Downloaded from molpharm aspetjournals org at Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro on December 1, 2012

α -Conotoxin PelA[S9H,V10A,E14N] Potently and Selectively Blocks $\alpha 6\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6\beta 4$ Nicotinic Acetylcholine Receptors^S

Arik J. Hone, Mick'l Scadden, Joanna Gajewiak, Sean Christensen, Jon Lindstrom, and J. Michael McIntosh

Department of Biology (A.J.H., M.S., J.G., S.C., J.M.M.), Interdepartmental Program in Neuroscience (J.M.M.), and Department of Psychiatry (J.M.M.), University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah; and Department of Neuroscience, University of Pennsylvania Medical School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (J.L.)

Received June 27, 2012; accepted August 17, 2012

ABSTRACT

1521-0111/12/8205-972-982\$25.00 Molecular Pharmacology

Mol Pharmacol 82:972-982, 2012

Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) containing $\alpha 6$ and $\beta 2$ subunits modulate dopamine release in the basal ganglia and are therapeutically relevant targets for treatment of neurological and psychiatric disorders including Parkinson's disease and nicotine dependence. However, the expression profile of $\beta 2$ and $\beta 4$ subunits overlap in a variety of tissues including locus ceruleus, retina, hippocampus, dorsal root ganglia, and adrenal chromaffin cells. Ligands that bind $\alpha 6\beta 2$ nAChRs also potently bind the closely related $\alpha 6\beta 4$ subtype. To distinguish between these two subtypes, we synthesized novel analogs of a recently described α -conotoxin, PelA. PelA is a peptide antagonist that blocks several nAChR subtypes, including $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ and $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs, with low nanomolar potency. We systematically mutated PelA and evaluated the resulting

Copyright © 2012 The American Society for Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics

analogs for enhanced potency and/or selectivity for $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ nAChRs expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes ($\alpha6/\alpha3$ is a subunit chimera that contains the N-terminal ligand-binding domain of the $\alpha6$ subunit). On the basis of these results, second-generation analogs were then synthesized. The final analog, PelA[S9H,V10A,E14N], potently blocked acetylcholine-gated currents mediated by $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ and $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ nAChRs with IC₅₀ values of 223 pM and 65 nM, respectively, yielding a >290-fold separation between the two subtypes. Kinetic studies of ligand binding to $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ nAChRs yielded a $k_{\rm off}$ of 0.096 \pm 0.001 min⁻¹ and a $k_{\rm on}$ of 0.23 \pm 0.019 min⁻¹ M⁻⁹. The synthesis of PelA[S9H,V10A,E14N] demonstrates that ligands can be developed to discriminate between $\alpha6\beta2$ and $\alpha6\beta4$ nAChRs.

Introduction

Mammalian neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) assemble in a pentameric stoichiometry from eight α and three β subunits to form various receptor subtypes. Selective ligands have played a critical role in identifying individual subtypes and defining their physiological functions. nAChR subtypes that contain the α 6 subunit have a very restricted tissue distribution. In the central nervous system, α 6-containing nAChRs are expressed in dopaminergic regions including the substantia nigra, ventral tegmental

area, and nucleus accumbens (Yang et al., 2009; Gotti et al., 2010). Dopaminergic neurons of the substantia nigra are gradually lost in Parkinson's disease, which leads to disordered control over motor movement (Bordia et al., 2007). In reward centers of the brain, activation of α 6-containing nAChRs enhances dopamine release and reinforces the addictive properties of nicotine (Pons et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2009; Brunzell et al., 2010; Exley et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012). In these midbrain areas, $\alpha 6$ subunits assemble with β 2 subunits to form $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ nAChRs (asterisk denotes the possible presence of additional subunits), areas where expression of the \(\beta\)4 subunit is minimal or absent, and, therefore, few, if any, $\alpha 6\beta 4^*$ nAChRs are likely to be present. Thus, ligands that bind $\alpha 6^*$ nAChRs can be used in these regions to selectively identify α6β2* nAChRs. However, in other areas such as the retina (Moretti et al., 2004; Marritt et al., 2005) and the locus ceruleus (Léna et al., 1999; Vincler and Eisenach, 2003; Azam and McIntosh, 2006), α6β4*

ABBREVIATIONS: nAChR, nicotinic acetylcholine receptor; α -Ctx, α -conotoxin; ACh, acetylcholine; Fmoc, 9-fluorenylmethyloxycarbonyl; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography.

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health National Institute of General Medical Sciences [Grants GM48677, GM103801]; and National Institutes of Health National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke [Grant NS1132].

Article, publication date, and citation information can be found at http://molpharm.aspetjournals.org.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1124/mol.112.080853.

[[]S] The online version of this article (available at http://molpharm. aspetjournals.org) contains supplemental material.

nAChRs are present and may be coexpressed with the $\alpha6\beta2^*$ subtype. Moreover, in the hippocampus of mouse, $\alpha6\beta4^*$ nAChRs control the release of norepinephrine (Azam et al., 2010). Last, in the peripheral nervous system, $\alpha6\beta4^*$ nAChRs are expressed by human adrenal chromaffin cells (Pérez-Alvarez et al., 2012) and by rat dorsal root ganglion neurons (Hone et al., 2012), two cell populations that also have substantial $\beta2$ subunit expression. Thus, ligands that can discriminate between $\alpha6\beta2^*$ and $\alpha6\beta4^*$ nAChRs are needed to facilitate the study of $\alpha6\beta2^*$ nAChRs in areas where multiple $\alpha6$ -containing nAChRs are potentially expressed.

Predatory cone snails (Conus) have evolved a rich, combinatorial-like library of neuropharmacologically active compounds. Among the principal components of the cone snail venom are the α -conotoxins (α -Ctxs), disulfide-rich peptide antagonists of nAChRs. Each species of cone snail produces several distinct α -Ctxs as part of its venom arsenal to immobilize prev. Subsets of these α -Ctxs are now widely used by neuroscientists to block the function of mammalian nAChR subtypes (Azam and McIntosh, 2009; Armishaw, 2010). However, as the diversity of nAChR subtypes is progressively elucidated, the need for increasingly selective ligands correspondingly grows. Several existing α -Ctxs potently block α 6 nAChRs. However, α -Ctxs that block $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs also potently block $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs (Dowell et al., 2003). Thus, further refinement of the specificity of these ligands is required.

α-Ctx PeIA, cloned from a cDNA library of Conus pergrandis, potently blocks several nAChRs subtypes including those that contain the α 6 subunit (McIntosh et al., 2005). We used α-Ctx PeIA as a template to create ligands with novel specificity and tested them on *Xenopus* oocytes expressing cloned nAChRs. We used rat and mouse $\alpha 6/\alpha 3$ subunit chimeras to model the $\alpha6\beta2$ and $\alpha6\beta4$ ligand-binding domain because injection of nonchimeric $\alpha 6$ with $\beta 2$ and $\beta 3$ fails to reliably produce functional expression (Kuryatov et al., 2000; Dowell et al., 2003; Papke et al., 2005; Dash et al., 2011). However, comparison of data obtained from studies on heterologously expressed chimeric constructs of $\alpha 6$ with studies on native α6-containing nAChRs demonstrate that these chimeric constructs and native α6-containing nAChRs share a similar pharmacological profile (Bordia et al., 2007; Capelli et al., 2011; Pérez-Alvarez et al., 2012). With use of this strategy and through synthetic iteration of α -Ctx PeIA, we created a ligand that to our knowledge is the most selective α -Ctx to date for distinguishing between $\alpha6\beta2\beta3$ and $\alpha6\beta4$ nAChRs.

