

[Department of Neuroscience Faculty Papers](https://jdc.jefferson.edu/department_neuroscience) **Department of Neuroscience**

1-1-2013

Acute activation, desensitization and smoldering activation of human acetylcholine receptors.

Barbara Campling, M.D., FRCPC Thomas Jefferson University Hospital

Alexander Kuryatov Thomas Jefferson University Hospital

Jon Lindstrom Thomas Jefferson University Hospital

Follow this and additional works at: [https://jdc.jefferson.edu/department_neuroscience](https://jdc.jefferson.edu/department_neuroscience?utm_source=jdc.jefferson.edu%2Fdepartment_neuroscience%2F8&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Part of the [Medicine and Health Sciences Commons](https://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/648?utm_source=jdc.jefferson.edu%2Fdepartment_neuroscience%2F8&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) [Let us know how access to this document benefits you](https://library.jefferson.edu/forms/jdc/index.cfm)

Recommended Citation

Campling, M.D., FRCPC, Barbara; Kuryatov, Alexander; and Lindstrom, Jon, "Acute activation, desensitization and smoldering activation of human acetylcholine receptors." (2013). Department of Neuroscience Faculty Papers. Paper 8. https://jdc.jefferson.edu/department_neuroscience/8

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Jefferson Digital Commons. The Jefferson Digital Commons is a service of Thomas Jefferson University's [Center for Teaching and Learning \(CTL\)](http://www.jefferson.edu/university/teaching-learning.html/). The Commons is a showcase for Jefferson books and journals, peer-reviewed scholarly publications, unique historical collections from the University archives, and teaching tools. The Jefferson Digital Commons allows researchers and interested readers anywhere in the world to learn about and keep up to date with Jefferson scholarship. This article has been accepted for inclusion in Department of Neuroscience Faculty Papers by an authorized administrator of the Jefferson Digital Commons. For more information, please contact: JeffersonDigitalCommons@jefferson.edu.

Acute Activation, Desensitization and Smoldering Activation of Human Acetylcholine Receptors

Barbara G. Campling 1,2 , Alexander Kuryatov 1 , Jon Lindstrom 1*

1 Department of Neuroscience, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, United States of America, 2 Department of Medical Oncology, Thomas Jefferson University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, United States of America

Abstract

The behavioral effects of nicotine and other nicotinic agonists are mediated by AChRs in the brain. The relative contribution of acute activation versus chronic desensitization of AChRs is unknown. Sustained ''smoldering activation'' occurs over a range of agonist concentrations at which activated and desensitized AChRs are present in equilibrium. We used a fluorescent dye sensitive to changes in membrane potential to examine the effects of acute activation and chronic desensitization by nicotinic AChR agonists on cell lines expressing human α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. We examined the effects of acute and prolonged application of nicotine and the partial agonists varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A on these AChRs. The range of concentrations over which nicotine causes smoldering activation of α 4 β 2 AChRs was centered at 0.13 μ M, a level found in smokers. However, nicotine produced smoldering activation of α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs at concentrations well above levels found in smokers. The α 4B2 expressing cell line contains a mixture of two stoichiometries. namely $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ and $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\alpha 4$. The $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ stoichiometry is more sensitive to activation by nicotine. Sazetidine-A activates and desensitizes only this stoichiometry. Varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A were partial agonists on this mixture of α 4 β 2 AChRs, but full agonists on α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. It has been reported that cytisine and varenicline are most efficacious on the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_{2}\alpha 4$ stoichiometry. In this study, we distinguish the dual effects of activation and desensitization of AChRs by these nicotinic agonists and define the range of concentrations over which smoldering activation can be sustained.

Citation: Campling BG, Kuryatov A, Lindstrom J (2013) Acute Activation, Desensitization and Smoldering Activation of Human Acetylcholine Receptors. PLoS ONE 8(11): e79653. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653

Editor: Sidney Arthur Simon, Duke University Medical Center, United States of America

Received June 20, 2013; Accepted October 3, 2013; Published November 14, 2013

Copyright: @ 2013 Campling et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Funding: Support provided by grant NS11232 from the National Institutes of Health (to JL). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: jslkk@mail.med.upenn.edu

Introduction

The component of tobacco that drives its compulsive use is nicotine, an alkaloid that acts on nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (AChRs) in the brain. AChRs are a heterogeneous family of ligand-gated cation channels which consist of five homologous subunits arranged around a central pore [1,2]. They are heteropentamers formed of combinations of α and β subunits, or homopentamers formed entirely of α 7 subunits [3]. Heteromeric AChRs usually have two ACh binding sites that are formed between adjacent α and β subunits. The remaining subunit is in the ''accessory'' position. While the accessory subunit does not usually form part of a binding site for ACh, it has major effects on responses to nicotinic agonists, antagonists and allosteric modulators. There is a third ACh binding site in the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_{2}\alpha 4$ stoichiometry, formed at the interface between the α 4 accessory subunit and another α 4 subunit [4,5].

The predominant AChR subtypes in human brain are heteromeric AChRs comprised of combinations of α 4 and β 2 subunits, alone or in combination with other subunits, such as β 3, α 5 or α 6, or homomeric AChRs comprised of α 7 subunits. Selfadministration of nicotine is inhibited by knockout of α 4, β 2, or α 6 subunits [6], but is increased by knockout of α 5 subunits [7]. AChRs containing the α 3 subunit are the predominant postsynaptic AChRs in the autonomic and enteric nervous systems [8]. In

the brain, α 3 and β 4 subunits are prominent only in the medial habenula [9].

Although nicotine is a drug of abuse, it also has many positive effects that could be exploited therapeutically. In addition to their use for treating nicotine addiction, nicotinic agonists are being developed for treatment of disorders ranging from Alzheimer's disease to schizophrenia [10]. Varenicline and cytisine have been promoted for treating nicotine addiction because they are high affinity partial agonists that displace nicotine and decrease its rewarding effects by attenuating dopamine release in the mesolimbic system [11]. However, many of the clinical effects of nicotine and partial agonists are mediated by desensitization of AChRs. Sazetidine-A is a very potent and high affinity acute agonist, and a very efficient desensitizer. It produces many of the in vivo effects of nicotine and partial agonists such as inhibition of nicotine self-administration, increased attention, pain relief, reduction in anxiety and depression, and weight reduction, suggesting that these effects may result more from desensitization than from activation [12–17].

All of these cholinergic ligands upregulate $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ AChRs in tissue culture, and all but sazetidine-A also do so *in vivo* [18]. Sazetidine-A may have sufficient membrane permeability in vivo to desensitize AChRs on neuron surfaces, but insufficient to achieve intracellular concentrations sufficient to promote assembly of $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ AChRs [18,19].

Transient application of nicotine or other agonists activates AChRs, opening the cation channel resulting in depolarization and other effects mediated by entry of cations, followed by acute desensitization and then rapid recovery. Chronic exposure to agonists causes prolonged desensitization. In typical physiological assays, the effects of these drugs are observed over seconds or minutes. However, *in vivo* they are present over many hours. ''Smoldering activation'' occurs at agonist concentrations at which some AChRs are desensitized while others are activated. This can occur within minutes after recovery from acute activation or after prolonged continuous exposure to agonists. The relative contributions of acute activation and chronic desensitization of AChRs in causing as well as treating nicotine addiction, or mediating the beneficial effects of nicotine are being actively investigated [18,20].

