

## Exploring ligand recognition and ion flow in comparative models of the human GABA type A receptor

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### Abstract

We present two comparative models of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. Model 1 is based on the 4-Å resolution structure of the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor from *Torpedo marmorata* and represents the unliganded receptor. Two agonists, GABA and muscimol, two benzodiazepines, flunitrazepam and alprazolam, together with the general anaesthetic halothane, have been docked to this model. The ion flow is also explored in model 1 by evaluating the interaction energy of a chloride ion as it traverses the extracellular, transmembrane and intracellular domains of the protein. Model 2 differs from model 1 only in the extracellular domain and represents the liganded receptor. Comparison between the two models not only allows us to explore commonalities and differences with comparative models of the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor, but also suggests possible protein sub-domain interactions with the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor not previously addressed.

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### 1. Introduction

The family of  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid type A receptors (GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors) is responsible for the majority of fast neuronal inhibition in the mammalian central nervous system. These oligomeric proteins belong to the cys-loop family of ligand-gated ion channels that includes the nicotinic acetylcholine (nACh), glycine and 5HT<sub>3</sub> receptors. The GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors are composed of five subunits arranged pseudosymmetrically around the integral anion channel [63]. The subunits, of which 19 have thus far been identified, are separated into

classes based on their sequence similarity: there are six  $\alpha$ -subunits, three  $\beta$ , three  $\gamma$ , three  $\rho$  and single representatives of  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\theta$  and  $\pi$ . The precise subunit isoform composition of the oligomer defines the recognition and biophysical characteristics of the particular receptor subtype. The most ubiquitous subtype, which accounts for approximately 30% of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors in the mammalian brain [95], contains two  $\alpha_1$ -, two  $\beta_2$ - and a single  $\gamma_2$ -subunit [30].

The GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors can be divided into three structural domains. First, the large extracellular domain carries the recognition sites for both the natural agonist GABA and the clinically important benzodiazepines [3,27,96]. Secondly, the transmembrane domain forms the ion channel and contains the channel gate [4], in addition to an intra-helical hydrophobic pocket that is important for the interaction of these receptors with intravenous and volatile anaesthetics [39]. Finally, the intracellular domain contains portals through which ions access

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the cell cytoplasm. These portals appear to have a significant impact on channel conductance in other members of this family, i.e., the 5HT<sub>3</sub> receptors [47] and the neuronal nAChRs [37].

The three-dimensional structure of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor has not yet been determined experimentally. A number of homology models have been constructed recently and these have been based on both the low resolution structure of the homologous *Torpedo* nAChR, obtained by cryoelectron microscopy [60,90] and the X-ray structures of related acetylcholine binding proteins (AChBP) [11,16–18,38], which are homologous to the extracellular domain of this receptor family. Here we have generated one such model using the most recently published structural information of the nAChR at 4 Å resolution [90]. This has allowed us to produce a homology model of the most common form of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor (( $\alpha_1$ )<sub>2</sub>( $\beta_2$ )<sub>2</sub> $\gamma_2$ ) that includes the extracellular, membrane-spanning and intracellular domains.

We have used this model (referred to here as model 1) to explore, for the first time, the ion passage through the complete receptor from the extracellular to the intracellular space. While recognising the restricted resolution of the side chains in several segments of the total structure, we have used this model to dock a number of ligands, having well-characterised recognition properties, to this particular GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subtype. The recognition domains have been explored further by refining the docking results using either calculations of site electrostatic potentials or studies of the interactions of alternative conformers of the ligand that have known differences in their activity.

In addition, we have produced a second model (model 2) from more recently available data in which other homologous AChBPs have been crystallised in the presence of different ligands [16–18,38]. It is clear from these reports that the conformation of the receptor is distinct when occupied with agonist. Our data suggest that our model 1 is the apo-form of the receptor, while model 2 may represent an agonist-bound receptor complex that favours the open-channel conformation of the receptor. We have used model 2 to explore potential interactions that may occur only in the activated receptor.

Comparison of our models with hypotheses that have been developed for the nAChR in relation to the link between agonist recognition and channel gating [82,99] suggests that analogous interactions within the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors are quite distinct. The purpose of this work has been to generate GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor models which can be tested experimentally and thus allow their further refinement.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Comparative modelling

The subunit composition we used for the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor model has the stoichiometry ( $\alpha_1$ )<sub>2</sub>( $\beta_2$ )<sub>2</sub> $\gamma_2$ . This is the most common receptor subtype in the human central nervous system [5,70].

The amino acid sequences of the  $\alpha_1$ - (P14867),  $\beta_2$ - (P47870) and  $\gamma_2$ - (P18507) subunits of the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor were

taken from the UniProt [98]. A multiple alignment of these sequences, together with homologues collected by BLAST [1], was generated by MAFFT [46]. Putative transmembrane helices were predicted by THMHMM [49], which showed good agreement with the four conserved hydrophobic blocks in the alignment.

A structure-based alignment of all five chains of the nAChR structure [90] (PDB 2BG9) was generated with STAMP [73] and COMPARER [74]. Based on this alignment and the atomic coordinates, a structural profile for nAChR was created using FUGUE [78]. The multiple sequence alignment of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor was then aligned against this structural profile using FUGUE. The resulting sequence-structure alignment, annotated and examined with JOY [61], showed the four transmembrane helices (M1–M4) consistently aligned between nAChR and the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor.

In the nAChR structure, most of the region between M3 and M4 appears to be disordered and no atomic coordinates are available, with the exception of the MA helices [90]. There is a long insertion of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor sequences corresponding to this region. This portion and the short N-terminal regions of the complete amino acid sequences (variable among the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunits) were excised from the sequence-structure alignment. There was no obvious sequence conservation in the M3–M4 region and the alignment appeared to be ambiguous. Following the discussion by Ernst et al. [29], we have adopted their ‘two-gap’ alignment for this region, and the overall alignment was adjusted manually. Fig. 1 shows the final alignment of these sequences, and defines the amino acid numbering scheme we have used throughout this paper, the sequences being colour-coded according to [88].

For model building, only one template structure was chosen for each subunit of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor according to the following equivalences:

nAChR	GABA <sub>A</sub> receptor
$\alpha$ (2BG9 chain A)	$\beta_2$
$\beta$ (2BG9 chain B)	$\gamma_2$
$\delta$ (2BG9 chain C)	$\alpha_1$
$\alpha$ (2BG9 chain D)	$\beta_2$
$\gamma$ (2BG9 chain E)	$\alpha_1$

This equivalence is based on the position of the binding site for agonists. In the nAChR, the agonist binding site has the  $\alpha$ -subunit on the C-loop side (by convention, the ‘positive’ side), and the  $\delta$ - or  $\gamma$ -subunit on the F-loop side (the ‘negative’ side). In the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor, the agonist activation site has the  $\beta$ -subunit on the ‘positive’ side, and the  $\alpha$ -subunit on the ‘negative’ side.

These target-template pairs were extracted from the sequence-structure alignment and concatenated to create a single alignment corresponding to the entire receptor. This final alignment (see Fig. 1) was used as input to MODELLER [33,75] for building a model of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. All five chains of the PDB entry 2BG9 were used simultaneously as the template. The modelled structure included the following residues:

