

## REVIEW ARTICLE

# Inhibitory synaptic transmission tuned by $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ and glutamate through the control of $\text{GABA}_A$ lateral diffusion dynamics

Hiroko Bannai<sup>1,2,3,4</sup>  | Fumihiko Niwa<sup>4,5</sup>  | Shigeo Sakuragi<sup>1,6</sup>  |  
Katsuhiko Mikoshiba<sup>4,7,8</sup> 

<sup>1</sup>School of Advanced Science and Engineering, Department of Electrical Engineering and Biosciences, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

<sup>2</sup>Department of Neurophysiology, Keio University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan

<sup>3</sup>Japan Science and Technology Agency, PRESTO, Kawaguchi, Saitama, Japan

<sup>4</sup>Laboratory for Developmental Neurobiology, RIKEN Center for Brain Science, Wako, Japan

<sup>5</sup>Institut de Biologie de l'ENS (IBENS), École Normale Supérieure, PSL Research University, INSERM, CNRS, Paris, France

<sup>6</sup>Department of Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, Yamagata University, Yamagata, Japan

<sup>7</sup>Shanghai Institute for Advanced Immunochemical Studies (SIAIS), ShanghaiTech University, Shanghai, China

<sup>8</sup>Department of Biomolecular Science, Faculty of Science, Toho University, Funabashi, Japan

## Correspondence

Hiroko Bannai, School of Advanced Science and Engineering, Department of Electrical Engineering and Biosciences, Waseda University, 2-2 Wakamatsu-cho, Shinjuku, Tokyo 162-8480, Japan.  
Email: hiroko.bannai@waseda.jp

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## Abstract

The GABAergic synapses, a primary inhibitory synapse in the mammalian brain, is important for the normal development of brain circuits, and for the regulation of the excitation-inhibition balance critical for brain function from the developmental stage throughout life. However, the molecular mechanism underlying the formation, maintenance, and modulation of GABAergic synapses is less understood compared to that of excitatory synapses. Quantum dot-single particle tracking (QD-SPT), a super-resolution imaging technique that enables the analysis of membrane molecule dynamics at single-molecule resolution, is a powerful tool to analyze the behavior of proteins and lipids on the plasma membrane. In this review, we summarize the recent application of QD-SPT in understanding of GABAergic synaptic transmission. Here we introduce QD-SPT experiments that provide further insights into the molecular mechanism supporting GABAergic synapses. QD-SPT studies revealed that glutamate and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling is involved in (a) the maintenance of GABAergic synapses, (b) GABAergic long-term depression, and GABAergic long-term potentiation, by specifically activating signaling pathways unique to each phenomenon. We also introduce a novel  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  imaging technique to describe the diversity of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signals that may activate the downstream signaling pathways that induce specific biological output.

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## 1 | INTRODUCTION

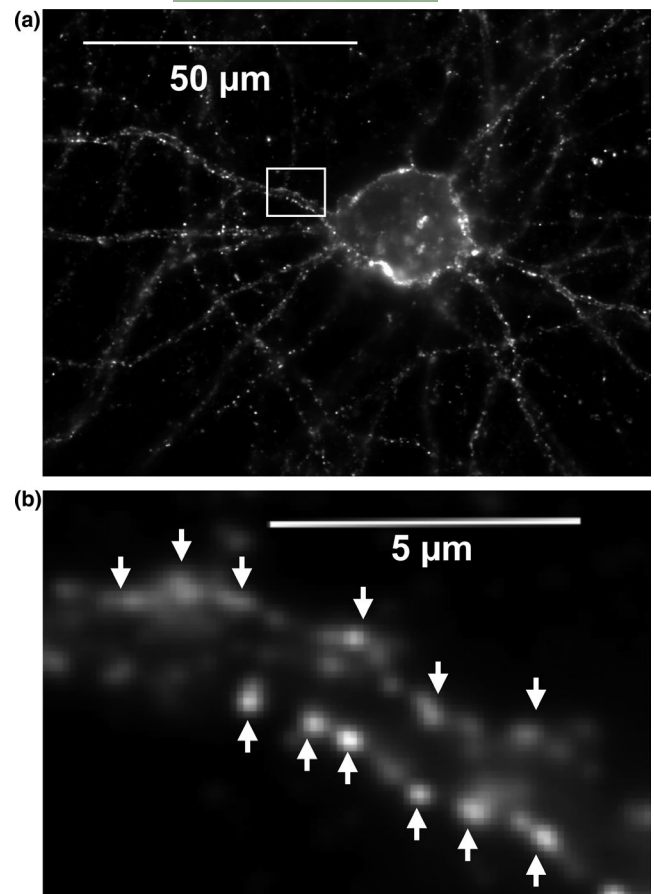
In the central nervous system (CNS), the chemical synapse is a highly specialized structure for neuronal transmission. There are two types of synapses, i.e., the excitatory synapse that leads to depolarization of neurons, and the inhibitory synapse that balances neuronal excitation. The balance between the excitatory and inhibitory synapses is important, as it determines neuronal output and ultimately brain activity. In CNS, GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor (GABA<sub>A</sub>R), a pentameric ion channel, is essential for inhibitory GABAergic synaptic inputs and plays a key role in maintaining this excitation-inhibition balance. GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs are required for the onset of the critical period (Fagiolini et al., 2004) that is a fundamental process of visual development in newborn mammals, and “Synapse pruning” for normal development of the cerebral neural circuit (Nakayama et al., 2012). Furthermore, abnormalities in GABAergic synaptic transmission are known to cause various mental/neurological diseases such as epilepsy, anxiety disorder, Huntington's disease, Angelman syndrome, Fragile X syndrome, schizophrenia, alcoholism, and postpartum depression etc. (Jacob, Moss, & Jurd, 2008; Maguire & Mody, 2008) For this reason, elucidating the regulatory mechanism of GABAergic synaptic transmission is essential, not only for understanding the function of the brain, but also for determining the pathogenesis and diagnosing and developing treatments for mental/neurological diseases.

