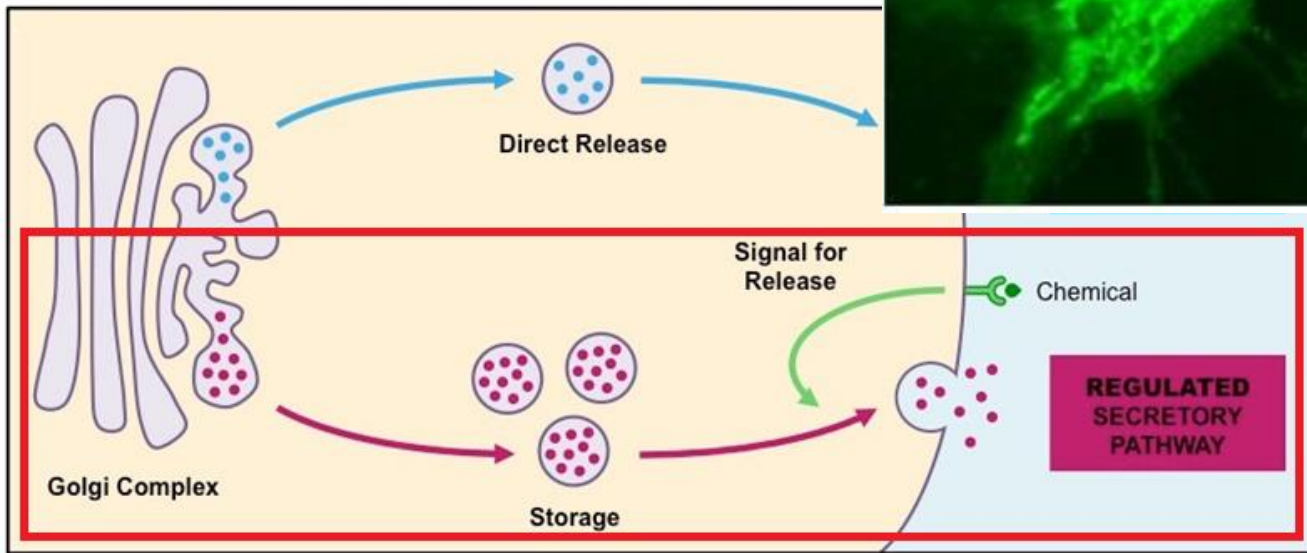
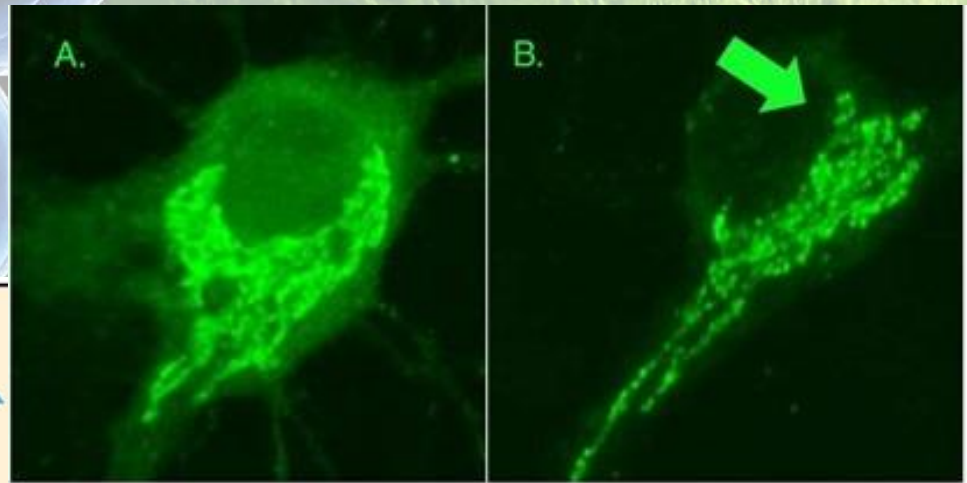
substances for export are continuously delivered to the PM
proteins from GA secreted immediately after their synthesis
(e.g. Ig by plasma cells, procollagens by fibroblasts, TNF)
lack of storage vesicles



EXOCYTOSIS

2. Regulated secretory pathway:

needs activation signal/stimulus (hormonal/neural) to release the molecules
the stimulus causes influx of Ca^{2+} into the cytoplasm which stimulates
secretory vesicles to fuse with the PM and discharge its content
by specialized cells – e.g. exocrine cells, neurons

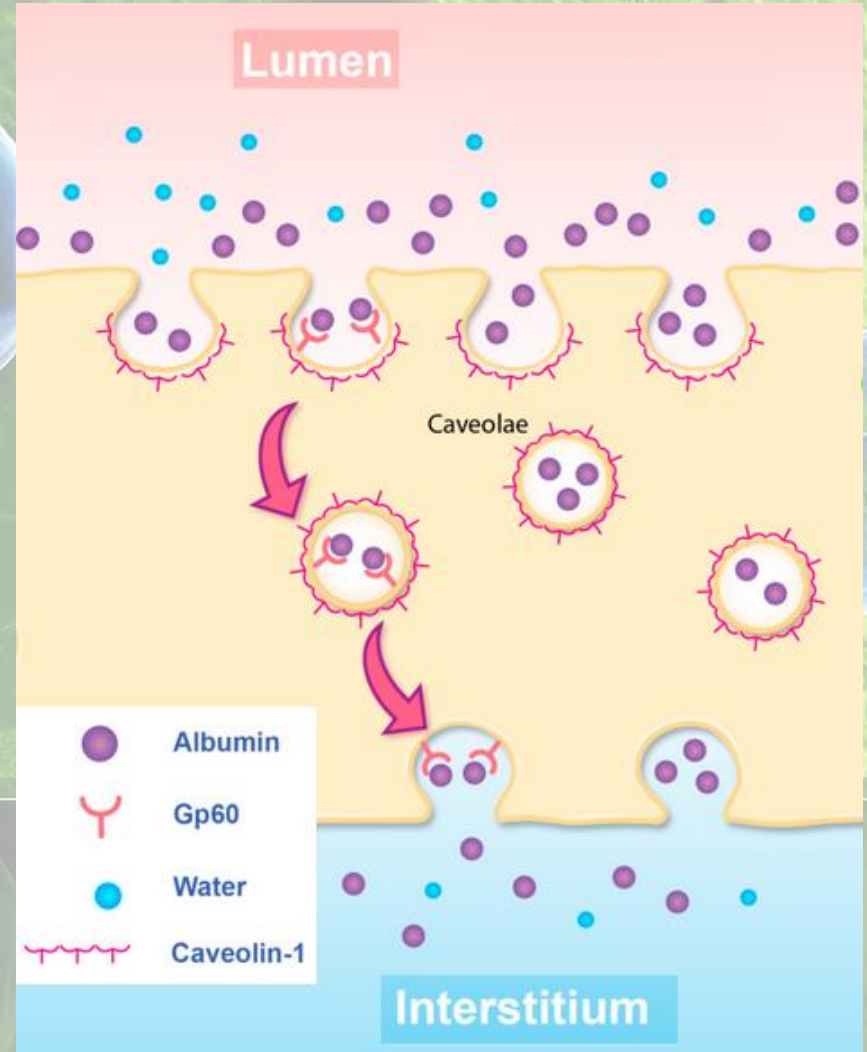


TRANSCYTOSIS

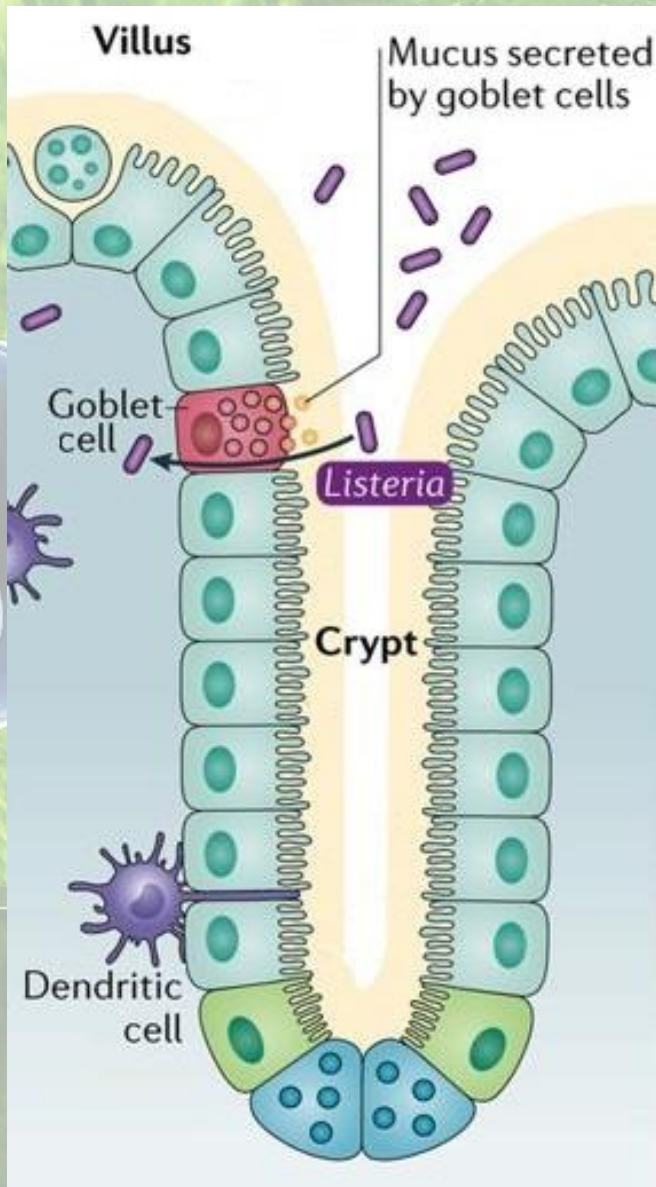
transport of molecules **across the interior** of a cell –
molecules are captured in vesicles on one side of the cell,
drawn across the cell and ejected on the other side

= **endocytosis**
followed by exocytosis

e.g. in enterocytes in the gut,
in stratified epithelia



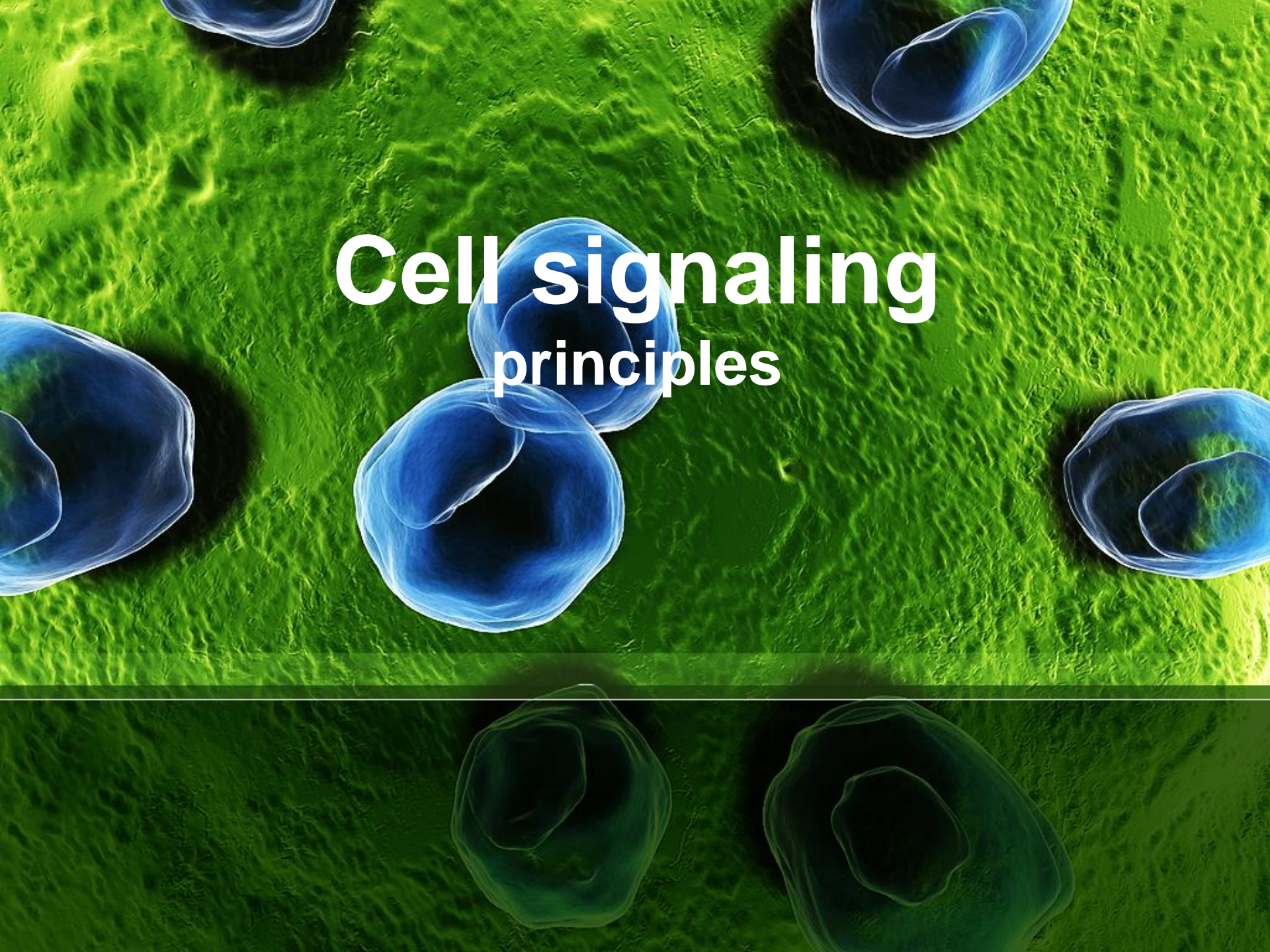
TRANSCYTOSIS



most commonly in epithelial cells,
insulin, transferrin

used to transport therapeutic drugs
across the blood-brain barrier

also used by pathogens to enter the body
(*Listeria monocytogenes* enters
the intestinal lumen via transport across
the goblet cells)

The image features a top-down view of several cells, likely fibroblasts, with a textured, green overlay. The cells are semi-transparent blue, showing internal structures. The green overlay is a semi-transparent layer that covers the top half of the image, with a dark green reflection of the cells and the overlay below it. The text 'Cell signaling principles' is centered in the upper half of the image.

