1   Auxiliary subunits keep AMPA receptors compact during activation and

2   desensitization

Jelena Baranovic and Andrew J.R. Plested[1][§]

Institute of Biology, Cellular Biophysics, Humboldt Universität zu Berlin, 10115

Berlin; Leibniz Forschungsinstitut für Molekulare Pharmakologie (FMP), 13125

Berlin; NeuroCure, Charité Universitätsmedizin, 10117 Berlin, Germany.

[1]Lead Contact

[§]To whom correspondence should be addressed: plested@fmp-berlin.de

Summary

Signal transduction at vertebrate excitatory synapses involves the activity of ionotropic

glutamate receptors, including the AMPA (α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole

propionate) receptor. Technical advances in cryo-electron microscopy have brought a

slew of full-length structures of AMPA receptors, on their own and in combination with

auxiliary subunits. These structures illustrate a wide range of conformations, indicating

that individual domains might undergo substantial lateral motions during gating,

resulting in an open, "relaxed" extracellular layer. Here, we used bifunctional

methanethiosulfonate cross-linkers to calibrate the conformations found in functional

AMPA receptors both in the presence and absence of the auxiliary subunit Stargazin.

Our data indicate that AMPA receptors have considerable conformational freedom and

can get trapped in stable, relaxed conformations, especially upon long exposures to

glutamate. In contrast, Stargazin limits this conformational flexibility. Thus, under

synaptic conditions, where brief glutamate exposures and the presence of Stargazin

dominate, AMPA receptors are unlikely to adopt very relaxed conformations during

gating.

Introduction

AMPA-type glutamate receptors are found at excitatory synapses throughout the mammalian brain, where they convert glutamate release into membrane depolarisation. Their fast kinetics (Colquhoun et al., 1992; Geiger et al., 1995; Taschenberger and von Gersdorff, 2000), as well as the physical attributes of synapses (Xu-Friedman and Regehr, 2003), allow them to follow glutamate transients at rates above 100 Hz. However, the structural dynamics underlying their rapid signalling are unclear. AMPA receptors are tetrameric ligand-gated ion channels with unique architectural features and loosely coupled structural domains: unstructured linkers connect the amino- and ligand-binding domains (ATDs and LBDs, respectively) forming the extracellular part of the receptor. The LBDs are in turn connected to the transmembrane region (TM) that harbors the integral ion channel (Figure 1A). The extracellular domains adopt local dimer pairs in resting and active receptors. The LBD dimers 'break up' in the desensitized state (Sun et al., 2002; Armstrong et al., 2006; Dürr et al., 2014; Twomey et al., 2017b), but motions of the ATDs are unclear (Herguedas et al., 2016; Cais et al., 2014; Yelshanskaya et al., 2016) (Shaikh et al., 2016).

The crowded and narrow synaptic cleft is scarcely wider than the receptors are tall themselves and has narrow edges (Zuber et al., 2005; Tao et al., 2018). This observation implies that conformational dynamics of the receptor domains and their relation to synapse dimensions and molecular composition has implications in both health and disease. For example, if extremely dilated conformations of AMPA receptors can be adopted rapidly, that is on the millisecond timescale of fast excitatory transmission, this could impact receptor anchoring at synapses. Activity-dependent anchoring might be a way to regulate synaptic strength (Constals et al., 2015). On the other hand, slow rearrangements could be relevant for trafficking, and in disease states.

Advances in the structural biology of ionotropic glutamate receptors (iGluRs) have produced a catalogue of static conformational snapshots. Very similar structures have been obtained in conditions corresponding to nominally different functional states

(Chen et al., 2014; Dürr et al., 2014; Yelshanskaya et al., 2014). In addition, several

structures suggest substantial movements of the extracellular domains when bound

by agonist (Nakagawa et al., 2005; Dürr et al., 2014; Meyerson et al., 2014). In these

structures, the domains "fall apart", either breaking local symmetry states, adopting

higher order symmetries or switching into a ring-like arrangement (Figure 1A). The

timescale of this broad range of potential lateral movements is unknown, because the

structural experiments necessarily took place over hours. We therefore set out to

investigate the conformational range of agonist bound AMPA receptors with the aim

of distinguishing frequently-visited, short-lived conformations from the long-lived ones

that likely have less direct relevance to synaptic transmission.

Previously, we demonstrated disulphide bonds and metal bridges trapping receptors

in compact LBD arrangements (Salazar et al., 2017; Baranovic et al., 2016; Lau et al.,

2013). To measure the separation of domains in this work, we used bifunctional

methanethiosulfonate cross-linkers (bis-MTS) of defined lengths (Loo and Clarke,

2001; Guan et al., 2002; Armstrong et al., 2006; Tajima et al., 2016) (Figure 1D).

These cross-linkers show specific combination with two free thiol groups, provided by

cysteine residues that we engineered. The reactivity of these probes can in principle

report distances, giving them the property of nanometre-scale molecular rulers.

Overall, our results suggest that the more dilated conformation of the receptor, the

slower it is to access, but once attained, these conformations are stable. However,

auxiliary subunits restrict the conformational ensemble, maintaining more compact

arrangements. This kinetic classification suggests AMPA receptors at synapses have

similar, compact geometries regardless of their instantaneous gating state.

Figure 1 Geometry of AMPA receptors. (A) Structural models of full-length AMPA receptors in resting, active

and desensitized states. Accesion codes for PBD or EMDB are indicated. Subunits are colour-coded: A – green,

B – red, C – blue and D – yellow. Square brackets delineate AMPA receptor domains: ATDs – amino terminal

domains, LBDs – ligand binding domains and TM – transmembrane region. The cytoplasmic domain is not

resolved. For the resting and active structures, LBDs are also shown in a top-down view (omitted for the

desensitized structure due to its low resolution). Orange spheres connected by black lines indicate 665-666

residues (mutated in this study) in the LBD layer. (B) Same as in (A), but for GluA2 structures complexed with

auxiliary subunits: Stg – Stargazin (dark purple) and GSG1L (light purple). (C) Distances between sulfhydryl groups

of mutated residues, A665C and V666C, in agonist-bound strucures shown in (A) and (B). (D) Structures of

bifunctional (bis-MTS: M1M-M10M) and monofunctional (MTSEA) compounds. Lengths were measured between

reactive sulphur atoms (SG, asterisks).

Results

Desensitized AMPA receptors can adopt 'relaxed' conformations

The rupture of the LBD intra-dimer interface is a structural hallmark of AMPA receptor desensitization, as shown by biophysical studies based on the structures of isolated dimers of ligand binding domains (Sun et al., 2002; Armstrong et al., 2006). Some cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) structures of full-length receptors suggest that desensitization might involve further rearrangements of the ligand-binding domains, including separation of the two dimers and 'dilation' of the entire extracellular layer in the membrane plane (Figure 1A).