Materials and Methods

Rat $\alpha 3$, $\alpha 4$, and $\alpha 7$ nAChR subunit clones were provided by S. Heinemann (Salk Institute for Biological Studies, San Diego, CA), C. Luetje (University of Miami, Miami, FL) provided the $\beta 2$, $\beta 3$, and $\beta 4$ subunits in the high-expressing pGEMHE vector, and $\alpha 9$ and $\alpha 10$ were provided by A. Elgoyhen (Universidad de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina). Mouse $\alpha 6$, $\beta 2$, $\beta 3$, and $\beta 4$ subunit clones were provided by J. Stitzel (University of Colorado, Boulder, CO). Construction of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3$ subunit chimeras has been described previously, they consist of an $\alpha 3$ subunit, in which the first 237 amino acids of the ligand-binding domain are replaced with the corresponding $\alpha 6$ amino acids (McIntosh et al., 2004). The rat $\alpha 6/\alpha 4$ chimera was

provided by R. Papke (University of Florida, Gainesville, FL). These chimeras were used because of poor expression of the nonchimeric forms of the $\alpha 6$ construct. The human $\beta 3-\alpha 6-\beta 2-\alpha 4-\beta 2$ concatamer has been described previously (Kuryatov and Lindstrom, 2011). Acetylcholine chloride (ACh) and bovine serum albumin were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). HEPES was purchased from Research Organics (Cleveland, OH).

Peptide Synthesis. Standard peptide chemistry was used to generate the α -Ctx peptides as described previously (Cartier et al., 1996), or the peptides were synthesized on an Apex 396 automated peptide synthesizer (AAPPTec, Louisville, KY), applying standard solid-phase 9-fluorenylmethyloxycarbonyl (Fmoc) methods. The peptides were initially constructed on Fmoc-Rink Amide MBHA resin (substitution: 0.4 mmol/g⁻¹; Peptides International Inc., Louisville, KY). All standard amino acids were purchased from AAPPTec. Side chain protection for the amino acids was as follows: His and Asn, trityl; and Ser, tert-butyl. Cys residues were orthogonally protected by trityl for Cys1 and Cys3 and acetamidomethyl for Cys² and Cys⁴. The peptides were synthesized at a 50-μmol scale. Coupling activation was achieved with 1 equivalent of 0.4 M benzotriazol-1-yl-oxytripyrrolidinophosphonium hexafluorophosphate and 2 equivalents of 2 M N,N-diisopropylethyl amine in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone as the solvent. For each coupling reaction a 10-fold excess of amino acid was used, and the reaction was conducted for 60 min. The Fmoc deprotection reaction was carried out for 20 min with 20% (v/v) piperidine in dimethylformamide. The peptides were cleaved from the resin using Reagent K (trifluoroacetic acid-phenol-1,2-ethanedithiolthioanisol-H₂O; 9:0.75:0.25:0.5:0.5 by volume), and a two-step oxidation protocol was used to selectively fold the peptides in the correct disulfide configuration. In brief, the first disulfide bridge was closed using 20 mM potassium ferricyanide and 0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.5. The solution was allowed to react for 45 min, and then the monocyclic peptide was purified by reverse-phase highperformance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Simultaneous removal of the acetamidomethyl groups and closure of the second disulfide bridge were performed by iodine oxidation. The monocyclic peptides in HPLC eluent were dripped into an equal volume of iodine (10 mM) in H₂O-trifluoroacetic acid-acetonitrile (78:3:25 by volume) and allowed to react for 10 min. The reaction was terminated by the addition of 1 M ascorbic acid diluted 20-fold with 0.1% (v/v) trifluoroacetic acid, and the bicyclic product was purified by reverse-phase HPLC. The masses of the peptides were verified by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization/time-offlight mass spectrometry at the Salk Institute for Biological Studies under the direction of Dr. J. Rivier. Mass spectrometry and HPLC data for the peptides are shown in Supplemental Table 1.

Two-Electrode Voltage-Clamp Electrophysiology of Xenopus laevis Oocytes. Detailed methods for conducting electrophysiological experiments of nAChRs heterologously expressed in X. laevis oocytes have been described in detail previously (Hone et al., 2009). In brief, stage IV to V oocytes were injected with equal ratios of cRNA encoding cloned rat and mouse nAChR subunits $\alpha 3$, $\alpha 4$, $\alpha 6/\alpha 3$, $\alpha 7$, $\alpha 9$, $\alpha 10$, $\beta 2$, $\beta 3$, and $\beta 4$ and used 1 to 4 days after injection. The oocyte membranes were clamped at a holding potential of -70 mV and continuously gravity perfused with standard ND96 solution and stimulated with 1-s pulses of ACh once every minute. The solution changes were controlled through a series of three-way solenoid valves interfaced with a personal computer via a CoolDrive valve driver (Neptune Research and Development, West Caldwell, NJ) and LabVIEW software (National Instruments, Austin, TX). The AChgated currents ($I_{\rm ACh}$)were acquired using an Oocyte OC-725 series voltage-clamp amplifier (Warner Instruments, Hamden, CT), filtered through a 5-Hz low-pass Bessel style filter (model F1B1; Frequency Devices, Ottawa, IL), and digitized at 50 Hz using a National



Instruments USB-6009 digital to analog converter. The toxins were diluted in ND96, and perfusion was applied up to 1 μ M; concentrations \geq 10 μ M were bath-applied in a static bath for 5 min. To determine the observed off rates ($k_{\rm off}$), the toxins were applied at 10 or 100 μ M, depending on the nAChR subtype and the potency of the toxin. PeIA, PeIA[V10], and PeIA[E14N] were applied at 100 μ M for all subtypes. PeIA[S9H] was applied at 10 μ M for all subtypes and PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] was applied at 10 μ M for α 6/ α 3 β 2 β 3 and at 100 μ M for α 6/ α 3 β 4 nAChRs.

Data Analysis. The electrophysiology data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA). Concentration-response curves for inhibition of $I_{\rm ACh}$ were generated by fitting the data to the Hill equation: % response = $100/\{1+([{\rm toxin}]/{\rm IC}_{50})^{n\rm H}\}$. Data for observed on rates $(k_{\rm obs})$ were fit with a one-phase exponential equation and then analyzed by linear regression analysis to obtain an estimated value for $k_{\rm on}$. Observed off-rate kinetics were assessed by fitting the $I_{\rm ACh}$ amplitudes with a one-phase exponential equation to obtain the plateau value of the $I_{\rm ACh}$; observed values were then normalized to the plateau value and displayed as a percentage of the response to ACh

Three-dimensional reconstructions of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N], MII, and PnIA were generated using PyMOL (PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, version 1.2r3pre; Schrödinger, LLC, New York, NY).

PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] was generated using the NMR structural coordinates of PeIA (Daly et al., 2011) as a template and the mutagenesis function of PyMOL. MII was also generated from NMR structural coordinates (Hill et al., 1998), and PnIA was generated from X-ray crystallography coordinates (Hu et al., 1996). Structures were generated without consideration of alternative rotameric positions of the side chains.

