

# A Conceptualization of Integrated Actions of Ethanol Contributing to its GABAmimetic Profile: A Commentary

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Early behavioral investigations supported the contention that systemic ethanol displays a GABAmimetic profile. Microinjection of GABA agonists into brain and *in vivo* electrophysiological studies implicated a regionally specific action of ethanol on GABA function. While selectivity of ethanol to enhance the effect of GABA was initially attributed an effect on type-I-benzodiazepine (BZD)-GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors, a lack of ethanol's effect on GABA responsiveness from isolated neurons with this receptor subtype discounted this contention. Nonetheless, subsequent work identified GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtypes, with limited distribution in brain, sensitive to enhancement of GABA at relevant ethanol concentrations. In view of these data, it is hypothesized that the GABAmimetic profile for ethanol is due to activation of mechanisms associated with GABA function, distinct from a direct action on the majority of postsynaptic GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors. The primary action proposed to account for ethanol's regional specificity on GABA transmission is its ability to release GABA from some, but not all, presynaptic GABAergic terminals. As systemic administration of ethanol increases neuroactive steroids, which can enhance GABA responsiveness, this elevated level of neurosteroids is proposed to magnify the effect of GABA released by ethanol. Additional factors contributing to the degree to which ethanol interacts with GABA function include an involvement of GABA<sub>B</sub> and other receptors that influence ethanol-induced GABA release, an effect of phosphorylation on GABA responsiveness, and a regional reduction of glutamatergic tone. Thus, an integration of these consequences induced by ethanol is proposed to provide a logical basis for its *in vivo* GABAmimetic profile.

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#### INTRODUCTION

Ingestion of ethanol results in a dose-dependent reduction of central nervous system (CNS) activity. For several decades, it was presumed that this CNS depression was due to a major effect of ethanol on GABA mechanisms. Owing to its regional specificity *in vivo* to enhance the effect of GABA, it was initially hypothesized that ethanol had a direct effect on type-1-GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors, which represent the majority of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors in the CNS. Subsequently, while it became apparent that this view was not viable, recent studies implicated a direct effect of ethanol on selected benzodiazepine (BZD)-insensitive receptor subtypes. However, pursuit of new initiatives has provided alternatives to a direct effect of ethanol on the majority of

GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors. The present commentary will first provide an historical perspective of attempts to define ethanol's ability to influence this neural system in brain, followed by an overview of findings from recent initiatives to clarify the means by which ethanol displays its GABAmimetic profile.

# INTERACTION OF ETHANOL WITH THE GABA SYSTEM IN VIVO

GABA (γ-amino-butyric acid) is the primary inhibitory neurotransmitter in brain (Mody et al, 1994; Sieghart, 1995). Evidence accumulated over several decades suggested that ethanol influences GABA function (Allan and Harris, 1987; Frye and Breese, 1982; Liljequist and Engel, 1982; Martz et al, 1983; Mereu and Gessa, 1985; Nestoros, 1980; Simson et al, 1991; see Crews et al, 1996). Most convincing was the early recognition that behavioral consequences of moderate doses of ethanol had similarities to those of BZDs and barbiturates (Breese et al, 1983; Frye et al, 1979, White et al, 1997), drugs known to rely on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor function (see Harris, 1990; Ticku, 1989). Further, BZDs and barbiturates enhanced ethanol-induced motor impairment

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(Martz et al, 1983) and substituted for ethanol in drug discrimination studies (Grant et al, 2000; Shannon et al, 2004). On the other hand, a BZD-inverse agonist minimized ethanol-induced sedation (McCown and Breese, 1989; Suzdak et al, 1986a; Ticku and Kulkarni, 1988) and GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor antagonists decreased the antipunishment action of ethanol (Koob et al, 1986, 1988; Liljequist and Engel, 1984). Samson et al (1987) reported that a BZD-inverse agonist reduced ethanol self-administration—a common procedure used to evaluate motivation to drink ethanol (Samson, 1986; Samson et al, 1988). Likewise, a BZD-inverse agonist and a ligand blocking GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor function decreased responding for ethanol (Petry, 1995; Rassnick et al, 1993).

Another area that has been associated with an action of ethanol on GABA function is withdrawal from chronic ethanol. Withdrawal results in an increased sensitivity to induction of seizures (Cooper et al, 1979; Frye et al, 1983b; McCown et al, 1985, Allan and Harris, 1987). BZDs and other drugs with GABAmimetic action reduced such withdrawal-related hyper-excitability (McCown et al, 1985; Ticku and Burch, 1980). Conversely, GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor antagonists (Allan and Harris, 1987; Brouillet et al, 1991) and BZD-receptor inverse agonists (Mehta and Ticku, 1989; Becker and Anton, 1989) exacerbated seizure susceptibility associated with ethanol withdrawal. Withdrawal from chronic ethanol also results in an anxiety-like response (File et al, 1989; Criswell and Breese, 1989)—a response blocked by BZDs and GABAmimetic drugs (Cooper et al, 1979; Criswell and Breese, 1989). Additionally, flumazenil, a BZD-receptor antagonist, blocked the anxiogenic consequence of ethanol withdrawal (File et al, 1989; Criswell and Breese, 1990, 1993).

Collectively, these functional and behavioral studies of GABAmimetics and GABA antagonists on the acute and chronic actions of ethanol offered strong support for the hypothesis that at least a part of the action of ethanol was mediated by effects on neural functions associated with GABA transmission.

# REGIONAL SPECIFICITY OF ETHANOL ON FUNCTIONS ALTERED BY GABAMIMETIC DRUGS

The next series of investigations sought to define brain site(s) responsible for enhancement of ethanol-induced sedation by GABAmimetic drugs. A potential brain site involved in the sedative action of ethanol came from research with thyrotropin releasing factor (TRH), a peptide known to reduce sleep time induced by ethanol (Breese et al, 1974; Cott et al, 1976). Since microinjection of TRH into the medial septum antagonized measures of sedation induced by ethanol (Breese et al, 1984; McCown et al, 1986), this site was chosen to examine the effect of drugs affecting GABA function on loss of aerial righting and sleep-time induced by systemic administration of ethanol. Microinjection of muscimol into the medial septum markedly enhanced these measures of ethanol-induced sedation (McCown et al, 1986; Givens and Breese, 1990b). Conversely, microinjection of the GABA antagonist, bicuculline, into the medial septum antagonized the effect of ethanol on sedation (Breese et al, 1984; Givens and Breese, 1990b). In

contrast to results obtained in the medial septum, muscimol microinjected into the lateral septum was without an effect on sleep time (Givens and Breese, 1990b).

Subsequent work was undertaken to define specific brain sites responsible for the action of GABAmimetic drugs to minimize the increased susceptibility to audiogenic seizures following withdrawal from chronic ethanol exposure (Cooper et al, 1979; Frye et al, 1983b). As lesioning of inferior colliculus, a prominent relay nucleus in the auditory pathway, prevented audiogenic seizures in rodents (Wada et al, 1970; Henry et al, 1972), the possible involvement of this brain site in the ability of systemically administered GABA receptor agonists to reduce audiogenic seizure activity during withdrawal from chronic ethanol was investigated (Frye et al, 1983a). Muscimol microinjected into the inferior colliculus antagonized seizure activity during withdrawal from chronic ethanol, consistent with a reduction in GABA function within this brain site during withdrawal (Frye et al, 1983b, 1986). Such reduction in seizure susceptibility was not observed when GABAmimetics were introduced into other brain regions (Frye et al,

Brain sites responsible for GABA transmission supporting self-administration and discrimination of ethanol have also been studied. McBride et al (1999) reviewed the literature concerning intracranial self-administration of ethanol in comparison to the consequence of intracranial administration of drugs that influence GABAA receptor function. The effect of drugs influencing GABA function implicated the extended amygdala in ethanol self-administration (Hyytia and Koob, 1995; Roberts et al, 1996). Utilizing intracranial self-administration of ethanol, Rodd et al (2005) described regional heterogeneity within the ventral tegmental area. To define sites that support the discriminative stimulus for ethanol, Hodge and Cox (1998) found that muscimol substituted for ethanol when microinjected into the amygdala, but not when microinjected in the prelimbic cortex.

