Loss of choline agonism in the inner ear hair cell nicotinic acetylcholine receptor

linked to the α10 subunit

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Abstract

The α9α10 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR) plays a fundamental role in inner

ear physiology. It mediates synaptic transmission between efferent olivocochlear fibers

that descend from the brainstem and hair cells of the auditory sensory epithelium. The

α9 and α10 subunits have undergone a distinct evolutionary history within the family of

nAChRs. The α9α10 receptor has accumulated changes at the protein level only in

mammalian vertebrates that may ultimately relate to the evolutionary history of the

mammalian hearing organ. In the present work we investigated the responses of α9α10

nAChRs to choline, the metabolite of acetylcholine degradation at the synaptic cleft.

Whereas choline is a full agonist of chicken α9α10 receptors it is a partial agonist of the

rat receptor. Making use of the expression of α9α10 heterologous receptors,

encompassing wild-type, heteromeric, homomeric, mutant, chimeric and hybrid

receptors, and *in silico* molecular docking, we established that the mammalian (rat) α10

nAChR subunit underscores the reduced efficacy of choline. Moreover, we show that

whereas the complementary face of the α10 subunit does not play an important role in

the activation of the receptor by ACh, it is strictly required for choline responses. Thus,

we propose that the evolutionary changes acquired in the mammalian α9α10 nAChR

resulted in the loss of choline acting as a full agonist at the efferent synapse, without

affecting the triggering of ACh responses. This may have been required to allow the

post-synaptic summation needed to faithfully reproduce the high frequency activity of

efferent medial olivocochlear fibers.

Introduction

The α9α10 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR) belongs to the pentameric family of ligand-gated ion channels (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 1994, Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Sgard *et al.*, 2002), each of which has a large extracellular N-terminal region, four transmembrane helices (M1–M4), and an intracellular domain. At the interface of the extracellular domains of adjacent subunits lies the orthosteric binding site, composed of a principal component or face provided by one subunit, which contributes three loops of highly conserved residues (loops A–C), and a complementary component of the adjacent subunit, which contributes three loops (loops D–F) with lower levels of sequence conservation among subunits (Thompson *et al.*, 2010). Conserved aromatic residues present within the loops participate in cation-π interactions with the agonists that are fundamental for triggering receptor gating (Karlin, 2002)

The α9α10 receptor is an atypical member of the nAChR family. Both the α9 and α10 subunits have low amino acid sequence identity when compared to other member subunits (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 1994, Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Franchini & Elgoyhen, 2006, Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2009, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2014, Marcovich *et al.*, 2020) and α9α10 receptors have a baroque pharmacological profile (Rothlin *et al.*, 1999, Verbitsky *et al.*, 2000, Rothlin *et al.*, 2003). Indeed, nicotine, the canonical agonist that characterizes the receptor subfamily, does not activate α9α10 nAChRs, but blocks ACh-gated currents (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 1994, Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Sgard *et al.*, 2002). Moreover, the α9α10 nAChR has a mixed nicotinic and muscarinic profile, since it is blocked by the nicotinic antagonists curare and α-bungarotoxin and the muscarinic antagonist atropine (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 1994, Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Sgard *et al.*, 2002). In addition, the α9α10 receptor shares pharmacological properties with type A γ-aminobutyric acid, glycine, and type 3 serotonin receptors, also members of the pentameric family of ligand-gated ion channels (Rothlin *et al.*, 1999, Rothlin *et al.*, 2003).

The atypical features of the α9α10 receptor prompted the hypothesis that α9 and α10 subunits have undergone a distinct evolutionary history within the family of nAChRs. Using codon-based likelihood models we showed that mammalian, unlike non-mammalian α10 subunits have been under selective pressure and acquired a greater than expected number of non-synonymous amino acid substitutions in their coding region (Franchini & Elgoyhen, 2006, Elgoyhen & Franchini, 2011). Moreover, mammalian

specific amino acid substitutions in the α9 subunit that show an increased posterior
probability of functional divergence in this clade, are involved in the higher relative
calcium permeability of mammalian α9α10 receptors (Lipovsek *et al.*, 2014, Marcovich
et al., 2020). Overall, these patterns of evolutionary changes at the protein level may
relate to the evolutionary history of the mammalian hearing organ (Marcovich *et al.*,
2020), which has the highest frequency sensitivity amongst vertebrate auditory systems
(Manley, 2000). In particular, α9α10 nAChRs mediate the synapsis, between efferent
fibers and sensory hair cells, that modulates sound amplification processes, including
the mammalian-exclusive prestin-driven somatic electromotility of outer hair cells (Katz
& Elgoyhen, 2014, Goutman *et al.*, 2015). Overall, the distinct evolutionary history of
mammalian α9α10 nAChRs resulted in differential calcium permeability, current-
voltage relationship and desensitization profile of α9α10 receptors across vertebrate
species (Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2014, Marcovich *et al.*, 2020), together
with the loss of functional homomeric α10 receptors (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Sgard *et al.*,
2002, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012) and a non-equivalent contribution of different subunit
interfaces to functional binding sites in mammals (Boffi *et al.*, 2017).

One striking feature of the pharmacology of mammalian α9α10 receptors, compared to
other nAChRs, is the scarcity of identified compounds capable of behaving as agonists
of the receptor, since most typical nicotinic agonists block rat α9α10 nAChRs
(Verbitsky *et al.*, 2000, Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001). Whether these observations are related
to the peculiar evolutionary history of the mammalian receptor, and therefore not
extended to other non-mammalian α9α10 nAChRs, is still an open question. In the
present work we have addressed this by comparing the effects of classical nicotinic
agonists: nicotine, carbachol, DMPP and choline, on rat and chicken α9α10 nAChRs.
We report that, as for rat receptors, nicotine does not activate but blocks chicken α9α10
nAChRs. However, whereas choline is a partial agonist of rat α9α10 receptors, it is a
full agonist of chicken α9α10 receptors. Similarly, DMPP has a higher efficacy in
chicken receptors. Using hybrid and chimeric receptors we show that the lower
agonistic efficacy of choline in rat α9α10 receptors is linked to the extracellular region
of the mammalian α10 subunit. Most importantly, we describe that complementary
components of the ligand-binding site provided by the rat α10 subunit non-equivalently
contribute to receptor activation by ACh and choline. Thus, whereas ACh does not
utilize interfaces where α10 provides the complementary component to elicit maximal

responses, choline requires fully competent α10 interfaces for receptor activation,
suggesting a requirement for higher degree of ligand occupancy when choline is the
agonist. In line with these results, molecular docking simulations indicate that choline
binds at all interfaces with a different orientation with respect to that of ACh, and it
does so with differing frequencies depending on which subunit contributes the
complementary side. Overall, we propose that the loss of choline full agonism in
mammalian α9α10 receptors was driven by changes in the α10 subunit. This may have
resulted from functional selection pressure on the fine-tuning of cholinergic responses
within the mammalian efferent synapse.