We have established a number of transfected cell lines that permanently express human AChR subtypes [21–25]. The α 4 β 2 expressing cell line contains a mixture of two stoichiometries differing by the presence of α 4 or β 2 in the accessory position [22]. A similar mixture of stoichiometries is found in brain [26,27]. The $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\beta 2$ stoichiometry is more sensitive to activation and upregulation by nicotine, desensitizes more slowly and is less permeable to calcium [22,28]. It is sensitive to activation by sazetidine-A, but not varenicline or cytisine, whereas the $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4 stoichiometry is sensitive to activation by varenicline and cytisine but not sazetidine-A [29,30].

It is difficult to measure chronic desensitization of human AChRs using classical electrophysiological techniques such as human AChRs expressed in Xenopus oocytes or patch clamp studies on individual cells. Furthermore, until recently, it has not been possible to express sufficient amounts of α 7 AChRs in human cell lines for functional assays. To obtain sufficient expression of α 7 AChRs, we used chemical chaperones to promote assembly of human α 7 in a cell line which co-expresses α 7 and the AChR chaperone protein RIC-3 [25].

In this study, we examined the effects of acute and prolonged application of nicotine and three drugs which are known to inhibit nicotine self-administration (varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A), on human α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. These studies confirm and extend basic expectations of the properties of these agonists. The agonists fully desensitized these AChR subtypes with the exception of sazetidine-A on $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_{2}\alpha 4$. We have defined the range of concentrations of each of these agonists which can sustain smoldering activation of these AChRs. For α 4 β 2, but not α 3 β 4 or a7 AChRs, smoldering activation occurs at concentrations of nicotine that are sustained in smokers.

Methods

cDNAs and Chemicals

Human α 3, α 4, α 7, β 2 and β 4 cDNAs were cloned in this laboratory as described previously [21,31,32]. Sazetidine-A was from Tocris Bioscience (Ellisville, MO). All other chemicals were from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO).

Cell Lines and Transfection

The parental cell line used for transfections was tsA201, derived from the human embryonic kidney cell line (HEK) 293 [33]. The cell line permanently expressing a4b2 AChRs [22,23] has a mixture of two α 4 β 2 stoichiometries, namely $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4, which has lower sensitivity, and $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$, which has higher sensitivity to activation by ACh [22]. The cell line permanently expressing α 3 β 4 AChRs has been described [21,34]. A stable cell line expressing functional a7 AChRs was prepared by initially transfecting the tsA201 cell line with cDNA for α 7 and subsequently transfecting with cDNA for the AChR-selective chaperone, human RIC-3. The expression of functional α 7 AChRs in this cell line was further increased by growth in the chemical chaperones valproic acid (VPA, 1 mM) and 4-phenylbutyric acid (PBA, 3 mM) for at least 2 weeks before functional assays [25].

All transfected cell lines were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (InVitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) with 10% fetal bovine serum (Hyclone, Logan, UT) supplemented with 2 mM glutamine. The expression of α 4, α 3 and α 7 was maintained with Zeocin (0.5 mg/ml) and the expression of β 2, β 4 and RIC-3 was maintained with G418 (0.6 mg/ml). The cell lines were grown at 37° C with 5% CO₂ in a humidified atmosphere.

Acute Activation

Responses to nicotinic agonists were determined using a FLEXStation microplate fluorometer (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA) as described [23]. For cell lines expressing α 4 β 2 and α 3 β 4 AChRs, the cells were plated at 10⁵ cells/ml (100 µl/well) in black-walled clear-bottom 96 well plates (Costar, Fisher Scientific, Pittsbugh, PA), and incubated for 48 hours prior to assaying responses to various nicotinic agonists. The α 7/RIC-3 expressing cells were plated at $5\times10^5/\mathrm{ml}$ in black-walled clear-bottom 96 well BioCoat plates (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ) in the continued presence of VPA and PBA, with the addition of 5% human AB serum (Pel-Freez Biologicals, Rogers, AR) to further increase expression of α 7 [35]. The cells were then grown for 24 hours prior to the assay.

To measure responses to various nicotinic agonists, $100 \mu l$ of a fluorescent dye which is sensitive to changes in membrane potential (Molecular Devices) was added to the wells. The dye was prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions, with the addition of atropine $(0.5 \mu M)$ to block muscarinic responses. The plates were then incubated at 37° C for one hour prior to the assay. Serial dilutions of agonists were then prepared in Hanks Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) in V-shaped 96-well plates (Fisher Scientific Co, Pittsburgh, PA). Fluorescent responses were measured in the FLEX Station at 25° C, with an excitation wavelength of 530 nm and an emission wavelength of 565 nm. Various agonists (50 µl) were added after the first 20 seconds and responses were followed for 60–120 seconds.

Chronic Desensitization

To measure desensitization, plates were prepared as for agonist assays. Sixteen hours prior to the assay, serial dilutions of agonists, prepared in regular growth medium, were added to the plates. One hour before the assay, the membrane potential-sensitive fluorescent dye with $0.5 \mu M$ atropine was added to the wells. For α 4 β 2 AChRs, responses were measured to 3 μ M ACh (to detect responses of $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ AChRs) and 100 μ M ACh (to detect responses of both stoichiometries). For α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs, responses to saturating concentrations of ACh (1 mM for α 3 β 4 and 10 μ M for α 7) were measured. Each data point represents the average of peak values for individual dose response curves from 4– 8 wells.

Expression of $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ AChRs

To determine which stoichiometry of α 4 β 2 AChRs was affected by sazetidine-A, we performed short term transfection of β 2 subunits into the α 4 β 2 expressing cell line. To increase the expression of the higher sensitivity $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ stoichiometry, the cell line expressing α 4 and β 2 was cotransfected with human β 2 (pRc-CMV/Geneticin) using the FuGene6 transfection agent (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN). On the following day,

 $0.5 \mu M$ nicotine was added to further increase the expression of the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\beta 2$ stoichiometry. After incubation for 24 hr with nicotine, the cells were washed twice with growth medium, and then serial dilutions of sazetidine-A were added for 6 hours prior to the assay. Desensitization by sazetidine-A was measured using the FlexStation as described above, with 3 μ M and 100 μ M ACh.

Smoldering Activation following Acute Desensitization

Responses of α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs to the acute application of ACh (100 μ M), nicotine (16 μ M), varenicline (4 μ M), cytisine (16 μ M) and sazetidine-A (62.5 nM) were measured using the FlexStation as described. These drug concentrations were selected because they gave maximum sustained responses to these agonists. Results were expressed as a percentage of maximum response to ACh. Responses were monitored for 10 minutes, and then specific antagonists were added and responses recorded for another two minutes. The antagonists were dihydro β erythroidine (DH β E) (1 µM) for α 4 β 2, mecamylamine (MCA (10 μ M) for α 3 β 4 and methyllycaconitine (MLA) (10 μ M) for α 7. These concentrations of antagonists were selected because they were sufficient to inhibit responses to the tested agonists without causing activation themselves.