In this review, we discuss novel regulatory mechanisms of GABAergic synaptic transmission revealed using cutting-edge bio-imaging techniques including single-molecule imaging and Ca<sup>2+</sup> imaging at subcellular resolution. We introduce the ingenious regulation of GABAergic transmission by Ca<sup>2+</sup> and glutamate, discovered for the first time using “Quantum dot-single particle tracking (QD-SPT) (Bannai, Levi, Schweizer, Dahan, & Triller, 2006)”, i.e., a super-resolution imaging technique to analyze the dynamics of membrane molecules.

## 2 | EXCHANGE OF SYNAPTIC GABA<sub>A</sub>R BY LATERAL DIFFUSION IS A NOVEL FACTOR TO DETERMINE GABAERGIC SYNAPTIC TRANSMISSION

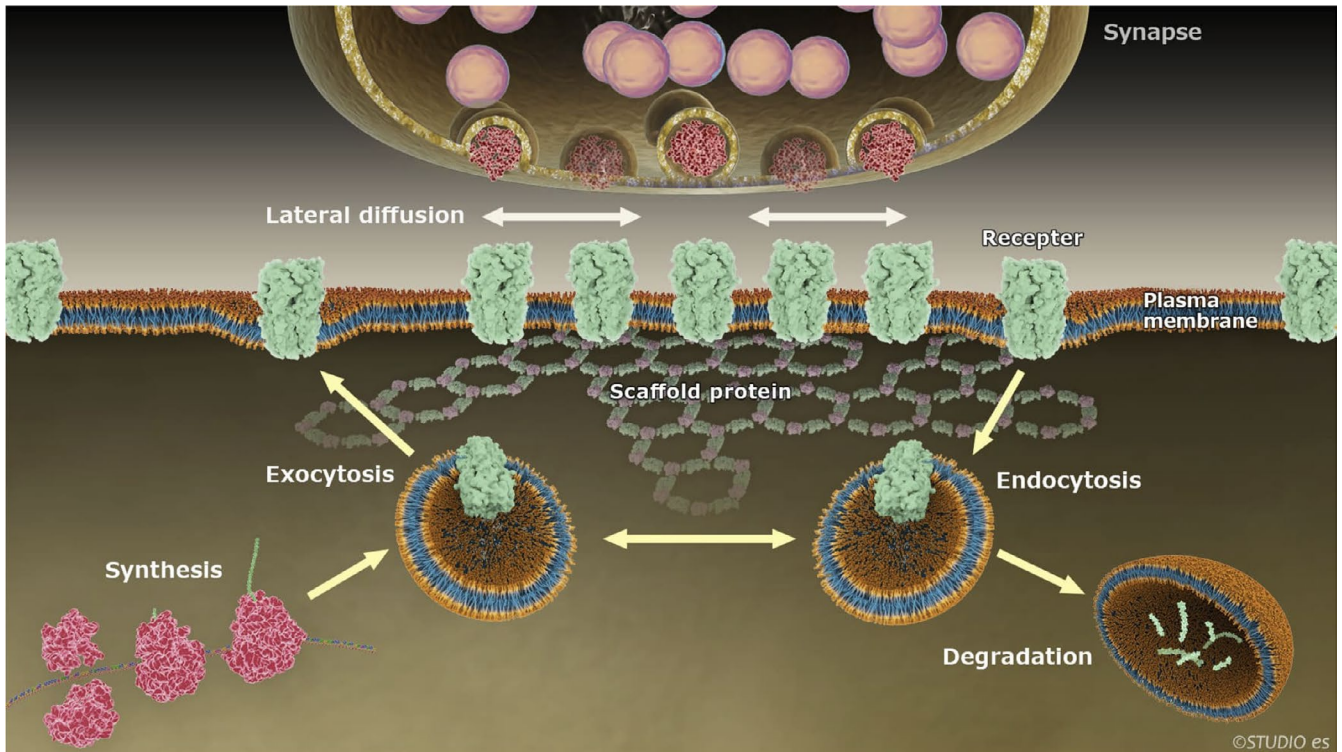
GABA<sub>A</sub>R is a Cl<sup>-</sup> ion channel that plays an important role in rapid inhibitory synaptic transmission in the mammalian CNS. A typical GABA<sub>A</sub>R exists as a pentamer consisting of two  $\alpha$ -subunits, two  $\beta$ -subunits, as well as a  $\gamma$  or  $\delta$  subunit. There are six isoforms of the  $\alpha$ -subunit, three of  $\beta$ , three of  $\gamma$  and one of  $\delta$ , and when combined with the minor subunits  $\epsilon$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\pi$ , 19 types of GABA<sub>A</sub>R subunits have been identified.

