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Effects of *Gabra2* point-mutations on alcohol intake: Increased binge-like and blunted dependence-inducing drinking by mice

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Abstract

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Background: Alcohol use disorders are associated with single nucleotide polymorphisms in *GABRA2*, the gene encoding the GABA_A receptor $\alpha 2$ -subunit in humans. Deficient GABAergic functioning is linked to impulse control disorders, intermittent explosive disorder, and to drug abuse and dependence, yet it remains unclear if $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptor sensitivity to endogenous ligands is involved in excessive alcohol drinking.

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Methods: Male wild-type C57BL/6J and point-mutated mice rendered insensitive to GABAergic modulation by benzodiazepines (H101R), allopregnanolone or THDOC (Q241M), or high concentrations of ethanol (S270H/L277A) at $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors were assessed for their binge-like, moderate or dependence-inducing drinking using drinking in the dark, continuous access and intermittent access to alcohol protocols, respectively. Social approach by mutant and wild-type mice in withdrawal from intermittent access to alcohol was compared to approach by water-drinking controls. Social deficits in withdrawal were treated with allopregnanolone (0, 3.0, 10.0 mg/kg, i.p.) or midazolam (0, 0.56, 1.0 mg/kg, i.p.).

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Results: Mice with benzodiazepine-insensitive $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors (H101R) escalated their binge-like drinking. Mutants harboring the Q241M point-substitution in *Gabra2* showed blunted chronic intake in the continuous and intermittent access protocols. S270H/L277A mutants consumed excessive amounts of alcohol but, unlike wild-types, they did not show withdrawal-induced social deficits.

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Conclusions: These findings suggest a role for: 1.) H101 for species-typical binge-like drinking, 2.) Q241 for escalated dependence-inducing drinking, and 3.) S270 and/or L277 for the development of withdrawal-associated social deficits. Clinical findings report reduced BZD-binding sites in the cortex of dependent patients; the present findings suggest a specific role for

56 BZD-sensitive α 2-containing receptors. In addition, amino acid residue 241 in *Gabra2* is
57 necessary for positive modulation and activation of GABA_A receptors by allopregnanolone and
58 THDOC; we postulate that neurosteroid action on α 2-containing receptor may be necessary for
59 escalated chronic ethanol intake.

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61 **Key words:** *Gabra2*, alcohol use disorder, binge-like drinking, alcohol withdrawal, chronic
62 alcohol drinking

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66 More than half of American adults consume alcohol at least once a year; yet, only 7% of
67 the population will receive a diagnosis of an alcohol use disorder (AUD). Deficits in inhibitory
68 transmission, particularly in the prefrontal cortex, may increase the risk of developing an AUD
69 and have been linked to impulse control disorders, intermittent explosive disorder, and to drug
70 abuse and dependence (Volkow et al., 1993; Best et al., 2002; Coccaro et al., 2007; Davidson et
71 al., 2000; Heinz et al., 2011). Within the central nervous system, fast synaptic inhibition is
72 mediated, in part, by GABA_A receptors comprised of 2 α , 2 β , and 1 γ subunits surrounding a
73 ligand-gated chloride ion channel (Olsen and Sieghart 2008). Heterogeneity in GABA_A receptor
74 composition can determine sensitivity to endogenous and exogenous receptor modulators
75 including benzodiazepines, neurosteroids, ethanol and general anesthetics (Belelli and Lambert
76 2005; Farrant and Nusser 2005; Olsen and Sieghart 2008).

77 Numerous human genetics studies identify a link between alcohol dependence and single-
78 nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in *GABRA2*, the gene encoding the GABA_A receptor α 2-
79 subunit protein (Covault et al., 2004; Edenberg et al., 2004; Bierut et al., 2010; Li et al., 2014).
80 Minor allelic variants of these SNPs appear to be inherited together within haplotype blocks in
81 the *GABRA2* gene (Covault et al., 2004; Fehr et al., 2006; Enoch et al., 2009). Guided by
82 research on the association between allelic variants in the human genome and alcohol
83 dependence, the present work employs preclinical genetic mouse models to clarify whether
84 alterations in α 2-containing GABA_A receptor sensitivity to alcohol, select neurosteroids, or to
85 benzodiazepines may play a functional role in escalating binge-like or dependence-inducing
86 alcohol consumption.