Materials and Methods

Expression of Recombinant Receptors in *X. laevis* oocytes

For expression studies rat and chicken α9 and α10 nAChR subunits subcloned into a
modified pGEMHE vector were used. Capped cRNAs were *in vitro* transcribed from
linearized plasmid DNA templates using RiboMAX^{TM} Large Scale RNA Production
System (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). The maintenance of *X. laevis* and the
preparation and cRNA injection of stage V and VI oocytes have been described in detail
elsewhere (Verbitsky *et al.*, 2000). Typically, oocytes were injected with 50 nl of
RNase-free water containing 0.01 to 1.0 ng of cRNA (at a 1:1 molar ratio for
heteromeric receptors) and maintained in Barth's solution at 18°C. Electrophysiological
recordings were performed 2 to 6 days after cRNA injection under two-electrode
voltage clamp with an Oocyte Clamp OC-725B or C amplifier (Warner Instruments
Corp., Hamden, CT, USA). Recordings were filtered at a corner frequency of 10Hz
using a 900BT Tunable Active Filter (Frequency Devices Inc., Ottawa, IL, USA). Data
acquisition was performed using a Patch Panel PP-50 LAB/1 interphase (Warner
Instruments Corp., Hamden, CT, USA) at a rate of 10 points per second. Both voltage
and current electrodes were filled with 3 M KCl and had resistances of ~1 MΩ. Data
were analyzed using Clampfit from the pClamp 6.1 software. During
electrophysiological recordings, oocytes were continuously superfused (~15 ml/min)
with normal frog saline composed of: 115 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 1.8 mM CaCl$_2$, and
10 mM HEPES buffer, pH 7.2. Drugs were added to the perfusion solution for
application. The membrane potential was clamped to -70 mV. To minimize activation
of the endogenous Ca^{2+} sensitive chloride current (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001), all

experiments were performed in oocytes incubated with the Ca^{2+} chelator BAPTA-AM

(100 μM) for 3h before electrophysiological recordings. Concentration-response curves

were normalized to the maximal ACh response in each oocyte. For the inhibition

curves, nicotine was added to the perfusion solution for 2 min before the addition of 10

μM ACh and then coapplied with this agonist and responses were referred to as a

percentage of the response to ACh. The mean and S.E.M. of peak current responses are

represented. Agonist concentration-response curves were iteratively fitted, using Prism

6 software (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA), with the equation: $I/Imax =$

$A^{nH}/(A^{nH} + EC_{50}^{nH})$, where I is the peak inward current evoked by agonist at

concentration A; Imax is the current evoked by the concentration of agonist eliciting a

maximal response; EC_{50} is the concentration of agonist inducing half-maximal current

response, and nH is the Hill coefficient. An equation of the same form was used to

analyze the concentration dependence of antagonist induced blockage. The parameters

derived were the concentration of antagonist producing a 50% block of the control

response to ACh (IC_{50}) and the associated interaction coefficient (nH). Data were

analyzed using Clampfit from the pClamp 6.1 software.

The α10W55T mutant subunit was produced using Quick change XL II kit (Stratagene,

La Jolla, CA, USA). The chimeric α10x construct was generated in two steps. First, the

DNA fragment encoding the α10 N-terminal domain was replaced by the DNA

sequence encoding the α9 N-terminal domain, by overlap-extension PCR (Horton *et al.*,

1989). Briefly, the DNA sequence of the α9 N-terminal domain was amplified from an

α9 pGEMHE construct using primers 5'GGGCGAATTAATTCGAGCTC3' and

5'CACCTTCACTCTCCTTCTGAAGCGCCGCGCTGCAGCCTACGTGTG3', and the

DNA sequence of the α10 subunit from TM1 to the C-terminal domain was amplified

from   an   α10   pSGEM   construct   using   primers

5'CACACGTAGGCTGCAGCGCGGCGCTTCAGAAGGAGAGTGAAGGTG3'   and

5'GCTATGACCATGATTACGCC3'. The chimeric subunit was amplified using the

DNA fragments generated in the two PCRs described above and primers

5'GGGCGAATTAATTCGAGCTC3' and 5'GCTATGACCATGATTACGCC3', and

subcloned in pSGEM vector. In a second step, conversion of both the pre TM1 and the

TM2-TM3 loop from the chimera to the corresponding α9 sequence was performed by

QuikChange Multi Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene) using primers

5'GGCATGCTCTCGGCCACCATCAGCTGGAAGACGG3'   and

5'GGGCAGCAGGAGGTTGACGATGTAGAATGAAGAGCGGCGCTTCAG3'. All

mutant and chimeric subunits were confirmed by sequencing.

Recordings from hair cells

Chicken auditory organ (basilar papilla) was dissected from the temporal bone of

embryonic chickens (white Leghorns either sex, 17–20 d *in ovo*). The tegmentum

vasculosum was removed and the tectorial membrane was stripped from the basilar

papilla with most of the short hair cells (SHCs) still attached. This "tectorial

preparation" was then inverted and secured in the recording chamber by spring clips.

SHCs were recorded in a region 25–50% the distance from the apical (lagenar) to the

basal tip of the basilar papilla of the chicken. Apical turns of the organ of Corti were

excised from Balb/C mice of either sex between postnatal day 11 (P11) and P13,

(around the onset of hearing in altricial rodents). At this age OHCs are already

innervated by the MOC fibers (Pujol *et al.*, 1998, Simmons, 2002). The tectorial

membrane was removed and the organ of Corti was positioned under an insect pin

affixed to a cover-slip with a drop of Sylgard.

Basilar papilla and cochlear preparations were placed into a chamber on the stage of an

upright microscope (Olympus BX51WI, Center Valley, PA, USA) and used within 2 h.

Cells were visualized on a monitor via a water immersion objective (60×

magnification), differential interference contrast optics, and a CCD camera (Andor iXon

885, Belfast, UK). The preparation was superfused continuously at 2–3 mL per min

with extracellular saline solution of an ionic composition similar to that of the

perilymph: 144 mM NaCl, 5.8 mM KCl, 1.3 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.9 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.7 mM

NaH_2PO_4, 5.6 mM D-glucose and 10 mM Hepes buffer (pH 7.4). Solutions containing

ACh or choline were made up in this same saline and delivered by a gravity-fed

multichannel glass pipette (150-μm tip diameter).

Whole-cell, tight-seal voltage-clamp recordings were made with 1 mm borosilicate

glass micropipettes (WPI, Sarasota, FL, USA) ranging from 6 to 8 MΩ tip resistance.

Series resistance errors were not compensated for. The recording pipette contained the

following (in mM): 140 KCl, 3.5 $MgCl_2$, 2 $CaCl_2$, 5 EGTA, 5 HEPES, 5 mM

phosphocreatine-Na_2 and 2.5 Na2ATP, titrated to pH 7.2 with KOH. Osmolarity was

adjusted to 295 mOsM. All recordings were performed at room temperature (22–25 °C).

214 Electrophysiological recordings were performed using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier

215 (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA, USA), low-pass-filtered at 2–10 kHz, and digitized

216 at 50 kHz via a National Instruments board. Data were acquired using WinWCP (J.