Results

Single Amino Acid Substitutions of PeIA Confer Increased Potency and Selectivity for the α6/α3β2β3 Sub**type.** α -Ctx PeIA was originally isolated from the fish-eating species C. pergrandis and at the time of its discovery was noted to be the first peptide ligand that potently blocked $\alpha 9\alpha 10$ but not $\alpha 7$ nAChRs (McIntosh et al., 2005). However, PeIA also potently blocks several other nAChR subtypes including those that contain the α 6 subunit. PeIA shows a high degree of homology to other α -Ctxs that have four Cys residues that are connected by two disulfide bonds (Fig. 1A). Structure-function studies of α -Ctx MII indicated that residues of the second disulfide loop interact with residues of the α 6 nAChR subunit (McIntosh et al., 2004; Azam et al., 2008; Pucci et al., 2011). His residues in the 9th and 12th positions and Asn in the 14th position of MII are critical for conferring potency on $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs (McIntosh et al., 2004). For α -Ctx PnIA, Ala in the 10th position is critical for subtype selectivity and potency for β 2-containing nAChRs (Hogg et al., 1999; Luo et al., 1999). Therefore, we reasoned that mutations in the homologous positions of PeIA not only might be permissive for retaining activity but also might confer beneficial changes in selectivity. We synthesized analogs that incorporated these nonconserved amino acids into the second disulfide loop of PeIA (Fig. 1A). These synthetic peptides were then evaluated for changes in potency and selectivity for the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ subtype using two-electrode voltage-clamp electrophysiology of Xenopus oocytes expressing cloned nAChRs. Substitution of Ser for His in the 9th position of PeIA increased the potency for inhibition of α 6/ $\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs by ~11-fold; increased potency was also

PeIA GCCSHPACSVNHPELC
MII GCCSNPVCHLEHSNLC
PnIA GCCSLPPCAANNPDYC

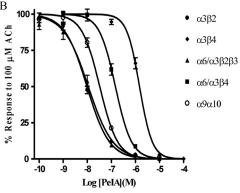


Fig. 1. Amino acid sequence comparison between α-Ctxs PeIA, MII, and PnIA. A, conserved cysteines are shown in bold; residues of PeIA that were selected for substitution with those of either MII or PnIA are shown underscored. B, concentration-response analysis of the activity of PeIA on *Xenopus* oocyte-expressed rat nAChRs. PeIA blocked $I_{\rm ACh}$ mediated by α3β2, α3β4, α6/α3β2β3, α6/α3β4, and α9α10 nAChRs with IC 50 (95% confidence interval) values of 9.73 (8.11–11.7) nM, 1.5 (1.3–1.7) μM, 11.1 (8.17–15.0) nM, 148 (124–176) nM, and 33.0 (28.0–33.9) nM, respectively. Error bars denote the S.E.M. of the data from three to five oocytes for each determination.

observed on $\alpha 3\beta 2$, $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$, and $\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs (Fig. 2A). In contrast, the S9H substitution resulted in an ~55-fold loss of potency on the $\alpha 9\alpha 10$ subtype (Fig. 2A). Next, we evaluated an Ala substitution for Val in the 10th position. Similar to the S9H analog, PeIA[V10A] showed increased activity on the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChR, but, in contrast, showed an ~ 2 -fold loss of activity on $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ and $\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs (Fig. 2B). The net result of this substitution was an analog with ~126-fold selectivity for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ subtype. Finally, Asp was substituted for Glu14; although the activity was decreased for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ by ~ 2 -fold, there was an \sim 3-fold loss of activity for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ and an \sim 15-fold loss for α3β2 nAChRs (Fig. 2C). Table 1 summarizes the changes in IC₅₀ values for inhibition of the four closely related α 3and α6-containing nAChR subtypes and compares the selectivity of each peptide for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ relative to that for the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ subtype.

We next examined the kinetics of block and unblock by PeIA and its singly substituted analogs. To obtain k_{obs} , the oocytes were perfused with a concentration of peptide within 10-fold of the peptides' respective IC_{50} values; 1-s pulses of ACh were applied once every minute until a steady-state block of the $I_{\rm ACh}$ was observed. To obtain $k_{\rm off}$, a concentration of peptide that blocked > 95% of the $I_{\rm ACh}$ (see Materials and Methods) was applied for 5 min in a static bath after which the peptide was washed out, and $I_{\rm ACh}$ was monitored for recovery. As shown in Fig. 3, the kinetics of block and unblock by the parent peptide PeIA were similar for all four of the nAChR subtypes tested. Block and recovery from block were rapid, and in most cases the $t_{1/2}$ times were <30 s. In contrast to the relatively rapid kinetics of PeIA, kinetics of the S9H analog were markedly slower (Fig. 3). Steady-state block by PeIA[S9H] of α6/α3β2β3 nAChRs using a 1 nM concentration required $\sim 11 \text{ min } (t_{1/2} = 2.2 \text{ min})$. Recovery from block was also slow, and full recovery required ~30 min



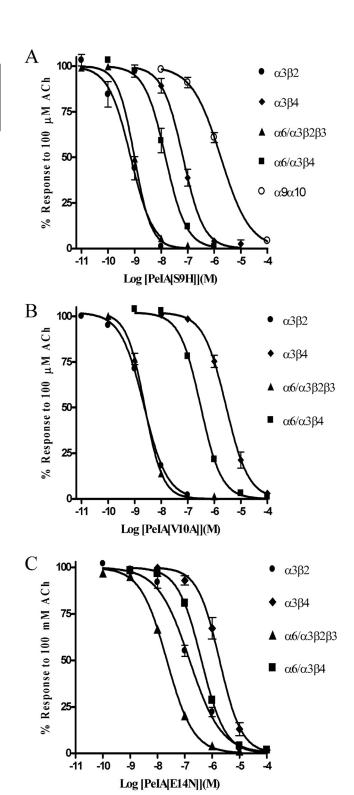


Fig. 2. Concentration-response analysis of the singly substituted PeIA analogs PeIA[S9H] (A), PeIA[V10A] (B), and PeIA[E14N] (C) on *Xenopus* oocyte-expressed rat $\alpha3\beta2$, $\alpha3\beta4$, $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$, $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$, and $\alpha9\alpha10$ nAChRs. The error bars for the data denote the S.E.M. from four to eight oocytes for each determination. IC₅₀ values and confidence intervals are shown in Table 1.

 $(t_{1/2}=6.2~{
m min})$ of washout. The kinetics of the V10A analog were also slower than the kinetics of the native peptide but faster than those of PeIA[S9H] (Fig. 3). Kinetic analysis of block and recovery of block by PeIA and PeIA[V10A] of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ and $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ yielded $t_{1/2}$ times of <60 s, so an

accurate comparison of the change in affinity between PeIA[V10A] and the native peptide could not be made. However, the $\sim\!2$ -fold increase in the IC $_{50}$ value for PeIA[V10A] for inhibition of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs implies that either $k_{\rm on}$ is slower or $k_{\rm off}$ is faster and contributes to the $\sim\!126$ -fold separation between the IC $_{50}$ values for inhibition of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs. Likewise, the kinetics of PeIA[E14N] were too fast $(t_{1/2}$ times of $<\!60$ s for all subtypes) to permit accurate measurement of $k_{\rm obs}$ and $k_{\rm off}$ under the conditions used in this study. Table 2 summarizes the kinetic data for block and recovery from block by PeIA[S9H] and PeIA[V10A] for the four nAChR subtypes that were examined.