87 A major limitation in the field of alcohol research is the enigmatic site of action for
88 clinically relevant doses of alcohol. Using *in vitro* techniques, studies have identified the α 4 β δ or

89 $\alpha 6\beta\delta$ GABA_A subtypes for potentiation of inhibitory currents by low, physiologically relevant
90 concentrations of alcohol: yet, to date, there is no universal agreement on these findings (Suzdak
91 et al., 1986; Mehta and Ticku 1988; Sundstrom-Poromaa et al., 2002; Wallner et al., 2003;
92 Borghese et al., 2006a; but White et al., 1990; Mihic et al., 1994; Homanics et al., 1997;
93 Borghese and Harris 2007). A second approach is to use rodent models of voluntary alcohol
94 consumption to evaluate the behavior of mice harboring targeted mutations. Although behavior
95 is far-removed from the possible receptor site of action, in the absence of selective
96 pharmacological tools, behavioral studies can reveal which receptor domains may be necessary
97 for non-selective drugs like alcohol to elicit specific behavioral effects.

98 By introducing targeted point-substitutions in the $\alpha 2$ -subunit protein sequence, three
99 mutant mouse strains have been generated with $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors that are
100 insensitive to modulation by benzodiazepines (*in vitro*: Wieland et al., 1992; Benson et al., 1998;
101 *in vivo*: Low et al., 2000), modulation and activation by allopregnanolone and
102 tetrahydrodeoxycorticosterone (*in vitro*: Hosie et al., 2006, 2009), or modulation by high
103 concentrations of ethanol (*in vitro*: Mihic et al., 1997; Borghese et al., 2006b; *in vivo*: Homanics
104 et al., 2005; Blednov et al., 2011; Werner et al., 2011). Assessing these mutant mice for binge-
105 like, moderate and dependence-inducing alcohol consumption may clarify the relationship
106 between $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptor sensitivity to positive modulators and escalated alcohol
107 consumption.

108 **Methods**

109 ***Animals***

110 Mutant H101R mice were homozygous for a histidine to arginine point-substitution in
111 *Gabra2*, conferring insensitivity to benzodiazepines at $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors. H101R

112 mutants were initially backcrossed for fifteen generations to a wild-type C57BL/6J (WT; Jackson
113 Laboratories, Bar Harbor, ME) background to establish a line that is congenic with WT mice.
114 Therefore, experimental H101R mutants and WT mice were generated from filial homozygous
115 breeding pairs.

116 Experimental mutant S270H/L277A mice were homozygous for a serine to histidine
117 mutation and a gain-of-function leucine to alanine point-substitution in *Gabra2*, rendering them
118 insensitive to some effects of ethanol while maintaining near-normal GABA-responding (Werner
119 et al., 2011). Mutant S270H/L277A mice were bred to a C57BL/6J background for at least six
120 generations at Jackson Laboratories (stock number: 012942), and for two generations in the Tufts
121 Psychopharmacology lab (Medford, MA). Experimental neurosteroid-insensitive Q241M
122 mutants, bred to a C57BL/6J background, were homozygous for a glutamine to methionine
123 point-substitution in *Gabra2*. Homozygous S270H/L277A and Q241M point-mutants and their
124 WT counterparts were bred from heterozygous pairs. Tail samples were collected for genotyping
125 by PCR (Transnetyx, Inc.). Data analyses revealed no differences between ethanol consumption
126 by WT mice generated from heterozygous crosses and WT mice bred from homozygous pairs;
127 therefore all WT groups were collapsed for subsequent analyses and for data portrayal. See
128 **Table 1** for all experimental group *ns*.

129 At eight-to-ten weeks, experimental mutant and WT males were housed singly to assess
130 individual alcohol or tastant solution intake. Adult wild-type female C57BL/6J mice (n=20)
131 were ovariectomized (OVX) and used as social stimulus mice for social approach testing during
132 withdrawal from alcohol. All mice were housed in clear polycarbonate cages (28x17x14 cm)
133 lined with pine shavings within a temperature-controlled mouse vivarium (21±1 °C, 30-40%
134 humidity) that was kept on a 12-h photocycle (lights off 0700h). Experimental males and OVX

135 mice received unrestricted access to rodent chow (Purina LabDiet 5001, PMI Nutrition
136 International, Brentwood, MO). With the exception of males assigned to the drinking in the dark
137 protocol, mice received continuous access to tap water. During assessments of fluid intake,
138 solutions were presented in 50 mL centrifuge tubes (Nalgene). Each centrifuge tube was fitted
139 with a rubber stopper (No. 5, Fisher Scientific, Agawam, MA) and a sipper-tube containing two
140 ball bearings (Ancare Corp., Bellmore, NY) to prevent unintentional fluid loss. All animals were
141 cared for in accordance with the National Research Council's *Guide for the Care and Use of*
142 *Laboratory Animals* (8th ed., 2011) and protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care
143 and Use Committee of Tufts University.