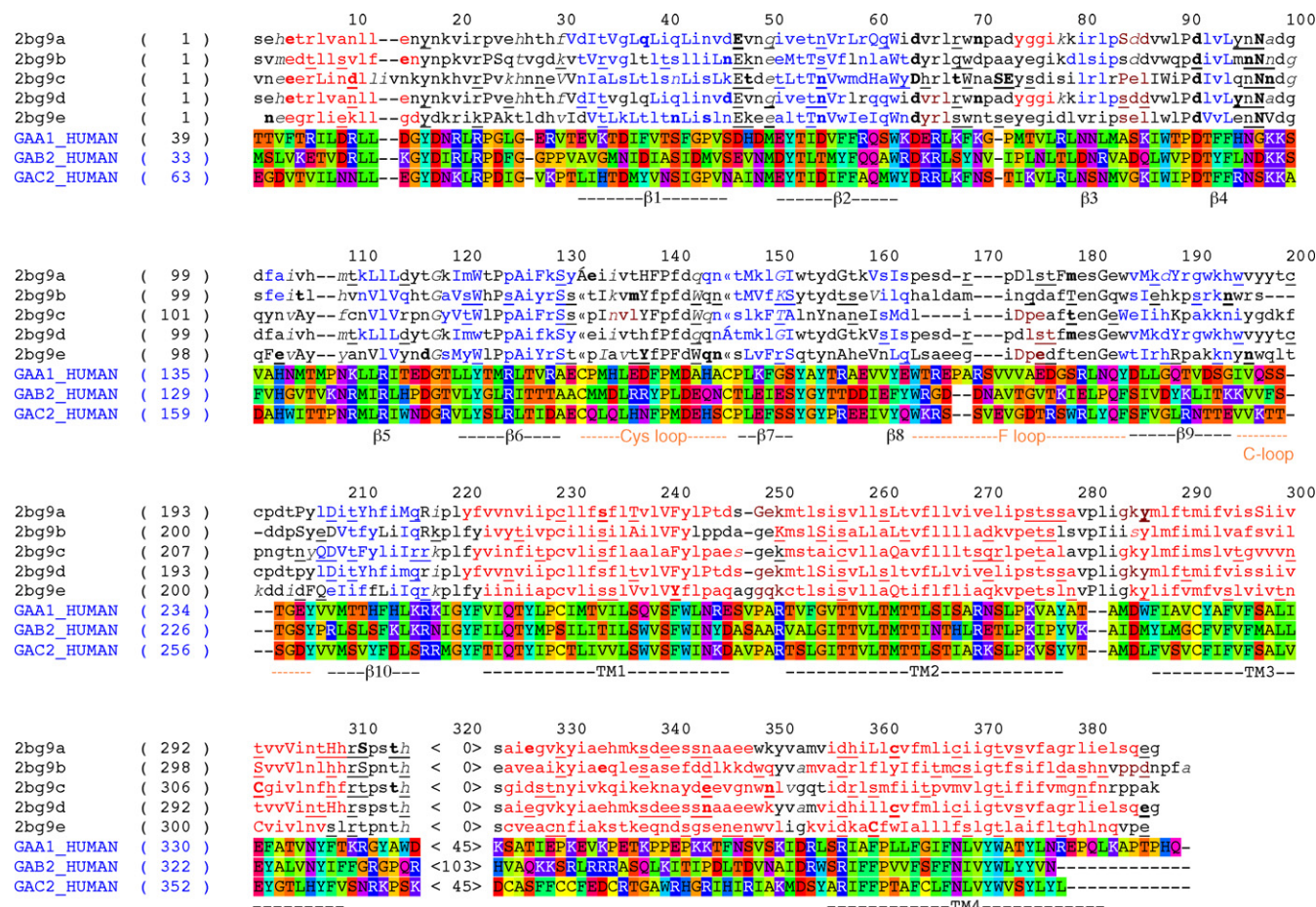


Fig. 1. Multiple structure-sequence alignment between the structures of the five subunits of the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR) from *Torpedo marmorata* (PDB code: 2BG9) and the amino acid sequences of the  $\alpha_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ - and  $\gamma_2$ -subunits of the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. FUGUE [78] was used to align a combined structural profile involving the five chains of nAChR against the sequences of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. Pair-wise alignments between corresponding subunits from the two receptors were then submitted to MODELLER: (1) nAChR chain A aligned against  $\beta_2$  chain from human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor (Swiss Prot P47870), (2) nAChR chain B against  $\gamma_2$  chain from the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor (Swiss Prot P18507), (3) nAChR chain C against  $\alpha_1$  chain from the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor (Swiss Prot P14867), (4) nAChR chain D against  $\beta_2$  chain from the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor, (5) nAChR chain E against  $\alpha_1$  chain from the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. Membrane-spanning regions are underlined. Alignments were manually adjusted and formatted using JOY [61]. Insertions in the sequences of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor chains were trimmed and numbers between brackets denote length of the insertions. The formatting convention of JOY is as follows: red,  $\alpha$ -helices; blue,  $\beta$ -strands; maroon,  $3_{10}$ -helices; upper case letters, solvent inaccessible; lower case letters, solvent accessible; bold type, hydrogen bonds to mainchain amides; underlining, hydrogen bonds to mainchain carbonyls; hydrogen bonds to other sidechain and/or heterogen groups; italic, positive mainchain torsion angles.

- $\beta_2$  (chain A) 33–337, 421–474;
- $\gamma_2$  (chain B) 63–367, 413–467;
- $\alpha_1$  (chain C) 39–345, 391–456;
- $\beta_2$  (chain D) 33–337, 421–474;
- $\alpha_1$  (chain E) 40–345, 391–456.

The model was examined using JOY [61] and its quality evaluated by Verify3D [56].

Using similar procedures, we built another model using the high-resolution structures of acetylcholine-binding protein (AChBP) from *Bulinus truncatus* [17], *Aplysia californica* [16] and *Lymnaea stagnalis* [18]. The Protein Databank entry codes for these three proteins are, respectively, 2BJO, 2BR8 and 1UX2. The sequence alignment is shown in Fig. 2. We call this model 2.

A comparison of the two models were performed using the method MaxSub [80]. MaxSub performs a search for the largest subsets of  $C_\alpha$ -atoms in each model, so would superimpose the

structurally analogous atoms. This gives a more meaningful statistic for the difference between the two models.

## 2.2. Ligand docking

Coordinates for the GABA molecule were obtained from the PDB dataset 1QUR [87]. The Cambridge Structural Database was consulted for coordinates for muscimol (CSD code: MUSIMO01) [10], flunitrazepam (CSD code: CAGWUC) [15] and alprazolam (CSD code: CIZQAD01) [72]. The coordinates of halothane were generated *ab initio* and its geometry optimised according to the potential of Scharf and Laasonen [77]. These ligands were docked to model 1.

Ligand docking methods use search algorithms to rapidly explore the energy landscape of the protein-ligand interaction. To this end, two docking methods were used in this work, a genetic algorithm based method GOLD (version 2.0) [42,43,66], and easyDock, based on a novel



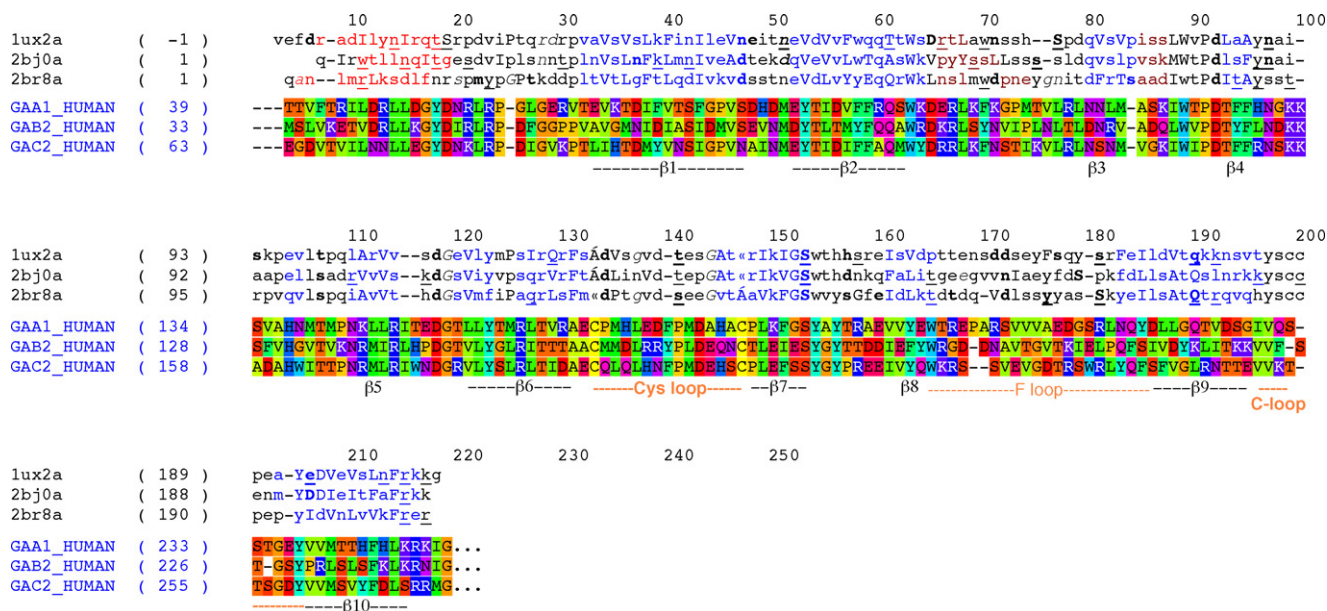


Fig. 2. Multiple alignment between the structures of acetylcholine binding proteins (AChBP) from *Lymnaea stagnalis* (1UX2), *Bulinus truncatus* (2BJ0), *Aplysia californica* (2BR8) and the amino acid sequence of the  $\alpha_1$ ,  $\beta_2$  and  $\gamma_2$ -subunits of the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. The alignment was generated with FUGUE [78] and formatted with JOY [61]. The formatting convention of JOY is shown in the legend to Fig. 1.

optimization method called quantum stochastic tunnelling [44,57,89].