In general, neurotransmitter receptors are accumulated at the postsynaptic membrane to efficiently receive the neurotransmitter released from the presynaptic terminal. Synaptic accumulation of GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs can be visualized by immunocytochemistry as a cluster at the postsynaptic membrane (Figure 1). However, immunoelectron microscopy has shown that approximately 60% of all GABA<sub>A</sub>R

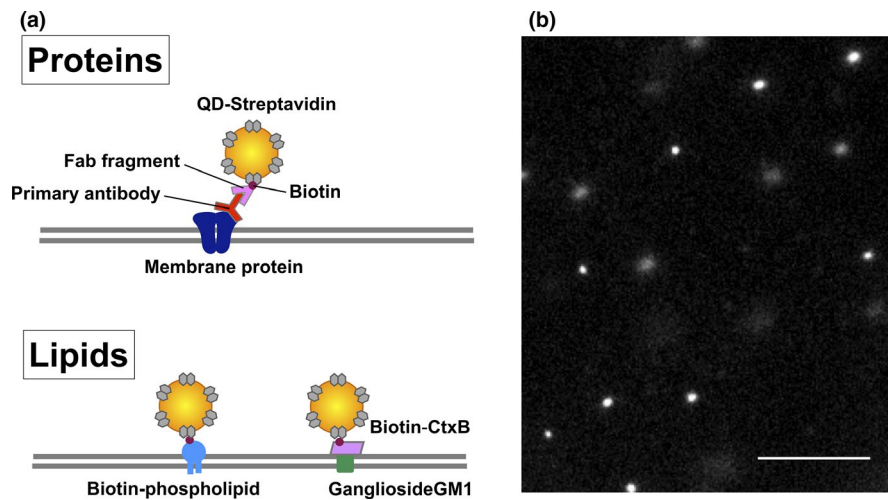


**FIGURE 1** GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs accumulate in the synapse. (a) Rat hippocampal primary neurons cultured for 3 weeks were immunostained with antibodies against the GABA<sub>A</sub>R  $\gamma$ 2-subunit. The white dots are clusters of GABA<sub>A</sub>R that accumulated in the synapse. Scale bar: 50  $\mu$ m. (b) Enlarged image of the region highlighted by a white square in a. The size of the cluster reflects the number of synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs and determines GABAergic synaptic transmission efficacy

are present outside the synapse (Kasugai et al., 2010), suggesting that a considerable number of GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs are located outside the synapse, without forming clusters. The  $\alpha$ 1- and  $\gamma$ 2-subunit containing GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs localize primarily within the synapse, whereas the GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs which contain the  $\alpha$ 4,  $\alpha$ 5,  $\alpha$ 6, and  $\delta$ -subunits primarily localize outside the synapse (Farrant & Nusser, 2005). The number of GABA<sub>A</sub>R present in the synapse is the main factor that determines GABAergic synaptic transmission efficiency. The number of synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R depends on the total number of GABA<sub>A</sub>R present on the cell surface. The number of GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs on the cell surface is a result of the dynamic equilibrium among GABA<sub>A</sub>R synthesis, exocytosis that presents GABA<sub>A</sub>R onto the cell membrane, endocytosis that takes GABA<sub>A</sub>R into the cell, and degradation of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the cell (Figure 2). Furthermore, because the endocytosis and exocytosis of GABA<sub>A</sub>R occur outside the synapse (Bogdanov et al., 2006), the movement of GABA<sub>A</sub>R to the post-synaptic membrane by lateral diffusion has received much attention in recent years as another



**FIGURE 2** Dynamic equilibrium supports synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R clusters. Although GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs accumulate at the synapse, each individual GABA<sub>A</sub>R undergoes dynamic turnover. The number of GABA<sub>A</sub>R is determined by the dynamic equilibrium between the following factors: (1) protein synthesis, (2) insertion into the membrane by exocytosis, (3) migration to and (4) from the synapse by lateral diffusion, (5) removal from the plasma membrane by endocytosis, and (6) degradation



**FIGURE 3** Labeling the membrane molecules with QDs. (a) Diagram showing the method to conjugate QDs to membrane proteins (top), lipid and GM1-ganglioside molecules (bottom). The membrane protein is bound by a QD through the primary antibody, biotinylated Fab fragment of a secondary antibody, and streptavidin on the QD surface (top). To label lipids, biotinylated phospholipids are incorporated into the membrane (bottom left). Endogenous GM1-ganglioside on the cell surface is targeted by biotinylated cholera toxin subunit B (CtxB) that has strong affinity to GM1-ganglioside (bottom right). Streptavidin-coated QDs are then bound to lipids through biotin. (b) Representative QD-labeling of GABA<sub>A</sub>R on the primary culture neuron from mouse hippocampus. White spots are signals from single QDs. Scale bar: 10 μm

important factor that determines the number of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the synapse.