144

145 ***Binge-like drinking: Drinking in the dark***

146 Adult mutant H101R, S270H/L277A, Q241M and WT males were assessed for binge-
147 like ethanol intake in their home cages according to the four-day, drinking in the dark (DID)
148 procedure outlined by Rhodes et al., (2005). Three hours into the dark photoperiod, water bottles
149 were replaced with a single 50 mL centrifuge tube containing 20% EtOH (w/v). On days 1-3,
150 mice received 2-hr access to 20% EtOH after which EtOH was replaced with water for the
151 remaining 22-hr. On day 4, binge-like intake was measured over the course of an extended, four-
152 hr access period. Blood samples were then promptly collected from the submandibular vein,
153 centrifuged at 4°C and plasma (5 µL) was analyzed for blood ethanol concentration (BEC) using
154 the AM-1 Analox Analyzer (Analox Instruments USA; Lunenburg, MA). Binge-like drinking
155 was operationally defined as a pattern of alcohol consumption resulting in a BEC exceeding 80
156 mg/dL within 4 h.

157 In an adaptation of the DID protocol, H101R, S270H/L277A, Q241M and WT males
158 were evaluated for their pattern of 20% EtOH binge-like intake using a contact lickometer setup.
159 Each experimental male's home cage was fitted with a custom-made stainless steel panel; sipper-
160 tubes were lowered through a hole in the right side of each panel for fluid presentation. Stainless
161 steel mesh flooring was secured to the bottom of each panel to form a raised platform. To drink,
162 mice stood on this mesh platform and made tongue-contact with the metal sipper-tube, thereby
163 closing a circuit. The mesh platform and sipper-tube were each connected to a contact lickometer
164 controller (MedAssociates; model ENV-250B) which transmitted signals to a MED-PC interface;
165 a lick was recorded each time a closed circuit was detected (detection threshold: >0.001 ms
166 interlick interval). All mice were habituated to the lickometer setup for three days with free
167 access to tap water and rodent chow prior to the four-day DID procedure. Blood was collected
168 immediately after 4-hour access to 20% EtOH on the fourth day of the DID protocol for BEC
169 analysis.

170 In a second adaptation of DID, we aimed to determine if escalated binge-like drinking in
171 the classic protocol was due to involuntary alcohol intake in the absence of water. According to
172 this adaptation, mice had access to two centrifuge tubes of water for 22h or 20h per day. For the
173 first three days, one water tube was exchanged with 20% EtOH, signifying the beginning of the
174 two-hour, two-bottle choice access period. On the final, binge day, mice received four-hour
175 access to water and 20% EtOH. Because only H101R mutants escalated their binge-like
176 drinking in the one-bottle DID test, only these mutants and WT mice were assessed in this
177 protocol.

178 For all drinking experiments, mice were weighed daily and centrifuge tubes were
179 weighed prior to and after the EtOH or tastant access period to determine intake volume (mL;

180 assuming 1g=1mL). Alcohol consumption was calculated as grams of EtOH consumed
181 according to body weight (g/kg) and as percent preference. To control for unintentional fluid
182 loss, bottle measurements were recorded from an empty cage. These values were subtracted from
183 each mouse's mL intake to account for leakage during the fluid access period.

184

185 *Intermittent and continuous access to ethanol*

186 Eight-to-ten-week old mutant H101R, S270H/L277A, Q241M and WT males were
187 assessed for dependence-inducing, voluntary ethanol consumption according to the intermittent
188 access procedure as explained previously by Hwa et al., (2015). In short, three hours into the
189 dark phase on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, mice received two-bottle choice, 24-hr access
190 to tap water and 20% EtOH. On all other days, mice were presented with two centrifuge tubes
191 filled with tap water. To control for side-preference, EtOH presentation alternated between the
192 right and left side of the cage lid. This intermittent schedule of alcohol presentation has been
193 shown to induce escalated EtOH consumption by C57BL/6J WT males (20-25 g/kg/24h; Hwa et
194 al., 2011). To contrast with the escalated levels of alcohol intake observed using the intermittent
195 access procedure, separate adult mutant and WT males either received continuous access to 20%
196 EtOH and water for six weeks (**Fig S1**).

197

198 *Ascending concentrations of ethanol, sucrose or quinine*

199 Ascending concentrations of EtOH (3, 6, 10, 20% w/v) and water were presented to adult
200 male mutant and WT mice. Each concentration was made available for four consecutive days
201 with presentation alternating sides daily (3% EtOH and water on days 1-4, 6% on days 5-8, 10%

202 on days 9-12, and 20% on days 13-16). Four-day individual intake averages were calculated for
203 each concentration to account for any side preference.

