co-expressed with mouse $\alpha 6$ and $\beta 2$ subunits. Nevertheless wild-type, human $\beta 3$ subunits allowed for function when integrated into mouse $\alpha 6\beta 4^*$ -nAChR. These findings indicate that gain of function mutants in human or mouse $\beta 3$ subunits are only relevant in the context of $\alpha 6\beta 4^*$ - but not $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ -nAChR. Moreover, the few differences in sequences between human and mouse $\beta 3$ subunits are key to effects on function of mouse $\alpha 6\beta 4^*$ -nAChR and are targets of further investigation. Overall, the ramifications of expression of dominantly negative, wild-type $\beta 3$ subunits in $\alpha 6^*$ -nAChR remain to be determined. These studies are important because of the probable roles of $\alpha 6^*$ -nAChR in reward and nicotine dependence and toward discovery of therapeutic drugs selective for $\alpha 6^*$ -nAChR.

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1.8

Characterization of insect nicotinic receptors by heterologous expression: Insecticide selectivity and the influence of molecular chaperones

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Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) are important excitatory neurotransmitter receptors in both vertebrate and invertebrate species. In insects, nAChRs are the target site for commercially important insecticides such as neonicotinoids and spinosad [1]. Ten nAChR subunits (D α 1-D α 7 and D β 1-D β 3) have been identified in the model insect species Drosophila melanogaster and a similar number have been identified in other species. Whereas early cloning and expression studies of insect nAChRs focused primarily on Drosophila, more recent studies have been extended to include economically important pest species such as the aphid Myzus persicae, the cat flea Ctenocephalides felis and the rice brown planthopper Nilaparvata lugens. Past studies have included the identification of nAChR point mutations associated with insecticide resistance insect populations, for example [2]. Unfortunately, however, considerable difficulties have been encountered in attempts to characterize insect nAChRs by heterologous expression studies. In almost all cases, successful heterologous expression of insect nAChRs has required approaches such as the expression of hybrid nAChRs (i.e. the co-expression of insect nAChR subunits with noninsect partner subunits) or the expression of artificial subunit chimeras. In addition to expression studies with several insect pest species, we have previously reported expression studies with 9 of the 10 identified Drosophila nAChR subunits. We have now isolated a full-length expressible clone of an additional Drosophila nAChR subunit (D α 5). As has been reported previously [3], D α 5 has an unusual structure, containing an N-terminal domain that is approximately 300 amino acids longer than that of other previously characterized nAChR subunits. Heterologous expression studies have revealed that, despite its atypical N-terminal domain, $D\alpha 5$

can contribute to the formation of a high affinity nicotinic binding site. The pharmacological properties of insect nAChRs, including their sensitivity to insecticides will be discussed, as will be our attempts to achieve functional expression of insect nAChRs. A further strategy that we are examining is the role of nAChR-associated chaperone proteins such as RIC-3 [4]. We have reported the cloning of 11 alternatively spliced isoforms of the molecular chaperone RIC-3 from *Drosophila* [5]. The ability of these RIC-3 isoforms to influence of maturation of insect (and non-insect) recombinant nAChRs is being investigated.

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1.9

Labeled peptide and protein neurotoxins for basic study on nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and for practical applications

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Different types of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) were found in various organs and tissues of different systems (muscle, neuronal, immune and others). Malfunctioning of the definite nAChR subtypes is proved to be associated with muscle dystrophies, psychiatric diseases and neurodegeneration, therefore their detection and quantification at normal state and pathologies is an important task. The promising tools for solving this task would be peptide and polypeptide neurotoxins selectively targeting distinct nAChR subtypes. Among them are α -conotoxins (from Conus mollusks) that effectively discriminate between the different nAChR subtypes. We synthesized numerous analogs of various α-conotoxins (with single and multiple amino acid substitutions) specific either for muscle- or neuronal nAChRs. Some of them (SIA[D12K], PnIA[A10L,D14K]) were found to be more potent than the native peptides. The PnIA[A10L,D14K] analog (the first α conotoxin crystallized with acetylcholine-binding protein, AChBP) was radioiodinated and retained its high potency (K_D 0.2-1.0 nM) in binding to AChBPs. Another radioiodinated derivative of the α conotoxin ImII analog, namely [125I]-ImII[W10Y] was bound (KD 1.5-6.1 µM) to muscle-type nAChR from Torpedo californica but did not compete with α -cobratoxin (classical snake venom polypeptide antagonist of muscle-type and α7 nAChRs) suggesting interaction with an alternative binding site on this receptor. For detecting α7 nAChRs in tissues, we used Alexa Fluor488-labeled fluorescent derivative of α -bungarotoxin and showed the presence of α 7 nAChR in the dorsal root ganglia and spinal cord of mice, additional evidence of specificity being the lack of staining in α 7 knock-out mice.

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