Thus, microinjection of drugs affecting GABA function provided evidence that the sedation induced by acute ethanol and the increased seizure susceptibility following withdrawal from chronic ethanol depend upon its action on GABA function within specific regions of brain (see Frye et al, 1983b, 1986; McCown et al, 1986). Likewise, examination of drugs affecting GABAA receptor function implicated differing brain regions for self-administration and ethanol discrimination of ethanol (Hyytia and Koob, 1995; McBride et al, 1999; Roberts et al, 1996; Rodd et al, 2004, 2005). In further support of a regional specificity of ethanol on GABA transmission, work demonstrated that chronic ethanol treatment altered expression of GABAA receptor subunit mRNAs in some brain regions, but not others (Devaud et al, 1995; Grobin et al, 2000a, b; Montpied et al, 1991; Morrow et al, 1992; Mhatre and Ticku, 1992; Papadeas et al, 2001).

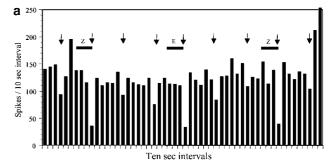
# IN VIVO ELECTROPHYSIOLOGICAL MEASURES OF ETHANOL ACTION ON GABA FUNCTION

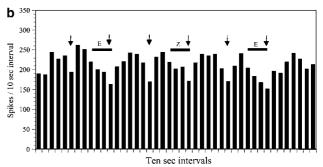
Another approach taken to evaluate the interaction of ethanol with GABA function employed *in vivo* extracellular

electrophysiological recording of spontaneous activity of neurons in anesthetized animals across a variety of brain regions. For example, Bloom and Siggins (1987) described regionally distinct effects of ethanol on cell firing ranging from increased firing to depression when recording from inferior olive, hippocampal, cerebellar, and locus coeruleus neurons. In accord with this observation, Givens and Breese (1990a) showed that systemic administration of ethanol depressed neural activity in the medial septum, but not the lateral septum, whereas others described ethanol increases in firing rate of neurons in the ventral tegmental area (Brodie et al, 1990; Clark and Little, 2004). Mereu and Gessa (1985) found that low doses of systemically administered ethanol inhibited firing of neurons in the substantia nigra reticulata—an effect enhanced by muscimol and eliminated by bicuculline.

Other studies examined the effect of ethanol on the GABA-induced changes in firing rate of neurons. Nestoros (1980) found that intravenous administration of low doses of ethanol, as well as its electro-osmotic application, enhanced GABA-induced inhibition from cerebro-cortical neurons. Subsequently, Givens and Breese (1990a) observed that systemically administered (1.5 g/kg) and iontophoreticapplied ethanol enhanced the inhibitory action of GABA on single unit activity of neurons in the medial septum, but not from lateral septal neurons. This effect of ethanol on cellular responsiveness to GABA in these distinct brain regions was consistent with earlier data demonstrating that muscimol microinjection into the medial septum facilitated ethanolinduced sedation, whereas microinjection into the lateral septum did not (Breese et al, 1984; Givens and Breese, 1990b; McCown et al, 1986). Criswell et al (1993, 1995) examined the effect of ethanol on GABA responsiveness in several additional regions of brain and demonstrated that ethanol enhanced the effect of GABA on spontaneous activity from neurons in some, but not all, brain regions. Figure 1 provides an example of rate-meter records demonstrating that ethanol can have distinct effects on GABA-induced firing rate when ethanol is applied locally to differing neurons within the ventral pallidum (Criswell et al, 1995). The demonstration of regional specificity of ethanol on neural rate (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Givens and Breese, 1990a) and of its influences on GABAA receptor-related function (Criswell et al, 1993, 1995; Givens and Breese, 1990a, b) was a major advance in understanding the complex pharmacology of ethanol.

In the in vivo studies, the specific effect of ethanol on GABA-induced changes in neuronal firing rate occurred following either systemic (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Givens and Breese, 1990a, b; Mereu and Gessa, 1985; Nestoros, 1980) or central application of 'relevant' ethanol concentrations to neurons (Criswell et al, 1993, 1995; Givens and Breese, 1990a; Lin et al, 1991; Nestoros, 1980). Since locally applied ethanol enhanced GABA-induced inhibition, ethanol was able to produce this effect without acting at a distant site (Criswell et al, 1993, 1995; Givens and Breese, 1990b; Lin et al, 1991). Siggins et al (1987a) reported that systemic ethanol (2 g/kg) had differing effects on firing of inferior olive neurons in rats anesthetized with urethane compared to the response obtained to ethanol in rats anesthetized with other anesthetics. Therefore, a potentially complicating factor in many in vivo studies of ethanol was





**Figure 1** Selective enhancement of GABA-mediated inhibition of single unit activity by ethanol in the ventral pallidum. Vertical bars represent action potentials during a 10 s period. GABA (EC $_{30}$  current) was applied iontophoretically with a constant current for a 10 s period every 60 s as indicated by the arrows. Alcohol (E) or zolpidem (Z) were applied every 40 s shown by the horizontal bars. The alcohol and zolpidem were applied 30 s prior to GABA application. Note that the neuron in the left trace (a) responded to these drugs, whereas the neuron in the right trace (b) did not respond to either ethanol or zolpidem. This finding indicates that some, but not all, neurons at this site respond to ethanol. Modified from Criswell et al (1995).

that animals were anesthetized with urethane or other anesthetics. However, the effects of ethanol on medial septal area neurons in freely moving rats were found to be similar to those in rats anesthetized with urethane (Givens and Breese, 1990a). Nonetheless, the possibility that urethane or other anesthetics influence single-unit activity changes induced *in vivo* by GABA application after ethanol has yet to be eliminated.

# HYPOTHESIS FOR ETHANOL ACTION ON A TYPE-1-BZD RECEPTOR

The GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor is assembled as a heteropentamere (Macdonald and Olsen, 1994; Hevers and Lüddens, 1998) from a collection of differing receptor subunits—six  $\alpha$ , three  $\beta$ , three  $\gamma$ , three  $\rho$ , and  $\delta$ ,  $\xi$ ,  $\pi$ , and  $\theta$  subunits (Benke et al, 1991b; Hevers and Lüddens, 1998, 2002; Khan et al, 1994; Korpi et al, 2002; Lüddens and Korpi, 1995; McKernan and Whiting, 1996; Rudolph et al, 2001; Sieghart, 1995; Wisden et al, 1992). The distribution of these differing assortments of receptor subunits was found to be heterogeneous, allowing for diversity of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor complexes (Fritschy and Mohler, 1995; McKernan and Whiting, 1996; Rudolph et al, 2001; Wisden et al, 1992). Two independent lines of research suggested that the regional





differences in the effect of ethanol on GABA function might be due to a selective effect of ethanol on a specific GABAA receptor subtype.

In an initial study, Wafford et al (1991) found that when various sets of GABA<sub>A</sub> subunits were assembled in oocytes, only that combination containing the  $\alpha_1\beta_1\gamma_{2L}$  subunits was affected by ethanol—a finding confirmed in L(tk<sup>-</sup>) cells (Harris et al, 1995c). Additionally, Harris et al (1997) found that ethanol enhanced muscimol-induced chloride flux in L(tk<sup>-</sup>) cells transfected with  $\alpha_1 \beta_{2/3} \gamma_{2L}$  GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits. From immunoprecipitation (Benke et al, 1991a) and immunohistochemical studies of brain (Fritschy et al, 1992), the  $\alpha_1$  receptor was found to combine with  $\beta_{2/3}$  and  $\gamma_2$ GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits (see review by Mohler *et al*, 1995). This GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor combination  $(\alpha_1\beta_X\gamma_2)$  reportedly is the most abundant BZD/GABAA receptor in brain (Duncan et al, 1995; Lüddens and Korpi, 1995; Mckernan and Whiting, 1996). Binding of zolpidem, as a BZD-receptor agonist selective for GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors that contained  $\alpha_1\beta_X\gamma_2$ receptor subunits (Wafford et al, 1993; Criswell et al, 1997), localized with the  $\alpha_1 \beta_2 \gamma_2$  GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunit combination (Criswell et al, 1995; Duncan et al, 1995). Importantly, zolpidem binding was found in the medial septum, a site where muscimol increased ethanol-induced sedation, but not in the lateral septum, a site where muscimol did not have this action (Givens and Breese, 1990b; McCown et al,

Based upon finding zolpidem binding in a brain area where ethanol enhanced GABA inhibition of neural rate in vivo (Givens and Breese, 1990b), the second line of research utilized extracellular recording to test whether subunit composition of GABAA receptors sensitive to the action of zolpidem (Horne et al, 1992; Wafford et al, 1993) would be sensitive to ethanol enhancement of GABA inhibition. This investigation demonstrated that ethanol enhanced the effect of GABA in brain regions where zolpidem binding was high, but not in regions where zolpidem binding was low (Criswell et al, 1993, 1995). When effects of ethanol and zolpidem were tested on the same neuron, neurons sensitive to zolpidem were also sensitive to ethanol enhancement of the effect of GABA across several brain regions (Criswell et al, 1995; see Figure 1). Thus, it appeared that the effect of zolpidem on GABA responsiveness was capable of predicting the action of ethanol to enhance inhibitory responses to GABA on neural firing in selected sites in brain (Criswell et al, 1993, 1995).