217 Dempster, University of Strathclyde, Glasglow, Scotland). Recordings were analyzed

218 with custom-written routines in IgorPro 6.37 (Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA).

220 Molecular modeling and docking

221 Homology models of the extracellular domain of the chick and rat α9α10 nAChRs were

222 as in (Boffi *et al.*, 2017). They were created with SWISS MODEL (Schwede *et al.*,

223 2003, Arnold *et al.*, 2006, Bordoli *et al.*, 2009) using the monomeric structure of the

224 human α9 subunit as the template (Protein Data Bank ID 4UY2;(Zouridakis *et al.*,

225 2014)). The monomeric models of these proteins were then structurally aligned to the

226 pentameric structure of *Lymnaea stagnalis* AChBP bound to ACh (Protein Data Bank

227 ID 3WIP; (Olsen *et al.*, 2014)) using the program STAMP (Russell & Barton, 1992)

228 from visual molecular dynamics (Humphrey *et al.*, 1996) to obtain pentameric models

229 with a $(\alpha 9)_2(\alpha 10)_3$ stoichiometry bound to ACh. Four different types of possible binding

230 site interfaces were included: α9α9, α9α10, α10α9 and α10α10. For each interface, the

231 first subunit forms the principal face and the second forms the complementary face. The

232 models were energy minimized to relax steric clashes using spdbviewer (Guex &

233 Peitsch, 1997), and were used for docking studies after deletion of ACh from the

234 models. Using Autodock 4.2 (Morris *et al.*, 2009) choline and ACh were downloaded

235 from PubChem and docked into each of the four types of interfaces for rat and chicken

236 subunits. One hundred genetic algorithm runs were performed for each condition.

237 Residues R57, R111, and R117 were set as flexible to avoid steric and/or electrostatic

238 effects that may impair agonist docking into the binding site (Boffi *et al.*, 2017).

239 Clustering of the results was done with Autodock based on a root-mean-square

240 deviation cutoff of 2.0 Å. Docking results were corroborated in three different

241 procedures. The most representative docking result was plotted with Discovery Studio

242 Visualizer 4.5 (Dessault Systèmes BIOVIA, San Diego, 2016).

244 Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the software Infostat (Universidad Nacional de

Córdoba). The non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was used to perform comparisons

between two groups and Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance followed by

Conover's test for comparisons between multiple groups. Friedman's test was used for

comparisons between paired samples. Differences between samples were considered

significant when $p < 0.05$.

Materials

All drugs were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). ACh, choline,

DMPP, carbachol and nicotine were dissolved in distilled water as stocks and stored

aliquoted at -20°C. BAPTA-AM was stored at -20°C as aliquots of a 100 mM solution

in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), thawed and diluted 1000-fold into Barth's solution

shortly before incubation of the oocytes.

All experimental protocols were carried out in accordance with the National Institute of

Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (NIH Publications No. 80-

23) revised 1978 and INGEBI Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

Results

Cholinergic agonists show lower efficacy on rat α9α10 receptors

The unique pharmacological profile of mammalian α9α10 receptors (Rothlin *et al.*,

1999, Verbitsky *et al.*, 2000, Rothlin *et al.*, 2003), and the observation that mammalian

α10 subunits have been under selection pressure (Franchini & Elgoyhen, 2006,

Elgoyhen & Franchini, 2011), prompted us to examine whether this baroque

pharmacology is recapitulated in receptors from a non-mammalian species. Nicotine,

the prototypic agonist of nAChRs, is an antagonist of mammalian α9α10 receptors

(Elgoyhen *et al.*, 1994, Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Sgard *et al.*, 2002), and did not elicit

currents in oocytes expressing either rat or chicken α9α10 receptors. Instead, nicotine

acted as an antagonist of both receptors (Fig. 1A, Table 1 and (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001)),

blocking responses to 10 µM ACh in a concentration-dependent manner (rat $IC_{50} = 46.3$

± 12.4 µM; n=6; chicken $IC_{50} = 39.4 \pm 3.4$ µM; n=6; p=0.81, Mann-Whitney test).

Next, we analyzed the effect of different nAChR agonists on α9α10 receptors from the
two studied species. Previous work showed that ACh elicits maximal responses in both
rat and chicken α9α10 receptors, with similar near 10 μM EC_{50} values (Elgoyhen *et al.*,
2001, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012). The cholinergic agonist carbachol elicited concentration-
dependent responses in oocytes expressing α9α10 receptors (Fig. 1B and Table 1) with
maximal responses that were 75.5 ± 5.2 % (rat, n=5) and 89.8 ± 7.0 % (chicken, n=6) of
the maximum response elicited by 1 mM ACh (p=0.93, Mann-Whitney test). EC_{50}
values for carbachol were similar for the receptors from both species: 159.3 ± 31.5 μM
(rat; n=5), 150.1 ± 14.8 μM (chicken; n=6); p=0.42, Mann-Whitney test. The potency of
carbachol was therefore nearly 12 times lower compared to that of ACh in rat and
chicken α9α10 recombinant receptors (~ 10 μM) (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Lipovsek *et al.*,
2012). As previously reported (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001), the nicotinic agonist DMPP
behaved as a very weak partial agonist of rat α9α10 nAChRs (Fig. 1C and Table 1),
with a maximal response that was 0.6 ± 0.3 %, (n=6) of that observed with 1 mM ACh
(n=6). Surprisingly, the efficacy of DMPP on chicken α9α10 receptors was significantly
higher (p=0.004 Mann-Whitney test compared to rat), reaching 32.6 ± 2.9 % of that of
ACh with an EC_{50} of 9.8 ± 0.5 μM (n=5; p=0.03 Mann-Whitney test, chick vs rat).
Finally, choline behaved as a partial agonist on rat heteromeric α9α10 receptors (Fig.
1D and Table 1), with a maximal response that was 37.5 ± 2.5 % of that produced by 1
mM ACh and an EC_{50} of 541 ± 62 μM (n=10). As observed for DMPP, the efficacy of
choline on chicken α9α10 receptors was higher than that observed for rat receptors
(n=6; p=0.0004 Kruskal-Wallis test), reaching a maximum response of 88 ± 6.7 % of
the maximum response to 1 mM ACh, thus behaving closely to a full agonist.
Additionally, the EC_{50} of 200 ± 16 μM (n=6) for choline in chicken α9α10 receptors
was nearly three times lower than that observed for rat receptors ($EC_{50}= 541 \pm 62$
(n=10), p=0.0025 Kruskal-Wallis test). In summary, whilst inhibition by nicotine and
agonism by carbachol were similar between chicken and rat receptors, choline and
DMPP presented higher efficacies for the avian than for the mammalian α9α10
heteromeric nAChRs.