In stochastic tunnelling, 100 simulations were performed for each complex each consisting of  $5 \times 10^5$  Monte Carlo steps. Several binding modes were generated with each docking simulation, yielding a limited number of ligand-binding modes. Approximate functions for describing ligand-protein interactions have been extensively investigated. The performance of these functions is limited by the difficulties in accurately treating the effects of solvation and the entropic changes due to hydrophobic interactions [48].

An analysis of the ligand-binding modes was performed in the following manner. Binding modes were ordered according to their binding scores. Then, starting from the lowest-energy solution, the root mean square deviation (RMSD) of each pose with respect to all the previous lower-energy poses was computed. If the RMSD was higher than a given threshold (3 Å), then that pose was added to a list of distinct solutions. The result of this procedure was a list of distinct ligand-binding mode poses that had RMSDs between one another of more than the pre-defined threshold.

All docking solutions were assigned to the nearest distinct binding mode and the distinct binding modes were re-ranked according to the number of docking solutions they attract, or their occupancy. This ranking procedure relates to concepts from the energy landscape theory describing the ligand-protein interaction. Consequently, it is possible to assume that many random initial conformations of the native ligand regularly dock in the stable (and dominant) binding mode. Nevertheless, due to the frustrated nature of the energy landscape and the limited search, alternative binding modes will also be found. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the most occupied

binding mode would correspond to the native binding mode as observed experimentally.

Subsequent selection of one or more ligand-binding modes from the list of distinct docking poses were carried out on the basis of previous experimental data, known binding mode of other ligands and the electrostatic potential complementarity between the ligand and the receptor [20–22,25].

### 2.3. Evaluating the interaction energy profile of chloride ion passage

The potential experienced by a chloride ion passing from the extracellular to the intracellular space was explored using the Amber99 potential [71] and the molecular modelling package MOE [58]. In this calculation, the z-direction was defined to be along the central pore from the extracellular side to the intracellular side.

The position of the chloride ion was initially at the extracellular end of the protein, at its axis of symmetry. The position of the ion was advanced by steps of 1 Å, in the positive z-direction (towards the intracellular space). The path remains at the axis of symmetry of the protein until it reaches the intracellular end of the transmembrane domain. At this point, the path splits into five. Each one is a straight line pointing outwards, going through the widest part of the portal (see Figs. 3 and 15 for illustrations of the paths).

The energy of interaction between the ion and the protein were evaluated at 1 Å intervals, with a relative permittivity of 1. We chose not to use a continuum approach because the ion channel pore is too small; explicit water molecules should be used for a thorough analysis. Moreover, any ion permeation analysis should consider multiple conformations of the protein,

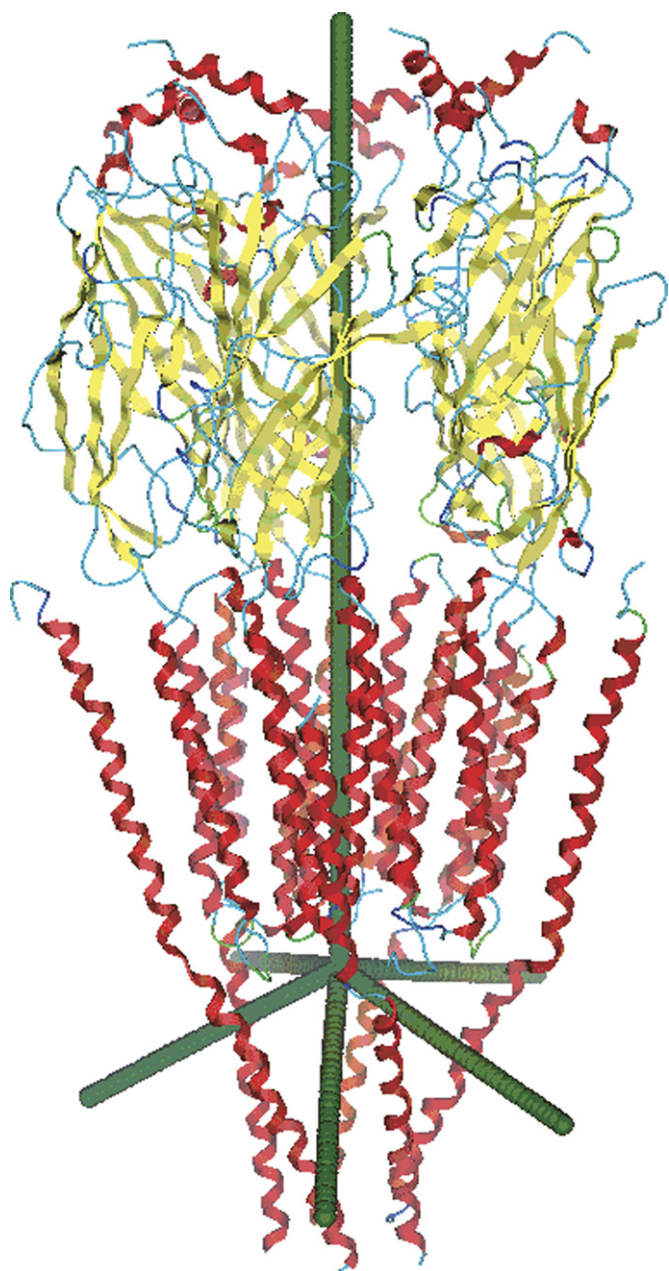


Fig. 3. Diagram showing the position of chloride ions, in the calculation of interaction energy between the  $\text{Cl}^-$  ion and the  $\text{GABA}_A$  receptor model.

the water molecules and counter-ions, a significant task outside the focus of this work. This will be a complex project on its own. Here we only attempt to obtain an estimate of the potential along the path, so that we could validate our model by comparing our potential profile with the potential profiles obtained by other groups on other ion channel models.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Structure of the two models

Model 1 is shown in Figs. 4 and 5. As it was based on the unliganded form of nAChR (2BG9), it is expected to present an apo-form. Since the majority of the templates for model 2 had

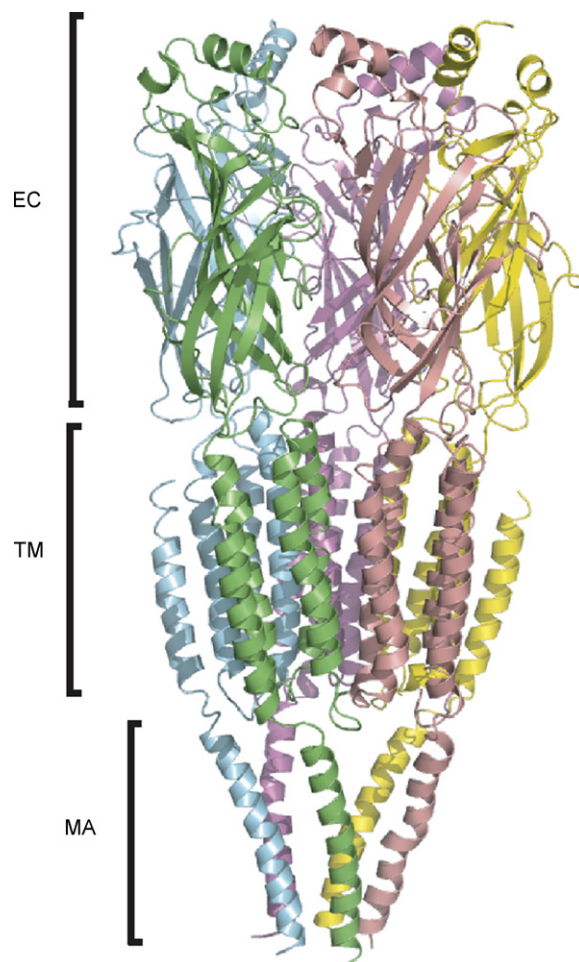


Fig. 4. Side view of model 1. The five subunits are shown in different colours. The extent of the extracellular domains are labelled EC, that of the transmembrane domains TM, and that of the helices of the intracellular domain are labelled MA. These helices are the only resolved structures in the nAChR, so we were only able to model this part of the intracellular domain.

the agonist binding sites occupied, they are expected to represent the agonist-bound form. For the different extracellular subunits, the MaxSub scores are follows:

Subunit	MaxSub score	Residues with RMS = 0
$\beta_2$ (chain A)	0.995	218/319 (56%)
$\gamma_2$ (chain B)	1.000	189/189 (100%)
$\alpha_1$ (chain C)	0.986	210/213 (99%)
$\beta_2$ (chain D)	0.991	217/319 (68%)
$\alpha_1$ (chain E)	0.991	210/212 (99%)