It is well known that the effect of ethanol on GABAinduced depression of cerebellar Purkinje neurons can be variable (see Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Freund et al, 1993; Lee et al, 1995; Lin et al, 1994; Yang et al, 1998, 2000), even though these neurons have only the type-1-BZD receptor (Fritschy and Mohler, 1995; Itier et al, 1996; Lüddens and Korpi, 1995). Therefore, the concordance between effects of zolpidem and ethanol to potentiate GABA-induced depressions of neuronal activity did not appear to hold for cerebellar Purkinje neurons (Lin et al, 1991, 1994; Yang et al, 1998, 2000). Subsequently, it was found that when the action of ethanol was concomitantly modulated by betaadrenergic (Freund and Palmer, 1997; Lin et al, 1991, 1994; Yang et al, 1998) or GABA<sub>B</sub> (Yang et al, 2000) receptor agonists, ethanol markedly enhanced the GABA-induced inhibition of firing rate from Purkinje neurons (see phosphorylation section). Thus, with this clarification, ethanol action on Purkinje neurons was consistent with the hypothesis that the ethanol enhancement of the effect of GABA in vivo related to ethanol having a direct effect on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors sensitive to zolpidem. Since other GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits had differing distributions from that of the  $\alpha_1$  subunit forming the type-1-BZD receptor (Fritschy et al, 1992; Wisden et al, 1992), it was proposed that this differing distribution of GABAA receptor subtypes accounted for the regional specificity of ethanol to enhance GABA responsiveness (Criswell et al, 1993, 1995).

## ARGUMENT FOR AN ACTION OF ETHANOL ON BZD-INSENSITIVE GABA<sub>A</sub> RECEPTOR SUBTYPES

Based upon a variety of investigations, an argument could be made that the furosemide-sensitive receptor, a BZDinsensitive receptor (Kleingoor et al, 1991), might also be sensitive to ethanol enhancement of GABA function (Harris et al, 1995b, Ticku and Burch, 1980). This view is based upon the inverse agonist, RO15-4513, which binds to the furosemide-sensitive receptor (Mehta and Ticku, 1988; Mhatre et al, 1988), antagonizing the deficit in righting reflex induced by ethanol (Bonetti et al, 1989; Suzdak et al, 1986a; see review by Ticku and Kulkarni, 1988). Additionally, in vivo, the BZD-inverse agonists, RO15-4513 and FG7142, blocked the ethanol-induced depression of Purkinje neurons in the cerebellum (Palmer et al, 1988; see review by Palmer and Hoffer, 1990). The RO15-4513 and other BZD inverse agonists are now known to bind to receptors with  $\alpha_{6}\text{-}$  and  $\alpha_{4}\text{-}\mathsf{GABA}_{A}$  receptor subunits (Derry et al, 2004; Knoflach et al, 1996; Mhatre and Ticku, 1992; Yang et al, 1995), providing evidence that the reversal of ethanol action was related to their effect on these BZDinsensitive GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtypes.

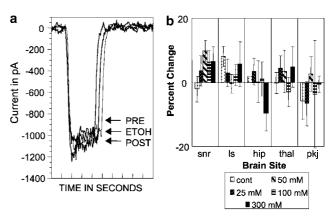
After chronic ethanol, an alteration in the expression of  $\alpha_4$ -receptor subunit occurs in some, but not all, brain regions (Grobin et al, 2000a, b; Kumar et al, 2002; Montpied et al, 1991; Papadeas et al, 2001) and the  $\alpha_6$ receptor subunit is increased in the cerebellum (Mhatre and Ticku, 1992; Morrow et al, 1992). In respect to the increase in the expression of the  $\alpha_4$ - and  $\alpha_6$ -receptor subunits following chronic ethanol exposure, there is often a concomitant downregulation of the  $\alpha_1$ -receptor subunit (Grobin et al, 2000a, b; Mhatre and Ticku, 1992; Morrow et al, 1992; Papadeas et al, 2001). While the underlying basis of the shift in these alpha-subunits for GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors after chronic ethanol is unknown, this change in GABAA receptor subunits is consistent with a close relationship between ethanol action in vivo and GABA function.

## IN VITRO EXAMINATION OF ETHANOL ACTION ON GABA<sub>A</sub> RECEPTOR FUNCTION

A number of observations utilizing in vitro approaches were consistent with ethanol enhancing GABA function. For example, it was observed that ethanol enhanced GABAinduced chloride flux in synapto-neurosomes (Suzdak et al, 1986b). Other studies of cultured neurons seemed consistent with ethanol having an action on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors at concentrations below 100 mM (Aguayo, 1990; Reynolds and Prasad, 1991; Reynolds et al, 1992; see review by Mihic, 1999). Durand et al (1981) found that ethanol depressed the evoked population spike from CA1 neurons in slices consistent with an effect on GABA function. Enhancement of GABA-gated currents by ethanol from acutely dissociated cerebellar Purkinje and retinal bipolar cells and ganglion cells was also observed (Nishio and Narahashi, 1990; Sapp and Yeh, 1998; Yeh and Kolb, 1997). Signore and Yeh (2000) found ethanol potentiation of GABA (>10%) in a small number (nine of 44) of pyramidal neurons in the pyriform cortex. Roberto et al (2003) recently reported that 44 mM ethanol enhanced the effect of exogenously applied GABA to amygdaloid neurons, indicative that ethanol had a direct postsynaptic action on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors at this site. Finally, the specific  $\alpha_4\beta_X\delta$ and  $\alpha_6 \beta_X \delta$  GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits (BZD-insensitive receptor subtypes), when expressed in oocytes, exhibited a direct action of low ethanol concentration enhancement of GABA responsiveness (Sundstrom-Poromaa et al, 2002; Wallner et al, 2003). More will be said later about this latter

In contrast to studies thus far outlined, other in vitro investigations suggested that ethanol was not influencing GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors directly (Frye and Breese, 1982; Palmer and Hoffer, 1990; Siggins et al, 1987b; White et al, 1990). In accord with this view, several studies failed to demonstrate an enhancement of GABA responsiveness from isolated neurons, cultured neurons, and cells transfected with specific GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits. Indicative of a lack of effect of ethanol on GABAA receptor function, Siggins et al (1987b), utilizing an intracellular approach to measure GABA-gated currents from CA1- and CA3 pyramidal cells in hippocampal slices, were unable to find a direct effect of ethanol on GABA responsiveness. Likewise, Frye et al (1994) were unable to demonstrate an effect of pharmacologically active concentrations of ethanol on GABA-gated currents from neurons isolated from medial septal nucleus, a brain site where earlier in vivo recording showed enhancement of the inhibitory action of GABA by ethanol (Givens and Breese, 1990b; Criswell et al, 1993, 1995). Perfusion of 100 mM ethanol did not augment the effect of exogenous GABA applied to cultured cortical neurons (Marszalec et al, 1998)—an observation confirmed by Ming et al (2001). In a study comparing ethanol to longer chain alcohols, Peoples and Weight (1999) found that longer chain alcohols enhanced GABA-gated currents at pharmacologically relevant concentrations, whereas the extrapolated EC<sub>50</sub> for ethanol was 2.1 M—several times the lethal concentration. In a comprehensive study of neurons from differing regions of the CNS, Mori et al (2000) concluded that longer chain alcohols had reliable effects on GABA-gated currents at physiologically relevant concentrations, while ethanol did not. Additionally, a wide range of ethanol concentrations failed to enhance GABA-gated currents from neurons acutely dissociated from a number of brain regions previously found sensitive to zolpidem (Criswell et al, 2003). This point is illustrated in Figure 2. The topic of ethanol action on GABAA receptors has been reviewed by Aguayo et al (2002).