Cell signaling principles

TYPES OF SIGNALING

Local signaling:

Autocrine

Paracrine

(Synaptic signaling)

Juxtacrine

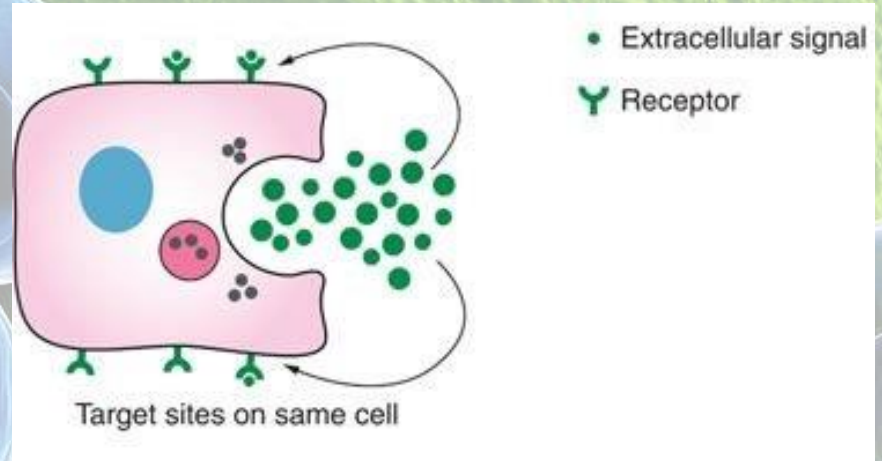
Long-distance signaling:

Endocrine

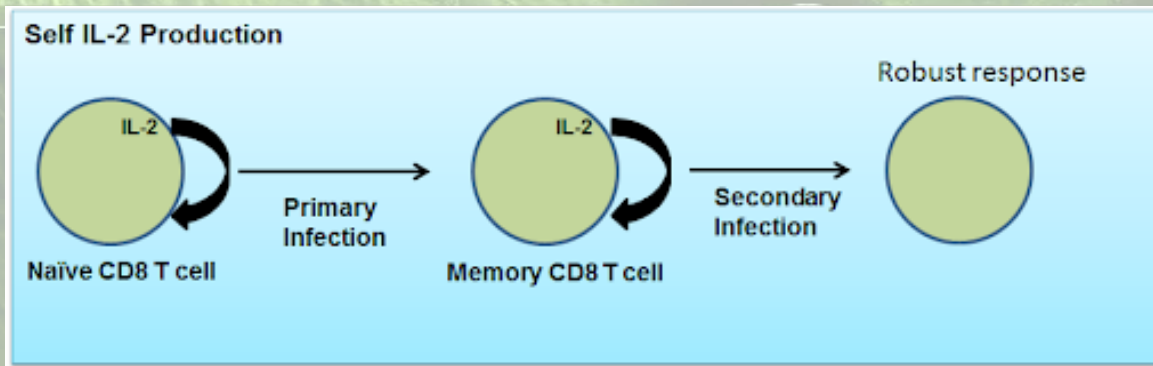
TYPES OF SIGNALING

Autocrine (self-signaling)

cell produces and secretes a molecule that binds to autocrine receptors on the same cell



e.g. IL-2 production & self activation of T cells



most cytokines
and growth factors

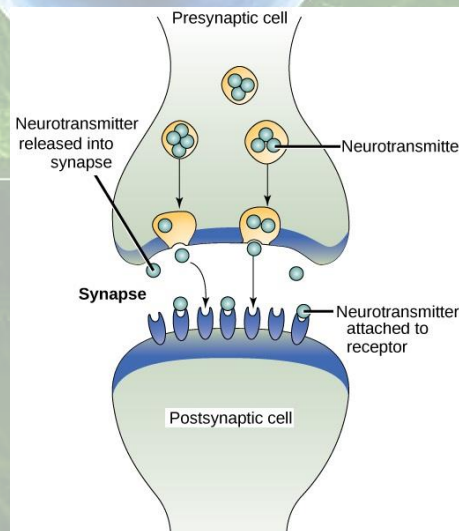
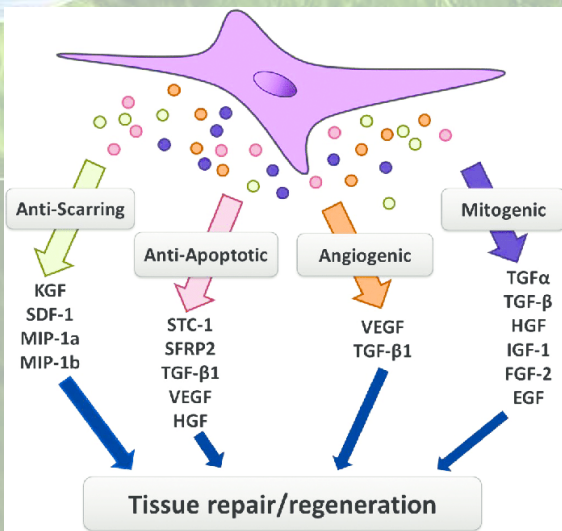
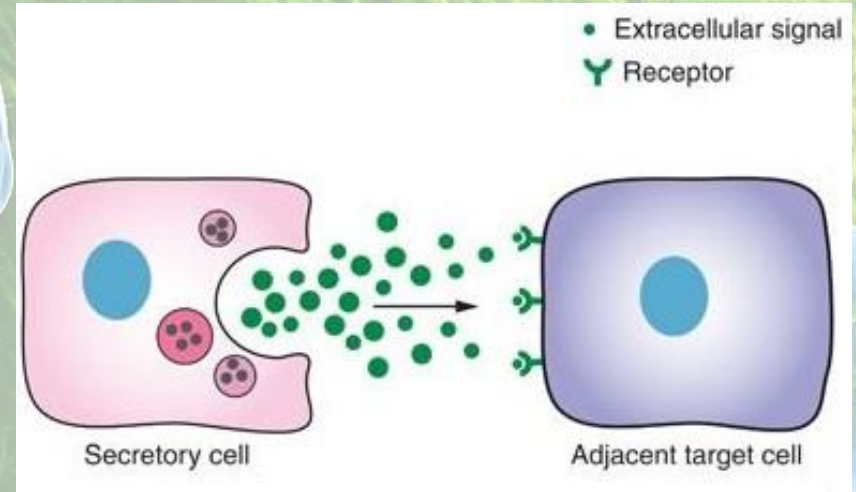
TYPES OF SIGNALING

Paracrine (adjacent-signaling)

cell-to-cell communication on short distance

one cell produces signal to induce changes in nearby cells, molecules are secreted into extracellular environment

e.g. fibroblasts, neurosignaling



neurotransmitters
and hormones

TYPES OF SIGNALING

Juxtacrine (contact-dependent-signaling)

cell-to-cell or cell-to EXM signaling

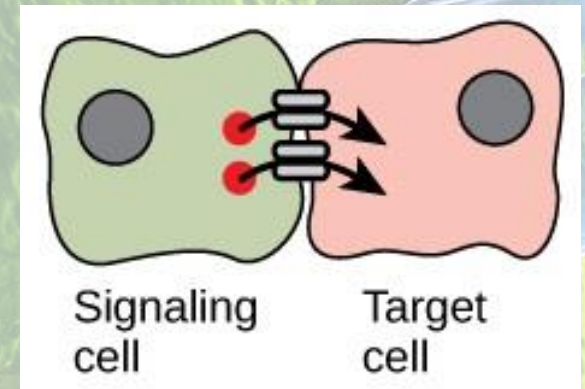
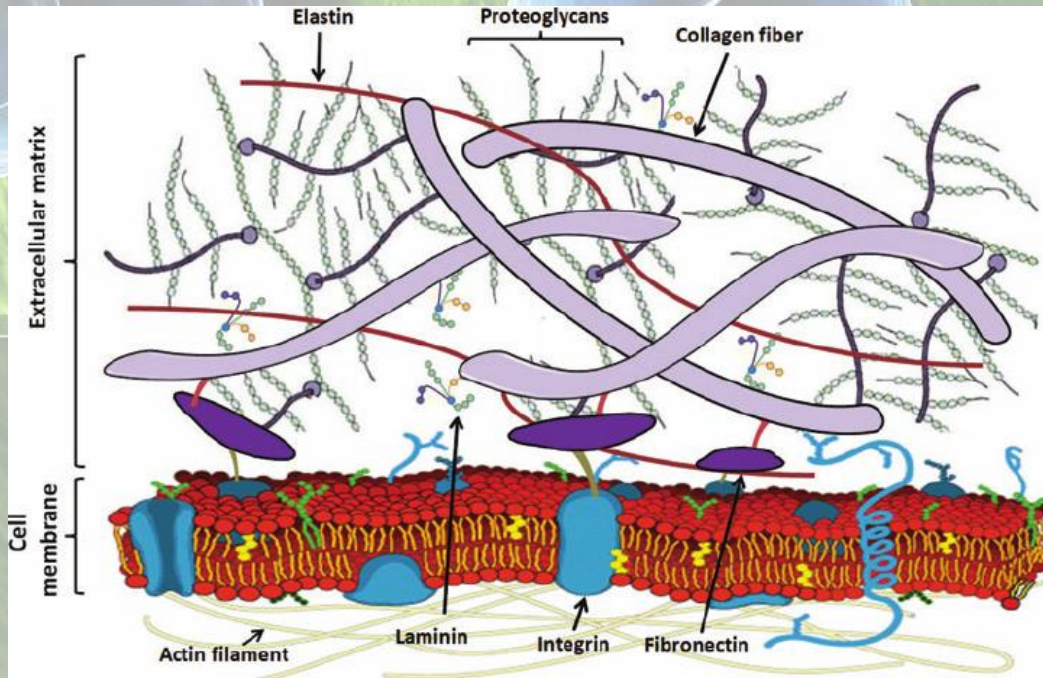
„touching”

requires close contact and molecular „bridge”

secreted molecule is connected

to the membrane of the cell that produces it

e.g. adhesion molecules (cell-to-cell, cell-to-ECM)

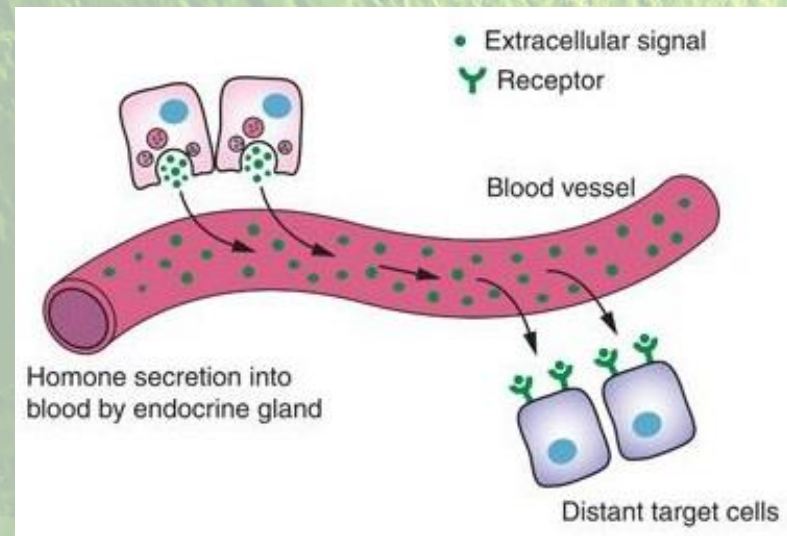
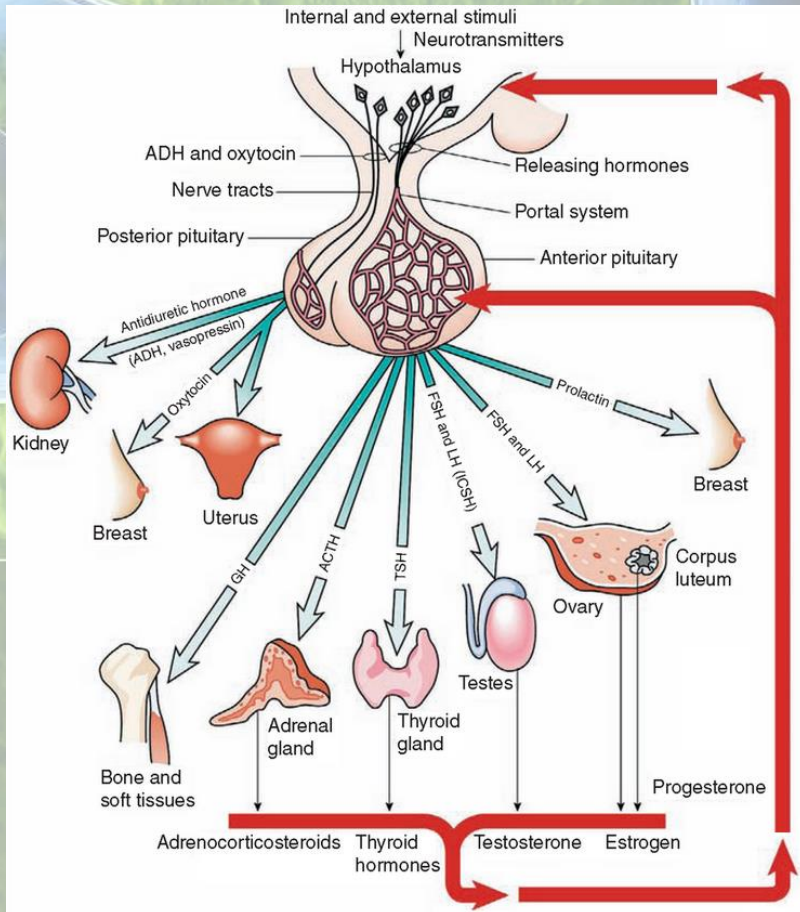


