

# Structural model for $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid receptor noncompetitive antagonist binding: Widely diverse structures fit the same site

Ligong Chen\*, Kathleen A. Durkin<sup>†</sup>, and John E. Casida\*\*

\*Environmental Chemistry and Toxicology Laboratory, Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management and <sup>†</sup>Molecular Graphics Facility, College of Chemistry, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720

Contributed by John E. Casida, January 13, 2006

Several major insecticides, including  $\alpha$ -endosulfan, lindane, and fipronil, and the botanical picrotoxinin are noncompetitive antagonists (NCAs) for the GABA receptor. We showed earlier that human  $\beta_3$  homopentameric GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor recognizes all of the important GABAergic insecticides and reproduces the high insecticide sensitivity and structure-activity relationships of the native insect receptor. Despite large structural diversity, the NCAs are proposed to fit a single binding site in the chloride channel lumen lined by five transmembrane 2 segments. This hypothesis is examined with the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer by mutagenesis, pore structure studies, NCA binding, and molecular modeling. The 15 amino acids in the cytoplasmic half of the pore were mutated to cysteine, serine, or other residue for 22 mutants overall. Localization of A-1'C, A2'C, T6'C, and L9'C (index numbers for the transmembrane 2 region) in the channel lumen was established by disulfide cross-linking. Binding of two NCA radioligands [<sup>3</sup>H]1-(4-ethynylphenyl)-4-*n*-propyl-2,6,7-trioxabicyclo[2.2.2]octane and [<sup>3</sup>H] 3,3-bis-trifluoromethyl-bicyclo[2,2,1]heptane-2,2-dicarbonitrile was dramatically reduced with 8 of the 15 mutated positions, focusing attention on A2', T6', and L9' as proposed binding sites, consistent with earlier mutagenesis studies. The cytoplasmic half of the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer pore was modeled as an  $\alpha$ -helix. The six NCAs listed above plus t-butylbicyclophosphorothionate fit the 2' to 9' pore region forming hydrogen bonds with the T6' hydroxyl and hydrophobic interactions with A2', T6', and L9' alkyl substituents, thereby blocking the channel. Thus, widely diverse NCA structures fit the same GABA receptor  $\beta$  subunit site with important implications for insecticide cross-resistance and selective toxicity between insects and mammals.

$\beta_3$  homopentamer | transmembrane 2 | insecticide | disulfide trapping | receptor model

Pest insect control in the past 60 years was achieved, in part, by application of >3 billion ( $3 \times 10^9$ ) pounds of polychlorocycloalkane insecticides, including cyclodienes (e.g.,  $\alpha$ -endosulfan and dieldrin), lindane and its isomers, and others, which are now highly restricted or banned except for endosulfan and some uses of lindane (1–3). One of the replacement compounds is the phenylpyrazole fipronil. All of these insecticides and the botanical picrotoxinin (PTX) have widely diverse chemical structures but appear to act at the same nerve target. It is therefore important to understand how these compounds work in mammals and insects, or how they do not work when resistant insect strains appear.

The GABA-gated chloride channel is the target for the insecticides and toxicants referred to above based on radioligand binding and electrophysiology studies (3–10). Important radioligands in these developments are [<sup>3</sup>H]dihydroPTX (4, 11), [<sup>35</sup>S]t-butylbicyclophosphorothionate (TBPS) (5, 12), [<sup>3</sup>H]1-(4-ethynylphenyl)-4-*n*-propyl-2,6,7-trioxabicyclo[2.2.2]octane (EBOB) (6), and [<sup>3</sup>H]3,3-bis-trifluoromethyl-bicyclo[2,2,1]heptane-2,2-dicarbonitrile (BIDN) (8) (Fig. 1A). All of these compounds act in mammals and insects as noncompetitive antagonists (NCAs) to