Statistics

Data were graphed using GraphPad Prism software. Non-linear models (sigmoidal dose-response with variable slope or two site competition) were used to fit the concentration response curves. The EC50 and IC50 were calculated from the curves. Kaleidagraph software was used to determine Hill slopes and standard errors of the EC50 and IC50.

Results

Acute Responses to Nicotinic Agonists

Acute responses of α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs were tested after application of a range of concentrations of ACh, nicotine, varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A, using the FlexStation with an indicator which is sensitive to changes in membrane potential. Responses of these AChRs to saturating concentrations of ACh are shown in Figure 1. The kinetics of responses of the other agonists were very similar to those of ACh (data not shown). The effects of saturating concentrations of ACh on α 4 β 2 and α 3 β 4 AChRs had the same appearance, with a maximum response reached within 40 seconds of agonist application. The responses of a7 AChRs were quite different with a maximum response within 5 seconds, followed by acute desensitization. However, the rate of acute desensitization was less than detected with electrophysiological techniques [36–38]. The amplitudes of responses of saturating concentrations of ACh (expressed as relative fluorescence units) were similar for α 4 β 2 (167,000+/-18,000) and α 3 β 4 (161,000+/ $-14,000$), but significantly lower for α 7 AChRs (54,000+/-3000), probably as a result of rapid desensitization [36].

The concentration response curves for various agonists on α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs are shown in Figure 2. The EC50's are summarized in Table 1. Nicotine had an efficacy comparable to that of ACh on α 4 β 2* AChRs, whereas varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A were partial agonists, with efficacies of 48% for varenicline, 34% for cytisine and 44% for sazetidine-A. All of the tested compounds were full agonists on α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. The EC50 values for α 7 were lower than often reported by electrophysiological techniques. The EC50 values for α 7 vary widely according to the assay method [36,39–41]. Millisecond agonist kinetics are probably irrelevant for drugs present in the body for hours. It is likely that sustained smoldering activation and

Figure 1. Acute responses of AChRs to application of saturating concentrations of ACh. Fluorescent responses were measured using the FLEXStation with a membrane potential-sensitive indicator. The kinetics of responses of α 4 β 2 (to 300 µM ACh) and α 3 β 4 AChRs (to 1.0 mM ACh) were very similar, with a maximum response reached within 45 seconds of agonist application. The response of α 7 AChRs (to 10 uM ACh) was more rapid, with a peak response within 5 seconds, followed by rapid desensitization. Each data point represents the average of 4 individual response curves. The absolute values of responses of saturating concentrations of ACh (expressed as relative fluorescence units) were similar for α 4 β 2 (167,000+/-18,000) and α 3 β 4 (161,000+/-14,000), but significantly lower for α 7 AChRs (54,00+/ -3000), probably as a result of rapid desensitization. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.g001

sustained antagonism due to desensitization are the most relevant factors. The fluorescence indicator is a more sensitive measure of α 7 activation, although the response kinetics are slower [38].

The cell line transfected with α 4 and β 2 subunits expresses a mixture of $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\beta 2$ and $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\gamma 4$ stoichiometries, which have different sensitivities to nicotine and other agonists. The concentration response curves for acetylcholine, nicotine and varenicline fit with a two-site competition model, likely indicating that these agonists have different effects on the two stoichiometries. On the other hand, the dose response curves for cytisine and sazetidine-A were monophasic, likely because these agonists act on only one stoichiometry.

The EC50 of nicotine for the more sensitive $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ stoichiometry was $0.18 \mu M$, which is within the range of nicotine levels detected in smokers (see Discussion). For varenicline, the EC50 for the more sensitive stoichiometry was $0.20 \mu M$, which is close to the peak blood levels of $0.1 \mu M$ detected in humans after a 1 mg dose of this drug [42]. On the other hand, the EC50 for nicotine on α 3 β 4 was 9.7 μ M and for α 7 AChRs was 0.75 μ M, levels which cannot be reached in the systemic circulation. The EC50 for varenicline on α 7 AChRs was 0.4 μ M, which is close to levels reached in humans after a dose of 1 mg [42]. The EC50 of cytisine for α 4 β 2 AChRs was 5.5 μ M. It is uncertain whether this is a clinically achievable level. Sazetidine-A was the most potent of all the agonists on α 4 β 2 AChRs (EC50 = 0.0023 µM). In mice treated with 2 mg/kg sazetidine-A, serum levels of 1.6 μ M and brain levels of $0.15 \mu M$ are reached [19].

Desensitization

To assess desensitization, cell lines expressing human AChRs were incubated overnight with a range of concentrations of agonists, and responses to ACh were then measured. For α 4 β 2^{*} AChRs, activity was assayed using $3 \mu M$ ACh (to assay function of the more sensitive $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \beta 2$ stoichiometry), and 100 µM ACh (to assay function of both stoichiometries). For the other AChRs,

Figure 2. Responses of human a4ß2, a3ß4 and a7-expressing cell lines to various concentrations of nicotinic agonists. Responses were measured using the FLEXStation with an indicator sensitive to changes in membrane potential. Results are expressed as a percent of maximal fluorescence. Each data point is an average of the peak fluorescence of 4–8 individual dose-response curves. Nicotine and ACh are full agonists on α4β2, whereas varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A are partial agonists. All of the tested compounds are full agonists on α3β4 and α7 AChRs. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.g002

saturating concentrations of ACh were applied (1.0 mM for $\alpha 3\beta 4$ and 10 μ M for α 7). Responses for the three different AChRs are shown in Figures 3, 4, 5, 6, along with the dose response curves for activation (the same as shown in Figure 2). The range of concentrations at which both sustained activation and desensitization can occur (''smoldering activation'') was calculated by

multiplying the acute response to agonists at each concentration by the fractional response remaining after desensitization.

The results for α 4 β 2 are shown in Figure 3. The intercept of the activation and desensitization curves is shown in Table 1. For nicotine, the area of overlap of the activation and desensitization curves (using $3 \mu M$ ACh) was centered at 0.13 μM (summarized in Table 1). This is within the range of nicotine concentrations Table 1. Agonist Efficacy and Sensitivity for Activation and Desensitization.

The EC50's for activation of α 4B2, α 3B4 and α 7 AChRs are expressed in µM. In cases where the dose response curves fit with a two-site competition model, the EC50 for the higher sensitivity component is listed first. For desensitization, cell lines expressing various human AChRs were incubated overnight in the presence of a range of concentrations of agonists, and then tested for activation by ACh. For α 4 β 2 AChRs, two concentrations of ACh were tested, namely 3 μ M (to test the more sensitive stoichiometry (x4β2)₂β2), and 100 µM ACh (to assay function of both stoichiometries). For the other AChRs, saturating concentrations of ACh were used (1.0 mM for α 3 β 4 and 10 µM for α 7).