204 To determine if preference for palatable and aversive tastants differed between mutant
205 lines, male mutant and wild-type mice were tested for their sucrose (10, 30, 100 mM) and
206 quinine (0.1, 0.3 mM) intake. Ascending concentrations of the tastant solution and water were
207 presented for four days per concentration as detailed for EtOH above. After the final day of
208 access to the highest concentration of sucrose, mice received two weeks of water prior to
209 receiving the lowest concentration of quinine.

210

211 *Social approach in forced alcohol abstinence*

212 Alcohol withdrawal severity was assessed as an indicator of dependent-like behavior in
213 chronic, alcohol –drinking mice. To do this, we chose to measure deficits in social approach
214 (Knapp et al., 2005; Newman et al., 2015) and defined alcohol dependence as a pattern of
215 drinking that produced withdrawal symptoms in the form of reduced social approach behavior by
216 mice in forced ethanol abstinence as compared to ethanol-naïve, genotype-matched controls (**Fig**
217 **S1, S2**).

218 Male mutant and WT mice either received intermittent access to 20% EtOH or access to
219 two bottles of tap water for 16 consecutive weeks (**Fig S1**). During week seven, mice were
220 habituated to intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections and were evaluated for side preference in a three-
221 chamber apparatus. During side preference screens, the male mouse was placed in the center
222 chamber of the three-chamber apparatus; after a 5-min habituation, the two side doors were
223 opened and the mouse was permitted to explore all three chambers for 10-min. Two ethanol-
224 drinking experimental mice (one WT, one H101R) and two EtOH-naïve control mice (one

225 H101R, one Q241M) were excluded from subsequent social approach testing because they
226 showed a >60% side preference in the absence of a social stimulus animal during these 15-min
227 screening sessions (**Table 1**).

228 From weeks eight to sixteen, mice were tested weekly for social approach toward a novel
229 OVX stimulus mouse six-to-eight hours after 20% EtOH was replaced with water for EtOH-
230 drinking animals. During social approach testing, the male experimental or control mouse was
231 first held within the central chamber of a three-chamber apparatus for a 5-min habituation period
232 (**Fig S2**). Males were randomly assigned a novel OVX female each social approach test day and
233 no two males received the same female stimulus animal on the same day. As the male habituated
234 to the central chamber, his assigned OVX stimulus mouse was placed in a wire mesh cage in
235 either the right or left chamber. Following habituation, the male received an injection and was
236 returned to the central chamber. Thirteen minutes later, the doors on either side of the central
237 chamber were lifted, allowing the male to move freely between the central chamber, the chamber
238 with the OVX stimulus mouse, and a third chamber with an empty stimulus cage during a 10-
239 min social approach test. EthoVision XT software tracked the male and recorded his total
240 distance travelled (cm) and the duration of time he spent within the social approach zone. The
241 social approach zone was defined as the region extending 2.25 cm past the radius of the occupied
242 stimulus cage.

243 For the initial social approach test, ethanol-drinking experimental males in forced
244 abstinence and ethanol-naïve controls were treated systemically with vehicle (half received 20%
245 β CD, half received 0.9% saline). To establish which genotypes demonstrated social deficits in
246 withdrawal, two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted within each genotype
247 (Forced EtOH abstinence vs. EtOH-naïve; saline vs. 20% BCD vehicle on the first day).

248 To treat alcohol withdrawal symptoms and recover social approach behavior, mice were
249 tested weekly in the three-chamber apparatus following intraperitoneal injections of midazolam
250 (0, 0.56, 1.0 mg/kg) or allopregnanolone (0, 3.0, 10.0 mg/kg) in an injection volume of 1 mL/100
251 grams of body weight. Allopregnanolone (3 α -hydroxy-5 α -pregnan-20-one; Steraloids, Inc.) was
252 dissolved in a vehicle of 20% (2-hydroxypropyl)- β -cyclodextrin (Sigma-Aldrich) and midazolam
253 HCl (Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in 0.9% NaCl vehicle. EtOH-naïve (Naïve) and EtOH-
254 withdrawn (WD) mutant and WT mice received drug doses in a randomized order according to a
255 mixed, factorial design; each mouse was tested six times for social approach following injection
256 of vehicle and doses of allopregnanolone (ALLO) and midazolam (MDZ). Stable levels of
257 drinking were maintained throughout social approach testing from weeks eight to sixteen (**Fig**
258 **S5**).