block chloride flux so the target is referred to as the GABA receptor NCA-binding site. Vertebrate GABA receptors consist of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\rho$ , and other subunits in various combinations, for example,  $\alpha_1\beta_2\gamma_2$  as a heteropentamer and  $\rho_1$  as a homopentamer (13–15). The molecular localization of the NCA site defined here (Fig. 1B) was first indicated by mutagenesis studies (16) as A2' (17–20), T6' (21, 22), and L9' (23, 24) in the cytoplasmic half of the transmembrane 2 domain of the channel (Fig. 2). *Drosophila* resistant to dieldrin (RDL) have a mutation conferring GABA receptor insensitivity identified as A2'S (17). The NCA target of the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor requires a  $\beta$  subunit, and a  $\beta_3$  homopentamer is sufficient for binding (9, 26). Importantly, the  $\beta_3$  subunit from human brain, when expressed in insect Sf9 cells, assembles to form a receptor sensitive to all of the important GABAergic insecticides (9) and, surprisingly, reproduces the insecticide sensitivity and structure-activity relationships of the native insect receptor (27). Studies of the GABA receptor NCA site are therefore simplified by using this highly sensitive  $\beta_3$  homopentamer, an approach verified by showing here that Cys and Ser or Phe mutations in  $\beta_3$  at each of the 2', 6', and 9' positions greatly reduce or destroy NCA radioligand binding.

This study tested the hypothesis that insecticides and convulsants of many chemical types act at the same GABA receptor site in the same way to initiate insecticidal action and mammalian toxicity. The goal was to characterize the GABA receptor–NCA interaction by using the human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor recombinant  $\beta_3$  homopentamer as a model. The first step was to prepare Cys and other mutations to scan the cytoplasmic half of M2 and the flanking region (–4' to 10'), overall 22 mutants involving 15 positions. The mutants were used to identify Cys residues undergoing disulfide cross-linking as a guide to channel pore structure (28). Next, [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB and [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN were used to identify positions where mutation altered binding (6, 8). Finally, modeling of the NCA-binding domain (29, 30) was applied to the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer to determine whether the wide diversity of NCAs could fit the same site.

## Results

**Mutagenesis and Protein Expression.** The transfection efficiency of each recombinant baculovirus was examined by PCR analysis. The nonrecombinant virus would give one 839-bp band of its polyhedrin region and the recombinant virus incorporating the 1,425-bp  $\beta_3$  cDNA would appear at 2.3 kb. Each extracted recombinant virus gave only one 2.3-kb band (Fig. 3A), indicating a recombination efficiency for the target gene of nearly 100% for all mutants and the WT. Further, all PCR products from

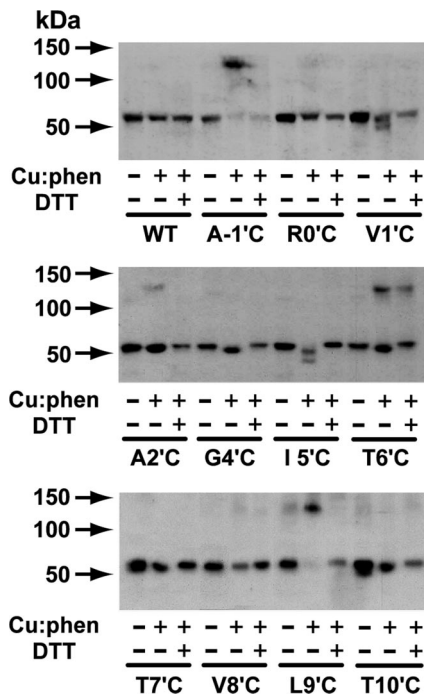
Conflict of interest statement: No conflicts declared.

Abbreviations: BIDN, 3,3-bis-trifluoromethyl-bicyclo[2,2,1]heptane-2,2-dicarbonitrile; Cu:phen, copper:phenanthroline; EBOB, 1-(4-ethynylphenyl)-4-*n*-propyl-2,6,7-trioxabicyclo[2.2.2]octane; M2, transmembrane 2; NCA, noncompetitive antagonist; PTX, picrotoxinin; RDL, resistant to dieldrin; TBPS, t-butylbicyclophosphorothionate.