Combined Double and Triple Amino Acid Substitutions Confer Further Increases in Potency and Selectivity for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs. All three of the single amino acid substitutions (Fig. 2) produced improvements in either potency or selectivity for the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ subtype. Therefore. we combined the S9H substitution with either the V10A or the E14N substitution to produce second-generation analogs. As shown in Fig. 4, PeIA[S9H,V10A] retained the high potency of the singly substituted S9H analog as well as the selectivity of the V10A analog. The IC₅₀ value for block of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ was ~2-fold lower than that of PeIA[S9H], whereas an \sim 4-fold increase in the IC_{50} value was observed for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs. Likewise, the selectivity ratio (~126fold) of PeIA[V10A] for block of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ was also retained. Of interest, PeIA[S9H,E14N] retained high potency for the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChR (IC₅₀ = 753 pM), which is \sim 39-fold more potent than block of α 6/ α 3 β 4 nAChRs. Finally, we combined all three amino acid substitutions to generate PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N]. This triply substituted analog was ~290-fold more potent at blocking the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ subtype than the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ subtype (Fig. 5A). As discussed above, oocytes injected with nonchimeric $\alpha 6$ in combination with $\beta 2$ and $\beta 3$ constructs fail to produce functional responses. However, injection of $\alpha 6$ with $\beta 4$ does yield functional responses albeit relatively small in amplitude. The α 6 β 4-mediated currents evoked by 100 μ M ACh were on average 10.2 ± 1.1 nA (n = 5) and were blocked by PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] with an IC₅₀ (95% confidence interval) value of 66.0 (51.5–84.7) nM, similar to the 65.4 (43.4– 98.6) nM value obtained using chimeric $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs (Fig. 5A). We also tested this triply substituted PeIA analog on cloned mouse and cloned human α 6-containing nAChRs. The IC₅₀ values obtained for mouse $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ and $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ were also similar to those obtained using the rat counterparts (Fig. 5A). Likewise, the activity was similar when tested on concatameric human $\alpha 6\beta 2\alpha 4\beta 2\beta 3$ (Fig. 5A) and chimeric rat $\alpha 6/\alpha 4\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs (Supplemental Fig. 1). PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] also inhibited rat α3β2 nAChRs but was much less potent when tested on other rat subtypes including $\alpha 3\beta 4$, $\alpha 4\beta 2$, $\alpha 4\beta 4$, $\alpha 7$, and $\alpha 9\alpha 10$ (Fig. 5B). Tables 3 and 4 summarize the activity of the doubly and triply substituted analogs on the nAChRs tested.

PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] Potently and Selectively Blocks the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ Subtype. To more fully examine the ability of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] to discriminate between the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ and the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ subtypes, we conducted an in depth characterization of the pharmacological properties of the peptide. First, we deter-

TABLE 1 $\rm IC_{50}$ values for inhibition of rat nAChRs expressed in $\it Xenopus$ oocytes Numbers in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals.

	$\alpha 3 \beta 2$	$\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$	$\alpha 3 \beta 4$	$\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$	α 6/ α 3β4/ α 6/ α 3β2β3 Ratio
PeIA	9.7 (8.1–11.7) nM	11.1 (8.2-15.0) nM	$1.5~(1.3{-}1.7)~\mu{\rm M}$	147 (124–176) nM	13
PeIA[S9H]	713 (480–1060) pM	991 (932–1054) pM	66 (52–84) nM	14.5 (11.3–18.6) nM	15
PeIA[V10A]	$2.2~(2.0–2.5)~{ m nM}$	$2.4~(2.1–2.7)~\mathrm{nM}$	$2.7 (2.2-3.3) \mu M$	302 (278–330) nM	126
PeIA[E14N]	$149\ (122182)\ \mathrm{nM}$	$22.0\ (19.624.6)\ nM$	$1.9~(1.5 – 2.4)~\mu{ m M}$	406 (385–427) nM	18

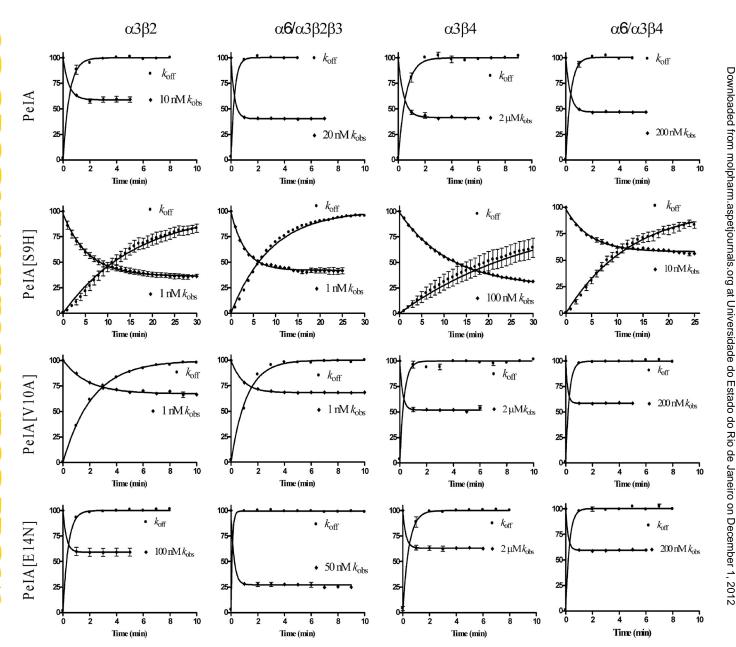


Fig. 3. Kinetic analysis of the activity of PeIA and single substituted analogs on Xenopus oocyte-expressed rat $\alpha3\beta2$, $\alpha3\beta4$, $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$, and $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ nAChRs. The toxins were applied as described under Materials and Methods, and the data were fit to a single exponential equation. The error bars denote the S.E.M. of the data from three to nine oocytes for each determination. Note the different time scale used for PeIA[S9H]. See Table 2 for a summary of the values obtained.

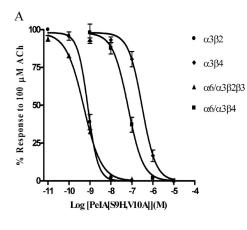
mined $k_{\rm on}$ by perfusing oocytes expressing $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ with five different concentrations of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] from 100 pM to 5 nM until steady-state block was achieved (Fig. 6A). The data were analyzed using a one-phase exponential to obtain the $k_{\rm obs}$ for each of the concentrations tested, and the data are plotted as a function of concentra-

tion. This analysis yielded a slope $(k_{\rm on})$ of 0.228 \pm 0.019 $\rm min^{-1}~M^{-9}$ (Fig. 6B). A $k_{\rm off}$ value of 0.096 \pm 0.001 $\rm min^{-1}$ was obtained by applying a high concentration of peptide to the oocyte in a 5-min static bath (Fig. 6C). Because the dissociation constant is a ratio of $k_{\rm off}$ to $k_{\rm on}$, an estimated $K_{\rm i}$ value of 423 pM was obtained. Applying this same

TABLE 2 Kinetic analysis of block and recovery from block by PeIA[S9H] and PeIA[V10A] Data are means ± S.E.M. from three to nine oocytes. Numbers in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals.

	$k_{ m off}$	$k_{ m obs}$	$k_{ m on}$	$K_{ m i}$
	min^{-1}	min^{-1}	$min^{-1} M^{-1}$	M^{-9}
$\alpha 3\beta 2$				
PeIA[S9H]	$0.062 \pm 0.001 (0.059 - 0.064)$	$0.18 \pm 0.01 (0.161 - 0.204)$	$0.118 \pm 0.01 \times 10^{9a}$	0.525^{b}
PeIA[V10A]	$0.456 \pm 0.008 (0.440 - 0.472)$	$0.55 \pm 0.04 (0.46 - 0.62)$	$0.94 \pm 0.04 \times 10^{8a}$	4.85^{b}
$\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$				
PeIA[S9H]	$0.11 \pm 0.01 (0.10 - 0.12)$	$0.31 \pm 0.01 (0.29 - 0.34)$	$0.200 \pm 0.01 \times 10^{9a}$	0.550^{b}
$\alpha 3\beta 4$				
PeIA[S9H]	$0.032 \pm 0.001 (0.030 - 0.034)$	$0.088 \pm 0.002 (0.084 - 0.093)$	$0.56 \pm 0.002 \times 10^{6a}$	57^b
$\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$				
PeIA[S9H]	$0.078 \pm 0.001 (0.075 - 0.081)$	$0.21 \pm 0.01 (0.184 - 0.240)$	$0.132 \pm 0.01 \times 10^{8a}$	5.9^a

 $[^]a$ Calculated from $k_{\rm obs} = k_{\rm on}$ [toxin] + $k_{\rm off}$ b Calculated from $K_{\rm i} = k_{\rm off}/k_{\rm on}.$



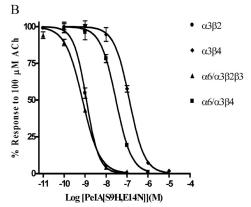
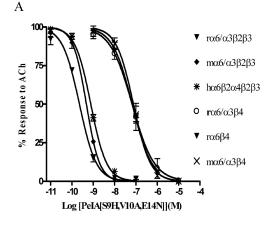


Fig. 4. Concentration-response analysis of the doubly substituted PeIA analogs PeIA[S9H,V10A] (A) and PeIA[S9H,E14N] (B) on *Xenopus* oocyte-expressed rat $\alpha 3\beta 2$, $\alpha 3\beta 4$, $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$, and $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs. The error bars for the data denote the S.E.M. from three to five oocytes for each determination. For a summary of the IC50 values and confidence intervals see Table 3.