We attempted to capture this movement between LBDs with bis-MTS cross-linkers ranging from 7 to 18 Å in length (Figure 1D). If the LBD layer opened up in the horizontal plane upon receptor desensitization, this movement should create access for longer bis-MTS cross-linkers in the inter-dimer space (orange dots in Figure 1A). The same principle applies to the ATDs, but ATD layer is functionally silent (Pasternack et al., 2002) and its cross-linking does not produce measurable changes in the receptor activity (Yelshanskaya et al., 2016). Structural models and fluorescence studies (Shaikh et al., 2016) so far indicate that the ATDs follow movements of the LBD layer (Figure 1A-B). We assume here that the membrane-bound TM region strongly restricts vertical displacement of the LBDs, that is, the movements we are probing are those approximately parallel to the membrane.

We identified positions 665 and 666 (in the FG loop) in homomeric GluA2 receptors as best positioned to follow separation of the LBD dimers (Figure 1A-C). The presumptive geometries of the sulfhydryl groups (SG) for cysteine mutants at these sites, in the agonist bound states of GluA2 receptor (with and without auxiliary subunits) are shown in Figure 1C. The structure of the desensitized GluA2 receptor (EMDB: 2688, Figure 1A) is not detailed enough to measure residue distances, but the equivalent residues are 21 Å apart in homologous kainate receptors (PDB: 5KUF; (Meyerson et al., 2016)).

As shown in Figure 2B and D, bis-MTS cross-linkers M1M to M10M all caused strong

reduction of the peak current in V666C mutant when applied in the desensitized state.

To quantify this effect, the peak current was measured from the control pulses before

(I_{peak} pre-trap, 4 pulses) and after the 1-minute application (trap) of the cross-linker

(I_{peak} post-trap, 2nd control pulse after the trap, arrows in Figure 2A-C). For each patch,

the ratio of I_{peak} post-trap over I_{peak} pre-trap was determined and plotted as shown in

Figure 2D-E.

For the V666C mutant, bis-MTS cross-linkers from 7 to 15 Å in length (M1M-M8M; 1

μM), inhibited about 90% of the peak current in the patch after a 1-minute application

(see Table S1). The longest (M10M) cross-linker was the slowest one to act (Figure

2F), leading to slightly less inhibition (~70%) in the first minute of exposure. The

reduction was less pronounced for A665C mutant for all cross-linkers (~50%, Figure

2E and Table S1).

Is the slow action of bis-MTS cross-linkers ($\leq$ minute, Figure 2F) because we are

sampling slowly-attained conformations? We used low concentrations (1 μM) of MTS

reagents to ensure bifunctional reagents were not chaining to each other. To

determine that modification of the V666C receptors by MTS cross-linkers can proceed

on the same time scale as receptor gating we performed additional trapping

experiments with 50 μM M3M and M10M (Figure 3). Indeed, at 50 μM, both bis-MTS

cross-linkers were roughly 50x faster to modify the receptors (τ_{M3M} = 0.2 s and τ_{M10M}

= 1.7 s, Figure 3B and D). The relative modification time was preserved with the longer

cross-linker (M10M) still being slower than the shorter one (M3M). These experiments

indicate that bifunctional MTS reagents are capturing rapid transitions in receptor

structure on the millisecond timescale.

Inhibition was overall so profound that we sought to establish that it was specific. Two

other factors potentially contribute to the current decrease: non-specific run-down of

the current and disulphide bonding of the introduced cysteines to each other. Current

run-down is particularly difficult to avoid in the long records that we made for these

experiments. A665C and V666C sulfhydryl groups were both previously shown to

crosslink in the presence of oxidizing agent CuPhen (Salazar et al., 2017; Lau et al.,

2013; Yelshanskaya et al., 2016). To account for these confounding factors, we made

paired recordings: a patch was first exposed to a 1-minute long trapping pulse

containing glutamate only (no cross-linkers), followed by trapping of the same patch

in glutamate and a cross-linker (Figure 2B-C). Any run-down in the patch or possible

cross-linking of the cysteines to each other was then assessed from trapping in

glutamate only. Both mutants underwent some peak current reduction in glutamate in

the absence of cross-linker (A665C: 0.62 ± 0.04, $n = 23$, $P < 10^{-7}$ vs. WT, V666C: 0.86

± 0.02, $n = 44$, $P = 0.003$ vs. WT; WT: 0.97 ± 0.03, $n = 30$), consistent with previous

results (Lau et al., 2013; Yelshanskaya et al., 2016) . Limited cross-linking of A665C

cysteines to each other in long exposures to 10 mM glutamate was evident as a

recovery of peak responses after the trapping pulse (grey dots in Figure 2C, $\tau = 3.3 \pm$

0.4 s, $n = 17$). For the V666C mutant, all 6 bis-MTS cross-linkers (M1M-M10) resulted

in more current inhibition than glutamate alone ($P \leq 0.03$ with and without bis-MTS,

depending on the cross-linker; paired randomisation test). Overall, paired recordings

gave indistinguishable results to the non-paired recordings. In other words, disulphide

crosslinking and rundown were minimal in these conditions. Therefore, we pooled the

cross-linking data in glutamate alone across conditions for each mutant (Figure 2D-

E).

To confirm that the observed peak current reduction came from crosslinking rather

than monofunctional engagement of a cross-linker, we modified mutants with MTSEA

(Figure 1D), which can interact only with a single cysteine. As shown in Figure 2D-E,

MTSEA failed to inhibit either V666C or A665C above control (I_{peak} post-trap / I_{peak} pre-

trap for V666C: 0.89 ± 0.025, $n = 3$-4, $P = 0.1$; for A665C: 0.81 ± 0.06, $n = 3$-4, $P =$

0.8). This result also suggests that the mild oxidizing environment created by MTS

compounds at 1 μM has little tendency to promote disulphide bond formation. Thus,

bifunctional MTS cross-linking was necessary for the peak current reduction observed

in desensitizing AMPA receptors.

The effect of all bis-MTS cross-linkers with respect to their length is summarized in the

trapping profile for desensitized V666C receptors (Figure 2G). Rather than showing a

preferred cross-linking length (and thus, conformation) for desensitized receptors, the
profile is a shallow parabola with strong effects across all tested lengths. Fitting a
parabola to these data is justified by the observation that direct disulfide crosslinking
(representing the short distance limit) is quite ineffective at this site (Figure 2D and
(Lau et al., 2013)). These results demonstrate that desensitized AMPA receptors can
'open up' their LBD layer to ~18 Å at position 666 during desensitization and occupy
a spectrum of conformations. Structural heterogeneity and 'dilation' of the LBD layer
to ≥18 Å are both in good agreement with cryo-EM structures (Meyerson et al., 2014;
Dürr et al., 2014).
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In addition to positions 665 and 666, we also tested nearby positions 662 and 664 for
their sensitivity to bis-MTS cross-linkers (Figure S1). The I664C mutant showed similar
levels of the peak current reduction to V666C. However, we judged the I664C
sulfhydryls were too far apart to make effective use of the available bis-MTS cross-
linkers (Figure S1A). Like the A665C mutant, the S662C mutant showed considerable
disulphide formation, so we focused on the V666C mutant in further investigations.