Choline elicits near-maximal responses in chicken, but not in mouse, hair cells

Choline is naturally present at cholinergic synapses as a degradation product of ACh
(Wehrwein *et al.*, 2016) and its effect on nAChRs can have important implications on

synaptic function (Albuquerque *et al.*, 1998). The synapse between efferent fibers and
hair cells is mediated by α9α10 nicotinic receptors coupled to the activation of SK2
calcium dependent potassium channels, resulting in an inhibitory response (Fuchs &
Murrow, 1992, Dulon & Lenoir, 1996, Katz *et al.*, 2004, Gomez-Casati *et al.*, 2005,
Elgoyhen & Katz, 2012). We analyzed the effect of choline in mouse and chicken hair
cells in acute explants, in comparison to ACh responses. Figure 2A shows
representative responses to both ACh and choline at a holding potential of -40 mV.
These responses were outward, resulting from the activation of SK2 potassium channels
coupled to the cholinergic responses. For both chicken and mouse hair cells we
observed maximal responses to 3 mM ACh. However, and in agreement with that
observed for recombinant α9α10 receptors, choline exhibited higher efficacy in chicken
hair cells (89.7 ± 6.0 %, n=3) when compared to that on mouse hair cells (49.6 ± 8.7 %,
n=6; p=0.024 Mann-Whitney test). These observations suggest that the differences in
agonistic behavior identified in recombinant α9α10 receptors are recapitulated by the
native receptors present in chicken and mouse hair cells.

The rat α10 subunit determines choline potency and efficacy in α9α10 nAChRs

In order to determine if the agonistic characteristics of choline could be traced back to
the constituent subunits of the α9α10 heteromeric receptors, we first tested the potency
of choline on homomeric α9 or α10 nAChRs. Of note, mammalian α10 receptors do not
assemble into functional homomeric receptors (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001, Sgard *et al.*,
2002) and were therefore not tested.

Different to that observed for rat heteromeric α9α10 receptors (Fig. 1D), choline
behaved as a nearly full agonist of rat α9 receptors (Fig. 3A and Table 1). Thus,
although less potent than ACh (EC$_{50}$ choline 188 ± 40, n=3; ACh 12.9 ± 1.1, n=5;
p=0.04 Mann-Whitney test), the maximal choline response was 87.3 ± 6.0 % (n=4,
p=0.002 Kruskal-Wallis test) compared to that elicited by 1 mM ACh. Additionally, the
EC$_{50}$ for choline observed for the rat α9 receptor was smaller than that of the rat α9α10
receptor (Fig 1D, 541 ± 62, p=0.02 Kruskal-Wallis test). It is worth noting that on a
previous paper we show that choline is nearly a full agonist of rat α9 homomeric
receptors, albeit with a higher potency than that observed here (Verbitsky *et al.*, 2000).
Differences might derive from the fact that experiments in the present work were
performed in the presence of BAPTA-AM to isolate the cholinergic responses from the

secondary activation of the Ca^{2+} sensitive chloride current present in oocytes (Miledi &

Parker, 1984), whilst this was not the case in our previous work (Verbitsky *et al.*, 2000).

Choline had high efficacy in both chicken α9 and α10 homomeric receptors, similar to

that observed for the chicken α9α10 heteromeric receptor (Table 1). The maximal

choline response in chicken α9 receptors was 73.7 ± 5.9 % (n=6) of that obtained for 1

mM ACh (Fig. 3B), and it matched the maximal ACh response, 99.4 ± 9.5 % (n=4), in

chicken α10 receptors (Fig. 3C). Choline potency was lower compared to that of ACh

for both chicken homomeric receptors and concentration-response curves to choline

were shifted to the right with higher EC_{50} values (Fig. 3B-C). For chicken α9, choline

showed an EC_{50} = 280 ± 20 µM (n=6) compared to 12.9 ± 1.4 µM for ACh (n=5,

p=0.004 Mann-Whitney test). In chicken α10 receptors the EC_{50} for choline was 23.2 ±

8.3 µM (n=4), compared to 2.2 ± 0.7 µM for ACh (n=5, p=0.016 Mann-Whitney test).

In summary, choline behaved as an agonist with high efficacy in homomeric receptors

composed of rat α9, chicken α9 or chicken α10 subunits. This agonistic behavior was

similar to that observed for chicken α9α10 receptors but differed from that of rat α9α10

heteromeric receptors.

The observation that choline behaved as a partial agonist of heteromeric rat α9α10

receptors, but a full agonist of rat α9 homomeric nAChRs, suggests that the rat α10

subunit may contain determinants responsible for the lower efficacy of choline on

heteromeric α9α10 receptors. In order to test this hypothesis, we expressed rat-chicken

hybrid receptors in *X. laevis* oocytes (Fig. 4). We previously determined that responses

in these hybrid α9α10 receptors are indeed the result of heteromeric assemblies and not

individual homomeric receptors (Lipovsek *et al.*, 2014). As shown in Figure 4A, rat α9

– chicken α10 hybrid receptors responded to ACh with an EC_{50} of 11.6 ± 2.9 µM (n=7),

similar to that of rat (EC_{50} 17.1 ± 3.1 µM, n=5, p=0.19 Kruskal-Wallis test) and chicken

(EC_{50} 13.1 ± 2.6 µM, n=10, p=0.67 Kruskal-Wallis test) α9α10 nAChRs (Table 1).

Different to that described for rat α9α10 receptors (Fig. 1D), choline produced near

maximal responses in rat α9 – chicken α10 hybrid receptors (86.4 ± 2.1 % of responses

to 1 mM ACh, n=6), that were similar to those observed in chicken α9α10 receptors (88

± 6.7 %, n = 6). On the other hand, hybrid chicken α9 – rat α10 receptors exhibited

similar concentration-response curves to ACh when compared to rat and chicken α9α10

receptors, with an EC_{50} of 18.2 ± 4.8 µM (n=4, p=0.99 and p=0.29, respectively,

Kruskal-Wallis test; Fig. 4B and Table 1). However, the maximal response to choline of

chicken α9 – rat α10 hybrid receptors (51.2 ± 6.0 %, n=5) was smaller than that

observed for chicken α9α10 receptors (88 ± 6.7 %, n=10, p=0.02 Kruskal-Wallis test;

Fig. 1C), with a lower efficacy, similar to that of rat α9α10 receptors (37.5 ± 2.5 %,

n=9, p=0.50 Kruskal-Wallis test).

In summary, both the potency and efficacy of choline on rat heteromeric α9α10

receptors were lower when compared to all other receptors tested, with the only

exception of heteromeric hybrid receptors containing rat α10 subunits, therefore

suggesting that the rat α10 subunit may hold the molecular determinants of choline's

partial agonism (Fig. 4C).