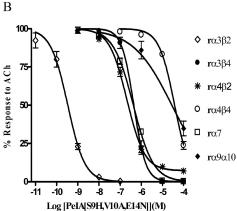


Fig. 5. Concentration-response analysis of the activity of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] on Xenopus oocyte-expressed nAChR subtypes. A, inhibition curves for $r\alpha6/$ $\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$, $m\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$, $h\alpha 6\beta 2\alpha 4\beta 2\beta 3$, $r\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$, $r\alpha6\beta4$, and $m\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ nAChRs. B, inhibition curves for $r\alpha 3\beta 2$, $r\alpha 3\beta 4$, $r\alpha 4\beta 2$, $r\alpha 4\beta 4$, $r\alpha 7$, and $r\alpha 9\beta 10$ nAChRs. The error bars for the data denote the S.E.M. from four to five oocytes for each determination; r, rat; m, mouse; h, human. For a summary of the IC50 values and confidence intervals see Table 4.

TABLE 3 IC₅₀ values for inhibition of rat nAChRs by doubly substituted analogs of PeIA Numbers in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals.

	$\alpha 3 \beta 2$	$\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$	$\alpha 3 \beta 4$	$\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$	Ratio of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ to $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$
PeIA[S9H,V10A] PeIA[S9H,E14N]	$793\ (675932)\ \mathrm{pM} \\ 1.15\ (1.021.09)\ \mathrm{nM}$	$506\ (455{-}564)\ pM\\753\ (656{-}864)\ pM$	$307\ (240394)\ nM\\ 128\ (109151)\ nM$	$65.1\ (50.0{-}84.8)\ nM\\29.5\ (24.4{-}34.6)\ nM$	129 39

methodology to oocytes expressing $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs over a concentration range of 10 to 500 nM yielded a $k_{\rm on}$ of $0.699 \pm 0.023 \, min^{-1} \, M^{-7}$ (Fig. 6, D and E) and an observed $k_{\rm off}$ value of 0.626 \pm 0.02 min⁻¹. The estimated $K_{\rm i}$ for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ was ~90 nM, a value >200-fold higher than that determined for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs. Thus, from a functional standpoint, a concentration of 5 nM would be ex-

pected to produce near complete inhibition of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs but show little block of the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ subtype. Indeed, in the presence of 5 nM PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N], the I_{ACh} values mediated by $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs were only $3.0\,\pm\,0.2\%$ of the control I_{ACh} , whereas those mediated by $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs were on average 94.0 \pm 4% of control responses (Fig. 7, A-C).



TABLE 4 Activity of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] on nAChRs expressed in Xenopus oocytes

nAChR Subtype	$\rm IC_{50}$	95% Confidence Interval	IC_{50} ratios (Compared with Rat $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$)
rα3β2	335 pM	264-423	1.5
$r\alpha 3\beta 4$	441 nM	370 – 527	1970
$r\alpha 4\beta 2$	209 nM	169-258	937
rα4β4	$37.6 \mu M$	32.9 - 43.0	>10,000
$r\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$	223 pM	186-266	1
$m\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$	470 pM	393-652	2.0
$h\alpha 6\beta 2\alpha 4\beta 2\beta 3$	759 pM	685 - 842	3.4
rα6β4	66.0 nM	51.4 - 84.7	296
$r\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$	$65.4~\mathrm{nM}$	43.4 - 98.6	293
$m\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$	$75.6 \mathrm{nM}$	61.1 - 96.3	339
$r\alpha7$	421 nM	356-498	1880
$r\alpha 9\alpha 10$	$27.8~\mu\mathrm{M}$	15.5 - 50.0	>10,000

r, rat; m, mouse; h, human concatamer.

15 20

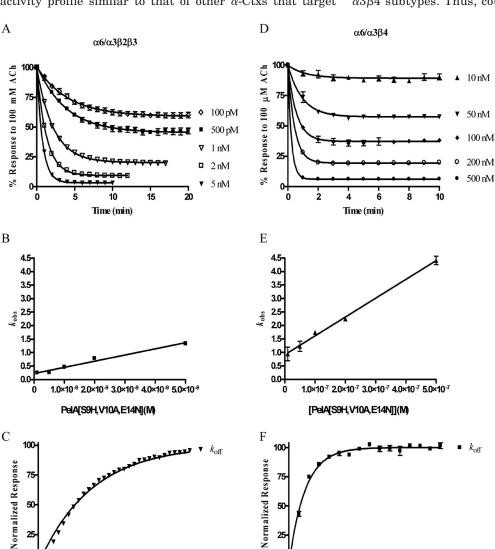
Time (min)

Discussion

 α -Ctx PeIA was originally described as the first ligand that could discriminate between $\alpha 9\alpha 10$ and $\alpha 7$ nAChRs (McIntosh et al., 2005). It is noteworthy that although PeIA shares an activity profile similar to that of other α -Ctxs that target

 $\alpha 3\beta 2$ and $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs, specifically MII (Cartier et al., 1996; McIntosh et al., 2004) and PnIA (Hogg et al., 1999; Luo et al., 1999; Hone et al., 2012), it is only 42% similar to these peptides in noncysteine amino acid homology (Fig. 1A). Despite their sequence differences, molecular modeling and solution NMR studies predict that PeIA, MII, and PnIA all share a similar three-dimensional backbone structure and occupy the acetylcholine binding pocket in approximately the same orientation (Rogers et al., 1999; Daly et al., 2011; Pucci et al., 2011). These differences and similarities suggest that specific residues of the peptides might be critical for binding to $\alpha 6\beta 2$ -containing nAChRs. Thus, one aim of this study was to gain mechanistic insight into the binding of ligands with α 6 β 2-containing nAChRs. To this end, we substituted specific amino acids of PeIA with those of MII and PnIA that are known to be critical for activity and evaluated the substituted analogs for changes in potency and selectivity for the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ subtype.

Native PeIA shows a modest degree of separation (\sim 13-fold) between the IC₅₀ values for $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ and the $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ subtypes. Thus, coupled with the known activity on



10

Time (min)

Fig. 6. Comparison of PeIA[S9H,V10-A,E14N kinetics on rat $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs expressed in Xenopus oocytes. A, k_{obs} was determined for five concentrations of PeIA[S9H,V10-A,E14N] from 100 pM to 5 nM by perfusing the oocytes with the toxin until a steady-state level of block was achieved. B, the data were fit to an exponential equation, and the observed rates are plotted as a function of the PeIA[S9H,V10-A,E14N] concentration to obtain k_{on} . C, to obtain $k_{\rm off}$, a high concentration of toxin was applied in a static bath for 5 min after which the perfusion was resumed, and the I_{ACh} was monitored for recovery (see Materials and Methods for the concentrations used). The same analysis was performed for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs (D–F). The error bars in A to C denote the S.E.M. from four individual determinations and from five in D to F.