259

260 *Statistical analyses*

261 Ethanol intake (g/kg) data collected from DID experiments were analyzed using two-way
262 repeated measures analyses of variance (2-way RM ANOVA; genotype x day). For mice
263 receiving continuous (CA) or intermittent access (IA) to alcohol, individual mean intake (g/kg)
264 and percent ethanol intake data for 18 ethanol-access days were analyzed by 2-way ANOVA to
265 detect interactions between protocol and genotype. To identify genotype-associated differences
266 in the progression of IA or CA drinking, 2-way RM ANOVA (genotype x week) were also run
267 on individual daily intake (g/kg) and alcohol preference values averaged by week.

268 For all significant 2-way ANOVA, Dunnett's test was used to compare treatment levels
269 to a control condition (for DID, CA, IA drinking experiments: wild type x mutant; for social
270 approach and locomotion in withdrawal: wild type x mutant, vehicle x drug dose; for ascending

271 concentrations of EtOH: 10% EtOH x all other concentrations, wild type x mutant; for sucrose or
272 quinine concentrations: lowest concentration x all other concentrations, wild-type x mutant).

273

274

Results

275 *Escalated binge-like drinking by H101R mutants*

276 *Gabra2* H101R mutant mice escalated their four-hour binge-like drinking compared to
277 wild-types in the drinking in the dark (DID) protocol (**Fig 1A, 1B**). Two-way RM ANOVA
278 (genotype x day) of EtOH intake (g/kg/2 or 4hr) revealed main effects of genotype
279 ($F(3,102)=77.67, p<0.001$) and day ($F(3, 34)=13.32, p<0.001$). Compared with their two-hour
280 access intake, mice consumed significantly more when they received four-hour access to EtOH
281 on the final day of the DID protocol.

282 In separate mice, four-hour DID licking data were collected using a lickometer setup and
283 analyzed in ten-minute time bins (**Fig S4**). Two-way RM ANOVA (time bin x genotype)
284 identified a main effect of time bin ($F(24, 600)=7.144, p<0.001$) with the greatest number of
285 licks occurring in the first ten-minutes of EtOH access. Two-way ANOVA of EtOH intake data
286 in the lickometer setup identified an interaction between genotype and day ($F(9,66)=2.28,$
287 $p=0.027$) driven by increased drinking by H101R mice compared to wild-types on the binge day
288 **(Fig 1B)**, but not on prior, two-hour access days (data not shown). Although a significant time
289 bin x genotype interaction was not apparent upon analyzing the four-hour licking data, only
290 wild-type mice appeared to show a dip in licking at the two-hour time point when EtOH would
291 have been removed on the preceding days (**Fig S4**).

292 Blood was collected from wild-type and mutant mice assigned to single-bottle DID
293 experiments. A one-way ANOVA of BEC (mg/dL) by genotype revealed a non-significant trend

294 (p=0.062) of reduced BECs in Q241M mutants ($M=73.93\pm 12.3$) and slightly higher than average
295 BECs in H101R mutants ($M=127.43\pm 18.72$) as compared to wild-types (**Fig 1C**). With the
296 exception of Q241M mutants, all genotypes satisfied the requirement of >80 mg/dL for binge-
297 like drinking. A simple linear regression equation ($BEC = 52.3 + 0.136 * (\text{licks within final hour})$)
298 was able to predict significant variability in BEC values according to the number of licks within
299 the final hour of four-hour binge-like drinking ($F(1,28) = 12.01, p = 0.002; R^2 = 0.3$).

300 Two-way ANOVA (genotype x DID protocol) detected a significant interaction ($F(1,$
301 $32) = 9.53, p = 0.004$). H101R mutants in the original, single-bottle DID experiment consumed
302 more EtOH (g/kg) as compared to those assessed for two-bottle choice DID; in contrast, WT
303 mice consumed similar amounts regardless of DID protocol (**Fig S3**). In contrast with the
304 original DID protocol findings, there was no significant difference in 4-hour binge intake (g/kg)
305 between WT and H101R mice that were evaluated in a two-bottle choice DID protocol. Despite
306 consuming comparable g/kg EtOH, H101R mice had a significantly higher alcohol preference
307 (%) as compared to WT controls (1-way ANOVA; ($F(1, 15) = 6.32, p = 0.024$); WT:
308 $M = 84.30 \pm 6.53$; H101R: $M = 57.81 \pm 8.04$). High preference for alcohol was driven by low water
309 consumption by H101R mice and contributed to significantly lower total fluid intake by these
310 mutants (1-way ANOVA; ($F(1,15) = 6.20, p = 0.025$)).