The presence of a considerable proportion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R outside the synapse has important implications for neuron function. One

important role of extrasynaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R is long-term inhibition of neural activity, called tonic inhibition. GABA spilled over from the inhibitory synaptic cleft binds to extrasynaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R and induces sustained neural inhibition. Even GABA<sub>A</sub>R containing  $\alpha 1$ ,

$\alpha 2$ , and  $\beta 3$ -subunit, which is considered as “synaptic” GABA<sub>A</sub>R, carries out this tonic inhibition function when outside the synapse (Kasugai et al., 2010). The other role of extrasynaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R could be replaced with the inactivated synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R to constantly maintain the GABAergic synapse in its functional state. It has also been shown that “inactivated” GABA<sub>A</sub>R translocate to another neighboring synapse by lateral diffusion and inhibits transmission in that synapse (de Luca et al., 2017). In light of these discoveries, understanding the mechanism for controlling the diffusion movement of GABA<sub>A</sub>R on the cell membrane has become an important challenge.

### 3 | QUANTUM DOT-SINGLE PARTICLE TRACKING (QD-SPT), AN IMAGING TECHNIQUE TO VISUALIZE THE BEHAVIOR OF MEMBRANE MOLECULES AT SINGLE-MOLECULE RESOLUTION

Lateral diffusion dynamics of GABA<sub>A</sub>R has been analyzed using quantum dot-single particle tracking (QD-SPT) techniques. In QD-SPT, quantum dots (QDs), i.e., semiconductor fluorescent nanocrystals, are used as a marker to track a molecule of interest (Bannai et al., 2006). QDs are targeted to membrane molecules through specific antibodies to the extracellular domain, biotin, and streptavidin, and observed under a fluorescent microscope (Figure 3). There are several advantages to use QD-SPT for the study of GABA<sub>A</sub>R dynamics in the neuron. Firstly, the QD-SPT technique allows the tracking of endogenous proteins, without overexpression of exogenous recombinant proteins tagged with reporter (e.g., fluorescent proteins). Secondly, the fluorescence signals from a QD is brighter and more resistant to photo-bleach; therefore, QD-SPT enables to track the target molecule for a longer period with better signal to noise ratio, compared with chemical dyes and fluorescent proteins. Thirdly, QD has a broad absorption spectrum and a narrow emission spectrum (Michalet et al., 2005), facilitating multicolor imaging with other fluorescent markers (such as fluorescent Ca<sup>2+</sup> indicators, fluorescent dyes, and marker proteins tagged with fluorescent proteins) (Bannai, Inoue, Hirose, Niwa, & Mikoshiba, 2020; Bannai et al., 2006). Finally, relatively small hydrodynamic radius of QDs (4–7 nm) (Swift & Cramb, 2008) enables QD-antibody to enter into the synaptic cleft (Dahan et al., 2003; Heine et al., 2008). However, QD-SPT has a few limitations that cannot be ignored, for instance, the hydrodynamic volume of QD-antibody complex is relatively large and affects the diffusion property of the target molecules in crowded region such as synaptic clefts (Groc et al., 2004, 2007), QD-SPT remains the most powerful technique to track membrane molecule movement for long periods to visualize the transition of receptors between synapses using a relatively simple imaging system. Although dissociated cell culture is one of the most suitable preparations for performing QD-SPT, while the acute brain slice and the organotypic slice culture are also available for QD-SPT (Al Awabdh et al., 2016; Biermann et al., 2014; Varela et al., 2016).

QD-SPT can also be used to analyze various membrane molecules: neurotransmitter receptors, ion channels, aquaporins, cell adhesion proteins, and lipids (Bannai et al., 2020). Moreover, QD-SPT is not limited in the neuroscience, but is now applicable to other cell biology studies. In addition to measuring the lateral diffusion of membrane molecules, QD-SPT can also be applied for monitoring of various biological events such as transient fusion and retrieval of synaptic vesicles (Zhang, Li, & Tsien, 2009), endocytosis and exocytosis of lectin (Liu et al., 2011), endocytosis of voltage-gated receptors (Wen et al., 2018), effect of amyloidogenic variant of  $\beta 2$ -macroglobulin GM1 lateral diffusion (Leri et al., 2016), and internalization of viruses such as the influenza into the cell (Liu et al., 2012, 2020). However, QD-SPT has limitations that should be taken into account. Although QDs targeted to the surface molecules through the antibody can enter into the synaptic cleft (Dahan et al., 2003; Heine et al., 2008), the hydrodynamic volume QD-antibody-receptor complex affects the diffusion properties of membrane molecules.

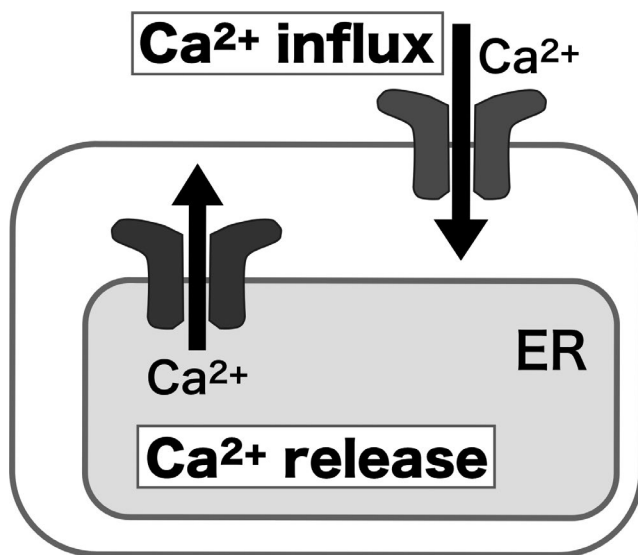
Making full use of advantages of QD-SPT, fundamental questions in the field of neuroscience, such as these regarding synaptic structures and the molecular mechanisms for learning and memory, have been addressed by QD-SPT (Choquet, 2018; Petrini & Barberis, 2014). QD-SPT has also highlighted abnormal dynamics of membrane proteins in the model cells for epilepsy and Alzheimer's disease. In the next section, we will review the regulatory mechanisms for GABAergic synapses revealed by QD-SPT, together with other cell biological studies.

