

GABA_A receptors as molecular targets of general anesthetics: identification of binding sites provides clues to allosteric modulation

Les récepteurs GABA_A comme cibles moléculaires des anesthésiques généraux: l'identification des sites de liaison procure des pistes pour comprendre la modulation allostérique

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Abstract

Purpose The purpose of this review is to summarize current knowledge of detailed biochemical evidence for the role of γ -aminobutyric acid type A receptors (GABA_A-Rs) in the mechanisms of general anesthesia.

Principal findings With the knowledge that all general anesthetics positively modulate GABA_A-R-mediated inhibitory transmission, site-directed mutagenesis comparing sequences of GABA_A-R subunits of varying sensitivity led to identification of amino acid residues in the transmembrane domain that are critical for the drug actions *in vitro*. Using a photo incorporable analogue of the general anesthetic, R(+)-etomidate, we identified two transmembrane amino acids that were affinity labelled in purified bovine brain GABA_A-R. Homology protein structural modelling positions these two residues, α M1-11' and β M3-4', close to each other in a single type of intersubunit etomidate binding pocket at the β/α interface. This position would be appropriate for modulation of agonist channel gating. Overall, available information suggests that these two etomidate binding residues are allosterically coupled to sites of action of steroids, barbiturates, volatile agents, and propofol, but not alcohols. Residue α/β M2-15' is probably not a binding site but allosterically coupled to

action of volatile agents, alcohols, and intravenous agents, and α/β M1-(-2') is coupled to action of intravenous agents.

Conclusions Establishment of a coherent and consistent structural model of the GABA_A-R lends support to the conclusion that general anesthetics can modulate function by binding to appropriate domains on the protein. Genetic engineering of mice with mutation in some of these GABA_A-R residues are insensitive to general anesthetics *in vivo*, suggesting that further analysis of these domains could lead to development of more potent and specific drugs.

Résumé

Objectif L'objectif de cet article de synthèse est de résumer les connaissances actuelles concernant les données probantes biochimiques détaillées élucidant le rôle des récepteurs à l'acide γ -aminobutyrique de type A (R-GABA_A) dans les mécanismes de l'anesthésie générale.

Constatations principales Tous les anesthésiques généraux modulent positivement la transmission inhibitrice médiée par les R-GABA_A. On a identifié les acides aminés du domaine transmembranaire représentant des sites d'action importants des médicaments, en effectuant des mutations ciblées sur des séquences de sous-unités des R-GABA_A et en comparant leur sensibilité. À l'aide d'un analogue photo luminescent de l'anesthésique général étomidate R(+), nous avons identifié deux acides aminés transmembranaires marqués par affinité dans les R-GABA_A purifiés de cerveau bovin. Un modèle structurel de protéine par homologie place ces deux résidus, soit α M1-11' et β M3-4', à proximité l'un de l'autre dans un type unique de poche de liaison d'étomidate inter-sous-unité au niveau de l'interface β/α . Cette position sera adaptée pour

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moduler le portillon des canaux agonistes. Globalement, les données disponibles suggèrent que des deux résidus se liant à l'étomidate sont couplés de façon allostérique aux sites d'action des stéroïdes, des barbituriques, des agents volatils et du propofol, mais pas à ceux des alcools. Le résidu $\alpha/\beta M2-15'$ n'est probablement pas un site de liaison, mais il est couplé de façon allostérique à l'action des agents volatils, des alcools et des agents intraveineux, et le $\alpha/\beta M1(-2')$ est couplé à l'action des agents intraveineux.