TYPES OF SIGNALING

Endocrine (distant-signaling)

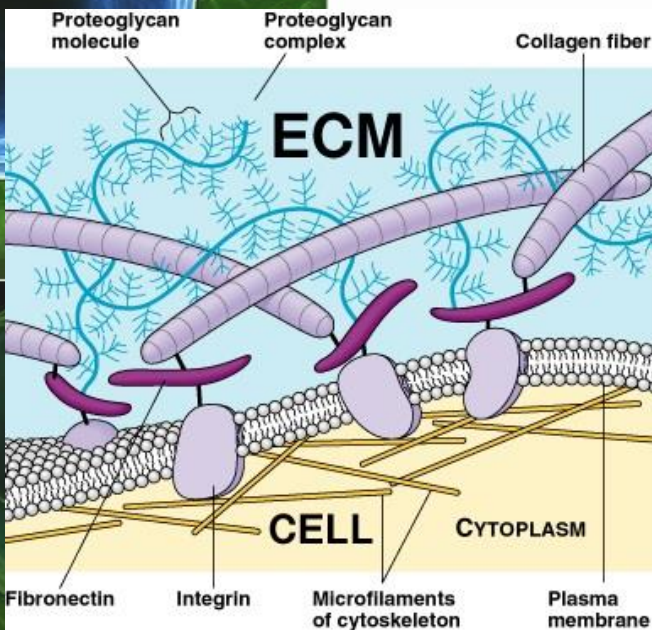
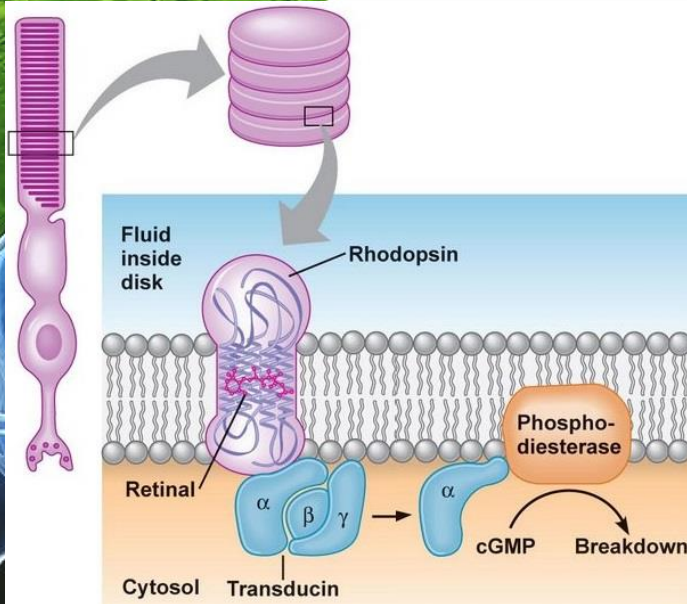
cells act on distant target cells

cell releases molecules **into the bloodstream** that requires **transporter molecules** (albumins, globulins)



hormones of endocrine organs
and neurotransmitters

CELL RECEPTORS



RECEPTOR (R) - specialized protein molecule that receives signals from outside of the cell

structure closely related to reception of different signals/information (Rs have fragments/domains capable of conformational changes)

- Physical signals

e.g. protein receptor **RHODOPSIN** light-sensitive, in photoreceptor cells of the **retina**, that accepts the photon of light and converts it into a chemical signals

- Mechanical signals

e.g. **cytoskeleton elements** of the cells distort under mechanical stress

- Chemical signals

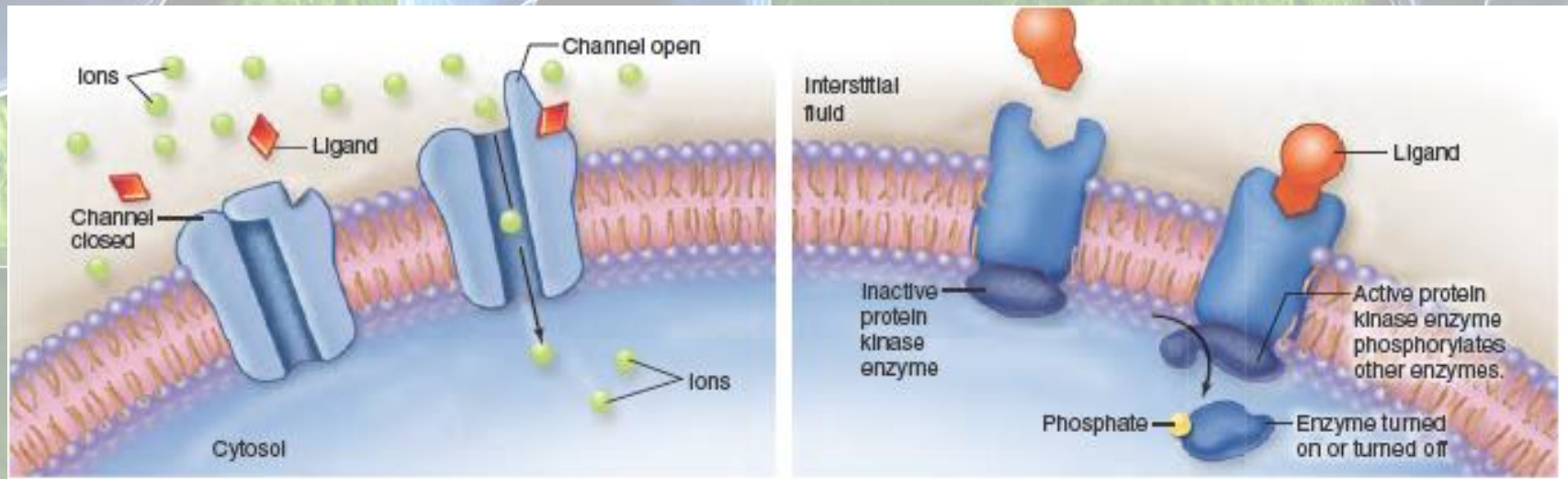
e.g. connected to **ligand-receptor** binding

LIGAND-RECEPTOR INTERACTION

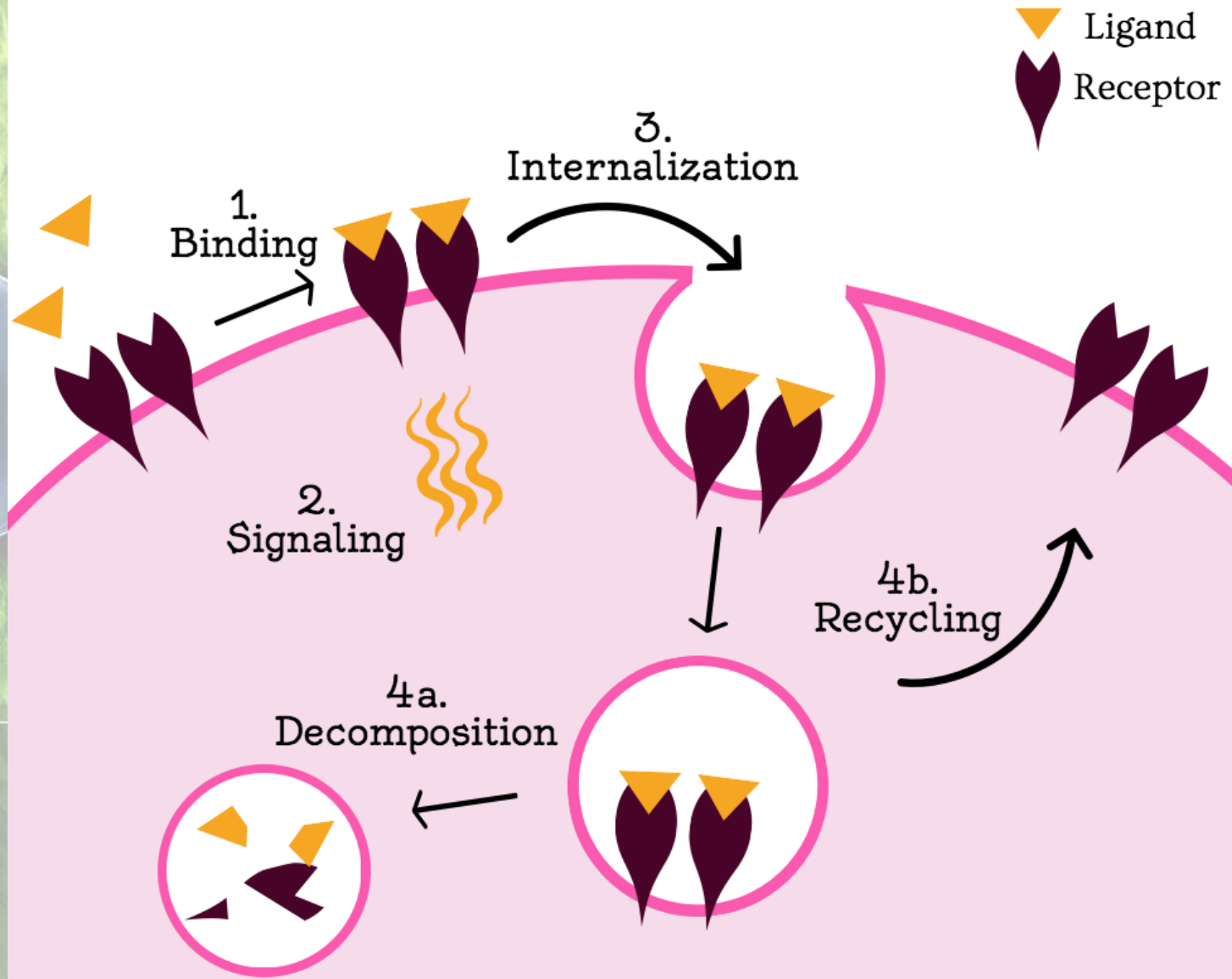
Ligand (L) – any substance/factor/molecule that is capable of specific binding to specific receptor (R); signal molecule, first messenger

binding occurs by electrostatic forces, ionic bonds, hydrogen bonds or van der Waals forces

the association is reversible and is based mainly on the conformational spatial fit on both molecules



What happens to a receptor?



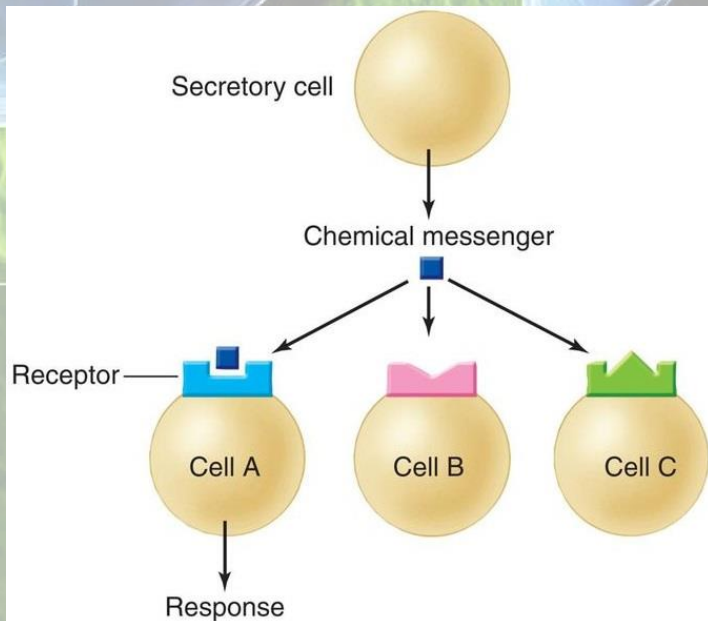
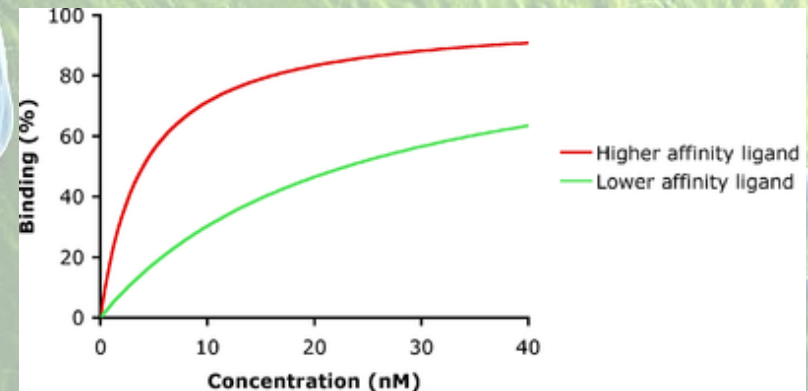
LIGAND-RECEPTOR INTERACTION