Most important to the concept that zolpidem predicted the action of ethanol on GABA function (Criswell et al,



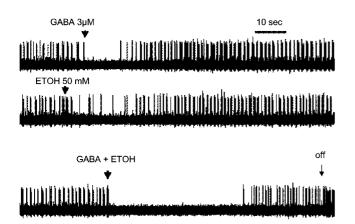
**Figure 2** Demonstration that ethanol does not enhance GABA responsiveness from isolated Purkinje neurons and neurons from other brain regions. For this investigation, neurons were enzymatically dissociated from 12 to 18 day Sprague—Dawley rats. An approximate EC<sub>20</sub> concentration of GABA was used in all cases. Illustration (a) on the left shows a lack of effect of 100 mM ethanol on GABA-gated current from a cerebellar Purkinje neuron. The right illustration (b) expressed as percent of control shows concentration—response curves for the effect of ethanol on neurons from substantia nigra reticulata (snr), lateral septum (ls) hippocampus (hip) thalamus (thal) and cerebellar Purkinje neurons (pkj). There was no significant effect of ethanol on GABA-gated currents at any concentration tested in these latter brain regions. Modified from Criswell et al. (2003).

1995), ethanol at reasonable concentrations did not alter the effect of GABA responsiveness when the  $\alpha_1\beta_2\gamma_{2L}$  combination was expressed in various cell lines (see Criswell et al, 2003; Kleingoor et al, 1991; Mihic et al, 1994; Mori et al, 2000; Sapp and Yeh, 1998; Sigel et al, 1993) or in oocytes (Harris et al, 1997)—a contrast to the positive effect found when the  $\alpha_1\beta_1\gamma_{2L}$  subunit combination was expressed in oocytes (Wafford et al, 1991) or L(tk<sup>-</sup>) cells (Harris et al, 1995c). Consequently, the view concerning the specificity for ethanol to affect the type-1-BZD receptor directly to enhance GABA function was placed in doubt. Given this conclusion that a direct effect of ethanol on the zolpidem receptor is not responsible for the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol (Criswell et al, 2003), the mechanism likely underlying ethanol enhancement of the ability of GABA to inhibit neuronal activity in vivo at brain sites with type-1-BZD receptors required resolution.

In contrast to work on dissociated neurons, several studies demonstrated that evoked release of GABA in a slice preparation was sensitive to ethanol (Carlen et al, 1982; Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Proctor et al, 1992; Roberto et al, 2003; Wan et al, 1996; Weiner et al, 1994a, b, 1997a, b). Carlen et al (1982) reported enhanced inhibitory postsynaptic potentials (IPSPs) from CA1 hippocampal cells by ethanol, an observation later confirmed by a number of laboratories (Proctor et al, 2004; Wan et al, 1996; Weiner et al, 1994a, b, 1997a). However, Siggins et al (1987b) reported that ethanol most often reduced hippocampal CA1 and CA3 neuronal IPSPs induced by stimulation of the hilar mossy fiber pathway. Proctor et al (1992) reported that ethanol did not enhance IPSPs from the hippocampus, but enhanced this measure from neurons in the cortex. Subsequently, Weiner et al (1997a) reported differing

sensitivity of subpopulations of rat CA1 pyramidal cells to evoked GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor mediated IPSCs by ethanol (see Wu et al, 2004). Wan et al (1996) found that IPSCs from CA1 pyramidal cells were only sensitive to ethanol enhancement in the presence of a GABA<sub>B</sub> antagonist, providing a mechanism for the variability reported (see subsequent section on GABA<sub>B</sub> receptor influences). In another brain region, investigators (Nie et al, 2004; Roberto et al, 2003) reported that ethanol enhanced IPSCs from amygdaloid neurons.

Even though the majority of responses to GABA from isolated neurons were not affected by ethanol (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Criswell et al, 2003; Frye et al, 1994; Mori et al, 2000; Peoples and Weight, 1999), under the appropriate conditions, work indicated that the effect of ethanol on in vivo single unit recording of neural firing provided consistent results within a brain region (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Criswell et al, 1995; Givens and Breese, 1990a; Nestoros, 1980; Palmer and Hoffer, 1990). Based upon knowing that ethanol has a local effect on GABA function when measuring neural rate in vivo, it was reasoned that ethanol would affect spontaneous single unit activity in a slice preparation. In this respect, Figure 3 demonstrates that ethanol reduced neural activity of a cerebellar Purkinje neuron in a slice and enhanced the action of GABA on this measure. Based upon these data demonstrating a local action of ethanol in the slice, previous data that ethanol is without effect on enhancement of GABA from isolated Purkinje neurons, and the positive effects of ethanol on evoked IPSCs in several brain regions, the neural action of ethanol on GABA transmission in vivo and in slices was assumed to depend upon mechanisms not available to individual neurons enzymatically isolated from brain or to cells transfected with the majority of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits.



**Figure 3** Effect of ethanol on neural rate from cerebellar Purkinje neurons. This figure illustrates the effect of GABA (top), ethanol (middle; 50 mM) and the combination of GABA and ethanol (bottom) on extracellularly recorded action potentials from a cerebellar Purkinje neuron in a slice preparation. Drugs were administered at the time point shown by the arrow and remain present for the remainder of the record. Note that both GABA and ethanol cause a temporary decrease in rate that returns over time. The combination of GABA and ethanol causes a much longer period of inhibition. The reason for the return of neural activity over time is not presently known but may involve local circuits that invoke homeostatic control (unpublished data).

# HYPOTHESIS FOR THE GABAMIMETIC PROFILE OF ETHANOL

For the most part, the apparent discrepancies concerning ethanol action on GABA function could be related to the in vitro preparations used to evaluate the action of ethanol, the region of brain investigated, factors responsible for maintaining IPSPs, or the presence of a specific receptor subtype within a given brain region being sensitive to ethanol. Regardless, with current evidence not being persuasive that ethanol has a direct effect on zolpidem-sensitive receptors to account for its GABAmimetic profile, new initiatives were needed to understand the overwhelming behavioral and in vivo electrophysiological studies linking ethanol to a GABAlike action. Of course, one proposed component that could contribute to its GABAmimetic profile would be a direct action of ethanol on selected BZD-insensitive GABAA receptors (Sundstrom-Poromaa et al, 2002; Wallner et al, 2003). However, as will be discussed, these BZD-insensitive GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors are believed to have limited localization in brain (Peng et al, 2002). While these selected BZDinsensitive receptors likely support the action of ethanol on GABA function in specific regions of brain, they cannot contribute to actions of ethanol related to GABAA receptors containing an  $\alpha_1$ -receptor subunit. Therefore, for systemic ethanol to display its GABAmimetic profile, it is hypothesized that ethanol affects mechanisms associated with GABA function distinct from a direct effect on the majority of postsynaptic GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors (Criswell and Breese, 2005). These neural mechanisms must be capable of supporting ethanol-depression of neural rate (Givens and Breese, 1990b) and the action of ethanol on evoked IPSCs (Roberto et al, 2003; Weiner et al, 1997a) from some, but not all, neurons within and across brain regions (Breese et al, 1984; McCown et al, 1986; Givens and Breese, 1990a, b; Weiner et al, 1997a). Potential neural mechanisms proposed to account for characteristics contributing to the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol are illustrated in Figure 4 and discussed in the legend.

In earlier work (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Siggins et al, 1987a, b), a possible presynaptic action of ethanol was suggested. Therefore, based upon this view, another action of ethanol distinct from a direct action on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors that could contribute to its GABAmimetic profile would be an ability to release GABA from presynaptic terminals (see Figure 4). Consistent with this view, Marszalec et al (1998) found that perfusion of 100 mM ethanol augmented GABAA receptor mediated IPSCs from rat cortical neurons, even though the effect of GABA applied to the neuron was not altered. Subsequently, Roberto et al (2003, 2004a) provided evidence that ethanol enhanced the effect of stimulusinduced GABA-mediated IPSPs and mIPSCs from neurons in slices from the central nucleus of the amygdala and caused release of GABA into microdialysates—clear evidence that ethanol could facilitate GABA release. This action of ethanol to release GABA can apparently be modified at presynaptic sites (see designation in Figure 4), by GABAB (Ariwodola and Weiner, 2004; Wan et al, 1996) and corticotrophin releasing factor (CRF; Nie et al, 2004) receptors. Additionally, other neurotransmitter receptors affected by ethanol can influence neural circuits that influence GABA transmission (Carta et al, 2003, 2004;