Figure 2 LBDs can separate ≥18 Å in desensitized GluA2. (A) Control recording of wild-type (WT) GluA2

receptors in response to a trapping protocol. Movements of the piezo reflecting the solution exchange are shown

in thin, black lines above the current trace. Composition of the solutions is indicated in thick lines above the piezo

trace. Downward ticks are 200 ms control jumps from DTT (1 mM) to DTT and glutamate (Glu, 10 mM). Four pre-

trap control pulses were followed by a 1-minute long trapping pulse (red line) in Glu (10 mM) and M3M (1 μM).

After the trapping pulse, the patch was exposed to 10 post-trap control pulses. The first post-trap pulse gives no

response because receptors are desensitized (for details, see Experimental Procedures). (B) Same as in (A), but

for V666C mutant. The top two recordings are from the same patch: in the first trace, V666C receptors were

exposed only to Glu. Trapping of the same patch in Glu and M1M (1 μM), results in pronounced peak current

reduction, which partly recovered with $\tau_{recovery} = 30 \pm 7$ s, $n = 5$ (grey dots; post-trap control pulses extended to 30

for fit). The bottom trace is a different patch trapped in bMTSp (1 μM), showing even stronger peak current reduction

without any recovery. (C) As in (B) but for the A665C mutant. The two traces are paired recordings of the same

patch. Post-trap control pulses show that A665C does cross-link to itself, but most of the current recovers within

several seconds after the trap (grey dots; $\tau_{recovery} = 3.3 \pm 0.4$ s, n = 17). If the same patch is now trapped in Glu

Next, we wanted to test how specific the cross-linkers were in targeting the inter-dimer

interface of the LBD layer in our conditions. We generated another single cysteine

mutant, K493C (Armstrong et al., 2006), positioned within LBD dimers (Figure S2A).

Thus, bridging across the two cysteines should keep the LBD dimers intact leading to

block of desensitization. When we applied bis-MTS cross-linkers on K493C receptors

(1 μM, for ≥1 min), the effects were profoundly different from the mutants at the inter-

dimer interface: K493C current underwent potentiation rather than inhibition, with

shorter cross-linkers (M1M, M3M and M6M) blocking the receptor desensitization

almost completely (Figure S2B-D). We also considered the possibility that bis-MTS

cross-linkers might be spuriously cross-linking to wild-type cysteines on the receptor

or forming inter-receptor cross-links (Figure S3A). If this were the case, the peak

current reduction effect would be expected to scale with the number of the receptors

in the membrane (i.e. peak current), but no such correlation was found (Figure S3B).

In addition, longer cross-linkers would be expected to be more efficient in forging inter-

receptor cross-links, but we found that the longest cross-linker, M10M, was the slowest

to react on desensitized AMPA receptors (Figure 2F). The absence of the strong peak

current reduction in the WT receptors also speaks against the bis-MTS cross-linkers

interacting with native cysteine residues. These results led us to conclude that the bis-

MTS cross-linkers are cross-linking cysteines introduced at the LBD inter-dimer

interface (V666C).

Cross-linked desensitized states are highly stable

Upon establishing specific and strong reduction of the peak current in desensitizing

V666C receptors by the bis-MTS cross-linkers, we next sought to examine the stability

of trapped states. The more stable the trapped state, the longer we would expect that

it takes for trapping effects to reverse, and vice versa. The fastest recovery after

trapping was observed with M1M ($\tau = 30 \pm 7$ s, $n = 5$) and the time constant of the

peak current recovery could be measured by directly fitting the peak current of the

post-trap control pulses (grey dots in Figure 2B). With longer bis-MTS cross-linkers,

the recovery time increased to minutes, making direct measurements of the recovery

time from post-trap control pulses impractical. Instead, the experimental design was

adjusted to allow measurements of long recovery times as described in Experimental

Procedures and Figure 4. After the receptors were trapped with M3M for 1 minute, the

peak current in the patch did recover, but very slowly, taking over 10 minutes (600

applications of glutamate) to reach the pre-trapping levels. With longer cross-linkers,

the peak current was essentially irreversible over the timescales we could measure

(20 minutes; Figure 4D-G). The progressive inability of the receptors to recover from

trapping with longer cross-linkers indicates increasingly stable trapped states

corresponding to greater separation of the A and C subunits in the desensitized state

(Figure 4G-H). Desensitized AMPA receptors with a disulphide bridge formed between

the two V666C residues at inter-dimer interface fit in well with this trend, recovering in

seconds following 100 s exposure to the oxidizing agent CuPhen (A.P. and Hector

Salazar, unpublished data) (Figure 4H).

To ensure that the lack of recovery was not due to a limited reducing capacity, we

tested a higher concentration of the reducing agent DTT (5 mM instead of 1 mM).

Stronger reducing conditions did not consistently promote recovery of V666C

receptors trapped by a long cross-linker M6M (12 Å; $P = 0.3$, Figure S4).

Figure 4 Recovery of trapped desensitized V666C receptors depends on the LBD separation. (A) Protocol

to measure recovery from trapping. To obtain a stable baseline response to glutamate, we first repeated brief

glutamate applications in reducing conditions (1 mM DTT). In the given example, we gave 17 pulses (100 ms, 1

Hz). (B) In the following step, the patch was exposed to 1 μM cross-linker (here M3M) and 10 mM Glu for 1 minute,

with control pulses before and after the trap. (C) After the trapping protocol, the patch was again exposed to fast,

reducing glutamate jumps like in (A) in order to follow recovery of the response. In this example, we could record

1230 consecutive episodes (~20 min) and obtain almost complete recovery. Note the difference between the

current amplitude in the 1st episode (grey) and the 1230th episode (red). The recovery of the patch current (I_{peak}) in

typical experiments for different cross-linkers is plotted in panels D - F (panel E is the same patch as in panels A -

C). Black dots show the responses before the trap and red dots the peak current after the trap. The gap in red dots

in (D) represents a switch between recording protocols. (G) Summary of the peak current recovery for different

cross-linkers. The percentage of recovered current is the ratio of the peak currents recorded 3-10 min after the trap

to the peak current before trapping. Dashed, red line denotes a limit after which no recovery of the current could

be measured within 10 min after the trap. (H) Plot of recovery time from trapped desensitized states vs. the inter-

dimer separation at position V666C in the LBD layer. The first data point indicates recovery from V666C disulphide

bridges formed in desensitized state (A. P. and Hector Salazar, unpublished data).