Conclusion *La création d'un modèle structural cohérent et logique des R-GABA_A appuie notre conclusion selon laquelle les anesthésiques généraux peuvent moduler leur fonction en se liant à des domaines spécifiques sur la protéine. Les souris génétiquement modifiées porteuses d'une mutation dans certains de ces résidus de R-GABA_A ne sont pas sensibles aux anesthésiques généraux in vivo, ce qui suggère qu'une analyse plus approfondie de ces domaines pourrait permettre la mise au point de médicaments à la fois plus puissants et plus spécifiques.*

The purpose of this review is to inform the reader of the current knowledge of detailed biochemical evidence for the role of γ -aminobutyric acid type A receptors (GABA_A-Rs) in the mechanisms of anesthesia. We briefly summarize the evidence connecting anesthetic action on the brain with action on GABA_A-Rs and the structure and function of GABA_A-Rs. We describe the major techniques utilized for determination of amino acids and sequence domains within proteins that participate in various functions, and we summarize the newest data developed on the study of GABA_A-Rs to identify such sites. We also discuss how the overall data for all the chemical classes of general anesthetics either form or do not form a coherent story for a role for GABA_A-Rs in anesthetic action and its relevance for the future of clinical anesthesiology.

Most drugs that act as general anesthetics act only at relatively high concentrations, and their interaction with biosystems has long been considered as more of a physical interaction, namely, perturbation of fluidity of the membrane lipid bilayer, which is consistent with the Meyer-Overton correlation. In this correlation, potency as a general anesthetic is directly related to the solubility ratio for the compound in an oil-water mixture rather than to chemically specific binding to recognition sites on the molecules involved, as in traditional drug receptors.¹ However, recent electrophysiological studies on specificity of action of anesthetic agents on biosystems and biochemical investigations on specific interactions with proteins, especially membrane channels, suggest that general anesthetics probably act via hydrophobic regions of protein targets in

neurons.^{2,3} A major candidate for the target of general anesthetics is the GABA_A receptor, a ligand-gated chloride ion channel receptor for the neurotransmitter GABA, which universally inhibits neuronal excitability via synaptic phasic currents as well as extrasynaptic tonic currents.⁴⁻⁷ The GABA_A-Rs are actually a family of heteropentamers with differing subunit composition that vary in their age-dependence and brain and subcellular localization of expression and trafficking, as well as their pharmacological specificity, including sensitivity to GABA agonists and allosteric modulators, such as benzodiazepines, general anesthetics, neurosteroids, and ethanol (EtOH).^{8,9}

General anesthetic action and GABA_A-Rs

Most if not all general anesthetics at relevant concentrations enhance the function of GABA_A-Rs, and GABA_A-Rs are positioned in the nervous system where they can mediate anesthesia.^{3,7,10-12} People have used the differential sensitivity of GABA_A-R subunits to anesthetic modulation, especially the low sensitivity of ρ subtypes, to attempt to identify amino acid residues in the GABA_A-R subunit sequences that are critical for anesthetic modulation.^{13,14} The residues implicated are in or near the transmembrane domains. Virtually all of the chemical classes of ad drugs with general anesthetic activity are implicated, including especially all of the intravenously administered agents, such as, etomidate, propofol, barbiturates, steroids, and alcohols, as well as the volatile gaseous agents. Some of these transmembrane GABA_A-R residues have been mutated in knock-in mice, which subsequently lose sensitivity to general anesthetics, thus verifying the important role of GABA_A-Rs in anesthetic action.¹²

Alcohol action and GABA_A-Rs

Ethanol does enhance GABA_A-Rs and glycine receptors, much like longer chain alcohols (e.g., *n*-octanol), but at very high (anesthetic) concentrations. We need to distinguish between these *anesthetic* effects of high-dose EtOH and longer chain alcohols and the intoxicating effects of lower doses, such as those encountered in the human brain during social drinking, because evidence suggests that effects of low- and high-dose EtOH involve (at least) two distinct targets in the brain. We suggest that these receptors that are sensitive to EtOH levels resulting from one glass of wine (3-30 mM) are certain subtypes of GABA_A-R, the δ subunit-containing extrasynaptic GABA_A-R that mediate tonic inhibition.^{15,16} One major target of anesthetic doses of EtOH (30-100 mM) is in the transmembrane domain of GABA_A-Rs and glycine receptors.^{13,17,18}