384   Lower frequency of choline binding at orthosteric sites holding rat α10 subunits as

385   complementary component

To gain further insight into the mechanism underlying the drop in choline agonism on

receptors containing the rat α10 subunit, we performed molecular docking simulations

and analyzed the interaction of ACh and choline with the orthosteric binding site. To

this end, we used homology models of the extracellular domains of rat and chicken

α9α10 receptors with subunit arrangements corresponding to the four possible binding

site interfaces (principal/complementary components): α9/α9, α9/α10, α10/α9 and

α10/α10 as previously reported in (Boffi *et al.*, 2017). We then performed molecular

docking analysis of the interaction of ACh or choline with the homology-modelled

subunit interfaces to evaluate the orientation, the best binding energy (BBE) and the

frequency of conformations that bind the agonist in a favorable orientation within the

binding pocket. The conformations considered as favorable were those that showed

typical cation-π interactions between the amino group of the ligands and aromatic

residues of the binding pocket (W55, from the complementary face, and Y93, W149,

Y190 and/or Y197 from the principal face) required for ACh responses (Dougherty,

2007, Olsen *et al.*, 2014).

As reported previously (Boffi *et al.*, 2017), both for rat and chicken receptors, ACh

docking resulted in an energetically favorable model with ACh oriented with its

quaternary amine toward the membrane side or lower part of the cleft and the negative

charge oriented upwards in the cleft (Fig. 5A and B), similarly to ACh in AChBP

(Olsen *et al.*, 2014). In this orientation, ACh showed BBE between -3.5 and -6 kcal/mol

for the different binding interfaces (Fig. 5E) and its positively charged group showed the potential to form the typical cation-π interactions with the main aromatic residues Y93, W149, Y190, Y197 and W55 (Fig. 5B and C). Thus, as reported for other nAChRs, the orientation of ACh in the binding pocket of rat and chicken α9α10 receptors is favorable for efficacious activation (Fig. 5 and (Boffi *et al.*, 2017)).

For all interfaces, choline docked into the orthosteric binding site with two different orientations. The least frequent orientation was similar to that described for choline docked into the muscle nAChR (Bruhova & Auerbach, 2017). In the most frequent and lowest BBE conformation, choline was located more horizontal with respect to the membrane compared to ACh, oriented towards the C-loop containing Y190 and Y197, with the quaternary ammonium placed in the aromatic cavity (Fig. 5B and D). This orientation has also been described for other ligands in different nAChR models (Tomaselli *et al.*, 1991, Lester *et al.*, 2004, Hernando *et al.*, 2012). In this orientation, choline showed the potential to make typical cation-π interactions with the aromatic residues at the principal (W149, Y190, Y197, but not Y93) and complementary (W55) components (Fig. 5D). Whereas ACh formed an H-bond with the backbone amine group of residue D119 (Boffi, 2017 and Fig. 5B and C), choline formed an H-bond with the carboxyl group of D119 (Fig. 5B and D). Altogether, the orientation and potential interactions with residues indicate that choline adopts a favorable conformation (though different to that of ACh) for eliciting receptor activation, with lower BBEs than those observed for ACh (between -4 and -4.5 kcal/ mol for all interfaces).

The orientation and main interactions of choline with residues at the binding site were identical for all interfaces and between chicken and rat receptors. Also, while the BBE for choline did not show significant inter-species differences across the different interfaces, we observed differences in the frequency at which choline bound with favorable conformations to the different interfaces (Fig. 5E). Those binding interfaces containing α9 as the complementary subunit (α9/α9 and α10/α9) showed higher frequency of choline binding in the favorable conformations but did not show differences between chicken and rat subunits (Fig. 5E). In contrast, differences were encountered at interfaces in which α10 provided the complementary side (α9/α10 and α10/α10). Whilst each agonist binding frequency for chicken interfaces was similar to that observed when α9 acts as the complementary subunit, it was significantly lower for interfaces showing a rat α10 complementary subunit (Fig. 5F).

Thus, our *in silico* studies focused on the binding site interfaces suggest that the
differences of choline responses may be governed by the distinct choline orientation and
the differential contribution of binding interfaces containing α10 as the complementary
subunit. Whilst in chicken α9α10 receptors a high frequency of choline binding was
observed for all conformations of binding sites, in rat α9α10 receptors the frequency of
choline binding was significantly lower at α9/α10 and α10/α10 sites, suggesting that the
lower choline agonism observed in rat α10 containing receptors (Figures 3 and 4) may
be related to a reduced capability of the rat α10 subunit to efficiently operate as the
complementary side during agonist binding and receptor gating. Consequently, a
reduction in the binding frequency of agonists at specific interfaces might determine
alternate responses in the context of receptor function.

The extracellular region of the rat α10 subunit underpins lower choline efficacy

The N-terminal and TM2-TM3 extracellular domains of nicotinic receptors bare
residues involved both in agonist binding and coupling to pore opening (Karlin, 2002,
Bouzat *et al.*, 2004), and most likely contain determinants for agonist efficacy (Gupta *et*
al., 2017, Mukhtasimova & Sine, 2018). Given that choline partial agonism is observed
when rat α10 subunits are present in the heteromeric receptors (Fig. 4C) and that,
although it binds to all binding site combinations, the frequency of favorable choline
binding was lower at interfaces in which rat α10 provided the complementary face (Fig.
5F), we hypothesized that a receptor in which no binding site contains α10 components
would show strong choline agonism. To test this, we engineered a rat α9-α10 ($α10_x$)
chimeric subunit in which the entire N-terminal and TM2-TM3 extracellular regions of
the rat α10 subunit were replaced by the corresponding domains of the rat α9 subunit
(Fig. 6A). The chimeric subunit did not form functional homomeric receptors by itself,
nor did it do so when co-expressed with the rat α10 subunit. However, when co-
expressed with the rat α9 subunit, strong ACh responses were recorded for rat $α9α10_x$
receptors (Fig. 6B), with I_{max} = 269.0 ± 103.1 nA (n=5). This contrasts the maximal
ACh responses observed for homomeric rat α9 receptors (I_{max} of 13.8 ± 2.1 nA, n=4 and
see (Elgoyhen *et al.*, 2001), indicating that, when co-expressed, rat α9 and chimeric
$α10_x$ subunits form heteromeric assemblies. Concentration-response curves to ACh of
rat $α9α10_x$ receptors were similar to those of rat α9α10 wild-type receptors with an EC_{50}
of 15.6 ± 6.5 µM (n=4, p=0.50 Kruskal-Wallis test) (Fig. 6C). Interestingly, responses

to choline of the rat $\alpha9\alpha10_x$ chimeric receptor resembled those exhibited by rat $\alpha9$

homomeric receptors and differed from those rat $\alpha9\alpha10$ receptors. Thus, the EC_{50} for

choline on $\alpha9\alpha10_x$ receptors was 160.2 ± 7.6 μM (n=5), significantly smaller than that

in rat $\alpha9\alpha10$ receptors (541 ± 62 μM, n=10, p=0.007, Kruskal-Wallis test) and similar to

that observed in homomeric rat $\alpha9$ receptors (Fig. 6C and Table 1). Likewise, choline

evoked maximal response of $74.3 \pm 1.0\%$ (n=5) in $\alpha9\alpha10_x$ receptors was higher than

that of rat $\alpha9\alpha10$ (37.5 ± 2.5 %, n=9, p=0.04 Kruskal-Wallis test) but similar to that

observed in rat $\alpha9$ homomeric receptors (87.3 ± 6.0 %, n=4, p=0.27, Kruskal-Wallis

test) (Fig. 6C and Table 1). Taken together, the experimental evaluation of ACh and

choline agonism in a chimeric receptor indicates that the extracellular region of the rat

$\alpha10$ subunit bears determinants that render an $\alpha9\alpha10$ receptor on which choline has low

efficacy.