Activation limits conformational heterogeneity of the LBD layer

We next investigated if the LBDs of activated V666C receptors are also accessible to a similarly wide range of bis-MTS cross-linkers. According to one cryo-EM structure of an apparently activated AMPA receptor (Meyerson et al., 2014) (Figure 1C), V666C residues should be far enough apart to accommodate cross-linkers up to 19 Å in length.

To maintain the active state, we blocked desensitization with cyclothiazide (CTZ, 100 μM). As shown in Figure 5, block of desensitization reduced inhibition by bis-MTS cross-linkers in the first minute of exposure (see Table S2 for statistics). Current inhibition for every cross-linker in the presence and absence of desensitization is shown in Figure 5B. With M1M, about 15% of V666C receptors recovered from inhibition with a time constant of $\tau = 7.1 \pm 1$ s, n = 4, leading to the final inhibition of 0.65 ± 0.02, n = 12 (not shown). For M3M, the recovery was still faster with $\tau = 1.98 \pm 0.2$ s, n = 8 (grey dots in Figure 5A), with about 15% the receptors recovering and leading to the final inhibition of 0.53 ± 0.03, n = 9. The fast recovery indicates that with dimer separation of about 9 Å, receptors were trapped in an unstable, stereochemically-strained state. Notably, the SG of V666C are 9 Å apart in a structure solved with the partial agonist NOW, which may represent a pre-open state (Yelshanskaya et al., 2014).

With desensitization blocked, AMPA receptors displayed a distinct trapping profile from that of desensitized receptors (Figure 5C). The sharper trapping profile could not be described by a parabola and indicated a favored LBD separation of 15 Å, greater than the shallow optimum of desensitized receptors (11 Å). Because inhibition was less profound than in desensitized receptors for all cross-linkers except M8M, we investigated the possibility that bis-MTS modifies non-desensitizing V666C receptors in other ways than current amplitude reduction. We measured the rate of receptor deactivation before and after the trap in M10M in the presence of CTZ and found no difference (Figure S5C-D, $\tau_{\text{pre-trap}} = 1.7$ ms ± 0.2, $\tau_{\text{post-trap}} = 1.6 \pm 0.2$ ms, $n = 8$, $P = 0.05$ (paired randomisation test)). We considered the possibility that non-desensitizing receptors were silently modified by M10M. We tested this scenario with the following

experiment: a patch with V666C receptors was first trapped in M10M and CTZ; CTZ
was then washed-out the patch and freely desensitizing V666C receptors were
exposed to M10M only (Figure S5A). If non-desensitizing V666C receptors had been
silently modified by M10M, then a fraction of the receptors should have been protected
resulting in the reduced sensitivity to further trapping by M10M. V666C receptors
initially exposed to M10M in the presence of CTZ were modified to the same extent as
naïve receptors by M10M once CTZ was unbound (I_{peak} post-trap / I_{peak} pre-trap for
V666C initially trapped in CTZ: 0.23 ± 0.04, $n = 6$ and for V666C never trapped in CTZ:
0.30 ± 0.03, $n = 16$, $P = 0.07$; Figure S5B). Taken together, these results strongly
suggest that non-desensitizing V666C receptors were not silently modified by M10M.
Instead, the reduced inhibition of active receptors reflected state-dependent protection
from modification.

Auxiliary subunits do not alter the geometry of desensitized receptors
Trapping with bis-MTS cross-linkers so far indicated more conformational flexibility of
the LBD layer in desensitized than activated AMPA receptors. However, synaptic
AMPA receptors are rarely expressed alone, and are instead associated with various
auxiliary proteins that re-define their kinetic properties (Schwenk et al., 2012; Jackson
and Nicoll, 2011). We therefore wondered if the presence of auxiliary subunits, such
as Stargazin (Stg), could affect conformational flexibility of AMPA receptors.

Recently, cryo-EM structures of AMPA receptors in complex with auxiliary subunits
have been acquired in resting, active and desensitized states (Figure 1B) (Chen et al.,
2017; Twomey et al., 2017a). These structures all predict reduced separation of
V666C residues when compared to receptors without auxiliary proteins. For example,
sulfhydryl groups of V666C residues on subunits A and C are 19 Å apart in the
apparent active state of isolated receptors and 15 Å in activated receptors complexed
with Stg (Figure 1C). In the desensitized state, the equivalent residues are 21 Å apart
in homologous kainate receptors (PDB: 5KUF (Meyerson et al., 2016)) and 17 Å in
desensitized GluA2 receptors associated with GSG1L auxiliary proteins (Figure 1C,
PDB: 5VHZ (Twomey et al., 2017b)). If, indeed, auxiliary subunits keep the LBD layer
more compact, we reasoned that their presence should also limit the effects of longer
bis-MTS cross-linkers.

Figure 5 The active LBD layer is dilated (A) Current traces of trapping protocols on active V666C receptors.

Cyclothiazide (CTZ) was included at 100 μM throughout the experiment to block desensitization. The duration of

the trapping pulse is indicated in green. Trapping rate (τ) was determined from the monoexponential fits (red, dotted

line; n: number of patches). For M3M, gray dots indicate recovery from the trap immediately after the trap (τ = 2.0

± 0.2 s, n = 8). Extent of trapping was relative to the initial pulses (arrows) (B) Summary of bis-MTS trapping (1

min) of desensitizing (black) and non-desensitizing V666C receptors (green). Desensitizing data are from Figure

2E. P values compare the desensitizing and non-desensitizing condition. For P values comparing effects with and

without bis-MTS and between the cross-linkers, see Table S2, respectively. Bis-MTS length is indicated in brackets;

"w/o MTS": without MTS. (C) Trapping profile of active V666C receptors after the first minute of exposure (green).

Green line connects the points. Fit of the trapping profile of desensitized receptors is shown as a red, dashed line

for comparison. Black triangle indicates minimum of the fit at 11 Å . (D) Dependence of the trapping time on the

length of the bis-MTS. V666C receptors were exposed up to 6 times to the trapping protocol described in (A).

Current reduction was determined after each 1-min application to a bis-MTS. Current decay was described with a

monexponential fit (τ in brackets).

To test this hypothesis, we repeated the trapping experiments on complexes of AMPA

receptors with Stg (Figure 6). GluA2 and Stg were co-expressed and association of

complexes was assessed by measuring the ratio of kainate current over glutamate

current (KA/Glu). The relative efficacy of the partial agonist kainate is known to be

higher for GluA2-Stg complexes than for GluA2 alone, making it a good marker of

GluA2-Stg association (Tomita et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2009). After establishing

formation of the GluA2 V666C-Stg complexes in the patch, we proceeded with the

trapping protocol that exposed complexes to glutamate and a bis-MTS cross-linker (1

µM) for 1 minute (Figure 6A-B), as described previously. No blocker of desensitization

was added and the receptors were allowed to desensitize freely. Therefore, the

crosslinking represents trapping across a mixture of active and desensitized states.