After we built our models, several new structures of AChBP were released [38]. They include structures with PDB codes 2BYN and 2BYQ. As expected, the comparison of model 1 with these newly solved structures shows that model 1 is indeed most closely related to the apo-structure of the AChBP (2BYN), while model 2 is virtually identical to the liganded conformation as presented by the structure 2BYQ [38]. Both models have a good overall fit when superimposed with any of the novel structures (overall RMSD from 1.3 to 1.4 Å), with most significant differences appearing in the region of the F-loop and especially the C-loop, where the RMSD approaches 10.5 Å (see



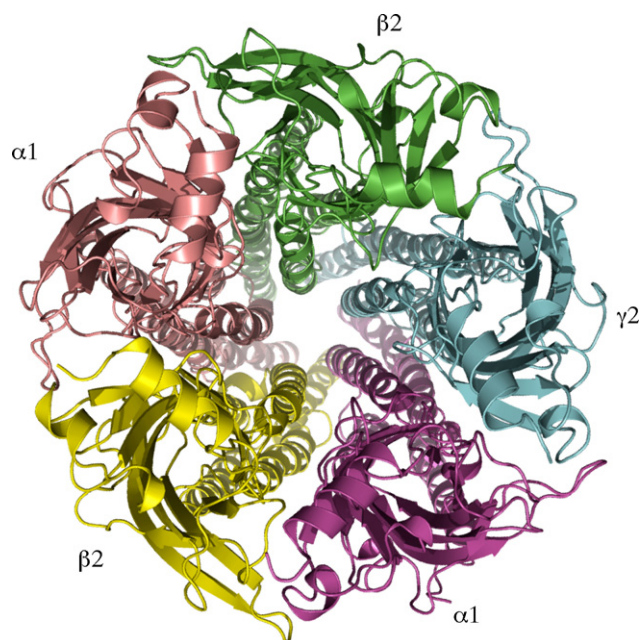


Fig. 5. View of model 1 from the extracellular space towards the intracellular space (the 'top' view). The five different subunits are labelled.

Fig. 6). Comparison of model 2 with 2BYQ, however, gives an RMSD over the C-loop region ( $<1.2$  Å) which is lower than the overall  $C_{\alpha}$ -backbone RMSD of about 1.35 Å, suggesting that it is an appropriate model of the agonist-bound form of the receptor. It should be noted, however, that both the C-loop and the F-loop are relatively non-conserved between AChBPs/AChR and GABA receptors, and as such are harder to model using comparative approaches.

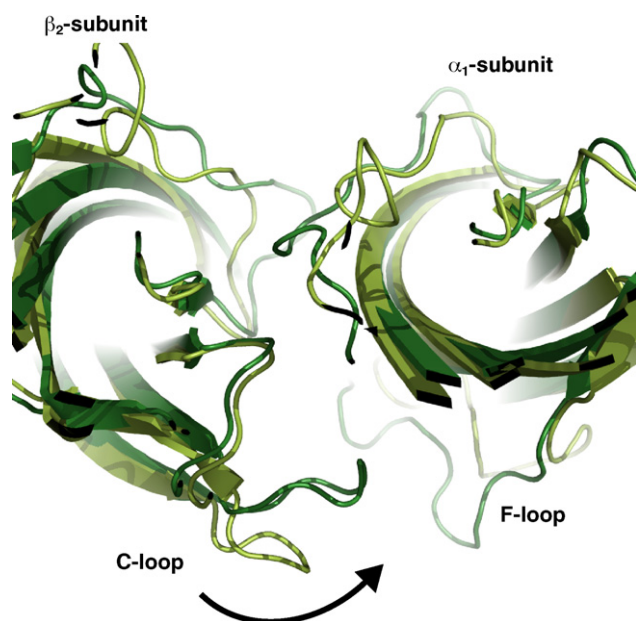


Fig. 6. A comparison of the binding-site region of models 1 and 2. The angle of view is from the extracellular space towards the intracellular space. Only the two subunits adjacent to the GABA-binding site is shown. Model 1 is shown in light green, while model 2 is shown in dark green. The arrowed line denotes the postulated direction of movement of the C-loop.

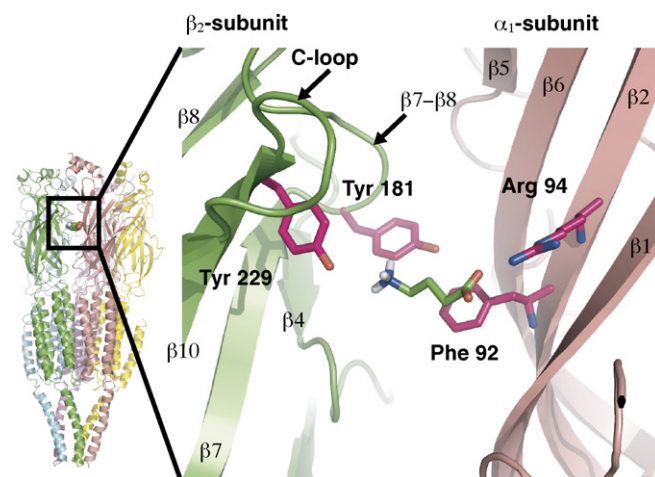


Fig. 7. Diagram showing the position of the GABA/muscimol-binding site and a docked GABA. The whole protein is shown on the left, and the area boxed in black, between two subunits, is the binding site for GABA and muscimol. The boxed region is enlarged to show GABA docked into the binding site of model 1. The protein main chains are colour-coded according to subunit, with four amino acids implicated in binding shown in magenta. The different  $\beta$ -strands and loop regions are annotated. Only one GABA configuration was found to be docked in this position, with the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  of GABA facing Tyr 229.

### 3.2. Structure of the GABA-binding site

Fig. 7 shows the position of the GABA-binding site in the whole protein. The GABA activation sites are located between the  $\beta_2$ - and the  $\alpha_1$ -subunits, so there are two GABA binding sites on each pentameric receptor. Experimental data have shown the following amino acids to be important for ligand recognition. On the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit, these are Phe 92 [81,83], Arg 94, Ser 96 [9], Arg 147 [94] and Ile 148 [93]. On the  $\beta_2$ -subunit, they are Tyr 181, Thr 184 [3], Thr 226, Ser 228, Tyr 229, Arg 231 and Ser 233 [3,91].

### 3.3. Docking ligands to the GABA-binding site

Using the programme easyDock [89] and GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor model 1, we obtained 582 configurations for GABA docking and 633 configurations for the docking of muscimol.

A distance-screen was used to select GABA docked poses lying within 6 Å of four amino acids that have been experimentally identified as primary determinants for agonist recognition: Phe 92 [81,83] and Arg 94 [9] of the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit, in addition to Tyr 181 and Tyr 229 of the  $\beta_2$ -subunit [3]. Six of 582 solutions fulfilled these criteria, five of which formed one cluster with a single outlier. The single outlier showed the charged amino group of GABA facing Tyr 229, with the carboxylate facing Arg94 (Fig. 7). In the high-population cluster, the charged amino group of GABA faces Phe 92, with the carboxylate positioned between Tyr 181 and Tyr 229 (Fig. 8).

In order to decide which binding mode is more probable, electrostatic potential complementarity was computed for the two binding modes. This is an empirical approach that has been developed to account for the interaction between charged ligands and their receptors [20–22,25] and is useful to predict the more likely docking configuration when there are

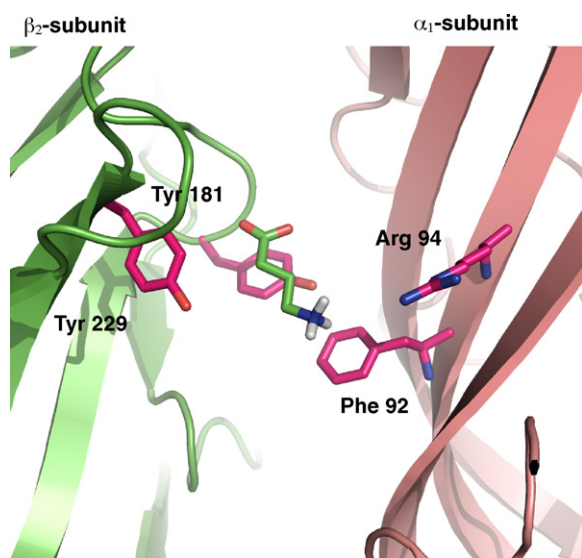


Fig. 8. View of GABA docked into the binding site of model 1. The view of this diagram is the same as Fig. 7. Five configurations were found to be docked in this position, with the carboxylate group of GABA facing Tyr 181 and Tyr 229. The protein main chains are colour-coded according to subunit, with four amino acids implicated in binding shown in magenta.

insufficient experimental data to discriminate amongst multiple docked configurations.