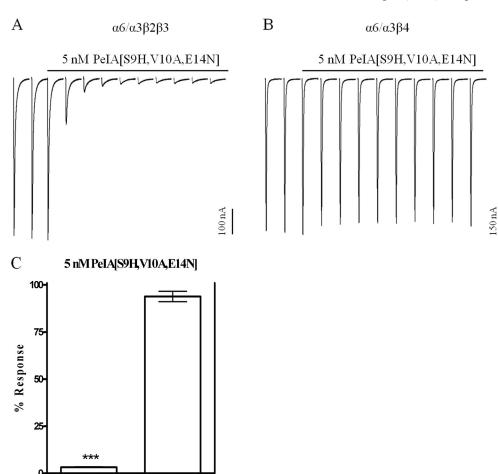


Fig. 7. Block of $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ and $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ nAChRs by PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N]. Oocytes expressing $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ (A) and $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ (B) nAChRs were continuously perfused with 5 nM PeIA[S9H,V10A, E14N] until a steady-state level of block was achieved; the percentage response was then quantified for comparison (C). The error bars in C denote the S.E.M. from four oocytes expressing the $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ subtype and from six expressing the $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ subtype. Significance was determined by a t test and compared with a theoretical response mean of 100%. ***, p < 0.001.

other nAChR subtypes, PeIA is a nonselective antagonist of the five nAChR subtypes listed in Fig. 1B. However, structure-function studies of $\alpha\text{-Ctxs}$ MII (McIntosh et al., 2004), PnIA (Hogg et al., 1999; Luo et al., 1999), and BuIA (Azam et al., 2010) suggested that PeIA would be a promising platform from which to develop $\alpha6\beta2\text{-selective}$ ligands. These studies demonstrated that specific amino acids of MII confer high potency for the $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ subtype and that the 10th position in PnIA is critical for subtype selectivity and provided a rational strategy for engineering $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ subtype-selective ligands using PeIA as a template.

 $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$

α6/α3β2β3

In this report, we describe the synthesis and characterization of a potent antagonist of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs achieved by substituting critical amino acids in the second loop of PeIA that increased potency and selectivity for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs. These amino acids included Ser9, Val10, and Glu14 and were substituted with His, Ala, and Asn, respectively. When tested on Xenopus oocytes that expressed rat $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ or $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs, the S9H substitution had the largest impact on potency and shifted the IC_{50} value for inhibition of $\alpha6/$ $\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs by ~ 11 -fold, whereas the V10A substitution had the largest effect on selectivity and conferred an \sim 10-fold increase in separation between the two subtypes (Fig. 2, A and B) over the native peptide. An additional ~5-fold increase in selectivity for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ α3β4 nAChRs over the native peptide was observed with

the Glu for Asn substitution in the 14th position (Fig. 2C). The V10A and E14N substitutions were combined in pairwise fashion with S9H with the expectation that double substitutions would retain the effects observed with each respective single substitution. Indeed, both PeIA[S9H, V10A] and PeIA[S9H,E14N] retained the selectivity of PeIA[V10A] and PeIA[E14N], and, interestingly, both doubly substituted analogs were even more potent than PeIA[S9H] (Figs. 2A and 4, A and B). Finally, PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] was synthesized, combining all three single substitutions to generate a ligand that was ~50-fold more potent than native PeIA for inhibition of $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs (Figs. 1B and 5A), and produced an ~1800-fold improvement in selectivity for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 3\beta 4$ and an ~ 1700 -fold improvement versus α 7 nAChRs (IC₅₀ = 1.8 μ M) (McIntosh et al., 2005) over native PeIA (Fig. 5, A and B). Of most importance, an \sim 280-fold improvement was observed for α 6/ α 3 β 2 β 3 versus the $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ subtype (Fig. 5A).

The kinetics of block and recovery from block were assessed on $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ nAChRs and compared with those obtained for the $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ subtype (Fig. 6, A–F). These studies yielded a K_i value for $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ (423 pM) that was >200-fold lower than that obtained for $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ (~90 nM) nAChRs (Fig. 6, A–F). Thus, at reasonable concentrations (5–10 times the K_i) for inhibition of $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta2\beta3$ nAChRs, little inhibition of $\alpha6/\alpha3\beta4$ nAChRs would be expected (Fig. 7). PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] was also tested on six other non- $\alpha6$ -containing nAChR subtypes and

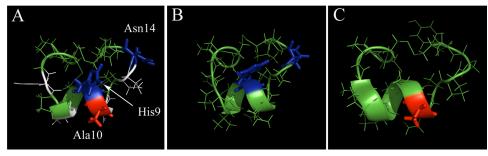


Fig. 8. Comparison of the three-dimensional structures of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N], MII, and PnIA. A, α -Ctx PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] with residues substituted from MII shown in blue (His9) and (Asn14) and from PnIA shown in red (Ala10). Residues shown in white are nonhomologous with MII. B, α -Ctx MII with His9 and Asn14 shown in blue. C, α -Ctx PnIA with Ala10 shown in red. Images were generated using PyMOL as described under *Materials and Methods*.

although inhibition of the two major central nervous system subtypes, $\alpha 4\beta 2$ and $\alpha 7$, was observed, the IC₅₀ values were ~930- and ~1800-fold higher, respectively, than the IC₅₀ value for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs (Fig. 5, A and B). However, the peptide does retain high potency for the $\alpha 3\beta 2$ subtype and cannot be used to discriminate between this subtype and $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs.

An analog of α -Ctx MII, MII[E11A], also shows some selectivity (40-fold) for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs (McIntosh et al., 2004). PnIA also preferentially targets α 6/ $\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ nAChRs but with ~ 50 -fold lower potency (Hone et al., 2012) than PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] and with significantly overlapping activity on the α 7 subtype (Luo et al., 1999). We note that the sequence of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] is 75% identical to that of MII[E11A] in terms of noncysteine amino acids, differing in the second loops by residues in the 10th, 11th, and 13th positions yet the PeIA analog is \sim 7-fold more selective for $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$ versus $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs than MII[E11A]. Of interest, when we substituted Ala for Asn in the 11th position to make PeIA more MII[E11A]-like, an \sim 5-fold loss of potency was observed (data not shown). In addition, substitution of Asn with that of native MII (Glu) in the 11th position of PeIA[S9H,V10A] also resulted in a loss in potency of \sim 12-fold (data not shown). The α 6 ligand-binding pocket contains three Glu and one Asp residues that are thought to interact with residue 11 of MII and its analogs (Azam et al., 2008; Pucci et al., 2011). Thus, the introduction of the negatively charged amino acid Glu may produce a repulsive electrostatic interaction between Glu and the highly negatively charged $\alpha 6$ subunit interface. This would be consistent with the results of others who found that replacement of Glu with a positively charged Arg in the 11th position increased the potency of MII (Pucci et al., 2011). However, this mechanism would not account for the increased potency observed with MII[E11A] because Ala is uncharged. Thus, although the three-dimensional backbone structures of PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N], MII, and PnIA are predicted to be similar (Fig. 8), differences in amino acid side chains are critical for activity on the $\alpha 6\beta 2$ -containing nAChR. Specific amino acid side chains may directly interact with residues of the receptor or influence different conformations of neighboring amino acid side chains. These possibilities together with our results with PeIA suggest a more complex interaction between α -Ctxs and the α 6 β 2 binding site. It would therefore be highly informative to conduct a positional scanning study on PeIA coupled with site-directed mutagenesis of the $\alpha 6$ subunit to gain further mechanistic

insights into the interaction between ligands and the $\alpha6\beta2$ -containing nAChR.