The trapping results summarized in Figure 6C show that the presence of auxiliary

subunit Stg apparently protected V666C receptors from cross-linking by bis-MTS.

Indeed, following trapping, a robust response was preserved, and could not be

overcome by longer trapping intervals (Figure S6A-B).

To test whether bis-MTS cross-linkers perhaps act on non-complexed V666C

receptors only, without affecting V666C-Stg complexes, we measured the KA/Glu

current ratio before and after the bis-MTS trap for a series of patches. We reasoned

that if only non-complexed V666C receptors were being modified, the glutamate-

activated current should reduce, but the kainate current (which is almost entirely

carried by GluA2-Stg complexes) should not. Therefore, preferential trapping of non-

complexed V666C mutants should lead to an increase in KA/Glu ratio. As shown in

Figure 6E, the KA/Glu ratio was not affected (before trap: 0.46 ± 0.03; after trap: 0.43

$\pm$ 0.02, n = 13; P = 0.2, paired randomisation test), indicating V666C-Stg complexes

were being modified by bis-MTS cross-linkers.

Figure 6. Stargazin attenuates effects of bis-MTS cross-linkers. (A) Current traces of V666C trapping in M3M,

without (top) and with Stargazin (Stg; bottom). Legend is the same as in Figure 2, with a trapping pulse shown here

in orange. (B) Same as in (A), but for M10M. (C) Trapping effects for V666C without (black) and with Stg (orange).

Post- and pre-trap peak current was determined from the control pulses (arrows in (A) and (B)). Data without Stg

are the same as in Figure 2D. *P* values compare the effects of the respective cross-linker with and without Stg. For

statistics vs. w/o MTS and between cross-linkers, see Table S3. (D) Trapping profile of desensitizing V666C+Stg

complexes. The data were fit with a parabola (orange line); the fit reaches minimum (orange triangle) at (11, 0.3).

Trapping profile of desensitized receptors without Stg is shown as red, dashed line for comparison (minimum at

(11, 0.1); black tringle). (E) The kainate/glutamate (KA/Glu) peak current ratio was determined for each patch

before and after trapping with a bis-MTS (similar to the experimental design in Figure 3A-C with 1mM KA and 10

mM Glu in 1 mM DTT). V666C+Stg KA/Glu measurements before and after trap shown here are paired recordings,

pooled for various bis-MTS cross-linkers.

Stargazin maintains active receptors in a compact arrangement

The trapping profile of V666C-Stg complexes (orange in Figure 6D) reflects the partial protection from trapping in the presence of Stg for all cross-linker lengths, but its overall shape is practically superposable onto the trapping profile of desensitized V666C receptors without Stg (red, dashed line in Figure 6D). Strikingly, the two curves reach their minimum at the same point of 11 Å (triangles in Figure 6D) and have identical curvature. This indistinguishable length dependence indicated that the trapping of V666C-Stg complexes came primarily from trapping desensitized receptors, and that the active complexes of V666C-Stg might be untouched by bis-MTS cross-linkers.

To test this hypothesis, we repeated the trapping protocol in the presence of CTZ, to block desensitization of V666C-Stg complexes. Two cross-linkers were tested in this condition: M1M, the shortest one, and M8M, which had the strongest trapping effect on active V666C receptors without Stg (Figure 5B-C). As predicted, neither bis-MTS cross-linker had any effect on activated GluA2-Stg complexes (M1M: $P = 0.1$, $n = 9$; M8M: $P = 0.2$, $n = 9$; paired recordings with and without bis-MTS) (Figure 7). Over very long exposures, M8M could induce irreversible inhibition, presumably from residual desensitization (Figure S6). This result confirmed that partial trapping observed for desensitizing V666C-Stg mainly derived from bis-MTS cross-linkers accessing desensitized complexes.

We next wondered if the protection from trapping observed for active GluA2-Stg complexes could, at least partly, be explained by reduced accessibility of cysteine residues during exposure to bis-MTS, perhaps because the Cys666 residues are buried against other subunits or oriented such that the sulfhydryl groups are inaccessible for cross-linking. We mined possible conformations of the active LBD tetramer (PDB: 5WEO) using a coarse docking approach, allowing each active dimer to move in the membrane plane, and allowing rotation of one dimer with respect to the other around axes parallel and perpendicular to the active dimer interface (Figure 7D and E). Interestingly, docked structures with low Cys666 accessibility segregated into two classes, a loose arrangement where Cys666 were physically close but sterically

hindering each other (with the centre of mass separation of the two active dimers
comparable to 5WEO, e.g. models m17 and m32 in Figure 7D), and a tighter
arrangement of the LBDs with V666C close to helix K (with the centre of mass
separation of the two active dimers smaller than in 5WEO, e.g. m223 and m265 in
Figure 7D), not unlike the structure of the V666C mutant LBD bound with
fluorowillardine (5JEI) (Salazar et al., 2017). In that structure, additional shielding of
the V666C side chain is afforded by its being shielded by neighbouring structural
elements.
470
471 Thus, active GluA2-Stg complexes can avoid cross-linking not just by adopting more
472 compact LBD arrangements, but also by preferring conformations which shield V666C
473 SG groups.

Discussion

Technical advances in cryo-electron microscopy have revolutionized the study of membrane proteins, and the supply of structural information is greater than ever before. However, as the catalogue of images swells, the need to relate their geometry to dynamics becomes ever more pressing. In case of AMPA receptors, full-length structures in complexes with various ligands and auxiliary subunits have been published. Here we have used a classical crosslinking approach allied to rapid perfusion to measure distances up to 18 Å in AMPA receptor extracellular domains across different functional states and in the time domain.

Bis-MTS cross-linkers have been used previously to aid identification of movements underlying state transitions in AMPA and NMDA receptors (Armstrong et al., 2006) (Tajima et al., 2016). Here, we report effects with a strong dependence on the target site, length of the cross-linker, functional state of the receptor and the presence or absence of auxiliary subunits. Since most bis-MTS cross-linkers are alkyl chains and hence flexible, we tested the bMTSp linker that includes a rigid benzene ring, but otherwise has a very similar length to M6M. The only difference we observed between these two cross-linkers was with K493C mutant, with M6M blocking desensitization more effectively than bMTSp, perhaps indicating an angle between the K493C side chains that was more easily accommodated by the flexible chain.