<sup>†</sup>To whom correspondence should be addressed: E-mail: ectl@nature.berkeley.edu.

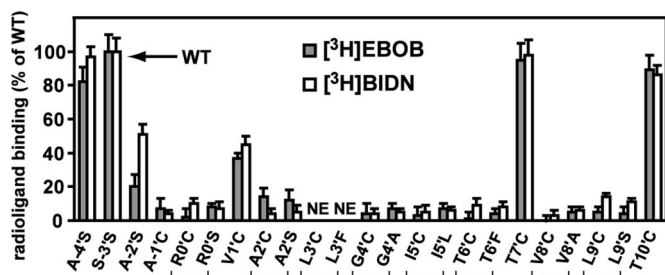
© 2006 by The National Academy of Sciences of the USA





**Fig. 4.** Disulfide cross-linking profiles. Samples are control without Cu:phen or DTT (-/-), oxidized with Cu:phen but not treated with DTT (+/-), or oxidized with Cu:phen then reduced with 10 mM DTT (+/+). Reactions were terminated with 10 mM *N*-ethylmaleimide before SDS/PAGE-Western blotting analysis.

conditions and amounts of receptors, the mutants were then compared to the WT for both [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB and [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN binding. The binding activities of A-4'S, T7'C and T10'C were similar to the WT, whereas A-2'S and V1'C gave reduced binding (Fig. 5). All of the rest gave little or no specific binding. It was indeed surprising to find that the low binding for mutants involves the whole segment from A2' to I5', in addition to the expected T6' to L9', with the two exceptions of L3' not expressed and T7' normal. More generally, mutations in the lowest region of the channel have no (-4' or -3') or little (-2') influence on activity, whereas those in the region of -1' to 10', except 1', 7', and 10', drastically reduce [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB and [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN binding. This reduction is not due to interference from oxidation of the Cys moiety because (i) DTT did not restore the activity of the eight low-binding mutants (data not shown), and (ii) the findings are essentially the same with Ser (0', 2', and 9'), Leu (5'), Phe (6'), and Ala (4' and 8') as well as for the corresponding Cys mutants. It is assumed that the mutants, which do not bind NCAs, form functional channels that are correctly assembled on



**Fig. 5.** Effect of site-specific mutations (Cys, Ser, Ala, Leu, or Phe) on specific binding of [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB and [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN. NE, not expressed. Data are percent of WT (S-3'S) ± SD.

the cell surface because, on the Western blot, they all have a protein of similar size and presumably maturely glycosylated. Most importantly, on an overall basis, the results are essentially the same with [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB and [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN.

Two methanethiosulfonate (MTS) sulfhydryl-modification reagents provided further information on the NCA site by comparing their effect on [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB binding for the Cys active mutants 1', 7', and 10' compared with the WT. With both sulfhydryl reagents, there was a site-dependent effect on [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB binding with little inhibition for the T7'C mutant, moderate for T10'C, and almost complete for V1'C.

**Structural Model for NCA Binding.** Fig. 6 *Upper Left* shows a model of the channel lumen from the 2' to 9' positions with five  $\beta_3$   $\alpha$ -helices and lindane docked into the putative binding site, which it clearly fills to block the pore. Similar models of the six other NCAs also show filling of the pore space.