Evidence suggests that EtOH has a second site of interaction with GABA_A-R that is relevant to its pharmacological actions at low doses as produced in humans by one glass of wine.¹⁶ Studies on a naturally-occurring allele in the rat GABA_A-R $\alpha 6$ subunit suggests that the residue, $\alpha 4/6R100$, is involved in EtOH action as well as its blockade by the benzodiazepine ligand, Ro15-4513.^{17,19,20} These results are consistent with our observations that the $\alpha 4/6\beta 3\delta$ subtypes of GABA_A-R are more sensitive to EtOH (low mM) than other subtypes, including the $\gamma 2$ subunit or the $\beta 1/2$ subunits.¹⁵ Moreover, this is consistent with the observation by many that EtOH at low mM concentrations enhances GABA_A-R-mediated tonic inhibitory currents in cells expressing the δ GABA_A-R subunit.^{19,21-23} This hypothesis remains controversial,²⁴ as the expression of recombinant δ subunits is very difficult and thus hardly studied, and the brain slice/neuron work is still in its infancy; however, we believe the hypothesis will be accepted as it becomes better understood. Our preliminary investigations of domains within the $\beta 3$ and δ subunits that interact in $\alpha 4/6\beta 3\delta$ subtypes implicate residues in the $\beta 3$ subunit that are homologous to the benzodiazepine binding site involving $\alpha R100$, which produces an EtOH-sensitive binding site for certain benzodiazepines, like Ro15-4513, that would be located at the $\alpha + \beta$ - interface in the extracellular domain. Future work will determine whether this model has any basis in reality.

Methods for identification of amino acids involved in specific functions of proteins, including allosteric modulators

Chimeras and site-directed mutagenesis

An often utilized and frequently successful technique is to compare polypeptide sequences of homologous subunits showing varying sensitivity to drugs. For example, Mihic *et al.*¹³ compared glycine receptors (sensitive to isoflurane and high-dose EtOH) with GABA_A-R ρ subunits (insensitive to these modulators). One makes chimeric cDNAs that differ in the domain of interest and determine which residues are critical. This is followed by site-directed point mutations in suspected residues until the critical one(s) is identified. On the negative side, identification of residues that determine modulatory drug sensitivity by mutagenesis alone may be allosterically coupled to the function rather than involved in binding *per se*. Thus, the initial observation requires confirmation by secondary approaches. This could involve studying a number of mutations for the implicated residue to discover the shape and properties the “pocket” might show, or attempting a covalent couple of

an analogue of the anesthetic containing a sulfhydryl reagent to the cysteine-substituted candidate residue.²⁵⁻²⁷

Affinity labelling

The use of affinity labels is more likely to identify residues involved in a binding pocket, because the ligand has to have reasonable affinity for the target protein and a chemical group that will bind the protein covalently. The ligand will label residues in close contact when it is bound to the receptor. To maximize specificity, the chemically reactive group is often stable until chemically activated, e.g., by ultraviolet light.²⁸ Nevertheless, some uncertainty arises from possible movement of the activated ligand from the binding site to nearby areas, depending on its lifetime and relative reactivity. Thus, additional evidence consistent with identification of the labelled residues as binding site constituents is also useful here. Making the affinity label radioactive can allow identification of the subunit polypeptide-carrying binding sites on SDS gels and can aid in sequencing the peptide. This binding must be prevented by excess non-radioactive ligand, and its relevance to the drug receptor can be supported by evidence of allosteric modulation of its binding by other receptor ligands. Another advantage of affinity labelling is the fact that the results are unbiased by having to guess in advance which residues might be important, as required with mutagenesis. We succeeded in using this technique for anesthetic binding to GABA_A-R.²⁹

Major findings

Site-directed mutagenesis results

Wingrove *et al.* (1994)³⁰ found that modulation of GABA_A-R by the anticonvulsant/anxiolytic loreclezole depended on the nature of the β subunit ($\beta 2/\beta 3 \gg \beta 1$). Belelli *et al.* (1997)³¹ extended this β subunit selectivity to the intravenous anesthetic, etomidate, a chemical analogue of loreclezole, and demonstrated that the β selectivity was due to residue 265, which is N in both $\beta 2$ and $\beta 3$ (sensitive to etomidate) and differed from $\beta 1$ (S, insensitive to etomidate) as well as the insect β (Rdl, which has M, insensitive to etomidate). They³¹ showed that a single amino acid in GABA_A-R, $\beta 2N265$, ($\beta M2-15'$) was responsible for the selectivity of $\beta 2$ and $\beta 3$ over $\beta 1$ for the modulatory drugs, loreclezole and etomidate. This β selectivity was found to extend to the related intravenous anesthetic, propofol.³²