In the cases of the two different docking configurations of GABA, charges were assigned to the ligand and receptor atoms using the Amber99 potential and the CHARMM potential [71]. A set of points on a sphere were produced by icosahedral tessellation [19]. These points were placed on the van der Waals sphere of each atom, and the interior points deleted to produce a set of points on the van der Waals surface of the molecule. The electrostatic potential at each van der Waals point due to the ligand, and that due to the protein, were evaluated. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient,  $r_s$  [85,86], was calculated for the two sets of electrostatic potentials to quantify the complementarity: at perfect complementarity,  $r_s = -1$ , but at perfect similarity,  $r_s = 1$ . This protocol is detailed in [20].

Using this analysis, for the high-population cluster of docked GABA (where its carboxylate tail is 'sandwiched' between Tyr 181 and Tyr 229), Spearman's rank correlation coefficient is  $-0.69$  (Amber99 partial charges) or  $-0.65$  (CHARMM partial charges). For the other configuration where the GABA  $\text{NH}_3^+$ -head faces Tyr 181 and Tyr 229, the rank correlation coefficient is  $-0.05$  (both Amber99 and CHARMM partial charges). This analysis suggests that the former configuration (Fig. 8) is the more likely binding mode.

Using the same parameters for selection of the docked poses for muscimol, the highest scoring member has the oxazolo ring (carboxylate isostere) sandwiched between the faces of Tyr 181 and Tyr 229 and the charged amino terminus of muscimol appropriately positioned to delocalise to the  $\pi$ -cloud of Phe 92 (see Fig. 9). This particular orientation of muscimol is consistent with the suggestion by Amin and Weiss [3]; they noted in their mutagenesis study that Tyr 181 had an approximately three-fold greater effect on reducing the  $\text{EC}_{50}$

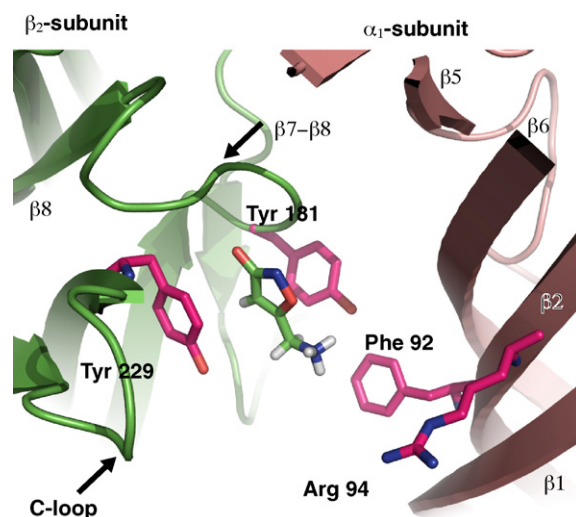


Fig. 9. View of muscimol docked into the binding site of model 1. The region of this diagram is the same as Fig. 7, but the angle of view is tilted in the extracellular direction by  $15^\circ$ . The protein main chains are colour-coded according to subunit, with four amino acids implicated in binding shown in magenta. The angle of view in this diagram is slightly different from that of the previous two diagrams, in order to display the oxazolo ring of muscimol more clearly.

for muscimol activation compared to that of GABA. These authors suggested that as the primary structural difference between GABA and muscimol was the oxazolo ring, it was probably in close proximity to Tyr 181, thus supporting the orientation shown in Fig. 8.

A tryptophan residue occupies the equivalent position to Tyr 181 in the *Torpedo* nAChR  $\alpha$ -subunits and the mouse  $5\text{HT}_{3A}$  homomeric receptor. In both cases it has been shown that this residue exhibits cation- $\pi$  delocalisation interactions with the charged amines of their natural agonists; estimates of interaction strength being 10 and 17 kJ/mol, respectively [6]. This orientation is not supported by the docked poses generated in this work for either muscimol or the high-population cluster for GABA. However, the single cluster outlier for GABA does adopt an orientation consistent with that found for both acetylcholine and 5HT [6], and it has been proposed that GABA adopts this orientation in the homomeric  $\text{GABA}_C$  receptor [54]. In this orientation it would be possible for GABA carboxylate to form an ion-pair interaction with Arg 94.

Clearly the docked positions for GABA and muscimol are predicated upon the criteria used in their selection. The amino acids that we used here to guide our selection are found at the centre of a cluster of amino acids, mutation of which has been shown to compromise agonist recognition. It seems reasonable to suggest that the other amino acids, previously implicated in agonist-receptor interactions, may lie on the access or egress routes of the ligand as it approaches its docked site from either above (the most extracellular) or below (close to the membrane) the C-loop, which appears to close to envelop the ligand (see Fig. 6). Mutations of such residues are likely to affect the properties of agonist association or dissociation. Alternatively, other previously identified residues may be involved downstream



of the initial binding event, i.e., the agonist-induced conformational change that facilitates channel opening.

In the present study, we have identified a number of additional amino acids, lying within 6 Å of the docked ligand, that have not previously been explored. One of these, Phe73, decreases GABA potency by a factor of 20 when mutated to alanine [26]. Interestingly this amino acid is found about 5 Å from Phe 92 and the same distance from the amino terminus of GABA when it is docked in its preferred orientation. The two aromatic rings face the partially charged amine of GABA and Phe 73 is found close to the F-loop, the solvent accessibility of which has been shown to change on agonist activation ([64]; see Section 4).

### 3.4. Structure of the benzodiazepine-binding site

The left panel of Fig. 10 shows the position of the benzodiazepine-binding site in the whole protein. The benzodiazepine binding site lies between the  $\alpha_1$ - and the  $\gamma_2$ -subunits, so there is only one such binding site on each pentameric receptor. Experimental data have shown the following amino acids to be important in benzodiazepine binding to the protein. On the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit, these are His 129 [27,28,84,96], Tyr 187 [2], Gly 228 [76], Thr 234 and Tyr 237 [13]. On the  $\gamma_2$ -subunit, they are Met 96 [14,51], Tyr 97 [51], Phe 116 [12], Ala 118 [50] and Met 168 [51,97].

### 3.5. Docking ligands to the benzodiazepine binding site

Evidence that the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit His 129 is an essential recognition site point for the benzodiazepines was based initially on mutagenic data [96]. However, it has subsequently been shown that photo-activation of flunitrazepam, bound to the benzodiazepine recognition site, results in the transfer of N1-methyl tritium to this amino acid [27]. The proximity of this

histidine to the nitro-function of the benzodiazepine A-ring (the benzodiazepine ring fused to the seven-membered heterocycle) has recently been explored by the synthesis of a cysteine-reactive benzodiazepine, in which the nitro function at position 7 of the A-ring is replaced by isothiocyanate. Covalent modification of the mutant  $\alpha_1$ -subunit His 129 Cys with this novel benzodiazepine [7] suggests that the 7-carbon of the A-ring is within 8.3 Å of the His 129  $\alpha$ -carbon. The mutation  $\alpha_1$ -subunit Tyr 187 to Ser completely ablates benzodiazepine recognition suggesting that this is important in benzodiazepine binding [2]. There is significantly less information concerning residues within the  $\gamma_2$  subunit involved in benzodiazepine recognition, although there is evidence that both the  $\gamma_2$ -subunit Tyr 97 [51] and the  $\gamma_2$ -subunit Phe 116 [12] are important site-points in ligand recognition. The docking solutions were subjected to a distance screen using these residues, employing similar criteria to those described for the GABA-docking above.

The seven-membered heterocycle of the benzodiazepines is thought to exist in two energetically distinct conformers. It has been suggested, as a result of the synthesis of conformationally restricted analogues, that the classical benzodiazepines have a preferred conformation for receptor interaction [8]. We have thus docked both alternative conformations to model 1, using the same docking paradigm, GOLD. An initial distance screen was used to explore the docked poses obtained, which were then clustered, as described previously. The preferred pose of the active conformer of flunitrazepam is shown in the right panel of Fig. 10. It places both the N1-methyl and the 7-nitro function in appropriate apposition to the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit His 129, with the pendant 5-phenyl positioned between the  $\alpha_1$  Tyr 187 and the  $\gamma_2$  Tyr 97 and the benzodiazepine A-ring about 3 Å from the  $\gamma_2$  Phe 116 though not coplanar with it. It is interesting to compare this docked flunitrazepam position with early structure–activity models developed for the benzodiazepines (see [34]). Inspection of the docked position of the active flunitrazepam conformer suggests that 4'-phenyl substituents impact closely on  $\gamma_2$  Phe 116,  $\gamma_2$  Tyr 97 and  $\gamma_2$  Asn 99. Finally,  $\gamma_2$  Arg 183 is favourably located to act as a hydrogen bond donor to the heterocycle oxygen at position 2.