Affinity – rate of binding (tendency or strength of the binding) and **stability** of the complex

depends on pH, T, ionic forces, conformation of R and L, quantitative ratio R:L

→ **high-affinity** – great intermolecular force between R and L

→ **low-affinity** – low intermolecular force between R and L



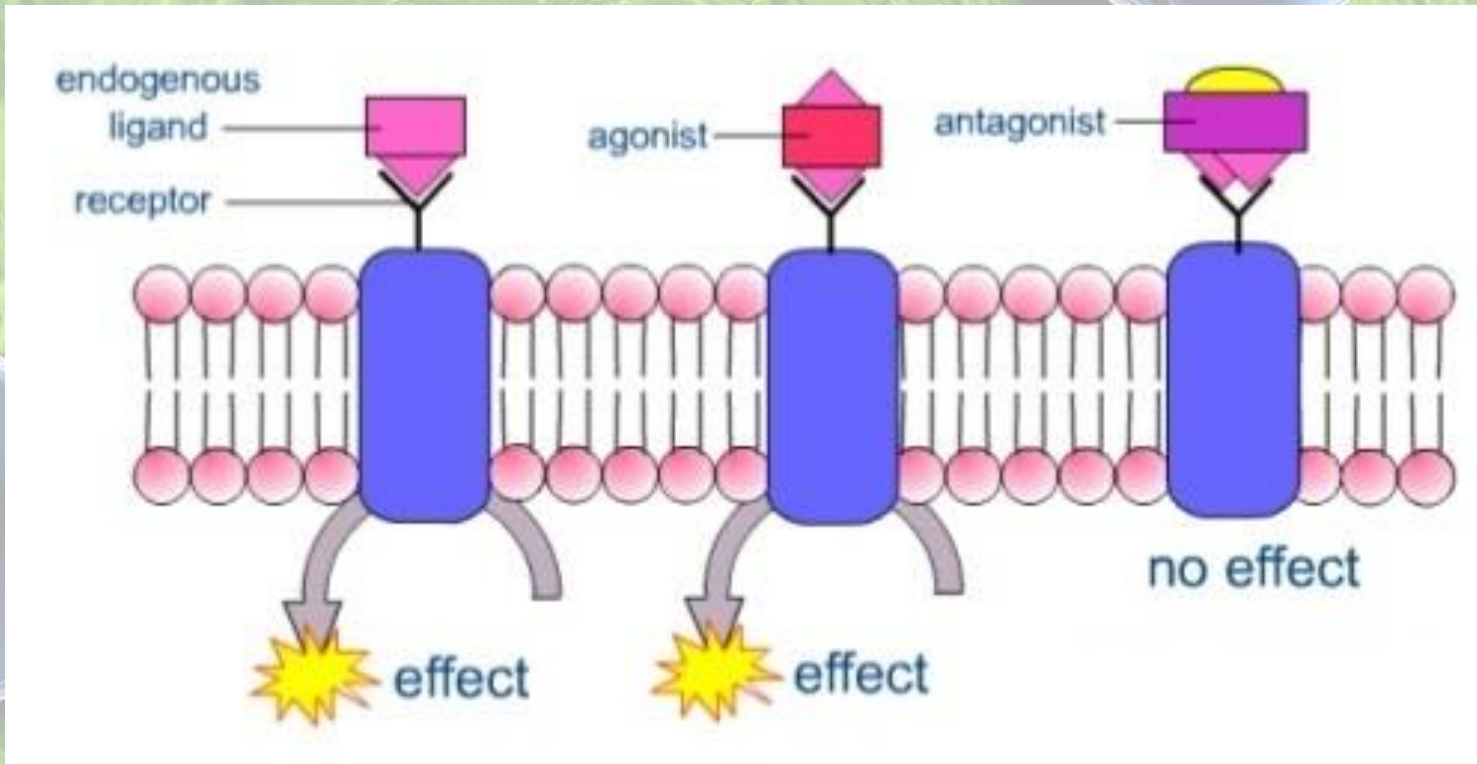
Specificity

not all the cells express the same receptors

Selectivity

in pharmacology, drugs that are non-selective may have more adverse effects, as they bind to several Rs, generating both the desired effect and additional effect

LIGAND TYPES



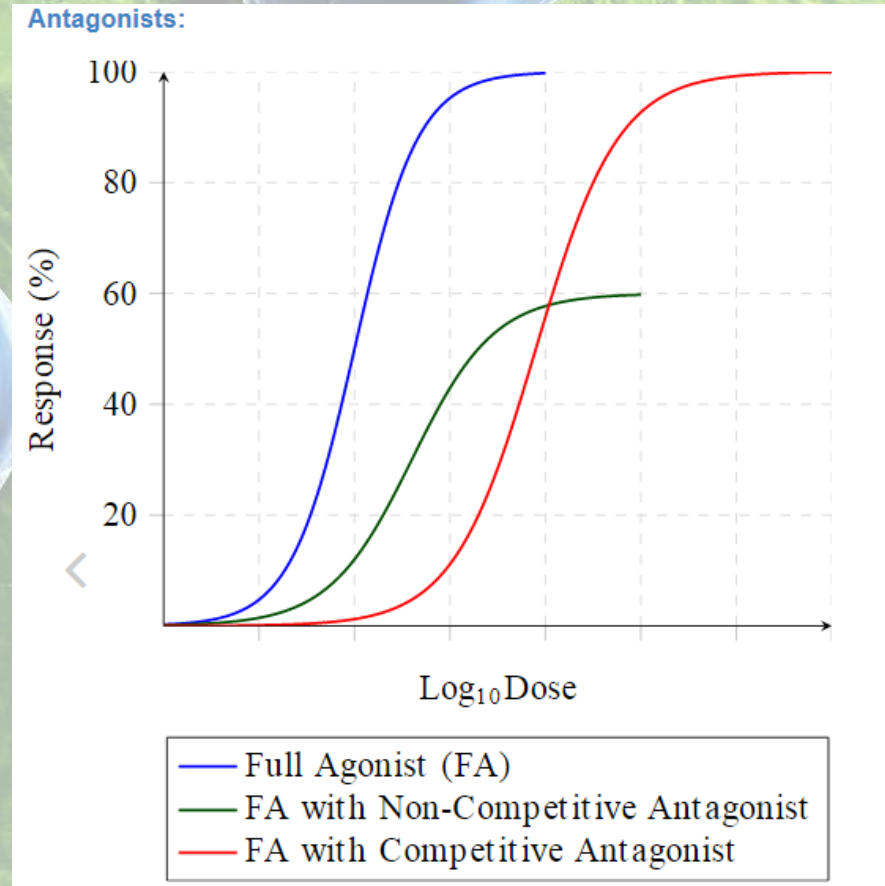
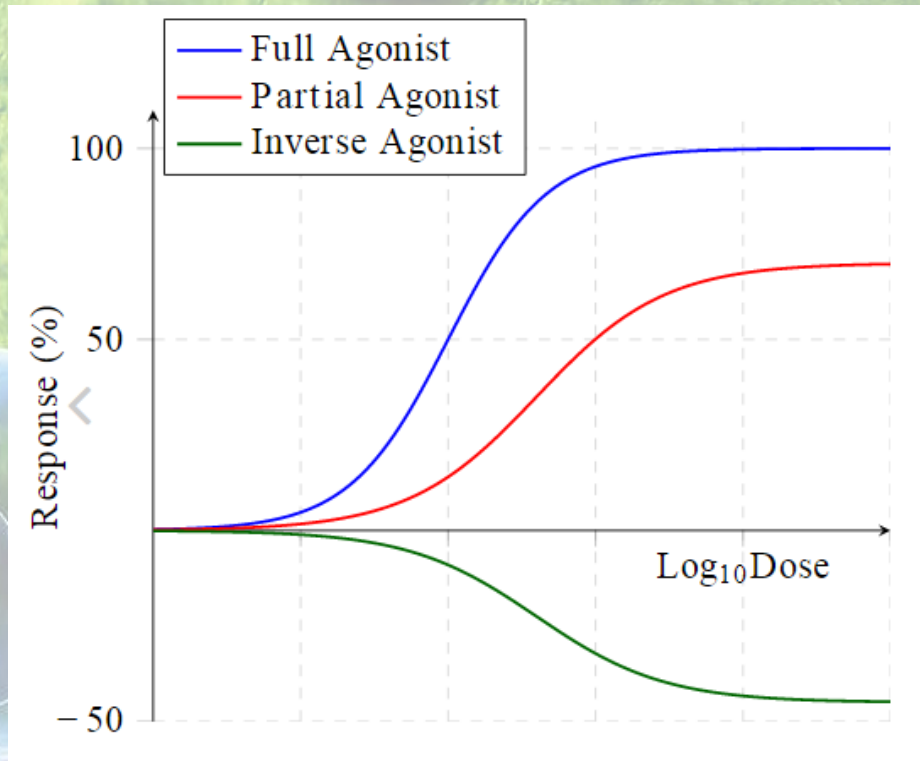
Endogeneous L
binds to a R and
produces an effect

AGONIST

a ligand (drug) that has an active site of similar shape to the endogeneous L and that binds to a R and produces the effect
e.g. Nicotine

ANTAGONIST

a ligand (drug) which shape is close enough to the endogeneous L to bind to a R, it takes up R space so it prevents the endogeneous L from binding, no effect itself!
e.g. Atropine



Partial Agonists do not reach 100% response, *e.g.* Opioids
Inverse Agonists have a negative response, *e.g.* Benzodiazepine (GABA system)

Non-Competitive Antagonists prevent maximal response being reached
Competitive Agonists right shift the curve, as they can be overcome with increasing dose of agonist

RECEPTOR TYPES

→LOCATION:

membrane receptors

located in the cell membrane

transduces signal from larger hydrophobic molecules

protein is covalently attached to the lipids of the bilayer or is a transmembrane protein/domain

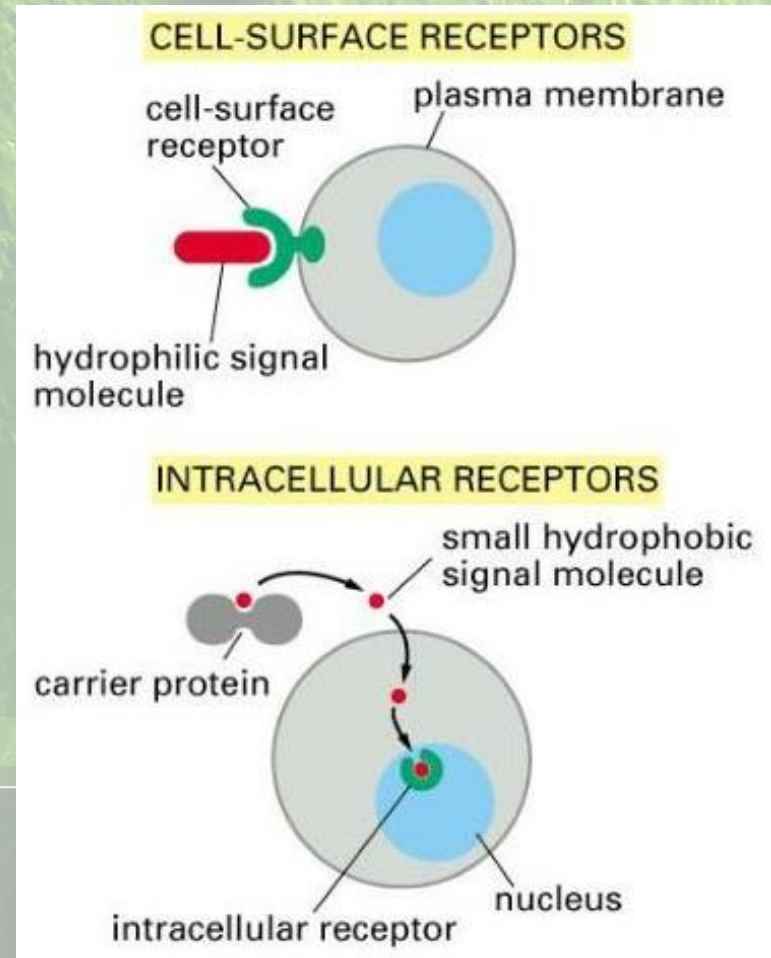
intracellular receptors

bind L that can directly go through the plasma membrane

cytoplasmic *e.g.* steroid hormones

& nuclear receptors *e.g.* thyroid hormones

in membranes of vesicles and other cell organelles, used in the intracellular signaling between cytoplasm compartments and organelles

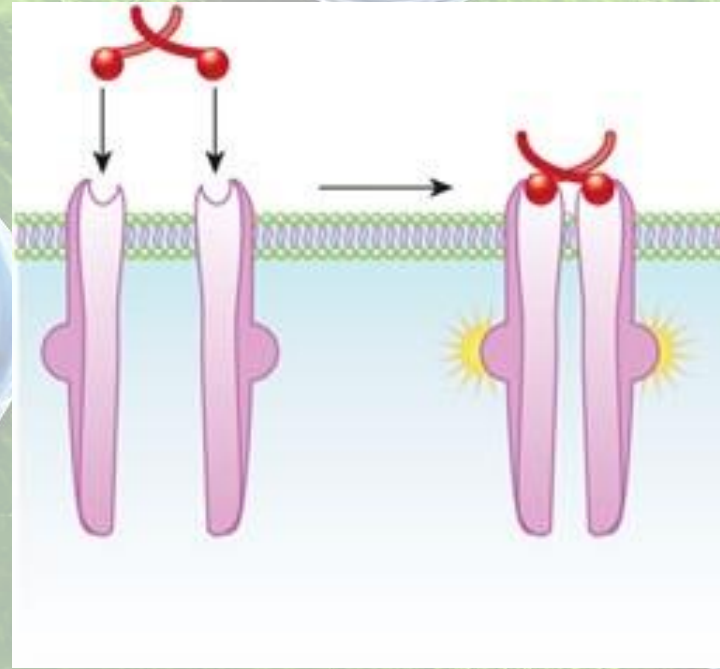


RECEPTOR TYPES

2 modes of action:

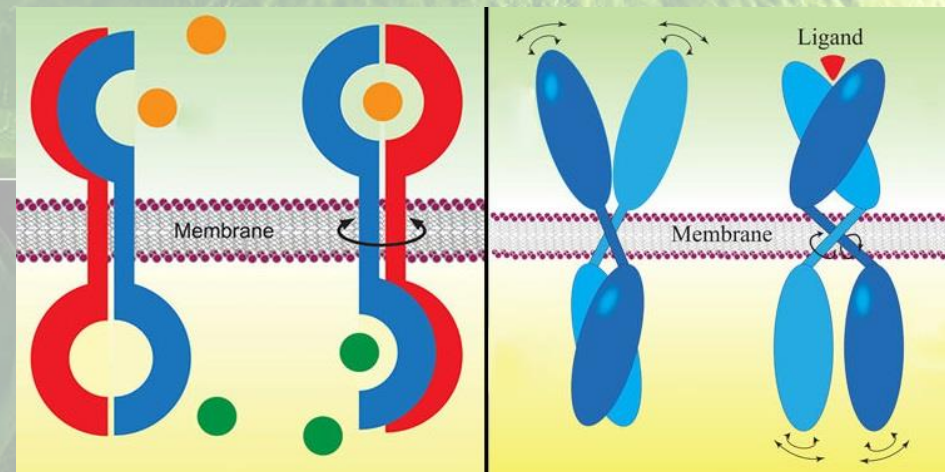
1. Dimerization

R exists in inactive monomeric forms, after L binding the monomers combine to form an active dimer