Mihic *et al.* (1997)¹³ used the anesthetic-insensitive GABA_A-R ρ subunit sequence and the anesthetic-sensitive glycine receptor α and GABA_A-R α and β subunits to identify, by construction of chimeras and point mutations, some

amino acid residues critical for modulation of GlyR and GABA_A-R by volatile anesthetics and long-chain alcohols, implicating the M2-15' and M3-4' residues in both the α and β subunits of GABA_A-R. Note that the M2-15' residue is the same as the one found simultaneously by Belelli *et al.* (1997).³¹

Carlson *et al.* (2000)¹⁴ took a similar approach to identify a single amino acid at the entrance to M1(-2') in GABA_A-R α and β , i.e., β 2G229, which when mutated to larger (e.g., F as in ρ) or charged residues gave significantly reduced sensitivity to modulation of binding and function by steroids, etomidate, propofol, and barbiturates, with enhanced direct gating by these drugs. Thus, it appeared that larger than normal amino acids at this position took the place of anesthetics in partially enhancing GABA, so that the extent of enhancement by the exogenous anesthetic ligand was reduced.

In addition to the residues identified by Mihic *et al.* (1997)¹³ for anesthetic doses of EtOH enhancement of glycine receptors (transmembrane α 1S267[M2-15']), Daryl Davies and Ron Alkana found that residues in the extracellular domain loop 2 (α 1A52) are also needed³³ and proposed to be in the same pocket as M2-15'. These workers also went on to show that modification of loop 2 in glycine receptor α 1 subunits or in GABA_A-R γ 2 subunit, such as replacement by the loop 2 10-residue peptide fragment from the GABA_A-R δ subunit, increases EtOH sensitivity about tenfold, as measured in oocyte recordings.³⁴

Hosie *et al.* (2006)³⁵ constructed chimeras replacing steroid-sensitive α 1 and β 2 subunits of the GABA_A-R M1 – M2 residues with those from the steroid-insensitive insect Rdl clone; this reduced steroid modulation, potentiation of GABA, and direct activation of $\alpha\beta\gamma$ receptors when α 1 was mutated, but not β 2. Steroid modulation was shown to depend on the nature of several residues in the transmembrane helix. They provided evidence that α 1Q242(M1-10') and α 1N408 and Y411 in M4 (bovine numbering)³⁶ could provide anchor points to bind the two ends of the steroid molecule. Also, α 1T237(M1-5') (bovine numbering) and β Y284 were shown to be essential for direct activation, and protein structural modelling suggested that they were located near each other in a single intersubunit pocket at the β M3- α M1 interface.³⁵ This possible model is discussed further below.

Mouse knock-ins

The results of Belelli *et al.* (1997)³¹ led to the production of knock-in mice with point mutations in this single GABA_A-R subunit β M2-15' residue. Both the β 2N265S (replaced with the β 1 residue),³⁷ which showed less sensitivity to the sedative action of etomidate, and the β 3N265 M (replaced with the anesthetic-insensitive insect residue),³⁸ which showed

less sensitivity to the immobilization action of etomidate and propofol, provided strong evidence for the role of GABA_A-Rs in anesthetic action. Furthermore, a subunit composition-dependent pharmacology was established, presumably due to an anatomical correlate of anesthetic sensitivity. In other words, the β 3-containing GABA_A-Rs and the circuits in which they function are involved in the anesthetic actions of etomidate, while the β 2-containing GABA_A-Rs are not but are involved in some of the sedative and other actions of etomidate; β 1-containing GABA_A-Rs are not involved in anesthetic actions of etomidate.¹²