The $\alpha10$ complementary component participates in activation by choline of rat

$\alpha9\alpha10$ nAChRs

In a previous work we showed that rat $\alpha10$ subunits do not contribute with

complementary faces to the ACh binding site (Boffi *et al.*, 2017). In contrast, in the

present study we have so far shown that the extracellular domain of the rat $\alpha10$ subunit

is responsible for the decrease in choline agonism in rat $\alpha9\alpha10$ receptors. Moreover, *in*

silico docking showed that the frequency of choline binding in the correct conformation

is lower at interfaces where the complementary component is provided by rat $\alpha10$

subunits (Fig. 5E), suggesting that the lower choline agonism observed in rat $\alpha9\alpha10$

receptors may result from sub-functional $\alpha9/\alpha10$ or $\alpha10/\alpha10$ binding sites. Therefore, to

experimentally evaluate choline's requirement for functional binding sites containing

$\alpha10$ complementary components, we studied responses to choline on rat $\alpha9\alpha10$

heteromeric receptors holding the W55T mutation in the rat $\alpha10$ subunits (Fig. 7A).

While responses to ACh showed no significant changes in the $\alpha9\alpha10W55T$ receptor

compared to wild type $\alpha9\alpha10$ receptors (Boffi *et al.*, 2017), Fig. 7A and B and Table 1 -

EC_{50} $\alpha9\alpha10$: 17.1 ± 3.1 μM, n=5; EC_{50} $\alpha9\alpha10W55T$: 37.8 ± 6.2 μM, n=8; p=0.06,

Kruskal-Wallis test), responses to choline were nearly abolished in mutant receptors on

which responses to 10 mM choline were 7.4 ± 1.9 % (n=5) of those elicited by 1 mM

ACh (Fig. 7B). This indicates that the contribution of the complementary face of the rat

$\alpha10$ subunit to the agonistic effect of ACh and choline is non-equivalent. Thus, whereas

rat α10 complementary faces are not required for ACh activation of rat α9α10 receptors

(see also (Boffi *et al.*, 2017), intact rat α10 complementary components are required for

choline agonistic effect.

Finally, to evaluate whether choline interacts with the α10/α9 intact interfaces in the

α9α10W55T receptor, and therefore also requires them to elicit its reduced agonism, we

analyzed responses to 10 µM ACh in the presence of increasing concentrations of

choline for both rat α9α10 and α9α10W55T receptors (Fig. 7C and D). ACh was added

once a maximal response to choline was observed. The maximal response obtained

during the co-application was normalized to the response to 10 µM ACh (Fig. 7C). At

low choline concentrations that do not trigger channel opening (< 100 µM), ACh

responses became increasingly smaller as choline concentration increased, both in the

α9α10 and the α9α10W55T receptors, suggesting that choline is capable of competing

with ACh for the available binding sites. However, in the presence of higher choline

concentrations (>300 µM), total responses in α9α10 receptors increased while they

remained unchanged for the mutant receptor (Fig. 7D). The V-shaped effect observed in

the α9α10 receptor, where an EC_{50} ACh response is blocked at low concentrations of

choline and summation of both agonist responses occurs at higher choline

concentrations, is consistent with choline acting as a partial agonist (Zhu, 2005) and

suggests that the increase in combined response may be due to choline binding to the

α9/α10 and α10/α10 sites that are spared by ACh. Conversely, the lack of increase of

ACh responses at higher choline concentrations in the α9α10W55T mutant receptor

indicates a loss of choline agonism that may result from the unavailability of additional

α9/α10 and α10/α10 sites due to the W55T mutation.

Overall, the differences observed in the responses to ACh and/or choline between

α9α10 wild type and α9α10W55T mutant receptors indicate that the complementary

faces of α10 subunits are required for the partial agonistic effect of choline on α9α10

receptors, therefore suggesting that choline necessitates higher binding site occupancy

compared to ACh to elicit channel gating of rat α9α10 nAChRs.

534   Discussion

The present work shows that the mammalian (rat) α10 nAChR subunit is responsible for

a reduced efficacy of choline when assembled into heteromeric α9α10 receptors. Thus,

whereas choline is a full agonist of rat α9 homomeric receptors, it is a partial agonist of
rat α9α10 nAChRs. This is further supported by hybrid receptors, on which choline is a
full agonist of rat α9 – chicken α10 receptors and the efficacy in chicken heteromeric
receptors is reduced when the chicken α10 subunit is replaced by the rat α10 subunit in
the chicken α9 – rat α10 assembly. The reduced agonist efficacy determined by the rat
α10 subunit is probably extended to other compounds that behave as partial agonists, as
evidenced in the present work for DMPP. These results add to the differential functional
properties between mammalian and non-mammalian vertebrate α9α10 nAChRs, that
have been shaped by the more prevalent occurrence of non-synonymous amino acid
substitutions during the evolution of mammalian subunits (Franchini & Elgoyhen, 2006,
Elgoyhen & Franchini, 2011, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2014, Marcovich *et*
al., 2020).

Full and partial agonists evoke distinct structural changes in opening the muscle
acetylcholine receptor channel (Mukhtasimova & Sine, 2018). This is further supported
by the observation that the αE45R mutation within the binding–gating transduction
domain of this receptor attenuates channel opening by a full agonist, whereas it
enhances channel opening by a partial agonist (Mukhtasimova & Sine, 2013). It was
therefore suggested that, due to differences in size and/or chemical structure, different
agonists of the same receptor might bind in different conformations and/or strength to
the ligand interaction pocket (Mukhtasimova & Sine, 2018). This resembles our
observations on the effect of mutating W55, a residue located within loop D of the
complementary component of the binding site, which by directly interacting with the
agonist is crucial for binding-gating transduction (Olsen *et al.*, 2014). In the present
work, the W55T mutation in the rat α10 subunit greatly impairs the response of the
α9α10 receptor to choline but not to ACh.