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.t001

found in the blood of smokers $(0.058-0.34 \mu M$ [43]). The extent of calculated smoldering activation at a clinically relevant concentration of 0.1 μ M nicotine was 6% of maximum response for the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\beta 2$ stoichiometry and 18% for the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\beta 4$ stoichiometry. Nicotine is capable of sustaining a calculated smoldering response of 54% of maximum response on the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\alpha 4$ stoichiometry. However, this requires a nicotine concentration of $1.8 \mu M$, which far exceeds concentrations sustained in smokers. Likewise, for varenicline, the area of overlap of the activation and desensitization curves (using $3 \mu M$ ACh) was centered at 0.16 μ M. Levels of 0.4 μ M are reached in patients on therapeutic doses of this drug [42]. Smoldering activation by varenicline or cytisine is likely mediated by the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_{2}\alpha 4$ stoichiometry. For example, at a varenicline concentration of 1 μ M, $>90\%$ of $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ AChRs are desensitized, whereas \sim 50% of (α 4 β 2)₂ α 4 AChRs are desensitized. At 1 μ M varenicline, the smoldering activation is 4.3% of the maximum response for $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ AChRs compared to 23% for $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\alpha 4$ AChRs. Desensitization is more likely to account for the effectiveness of these agonists in smoking cessation than is activation, since knock out of α 4 or β 2 (but not α 7) eliminates nicotine self-administration [6].

For cytisine the area of overlap of the activation and desensitization curves for α 4 β 2 sites (with 3 μ M ACh) was centered at $0.45 \mu M$. When desensitization by cytisine was assayed with $100 \mu M$ ACh, there was a plateau on the dose response curve for cytisine concentrations above 10 nM.

For sazetidine-A the area of overlap of the activation and desensitization curves with $3 \mu M$ ACh centered around 0.0015 µM. There was also a plateau on the desensitization curve for α 4 β 2 AChRs with sazetidine-A using 100 µM ACh, suggesting that sazetidine-A desensitized the response of the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ but not the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \alpha 4$ stoichiometry. To resolve the contributions of the two stoichiometries to the effects of sazetidine-A, we transfected the α 4 β 2* expressing cell line with additional β 2 subunits, and then cultured the cells in the presence of $0.5 \mu M$ nicotine in order to express predominantly the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ stoichiometry. As shown in Figure 4, the desensitization curves for sazetidine-A, using both $3 \mu M$ and $100 \mu M$ ACh overlapped. These curves are very similar to the one shown in Figure 3 for sazetidine-A on mixed stoichiometries of α 4 β 2 tested with 3 μ M ACh (which activates predominantly the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ stoichiometry). This indicates that sazetidine-A desensitizes only the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ stoichiometry. The plateau on the dose response curve for 100 μ M ACh with mixed stoichiometries of α 4 β 2* likely indicates a lack of agonist and desensitizing activity of sazetidine-A on the less sensitive $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_{0}\alpha 4$ stoichiometry. Carbone *et al.* [30] reported that sazetidine-A is a full agonist at $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ AChRs but had $\langle 1\% \rangle$ efficacy on the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \alpha 4$ stoichiometry. Sazetidine-A may not be able to bind, activate or desensitize the third ACh binding site present at the α 4/ α 4 interface in the $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4 stoichiometry [4,5]. Sazetidine-A has by far the highest affinity of these agonists at the α 4 β 2 binding sites and is exceptionally potent at inhibiting nicotine self-administration in rats [12]. This implies that

Figure 3. Activation and Desensitization of α 4 β 2 AChRs by Various Agonists. Responses were measured using the FLEXStation with an indicator sensitive to changes in membrane potential. Results are expressed as a percentage of maximum fluorescence. Activity remaining after 16 hours desensitization by the indicated concentrations of agonist was assayed using 3 µM ACh (to assay function of the more sensitive stoichiometry $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$, and 100 µM ACh (to assay function of both stoichiometries). Each data point is the average of the peak fluorescence of 4–8 dose-response curves. The responses to acute application of agonists are the same as shown in Figure 2. The extent of smoldering activation (shaded area) was

calculated by multiplying the extent of acute activation by the extent of sustained desensitization at each concentration. For nicotine, the area of overlap for the more sensitive $(\alpha 4\beta 2)$ ₂ β 2 stoichiometry was centered at 0.13 µM, which is a concentration typically found in smokers. Likewise for varenicline, the area of overlap for the more sensitive $(\alpha 4\beta 2)$, β 2 stoichiometry was centered at 0.16 µM, which corresponds to peak concentrations achieved in humans. Sazetidine-A was highly potent at activating as well as desensitizing α 4 β 2 AChRs. The area of overlap for (α 4 β 2)₂ β 2 AChRs was centered at 1.5 nM. When 100 µM ACh was used for desensitization, there was a plateau on the dose response curve beginning at around 10 nM. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.g003

inhibition of nicotine self-administration can be mediated by desensitizing α 4 β 2^{*} AChR responses through their α 4 β 2 binding sites. The desensitizing effects of sazetidine-A are known to persist long after brief acute activation [44].

For all of the tested agonists, α 3 β 4 AChRs were much less sensitive to both activation and desensitization than were α 4 β 2 AChRs (Figure 5). The areas of overlap for the nicotine and varenicline activation and desensitization curves correspond to much higher drug levels than can be achieved in humans.

As shown in Figure 6, the activation and desensitization curves for α 7 AChRs were much steeper than for either α 4 β 2 or α 3 β 4, as expected since a7 AChRs have five ACh binding sites acting cooperatively to activate this AChR (rather than two for $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ and α 3 β 4, or three for $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4). For nicotine, the area of overlap of the activation and desensitization curves for α 7 corresponds to concentrations of nicotine that are higher than can be reached in humans, with an intercept of the nicotine activation and desensitization curves of $1.7 \mu M$. However, for varenicline, the area of overlap of the activation and desensitization curves for α 7 corresponds to concentrations that are within a clinically achievable range, with the intercept of the curves at $0.4 \mu M$.

Smoldering Activation Following Acute Desensitization

We evaluated the kinetics of responses over several minutes to concentrations of the various agonists that gave maximum sustained responses. The results were expressed as a percentage of the maximum response to ACh. As shown in Figure 7, for α 4 β 2 and α 3 β 4 AChRs, following acute activation and partial desensitization, there was a low level of sustained activation lasting at least 10 minutes. This sustained response was abrogated

Figure 4. Sazetidine-A desensitization of the more sensitive $(\alpha 4\beta 2)$ ₂ β 2 stoichiometry with 3 μ M and 100 μ M ACh. Cells stably expressing α 4 β 2 AChRs were further transfected with β 2 subunits and cultured in nicotine as described, to enrich for the sensitive $(\alpha 4\beta 2), \beta 2$ stoichiometry. Responses were measured with the FlexStation using a membrane potential sensitive indicator, and results were expressed as a percentage of maximum fluorescence. The responses to both 3 μ M and 100 µM ACh overlapped, likely indicating that only the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)$ ₂ β 2 stoichiometry contributes to desensitization. The plateau on the desensitization curve with sazetidine-A on mixed stoichiometries of α 4 β 2* (shown in Figure 3) indicates that the $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4 stoichiometry is not desensitized even at high concentrations of sazetidine-A. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.g004

by the application of specific antagonists after 10 minutes (dihydro β erythroidine (DH β E) (1 µM) for α 4 β 2 or mecamylamine (MCA) (10 μ M) for α 3 β 4). For α 7 AChRs, the initial activation and desensitization was more rapid than for α 4 β 2 or α 3 β 4 AChRs. The residual response after 10 minutes was abrogated by the application of the α 7 antagonist methylycaconitine (MLA) $(10 \mu M)$.