The $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ subtype has received considerable attention recently, and consequently significant efforts have been undertaken to develop highly specific ligands to study this receptor subtype in areas where multiple nAChR subtypes are potentially expressed (Letchworth and Whiteaker, 2011; Pivavarchyk et al., 2011; Pucci et al., 2011). Significant heterogeneity of nAChR expression typifies many neuronal populations in the nervous system, and such is the case in striatum where the predominant subtypes are $\alpha6\beta2^*$ and $\alpha4\beta2^*$ (Grady et al., 2007; Perez et al., 2008) and in the ventral tegmental area where the predominant subtypes are $\alpha6\beta2^*$, $\alpha4\beta2^*$, $\alpha7$, and a currently uncharacterized β4-containing nAChR (Wooltorton et al., 2003; Jones and Wonnacott, 2004; Wu et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2009). In certain regions of the primate brain such as the cerebellum, substantial overlap of $\alpha 6$, $\beta 2$, and $\beta 4$ subunit mRNAs have been found (Quik et al., 2000). Furthermore, α6β4* nAChRs have recently been identified in human adrenal chromaffin cells and characterized using analogs of MII (Pérez-Alvarez et al., 2012). However, the analogs used in this study also potently block $\alpha 6/\alpha 3\beta 2\beta 3$, but not $\alpha 3\beta 2$ nAChRs, and, therefore, the presence of $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ nAChRs cannot be ruled out. The $\alpha6\beta4^*$ subtype has also been recently identified in a population of rat dorsal root ganglion neurons that also express β2-containing nAChRs of the $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ and/or the $\alpha 3\beta 2^*$ subtypes (Hone et al., 2012). Whereas PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] does not distinguish between these two subtypes, MII[H9A,L15] does (McIntosh et al., 2004). Thus, an approach using the selectivity profiles of both toxins may be useful for identifying the β 2containing nAChRs in these neurons. The fact that PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] blocks rat, mouse, and human α6β2-containing nAChRs with similar potencies while maintaining selectivity for $\alpha 6\beta 2$ -containing versus $\alpha 6\beta 4$ containing nAChRs will allow the toxin to be used across species and thus should prove particularly useful for distinguishing $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ from $\alpha 6\beta 4^*$ nAChRs in tissues in which these receptors are potentially coexpressed. Finally, it is noteworthy that PeIA[S9H,V10A,E14N] is 1300-fold more potent at blocking $\alpha 3\beta 2$ than $\alpha 3\beta 4$ nAChRs. This exquisite selectivity for $\alpha 3\beta 2$ nAChRs may be useful for distinguishing between these two subtypes in neurons such as those found in intracardiac ganglia (Bibevski et al., 2000) and superior cervical ganglia (Mao et al., 2006; David et al.,

Downloaded from molpharm.aspetjournals.org at Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro on December 1,

2010), which predominantly express a mixed population of $\alpha 3$ -containing nAChRs.

Acknowledgments

We thank Bob Shackman at the DNA/Peptide Synthesis core facility at the University of Utah for assistance with peptide synthesis, Miguel Ruiz, Phuong Tran, and Melissa McIntyre for assistance with peptide folding, and William Lowe at the Salk Institute for Biological Studies for performing the matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization mass spectrometry.

Authorship Contributions

Participated in research design: Hone and McIntosh.

Conducted experiments: Hone, Scadden, Gajewiak, and Christensen.

Contributed new reagents or analytic tools: Lindstrom.

Performed data analysis: Hone and Scadden.

Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: Hone, Gajewiak, and McIntosh.

References

- Armishaw CJ (2010) Synthetic α-conotoxin mutants as probes for studying nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and in the development of novel drug leads. *Toxins* (Basel) 2:1471–1499
- Azam L, Maskos U, Changeux JP, Dowell CD, Christensen S, De Biasi M, and McIntosh JM (2010) α -Conotoxin BuIA[T5A;P6O]: a novel ligand that discriminates between $\alpha 6\beta 4$ and $\alpha 6\beta 2$ nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and blocks nicotine-stimulated norepinephrine release. FASEB J 24:5113–5123.
- Azam L and McIntosh JM (2006) Characterization of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors that modulate nicotine-evoked [³H]norepinephrine release from mouse hippocampal synaptosomes. *Mol Pharmacol* **70:**967–976.
- Azam L and McIntosh JM (2009) α-Conotoxins as pharmacological probes of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Acta Pharmacol Sin 30:771–783.
- Azam L, Yoshikami D, and McIntosh JM (2008) Amino acid residues that confer high selectivity of the $\alpha 6$ nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunit to α -conotoxin MII[S4A,E11A,L15A]. J Biol Chem 283:11625–11632.
- Bibevski S, Zhou Y, McIntosh JM, Zigmond RE, and Dunlap ME(2000) Functional nicotinic acetylcholine receptors that mediate ganglionic transmission in cardiac parasympathetic neurons. J Neurosci 20:5076–5082.
- Bordia T, Grady SR, McIntosh JM, and Quik M (2007) Nigrostriatal damage preferentially decreases a subpopulation of $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ nAChRs in mouse, monkey, and Parkinson's disease striatum. *Mol Pharmacol* **72**:52–61.
- Brunzell DH, Boschen KE, Hendrick ES, Beardsley PM, and McIntosh JM (2010) α -Conotoxin MII-sensitive nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in the nucleus accumbens shell regulate progressive ratio responding maintained by nicotine. Neuropsychopharmacology 35:665–673.
- Capelli AM, Castelletti L, Chen YH, Van der Keyl H, Pucci L, Oliosi B, Salvagno C, Bertani B, Gotti C, Powell A, et al. (2011) Stable expression and functional characterization of a human nicotinic acetylcholine receptor with $\alpha 6\beta 2$ properties: discovery of selective antagonists. Br J Pharmacol 163:313–329.
- Cartier GE, Yoshikami D, Gray WR, Luo S, Olivera BM, and McIntosh JM (1996) A new α -conotoxin which targets $\alpha 3\beta 2$ nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *J Biol Chem* **271**:7522–7528.
- Daly NL, Callaghan B, Clark RJ, Nevin ST, Adams DJ, and Craik DJ (2011) Structure and activity of α -contoxin PeIA at nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subtypes and GABAB receptor-coupled N-type calcium channels. *J Biol Chem* **286**:10233–10237.
- Dash B, Bhakta M, Chang Y, and Lukas RJ (2011) Identification of N-terminal extracellular domain determinants in nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR) α 6 subunits that influence effects of wild-type or mutant β 3 subunits on function of α 6 β 2*- or α 6 β 4*-nAChR. J Biol Chem 286:37976–37989.
- David R, Ciuraszkiewicz A, Simeone X, Orr-Urtreger A, Papke RL, McIntosh JM, Huck S, and Scholze P (2010) Biochemical and functional properties of distinct nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in the superior cervical ganglion of mice with targeted deletions of nAChR subunit genes. Eur J Neurosci 31:978–993.
- Dowell C, Olivera BM, Garrett JE, Staheli ST, Watkins M, Kuryatov A, Yoshikami D, Lindstrom JM, and McIntosh JM (2003) α-Conotoxin PIA is selective for α6 subunit-containing nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. J Neurosci 23:8445–8452.
- Exley R, Maubourguet N, David V, Eddine R, Evrard A, Pons S, Marti F, Threlfell S, Cazala P, McIntosh JM, et al. (2011) Distinct contributions of nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunit $\alpha 4$ and subunit $\alpha 6$ to the reinforcing effects of nicotine. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **108**:7577–7582.
- Gotti C, Guiducci S, Tedesco V, Corbioli S, Zanetti L, Moretti M, Zanardi A, Rimondini R, Mugnaini M, Clementi F, et al. (2010) Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in the mesolimbic pathway: primary role of ventral tegmental area $\alpha 6\beta 2^*$ receptors in mediating systemic nicotine effects on dopamine release, locomotion, and reinforcement. J Neurosci 30:5311–5325.
- Grady SR, Salminen O, Laverty DC, Whiteaker P, McIntosh JM, Collins AC, and Marks MJ (2007) The subtypes of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors on dopaminer-gic terminals of mouse striatum. *Biochem Pharmacol* **74**:1235–1246.
- Hill JM, Oomen CJ, Miranda LP, Bingham JP, Alewood PF, and Craik DJ (1998)