311

312

313 ***Reduced chronic ethanol intake by Q241M mutants***

314 Mice that received intermittent rather than continuous access to alcohol consumed
315 significantly greater amounts of ethanol ($F(1, 68) = 157.9, p < 0.001$; **Fig 1D, 1E**). Two-way
316 ANOVA also detected a significant main effect of genotype on EtOH intake ($F(3, 68) = 24.16,$

317 $p<0.001$); compared to WT mice, *Gabra2* Q241M mutants consumed less 20% EtOH while
318 S270H/L277A mutants consumed more 20% EtOH (**Fig 1D**).

319 Daily individual EtOH intake values (g/kg) were averaged by week for mice with
320 intermittent access to EtOH. Two-way RM ANOVA of these data revealed a significant
321 genotype by week interaction ($F(15, 185)=2.13, p=0.01$), and main effects of genotype ($F(3,$
322 $37)=33.27, p<0.001$) and week ($F(5, 185)=9.15, p<0.001$). While wild-type mice consistently
323 consumed more EtOH than Q241M mutants, both wild-type and Q241M mice consumed
324 progressively more EtOH per day for the first three weeks (**Fig 2A**). EtOH intake values
325 stabilized for all genotypes following the third week of intermittent access. Similarly, Q241M
326 mutants consumed less EtOH than wild-types in the continuous access experiment, driving a
327 main effect of genotype ($F(3, 31)=9.94, p<0.001$; **Fig 2B**). In contrast with mice that received
328 intermittent access to alcohol, those with continuous access reduced their drinking, generating
329 significantly lower intake values following the second week of drinking (main effect of week:
330 $F(5, 155)=5.72, p<0.001$; **Fig 2B**). Therefore, it appears that, regardless of the drinking
331 protocol, mice require 9-14 days of alcohol access for their daily EtOH intake (g/kg) to stabilize.
332 Two-way RM ANOVA on average total daily volume intake (mL water + mL EtOH) values
333 revealed no effect of genotype (Wt vs. mutant genotypes) or of chronic alcohol access protocol
334 (continuous vs. intermittent).

335 Daily drinking data were also analyzed as % EtOH preference (calculated as: mL EtOH
336 intake/mL total fluid intake * 100). For mice with intermittent EtOH access, 2-way RM
337 ANOVA detected significant main effects of genotype ($F(3, 37)=8.33, p<0.001$) and week ($F(5,$
338 $185)=5.15, p<0.001$) on % EtOH preference. As revealed by post-hoc analyses, Q241M mice
339 had significantly lower preference for EtOH as compared to wild-types, and, for all genotypes,

340 average daily % EtOH preference stabilized following the third week of intermittent access (**Fig**
341 **2C**). Analysis of continuous access % EtOH preference data identified main effects of genotype
342 ($F(3, 31)=3.39, p=0.03$) and week ($F(5, 155)=2.96, p=0.014$). The main effect of genotype was
343 driven by a difference between the Q241M and S270H/L277A mutants; yet, no mutant line
344 differed appreciably from wild-type controls. As seen with g/kg intake data from mice given
345 continuous access to alcohol, % EtOH preference stabilized during the third week of continuous
346 access drinking (**Fig 2D**).

347

348 *Social approach in forced alcohol abstinence*

349 On the first day of social approach testing, EtOH-withdrawing mice and EtOH-naïve
350 controls received either 0.9% saline vehicle or 20% β -cyclodextrin vehicle. These social
351 approach data were analyzed within genotype by two-way ANOVA (EtOH-withdrawing vs.
352 EtOH-naïve; saline vs. 20% BCD vehicle on the first day) to establish whether withdrawing mice
353 exhibited deficits in social approach as compared to their ethanol-naïve counterparts. This
354 analysis revealed that wild-type mice in forced abstinence spent significantly less time in the
355 social approach zone as compared to EtOH-naïve wild-type controls ($F(1, 16)=14.347, p=0.002$;
356 **Fig 3**). Likewise, H101R mutants that were in forced abstinence from alcohol spent significantly
357 less time in the social approach zone compared to mice with no history of EtOH consumption
358 ($F(1, 15)=9.164, p=0.008$; **Fig 3**).

359 Conversely, there was no difference in social approach behavior between Q241M or
360 S270H/L277A mutants in forced abstinence and their EtOH-naïve counterparts (**Fig 3**). These
361 initial analyses guided subsequent treatments with midazolam and allopregnanolone to reverse
362 withdrawal-associated social deficits observed in WT and H101R mice. Since two-way

363 ANOVA did not reveal any differences between social approach duration or distance travelled
364 data according to vehicle (0.9% saline vs. 20% β -cyclodextrin) for any genotype, individual
365 vehicle averages were used for data portrayal (**Fig 4** and **Fig S6**).