The orientation of the inactive conformer in the site is shown in Fig. 11. It is quite distinct from that described for the active conformer, but occupies essentially the same physical space. The  $\alpha_1$ -subunit His 129 is equidistant from both the N1-methyl substituent of flunitrazepam and its A-ring nitro function, while  $\alpha_1$  Tyr 187 is within 3.5 Å of the benzodiazepine A-ring, although these rings are not parallel. The pendant C-ring of the benzodiazepine is almost coplanar with the  $\gamma_2$  Phe 116 with the  $\gamma_2$  Tyr 97 positioned to provide steric restriction to the site some 4.5 Å from the 4' carbon of the C-ring, a substituent position known to be particularly sensitive to steric factors [34].

We also carried out a similar docking experiment with the imidazobenzodiazepine, alprazolam. The physical space occupied by this imidazobenzodiazepine is similar to that found for flunitrazepam but the orientation is distinct (Fig. 12). Alprazolam is an agonist benzodiazepine, like flunitrazepam, but has a significantly higher affinity for the recognition site. It is thus

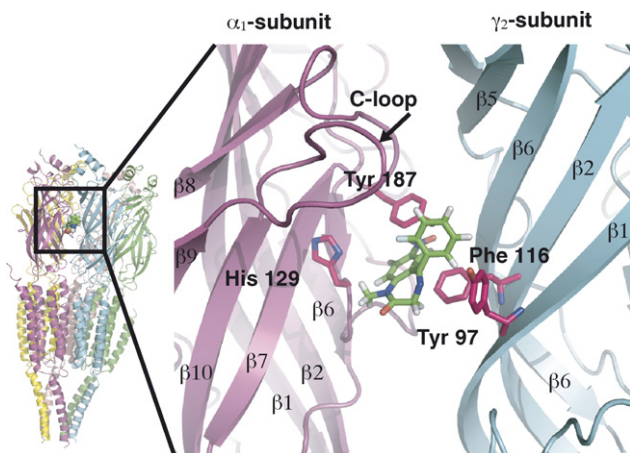


Fig. 10. Diagram showing the position of the benzodiazepine-binding site. The whole protein is shown on the left, and the area boxed in black, between two subunits, is the binding site for benzodiazepines. The boxed region is enlarged to show the active form of flunitrazepam docked into the binding site of model 1. The protein main chains are colour-coded according to subunit, with four amino acids implicated in binding shown in magenta. The different  $\beta$ -strands and loop regions are annotated.



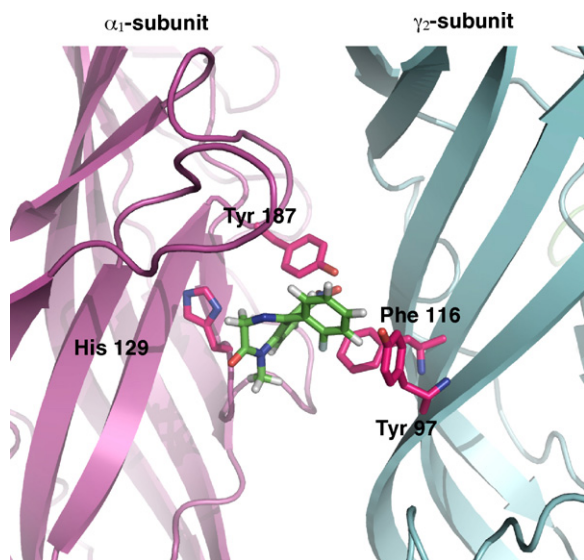


Fig. 11. View of the inactive form of flunitrazepam docked into the benzodiazepine binding site of model 1. The protein main chains are colour-coded according to subunit, with four amino acids implicated in binding shown in magenta.

interesting to note that the imidazo-ring on the *a*-face is found in closer proximity to the important recognition determinant  $\alpha_1$  His 129 than is the case with flunitrazepam, while the pendant phenyl sandwiched between the  $\alpha_1$  Tyr 187 and the  $\gamma_2$  Phe 116 is within 3.5 Å of the A-ring of alprazolam, but not completely coplanar with it. It is possible that these favourable interactions may provide an explanation for the increased affinity of the interaction.

### 3.6. The halothane binding site

Previous work has identified three amino acids as important for general anaesthetic action: Leu 259, Ser 297 and Ala 318

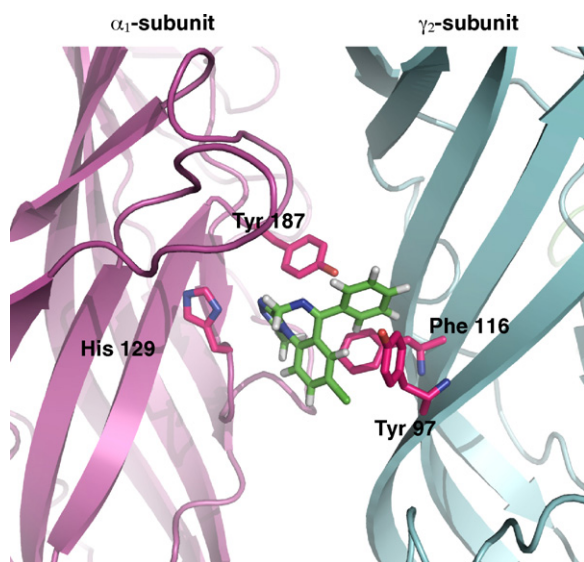


Fig. 12. View of alprazolam docked into the benzodiazepine binding site of model 1. The protein main chains are colour-coded according to subunit, with four amino acids implicated in binding shown in magenta.

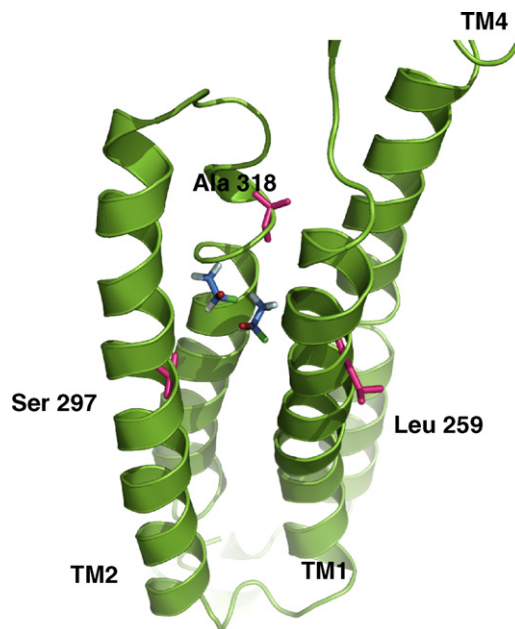


Fig. 13. View of halothane docked to its putative binding site of model 1, in the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit. The carbon atoms of halothane are shown in blue, to distinguish them from the main chain ribbon. The protein main chains are shown in green, with the amino acids implicated in binding shown in magenta and labelled. They are Leu 259 of transmembrane domain 1 (TM1), Ser 297 of TM2 and Ala 318 of TM3.

[41]. Binding sites for the general anaesthetics have also been explored by homology modelling [100]. In this work, we docked halothane to this putative binding site on the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit, and obtained three docked configurations. Two of them cluster together, but the third one is distinct. In Fig. 13, we show one member of the two-membered cluster, and the third binding configuration. It can be seen that the side chain of Leu 259 points away from the putative binding site; how this amino acid affects general anaesthetic action is still unclear. Ser 297 and Ala 318, on the other hand, point with their side chains towards the docked halothane structure. Indeed, the docked halothane appears to span the distance between these two amino acids. These results are consistent with those of Ernst et al. [29].

### 3.7. Ionic passage through the channel

We plot the interaction energy between a  $\text{Cl}^-$  ion and the modelled protein in Fig. 14. As described in the methods section, the interaction energy was calculated along the central pore of the extracellular and the transmembrane domains as well as along exit paths in the intracellular domain through each of the five portals (see Fig. 3). In Fig. 14, we show the interaction energy profile for the passage of a chloride ion. The profile through the five portals are coded in different colours, and their positions with respect to the protein are shown in Fig. 15.

Along the whole passage, electrostatic energy dominates over van der Waals energy. The interaction for the ion is generally favourable inside the protein.