Thus, small but significant smoldering responses can be maintained for a period of minutes after acute activation. With α 3 β 4 and α 7 subtypes, these effects may not be significant at drug concentrations obtained in vivo. With α 4 β 2 subtypes, small but significant effects may occur in vivo, and may contribute to nicotine addiction.

Discussion

In this study, we utilize human AChRs cloned in human cells to examine the dual effects of activation and desensitization by nicotinic agonists. These transfected cell lines have advantages over AChRs expressed in Xenopus oocytes, which can retain nicotine and other agonists, and release them slowly, making it difficult to assess desensitization [45]. This is not an issue with HEK cells, which are much smaller than oocytes and lack their internal yolk compartments or other reservoirs that may account for tertiary amine uptake. Our binding studies with nicotine and epibatidine to live AChR-expressing HEK cells show that unbound agonists are easily washed away, indicating that these cells to not retain tertiary amines (unpublished results).

It has not previously been possible to measure function of α 7, because levels of expression were too low for functional assays. We have overcome this limitation by co-transfection with RIC-3 and by the use of chemical chaperones [25]. Human cell lines expressing specific AChR subtypes can be used for screening and evaluating novel compounds with activity on these AChRs.

Although nicotine, varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A are all agonists, their behavioral effects may depend as much on desensitization as activation. Most in vitro studies of nicotinic agonists have examined the acute effects of these drugs over seconds to minutes. It is unclear how this relates to the *in vivo* setting, where the drugs are present for hours or days. If the major mechanism by which these partial agonists inhibit nicotine selfadministration is desensitization, then this clinical effect may depend primarily on their binding affinity, rather than EC50 or efficacy.

Cytisine is a plant alkaloid used predominantly in Europe as an aid for smoking cessation [46]. It is a partial agonist on α 4 β 2 AChRs [47]. However, its clinical utility has been limited by poor absorption and limited brain penetration. Using cytisine as a lead compound, Coe et al. synthesized a series of α 4 β 2 partial agonists. One of these compounds, varenicline, was selected for further development because of its improved potency and efficacy [11]. Clinically, varenicline has been shown to improve long-term smoking cessation rates compared to unassisted quit attempts or bupropion (see [48] for review). It is now widely used for smoking cessation.

Sazetidine-A is a novel nicotinic receptor ligand that is highly selective for α 4 β 2 AChRs [44]. It has potential applications for treating nicotine addiction [12], as well as depression [15,16,49]

Figure 5. Activation and Desensitization of a3ß4 AChRs by Various Agonists. Responses were measured using the FLEXStation with an indicator sensitive to changes in membrane potential. Results were expressed as a percentage of maximum fluorescence. Activity remaining after 16 hours desensitization by the indicated concentrations of agonist was assayed using 1 mM ACh. The extent of smoldering activation (shaded area) was calculated by multiplying the extent of acute activation by the extent of sustained desensitization at each concentration. For nicotine and varenicline, smoldering activation of α 3 β 4 AChRs occurs at concentrations that are above levels that can be reached in humans. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.g005

and pain [14,50]. Initially it was reported to desensitize α 4 β 2 AChRs in the absence of activation, but did not appear to either activate or desensitize rat α 3 β 4 AChRs [44]. However, subsequently Zwart et al. [51], using Xenopus oocytes expressing human α 4 and β 2 subunits, found that sazetidine-A was a potent agonist for both α 4 β 2 stoichiometries. It was a full agonist on the $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂B₂ stoichiometry but had only 6% activity on $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4. Using pentameric concatenated $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ and $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\alpha 4$ AChRs expressed in Xenopus oocytes, Carbone et al. [30] found that sazetidine-A was a full agonist on $(\alpha 4\beta 2)$, $\beta 2$ but was a partial agonist with very low efficacy on $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \alpha 4$ AChRs.

We found that varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A are partial agonists on the mixture of α 4 β 2 AChR subtypes, but full agonists on α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. While varenicline and cytisine are partial agonists on α 4 β 2 AChRs, they are capable of fully desensitizing these AChRs to the effects of ACh. On the other hand, for sazetidine-A, full desensitization was not reached even at high concentrations, presumably because this drug has no agonist activity on the α 4/ α 4 ACh binding site of $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4 AChRs. Varenicline, cytisine and sazetidine-A also partially upregulate α 4 β 2 AChRs relative to nicotine (data not shown).

Acute activation of AChRs occurs within seconds of application of the agonist and is followed by acute desensitization. In the continued presence of agonist over several minutes, there is a low level of residual activation, which can be blocked by the application of specific antagonists. In the presence of agonist over many hours, there is complete desensitization of all the tested AChR subtypes, with the exception of sazetidine-A on the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \alpha 4$ stoichiometry.

We propose that the area of overlap of the activation and desensitization curves defines the range of concentrations over which smoldering activation can be sustained. For α 4 β 2 AChRs, the range of smoldering activation for nicotine and varenicline corresponds to concentrations that can be achieved clinically. However, for nicotine, the range of smoldering activation for $\alpha 3\beta 4$ and a7 AChRs exceeds concentrations that can be reached in humans. For varenicline the range of smoldering activation for α 3 β 4 AChRs exceeds clinically achievable levels. However, for α 7 the range of smoldering activation corresponds to drug levels that can be reached clinically. This suggests that varenicline may have a clinical effect on α 7 AChRs, which could contribute to the undesirable side effects of this drug.

Figure 6. Activation and Desensitization of a7 AChRs by Various Agonists. Responses were measured using the FLEXStation with an indicator sensitive to changes in membrane potential. Results were expressed as a percentage of maximum fluorescence. Activity remaining after 16 hours desensitization by the indicated concentrations of agonist was assayed using 10 µM ACh. The extent of smoldering activation (shaded area) was calculated by multiplying the extent of acute activation by the extent of sustained desensitization at each concentration. For nicotine, the intercept of the activation and desensitization curves was 1.7 µM (well above the clinically achievable range). However, for varenicline, the intercept of the activation and desensitization curves was 0.4 µM, a concentration which can be reached with therapeutic doses of this drug. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.g006

The α 4 β 2 cell line has a mixture of $(\alpha$ 4 β 2 $)_2$ β 2 and $(\alpha$ 4 β 2 $)_2 \alpha$ 4 stoichiometries. In order to distinguish the effects of the two stoichiometries on the desensitization of α 4 β 2 AChRs, we used two concentrations of ACh, namely $3 \mu M$ (to detect effects on the high sensitivity stoichiometry), and $100 \mu M$ (to detect effects on both stoichiometries). Recent reports indicate that the low sensitivity $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_{2}\alpha 4$ stoichiometry has a third ACh binding site at the interface between adjacent α 4 subunits, resulting in an intrinsic bimodal concentration response curve with an additional low sensitivity component to the response [4,5]. Because we did not examine pure populations of $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\alpha 4$ AChRs, we were unable to detect this.