- Three-dimensional solution structure of α -conotoxin MII by NMR spectroscopy: effects of solution environment on helicity. *Biochemistry* **37:**15621–15630.
- Hogg RC, Miranda LP, Craik DJ, Lewis ŘJ, Alewood PF, and Adams DJ (1999) Single amino acid substitutions in α -conotoxin PnIA shift selectivity for subtypes of the mammalian neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptor. *J Biol Chem* **274**: 36559–36564
- Hone AJ, Meyer EL, McIntyre M, and McIntosh JM (2012) Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in dorsal root ganglion neurons include the $\alpha6\beta4^*$ subtype. FASEB J **26:**917–926.
- Hone AJ, Whiteaker P, Christensen S, Xiao Y, Meyer EL, and McIntosh JM (2009) A novel fluorescent α -conotoxin for the study of α 7 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. J Neurochem 111:80–89.
- Hu SH, Gehrmann J, Guddat LW, Alewood PF, Craik DJ, and Martin JL (1996) The 1.1 A crystal structure of the neuronal acetylcholine receptor antagonist, α -conotoxin PnIA from *Conus pennaceus*. Structure 4:417–423.
- Jackson KJ, McIntosh JM, Brunzell DH, Sanjakdar SS, and Damaj MI (2009) The role of $\alpha 6$ -containing nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in nicotine reward and withdrawal. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **331:**547–554.
- Jones IW and Wonnacott S (2004) Precise localization of α 7 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors on glutamatergic axon terminals in the rat ventral tegmental area. J Neurosci 24:11244–11252.
- Kuryatov A and Lindstrom J (2011) Expression of functional human $\alpha 6\beta 2\beta 3^*$ acetylcholine receptors in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes achieved through subunit chimeras and concatamers. *Mol Pharmacol* **79:**126–140.
- Kuryatov A, Olale F, Cooper J, Choi C, and Lindstrom J (2000) Human α6 AChR subtypes: subunit composition, assembly, and pharmacological responses. Neuropharmacology 39:2570–2590.
- Léna C, de Kerchove D'Exaerde A, Cordero-Erausquin M, Le Novère N, del Mar Arroyo-Jimenez M, and Changeux JP (1999) Diversity and distribution of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in the locus ceruleus neurons. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 96:12126-12131.
- Letchworth SR and Whiteaker P (2011) Progress and challenges in the study of α6-containing nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Biochem Pharmacol* 82:862–872.
- Liu L, Zhao-Shea R, McIntosh JM, Gardner PD, and Tapper AR (2012) Nicotine persistently activates ventral tegmental area dopaminergic neurons via nicotinic acetylcholine receptors containing $\alpha 4$ and $\alpha 6$ subunits. *Mol Pharmacol* 81:541–548.
- Luo S, Nguyen TA, Cartier GE, Olivera BM, Yoshikami D, and McIntosh JM (1999) Single-residue alteration in α -conotoxin PnIA switches its nAChR subtype selectivity. Biochemistry 38:14542–14548.
- Mao D, Yasuda RP, Fan H, Wolfe BB, and Kellar KJ (2006) Heterogeneity of nicotinic cholinergic receptors in rat superior cervical and nodose ganglia. *Mol Pharmacol* 70:1693–1699.
- Marritt AM, Cox BC, Yasuda RP, McIntosh JM, Xiao Y, Wolfe BB, and Kellar KJ (2005) Nicotinic cholinergic receptors in the rat retina: simple and mixed heteromeric subtypes. *Mol Pharmacol* **68**:1656–1668.
- McIntosh JM, Azam L, Staheli S, Dowell C, Lindstrom JM, Kuryatov A, Garrett JE, Marks MJ, and Whiteaker P (2004) Analogs of α -conotoxin MII are selective for α 6-containing nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Mol Pharmacol* **65**:944-952.
- McIntosh JM, Plazas PV, Watkins M, Gomez-Casati ME, Olivera BM, and Elgoyhen AB (2005) A novel α -conotoxin, PeIA, cloned from *Conus pergrandis*, discriminates between rat $\alpha 9\alpha 10$ and $\alpha 7$ nicotinic cholinergic receptors. *J Biol Chem* **280**:30107—30112.
- Moretti M, Vailati S, Zoli M, Lippi G, Riganti L, Longhi R, Viegi A, Clementi F, and Gotti C (2004) Nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subtypes expression during rat retina development and their regulation by visual experience. *Mol Pharmacol* **66:**85–96.
- Papke RL, Buhr JD, Francis MM, Choi KI, Thinschmidt JS, and Horenstein NA (2005) The effects of subunit composition on the inhibition of nicotinic receptors by the amphipathic blocker 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-4-yl heptanoate. Mol Pharmacol 67:1977–1990.
- Perez XA, Bordia T, McIntosh JM, Grady SR, and Quik M (2008) Long-term nicotine treatment differentially regulates striatal $\alpha6\alpha4\beta2^*$ and $\alpha6(\text{non}\alpha4)\beta2^*$ nAChR expression and function. *Mol Pharmacol* **74**:844–853.
- Pérez-Alvarez A, Hernández-Vivanco A, McIntosh JM, and Albillos A (2012) Native $\alpha 6 \beta 4^*$ nicotinic receptors control exocytosis in human chromaffin cells of the adrenal gland. FASEB J **26**:346–354.
- Pivavarchyk M, Smith AM, Zhang Z, Zhou D, Wang X, Toyooka N, Tsuneki H, Sasaoka T, McIntosh JM, Crooks PA, et al. (2011) Indolizidine (–)-235B' and related structural analogs: discovery of nicotinic receptor antagonists that inhibit nicotine-evoked [³H]dopamine release. Eur J Pharmacol 658:132–139.
- Pons S, Fattore L, Cossu G, Tolu S, Porcu E, McIntosh JM, Changeux JP, Maskos U, and Fratta W (2008) Crucial role of α4 and α6 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunits from ventral tegmental area in systemic nicotine self-administration. J Neurosci 28:12318-12327.
- Pucci L, Grazioso G, Dallanoce C, Rizzi L, De Micheli C, Clementi F, Bertrand S, Bertrand D, Longhi R, De Amici M, et al.(2011) Engineering of α -conotoxin MII-derived peptides with increased selectivity for native $\alpha6\beta2^*$ nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. FASEB J 25:3775–3789.
- Quik M, Polonskaya Y, Gillespie A, Jakowec M, Lloyd GK, and Langston JW (2000) Localization of nicotinic receptor subunit mRNAs in monkey brain by in situ hybridization. J Comp Neurol 425:58–69.
- Rogers JP, Luginbühl P, Shen GS, McCabe RT, Stevens RC, and Wemmer DE (1999) NMR solution structure of α-conotoxin ImI and comparison to other conotoxins specific for neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Biochemistry* **38:**3874–3882.
- Vincler MA and Eisenach JC (2003) Immunocytochemical localization of the α 3, α 4,

 α 5, α 7, β 2, β 3 and β 4 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunits in the locus coeruleus of the rat. Brain Res 974:25-36.

Wooltorton JR, Pidoplichko VI, Broide RS, and Dani JA (2003) Differential desensi-

wooding of the control of the contr Exp Ther 311:80-91.

Yang K, Hu J, Lucero L, Liu Q, Zheng C, Zhen X, Jin G, Lukas RJ, and Wu J (2009) Distinctive nicotinic acetylcholine receptor functional phenotypes of rat ventral tegmental area dopaminergic neurons. J Physiol 587:345-361.

Address correspondence to: Dr. J. Michael McIntosh, Department of Psychiatry, 50 North 1900, East Salt Lake City, UT 84132. E-mail: mcintosh. mike@gmail.com