### 4 | SYNAPTIC SCAFFOLD PROTEIN THAT CONTROLS THE LATERAL DIFFUSION MOVEMENT OF GABA<sub>A</sub>R

One of the most important elements that affects the lateral diffusion of the neurotransmitter receptor is the synaptic scaffold protein that clusters in the cytoplasm of the post-synaptic membrane (Choquet & Triller, 2013). In the GABAergic synapse, it has been discovered that the GABA<sub>A</sub>R  $\alpha 1$ -subunit interacts with the inhibitory synaptic scaffold protein gephyrin to inhibit the lateral diffusion movement of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the synapse (Mukherjee et al., 2011). Accumulation of GABA<sub>A</sub>R at the postsynaptic membrane is considered to result from the slow diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the synapse due to interaction with gephyrin. Inhibition of the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R due to long-term potentiation (LTP) in the GABAergic synapse is reported to be dependent on the increase in gephyrin levels in the synapse (Petrini et al., 2014). These results suggest that gephyrin plays an important role in the regulation of GABAergic synaptic transmission by controlling the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R.

Interestingly, the change of synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R number induced by neuronal stimulation is known to occur faster than the change of synaptic gephyrin number (Niwa, Patrizio, Triller, & Specht, 2012; Petrini et al., 2014). These results indicate that lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R also affects the accumulation of its scaffold gephyrin, whereas gephyrin is necessary for the accumulation of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in

the synapse. Simultaneously, these findings imply the existence of other unknown molecular mechanisms underlying the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the synapse, other than gephyrin. Indeed, radixin has been identified as another factor that controls the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R outside the synapse in a gephyrin-independent manner. The actin filament-bound protein radixin controls the lateral movement of  $\alpha 5$  subunit-containing GABA<sub>A</sub>R outside of the synapse (Hausrat et al., 2015). However, the factor that controls GABA<sub>A</sub>R lateral diffusion has not been identified yet. Unlike excitatory synaptic scaffold proteins that are easy to isolate as “synaptosomes” GABAergic post-synaptic density proteins are difficult to isolate biochemically. For this reason, the discovery of a new scaffolding protein that accumulates GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the synapse has been a difficult task for many years. Recently, proteomic studies have revealed over one hundred GABAergic post-synaptic proteins (Nakamura et al., 2016; Uezu et al., 2016). As an example, GIT1 and  $\beta$ PIX were reported to stabilize GABA<sub>A</sub>R with stabilization of actin filament at synapse (Smith et al., 2014). Furthermore, auxiliary subunits of neurotransmitter receptors (Yan & Tomita, 2012) also contribute to the regulation of GABA<sub>A</sub>R clustering and functions. GABA<sub>A</sub>R regulatory Lhfpl (GARLH) family protein that was discovered as an auxiliary subunit of the  $\gamma 2$ -containing GABA<sub>A</sub>R, was shown to play the role of accumulating GABA<sub>A</sub>R to the GABA<sub>A</sub>R synapse by neuroligin2 binding to GABA<sub>A</sub>R (Davenport et al., 2017; Yamasaki, Hoyos-Ramirez, Martenson, Morimoto-Tomita, & Tomita, 2017). Another auxiliary GABA<sub>A</sub>R subunit Shisa7 has been also shown to control receptor abundance at the synapse, in addition to the regulation channel deactivation kinetics (Han et al., 2019). Whether these newly found proteins are also involved in modulating the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R needs to be clarified in the future.