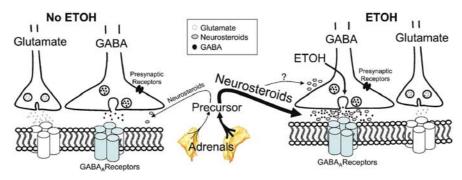


Figure 4 Proposed mechanisms for the *in vivo* GABAmimetic action of ethanol. As noted in the text, a direct action of ethanol on  $\alpha_4\beta_3\delta$  or  $\alpha_6\beta_3\delta$  GABAA receptors (Hanchar et al, 2004; Sundstrom-Poromaa et al, 2002; Wallner et al, 2003) could be a means by which ethanol is capable of enhancing GABA transmission in selected brain regions. Additionally, systemic administration of ethanol is proposed to result in an increase in GABA release from presynaptic terminals, as illustrated (right side under ETOH). This release of GABA by ethanol is thought to occur in some, but not all, regions of brain (see text). Data are noted in the text that presynaptic influences (note 'presynaptic receptor' designation in the figure) on GABAB (see Ariwodola and Weiner, 2004) and other transmitter receptors (Nie et al, 2004) can influence GABA released by ethanol. Additionally, following ethanol activation of the hypothalamicpituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis (denoted by the darkened arrows), ethanol increases neurosteroid precursors from the adrenal, which in turn results in increased neurosteroids in brain (Barbaccia et al, 1999; Khisti et al, 2003; O'Dell et al, 2004). Since neuroactive steroids enhance GABA responsiveness (Lambert et al, 2001, 2003; Paul and Purdy, 1992), it is proposed that the ethanol-induced enhancement of neurosteroid presence in brain synergizes the effect of GABA released by ethanol (Criswell and Breese, 2005). Finally, other possible means by which ethanol is capable of enhancing the effect of GABA is by reducing excitatory drive or by influencing phosphorylation of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors (see these topics in Additional Considerations). The relationship of each of these proposed mechanisms to the regional specificity of ethanol is discussed.

Crowder et al, 2002; Lomniczi et al, 2000; Yang et al, 1996).

Since acute ethanol increases neurosteroid levels in brain (see Morrow et al, 2004) and neurosteroids enhance the effect of GABA (Criswell et al, 2003; Harrison and Simmonds, 1984; Majewska et al, 1986), the increase in neurosteroids induced by acute ethanol exposure would be expected to synergize the response to GABA released by ethanol (see Figure 4). Furthermore, a reduction in functions associated with glutamate transmission would also contribute to facilitating the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol by decreasing the excitation that can counteract GABA inhibition (Figure 4, legend). This possibility is supported by earlier reports that ethanol inhibits evoked EPSPs (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Brancucci et al, 2004; Maldve et al, 2004; Siggins et al, 1987a, b; Ziskind-Conhaim et al, 2003). Another consideration could be influences of phosphorylation on GABA transmission (Freund and Palmer, 1997; Weiner et al, 1994a, 1997b).

Collectively, these actions of ethanol associated with influences on GABA function are proposed to contribute to its GABAmimetic profile after systemic administration. Critical to understanding the overall action of ethanol is defining the basis of its regionally specific action to influence GABA function and elucidating how this specificity in various brain regions affects distinct functions of the CNS. The current status of mechanisms in Figure 4 and legend, which are proposed to contribute to the GABAmimetic action of ethanol in vivo, are discussed below in relation to its regional specificity on GABA transmission.

#### PROPOSED ROLE FOR BZD-INSENSITIVE GABAA RECEPTORS IN ETHANOL ACTION

As noted earlier, low ethanol concentrations (3-30 mM) enhance the effects of GABA from transfected  $\alpha_4\beta_X\delta$  and  $\alpha_6 \beta_X \delta$  GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits expressed in vitro in oocytes (Sundstrom-Poromaa et al, 2002; Wallner et al, 2003). Consistent with ethanol having an effect on neurons with BZD-insensitive receptors, low concentrations of ethanol also selectively augmented the tonic GABA inhibition of granule cells that contain the  $\alpha_4$  and  $\delta$  GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits, but did not have an effect on CA1 pyramidal cells containing the  $\alpha_5\beta_3\gamma_{2/3}$  subunits (Wei *et al*, 2004). Likewise, hippocampal neurons with increased levels of the  $\alpha_4$ -receptor subunit following progesterone withdrawal were sensitive to low doses of ethanol (Smith et al., 2004; Sundstrom-Poromaa et al, 2002). Upregulation of the  $\alpha_4$ -receptor subunit has been associated with increased sensitivity to the anxiolytic action of ethanol (Sundstrom-Poromaa et al, 2002).

It is recognized that GABA has an extremely high affinity for some BZD-insensitive receptors containing the  $\delta$  subunit, but a relatively low efficacy (Wallner *et al*, 2003). In some cases, the BDZ-insensitive receptors carry a major portion of the inhibitory current (Mody, 2001; Nusser and Mody, 2002; Hamann et al, 2002). Further, it is proposed that GABAA receptors present at extrasynaptic sites on neurons (Mody, 2001; Nusser et al, 1998; Nusser and Mody, 2002) are endogenous  $\alpha_4 \beta_X \delta$  and  $\alpha_6 \beta_X \delta$ subtypes, which would be probable targets of ethanol action (Hanchar et al, 2004). Thus, in brain areas with high concentrations of BDZ-insensitive receptors containing the  $\delta$  subunit, ethanol could have a major effect on GABA function. Given the sensitivity of these BZD-insensitive receptor subtypes to ethanol, work like that previously undertaken with 200 mM ethanol to identify critical sites for ethanol action (Mihic et al, 1997) should be performed at low ethanol concentrations (ie <60 mM) on the BZDinsensitive GABAA receptor subtypes to define the molecular basis of the difference between these receptors and those subtypes only sensitive to a high level of ethanol (ie  $> 100 \, \text{mM}$ ).

HE Criswell and GR Breese

The effect of ethanol in knockout mice with various subunits making up BZD-insensitive receptor subtypes provided important insight into their contribution to the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol. The effects of ethanol in various GABA<sub>A</sub>-receptor knockout mouse models have been reviewed (Boehm et al, 2004). The GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  $\delta$ knockout mice exhibit normal anxiolytic action to ethanol (Mihalek et al, 2001), but deficits in seizure sensitivity and a reduction in the anticonvulsant action of ethanol (Mihalek et al, 2001; Spigelman et al, 2002). The discriminative stimulus by ethanol, as well as that for other GABAA receptor ligands, was not altered in  $\delta$ -knockout mice (Shannon et al, 2004). Finally, an absence of the  $\delta$ - and the α<sub>6</sub>-GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits did not alter ethanolinduced sleep time (Mihalek et al, 2001) or righting reflex (Homanics et al, 1997, 1998). Clearly, not all behavioral responses associated with ethanol action are affected by specific removal of subunits forming the BZD-insensitive receptors (Homanics et al, 1997, 1998; Mihalek et al, 2001; Shannon et al, 2004; Spigelman et al, 2002). The potential of these GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtypes to provide an understanding of ethanol action was discussed by Harris and Mihic (2004).

The restricted anatomical localization of the  $\alpha_6$ ,  $\alpha_4$ , and δ-GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits (Gutierrez et al, 1996; Laurie et al, 1992; Peng et al, 2002), and these combinations contributing less than 5% of the total GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor pool (Hanchar et al, 2004), likely explains the limited effects removal of the subunits associated with the BZD-insensitive receptors have on function. Nonetheless, definition of specific brain regions influenced by an action of ethanol on these BZD-insensitive receptors, which could support selected functions associated with the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol, remains an open issue. However, the complexity of this interpretation is exemplified by the recent observation that GABA responses from the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor on granule cells in the cerebellum, which are thought to contain  $\alpha_6 \beta_X \delta$  subunits (Hamann et al, 2002), were not affected by ethanol (Carta et al, 2004). However, Hanchar et al (2005) recently published data that a variant of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  $[\alpha_6(R100)\beta_3\delta]$  on cerebellar granule cells was more sensitive to ethanol than the native receptor. The basis of this apparent conflict concerning the effect of ethanol on this receptor subtype on the cerebellar granule neurons requires further investigation (see discussion by Carta et al, 2004).