This functional non-equivalence is further supported by docking analysis, which shows
that ACh and choline adopt different conformations at the binding site of α9α10
receptors. This result fully agrees with previous studies in the muscle nAChR (Bruhova
& Auerbach, 2017), for which choline and ACh sit at different orientations at the
binding site. In our model, choline had two probable alternate orientations compared to
ACh with the least frequent one resembling the one described for the muscle nAChR
(Bruhova & Auerbach, 2017). Furthermore, the non-equivalence of the agonist binding
sites for ACh and choline is reflected in differential atomic interactions. Thus, similar to

ACh, choline can make interactions at the aromatic cage. However, whereas ACh
makes a H-bond with the backbone amine group of D119 of the complementary face,
choline shows the potential to make a H-bond with the carboxyl group of the same
residue (Fig. 5B and D). Similar to that reported for the muscle ACh receptor (Bruhova
& Auerbach, 2017), this different orientation leads to the displacement of the quaternary
ammonium of choline away from a favorable position in the aromatic cage compared to
ACh. This might lead to a weaker interaction with all aromatic rings of the binding site,
accounting for the lower apparent affinity of choline compared to ACh for the α9α10
receptor. Moreover, due to the particular orientation of choline towards the C-loop when
compared to ACh, differential interactions with residues of the complementary face
and/or degree of closure of the C-loop required for channel gating (Thompson *et al.*,
2010), might be involved in the reduced choline efficacy.

Our combined *in silico* and experimental observations allow us further insight into the
differential responses to ACh and choline of rat α9α10 nAChRs. Whereas the
complementary face of the α10 subunit does not play an important role in the activation
of the receptor by ACh, it is strictly required for choline responses, as shown by the
results of the W55T mutation. ACh adopts a different and more favorable conformation,
better placed withing the aromatic pocket compared to choline, and would therefore
only require occupying two of the five binding sites, sparing binding sites in which the
complementary face is provided by the α10 subunit. However, since choline adopts a
less favorable conformation, it probably requires higher binding site occupancy for full
efficacy. Differences in agonist efficacy according to available binding sites have been
reported for other nAChRs. For example, the α4β2 nAChR in the $(\alpha 4)_3 (\beta 2)_2$
stoichiometry contains three functional agonist binding sites for ACh (Harpsøe *et al.*,
2011, Mazzaferro *et al.*, 2011), and the engagement of all three agonist sites produces
maximal activation. The agonist site at the α4/α4 interface is a key determinant of
agonist efficacy as occupancy of this site increases agonist efficacy, whereas exclusion
from the site leads to partial agonism (Mazzaferro *et al.*, 2014). Another example is
provided by the α7 receptor. Even though maximal activation requires occupancy of
three binding sites in the α7-5hT3A chimera (Rayes *et al.*, 2009), only one is required in
the α7 nAChR (Andersen *et al.*, 2013). Thus, the relationship between binding site
occupancy and maximal response differs between nAChRs. Moreover, and in light of

our results, we propose that the degree of occupancy required for maximal responses

varies with the type of agonist.

Hair cell α9α10 nAChRs are distinct from other nicotinic receptors in that a greater

divergence in their coding sequence has translated into differential functional properties

across clades (Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2014, Marcovich *et al.*, 2020). Our

observations here that choline, the degradation product of ACh, has differential

agonistic effects on rodent vs avian α9α10 receptors, suggests different scenarios for the

workings of the respective efferent synapsis. Recordings on native cholinergic

responses recapitulated our observations in recombinant rat and chick α9α10 receptors.

While choline elicited maximal responses in chicken hair cells, it behaved as a partial

agonist of the native nicotinic receptors present in hair cells of mice (Fig. 2). In chicken

efferent synapsis to (mostly) short hair cells, the release of ACh from efferent terminals

triggers α9α10 receptors that would continue to be activated in response to the choline

produced by ACh degradation due to acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activity, until it is

removed from the synaptic cleft. This would result in longer post-synaptic responses

subjected to large variations and poor temporal tuning (Katz & Miledi, 1973). In

contrast, in mammalian efferent olivocochlear synapses, the degradation of ACh to

choline would limit the time-course and improve the reliability of the cholinergic

response. Given that choline is not able to fully activate the rodent α9α10 receptor, and

in the presence of ACh acts as a competitive antagonist, the termination of α9α10

responses would therefore be dictated by the fast kinetics of AChE activity (Hall, 1973).

An apical to basal concentration and isoform diversity gradient of AChE has been

described in the mouse cochlea (Emmerling & Sobkowicz, 1988). Notably, the high-

frequency basal region exhibits higher concentrations of this enzyme and is enriched in

isoforms with faster kinetics, underscoring the relevance of fine temporal tunning of

efferent modulation for high frequency sound detection (Emmerling & Sobkowicz,

1988). Also, compared to chicken, the mammalian α9α10 receptor shows greater

desensitization to ACh and higher calcium permeability that may result in uncoupling

from internal calcium stores (Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2014, Marcovich *et*

al., 2020). Together with the poorer choline agonism, these functional adaptations that

lead to "tighter" ACh responses, may prove fundamental for the high-frequency

modulation of the prestin-driven amplifier of mammalian outer hair cells, by allowing

post-synaptic summation to faithfully reproduce high frequency activity of efferent

medial olivocochlear fibers (Ballestero *et al.*, 2011).

The lower agonistic action of choline on mammalian α9α10 receptors is likely due to

the accumulation of amino acid changes within the mammalian α10 subunit (Franchini

& Elgoyhen, 2006, Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012) that rendered a subfunctional contribution of

α10 as a complementary component subunit. Our *in silico* and experimental analysis of

choline agonism indicate that, for it to trigger a full response, it needs to bind to α9/α10

and/or α10/α10 sites, therefore requiring sites holding α10 complementary interfaces.

This is in contrast with the agonism by ACh, that only requires binding to α10/α9 (or

α9/α9) sites formed by an α10 (or α9) principal component and α9 complementary

component (Boffi *et al.*, 2017). We hypothesize that amino acid changes within the α10

subunit that affect agonist binding and/or receptor triggering from the additional binding

sites (i.e. those that have an α10 subunit as a complementary component) would not be

deleterious and therefore not under negative selection, as they would not affect the main

response to ACh, given that the sensitivity for this agonist is the same in the different

species (Lipovsek *et al.*, 2012, Marcovich *et al.*, 2020).

In this context, a scenario could be proposed in which strong positive selection pressure

for the loss of the agonistic function of choline, a likely functional requirement for fine-

tuned high-frequency efferent olivocochlear activity, may have been the driver for the

accumulation of coding sequence changes within the extracellular domain of

mammalian α10 subunits (Franchini & Elgoyhen, 2006). This then resulted in the loss

of choline acting as a full agonism for mammalian α9α10 receptors, without affecting

the triggering of ACh responses.