When the  $\text{Cl}^-$  ion is at the extracellular end of the receptor, the interaction energy between the ion and the protein is about

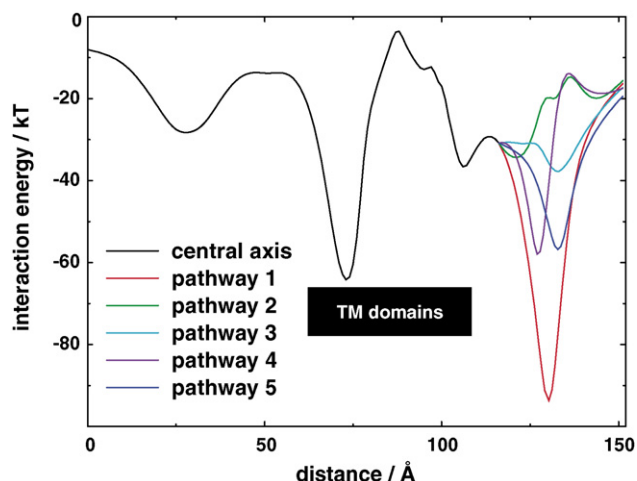


Fig. 14. Diagram showing the interaction energy between the protein and a  $\text{Cl}^-$  ion as it travels along the ion channel pathway. At distance = 0 Å, the chloride ion is at the extracellular end of the receptor. The position of the transmembrane domains is marked by a black bar. The interaction energy is calculated along the axis of symmetry until the ion reaches the boundary of the transmembrane and intracellular domains, distance = 116 Å. From this point the interaction energy is calculated along five paths which extend laterally from the axis of symmetry to pass through the widest part of the portals, formed between the intracellular MA helices and the intracellular face of the transmembrane domain. The energy profile of five different pathways through the five different portals are shown in different colours.

zero. As the ion enters, the energy decreases. The shallow trough about 30 Å from the extracellular end is mostly due to two nearby lysines, Lys 136 of the  $\beta_2$ -subunits. The interaction energy increases slightly, and then reaches a much lower minimum about 75 Å from the extracellular entrance. There are six lysines nearby, namely Lys 298 of the  $\beta_2$ -subunits, Lys 306

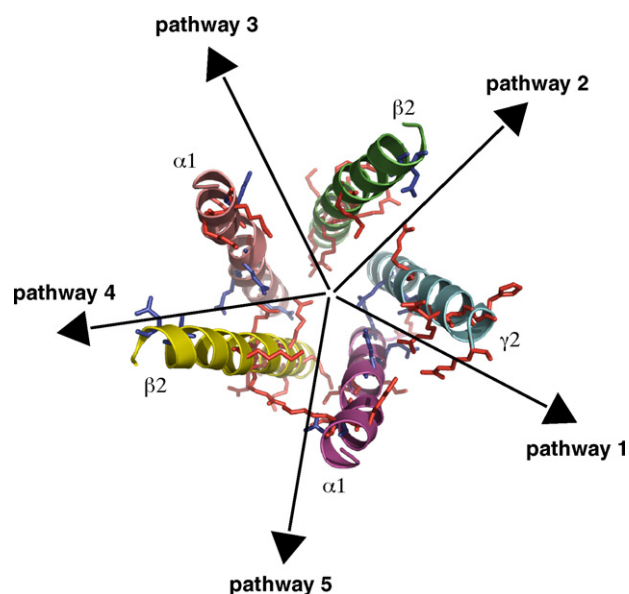


Fig. 15. Diagram showing the modelled structure of the intracellular helices. The angle of view is from the extracellular side towards the intracellular side, with the line of sight parallel to the ion channel axis. The positively charged amino acids are shown in red, while the negatively charged ones are shown in blue. The black arrow shows the approximate direction through which the chloride ion exits the ion channel.

of the  $\alpha_1$ -subunits, and Lys 324 and Lys 328 of the  $\gamma_2$ -subunit. This is near the junction of the extracellular and transmembrane domains. The interaction then increases around the narrow region of the transmembrane domains, with the presence of the  $\beta_2$ -subunit Thr 284, Thr 287 and His 291, the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit Thr 292, Thr 295 and Ile 298, and the  $\gamma_2$ -subunit Leu 313, Thr 317 and Ile 321. At the intracellular end of the central pore, near the interface of the transmembrane domain and the intracellular domain, the potential drops again, probably due to five nearby arginines, namely Arg 274 of the  $\beta_2$ -subunits, Arg 282 of the  $\alpha_1$ -subunits, and Arg 304 of the  $\gamma_2$ -subunit.

The interaction profile across the five portals differ. Pathway 1, which runs between an  $\alpha_1$ - and a  $\gamma_2$ -subunit, has a deep trough. This is due to the abundance of basic residues on the 'upper'  $\gamma_2$  intracellular helix that face the portal. They are the Arg 430, Arg 433, Arg 437 and Lys 440. Moreover, there is also Lys 410 on the  $\alpha_1$ -subunit. Pathway 2, which runs on the other side of the  $\gamma_2$  helix, exhibits hardly any energy minimum; the effect of the aforementioned basic residues of the  $\gamma_2$ -subunit is balanced by the acidic residues Asp 442 and Asp 445 on the  $\beta_2$ -subunit. The other three pathways have a moderately low energy minimum, since the intracellular helices generally contain more basic residues than acidic ones.

Fig. 15 shows the structure of the intracellular helices, whose charged amino acids are as follows:

- chain A,  $\beta_2$ -subunit
  - 4 × Arg, 3 × Lys, 1 × His
  - 2 × Asp
- chain B,  $\gamma_2$ -subunit
  - 4 × Arg, 2 × His
  - 2 × Asp, 1 × Glu
- chain C,  $\alpha_1$ -subunit
  - 6 × Lys
  - 4 × Glu
- chain D,  $\beta_2$ -subunit
  - 4 × Arg, 3 × Lys, 1 × His
  - 2 × Asp
- chain E,  $\alpha_1$ -subunit
  - 6 × Lys
  - 4 × Glu

In Fig. 15, the arrows denote the paths taken by the ions whose energy profiles are shown in Fig. 14.

The energy profile has previously been reported for another homology model of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor [67], where the authors found that the interaction energy decreased as the ion penetrated into the protein, and reached a global minimum near the junction of the extracellular and transmembrane domains. However, the energy increased gradually throughout the transmembrane domain (see Fig. 4 of [67]). The energy profile for a model of the  $\alpha_7$  nAChR has also been calculated for the  $\text{Na}^+$  ion. The authors reported an energy profile similar to ours (see Fig. 6 of [4]): the energy decreased as the ion entered the protein, then rose in the middle of the extracellular domain, and dropped to a global minimum near the junction of the extracellular and transmembrane domains. The interaction

energy remained high throughout the transmembrane domain, as in our results. Neither report provided data for the intracellular helical parts because they were not modelled. The local energy minimum near the intracellular exit of the ion lends support to the idea that the intracellular helices are partially responsible for ionic selectivity [47].

#### 4. Discussion

There have been a number of attempts to create a model for the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. The first attempt to model the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor was carried out by Yamakura et al. [100] using low-resolution structural data. O'Mara et al. [67] used the structure of the *L. stagnalis* acetylcholine-binding protein to model the extracellular domain of a GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor model, and the structure of the nAChR transmembrane domain to model its transmembrane domain. They used this model for Brownian dynamics simulations. However, it is not certain that such 'glueing' together to form a composite model would create a valid structure.

Ernst et al. [29] produced a model of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor using the electron microscopy structure of the nAChR [90] (PDB 2BG9). In the present report, we have employed similar methods for comparative modelling, and therefore our alignment and model share many common characteristics with those of [29], including the relative orientation between the extracellular and transmembrane domains, and the packing of the transmembrane helices.

In this work, we have produced two models of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor. Model 1 is built using the nAChR receptor as a basis (PDB code: 2BG9), while model 2 is built using three AChBPs as bases (PDB codes: 1BJ0, 2BR8 and 1UX2). Comparisons of the two models showed that model 1 is structurally more similar to the apo-form of the receptor, while model 2 is structurally more similar to the liganded form.

##### 4.1. Ligand docking

We have docked two agonists, GABA and muscimol, to the GABA-binding site, together with flunitrazepam and alprazolam to the benzodiazepine-binding site. Different docking methods have different strengths and weaknesses. A comparison of docking programmes [24] used 1000 sample molecules with 49 known ligands, and four methods. The authors concluded that the ability to rank known ligands on the basis of docking results which resemble known crystal structures is both method- and target-dependent. For this reason, we used two different methods in order to explore the docking phase space more thoroughly.

In the application of genetic algorithms [35,40] in molecular docking, the population consists of ligand molecules. The positions, orientations and the conformations of each ligand copy is encoded into the chromosome, as well as the orientations of rotatable hydroxyl groups in the protein. Once the chromosomes are decoded, the internal ligand energy and the interaction energy with the receptor is calculated, and these terms are used to calculate the fitness score. Recombination and mutations are

used to create the individuals forming the next generation and as the population is evolved for a specified number of generations, the fitness score gradually increases. Standard parameter configurations were used.