In contrast to the lack of an effect in  $\alpha_6$  and  $\delta$  knockout mice on ethanol-induced sedation (Homanics et al, 1997, 1998; Mihalek et al, 2001), deletion of the  $\alpha_1$ -GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunit minimizes the sedative effect of ethanol (Kralic et al, 2003) indicative of a role of this receptor subtype in the sedative properties of ethanol. Owing to the lack of sensitivity of BZD-insensitive receptors to zolpidem (Derry et al, 2004; Knoflach et al, 1996; Yang et al, 1995), these GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors containing the  $\alpha_4/\alpha_6/\beta_X\delta$  subunits would not be viable candidates for ethanol action in brain regions with type-1-BZD (zolpidem) receptors—sites where ethanol was shown earlier in vivo to support enhancement of GABA (Criswell et al, 1993, 1995). Therefore, additional initiatives undertaken were directed at clarifying the means by which ethanol might display its influence on GABA transmission at sites lacking BZD-insensitive receptors by a

mechanism distinct from a direct effect on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor

## EVIDENCE FOR ETHANOL-INDUCED RELEASE OF GABA—A MAJOR CONTRIBUTOR

A logical contribution, consistent with the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol, would be that ethanol releases GABA from presynaptic terminals. Such an action would certainly result in a GABA-related response. The first potential evidence that ethanol might affect mechanisms related to GABA release was the demonstration that ethanol altered levels of GABA in the cortex and cerebellum following systemic administration (Gordon, 1967). In contrast to this finding, Frye and Breese (1982) did not find a change in GABA levels after acute ethanol administration in three brain regions, including the cerebellum. However, measurement of tissue level after ethanol would require sufficient release of GABA to reduce content. Therefore, alternative approaches were required to test this hypothesis.

A direct approach utilized to evaluate the potential action of ethanol on presynaptic release of GABA was microdialysis. However, various investigations using microdialysis were unable to demonstrate an elevation of GABA by acute ethanol from nucleus accumbens, ventral pallidum, or the ventral tegmental area (Cowen et al, 1998; Dahchour et al, 1994; Heidbreder and De Witte, 1993; Piepponen et al, 2002). On the other hand, Roberto et al (2004a) demonstrated an ethanol dose-related release of GABA from amygdala utilizing this approach. One possibility for this apparent discrepancy among the various dialysis studies would be ethanol having a selective effect on GABA release in some, but not all, brain regions—a possibility to be delineated in future experiments.

In spite of the ambiguity of these latter approaches to define an ethanol induction of GABA release, several recent investigations utilizing alternative procedures provided credence for a direct effect of ethanol on presynaptic terminals to release GABA. In this respect, Melis *et al* (2002) found that ethanol increased the frequency of miniature inhibitory postsynaptic potentials (mIPSPs) from ventral tegmental neurons, a finding in accord with GABA release, but in apparent conflict with data collected with microdialysis (Cowen et al, 1998). Likewise, Ziskind-Conhaim et al (2003) demonstrated that 70 mM ethanol increased the number of mIPSPs related to GABA release from neurons in slices of rat spinal cord. A similar presynaptic action of ethanol to increase the frequency of GABA-related mIPSCs was observed from all neurons in slices containing the central nucleus of the amygdala (Roberto et al, 2003), a finding consistent with the ethanol-induced increase of GABA in microdialysates from this site (Roberto et al, 2004a). Ethanol also increased the frequency of mIPSCs from CA1 pyramidal neurons in slices of hippocampus (Sanna et al, 2004), and from brain stem motor neurons (Sebe et al, 2003). In addition to the work on mIPSCs performed in slices (see Roberto et al, 2003, 2004a; Nie et al, 2004; Carta et al, 2004), the use of mechanically dissociated neurons that have terminals attached (see Akaike and Moorhouse, 2003) has allowed confirmation of the conclusion that ethanol indeed has the ability to release GABA

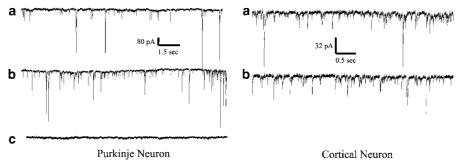


Figure 5 Ethanol increases mIPSCs from isolated cerebellar Purkinje neurons (left), but not from cortical neurons (right): blockade of ethanol effect by bicuculline (left). On the left (cerebellar Purkinje), the top trace (a) shows a representative 15 s sample of mIPSCs from a mechanically dissociated cerebellar Purkinje neuron from rat brain. The middle trace (b) shows the increase in frequency of mIPSCs from 3.1 Hz in the absence of ethanol (a) to 10.0 Hz in the presence of 50 mM ethanol (b). Trace C demonstrates a block of mIPSPs induced by ethanol with bicuculline. The ethanol did not change the amplitude or decay time of mIPSCs from the cerebellar Purkinje neurons. On the right (Cortex), the top trace (a) shows a 5 s sample of mIPSCs from a mechanically dissociated cortical neuron. The bottom trace (b) illustrates the lack of increase in frequency of mIPSCs from 13.1 Hz in the absence of ethanol (a) to 11.6 Hz in the presence of 50 mM ethanol (b). There was also no change in amplitude or of decay time. All recordings were made in the presence of 500 nM tetrodotoxin to eliminate the influence of preterminal Na+ currents. Criswell et al (2004) has shown that the increased frequency of mIPSCs from cerebellar Purkinje neurons is concentration related (from Criswell et al, 2004 and unpublished data).

directly from presynaptic terminals. Utilizing this approach, Criswell et al (2004) provided evidence that ethanol increased the frequency of mIPSCs from cerebellar Purkinje neurons. An example is presented in Figure 5. Since these mIPSCs were blocked by bicuculline, postsynaptic GABAA receptors were activated by the ethanol-induced release of GABA (Figure 5). Zhu and Lovinger (2004) reported similar ethanol enhancement of the frequency of mIPSCs from neurons mechanically dissociated from the basolateral amygdala.

Thus, these recent findings in vitro showing that ethanol increases the frequency of mIPSCs from neurons in slices and from mechanically dissociated neurons provide needed evidence that ethanol is capable of releasing GABA from presynaptic terminals. However, our laboratory found that ethanol did not enhance miniature currents from isolated cortical neurons (Figure 5, Cortex)—a finding suggesting that ethanol does not release GABA from terminals in all brain locations. In accord with this view, Dubois et al (2004) found that ethanol decreased the frequency of mIPSCs of cultured septal neurons without changing decay kinetics. These latter observations would be consistent with in vivo electrophysiological recording showing that ethanol has regionally specific actions on GABA function (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Givens and Breese, 1990a, b; Criswell et al, 1993, 1995); however, the extent that ethanol has a regional action on GABA release has yet to be defined.

The demonstrated presynaptic action of ethanol to increase the frequency of GABA-induced mIPSCs (Criswell et al, 2004; Roberto et al, 2003, 2004a; Siggins et al, 2005; Zhu and Lovinger, 2004) supports the view that ethanol can affect a mechanism related to GABA function distinct from a postsynaptic action on GABAA receptors (see Figure 4). These findings can also explain the positive interaction of ethanol with modulators of GABAA receptor function, such as barbiturates and BZDs (Akaike et al, 1990; Puia et al, 1991), by their enhancing the effect of GABA released by ethanol. Since Sebe et al (2003) and Li et al (2003) described a developmental consequence of ethanol action to influence GABA transmission, testing the role of presynaptic release of GABA by ethanol in this developmental process should be investigated. For the present, the mechanism by which ethanol induces release of GABA from some, but not all, terminals is uncertain, but is a finding that should receive attention. Likewise, the mechanism of the specificity for this action on GABA release not being universal for all neurotransmitter release must also be considered. The next question that arose was whether any other mechanisms or actions of ethanol could contribute to the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol by affecting the degree to which GABA is released.

## OTHER NEURAL MECHANISMS INFLUENCING GABA RELEASE: RELATION TO ETHANOL ACTION

#### GABA<sub>B</sub> Receptor Involvement

Several studies demonstrated that GABA<sub>B</sub> receptor antagonists enhance the ability of ethanol to facilitate GABA transmission in the hippocampus (Ariwodola and Weiner, 2004; Wan et al, 1996; Wu et al, 2004) and nucleus accumbens (Nie et al, 2000). Melis et al (2002) linked the long-lasting potentiation of GABAergic synapses on dopaminergic neurons in the ventral tegmental area by systemic ethanol to an effect on presynaptic GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors. Ariwodola and Weiner (2004) recently suggested that the effect of ethanol to facilitate GABA transmission is limited because of GABA feedback on presynaptic GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors. Wu et al (2004) reported that the presence of GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors accounted for the difference in sensitivity to ethanol influences on GABA transmission in differing subfields of the hippocampus (see Weiner et al, 1997a). Additionally, GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors did not influence GABA release from neurons in the amygdala (Roberto et al, 2003). Thus, the involvement of GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors on GABA release in various brain regions may not be universal, suggestive that the presence or absence of presynaptic GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors may be an important determinant for the regional specificity of ethanol to affect GABA transmission (Ariwodola and Weiner, 2004).