Harrison *et al.* went on to test the α 1S270H mutation in knock-in mice for reduced sensitivity to anesthetics. Hall *et al.* (2004)³⁹ found a reduced sensitivity to isoflurane in enhancing GABA_A-R current, with increased probability of opening for the mutant channels in absence of anesthetic. Elsen *et al.* (2006)⁴⁰ found altered responses to volatile anesthetics *in vivo*, including reduced time of anesthesia and abnormal seizure-like behaviours on coming out of anesthesia. This is not strong evidence for an anesthetic site of action. However, the α 1S270H (M2-15') knock-in mice had a sickly phenotype, interpreted as likely due to the left-shift in the GABA dose-response curve and a corresponding excessive GABAergic inhibition *in vivo*.³⁹ A compensatory second knock-in point mutation, α 1L277A, introduced into the S270H mouse restored normal neuronal and *in vivo* excitability levels, normal GABA sensitivity, and normal health⁴¹ and allowed demonstration that these animals exhibited less than normal responses in some assays of volatile anesthetic⁴² and high (anesthetic)-dose EtOH effects.⁴³

Affinity labelling with azietomidate

We have used the technique of photoaffinity labelling, synthesizing a photo-incorporable analogue of etomidate with anesthetic efficacy, R(+)-azietomidate, and then radiolabelling it.⁴⁴ This ligand [³H]azietomidate was successfully employed to photolabel benzodiazepine affinity-purified GABA_A-R proteins from cow brain and identify two amino acids as sites of attachment.²⁹ The team led by Keith Miller at Massachusetts General Hospital synthesized a photo-incorporable anesthetic, R(+)-azietomidate, a close analogue of etomidate, and demonstrated both bioactivity as well as photoaffinity labelling capability.⁴⁴ Using detergent-solubilized membranes that retained the allosteric modulation of GABA_A-R radioligand binding by etomidate, the Richard Olsen lab purified to homogeneity the GABA_A-R protein from bovine cerebral cortex and photoaffinity labelled the pooled protein (several hundred pmol) with [³H]azietomidate, leading to a single peak of radioactive protein at ca. 55 kDa, which was shown by mass spectrometry and Western blotting to contain

GABA_A-R $\alpha 1$, $\alpha 2$, $\alpha 3$, $\alpha 5$, $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$, $\beta 3$, and $\gamma 2$ (and a trace of $\alpha 4$) subunits. Edman degradation microsequencing of proteolytic fragments purified on high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) by the Jon Cohen lab allowed identification of the labelled amino acids. The residues that were labelled do not appear to be nonspecifically tagged. The same results have now been obtained on numerous occasions; alkyl azides are not particularly reactive with Met residues, and several more reactive residues as well as two other methionines in the region near our two identified amino acids were not reactive.

The residues labelled were M236 in the M1 domain of the alpha subunits ($\alpha 1$, 2, 3, and 5 were all the same in the relevant peptides) and M286 in the M3 domain of the beta subunits (also identical in $\beta 1$, 2, and 3). The attachment sites for etomidate were thus identified as $\alpha M1-11'$ (M236) and $\beta M3-4'$ (M286) (Table 1).²⁹ The latter is the same as one of the two identified by Mihic *et al.* for anesthetic alcohols and volatile agents.¹³ The former had not been described previously for anesthetic interactions. Figure 1 shows a 3-D model of the heteropentameric GABA_A-R with the GABA and BZ sites at subunit interfaces in the extracellular domain and etomidate sites in the transmembrane domain.²⁹ The BZ sites are modified GABA sites located at a different subunit interface, that is, homologous residues corresponding to agonist binding pocket loops in the protein at the two β/α interfaces for GABA binding are involved in BZ binding at the single α/γ interface.^{8,11,45}