We also apply a recently introduced Quantum Stochastic Tunnelling docking method [44,57,89] as an efficient method for flexible ligand-protein docking to generate multiple docking solutions. This is a hybrid optimization method that combines the advantages of using the potential energy surface (PES) transformation of Stochastic Tunnelling [92] and the multiple coupled-replica search of Path Integral Monte Carlo [32] methods. The energy landscape transformation smooths out the PES and the non-local exploration of the original PES is made possible on the multi-replica PES with increased dimensionality. This combined approach allows for effective tunnelling through high-energy barriers and makes the search for the global energy minimum more efficient.

Approximate scoring functions aim to preserve the native energy landscape in order to correctly identify the native binding mode as the one with the lowest energy. The results of molecular docking simulations suggest that the native binding mode corresponds to a low-energy structure, but not necessarily that with the lowest energy. There is uncertainty in the binding energy values as a consequence of the approximations used. Therefore, the success rate for finding the native binding mode could be significantly increased if the binding mode with the lowest energy is considered together with a small set of distinct binding modes within a certain energy threshold above the lowest-energy binding mode.

It has been found that by selecting a small set of distinct binding mode representatives, the accuracy of the prediction of the experimentally observed binding mode improves substantially [44]. The subsequent rational selection of one or more ligand-binding modes from a list of a few distinct docking poses could be carried out on the basis of a further analysis, as well as on the basis of the known binding mode of other ligands.

##### 4.2. Gating hypothesis

Despite very considerable efforts, the molecular aetiology that underpins the link between agonist recognition and channel activation, remains ill-defined within the cys-loop receptor family. The structural elements that mediate communication between the agonist recognition site, at the subunit interfaces in the extracellular domain, and the M2 helices, the principal components lining the channel pathway through the transmembrane domain, are separated by some 30 Å. However, while it is becoming increasingly clear which structural 'blocks' may be involved in the communication, the side chain interactions within these seem to be rarely conserved across different subgroups of the family [99]. Perhaps this is not surprising, for the gating characteristics of these receptors are complex and distinct, undoubtedly associated with transition states, the nuances of which are only now being explored [82] using the free energy approach introduced by Fersht et al. [31].

These questions have been most fully explored for the nAChR. Agonist binding is obviously the first step in the



process and structural evidence shows that the C-loop caps these binding sites once recognition has occurred [16–18,38]. Comparison of our GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor model 1 and model 2 shows that in the capped conformation, the  $\beta_2$  C-loop becomes closely juxtaposed to the  $\alpha_1$  F-loop. Our analysis of the inter-atomic distances of residues from model 2 belonging to the F-loop, shows that a stretch of hydrophobic residues, namely Val 208 and Ala 209, near the middle of this loop (Arg Ser Val Val Val Ala Glu Asp), comes as close as 3 Å to the residues at the  $\beta$ -hairpin of the C-loop. Interestingly, the hydrophilic accessibility of these F-loop residues appears to be decreased on exposure of the receptor to the natural agonist [64].

Due to the low level of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor subunit sequence similarity in this region with the AChBPs, and the fact that the F-loop is poorly defined structurally in the cryo-EM nAChR structure, there is no reliable structural template for modelling the F-loop. However, secondary structure analysis of the F-loop using a variety of algorithms indicates a very high propensity of this region for  $\beta$ -strand formation in the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  $\alpha_1$ -subunit. This differs significantly from the F-loops present in AChBPs and 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptors, which have a higher tendency to random coil and  $\alpha$ -helical structure. It is unlikely that the F-loop forms a stable  $\beta$ -strand but it is probably capable of forming transient  $\beta$ -sheet associations with other secondary structural elements of the  $\alpha_1$ - or  $\beta_2$ -subunits.

Recent structural reports of recognition between the TonB and TonB-box containing membrane transporters lend some support to such a speculation [68,79]. These studies indicate that the TonB-box, which initially exists as a random coil, undergoes a coil to  $\beta$ -strand transition and packs towards the pre-existing  $\beta$ -sheet of TonB, which serves as a folding template [23]. Indeed the consensus sequence of the TonB-box is surprisingly similar to the sequence observed in the  $\alpha_1$  F-loop, which suggests a similar ‘strand invasion’ mechanism may occur in the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors. One of the possible partners for transient pairing is the  $\beta_2$  C-loop that is likely to form a  $\beta$ -hairpin (Val Val Phe Ser Thr). It does not seem unreasonable to suggest that such an interaction may form a communication link between neighboring subunits.

The C-loop leads, via the  $\beta_{10}$  strand, to the M1 transmembrane helix, and thus is an attractive partner in the communication of the structural changes from the agonist binding site towards the membrane spanning domain. It has been suggested [62] that, in the nAChR, the  $\beta_{10}$  and  $\beta_7$  strands interact through a salt bridge. Upon agonist occupation, and the consequential C-loop capping of the activation site, a conserved C-loop tyrosine residue is brought into register with the salt-bridge partner from the  $\beta_7$  strand (Lys 139), displacing the salt-bridge partnership between the  $\beta_{10}$  Asp 194 and  $\beta_7$  Lys 139 that existed in the unoccupied receptor. The equivalent residues in our model of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  $\beta_2$ -subunit are quite distinct: the  $\beta_{10}$  aspartate is replaced by Arg 231, while the salt bridge partner on  $\beta_7$  is Glu 177. The salt-bridge may thus be conserved but there is a charge reversal. However, the tyrosine residue which supplants the interaction with this pair on C-loop closure is replaced in the  $\beta_2$ -subunit of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor with Lys 220, which may then form an equivalent salt bridge with Glu 177 as the C-loop closes on agonist occupation. It has

previously been reported that mutation of Glu 177 leads to spontaneous open channel activity and has been suggested as a trigger for channel gating [65].

Moving to the C-terminal on the  $\beta_{10}$  sheet, we find an absolutely conserved residue within the family, Arg 240 in this work. It has been suggested that in the nAChR [52], this residue interacts electrostatically with a glutamate residue from loop 2. In our model, this residue, Glu 76, is appropriately placed within 3 Å of the conserved arginine as shown in Fig. 16. It has been proposed that, in the nAChR, the neighbouring valine from this loop (Val77 here), together with the aforementioned glutamate straddle a conserved proline on the M2–M3 linker, also found within the 5-HT<sub>3</sub> receptor where its isomerisation is thought to be responsible for channel gating [55]. The important M2–M3 linker is significantly different within the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor family. The proline residue is replaced, within the GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\beta_2$  sequence, with Lys 303 and the M2–M3 linker is one residue shorter than that found in the nAChRs with the serine residue at the C-terminal end of the M2 helix replaced by Tyr 301 in the GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\beta_2$ -subunit. Within the nAChRs this serine residue is important in channel gating [36,82]. As can be seen in Fig. 16, the equivalent Tyr 301 of the GABA<sub>A</sub>  $\beta_2$ -subunit is ideally placed to form a hydrogen bond with Asn 78 of loop 2. It is possible that the larger size of Tyr 301 could compensate for the shorter M2–M3 linker length, while preserving the hydrogen bond. We have found that a rotamer and conformation search indicates that this Tyr 301 could also form a hydrogen bond with Glu 76 of loop 2, compatible with a shift of the M2 helix. It is thus possible that this Tyr bonding exchange could play a role of a structural switch as exemplified by the classic example of haemoglobin [69].

As can be seen from Fig. 16, there are a multiplicity of charged residues in this vicinity providing a plethora of potential salt-bridges with additional potential for hydrogen bond formation to the main chain. In view of the continuing

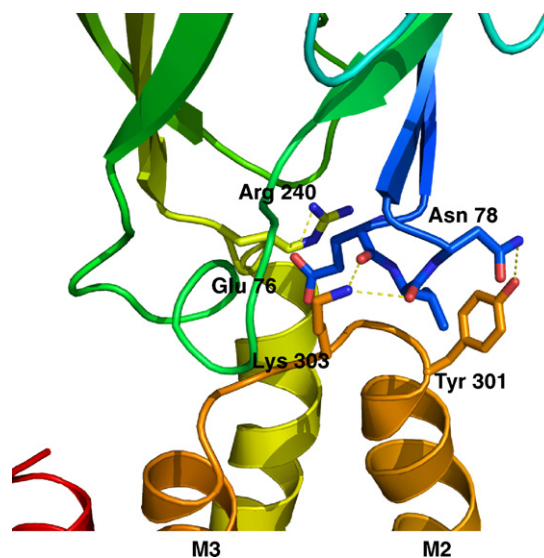


Fig. 16. Diagram showing the region at the junction of the extracellular domain and the transmembrane domain, of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  $\beta_2$ -subunit. Putative hydrogen bonds are denoted by dashed lines between the atoms.

analysis of gating schemes within the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor [53], it seems premature to suggest their potential functional roles without the expansion of the experimental work currently available within this arena (see for example [45,59]). It is precisely the purpose of this model building to provide a guide to such experiments, the results of which will allow its further refinement.

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