As expected, the agonist effect of nicotine on α 4 β 2 AChRs was bimodal. For the more sensitive stoichiometry of α 4 β 2, the EC50 for activation (0.18 uM) and the intercept of the activation and desensitization curves $(0.13 \mu M)$ correspond to levels of nicotine that are clinically relevant (see below). On the other hand, the EC50's and the intercepts of the activation and desensitization curves of nicotine for α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs are well above the range of concentrations that are achieved in smokers, indicating that these AChRs are unlikely to be involved with the reinforcing properties of nicotine. This is consistent with studies in transgenic mice showing that α 7 does not contribute to nicotine selfadministration, whereas the α 4 and β 2 subunits are both necessary and sufficient to maintain nicotine self-administration [6].

Apart from our results on $(\alpha 4\beta 2)$, $\beta 2$ for desensitization by sazetidine-A, we only examined mixed stoichiometries of α 4 β 2. The selection of 3 and 100 μ M ACh for desensitization of α 4 β 2 AChRs may not completely separate the effects of the high and low sensitivity stoichiometries. While the use of chimeric or concatameric AChRs may separate the effects of the different stoichiometries of a4b2 AChRs, cell lines with a mixture of stoichiometries may be more representative of in vivo effects.

In active smokers, the majority of α 4 β 2 AChRs in the brain are saturated [52], and thus are likely in a desensitized state. There is no information in humans on levels of nicotine in the brain during active smoking, but they are likely to be significantly higher than blood levels. Peak nicotine concentrations in venous blood of heavy smokers vary from 9.4–55.1 ng/ml (0.058–0.34 nM) [43].

At the clinically relevant nicotine concentration of $0.1 \mu M$, the extent of smoldering activation was higher for $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \alpha 4$ (18%) than for $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ (6%). This indicates that the stoichiometry

Figure 7. Short Term Desensitization of α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs by Various Agonists. Responses of α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs to the acute application of ACh (100 μ M), nicotine (16 μ M), varenicline (4 μ M), cytisine (16 μ M) and sazetidine-A (62.5 nM) were measured using the FlexStation as described. These drug concentrations were selected because they gave maximum sustained responses to these agonists. Results were expressed as a percentage of maximum response to ACh. Responses were monitored for 10 minutes, and then specific antagonists were added and responses recorded for another two minutes. The antagonists were dihydro β erythroidine (DH β E) (1 µM) for α 4 β 2, mecamylamine (MCA (10 μ M) for α 3 β 4 and methyllycaconitine (MLA) (10 μ M) for α 7. These concentrations of antagonists were selected because they were sufficient to inhibit responses to the tested agonists without causing activation themselves. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079653.g007

which is less sensitive to acute activation is more sensitive to smoldering activation by nicotine. This may be due to the fact that the amplitude of response of the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \alpha 4$ stoichiometry is 4– 11 fold greater than that of $(\alpha 4\beta 2)\beta 2$, probably as a result of greater probability of channel opening when three ACh binding sites are occupied [4,5].

Our results show that cytisine is a partial agonist on α 4 β 2 and a full agonist on α 3 β 4 and α 7, confirming what others have found [53]. The EC50 for cytisine on α 4 β 2 was 5.5 µM. It is uncertain whether this concentration is clinically relevant, as drug levels of cytisine that can be reached in humans are not yet defined [54]. Using concatameric as well as unlinked α 4 β 2 AChRs, Carbone *et al.* found that cytisine was a partial agonist on $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\alpha 4$, but was inactive on $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2 \beta 2$ [30].

Peak varenicline levels of 0.48 μ M are reached after 14 days on a standard dose of 1 mg twice daily [55]. We found that the EC50 for the more sensitive stoichiometry of α 4 β 2 was 0.2 μ M, which is within the therapeutic range, accounting for the therapeutic efficacy of this drug in treating nicotine addiction. The EC50 for α 7 was 0.4 μ M, also within the therapeutic range. The effect of varenicline on a7 AChRs may account for some of the toxicity of this drug. Nausea, which is a dose-limiting toxicity of varenicline, probably results from activation of $5HT_3$ receptors [56]. The cause of the rare psychotic effects of varenicline which have led to the black box warning are unclear.

We found that sazetidine-A was a partial agonist on α 4 β 2 and a full agonist on α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. It was highly selective for α 4B2 AChRs, with an EC50 of 0.023 μ M, compared with 0.17 μ M for α 3 β 4 and 1.2 μ M for α 7. However, using this fluorescence assay, we detected much greater activity of sazetidine-A on human α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs than did Liu et al. [57] with a rubidium efflux assay on rat α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. Using transient transfection of β 2 to the α 4 β 2 expressing cell line we were able to resolve the effects of sazetidine-A on the two α 4 β 2 stoichiometries. We found that sazetidine-A desensitizes only the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)$ ₂ β 2 stoichiometry. The differential effect on the two stoichiometries may explain the discrepant reports in the literature regarding whether or not sazetidine-A can activate α 4 β 2 AChRs.

The results reported here allow us to speculate on the effects of prolonged presence of these agonists on endogenous cholinergic signaling in vivo as well as modulation of the effects of nicotine in smokers. Since varenicline is a partial agonist with greater affinity than nicotine and consequently more potency at desensitizing, the smoldering activation produced by nicotine on α 4 β 2 AChRs will be reduced in the presence of varenicline. The net effect of varenicline will be antagonistic to both the effects of nicotine and endogenous ACh signaling.

Cytisine has lower efficacy than varenicline on α 4 β 2 but also has lower affinity and consequently less potency at desensitizing. The net effect of cytisine will be antagonistic to both the effects of nicotine and endogenous ACh and it will decrease smoldering activation by nicotine.

Sazetidine is a partial agonist with much higher affinity than either varenicline or cytisine for $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ and it does not desensitize $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\alpha 4$. Therefore, it has a very potent net desensitizing effect on the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\beta 2$ stoichiometry while allowing nicotine to cause smoldering activation or desensitization of the $(\alpha 4\beta 2)_2\alpha 4$ stoichiometry.

On a3b4 AChRs, nicotine is expected to produce little activation or desensitization at concentrations typically sustained in smokers. Varenicline at submicromolar concentrations will also have limited effect. Cytisine should cause significant desensitization, but little agonist activity, at submicromolar concentrations. Sazetidine at submicromolar concentrations will cause significant smoldering activation as well as desensitization, thereby differing significantly from varenicline and cytisine.

On a7 AChRs, nicotine at concentrations sustained in smokers should have little agonist or desensitizing effect. Varenicline should cause significant smoldering activation and desensitizing effects at the concentrations used for smoking cessation therapy. This might contribute to the off target effects which have given it a black box warning of psychopathological effects in some smokers. Cytisine should have little effect on α 7 at therapeutic doses. However, sazetidine could have very substantial smoldering agonist effects on α 7 at concentrations that would be therapeutically significant. This could produce significant off target effects.