Interaction of other general anesthetics with azietomidate labelling sites

The Table summarizes the studies with other chemical classes of general anesthetics. The intravenous agent,

propofol, with a very similar pharmacological profile was able to inhibit the labelling of GABA_A-R with azietomidate at anesthetic concentrations, but only partially, even when present in large excess over the etomidate. This partial inhibition was evident on both labelled residues, as shown by sequencing. The binding is not mutually exclusive, although it could involve overlapping sites. We conclude that it indicates an allosteric interaction.⁴⁶ A similar partial inhibition was seen for a series of pharmacologically active barbiturates, also apparently allosteric.⁴⁶ In addition, the anesthetic neurosteroids at appropriate concentrations did not inhibit azietomidate labelling but rather enhanced it. This proves that the steroid site does not coincide with the etomidate binding pocket and interacts allosterically.³⁶ On the other hand, the volatile agent, isoflurane, showed a smooth inhibition curve down to zero and thus could possibly reflect competitive inhibition. However, the alcohols, *n*-octanol (10-1000 μ M) and EtOH (1-1000 mM), failed to interact with azietomidate labelling, neither enhancing nor inhibiting.⁴⁶ We have suggested another site for pharmacological actions of EtOH at low concentrations on GABA_A-R.¹⁶

Homology modelling

Computer-enhanced electron microscope images of the *Torpedo* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor⁴⁷ and the water-soluble acetylcholine binding protein⁴⁸ allowed homology modelling of the GABA_A-R and positioned the two etomidate labelled residues sufficiently close to each other (about 10 Å) in the transmembrane domain to allow us to propose a single binding pocket at the interface between $\alpha M1$ and $\beta M3$ (Li *et al.*, 2006,²⁹ Electronic Supplementary Material). This intersubunit etomidate binding pocket (Fig. 2) would be present in two (identical) copies per

Table 1 Identified amino acids interacting with general anesthetics in GABA_A-Rs

Residues*	α/β M1(-2')	α M1(11')	α M2(15')	β M2(15')	β M3 (4')
References	14,54,55	29,36,46	13,25,26,39-43	13,31,37,38,53	29,36,46
Etomidate	+	+	‡	+	+
Propofol	+	+	‡	+	+
Volatile agents, e.g., isoflurane	‡	+	+	‡	+
Steroids, e.g., alphaxalone	+	+	-	-	+
Barbiturates	+	+	‡	‡	+
Alcohols	-	-	+	+	-
Knock-in†	‡	‡	+	+	‡

*Residues are identified by the convention for pentameric/cys-loop ligand-gated ion channel receptors designating the first amino acid in the transmembrane helix as 1' and consecutively through the membrane. † Knock-in refers to whether or not a knock-in mouse for this residue has been generated and shows evidence consistent with a role in anesthetic action. A plus sign (+) signifies that the general anesthetic listed in rows at left of matrix is identified with the amino acid residue listed in columns at the top. A minus sign (-) indicates that there is negative evidence for such an identification. The double dagger (‡) indicates that there is no conclusive evidence for or against; this includes topics that have not been determined. GABA_A-Rs = gamma-aminobutyric acid type A receptors