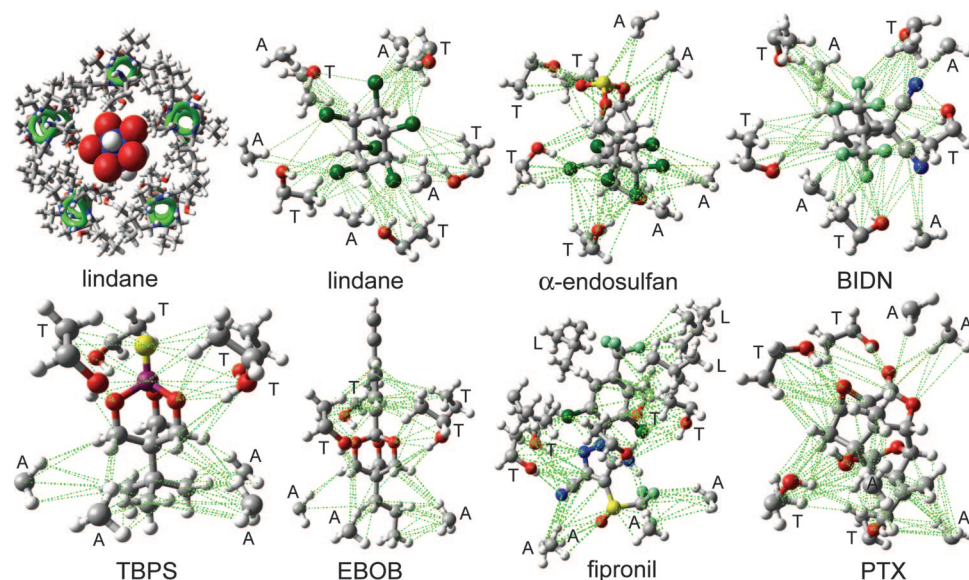
Attention was focused on A2', T6', and L9', because these residues are in the channel lumen (based on disulfide trapping) and mutations (Cys versus Ser or Phe in each case) at these sites greatly reduce or abolish binding. The interacting sites are shown in Figs. 1B and 6. Docking of EBOB positions the A2' methyls interacting with the normal-propyl and two *O*-methylenes, two T6' hydroxyls interacting with the oxygens (H---O distance  $\approx 3.1\text{\AA}$ ), T6' methyls binding to the phenyl moiety, and, at a slightly longer range, a L9' methyl also interacting with the ethynyl substituent (evident in Fig. 1B but not Fig. 6). TBPS has numerous favorable A2' interactions with the tertiary-butyl moiety, and the T6' methyls and hydroxyls interact with the sulfur and cage oxygens. PTX has A2' methyl interactions with the isopropenyl methyl and methylene and three T6' hydroxyl hydrogen bonding interactions to three PTX oxygens. BIDN has multiple contact points with A2' methyls and T6' methyls and hydroxyls. A cyano nitrogen and a fluorine each form hydrogen bonds to a T6' hydroxyl. Lindane bridges A2' methyls and T6' hydroxyls and methyls, each interacting with multiple chlorines.  $\alpha$ -Endosulfan and fipronil have multiple interaction sites and types, with A2' methyls and T6' methyls and hydroxyls for both compounds reinforced by L9' side chains for fipronil. More complete depictions of the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer model and the docked ligands are given in supporting information, which is published on the PNAS web site.

## Discussion

**Mutagenesis and Expression.** The cytoplasmic half of the M2 region contains 11 amino acids (0' to 10'), and this number is extended to 15 (-4' to 10') with the flanking region of interest. Site-specific mutagenesis introduced Cys at 12 sites (A-1'C to T10'C), Ser at five sites (A-4'S, A-2'S, R0'S, A2'S, and L9'S), and Phe at two sites (L3'F and T6'F). In addition, three mutations were introduced with little change in polarity, i.e., G4'A, I5'L and V8'A. The 3'-position was an exception because L3'C and L3'F did not show detectable expression by Western blotting either in the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer studied here or the  $\alpha_1\beta_3$  heteropentamer (data not shown).