2. Rotation

L binding occurs to the extracellular part of the R and induces conformational change which alters the intracellular part and exerts signaling



RECEPTOR TYPES

→ STRUCTURE and SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION:

Ionotropic receptors

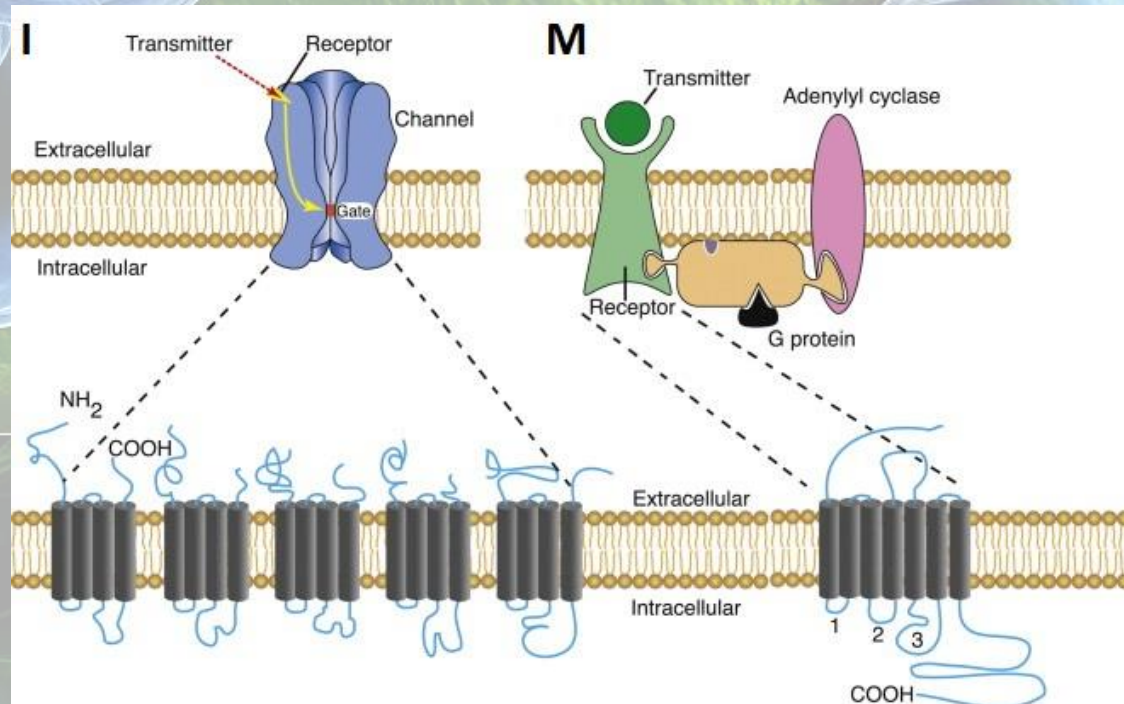
ion channels, upon L binding can „open” or „close” and let ions travel through the membrane very fast (ms):

good target for drugs

limited to K^+ , Na^+ , Cl^- , Ca^{2+} , neurotransmitters

Metabotropic receptors

cascade signaling, ultimately activate or inactivate target proteins

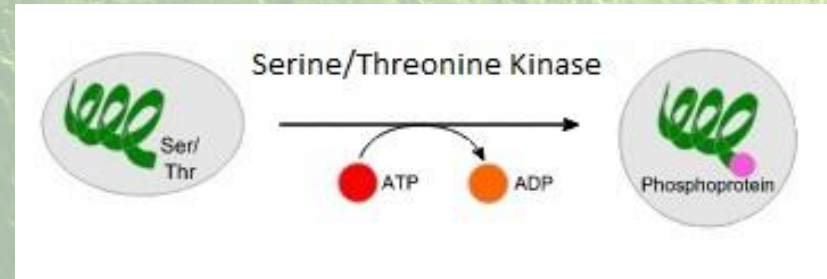


METABOTROPIC RECEPTORS

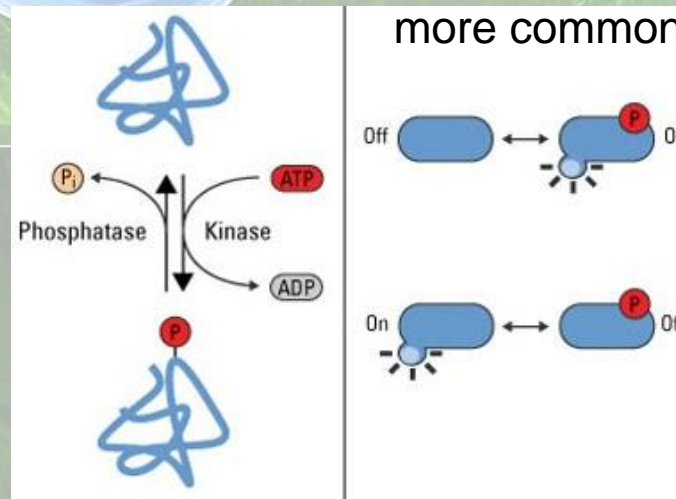
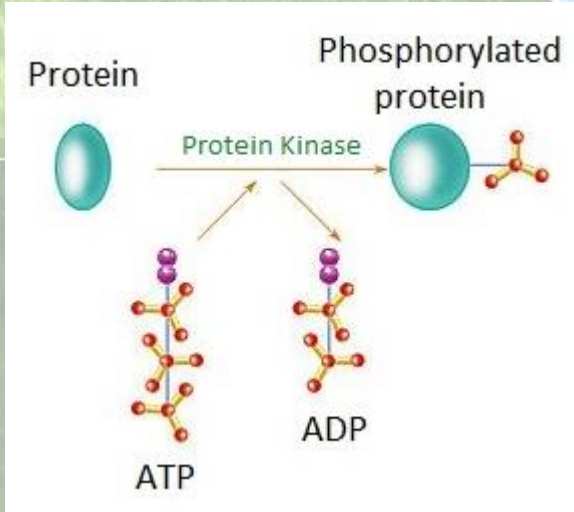
PHOSPHORYLATION
Activation (mostly)
KINASES

DEPHOSPHORYLATION
Deactivation (mostly)
PHOSPHATASES

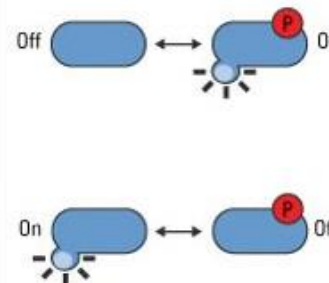
transfer of a phosphoryl group
from a nucleoside triphosphate donor
(ATP) to an acceptor molecule (protein)



**Serine/Threonine
&
Tyrosine**



more common



METABOTROPIC RECEPTORS

- (a) Signaling using heterotrimeric G proteins and G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR)
- (b) Direct activation of protein kinases/phosphatases

(a) G PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS

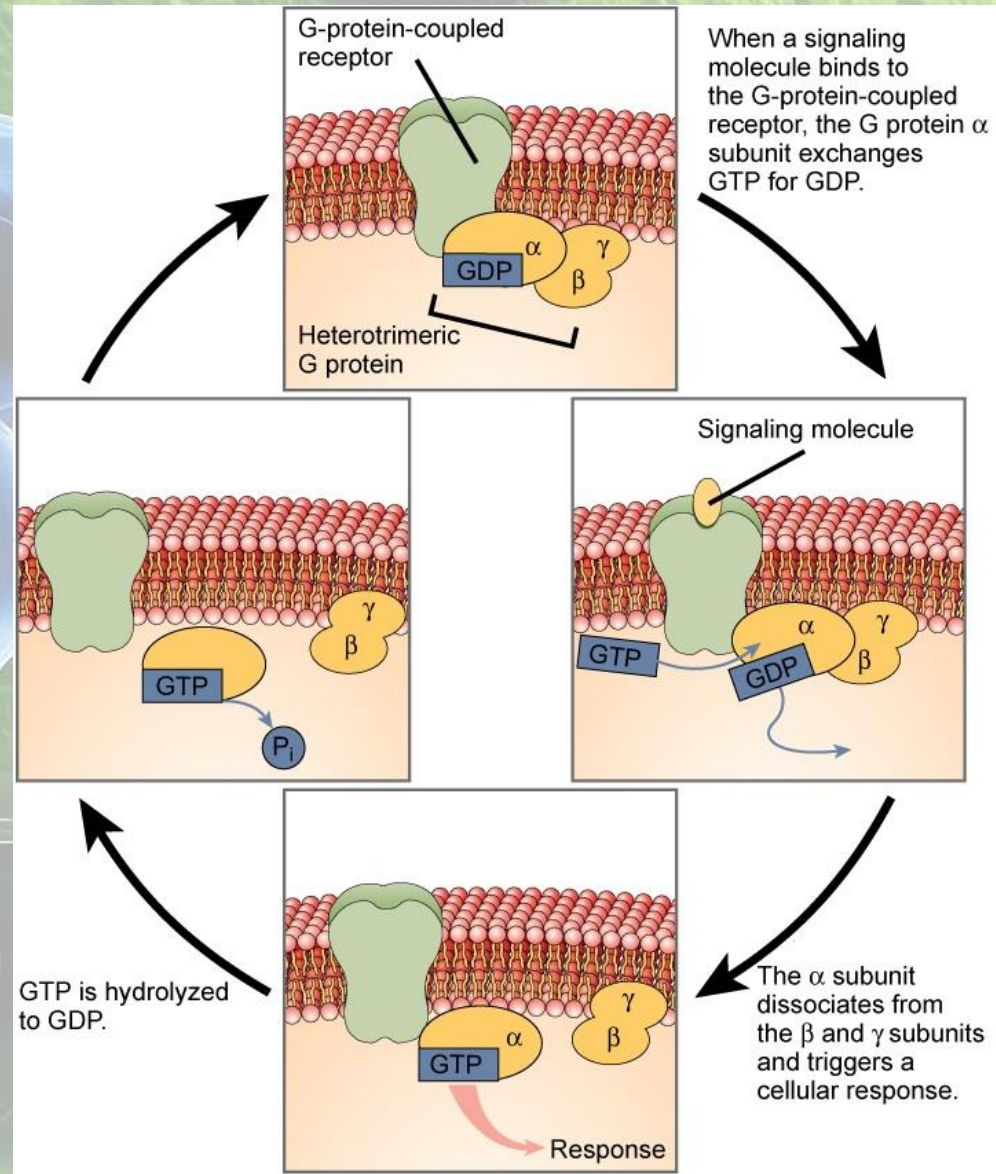
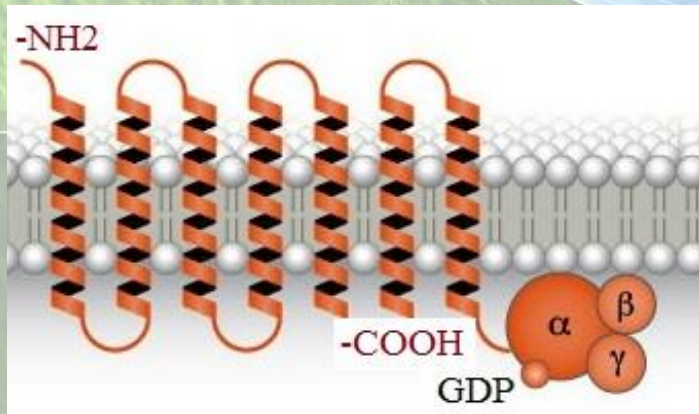
GPCR

7 transmembrane domains, the C-domain (cytoplasmic) is a place where the G protein is attached

G protein

complex made up of 3 subunits :
alpha (α), beta (β) and gamma (γ)
G α has a GTPase activity
(it hydrolyses GTP \rightarrow GDP)

Requires a second messenger!



Biogenic amines

Noradrenaline, dopamine, 5-HT, histamine, acetylcholine

Amino acids and ions

Glutamate, Ca²⁺, GABA

Lipids

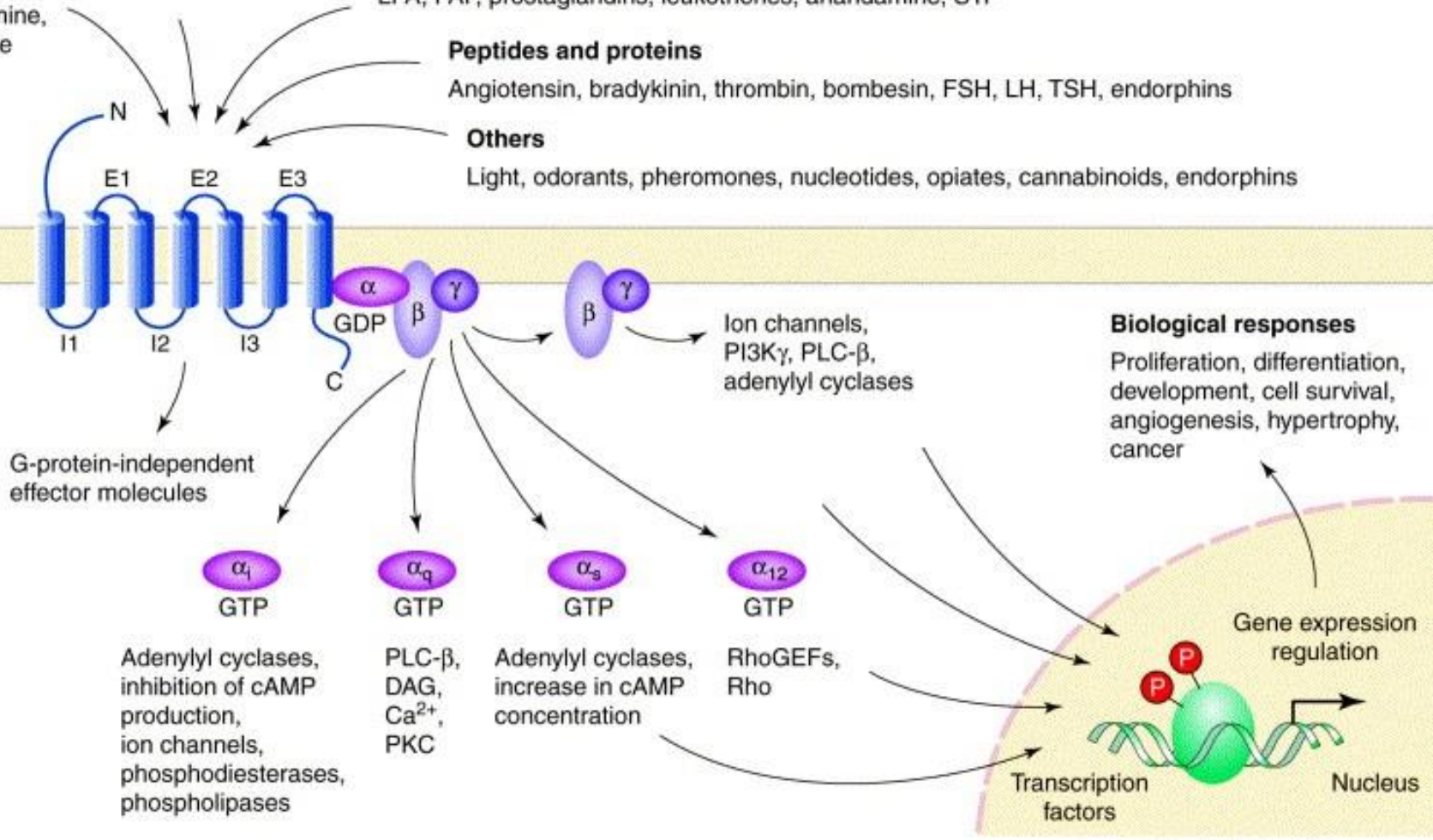
LPA, PAF, prostaglandins, leukotrienes, anandamine, S1P