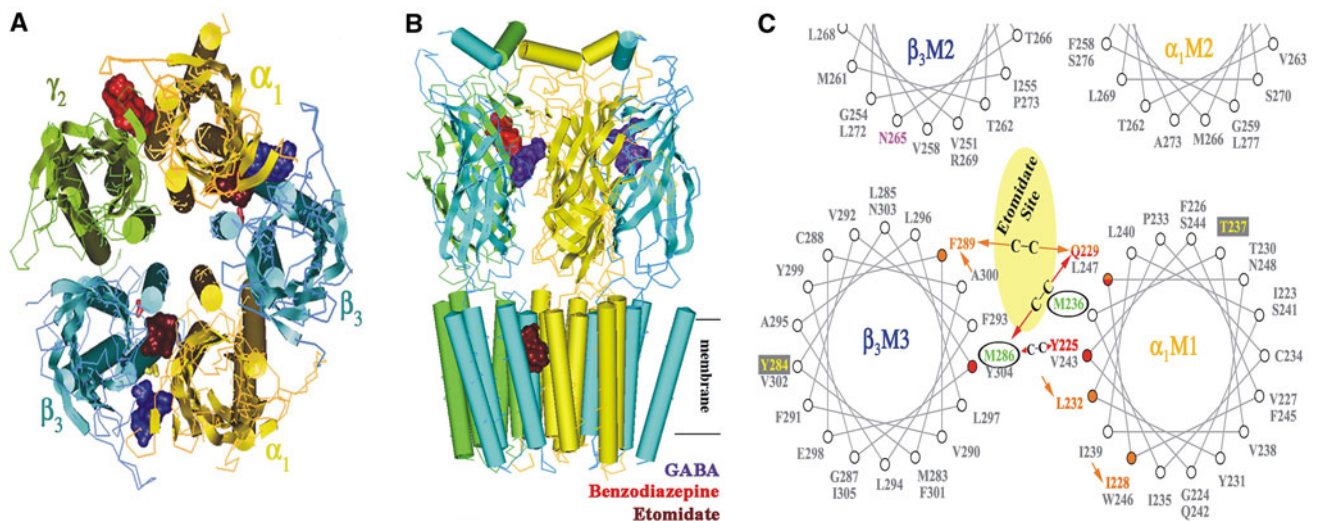


Fig. 1 Three-dimensional views of the γ -aminobutyric acid type A receptors (GABA_AR) homology model from different perspectives (**A,B**) and helical wheel representation of the transmembrane regions at the etomidate binding domain at the β/α interface (**C**). **A**) Three-dimensional view of the GABA_AR homology model (β_3 , cyan; α_1 , yellow; α_2 , green) from a perspective outside the membrane looking down the channel or **B**) from a perspective parallel to the membrane surface. Modified from Li *et al.* (2006)²⁹ in which our homology model is based roughly on the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor cryo-EM derived structure (PDB:2BG9),⁴⁷ modified by helical alignment data from Jansen & Akabas (2006).⁵¹ Pockets in the vicinity of the etomidate (maroon), GABA (purple), and benzodiazepine (red) binding sites are shown as Connolly surfaces. **C**) Helical wheel

representation of the GABA_AR β/α interface in the trans-membrane domain illustrating the proposed binding site for etomidate (modified from Li *et al.*, 2009).³⁶ The model illustrates the orientation of residues from a homology model built on the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor cryo-EM derived structure,⁴⁷ with the residues in α M1 and β M3 photolabelled by [³H]azetomidate (circled residues in green) contributing to a common binding pocket at the β/α interface. Also included: the position in β M2 (N265) that functions as a determinant of etomidate/azetomidate anesthetic potency *in vivo* (pink)^{37,38,62}; the residues in α M1 and β M3 identified as sensitivity determinants for direct activation by neurosteroids (boxed residues in yellow)³⁵; and the positions in α M1 and β M3 that can form intersubunit cross-links when mutated to Cys (red and orange)^{52,58}

pentamer at the same subunit interfaces ($\beta+/\alpha-$) where GABA binding occurs in the extracellular domain. This seems a suitable position for allosteric modulation, especially relevant to the quaternary twist allosteric model for the pentameric ligand-gated ion channel receptors.⁴⁹ The presence of only one kind of etomidate site²⁹ suggests that both enhancement of GABA and direct gating by etomidate involve this one site. This is consistent with modelling of functional data following the Monod-Wyman-Changeux 2-state allosteric model.⁵⁰

Jansen & Akabas⁵¹ used “cysteine scanning accessibility measurements” and cross-linking to align the M2 and M3 helices of the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor and used homology GABA_AR to allow a fixed setting of the helical wheels relevant to our proposed etomidate site.^{29,36} Bali *et al.*⁵² continued in this vein using cysteine substituents to align the M1 and M3 helices of GABA_AR, refining the helical wheel orientations (Fig. 1C). This showed our two etomidate residues, α M1-11’ and β M3-4’, to be very close and consistent with a single intersubunit anesthetic binding pocket at the α/β interface. One can also see that the β M2-15’ is not directly adjacent to the etomidate binding pocket but also is not very distant, and so it could possibly move into closer contact with α M1-11’ and β M3-4’. On the other hand, the two residues implicated in steroid direct gating action³⁵

(Fig. 1C) are on different sides of the helices and could not be part of a single binding pocket due to the distance between them. Those residues implicated in steroid enhancement of GABA are not shown on this helix but would not overlap with the etomidate enhancement site we defined.