#### Other Presynaptic Receptor Involvement

In addition to GABA itself influencing GABA release via GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors, other neurotransmitter systems acting at presynaptic sites can influence GABA release. Nie et al (2004) showed that CRF is involved in controlling the presynaptic action of ethanol in amygdala, implying that CRF influences GABA release. Yang et al (1996) demonstrated in vivo that nicotine inhibition in medial septum involved activation of GABA release by presynaptic nicotinic cholinergic receptors—a means by which ethanol and nicotine may interact. Defining the potential role of ethanol action on nicotinic receptor influences on GABA transmission could be a means to understand the high incidence of nicotine addiction in alcoholics. Missing from consideration is testing the effect of ethanol on the myriad of other neurotransmitters and mechanisms that appear to influence presynaptic release of GABA (Cossart et al, 2001; Gitler et al, 2004; Ho et al, 2003; Kerchner et al, 2001; Meir et al, 1999; Miller, 1998; Nakamura et al, 2003; Saitow et al, 2001; Satake et al, 2000).

#### Circuit Dependent Influences

In addition to work demonstrating direct presynaptic influences of ethanol to affect GABA transmission, other studies describe circuit-dependent effects of ethanol on GABA release. For example, Lomniczi et al (2000) reported that incubation of hypothalamic tissue with ethanol resulted in GABA release—a change proposed to relate to ethanolinduced release of endorphin. Crowder et al (2002) reported that ethanol concentrations as low as 20 mM inhibit kainate-induced inhibition of GABAA IPSCs from CA1 hippocampal neurons (see Weiner et al, 1999). Subsequently, Carta et al (2003) reported that ethanol inhibition of kainate receptor excitation of GABA-containing interneurons reduced GABA release on CA1 neurons. In an investigation of cerebellar granule cells, Carta et al (2004) described an ethanol effect on a GABAergic inhibition of cerebellar granule cells via a release of GABA due to activation of Golgi cells—a circuit-dependent mechanism blocked by TTX.

Collectively, defining the possible influence of ethanol on presynaptic mechanisms that influence GABA release, as well as its actions on other neurotransmitter systems that indirectly influence release, is important to understand ethanol action on GABA transmission. Defining the relationship of these actions to the regional specificity in various brain regions could be a fertile area of future research.

## NEUROSTEROID INVOLVEMENT IN THE GABAMIMETIC PROFILE OF ETHANOL: ENHANCEMENT OF THE EFFECT OF GABA RELEASED BY ETHANOL

Progesterone released from the adrenal gland (Holzbauer et al, 1985) serves as a precursor for neurosteroids in brain (see Barbaccia et al, 2001; Mellon et al, 2001). Acute administration of ethanol activates the hypothalamicpituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and increases plasma precursors for neurosteroids, resulting in elevated neuroster-

oids in brain (Barbaccia et al, 1999; Morrow et al, 2001)—a change blocked by adrenalectomy (Khisti et al, 2002, 2003) and by combining adrenalectomy and gonadectomy (O'Dell et al, 2004). As seen in male and female rats (Morrow et al, 1999), ethanol has a like effect to increase allopregnanolone levels in both male and female adolescent humans (Torres and Ortega, 2003, 2004). As it is well known that neurosteroids enhance the action of GABA (Harrison and Simmonds, 1984; Majewska et al, 1986), the increase in brain neurosteroids induced by acute ethanol could presumably contribute to its GABAmimetic profile.

Even though Gabriel et al (2004) found that allopregnanolone did not influence ethanol-induced place preference, other work emphasized a relationship of neurosteroid action to ethanol pharmacology by demonstrating that discrimination for ethanol generalized to neurosteroids (Ator et al, 1993; Bowen et al, 1999; Grant et al, 1996). Additionally, exogenous neurosteroid altered the reinforcement responding for ethanol (Janak et al, 1998) and reinstated previously extinguished responding for ethanol (Nie and Janak, 2003). Further, a neurosteroid enhanced ethanol consumption in two-bottle preference test (Sinnott et al, 2002). These findings, which demonstrate an interaction of ethanol and neurosteroids, are consistent with these compounds sharing influences on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors.

A variety of other functional investigations, in which neurosteroid production was inhibited, also supported the view that central neurosteroids interact with actions of ethanol. VanDoren et al (2000) were able to reduce the anticonvulsant action of ethanol and completely block the effect of moderate concentrations of ethanol on medial septal neurons by minimizing the production of neurosteroids with the  $5\alpha$ -reductase inhibitor finasteride. Likewise, Tokunaga et al (2003) demonstrated a reduction of ethanol action on neural activity in the hippocampus by inhibiting neuroactive steroid production. However, finasteride did not affect duration of loss of righting by ethanol (Khisti et al, 2003; VanDoren et al, 2000), possibly because the enzyme blocked by this synthesis inhibitor is localized to specific brain regions not related to this functional measure.

Since adrenalectomy reduces neurosteroids as noted previously (Khisti et al, 2002, 2003; O'Dell et al, 2004), this approach provided an alternative to evaluate the role of neurosteroids in the action of ethanol. An early study by Bowers et al (1991) noted that adrenalectomy increased bicuculline-induced seizure sensitivity in long-sleep and short-sleep mice. A subsequent study demonstrated that adrenalectomy reduced the sedative action of ethanol (Khisti et al, 2003). This adrenalectomy-induced deficiency of ethanol action was reversed by administration of the neurosteroid, allopregnanolone (3-alpha-hydroxy-5-alphapregnan-20-one; Khisti et al, 2003). Even though adrenalectomy did not completely eliminate the sedation induced by ethanol (Khisti et al, 2003), the reduction of ethanol action by adrenalectomy implied that a significant part of the sedation related to ethanol is dependent upon its activation of the HPA axis to increase neurosteroids. Based upon the findings that reducing neurosteroid content in brain minimized sedation and other actions of ethanol, Morrow et al (1999, 2001, 2004) suggested that the increase in neurosteroids following acute ethanol administration contributes to its actions.

A missing link for understanding neurosteroid contribution to the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol was the specific means of their involvement—a circumstance that has not been given the attention it deserves. While reports suggested a direct interaction between ethanol and neurosteroids on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor function (Akk and Steinbach, 2003; Criswell et al, 1999), recent data from our laboratory questions this observation (Criswell et al, 2003). Further, it should be recognized that the concentration of neurosteroid following ethanol (<100 nM) is likely insufficient to have a direct effect on GABAA receptors to gate current in the absence of GABA (Callachan et al, 1987; Cottrell et al, 1987; Puia et al, 1990). This circumstance minimizes the possibility that a direct activation of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor function by neurosteroids is responsible for the neurosteroid contribution to the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol. However, given the recent report consistent with a direct effect of neurosteroids on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor gating (Shu et al, 2004), some caution must be taken with this interpretation.

A clue to the mechanism by which the ethanol-induced increase in neurosteroids could influence GABA function was a study by Kang et al (1998), who noted that a neurosteroid enhanced evoked IPSCs from hippocampal neurons. Likewise, Vicini et al (2002) found that a neurosteroid enhanced decay time of mIPSCs. A finding directly relevant to the mechanism by which ethanol enhances GABA transmission was the study by Sanna et al (2004), who found that the effect of ethanol on decay time of mIPSCs in the hippocampus was dependent upon brain steroidogenesis. Utilizing mechanically dissociated cerebellar Purkinje neurons, Figure 6 shows that the neuroactive steroid, alphaxalone, enhances the decay time of mIPSCs induced by 50 mM ethanol without affecting amplitude. Collectively, such data are consistent with the proposal that the ethanol-induced increase in neurosteroids, by its activation of the HPA axis, enhances (synergizes) the responsiveness of the GABA released by ethanol from presynaptic terminals. These combined actions are proposed to be the primary contributors to the GABAmimetic profile of ethanol (Figure 4). Further, the specificity of neurosteroids on differing GABAA receptor subtypes (see Belelli et al, 2002; Bianchi and Macdonald, 2003; Lambert et al, 2001, 2003; Spigelman et al, 2003; Stell et al, 2003; Wallner et al, 2003) could conceivably contribute to the regional specificity of ethanol on GABA function.