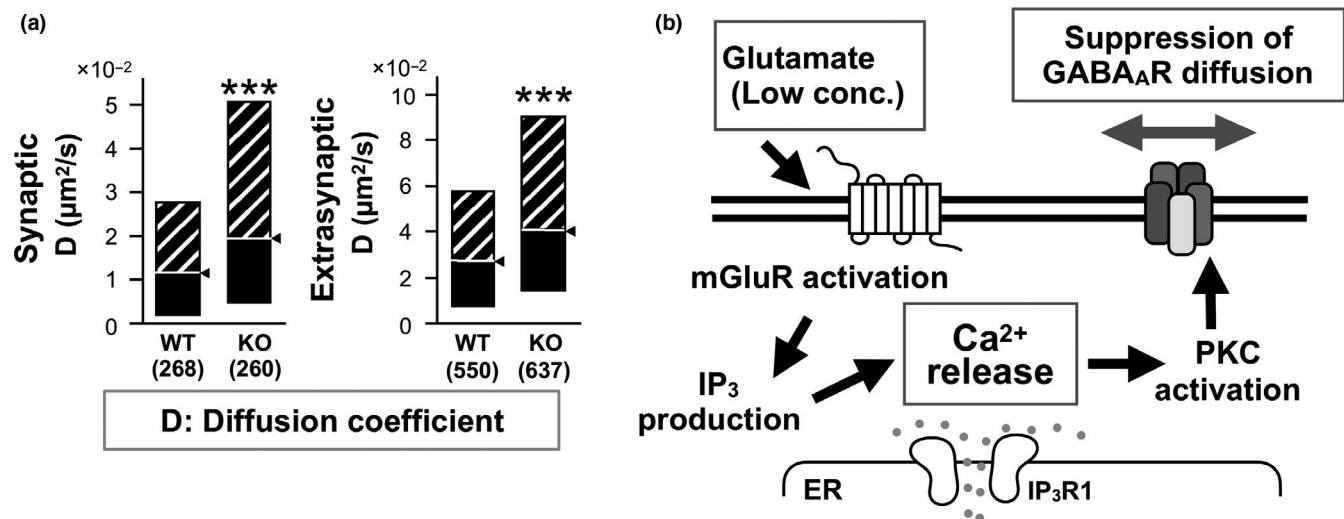


**FIGURE 4** Two types of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling pathways. “ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release” from the intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  store in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and “ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx” from the extracellular space

## 5 | CONTROL OF GABA<sub>A</sub>R LATERAL DIFFUSION THROUGH $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ SIGNALING – AN INGENIOUS REGULATORY MECHANISM THAT MAKES FULL USE OF A LIMITED NUMBER OF SIGNALING MOLECULES

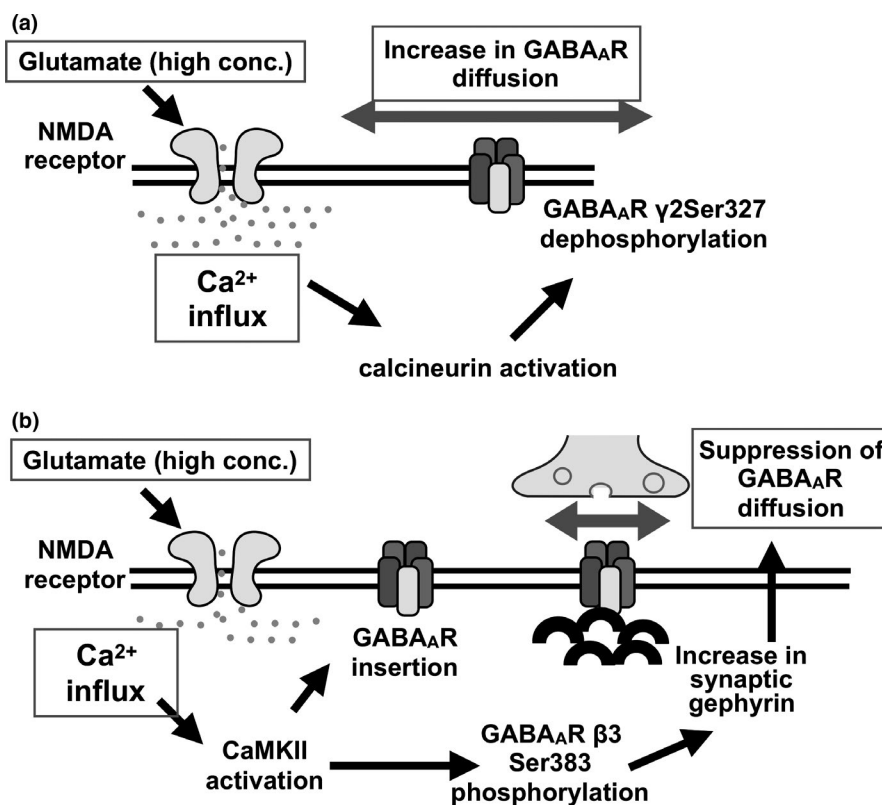
In addition to synaptic scaffolding proteins, the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signal, i.e. “the increase or decrease in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ion concentration”, is another important factor that can control GABA<sub>A</sub>R lateral diffusion.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling can be classified as “ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx” where  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions enter the cell from the extracellular space, and “ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release” from the intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  storage endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (Figure 4). Intriguingly, mice lacking the ER  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -releasing channel “IP<sub>3</sub> receptor type 1 (IP<sub>3</sub>R1)” exhibit epilepsy-like symptoms (Matsumoto et al., 1996), thereby suggesting the possibility that these animals may have abnormal inhibitory neurotransmission. Therefore, we examined whether  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from the IP<sub>3</sub>R1 controls the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R, using QD-SPT (Bannai et al., 2006). Hippocampal neurons from IP<sub>3</sub>R1-deficient mice showed increased lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the synapse, compared to those in wild type mice. Through immunofluorescence staining, we found that the number of GABA<sub>A</sub>R accumulating in the synapse were decreased in IP<sub>3</sub>R1-deficient neurons. Furthermore, inhibition of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -release pathway by IP<sub>3</sub>R antagonist in wild type rat hippocampal neurons for 1 hr using an inhibitor showed similar GABA<sub>A</sub>R destabilization as that in IP<sub>3</sub>R1-deficient neurons (Bannai et al., 2015) (Figure 5a). Furthermore, we showed that GABA<sub>A</sub>R lateral diffusion is suppressed by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -releasing signal downstream of the metabotropic glutamate receptor (mGluR), followed by the activation of protein kinase C (PKC) (Figure 5b). This result indicates that the ER-mediated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -releasing signal pathway suppresses lateral diffusion of synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R, and finally causes accumulation of GABA<sub>A</sub>R inside the synapse. In other words, in addition to scaffolding proteins,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from the ER, which starts from constitutive activation of mGluRs and causes activation of PKC, is necessary for continuous GABA<sub>A</sub>R accumulation at the postsynaptic terminal.