366 Because six-week intermittent access drinking differed by genotype and was predicted to
367 impact behavior in withdrawal, social approach was analyzed with one-way RM ANOVA by
368 genotype. Social approach after midazolam or allopregnanolone treatment was compared to
369 behavior after 0.9% saline or 20% β -cyclodextrin administration, respectively. These analyses
370 revealed significant treatment effects in wild-type mice with the 0.56 and 1.0 mg/kg doses of
371 midazolam and the 3.0 and 10.0 mg/kg doses of allopregnanolone increasing social approach in
372 withdrawal as compared to their respective vehicles (MDZ: ($F(2, 18)=8.241, p=0.003$); ALLO:
373 ($F(2, 18)=5.22, p=0.016$); **Fig 4A**). For H101R mice, there was a significant effect of midazolam
374 ($F(2, 16)=6.403, p=0.009$) with both doses reducing social approach time, which is likely due to
375 sedation (**Fig 4B, 4D**). Since the data were not normally distributed, Friedman RM ANOVA on
376 ranks was conducted on allopregnanolone data for H101R mice to reveal a significant effect of
377 the drug treatment ($\chi^2(2)=13.56, p=0.001$). As compared to 20% β -cyclodextrin vehicle, both the
378 3.0 and 10.0 mg/kg doses of allopregnanolone increased social approach in withdrawal from
379 alcohol (**Fig 4B**).

380 Distance travelled during social approach testing in withdrawal was used as a potential
381 metric of withdrawal-induced motor impairments (Knapp et al. 2005) and for allopregnanolone-
382 or midazolam-induced sedation. None of the genotypes showed motor impairment due to
383 withdrawal as revealed by one-way ANOVA between same-genotype EtOH-naïve and EtOH-
384 withdrawn mice. This suggests that the social approach protocol used in the present study
385 allowed for independent measurements of social avoidance and locomotor behavior. Additional

386 one-way RM ANOVA or Friedman RM ANOVA were run within genotype to detect drug-
387 treatment effects on motor activity during withdrawal. There was no effect of drug treatment on
388 locomotor behavior in wild-type mice in withdrawal (**Fig 4C**). However one-way RM ANOVA
389 did detect a significant effect of treatment in H101R mutants ($F(2, 16)=14.771, p<0.001$) with
390 reduced distance travelled following treatment with either dose of midazolam (0.56 or 1.0
391 mg/kg; **Fig 4D**). This suggests that reduced social approach at this dose was associated with
392 increased sedation.

393 To establish whether there was an effect of genotype on social approach, a one-way
394 ANOVA was conducted on data collected from EtOH-naïve, vehicle-treated mice. Q241M mice
395 showed a trend toward reduced social approach compared to wild-type animals. Thus, EtOH-
396 naïve wild-type and EtOH-naïve Q241M mice were included in subsequent social approach tests
397 following midazolam and allopregnanolone administration to determine whether anxiolytic
398 compounds could recover social approach by Q241M mutants.

399 Two-way RM ANOVA on social approach by EtOH-naïve Q241M and wild-type mice
400 treated with midazolam revealed a significant effect of drug treatment ($F(2, 36)=4.88, p=0.013$)
401 and an interaction between genotype and drug administration ($F(2, 36)=4.75, p=0.015$).
402 Midazolam (1.0 mg/kg) treatment increased social approach time by EtOH-naïve Q241M mice
403 to levels that were comparable to EtOH-naïve wild-type controls (**Fig S6A, S6B**). Conversely,
404 there was no effect of allopregnanolone treatment or genotype on approach behavior.
405 Midazolam treatment interacted with genotype ($F(2,36)=4.12, p=0.025$), producing a significant
406 reduction in distance travelled by EtOH-naïve wild-type mice, but not by Q241M mutants (**Fig**
407 **S6C, S6D**). Allopregnanolone treatment also interacted with genotype ($F(2,36)=10.584,$

408 $p<0.001$); however, this interaction was driven by increased distance travelled by wild-type mice
409 and reduced locomotion by Q241M mutants (**Fig S6C, S6D**).

410 The significant difference between ethanol intake (g/kg) by wild-type and Q241M mice
411 remained consistent throughout the sixteen weeks of intermittent alcohol drinking ($F(3, 37) =$
412 $22.22, p<0.001$); drug administration and social approach testing beginning in week eight did not
413 impact ethanol consumption by any genotype (**Fig S5**).