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Table 1. Estimated values of EC_{50} and efficacy for agonists of α9α10 receptors and IC_{50}
value for the antagonist nicotine. Values are mean ± S.E.M.. Between brackets, number
of oocytes per experiment.
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	ACh	Choline		Carbachol		DMPP		Nicotine
	EC_{50} (µM)	EC_{50} (µM)	Efficacy (%)	EC_{50} (µM)	Efficacy (%)	EC_{50} (µM)	Efficacy (%)	IC_{50} (µM)
Rat α9	12.9 ± 1.1 (5)	188 ± 40 (3)	87.3 ± 6.0 (4)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Rat α9α10	17.1 ± 3.1 (5)	541 ± 62 (10)	37.5 ± 2.5 (9)	159 ± 31.5 (5)	75.5 ± 5.2 (5)	21.5 ± 4.0 (6)	0.6 ± 0.3 (6)	46.3 ± 12.4 (6)
Chicken α9	12.9 ± 1.4 (5)	280 ± 20 (6)	73.7 ± 5.9 (6)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Chicken α10	2.2 ± 0.7 (5)	23.2 ± 8.3 (4)	99.4 ± 9.5 (4)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Chicken α9α10	13.1 ± 2.6 (10)	200 ± 16 (6)	88.0 ± 6.7 (6)	150.1 ± 14.8 (6)	89.8 ± 7.0 (6)	9.8 ± 0.5 (5)	32.6 ± 2.9 (5)	39.4 ± 3.4 (6)
Rα9-Cα10	11.6 ± 2.9 (7)	148 ± 12.1 (5)	86.4 ± 2.1 (6)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Cα9-Rα10	18.2 ± 4.8 (4)	333 ± 66.2 (4)	51.2 ± 6 (5)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
α9α10ₓ	15.6 ± 6.5 (4)	160.2 ± 7.6 (5)	74.3 ± 1.0 (5)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
α9α10W55T	37.8 ± 6.2 (8)	N.D.	7.4 ± 1.9 (5)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.

823   **Figures**

Figure 1. *Responses of rat and chicken recombinant heteromeric α9α10 nAChRs to*
nicotinic agonists. A. Upper panels: representative traces of responses to 10 µM ACh
(left) blocked by co-application of 100 µM nicotine (right) for rat (black traces) and
chicken (red traces) α9α10 receptors. Lower panel: inhibition curves for nicotine for rat
and chicken α9α10 receptors. Responses to 10 µM ACh, co-applied with increasing
concentrations of nicotine were normalized to the responses to 10 µM ACh alone.
Values are mean ± S.E.M. for 6-7 oocytes. B-D. Upper panels: representative maximal
responses to ACh (dotted lines) and carbachol (B), DMPP (C) and choline (D) (solid
lines) for rat and chicken α9α10 receptors. Lower panels: concentration-response curves
for ACh and carbachol (B), DMPP (C) and choline (D) for rat and chicken α9α10
receptors. Values are normalized to the maximal response to ACh obtained in each
oocyte. Values are mean ± S.E.M. for 5-9 oocytes.

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Figure 2. *Responses of hair cells to choline.* **A.** Representative traces of responses to

ACh or choline (Ch) in mouse outer (black, upper panel) and chicken short (red, lower

panel) hair cells at a holding potential of -40 mV. **B.** Percentage of maximum response

evoked by ACh or choline normalized to the maximal peak response to 3 mM ACh for

mouse and chicken hair cells. Values are mean ± S.E.M. of 6 (rat) and 4 (chicken)

experiments per group. (*) Friedman's test, vs 3 mM ACh for each species ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 3. *Responses of rat and chicken homomeric α9 or α10 nAChRs to choline.* Upper

panels: representative maximal responses to ACh and choline for rat α9 (A), chicken α9

(B) and chicken α10 (C) homomeric receptors. Lower panels: concentration-response

curves for ACh (dotted lines) and choline (solid lines) for rat α9 (A), chicken α9 (B) and

chicken α10 (C) homomeric receptors. Values are normalized to the maximal response

to ACh obtained in each oocyte. Values are mean ± S.E.M. for 4-6 oocytes.

Figure 4. *Responses of rat-chicken hybrid receptors to choline*. A-B. Upper panels: representative maximal responses evoked by saturating concentrations of ACh and choline in rat α9 - chicken α10 (A) and chicken α9 - rat α10 (B) hybrid receptors. Lower panels: concentration-response curves for ACh (dotted lines) and choline (solid lines). Values are normalized to the maximal response to ACh in each oocyte. Values are mean ± S.E.M. of 4-6 oocytes per group. (C) EC_{50} values for choline (Upper panel) and percentage maximal choline response, normalized to the maximal response elicited by ACh (Bottom panel) for rat and chicken heteromeric α9α10 receptors, rat α9, chicken α9 and chicken α10 homomeric receptors, and rat α9 – chicken α10 and chicken α9 – rat α10 hybrid receptors. (*) Kruskal-Wallis test, vs rat α9α10 receptor ($p<0.05$).

Figure 5. *Docking of ACh and choline into the binding sites of rat and chicken a9a10receptor.* A. Ribbon structure of the extracellular domain of rat α10 and α9 subunits showing an interface formed by the principal (+) component of the α10 subunit and the complementary (-) component of the α9 subunit. The location of the orthosteric binding site with a bound ACh, is highlighted by the red box. B. Zoom in of the binding domain highlighted by the red square in A. The positions of ACh (green) and the most frequent orientation of choline (blue) are shown, docked into the binding. C-D.

Molecular interactions of ACh (C) and choline (D) with residues in the binding site.

Cation-π interactions are illustrated by orange dashed lines and H-bonds by green

dashed lines. E. Frequency (as percentage) of the most frequent orientation (top panel)

and best binding energy (BBE; bottom panel) obtained for three separate simulations for

ACh and choline in each of the binding interfaces, comprised of

(principal/complementary components) α9/α9, α10/α9, α9/α10 and α10/α10 rat or

chicken subunits. Values are mean ± SEM of at least three different docking simulations

for each interface.

Figure 6. *Responses of rat α9α10ₓ chimeric receptor to choline*. A. Diagram of a

α9α10$_x$ chimeric subunit showing the regions corresponding to the α9 subunit sequence

(red) and α10 subunit sequence (black). B. Representative maximal responses to ACh

(left) and choline (right) for the α9α10$_x$ chimeric receptor, obtained by co-expressing

the α10$_x$ chimeric subunit with rat α9 subunit. C. Concentration response-curves for

ACh (dotted lines) and choline (solid liness) for α9α10$_x$ chimeric receptors (red circles)

and wild-type α9α10 receptors (black squares). Values were normalized to the maximal

response to ACh in each oocyte. Values are mean ± S.E.M. of 5-9 oocytes per group.

Figure 7. *Responses of the rat α9α10W55T receptor to choline*. A. Diagram of an α10

subunit illustrating the W55T mutation, localized to the complementary component of

the agonist binding site within the pentameric assembly (Top panel). Representative

maximal responses to ACh (left) and choline (right) for the α9α10W55T receptor

(Bottom panel). B. Concentration response-curves to ACh (dotted lines) and choline

(solid lines) for the α9α10W55T receptor (red circles) and wild-type α9α10 receptors

(black squares). Values were normalized to the maximal response to ACh in each

oocyte. Values are mean ± S.E.M. of 5-9 oocytes per group. C. Representative

responses to 10 µM ACh (dotted lines) alone or on top of responses to 300 or 3000 µM

choline in oocytes expressing rat α9α10 or α9α10W55T receptors. D. Normalized

responses to 10 µM ACh obtained in the presence of increasing concentrations of

choline for rat α9α10 and α9α10W55T receptors. Responses were normalized to

responses to10 µM ACh in the absence of choline for each oocyte.