All bis-MTS cross-linkers inhibited the current, irrespective of the functional state. Whereas cross-linking of the desensitized states should result in current inhibition, cross-linking of an open channel would be expected to result in more active receptors. However, all inter-dimer constraints of the active state so far seem to be inhibitory (Plested and Mayer, 2009) (Lau et al., 2013; Baranovic et al., 2016; Yelshanskaya et al., 2016). Whereas the zinc and disulphide bridges, previously used to cross-link active LBD dimers, only form under strict geometrical requirements, the same cannot be said for bis-MTS cross-linkers. The cross-linkers are flexible and therefore do not restrict the trapped LBD tetramer to a single geometry. The inhibitory effect of the crosslinkers is not universal – at the active intra-dimer interfaces we could potentiate receptors as shown previously (Armstrong et al., 2006). It appears that crosslinks

between dimer pairs, or indeed any restriction between the active dimers, leads to a

decrease in activity. The mechanism behind this inhibition remains frustratingly

unclear.

In Figure 8A-B, the trapping profiles of V666C receptors with the available structural

models of GluA2 in the equivalent condition are compared. The shallow trapping

profile of desensitized AMPA receptors indicates a structural ensemble of

conformations broadly in agreement with multiple desensitized states (Meyerson et

al., 2014) (Robert and Howe, 2003). Even though the LBD dimer-dimer separation

observed in the model (>18 Å, EMDB: 2688) was not tested with the bis-MTS cross-

linker of the corresponding length, extrapolation of the trapping profile indicates such

conformations are available to desensitized AMPA receptors. However, the longest

cross-linker (18 Å) was the slowest one to act on desensitized receptors, indicating

that this conformation, and more 'dilated' ones, are not readily available for cross-

linking, but slowly get populated during prolonged exposures to agonist. The longest

cross-linker, M10M, was also the slowest one to act in the active state. There, the

most readily accessible separation of V666C residues, in terms of strength and speed

of trapping, was at 15 Å (green in Figure 8B), with 19 Å separation, predicted by the

structural model (PDB: 4UQ6), taking longer to populate. Notably, 'dilations' of

extracellular domains were also seen in antagonist-bound NMDA receptors (Zhu et

al., 2016).

The presence of Stg lead to universal attenuation of the cross-linking effect, for all bis-

MTS lengths and both functional states, desensitized and active (orange and blue in

Figure 8A and B, respectively). The longest crosslinker (M10M) produced the least

trapping, having reduced trapping potency even following long exposures (~3 min).

Thus, the LBD layer could not enter a widely-splayed, dilated form for majority of these

receptors. This result seems to chime with structural and FRET experiments (Shaikh

et al., 2016), where the presence of Stg made the LBD and ATD layer more compact.

In the desensitized state, the shape of the trapping profile is the same, with or without

Stg (Figure 8A), with both parabola reaching a minimum point at 11 Å (triangles in

Figure 8A). This is in excellent agreement with the structure of desensitized GluA2-

Stg complex (PDB: 5VOV). In the active state, our results deviate from the available

full-length active structures. Both short and long (7 or 15 Å) bis-MTS reagents failed

to inhibit currents in the first minute of trapping, indicating more compact LBD

arrangements over this timescale than obtained in the structures.

The protection from trapping in our cross-linking experiments most likely has multiple

origins. Although "protection" could result from a persistent long-distance separation,

outside the range of the crosslinkers, several observations and common sense speak

against this possibility. First, we previously showed that active receptors (glutamate +

CTZ) could be trapped by zinc bridges in compact arrangements (Baranovic et al.,

2016). Second, the long distance must be maintained throughout the exposure,

because any transit between compact and dilated arrangements must pass through

intermediate separations, allowing crosslinkers to span the gap. Third, even the most

dilated structures are in the range of crosslinker lengths that we used. Fourth, the

mixed trapping condition for GluA2-Stg complexes in the absence of CTZ apparently

supports desensitized state trapping over a wide range of geometries but no additional

active state trapping. We cannot discount specific, state-dependent protection from

crosslinking, produced by a unique, closed-cleft LBD conformation provoked by Stg in

the active state, but it seems to us unlikely. We reasoned that protection from

crosslinking could, at least partly, be accounted for by reduced accessibility of cysteine

residues during exposure to bis-MTS. Docking data in Figure 7D-E show that

conformations which reduce the accessibility of the V666C side chains are indeed

accessible to the active LBDs in the presence of Stg, with some of them acquiring

more compact arrangements than in the current structural models of the full-length

receptor in the active state (Chen et al., 2017; Twomey et al., 2017a).

No matter how avid and complete trapping is, a possible source of receptor activity

after trapping is the activity of free (non-crosslinked) subunits (Figure S7). In all our

experiments, subunits *A* and *C* are trapped whereas *B* and *D* are not. In GluA2

receptors without Stg, even with desensitization blocked, the activity of only two

subunits (e.g. *B* and *D*) produces low conductance openings with short open times

(Rosenmund et al., 1998). But the presence of Stg (Coombs et al., 2017) (Zhang et

al., 2014) increases the current carried by receptors with one or two active subunits.

In our experiments, Stg had an indefatigable effect of maintaining receptor activity in

the limit of long exposures to bis-MTS. The effect of Stg was inordinately large, with a

maximum effect of the crosslinking leaving approximately half the receptor activity

unscathed. Can the two non-crosslinked subunits (*B* and *D*) produce this level of

activity? A simple back-of-the-envelope calculation suggests this effect is larger than

expected. Single channel recordings of GluA2 with Stg reveal that the conductance

from two subunits, with desensitization blocked, should be on average about 40% but

with $P_{open} < 1$ (Coombs et al., 2017). Therefore, residual activity of the non-crosslinked

subunits is higher than expected, unless the B and D subunits have a predominant

role in driving channel gating (as proposed from structural studies (Sobolevsky et al.,

2009).

We presume that the basal compactness of the LBD layer is related to observation

that longer cross-linkers have slower trapping rates, indicating slow adoption of

'dilated' conformations. Higher bis-MTS concentrations sped up the reactions

accordingly, while leaving the relative order of trapping rates intact. Alkylthiosulfonates

are generally distinguished by their extremely rapid reactivity in mild conditions,

selectivity for cysteinyl sulfhydryl groups, general reversibility upon addition of thiols

such as DTT and their ability to effect quantitative and complete conversion to the

disulphide without applying a large excess of reagent (Kenyon and Bruice, 1977). Our

reaction rates are close to the maximum expected (10^5 M^{-1}s^{-1}; (Liu et al., 1997)).