In summary, we have defined the range of concentrations of nicotinic agonists and partial agonists which can sustain smolder-

References

- 1. Millar NS, Gotti C (2009) Diversity of vertebrate nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. [Review] [162 refs]. Neuropharmacol 56: 237–246.
- 2. Lindstrom JM (2002) Acetylcholine receptor structure. In: Kaminski HJ, editors. Current Clinical Neurology: Mysathenia Gravis and Related Disorders. Towata, NJ: Humana Press Inc. 15–52.
- 3. Gotti C, Clementi F, Fornari A, Gaimarri A, Guiducci S, et al. (2009) Structural and functional diversity of native brain neuronal nicotinic receptors. Biochem Pharmacol 78: 703–711.
- 4. Harpsøe K, Ahring PK, Christensen JK, Jensen ML, Peters D, et al. (2011) Unraveling the high-and low-sensitivity agonist responses of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. The Journal of Neuroscience 31: 10759–10766.
- 5. Mazzaferro S, Benallegue N, Carbone A, Gasparri F, Vijayan R, et al. (2011) An additional ACh binding site at the α 4 α 4 interface of the $(\alpha$ 4 β 2)₂ α 4 nicotinic receptor influences agonist sensitivity. J Biol Chem 286: 31043–31054.
- 6. Pons S, Fattore L, Cossu G, Tolu S, Porcu E, et al. (2008) Crucial role of a4 and a6 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunits from ventral tegmental area in systemic nicotine self-administration. The Journal of Neuroscience 28: 12318– 12327.
- 7. Fowler CD, Lu Q, Johnson PM, Marks MJ, Kenny PJ (2011) Habenular a5 nicotinic receptor subunit signalling controls nicotine intake. Nature 471: 597– 601.
- 8. Xu W, Gelber S, Orr-Urtreger A, Armstrong D, Lewis RA, et al. (1999) Megacystis, mydriasis, and ion channel defect in mice lacking the a3 neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptor. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 96: 5746–5751.
- 9. Gotti C, Moretti M, Gaimarri A, Zanardi A, Clementi F, et al. (2007) Heterogeneity and complexity of native brain nicotinic receptors. Biochem Pharmacol 74: 1102–1111.
- 10. Hurst R, Rollema H, Bertrand D (2013) Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: From basic science to therapeutics. Pharmacology & Therapeutics 137: 22–54.
- 11. Coe JW, Brooks PR, Vetelino MG, Wirtz MC, Arnold EP, et al. (2005) Varenicline: An α 4 β 2 nicotinic receptor partial agonist for smoking cessation. J Med Chem 48: 3474–3477.
- 12. Levin ED, Rezvani AH, Xiao Y, Slade S, Cauley M, et al. (2010) Sazetidine-A, a selective α 4 β 2 nicotinic receptor desensitizing agent and partial agonist, reduces nicotine self-administration in rats. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 332: 933–939.
- 13. Lee C-H, Zhu C, Malysz J, Campbell T, Shaunessy T, et al. (2011) $\alpha 4\beta 2$ neuronal nicotinic receptor positive allosteric modulation: An approach for improving the therapeutic index of α 4 β 2 nAChR agonists in pain. Biochem Pharmacol 82: 959–966.
- 14. AlSharari SD, Carroll FI, McIntosh JM, Damaj MI (2012) The antinociceptive effects of nicotinic partial agonists varenicline and sazetidine-A in murine acute and tonic pain models. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 342: 742–749.
- 15. Turner JR, Castellano LM, Blendy JA (2010) Nicotinic partial agonists for anxiety and depression. Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics 334: 665–672.
- 16. Caldarone BJ, Wang D, Paterson NE, Manzano M, Fedolak A, et al. (2011) Dissociation between the duration of action in the forced swim test in mice and nicotinic acetylcholine receptor occupancy with sazetidine, varenicline, and 5-I-A85380. Psychopharmacology 217: 199–210.
- 17. Rezvani A, Slade S, Wells C, Petro A, Lumeng L, et al. (2010) Effects of sazetidine-A, a selective α 4 β 2 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor desensitizing agent on alcohol and nicotine self-administration in selectively bred alcohol-preferring (P) rats. Psychopharmacology 211: 161–174.
- 18. Hussmann GP, Turner JR, Lomazzo E, Venkatesh R, Cousins V, et al. (2012) Chronic sazetidine-A at behaviorally active doses does not increase nicotinic cholinergic receptors in rodent brain. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 343: 441–450.
- 19. Hussmann GP, Kellar KJ (2012) A new radioligand binding assay to measure the concentration of drugs in rodent brain ex vivo. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 343: 434–440.
- 20. Picciotto MR, Addy NA, Mineur YS, Brunzell DH (2008) It is not ''either/or'': Activation and desensitization of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors both contribute to behaviors related to nicotine addiction and mood. Progress in Neurobiology 84: 329–342.
- 21. Wang F, Nelson ME, Kuryatov A, Olale F, Cooper J, et al. (1998) Chronic nicotine treatment up-regulates human α3β2, but not α3β4 acetylcholine receptors stably transfected in human embryonic kidney cells. 273 28721: 28732.

ing activation of human α 4 β 2, α 3 β 4 and α 7 AChRs. Further studies are needed to determine the role of smoldering activation not only in nicotine addiction but also in the therapeutic effects of nicotinic agonists and partial agonists.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: BC JL AK. Performed the experiments: BC AK. Analyzed the data: BC AK JL. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: JL BC AK. Wrote the paper: BC JL AK.