Peptides and proteins

Angiotensin, bradykinin, thrombin, bombesin, FSH, LH, TSH, endorphins

Others

Light, odorants, pheromones, nucleotides, opiates, cannabinoids, endorphins



Biological responses

Proliferation, differentiation, development, cell survival, angiogenesis, hypertrophy, cancer

Gene expression regulation

Transcription factors

Nucleus

(b) DIRECT ACTIVATION OF KINASES/PHOSPHATASES

transmission of signal through the membrane is through the kinases, **directly** second messenger may be involved

engaging of further kinases, mainly **tyrosine kinases** of 3 kinds:

1. Receptor protein Tyrosine Kinases (RTKs)
2. non-Receptor Protein Tyrosine Kinases (nRTKs)
3. Cytoplasmic Jak/Tyk Tyrosine Kinases

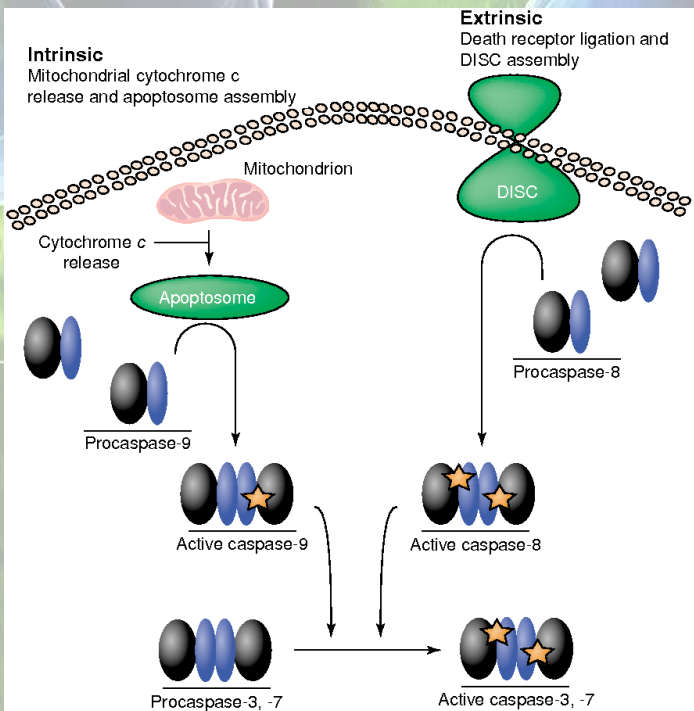
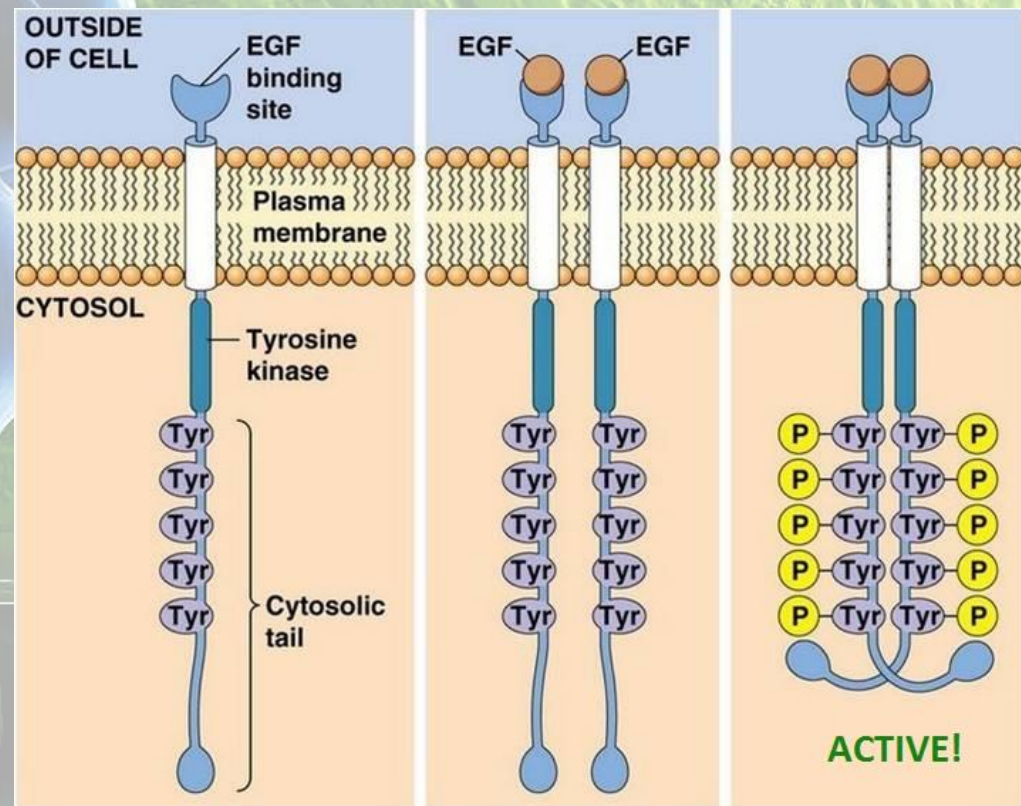
Tyrosine
vs.
Serine/Threonine

Receptor protein Tyrosine Kinases (RTKs)

HOMODIMERIZATION is required

cross- and auto-phosphorylations of Tyr residues in the C-terminus
recruitment of second messengers (their enzymes)

e.g. GH signaling
EGF signaling
apoptosis induction



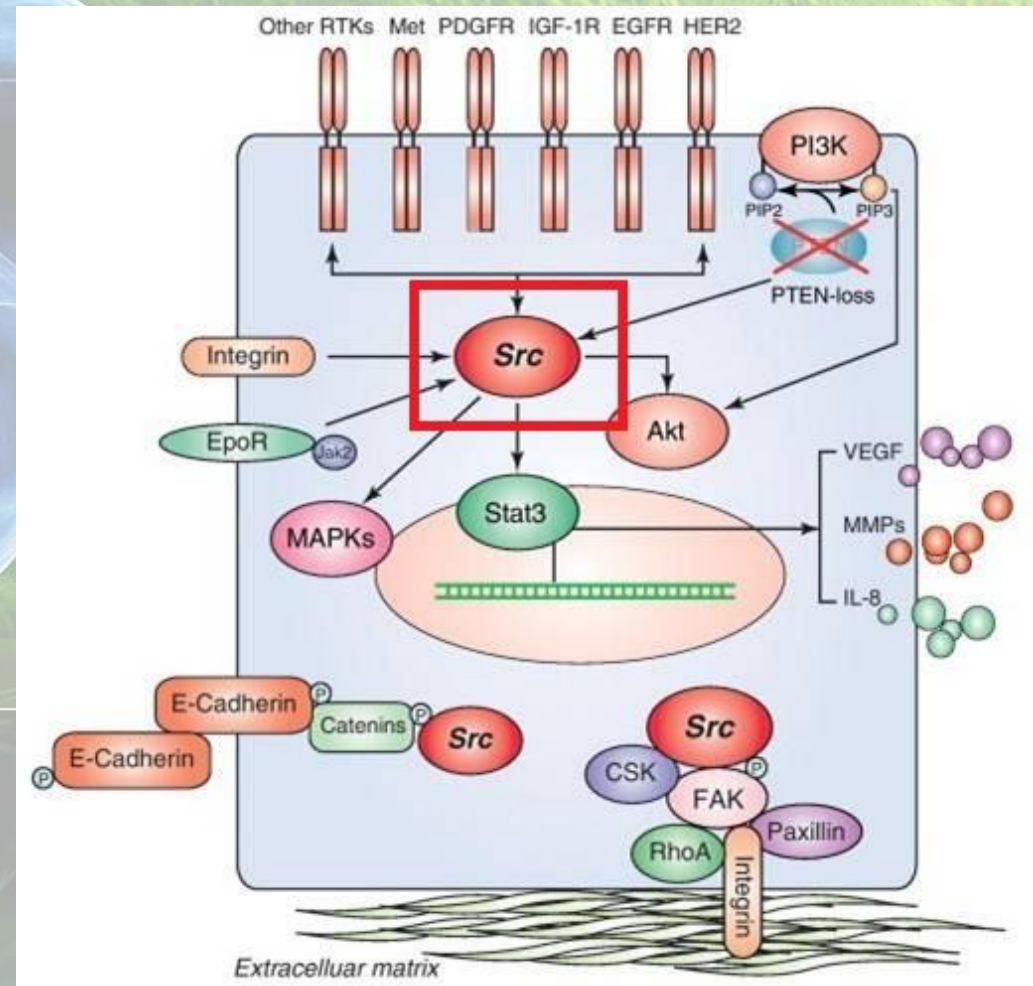
Non-Rceptor Protein Tyrosine Kinases (nRTKs)

cytoplasmic enzymes

Src family

can be induced by the RTKs

e.g. receptors for the Fc of T cell Ab
regulation of cell immunity
migration
apoptosis
adhesion
differentiation



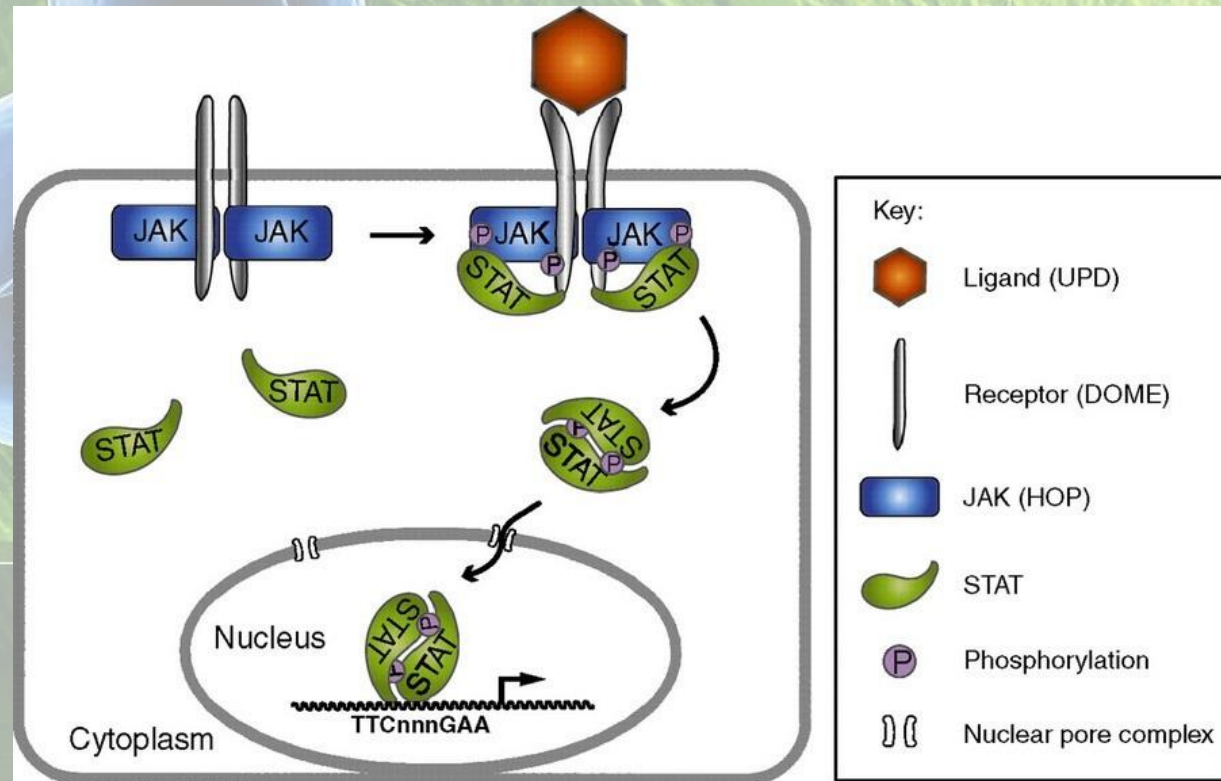
Cytoplasmic Jak/Tyk Tyrosine Kinases

bind to receptors that do not have their own kinase activity

the kinase **directly phosphorylates transcription factors** and enhance gene expression= FAST SIGNALING

NO second messengers!

e.g. cytokines
chemokines
(inflammation process)