Physiological activation and desensitization of AMPA receptors takes place on a

millisecond timescale, and we monitored this process wherever possible during our

experiments. Generally, the remaining current responses were not altered following

bis-MTS exposures. The fast gating contrasts to desensitized states trapped by bis-

MTS cross-linkers that take tens of minutes to recover. Though we necessarily worked

at low bis-MTS concentrations to avoid confounding effects like chaining and non-

specific modification, mandating slow trapping, the slow recovery from trapping is

striking. It seems reasonable to assume that the degree of stabilization by different

crosslinkers is similar, and that the difference in stability comes from the states

themselves. This idea is supported by the cut-off that we observe – for crosslinkers

longer than 10 Å, crosslinking in desensitized states is irreversible over 10 minutes

(also in 5-fold higher concentration of the reducing agent). It is possible that upon

cross-linking, V666C residues adopt conformations that make them inaccessible to

the reducing agent, but this would then have to be highly specific for bis-MTS reagents

longer than 9 Å and state-specific (due to much faster recovery rates of active than

desensitized receptors after trapping in M1M or M3M). In addition, in reducing

conditions, AMPA receptors recover from disulphide crosslinking at the same sites in

hundreds of milliseconds (Lau et al., 2013; Salazar et al., 2017). Assuming that the

length of the bis-MTS cross-linkers reflects level of structural rearrangements and

following the trend plotted in Figure 4H, this suggests that AMPA receptors exposed

to brief glutamate transients at synapses are unlikely to undergo extreme

conformational changes, due to their complexation with auxiliary subunits.

Considering that all of the experiments presented here were done with over-expressed

receptors and auxiliary subunit Stg, it is possible that V666C-Stg complexes had

variable stoichiometry of association, depending on the expression level. This could

impact how Stg affects conformational dynamics of the receptors, but a detailed

investigation of this is beyond the scope of this work. We note, however, that the

presence of two copies of auxiliary subunit GSG1L were sufficient to keep the LBD

layer compact in structural experiments (Twomey et al., 2017b).

Long agonist exposures of minutes to hours are standard in structural biology

experiments and could, thus, contribute to the prevalence of more 'relaxed'

conformations in full-length structures without auxiliary subunits (Figure 8C). However,

long exposures to agonists are at odds with synaptic conditions where AMPA

receptors see glutamate on a millisecond timescale, before it is actively cleared by

transporters (Clements, 1996). Furthermore, any large structural rearrangements of

the extracellular domains would need to be accommodated by the crowded synaptic

environment (High et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2018) and potential presynaptic interaction

partners (Saglietti et al., 2007) (Elegheert et al., 2016). When in complex with auxiliary

subunits, no functional state of AMPA receptors necessitates large domain

movements, and compact arrangements of the extracellular layer can sustain the

gating process. We conclude that extracellular domains of synaptic AMPA receptors
are unlikely to undergo large structural rearrangements during synaptic transmission
and instead work in a fairly compact conformational regime, unless faced with long
exposures to glutamate in pathological conditions.

Figure 8 The presence of Stargazin and short agonist exposures keep the agonist-bound LBD layer
compact. (A) Trapping profiles for V666C in desensitized states, without (red) and with (orange) Stargazin (Stg).
Solid lines are fit parabola, with local minima indicated as triangles. For desensitized condition without Stg,
minimum is reached at (11, 0.1) and with Stg at (11, 0.3). The right handside of the x-axis is marked as >18 Å, as
the resolution of the only available desensitized structure without auxiliary subunits is too low to measure residue
distances. Vertical, dashed, black lines indicate V666C sulfhydryl separation in the respective structure (PDB
accession codes in brackets). Names of structures are colour-coded same as the trapping profiles. (B) Same as in
(A), but for active state without (green) and with (orange) Stg. 4YU0 is a structure of soluble, isolated LBDs. Quis
stands for quisqualate (full agonist), RR for (R, R)-2b (Kaae et al., 2007) and LY for LY451646 (both desensitization

blockers). (C) Schematic summarizing the bis-MTS cross-linking results. Colour-code same as in Figure 1; ATDs
are omitted. Black spheres represent bound glutamate. Upper row: in the absence of Stg, GluA2 receptors access
'dilated' LBD conformation (black arrows) upon long exposures to agonist. Bottom row: presence of Stg limits
'dilation' of the LBD layer even at longer agonist exposures.

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Author Contributions

J.B. and A.J.R.P. designed experiments, J.B. performed experiments, A.J.R.P. wrote PYTHON code and did the docking computations. J.B. and A.J.R.P. analysed data and wrote the manuscript.

Experimental Procedures

Molecular Biology

In all experiments, the unedited (Q586) GluA2flip version of rat GluA2 gene was expressed from the pRK5 vector. Amino acid numbering refers to the mature receptor assuming a signal peptide of 21 amino acids in length. As a marker of transfection, eGFP was expressed from the same vector, downstream from an internal ribosomal entry sequence (IRES). Mouse Stargazin gene (a kind gift from Susumu Tomita) was expressed from a separate pRK8 vector containing IRES-dsRed (Carbone and Plested, 2016). All mutations were introduced by overlap PCR and confirmed by double-stranded sequencing.

Cell Culture and Transfection

GluA2 constructs were expressed transiently in HEK293 cells using calcium-phosphate precipitation or PEI method as described previously (Baranovic et al., 2016; Riva et al., 2017). HEK293 cells were obtained from the Leibniz Forschungsinstitut DSMZ (Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen GmbH, Germany)

ACC no. 305 (RRID: CVCL_0045) and tested negative for mycoplasma. Cells were

maintained in MEM Eagle medium (PAN-Biotech GmbH, Aidenbach, Germany)

supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum and antibiotics (penicillin (100 U/mL)

and streptomycin (0.1 mg/mL; PAN-Biotech).

For transfections, 2-3 μg of DNA was transfected per 35 mm dish and cells were

washed after 6-8 hours. Recordings were performed 24-72 hours after the transfection

at room temperature. For transfections with Stargazin, Stargazin DNA was co-

transfected with GluA2 DNA at 2:1 mass ratio and after the transfection, cell medium

was supplemented with 40 μM NBQX to reduce Stargazin-induced cytotoxicity.

Solutions

Chemicals were obtained from Sigma Aldrich (Munich, Germany), Abcam plc

(Cambridge, UK) and Hello Bio (Bristol, UK). MTS compounds were obtained from

Toronto Research Chemicals (North York, Canada).

The internal (pipette) solution for recordings without Stargazin contained (mM): 115

NaCl, 1 $MgCl_2$, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, 10 NaF, 5 Na_4BAPTA, 10 Na_2ATP, 5 HEPES, titrated to pH

7.3 with NaOH. For recordings with Stargazin, the internal solution was slightly

modified: 120 NaCl, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, 10 NaF, 5 Na_4BAPTA, 5 HEPES and 0.05 spermine,

pH 7.3. The external recording solution in all experiments contained (mM): 150 NaCl,

0.1 $MgCl_2$, 0.1 $CaCl_2$ and 5 HEPES, pH 7.3. Different drugs were added to the external

solution as needed. Glutamate was always applied at 10 mM and DL-dithiothreitol

(DTT) at 1 mM. Cyclothiazide (CTZ) and kainate (KA) were thawed from stock

solutions on the day of the experiment. Final CTZ and KA concentrations in all

experiments were 100 μM and 1 mM, respectively.