- 22. Nelson ME, Kuryatov A, Choi CH, Zhou Y, Lindstrom J (2003) Alternate stoichiometries of human α 4 β 2 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Mol Pharmacol 63: 332–341.
- 23. Kuryatov A, Luo J, Cooper J, Lindstrom J (2005) Nicotine acts as a pharmacological chaperone to upregulate human a4b2 AChRs. Mol Pharmacol 68: 1839–1.
- 24. Tumkosit P, Kuryatov A, Luo J, Lindstrom J (2006) β 3 subunits promote expression and nicotine-induced up-regulation of human nicotinic α_0 ^{*} nicotinic acetylcholine receptors expressed in transfected cell lines. Mol Pharmacol 70: 1358–1368.
- 25. Kuryatov A, Mukherjee J, Lindstrom J (2013) Chemical chaperones exceed the chaperone effect of RIC-3 in promoting assembly of functional a7 AChRs. PLoS ONE 8 (4): e62246.
- 26. Marks MJ, Meinerz NM, Drago J, Collins AC (2007) Gene targeting demonstrates that a4 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunits contribute to expression of diverse $[^{3}H]$ epibatidine binding sites and components of biphasic $^{86}Rb^{+}$ efflux with high and low sensitivity to stimulation by acetylcholine. Neuropharmacol 53: 390–405.
- 27. Gotti C, Moretti M, Meinerz NM, Clementi F, Gaimarri A, et al. (2008) Partial deletion of the nicotinic cholinergic receptor α 4 or β 2 subunit genes changes the acetylcholine sensitivity of the receptor-mediated 86 Rb⁺ efflux in cortex and thalamus and alters relative expression of α 4 and β 2 subunits. Molecular Pharmacology 73: 1796–1807.
- 28. Tapia L, Kuryatov A, Lindstrom J (2006) Ca²⁺ permeability of the $(\alpha 4)_{3}(\beta 2)_{2}$ stoichiometry greatly exceeds that of $(\alpha 4)_2(\beta 2)_3$ human acetylcholine receptors. Mol Pharmacol 71: 769–776.
- 29. Moroni M, Zwart R, Sher E, Cassels BK, Bermudez I (2006) a4b2 nicotinic receptors with high and low acetylcholine sensitivity: Pharmacology, stoichiometry, and sensitivity to long-term exposure to nicotine. Mol Pharmacol 70: 755– 768.
- 30. Carbone AL, Moroni M, Groot-Kormelink P-J, Bermudez I (2009) Pentameric concatenated $(\alpha 4)_{2}(\beta 2)_{3}$ and $(\alpha 4)_{3}(\beta 2)_{2}$ nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: subunit arrangement determines functional expression. Br J Pharm 156: 970–981.
- 31. Kuryatov A, Gerzanich V, Nelson M, Olale F, Lindstrom J (1997) Mutation causing autosomal dominant nocturnal frontal lobe epilepsy alters Ca^{2} permeability, conductance, and gating of human α 4 β 2 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. J Neurosci 17: 9035–9047.
- 32. Peng X, Katz M, Gerzanich V, Anand R, Lindstrom J (1993) Human a7 acetylcholine receptor: Cloning of the α 7 subunit from the SH-SY5Y cell line and determination of pharmacological properties of mature receptors and functional a7 homomers expressed in Xenopus oocytes. Mol Pharmacol 45: 546– 554.
- 33. Margolskee RF, McHendry-Rinde B, Horn R (1993) Panning transfected cells for electrophysiological studies. Biotechniques 15: 906–911.
- 34. Nelson ME, Wang F, Kuryatov A, Choi CH, Gerzanich V, et al. (2001) Functional properties of human nicotinic AChRs expressed by IMR-32 neuroblastoma cells resemble those of α 3 β 4 AChRs expressed in permanently transfected HEK cells. J Gen Physiol 118: 563–582.
- 35. Conroy WG, Liu QS, Nai Q, Margiotta JF, Berg DK (2003) Potentiation of a7 containing nicotinic acetylcholine receptors by select albumins. Mol Pharmacol 63: 419–428.
- 36. Papke RL, Papke JKP (2002) Comparative pharmacology of rat and human $\alpha7$ nAChR conducted with net charge analysis. Br J Pharm 137: 49–61.
- 37. Olale F, Gerzanich V, Kuryatov A, Wang F, Lindstrom J (1997) Chronic nicotine exposure differentially affects the function of human α 3, α 4, and α 7 neuronal nicotinic receptor subtypes. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 283: 675–683.
- 38. Magnus CJ, Lee PH, Atasoy D, Su HH, Looger LL, et al. (2011) Chemical and genetic engineering of selective ion channel-ligand interactions. Science 333: 1292–1296.
- 39. Papke RL, Trocme´-Thibierge C, Guendisch D, Al Rubaiy SAA, Bloom SA (2011) Electrophysiological perspectives on the therapeutic use of nicotinic acetylcholine receptor partial agonists. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 337: 367–379.
- 40. Papke R (2010) Tricks of Perspective: Insights and limitations to the study of macroscopic currents for the analysis of nAChR activation and desensitization. Journal of Molecular Neuroscience 40: 77–86.
- 41. Dunlop J, Roncarati R, Jow B, Bothmann H, Lock T, et al. (2007) In vitro screening strategies for nicotinic receptor ligands. Biochem Pharmacol 74: 1172– 1181.
- 42. Obach RS, Reed-Hagen AE, Krueger SS, Obach BJ, O'Connell TN, et al. (2006) Metabolism and disposition of varenicline, a selective α 4 β 2 acetylcholine receptor partial agonist, in vivo and in vitro. Drug Metab Dispos 34: 121–130.
- 43. Benowitz NL, Kuyt F, Jacob P (1982) Circadian blood nicotine concentrations during cigarette smoking. Clin Pharmacol Ther 32: 758–764.
- 44. Xiao Y, Fan H, Musachio JL, Wei Z-L, Chellappan SK, et al. (2006) Sazetidine-A, a novel ligand that desensitizes α 4 β 2 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors without activating them. Mol Pharmacol 70: 1454–1460.
- 45. Jia L, Flotildes K, Li M, Cohen BN (2003) Nicotine trapping causes the persistent desensitization of a4b2 nicotinic receptors expressed in oocytes. J Neurochem 84: 753–766.
- 46. Etter J-F (2006) Cytisine for smoking cessation. A literature review and a metaanalysis. Arch Intern Med 166: 1553–1559.
- 47. Papke RL, Heinemann SF (1994) Partial agonist properties of cytisine on neuronal nicotinic receptors containing the b2 subunit. Mol Pharmacol 45: 142– 149.
- 48. Cahill K, Stead LF (2011) Nicotine receptor partial agonists for smoking cessation. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2: 1–87.
- 49. Kozikowski AP, Eaton JB, Bajjuri KM, Chellappan SK, Chen Y, et al. (2009) Chemistry and pharmacology of nicotinic ligands based on 6-[5-(azetidin-2 ylmethoxy)pyridin-3-yl]hex-5-yn-1-ol (AMOP-H-OH) for possible use in depression. ChemMedChem 4: 1279–1291.
- 50. Cucchiaro G, Xiao Y, Gonzalez-Sulser A, Kellar KJ (2008) Analgesic effects of Sazetidine-A, a new nicotinic cholinergic drug. Anesthesiology 109: 512–519.
- 51. Zwart R, Carbone A, Moroni M, Bermudez I, Mogg AJ, et al. (2008) Sazetidine-A is a potent and selective agonist at native and recombinant α 482 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Mol Pharmacol 73: 1838–1843.
- 52. Brody AL, Mandelkern MA, London ED, Olmstead RE, Farahi J, et al. (2006) Cigarette smoking saturates brain a4b2 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Arch Gen Psychiatry 63: 907–915.
- 53. Luetje CW, Patrick J (1991) Both α and β -subunits contribute to the agonist sensitivity of neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Neuroscience 11: 837– 845.
- 54. Astroug H, Simeonova R, Kassabova LV, Danchev N, Svinarov D (2010) Pharmacokinetics of cytisine after single intravenous and oral administration in rabbits. Interdisc Toxicol 3: 15–20.
- 55. Faessel HM, Obach RS, Rollema H, Ravva R, Williams KE, et al. (2010) A review of the clinical pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of varenicline for smoking cessation. Clin Pharmacokin 49: 799–816.
- 56. Lummis SCR, Thompson AJ, Bencherif M, Lester HA (2011) Varenicline is a potent agonist of the human 5-hydroxytryptamine $_3$ receptor. JPET 339: 125– 131.
- 57. Liu Y, Richardson J, Tran T, Al-Muhtasib N, Xie T, et al. (2013) Chemistry and pharmacological studies of 3-Alkoxy-2,5-disubstituted-pyridinyl compounds as novel selective α 4 β 2 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor ligands that reduce alcohol intake in rats. J Med Chem 56: 3000–3011.