**Pore-Lining Residues.** The position of pore-lining residues was determined by disulfide cross-linking, cysteine accessibility, and molecular modeling. Cys sulfhydryl substituents in the pore lining can be oxidized to disulfides resulting in dimerization. Disulfide trapping for Cys mutants in the present study places the sulfhydryl substituents of -1', 2', 6', and 9' within the channel lumen; disulfide trapping of A-1'C, A2'C, and L9'C was not established before. The tight protein packing in the 2' position (31) may account for the weak dimer formation by limiting the required flexibility and close proximity for disulfide bond formation. Disulfides are not formed with 0', 1', 4', 5', 7', 8', and 10', indicating they are probably not in the pore or have low





**Fig. 6.** Proposed interactions of seven noncompetitive antagonists at the same GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor  $\beta_3$  homopentamer binding site. (Upper Left) lindane (space fill, red and blue for partial negative and positive charges of chlorine and carbon, respectively) binds to the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor (five  $\beta_3$   $\alpha$ -helices shown in green) to block the channel pore shown as the 2' to 9' positions viewed from the top into the pore. Remaining panels: seven ligands (see Fig. 1A) docked at their optimized positions with the perspective chosen for ease of viewing. A, L, and T refer to the side chains of the interacting 2', 6', and 9' residues, respectively. van der Waals contacts are illustrated in green (see text for discussion of hydrogen bonding). The space filling aspects of all of the ligands are most readily evident in supporting information.

mobility/flexibility. For T6', similar findings are obtained with the  $\alpha_1$ T6'C $\beta_1$ T6'C receptor but only in the presence of GABA (28), suggesting that the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer of the present investigation assumes the spontaneous open state (32). Homology of the GABA receptor  $\beta_3$  homopentamer with the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (33) indicates the narrowest gating region of the pore is between 9' and 14', suggesting the positioning of L9'C in the pore (24, 31). In the  $\beta_1$  subunit of the  $\alpha_1\beta_1\gamma_2$  receptor, A2'C, T6'C, T7'C (slow reaction rate), V8'C, L9'C, and T10'C are all accessible to a sulfhydryl-modification reagent depending on the state of the channel (31). Methanethiosulfonate reagents in the present  $\beta_3$  homopentamer study show that V1'C is transiently available in the channel lumen in contrast to T7'C and T10'C, which are not readily accessible. In addition, reaction with the cationic methanethiosulfonate reagent suggests that the anion-selective filter may be below V1'C. Molecular modeling of the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer as an  $\alpha$ -helix (Fig. 6) places -1', 2', 6', and 9', but not 0', 1', 3', 4', 5', 7', 8', or 10', in the channel pore (see supporting information), consistent with the other approaches.

**Sites for NCA Interactions.** The interacting residues are considered to be A2' (or more generally the A2'-15' hydrophobic pocket) and T6' (the highly conserved and most important structural determinant) with a supplemental role for L9'. A biophysical calculation model focused on PTX interactions with A2' and T6' of the  $\rho_1$  receptor (29). The present study uses site-specific mutations in the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer to determine the importance of 10 other amino acid residues in NCA binding, i.e., the whole cytoplasmic half of the M2 region. A-4', S-3', and A-2' are apparently outside of the binding site.  $\beta_3$  homopentamer mutants A-1'C, R0'C, and R0'S block binding, perhaps because of proximity to A2'. Sulfhydryl modification at V1'C impedes [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB binding (this study), possibly by overlapping the sensitive A2' position. Further, for 2', the low sensitivity of the *Drosophila* RDL homomeric receptor to [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB with A2'S (or A2'G) (34) suggests this site for binding with confirmation here from A2'C and A2'S mutants in the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer. In