All MTS compounds were obtained as powder. Whereas monofunctional MTS

reagents are known to be highly reactive and unstable in aqueous solutions (Kenyon

and Bruice, 1977), this information is lacking for bifunctional cross-linkers used in this

study. Hence, we took special care to minimize exposure of bis-MTS compounds to

oxidizing (aqueous) solutions (Takatsuka and Nikaido, 2010). The powder was

dissolved in DMSO, aliquoted and kept on ice on the day of the experiment. Once a

stable patch recording was obtained, an aliquot was dissolved in external solution to

a final concentration of 1 μM and applied to the patch. This way, aqueous bis-MTS

solutions were on average 2-3 minutes old at the moment of application. Each MTS

stock was tested with GluA2 wild-type receptors and K493C receptors as negative and

positive controls, respectively. The final MTS concentration of 1 μM was chosen based

on previous work (Sobolevsky et al., 2003; Yelshansky et al., 2004). We avoided

higher concentrations of MTS compounds due to potential cross-reactivity and

chaining effects.

Patch clamp electrophysiology

Ligands and drugs were applied to outside-out patches via a custom made 4-barrel

glass (VitroCom, USA) mounted to a linear piezo–electric wafer (PiezoMove P-601.4,

PI, Germany) (Lau et al., 2013). Two barrels were perfused with control solutions and

the third barrel with the trapping solution, as described below. All patches were voltage

clamped at -40 mV unless stated otherwise. Currents were low-pass filtered at 10 kHz

(-3 dB cut-off, eight-pole Bessel filter) using an Axopatch200B amplifier (Molecular

Devices, U.S.A.) and acquired with AxographX software (Axograph Scientific,

Australia, RRID:SCR_014284) at 20 kHz sampling rate via Instrutech ITC-18 digitizer

(HEKA, Germany). Current traces were digitally filtered at 1 kHz (low-pass) for

presentation in figures.

To assess the effect of different bifunctional cross-linkers on AMPA receptors, the

receptors were exposed to the cross-linker (1 μM) for 1 minute. Before and after this

trapping exposure, the current in the patch was tested with control pulses that

contained only 10 mM glutamate, without the cross-linker and in the presence of DTT

(1 mM) as a reducing agent (Figure 2A-C). Four control pulses before application of

the cross-linker provided a measure of the patch current before any exposure to the

cross-linker. Accordingly, (up to thirty) control pulses recorded after the MTS

application, were used to assess any changes in the patch current imparted by the

cross-linker treatment.

For recordings of GluA2 receptors co-expressed with auxiliary subunit Stargazin, care
must be taken that GluA2 receptors are indeed associating with Stargazin. One
strategy to minimize the presence of lone V666C receptors relies on the relief of
spermine (polyamine) block at positive voltages imparted by complexation with
Stargazin (Carbone and Plested, 2016). Although we have included spermine in the
pipette solution and measured relieve of block for each patch, we did not perform
recordings at positive voltages, as the currents were not stable enough during
minutes-long trapping protocols. Instead, a change in kainate efficacy was used as a
marker of GluA2-Stargazin association as described in the text.

Analysis
Trapping effects were quantified as the ratio of the average current after the trap
(determined from the 2nd post-trap control pulse) and average current before the trap
(determined from the 4 pre-trap control pulses; arrows in Figure 2A-C):

$$Active\ fraction = \frac{I_{post\ trap}}{I_{pre\ trap}}$$

In case of desensitizing receptors, peak current was measured and in the case of non-
desensitizing receptors, steady-state current.

The trapping time of each cross-linker was determined from cumulative exposures to
a bis-MTS of up to 6 minutes (6 repetitions of the trapping protocol). After each
application, current reduction was determined with respect to the initial current in the
patch, before any trap. The resulting current decay was described by a
monoexponential fit in Igor Pro (v7.06, Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, Oregon, U.S.A.,
RRID:SCR_000325).

To determine the rate of recovery from trapping by MTS cross-linkers, the number of
post-trap control pulses was increased until full recovery was attained. An envelope of
post-trap peak current responses was then created in Igor Pro and fit with a
monoexponential. This approach was possible only for faster recovery rates, on the

time scale of seconds, such as recovery of desensitized V666C receptors from
trapping with M1M (Figure 2B and 4D) and recovery of active V666C receptors from
trapping with M1M and M3M (Figure 5A). With longer bis-MTS cross-linkers, the
recovery time increased from seconds to minutes, making direct measurements of the
recovery time from post-trap control pulses impractical. Instead, the experimental
design was re-adjusted to allow measurements of long recovery times as described in
Figure 4A-C. In brief, peak current in the patch was initially recorded with 100 ms
jumps into glutamate in control conditions until it stabilized. Then, a trapping protocol
was performed as described above, with control pulses before and after the trap. After
the trapping protocol, the current in the patch was again monitored, for about 10
minutes, with fast control jumps into glutamate in order to follow any potential recovery
of the peak current. In this time period, desensitized V666C receptors managed to
recover only from trapping by M1M and M3M (Figure 4D-G), in which case the
recovery was fit with a monoexponential.

Trapping profiles (Figure 2G and 6D) were fit with a parabola in Igor Pro:

$$f(x) = K_0 + K_1(x - K_2)^2$$
809
where K_1 defines the curvature, K_0 the minimum effect and K_2 the x value at the
minimum. Data points were weighted by the standard error of the mean for the fit.

Computational docking
To investigate structures of the LBD tetramer that could preclude trapping by blocking
access to the Cys666 SG moiety, we treated each dimer as a rigid body and subjected
them to rotations and translations in the membrane plane. Python scripts (available at
github.com/aplested/cystance) were written as a glue for molecular manipulations in
PyMOL molecular manipulations and CCP4 (RRID:SCR_007255) functions to
measure geometry and exposure of the Cysteine (AREAIMOL, NCONT (Winn et al.,
2011)). For each run, trial arrangements that reduced Cys666 SG accessibility in
subunit *A* whilst also keeping the dimers in close proximity (with minimal atom clashes)
and maintaining physiologically plausible in-plane linker arrangements were retained
as seeds for subsequent rounds, and the step size was reduced. Trial arrangements

with more than 10 atom clashes (< 2.2 Å) were rejected. No refinement was done to

eliminate spurious clashes from flexible surface residues. The optimization was ended

when no further improvement was possible. Each search lasted about 5-10 minutes

on a 2017 Macbook Pro.

All P values were determined by non–parametric randomisation test (non–paired,

unless stated otherwise), using at least 10^5 iterations (DC-Stats suite:

https://github.com/aplested/DC-Stats). Bars in graphs indicate mean and error bars

SEM.

Structural models and related measurements were visualized and measured in

PyMOL (v2.0, RRID:SCR_000305) (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version

2.0 Schrödinger, LLC). The length of bis-MTS cross-linkers was measured in

ChemDraw Professional (PerkinElmer, U.S.A.).

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