In addition to enhancing the effect of GABA, Haage and Johansson (1999) and Haage et al (2002) stated that neurosteroids increase the frequency of mIPSCs from preoptic nerves, suggestive of a presynaptic action of these compounds to release GABA. This neurosteroid enhancement of mIPSCs from medial preoptic neurons has been confirmed by Uchida et al (2002). Sulfated neuroactive steroids can inhibit GABA release from hippocampal pyramidal cells by acting on a sigma receptor (Mtchedlishvili and Kapur, 2003). While our laboratory has confirmed the ability of a sulfated neurosteroid to inhibit GABA release (unpublished data from Purkinje neurons), our laboratory and others (Cooper et al, 1999; Puia et al, 2003) have not observed a change in frequency of mIPSCs at low concentrations of unsulfated neuroactive steroids from terminals influencing hippocampal or cerebellar Purkinje neurons. If neurosteroids are found to release GABA from

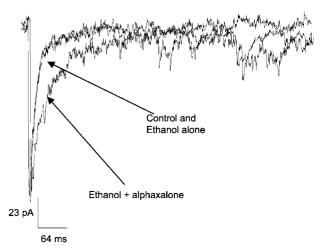


Figure 6 Alphaxalone, a neuroactive steroid, increases decay time of mIPSCs associated with ethanol-induced GABA release. The traces show the scaled mean of 12-14 mIPSCs recorded from a cerebellar Purkinje neuron after ethanol application (50 mM; ethanol alone) in the absence (control) and presence of 100 nM alphaxalone (ethanol + alphaxalone). The control and ethanol traces overlap indicating a lack of effect of ethanol on decay time. However, addition of the 100 nM alphaxalone in the presence of ethanol prolonged the decay time. The curves were best fit by a double exponential curve with  $\tau_1 = 3.31$  ms and  $\tau_2 = 49.5$  ms for the control condition (ethanol alone) and  $\tau_1 = 2.86 \, \text{ms}$  and  $\tau_2 = 125.8 \, \text{ms}$  in the presence of alphaxalone. Alphaxalone had similar effects on increasing the decay time of the mIPSCs in the absence of ethanol. This finding illustrates a direct action of alphaxalone on the GABAA receptor complex to increase the effectiveness of GABA in the presence of ethanol (unpublished data).

some, but not all, brain regions, this potential action on GABA function would be an additional way the ethanolinduced increase in central neurosteroids could contribute to its regional specificity on GABA function—a possibility that must be tested.

#### ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

In addition to the factors already discussed, there are other aspects of ethanol pharmacology that may contribute to its GABAmimetic profile that require further investigation. Selected factors are discussed below.

#### Phosphorylation and Ethanol Action on GABA Function

One area that needs clarification is the role of phosphorylation on GABA transmission and ethanol's effect on this process. Some GABAA receptors have consensus sites for phosphorylation (Browning et al, 1990; Kellenberger et al, 1992). Phosphorylation of these sites results in an alteration in GABA-related currents (Kellenberger et al, 1992; Leidenheimer et al, 1992). In a seminal publication, Weiner et al (1994b) reported that ethanol enhancement of IPSCs from hippocampal CA1 neurons was modulated by PKC, an observation later confirmed (Weiner et al, 1997b). In contrast to this consistent finding, mice with the PKCE and PKC $\gamma$  isoforms provided differing effects on ethanol action. Removal of PKCE gene enhanced the behavioral



response to ethanol (Hodge et al, 1999; Proctor et al, 2003), suggestive that phosphorylation by this enzyme facilitates its GABAmimetic profile. On the other hand, mutant mice lacking the  $\gamma$  isoform of PKC exhibit a decrease in behavioral responses to ethanol and the action of ethanol on GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor function is abolished (Harris et al, 1995a), suggestive that removal of this PKC isoform results in a reduction of ethanol action on GABA function. Consistent with these in vivo results, Proctor et al (2003) reported that ethanol (80 mM) enhancement of IPSCs from CA1 hippocampal neurons was absent in the PKCy null mice, but potentiated in PKCε null mice. Needing clarification is whether differing isoforms of PKC have alternative means of affecting the action of ethanol on GABA function (eg altering either pre- or postsynaptic functions). Whether the differing isoforms of PKC have a differing regional specificity to alter the action of ethanol on GABA function has not been investigated. Additionally, the role of PKA in modifying ethanol action requires further examination—a need given the suggestion that this enzyme may be responsible for beta-adrenergic stimulation that allows ethanol action to enhance GABA function from cerebellar Purkinje neurons (Freund et al, 1993; Freund and Palmer, 1997). Additionally, altered phosphorylation can modulate inhibitory synaptic currents associated with neurosteroid action (Vicini et al, 2002). Definition of the basis of these differing findings concerning phosphorylation modifying the action of ethanol on GABA transmission is likely to further clarify whether this process contributes to ethanol's regional specificity.

## Ethanol on Excitatory Drive

In whole animals, the GABAmimetic action of ethanol in vivo could also be related to reduce excitatory function. In this respect, Ziskind-Conhaim et al (2003) found a decrease in the number of glutamate mediated miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSCs) from spinal cord neurons, under the same conditions as those in which GABA-related minipotentials were increased. Likewise, Maldve et al (2004) found ethanol inhibition of vesicular release at excitatory synapses and Brancucci et al (2004) found that ethanol reduced the efficacy of excitatory glutamatergic transmission on dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars compacta. In the ventral tegmental area, Stobbs et al (2004) found that ethanol had inhibitory effects on excitatory glutamatergic neurotransmission. Additionally, ethanol is reported to diminish glutamate release in nucleus accumbens (Piepponen et al, 2002; Yan et al, 1998), to reduce the probability of glutamate release at the crayfish neuromuscular junction (Strawn and Cooper, 2002), and to minimize potassium stimulated glutamate release in the guinea pig hippocampus (Butters et al, 2001). On the other hand, Roberto et al (2004b) found that acute ethanol (5–66 mM) did not affect paired pulse facilitation of EPSPs and EPSCs in naïve rat central amygdala and that infusion of ethanol by reverse microdialysis did not affect glutamate in dialysates from this site. Collectively, these limited findings suggest that acute ethanol is capable of reducing glutamate release in some, but not all, brain regions. Nonetheless, acute ethanol can also reduce the postsynaptic effects of NMDA and non-NMDA receptors mediating excitation (see Crews et al, 1996)—another change that would reduce excitatory drive and allow greater effectiveness of GABA released by ethanol. As with GABA transmission, a number of presynaptic mechanisms can influence glutamate release (see Brown et al, 2004; Jones and Wonnacott, 2004). Since ethanol increases neurosteroids, another aspect that should receive future attention is the possibility that pregnenolone sulfate may enhance spontaneous glutamate release (see Meyer et al, 2002), while reducing release of GABA (Mtchedlishvili and Kapur, 2003). Such an action would likely relate to adaptations induced by chronic ethanol exposure.

#### **SUMMARY**

From this commentary, the view that an integration of various actions of ethanol that influence GABA function contributes to its GABAmimetic profile appears reasonable (Criswell and Breese, 2005). However, it is emphasized that documentation of this integration is in its infancy. In view of the reported specificity of ethanol action within and at differing sites in brain (Bloom and Siggins, 1987; Givens and Breese, 1990a, b; Criswell et al, 1993, 1995; Weiner et al, 1997a), additional investigation of the potential regional specificity for each of the mechanisms proposed to collectively influence the in vivo GABAmimetic profile of ethanol should be defined. Given reports that ethanol can affect ion channels that influence membrane potential (see Blednov et al, 2001; Davies et al, 2003; Kobayashi et al, 1999; Lewohl et al, 1999; Carlen et al, 1982; Gruol et al, 1997), this area also warrants further investigation, particularly given that small changes in membrane potential can have potent effects on neural activity (North, 1989). Likewise, further attention should be given to whether GABA uptake is affected by ethanol, as an effect on this function could be a means by which ethanol could influence the effectiveness of GABA released by ethanol. The focus proposed should allow identification of specific brain regions responsible for various functions affected by ethanol, extending our understanding of ethanol's varied physiological and functional consequences—particularly those that relate to its GABAmimetic profile. Ultimately, delineation of the contribution of each of the proposed mechanisms influencing the acute pharmacology of ethanol might provide future clues for addressing alcohol abuse.

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