addition, with V2'C at the  $\alpha_1$  subunit of the  $\alpha_1\beta_1\gamma_2$  receptor, PTX protects against sulfhydryl derivatization (18), and a sulfhydryl-reactive fipronil analog [-C(O)CH<sub>2</sub>Br replaces -S(O)CF<sub>3</sub>] serves as an irreversible blocker (19). The involvement of 3', directly or by influencing the neighboring A2', is shown by L3'F at  $\beta_3$  of the  $\alpha_1\beta_3$  receptor almost abolishing TBPS and PTX binding (20). The structurally critical apolar pocket in the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer appears to involve A2', L3', G4', and I5', i.e., a tightly packed and completely hydrophobic region that may play a role in stabilizing the helical structure (31, 35). Although G4' is on the backside of the helix, the side chains introduced with the G4'C and G4'A mutants appear to perturb the tightly packed 2'-5' region of the channel lumen to disturb NCA binding. The T6'C and T6'F mutations in the  $\beta_3$  homopentamer abolish NCA sensitivity, and introducing T6'F in  $\beta_2$  (or  $\alpha_1$  or  $\gamma_2$ ) of  $\alpha_1\beta_2\gamma_2$  greatly reduces PTX sensitivity (21). Mutagenesis of the 6' position of  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  receptors from rats showed this site to be important in PTX sensitivity (22). T7'C and V8'C fall outside the pore and, therefore, are not expected to be important binding sites, yet the 8' mutants block binding, perhaps, by changing the shape of the pore. For L9', where a mutation can potentially perturb the gating kinetics (24), the L9'C and L9'S mutations for  $\beta_3$  abolish NCA binding here and L9'S reduces PTX sensitivity in each subunit of  $\alpha_1\beta_2\gamma_2$  (24). Finally, with  $\rho_1$ , several mutations at L9' also reduce PTX sensitivity (23). Lying outside the pore, T10'C does not affect [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB or [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN binding.

**Widely Diverse NCA Structures Fit the Same Site.** The RDL A2'S mutation confers cross-resistance of insects to all classes of commercial NCA insecticides (10, 17), and this cross-resistance also applies to the highly potent model compounds EBOB and BIDN. The effect of all mutations is essentially the same with [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB and [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN, indicating that they both have the same binding site. More generally, an extremely wide diversity of chemical types, each with configurational specificity, appears to act the same way as GABA receptor NCAs (3, 9, 36, 37). Figs. 1B and 6 illustrate how they, in fact, may all fit the same site by showing the proposed interactions of seven NCAs with the  $\beta_3$  homopentameric receptor.





under described conditions (18, 43) with analysis for their effect on [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB binding.

**[<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB and [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN Binding.** Assay mixtures contained 1 nM [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB (48 Ci/mmol; 1 Ci = 37 GBq) (PerkinElmer) (6, 9) or 2.5 nM [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN (50 Ci/mmol) (8) and the recombinant expressed receptor (100 μg protein) in PBS (500 μl final volume) (6). After incubation for 90 min at 25°C, the samples were filtered through GF/B filters (presoaked in 0.2% polyethylenimine for 3 h) and rinsed three times with ice-cold saline (0.9% NaCl). Nonspecific binding was determined in the presence of 1 μM α-endosulfan for [<sup>3</sup>H]EBOB or 5 μM unlabeled BIDN for [<sup>3</sup>H]BIDN by using 5 μl dimethyl sulfoxide to add the displacing agent immediately before incubation. Each experiment was repeated three or more times with duplicate samples. The binding activity of mutants was expressed as percent (mean ± SD) of that for the WT. Supplemental binding studies were made by using DTT preincubation (10 mM for 5 min at 25°C) in deoxygenated PBS continuously bubbling with argon to rule out any spontaneous disulfide formation.

**Modeling Receptor–Ligand Interactions.** Modeling started from the α<sub>1</sub>β<sub>2</sub>γ<sub>2</sub> GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor based on the homologous nicotinic acetylcholine receptor and acetylcholine binding protein (30). This α-helical structure was reconstructed here as the β<sub>3</sub> homopentamer, i.e., the two β<sub>2</sub> subunits were directly replaced by β<sub>3</sub>, because they have the same M2 sequence, then the two α<sub>1</sub> subunits and one γ<sub>2</sub> subunit were replaced with β<sub>3</sub>, by using the

original α<sub>1</sub> and γ<sub>2</sub> backbone atom positions as a guide, to make the homopentameric model. The cytoplasmic side of the M2 region and adjacent residues are considered, i.e., A-4' to T10' (Fig. 2), with particular attention to A2' to L9'.