Biochemistry and electrophysiological testing of models derived from residue identification and modelling

Work in the lab of Harrison²⁵ as a follow-up to Mihic *et al.*¹³ showed that the GABA_A-R α M2-15’ involvement for volatiles was sensitive to the volume of the amino acid at that position, consistent with a binding pocket. Follow-up work in the lab of Harris²⁶ showed that an alcohol sulfhydryl analogue, *propanethiol*, could be covalently attached to α M2-15’ when substituted by cysteine, leading to persistent enhancement of GABA responses. This was even more dramatically demonstrated for β 2M2-15’, which could be modified by the alcohol, *octane* methanethiosulfonate, when mutated to cysteine to produce a covalent attachment showing irreversible potentiation⁵³ consistent with a long-chain alcohol binding site. The binding of the octanol analogue could be inhibited by *n*-octanol, and the modification was able to alter modulation of GABA

directly above (Fig. 1). Nevertheless, the general anesthetics, desflurane, halothane, and propofol, were shown to inhibit channel function⁵⁹ of another pentameric ligand-gated ion channel, the bacterial GLIC channel,⁶⁰ and binding of these anesthetics was shown in *x-ray* crystal structures to occur at *intrasubunit* pockets in the transmembrane domain (P-J Corringer, MAC2010 symposium).

The intersubunit pocket between β M3 and α M1 for etomidate seems highly likely at this point. It remains unclear whether the other residue labelled by Mihic *et al.* (1997)¹³ at M2-15' is part of this pocket. This residue was not affinity labelled by azietomidate. In our structural model, it is located sufficiently close to potentially participate in the binding pocket (Fig. 1C).^{29,36} Nevertheless, cysteine substitution of the three residues and inactivation by cysteine reagents revealed that etomidate occupancy was able to protect the cysteine reaction at α 1M236C and β 2M286C, but not at β 2N265C, suggesting that the first two residues, but not the last, are in the etomidate binding pocket.⁵⁸ This had been suggested earlier by Bali & Akabas⁶¹ who showed that propofol occupancy could protect from cysteine reagent inactivation at α M286C, but not at α N265C. The M2-15' residue is clearly very important for anesthetic action. If it is part of the intersubunit pocket (α M1/ β M2/ β M3), it is unlikely that it would also be part of an intrasubunit pocket (α M1/ α M2/ α M3 or β M1/ β M2/ β M3), but this remains to be seen. It could differ for the different chemical classes of general anesthetics. There is evidence²⁶ that propanol can bind to the α M2-15' and octanol⁵³ can bind to the β M2-15', but these compounds do not interact with the etomidate binding residues, α M1-11' and β M3-4' (Li *et al.*).

Hosie *et al.*³⁵ identified residues in α M1 and α M4 needed for neurosteroid enhancement of GABA_A-R and two residues in α M1 and β M3 needed for direct steroid gating, which were proposed to be part of a single intersubunit anesthetic steroid site. However, those two residues are not positioned near each other in the helical wheels generated by models of the intersubunit etomidate site consistent with the cysteine substitution cross-linking data^{29,52} and consistent with our demonstration that the GABA_A-R steroid ligands do not inhibit azietomidate labelling but rather enhance the binding in a pharmacologically specific manner.³⁶ Our study of additional chemical classes of general anesthetics (Table 1) showed that propofol inhibited azietomidate labelling, but only partially, and thus probably allosterically.⁴⁶ Likewise, barbiturates partially inhibited azietomidate labelling in a pharmacologically and stereospecific manner, thus were probably allosteric. The volatile agent, isoflurane, gave a complete and possibly competitive inhibition of azietomidate labelling, while two alcohols, *n*-octanol and EtOH, at pharmacologically active concentrations gave no inhibition or enhancement of azietomidate

labelling of brain GABA_A-R.⁴⁶ Taken together, the data on [³H]azietomidate labelling suggest that we have directly identified amino acids in the contact point and binding pocket for a general anesthetic in a relevant biological target of action, the GABA_A-R protein in the mammalian brain. This information and future studies on the topic should provide a path to development of safer, more effective, and more selective general anesthetics.

Conflicts of interest None declared.

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