On the contrary,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx also controls the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R, and is involved in GABAergic synapse plasticity, i.e. the ability of neurons to change GABAergic synaptic transmission efficacy in response to neuronal input. In the rodent hippocampus, GABAergic synaptic transmission efficacy is weakened by the application of high-frequency stimulation (Wang & Stelzer, 1996). This phenomenon is a form of synaptic plasticity called “long-term depression (LTD)” in GABAergic synapse, and is known to be involved in learning, memory, and pathogenesis of epilepsy. GABAergic LTD requires  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx from the ionotropic glutamate receptor “NMDA receptors”, activation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /calmodulin-dependent protein phosphatase “calcineurin” downstream of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx, and calcineurin-induced dephosphorylation of Serine-327 in the  $\gamma 2$  subunit of GABA<sub>A</sub>R (Lu, Mansuy, Kandel, & Roder, 2000; Wang et al., 2003). However, it is unclear how calcineurin controls GABA<sub>A</sub>R accumulation at the postsynaptic terminal. Through investigation of GABA<sub>A</sub>R using QD-SPT, we found that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx from NMDA receptors, which is equivalent to LTD-inducing



**FIGURE 5** Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from the ER suppresses GABA<sub>A</sub>R lateral diffusion. (a) Results of lateral diffusion analysis of GABA<sub>A</sub>R using QD-SPT. The GABA<sub>A</sub>R-diffusion coefficient (D) in IP<sub>3</sub>R1-deficient mice was greater than that in wild type mice (Bannai et al., 2015). The diffusion coefficient, D, is a physical parameter representing how fast the molecule moves in the plasma membrane, as calculated from its trajectory. For detailed description on this method, see Bannai et al., 2006; Bannai et al., 2020. Furthermore, these data indicate that the release of Ca<sup>2+</sup> suppresses the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R in the synaptic and extrasynaptic area. FM4-64 labeling was performed to identify the synaptic area. \*\*\**p* < .001. Mann-Whitney *U*-test. The numbers in parentheses show the number of analyzed quantum dots. (b) Signaling mechanism to control lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R by Ca<sup>2+</sup> release. Glutamate at low concentration activates mGluR to produce IP<sub>3</sub>, and subsequently induces Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from the IP<sub>3</sub>R1. This pathway constitutively activates PKC, then suppresses the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>Rs

**FIGURE 6** Molecular mechanism of GABAergic synaptic plasticity. (a) Molecular mechanism underlying GABAergic LTD. Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx through NMDA receptor activates calcineurin, and dephosphorylates the GABA<sub>A</sub>R γ2-subunit, leading to increased GABA<sub>A</sub>R lateral diffusion. (b) Molecular mechanism for GABAergic LTP. CaMKII promotes GABA<sub>A</sub>R exocytosis and causes accumulation of gephyrin in the synapse through phosphorylation of the GABA<sub>A</sub>R β3-subunit



stimulation, increases the lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R through activation of calcineurin (Bannai et al., 2009) (Figure 6a). It has been also shown that the elevation of GABA<sub>A</sub>R lateral diffusion caused by Ca<sup>2+</sup>

influx was due to the dephosphorylation of Serine-327 in the γ2-subunit of GABA<sub>A</sub>R by calcineurin, similar to that in GABAergic LTD (Fricke et al., 2019; Muir et al., 2010).

Previously, synaptic plasticity was considered to have been induced by modification of the number of surface GABA<sub>A</sub>R. However, we also showed that the expression level and the total number of GABA<sub>A</sub>R on the cell surface did not change before and after LTD-inducing stimulation (Bannai et al., 2009). This discovery indicates for the first time that “changes in lateral diffusion of the neurotransmitter receptor” is a new molecular mechanism underlying synaptic plasticity.

Surprisingly, “GABAergic long-term potentiation (LTP)”, another form of GABAergic synaptic plasticity, is also caused by the control of lateral diffusion of GABA<sub>A</sub>R depending on Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx from the NMDA receptor (Petrini et al., 2014). When neurons receive LTP-inducing stimulus, the calcium calmodulin-dependent kinase II (CaMKII) that is activated by Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx from NMDA receptors translocate to the GABAergic synapse, and promotes exocytosis of GABA<sub>A</sub>R (Marsden, Beattie, Friedenthal, & Carroll, 2007; Marsden, Shemesh, Bayer, & Carroll, 2010). Simultaneously, CaMKII phosphorylates Serine-383 in the β3-subunit of GABA<sub>A</sub>R. Phosphorylation of the β3-subunit of GABA<sub>A</sub>R causes an increase in the accumulation of the scaffold protein gephyrin at the synapse. QD-SPT revealed that interaction between gephyrin and GABA<sub>A</sub>R selectively suppresses the lateral diffusion of synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R (Petrini et al., 2014). The increase in the level of GABA<sub>A</sub>R presented on cell surface due to CaMKII-dependent exocytosis and the increase in the number of synaptic GABA<sub>A</sub>R due to suppression of lateral diffusion in the synapse is therefore the molecular mechanism of GABAergic synaptic long-term potentiation (Figure 6b). It is notable that this NMDA receptor and CaMKII-dependent signaling pathway is also involved in the input-specific potentiation of GABAergic inhibition from somatostatin-expressing interneurons in cerebral cortex (Chiu et al., 2018).