Serine/Threonine Kinase Signaling

2 subunits, form HETERODIMER

Smad family

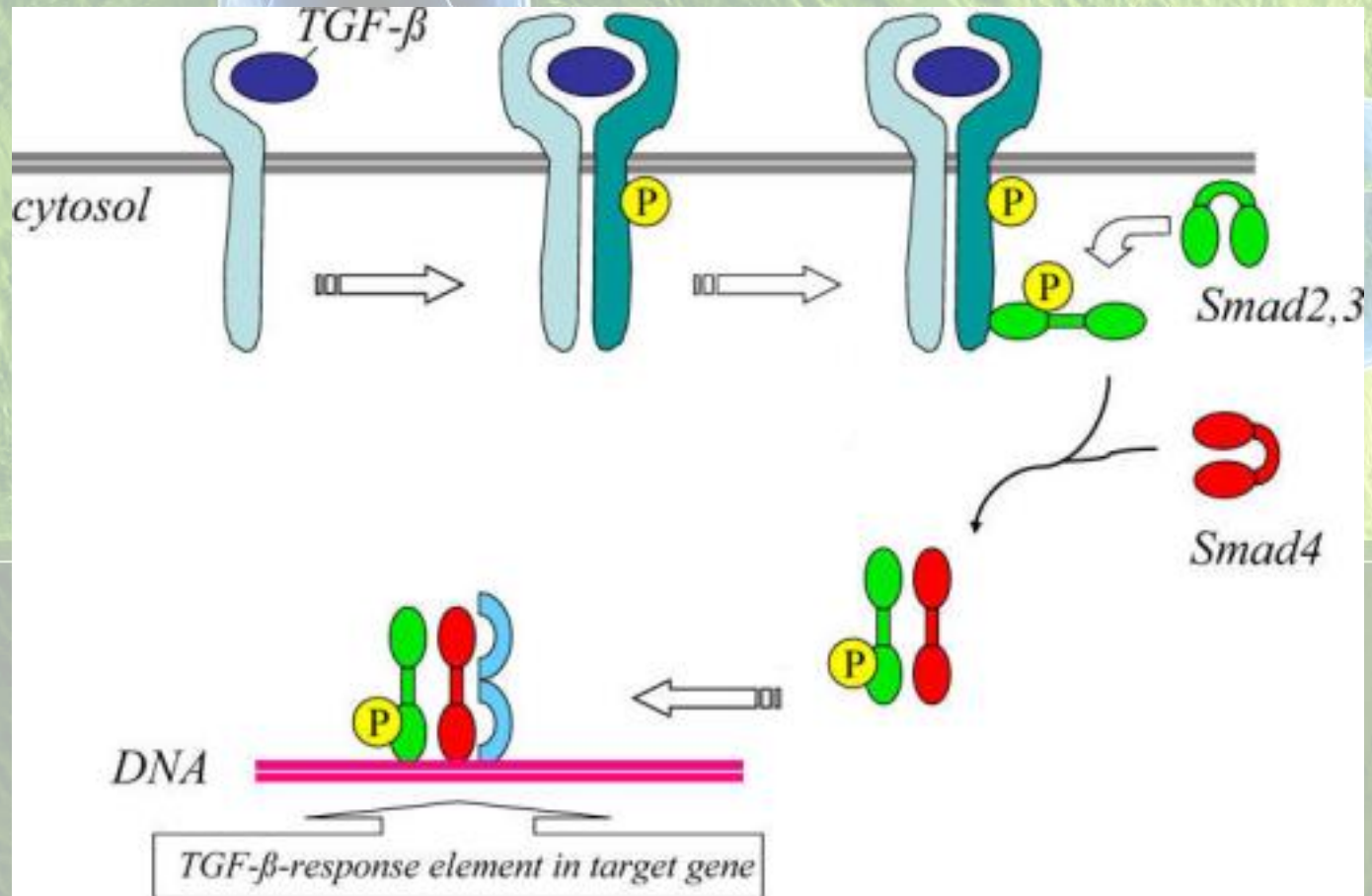
e.g. TGF- β

bone morphogenetic protein BMP

inhibin

actinin

Tyrosine
vs.
Serine/Threonine

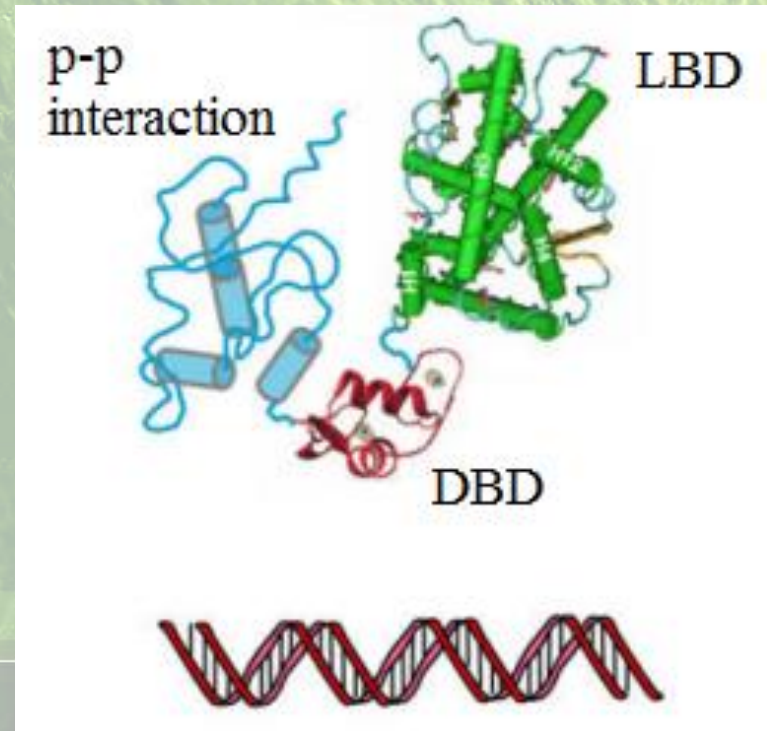


Nuclear Receptors

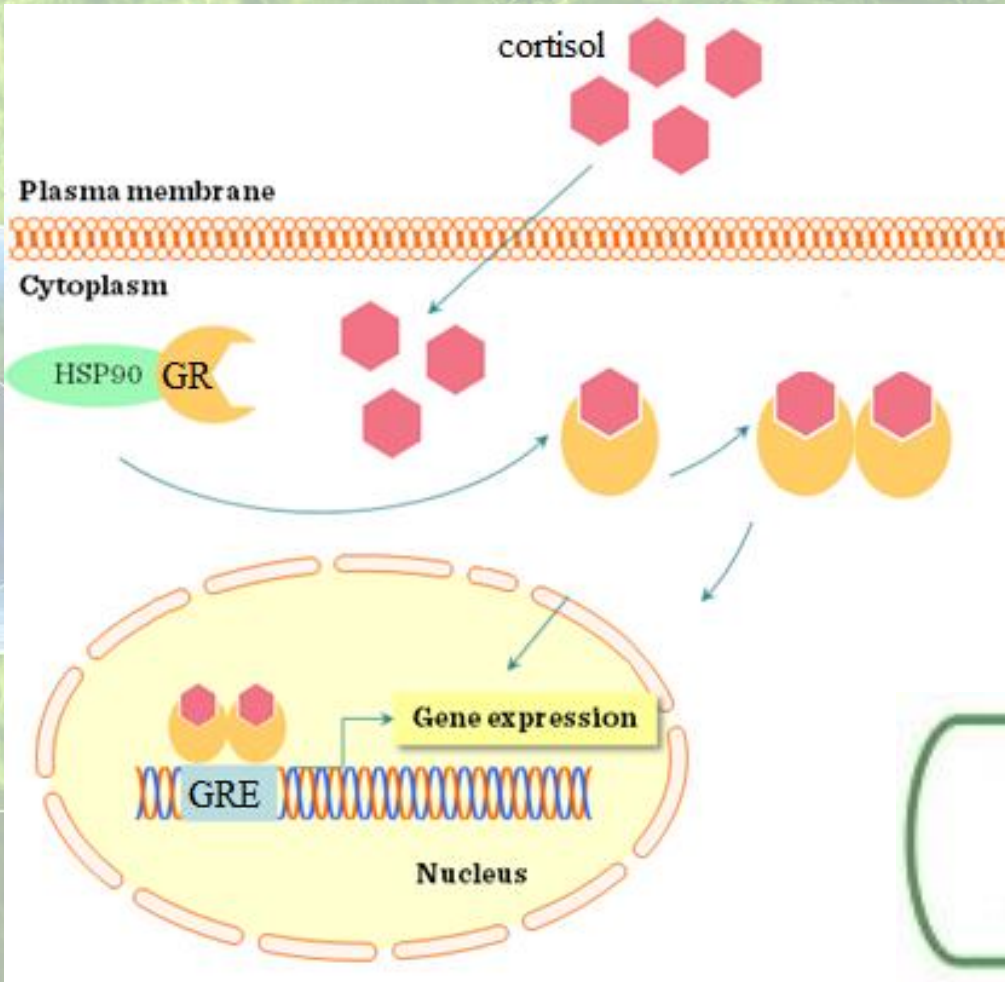
location: in cell **nucleus** or **cytoplasm**
responsible for signaling of ligands that easily go through the plasma membrane:
steroid (glucocorticoids, mineralocorticoids)
thyroid hormones
retinoic acid

structure resembling the one of the transcription factors:
LIGAND BINDING DOMAIN
DNA RECOGNITION DOMIAN
DIMERIZATION DOMAIN/protein-protein interaction domain

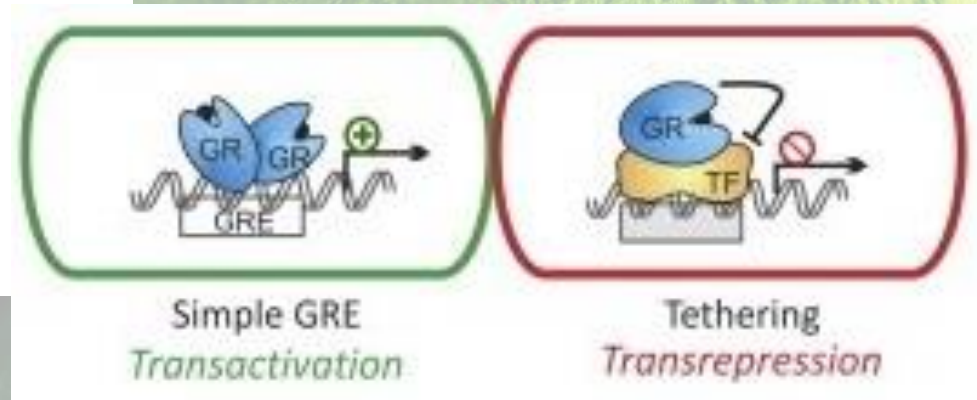
form **homo-** and **hetero-dimer**
can interact with each other
or with other types of proteins



GLUCOCORTICOID RECEPTOR (GR) Signaling



+ TRANSACTIVATION
- TRANSREPRESSION



Regulation of receptors function



UPregulation



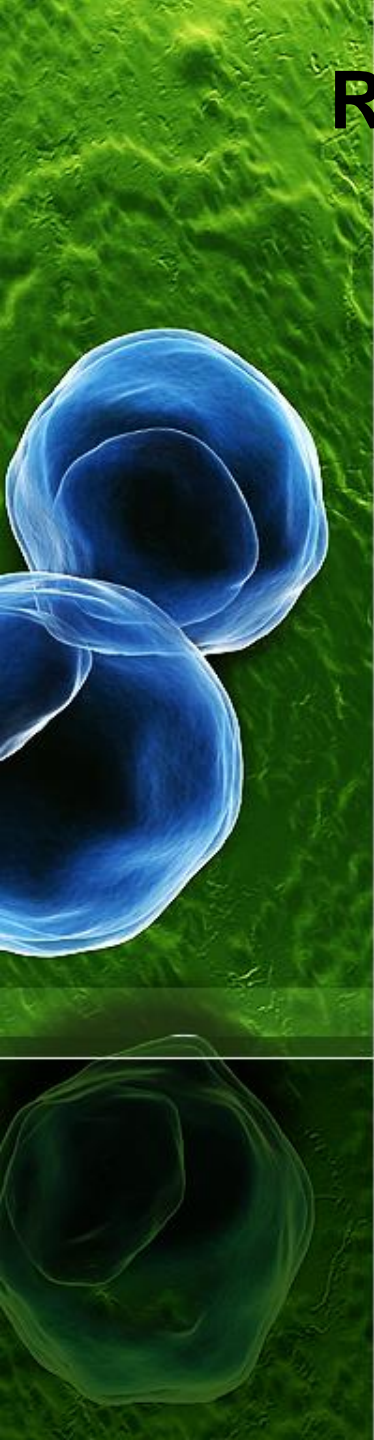
DOWNregulation

Mechanisms controlling receptors function:

Intrinsic regulation (regulatory and homeostatic control)