All modeling was done with MAESTRO 6.5 (Schrödinger LLC). Macromodel atom types were used to assign partial charges (44). van der Waals contacts were defined as  $C = (\text{distance between atomic centers}) / (\text{radius 1st atom} + \text{radius 2nd atom})$  where good, bad, and ugly contacts are defined as  $C = 1.3, 0.89, \text{ and } 0.75 \text{ \AA}$ , respectively. The antagonists were manually docked into the putative binding site to maximize good contacts, and then the ligand geometry and location were allowed to optimize relative to the β<sub>3</sub> homopentamer, which was itself constrained. In this optimization, all settings were left at the default values except a water model (generalized Born/surface area) was used instead of a gas phase model. In each case, sufficient optimization steps were performed as necessary to ensure that the convergence criteria were met.

We thank our department colleagues Jung-Chi Liao, Motohiro Tomizawa, Gary Quistad, Daniel Nomura, and Shannon Liang for helpful advice and Myles Akabas, Gerald Brooks, Richard Olsen, and David Weiss for important suggestions. This work was supported by the William Mureice Hoskins Chair in Chemical and Molecular Entomology (to J.E.C.) and National Science Foundation Grant CHE-0233882 (to K.A.D.). Molecular modeling was performed on workstations purchased with National Science Foundation support matched with an equipment donation from Dell.