As above, analysis of GABA<sub>A</sub>R lateral diffusion through QD-SPT showed that “Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal” and “glutamate” are common signaling molecules involved in all of: (a) GABA<sub>A</sub>R accumulation in the synapse under the normal state (Figure 4), (b) GABAergic synaptic long-term depression (Figure 6a) and (c) long-term potentiation (Figure 6b). Interestingly, glutamate, an excitatory neurotransmitter, controls the inhibitory synaptic transmission efficiency. How can three different types of target molecules, i.e. PKC, Calcineurin, and CaMKII, be selectively activated using the same signaling molecules such as Ca<sup>2+</sup> and glutamate? One possible mechanism that produces the specificity of the downstream signal molecule is thought to be the extracellular glutamate concentration. Under normal conditions, low concentration glutamate released from the surrounding excitatory synapses and glial cells is expected to preferentially activate mGluRs, which have relatively high binding affinity with glutamate, resulting in dominance of the IP<sub>3</sub>R and PKC signaling pathways. On the contrary, synaptic plasticity that involves release of large amounts of glutamate from the excitatory synapse elevates the extracellular concentration of glutamate significantly and activates the NMDA receptors. Despite Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx from the same NMDA receptor, the LTD stimulation reportedly migrates calcineurin to the inhibitory synapse, whereas LTP stimulation specifically migrates the

CaMKII to the inhibitory synapse (Marsden et al., 2010). A model has been proposed where the difference in the level of Ca<sup>2+</sup> entering from the NMDA receptors induces different types of synaptic plasticity (Petrini & Barberis, 2014). It should be noted that Ca<sup>2+</sup> can activate not only phosphatase/kinase but also other proteins. For example, calpain is directly activated by Ca<sup>2+</sup> and control gephyrin clustering (Tyagarajan et al., 2011). In addition, cAMP which produced with adenylate cyclase whose activity is controlled by Ca<sup>2+</sup> also control the diffusion of inhibitory neurotransmitters (Niwa et al., 2019). Therefore, localization of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal itself is another important factor to be taken into consideration. Indeed, recent studies have discussed a possible relationship between compartmentalization of glutamate-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals and the specification of synapses that causes synaptic plasticity (Chiu et al., 2018). With all the combinations of these factors, i.e. Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals and diverse enzymes, spatially and temporally complex regulation of GABAergic synapse via Ca<sup>2+</sup> is processed. It will be a challenge to elucidate the detailed mechanism for GABA<sub>A</sub>R dynamics by local stimulation and compartmentalization of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals.

## 6 | DECODING OF Ca<sup>2+</sup> SIGNALS

Analysis of GABA<sub>A</sub>R dynamics highlighted amazing aspects of neurons wherein the same signaling molecule, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, can have a completely different effect on synaptic regulation depending on where it comes from. In neurons, Ca<sup>2+</sup> release and Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx also work in opposite directions to determine the direction of extension for the growth cone of axons, causing attraction and repulsion, respectively (Tojima, Hines, Henley, & Kamiguchi, 2011). Therefore, elucidating the source of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal and analyzing the precise time and space patterns of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal is an important challenge in the field of neuroscience.

To achieve this objective, we recently created a genetically encoded Ca<sup>2+</sup> indicator that preferentially reports Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from the ER (Niwa et al., 2016). By targeting GCaMP6f to the outer membrane of the ER, we succeeded in reporting the moment of Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from the ER at a higher spatiotemporal resolution than the conventional cytosolic GCaMP6f. This outer ER-targeted-GCaMP6f (OER-GCaMP6f) was available for in vivo Ca<sup>2+</sup> imaging of *C. elegans*. It was also found that the plasma membrane-targeted genetically encoded Ca<sup>2+</sup> indicator Lck-GCaMP6f that detects Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx with good sensitivity (Shigetomi, Kracun, Sofroniew, & Khakh, 2010), shows a different pattern of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal from that of OER-GCaMP6f. This result suggests that a Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal can be diverse within a single cell. Furthermore, the aforementioned results indicate that the combination of the “ER-targeting sensor” and “cell membrane-targeting sensor” makes it possible to estimate the source of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal (Bannai, 2018). The Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal is a secondary messenger that induces diverse biological outputs in the nervous system as well as in various cells. Ca<sup>2+</sup> imaging which elucidates the source of Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal is expected to contribute to decode Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals in various cells in the future.

## 7 | CONCLUSION

In this review, we have demonstrated that “GABA<sub>A</sub>R diffusion dynamics” is a new element that can control inhibitory neurotransmission. In recent years, the relationship between the abnormal diffusion dynamics of plasma membrane molecules including neurotransmitter receptors in Alzheimer's disease and other neurodegenerative diseases has been demonstrated (Bannai, 2018; Shrivastava, Aperia, Melki, & Triller, 2017). Elucidating the molecular mechanism that controls the lateral diffusion of membrane molecules may provide a new therapeutic strategy for cranial nerve diseases.

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### ORCID

Hiroko Bannai  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0951-488X>

Fumihiko Niwa  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0206-1902>

Shigeo Sakuragi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0214-3681>

Katsuhiko Mikoshiba  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3487-6970>

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