Disease states

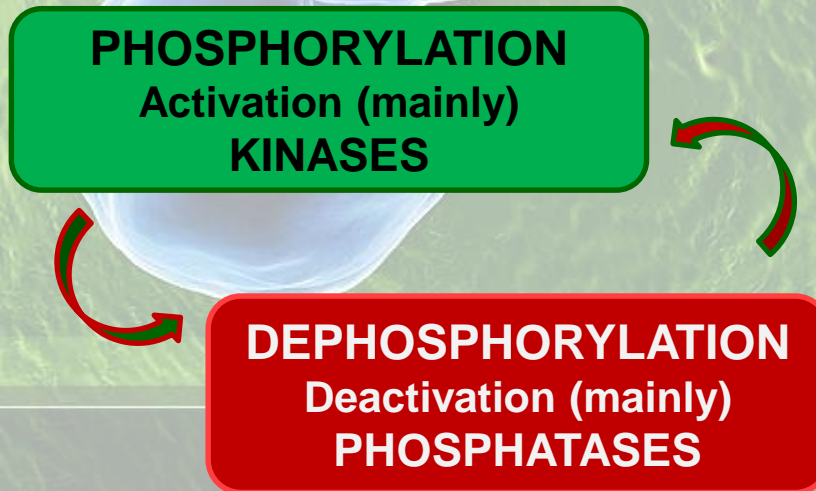
Drugs



Mechanisms controlling receptors function

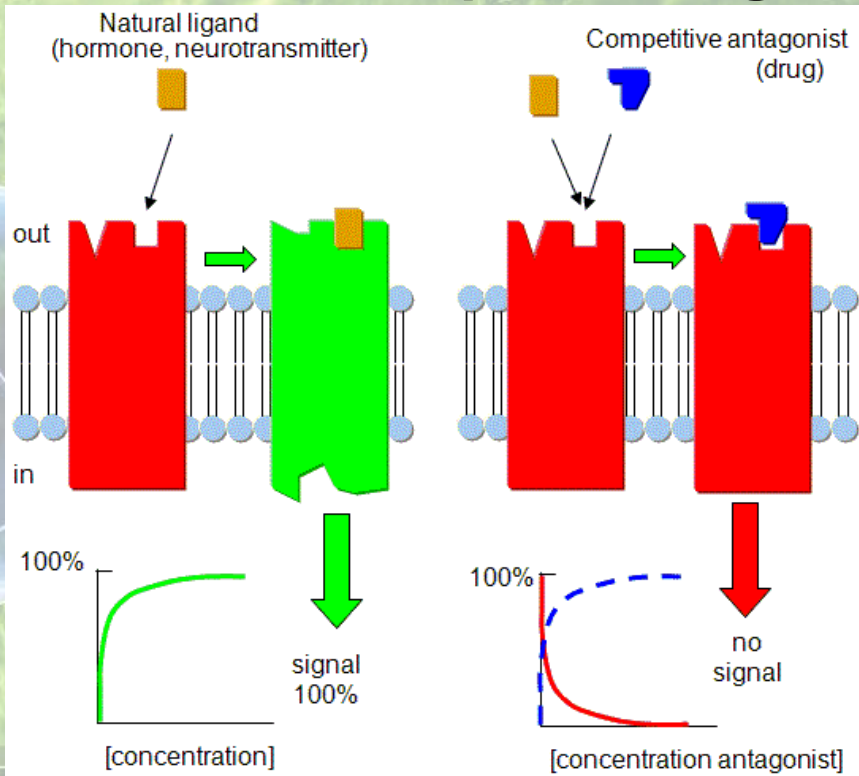
Phosphorylation and Dephosphorylation

the fastest!

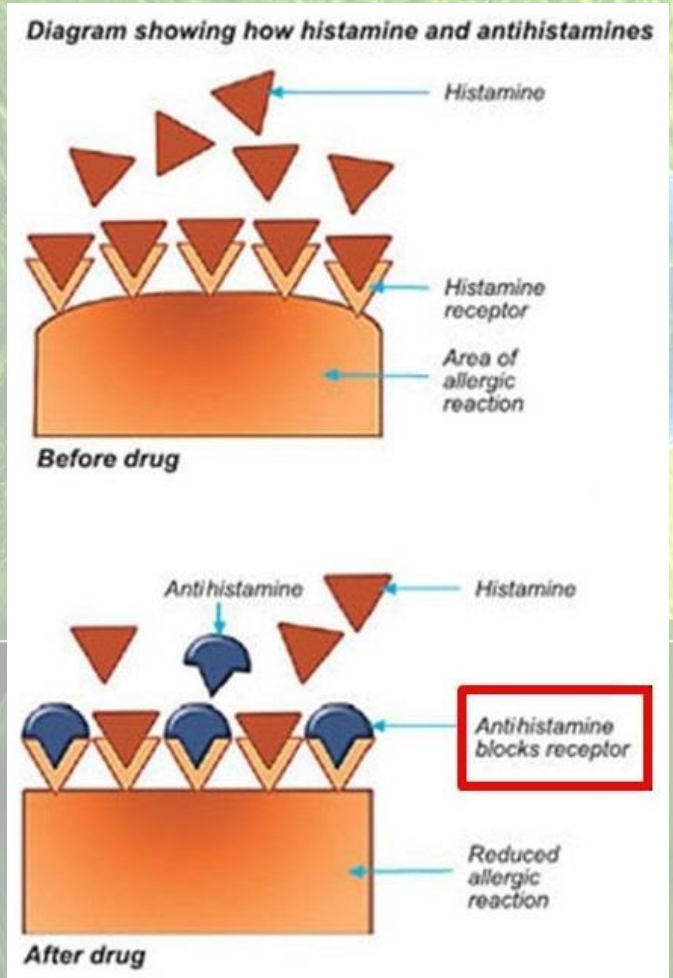


Mechanisms controlling receptors function

Natural or drug **competitive ligands** (antagonists)

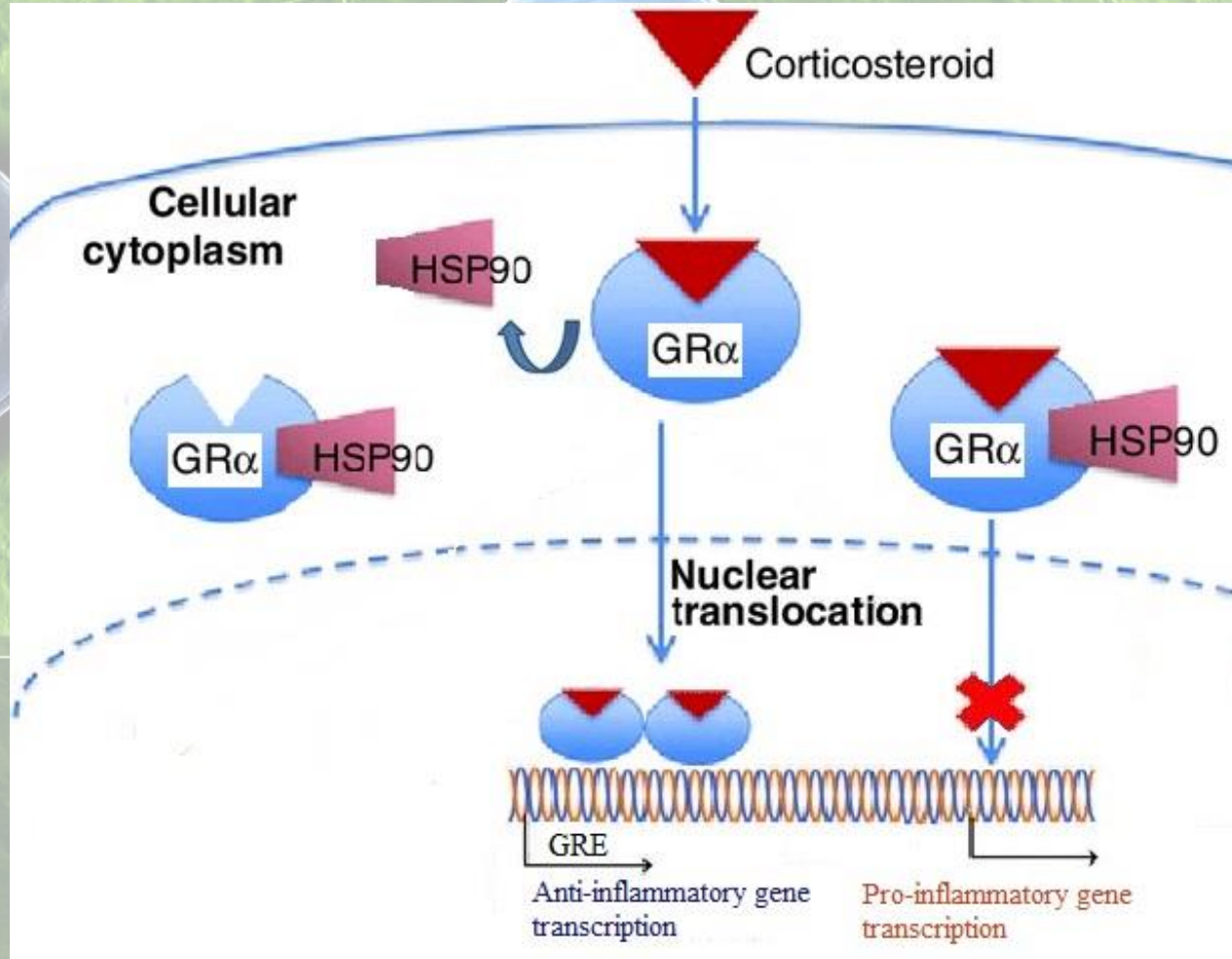


e.g. („-“) Antyhistamine drug action



Mechanisms controlling receptors function

Blocking receptor function by the regulator y proteins

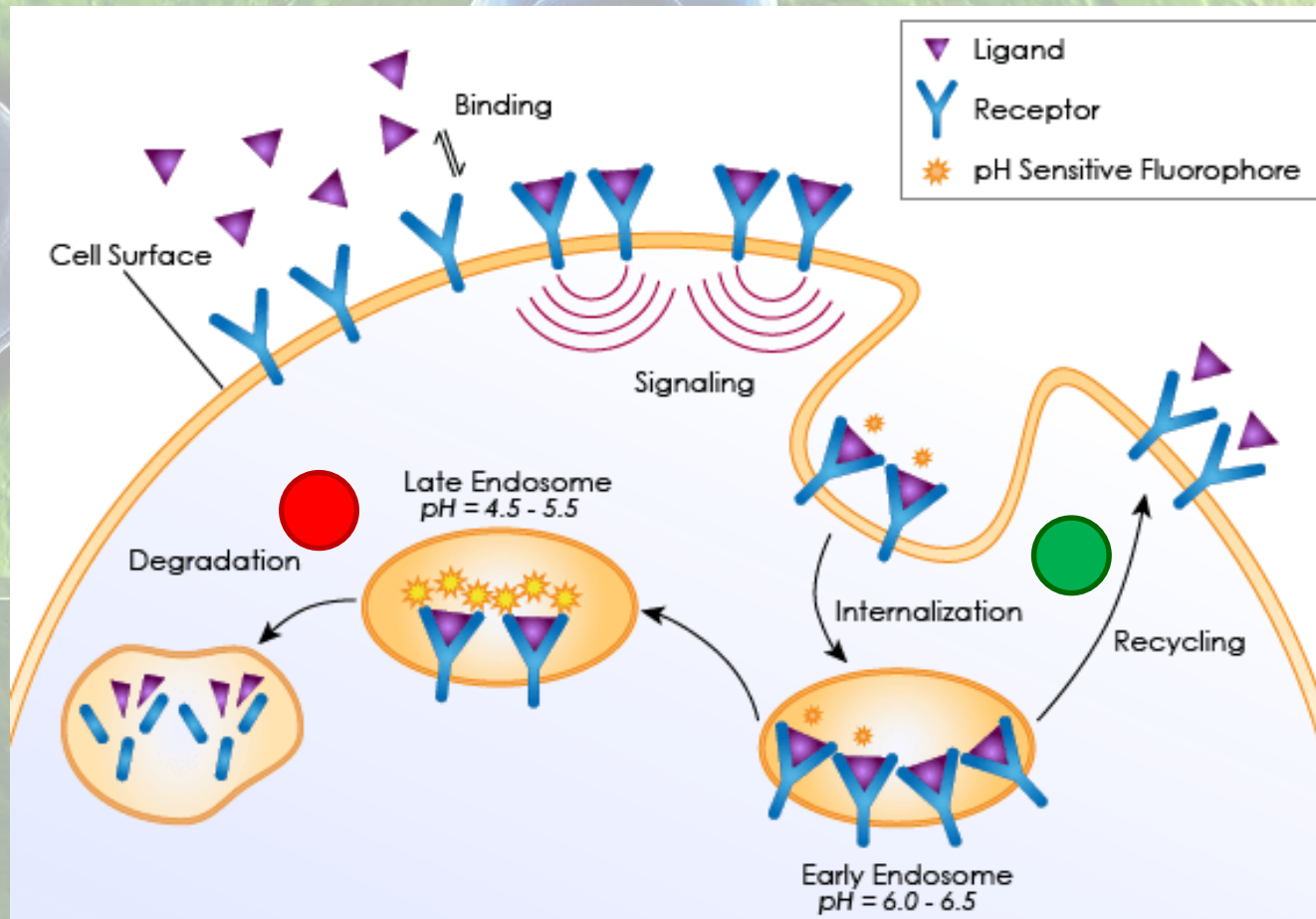


Mechanisms controlling receptors function

Receptor internalization and degradation

Endocytosis

Endosome=receptorosome



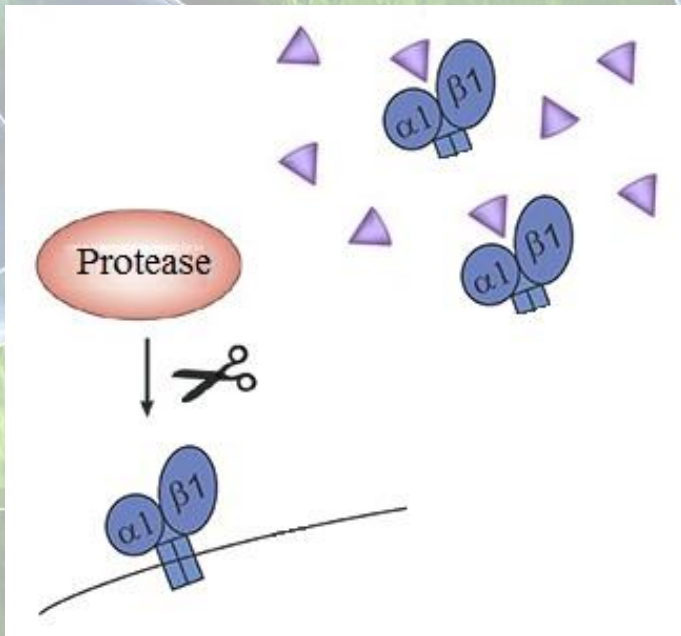
Mechanisms controlling receptors function

Receptor digestion

by the extracellular proteases

~ „peeling” the receptor off the cell surface

Receptor function **inactivation**



Receptor function **activation**
Protease-Activated Receptors (PAR)

e.g. platelets activation during fibrin clot formation
in the wounded blood vessel wall