- Casida, J. E. & Quistad, G. B. (1998) *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* **43**, 1–16.
- Tomlin, C. D. S., ed. (2003) *The Pesticide Manual* (Brit. Crop Prot. Council, Alton, Hampshire, U.K.), 13th Ed., pp. 1344.
- Brooks, G. T. (2001) in *Handbook of Pesticide Toxicology: Agents*, ed. Krieger, R. I. (Academic, New York), 2nd Ed., Vol. 2, pp. 1131–1156.
- Matsumura, F. & Ghiasuddin, S. M. (1983) *J. Environ. Sci. Health B* **18**, 1–14.
- Lawrence, L. J. & Casida, J. E. (1984) *Life Sci.* **35**, 171–178.
- Cole, L. M. & Casida, J. E. (1992) *Pestic. Biochem. Physiol.* **44**, 1–8.
- Casida, J. E. (1993) *Arch. Insect Biochem. Physiol.* **22**, 13–23.
- Rauh, J. J., Benner, E., Schnee, M. E., Cordova, D., Holyoke, C. W., Howard, M. H., Bai, D., Buckingham, S. D., Hutton, M. L., Hamon, A., et al. (1997) *Brit. J. Pharmacol.* **121**, 1496–1505.
- Ratra, G. S., Kamita, S. G. & Casida, J. E. (2001) *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* **172**, 233–240.
- Bloomquist, J. R. (2001) in *Biochemical Sites of Insecticide Action and Resistance*, ed. Ishaaya, I. (Springer, Berlin), pp. 17–41.
- Ticku, M. K., Ban, M. & Olsen, R. W. (1978) *Mol. Pharmacol.* **14**, 391–402.
- Squires, R. F., Casida, J. E., Richardson, M. & Saederup, E. (1983) *Mol. Pharmacol.* **23**, 326–336.
- Barnard, E. A., Skolnick, P., Olsen, R. W., Mohler, H., Sieghart, W., Biggio, G., Braestrup, C., Bateson, A. N. & Langer, S. Z. (1998) *Pharmacol. Rev.* **50**, 291–313.
- Enna, S. J. & Bowery, N. G., eds. (1997) *The GABA Receptors* (Humana, Totowa, NJ), 2nd Ed.
- Martin, D. L. & Olsen, R. W., eds. (2000) *GABA in the Nervous System: the View at Fifty Years* (Lippincott, Philadelphia).
- Chang, Y. & Weiss, D. S. (2000) in *GABA in the Nervous System: the View at Fifty Years*, eds. Martin, D. L. & Olsen, R. W. (Lippincott, Philadelphia), pp. 127–139.
- French-Constant, R. H., Anthony, N., Aronstein, K., Rocheleau, T. & Stilwell, G. (2000) *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* **48**, 449–466.
- Xu, M., Covey, D. F. & Akabas, M. H. (1995) *Biophys. J.* **69**, 1858–1867.
- Perret, P., Sarda, X., Wolff, M., Wu, T.-T., Bushey, D. & Goeldner, M. (1999) *J. Biol. Chem.* **274**, 25350–25354.
- Buhr, A., Wagner, C., Fuchs, K., Sieghart, W. & Sigel, E. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* **276**, 7775–7781.
- Gurley, D., Amin, J., Ross, P. C., Weiss, D. S. & White, G. (1995) *Recept. Channels* **3**, 13–20.
- Zhang, D., Pan, Z.-H., Zhang, X., Brideau, A. D. & Lipton, S. A. (1995) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **92**, 11756–11760.
- Chang, Y. & Weiss, D. S. (1998) *Mol. Pharmacol.* **53**, 511–523.
- Chang, Y. & Weiss, D. S. (1999) *Biophys. J.* **77**, 2542–2551.
- Miller, C. (1989) *Neuron* **2**, 1195–1205.
- Slany, A., Zezula, J., Tretter, V. & Sieghart, W. (1995) *Mol. Pharmacol.* **48**, 385–391.
- Ratra, G. S. & Casida, J. E. (2001) *Toxicol. Lett.* **122**, 215–222.
- Horenstein, J., Wagner, D. A., Czajkowski, C. & Akabas, M. H. (2001) *Nature Neurosci.* **4**, 477–485.
- Zhorov, B. S. & Bregestovski, P. D. (2000) *Biophys. J.* **78**, 1786–1803.
- O'Mara, M., Cromer, B., Parker, M. & Chung, S.-H. (2005) *Biophys. J.* **88**, 3286–3299.
- Goren, E. N., Reeves, D. C. & Akabas, M. H. (2004) *J. Biol. Chem.* **279**, 11198–11205.
- Wooltorton, J. R. A., Moss, S. J. & Smart, T. G. (1997) *Eur. J. Neurosci.* **9**, 2225–2235.
- Miyazawa, A., Fujiyoshi, Y. & Unwin, N. (2003) *Nature* **423**, 949–955.
- Cole, L. M., Roush, R. T. & Casida, J. E. (1995) *Life Sci.* **56**, 757–765.
- Popot, J.-L. & Engelman, D. M. (2000) *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **69**, 881–922.
- Calder, J. A., Wyatt, J. A., Frenkel, D. A. & Casida, J. E. (1993) *J. Comput. Aided Mol. Des.* **7**, 45–60.
- Ozoe, Y. & Akamatsu, M. (2001) *Pest Manag. Sci.* **57**, 923–931.
- Obata, T., Yamamura, H. I., Malatynska, E., Ikeda, M., Laird, H., Palmer, C. J. & Casida, J. E. (1988) *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* **244**, 802–806.
- Huang, J. & Casida, J. E. (1996) *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* **279**, 1191–1196.
- Korpi, E. R., Gründer, G. & Lüddens, H. (2002) *Prog. Neurobiol.* **67**, 113–159.
- Elster, L., Schousboe, A. & Olsen, R. W. (2000) *J. Neurosci. Res.* **61**, 193–205.
- Yu, H., Kono, M., McKee, T. D. & Oprian, D. D. (1995) *Biochemistry* **34**, 14963–14969.
- Slotboom, D. J., Konings, W. N. & Lolkema, J. S. (2001) *J. Biol. Chem.* **276**, 10775–10781.
- Mohamadi, F., Richards, N. G. J., Guida, W. C., Liskamp, R., Lipton, M., Cauffield, C., Chang, G., Hendrickson, T. & Still, W. C. (1990) *J. Comput. Chem.*, **11**, 440–467.