414

415 *Concentration-dependent ethanol, sucrose or quinine preference*

416 Two-way RM ANOVA was used to detect an interaction between genotype and either
417 intake or percent preference for a specific concentration of ethanol. Analysis of intake data
418 (g/kg) revealed a significant interaction ($F(9,96)=11.28, p<0.001$) and a main effect of
419 concentration ($F(3, 96)=102.31, p<0.001$). Post-hoc comparisons were conducted as 10% vs. 3,
420 6, or 20% EtOH (w/v). All genotypes consumed more 10% EtOH (w/v) as compared to the 3%
421 solution while only the H101R and S270H/L277A mutants consumed more 20% than the 10%
422 concentration. Conversely, Q241M mice drank considerably less 20% EtOH (**Fig 5**). As
423 compared with wild-types, H101R mice consumed significantly more 20% EtOH while Q241M
424 mutants consumed significantly less 20% EtOH (**Fig 5**). Two-way RM ANOVA of % EtOH
425 preference data detected a significant effect of EtOH concentration ($F(3,96)=82.77, p<0.001$)
426 which was due to reduced preference for the 20% EtOH (w/v) solution regardless of genotype
427 (**Fig 5**). Two-way RM ANOVA on total daily fluid intake (mL EtOH + mL H₂O) revealed a
428 significant main effect of concentration ($F(3, 96)=40.89, p<0.001$) and an interaction between
429 genotype and EtOH concentration ($F(9,96) = 4.535, p<0.001$). All mice consumed the most total
430 fluid upon receiving access to 3% EtOH and water; however, only Q241M mice did not show

431 increased total volume intake when offered 20% EtOH and water. This suggests that mice may
432 adjust their water intake based on their g/kg EtOH consumption; because 20% EtOH intake by
433 Q241M mice was low, they did not increase their water intake like WT, H101R and
434 S270H/L277A mutants.

435 Two-way RM ANOVA was also used to determine if there was a significant interaction
436 between genotype and preference for ascending concentrations of sucrose solution (10, 30, 100
437 mM). A main effect of concentration ($F(2, 42)=44.04, p<0.001$; **Fig S7**) was associated with
438 preference for the 30 and 100 mM sucrose solutions as compared to the 10 mM sucrose
439 concentration. Two-way RM ANOVA revealed a main effect of quinine ($F(1,20)=29.13,$
440 $p<0.001$) with all genotypes avoiding the high, 0.3 mM quinine solution (**Fig S7**). Analysis of
441 total daily fluid intake (mL sucrose solution + mL water) revealed a main effect of sucrose
442 concentration ($F(2, 42)=69.98, p<0.001$) resulting from greater volumetric intake when mice
443 were given access to 100 mM sucrose and water. Interestingly, a similar effect was observed
444 when mice received 0.3 mM quinine and water; all genotypes significantly increasing their total
445 fluid intake (mL quinine solution + mL water; $F(1, 20)=19.81, p<0.001$). While increased
446 volumetric intake during sucrose testing was associated with substantial 100 mM sucrose solution
447 intake, the increase in fluid consumed when mice received access to 0.3 mM quinine was driven
448 by elevated water consumption.

449

450

Discussion

451 The present study highlights the following findings: mutant mice with BZD-insensitive
452 $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors escalated their binge-like alcohol intake; conversely, chronic
453 intermittent drinking by H101R mutants was indistinguishable from wild-type mice. Rendered

454 insensitive to ALLO and THDOC at $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors, Q241M mutants
455 consumed less than wild-types in the chronic dependence-inducing and moderate drinking
456 protocols. Finally, mice harboring the S270H/L277A mutations in the *Gabra2* protein sequence
457 consumed the same amount of alcohol as wild-type mice; yet, unlike wild-type mice, these
458 mutants did not show disrupted social approach in withdrawal from chronic, excessive alcohol
459 intake.

460 Human and rodent studies have revealed a correlation between reduced GABA_A receptor
461 BZD-binding sites and alcohol-dependence (Freund 1980; Freund and Ballinger 1988; Volkow
462 et al., 1993, 1995; Gilman et al., 1996; Lingford-Hughes et al., 1998; Laukkanen et al., 2013; but
463 Korpi et al., 1992). By evaluating H101R mutant mice, we provide evidence to suggest that
464 BZD-insensitivity - or a yet unknown functional change caused by the mutation - can promote
465 excessive binge-like alcohol consumption when mice are not given the choice between ethanol
466 and water. In a two-bottle choice drinking in the dark procedure (2BC DID), H101R mutants
467 maintained wild-type-like levels of EtOH consumption; these values were significantly lower
468 than those achieved by H101R mutants with access to EtOH only. In contrast with wild-types,
469 2BC did not elicit equal volumetric EtOH and water drinking by H101R mutant mice (EtOH
470 preference means; H101R: 84.3%; WT: 57.81%). Interestingly, this disparity was not observed
471 in chronic 2BC protocols despite similar EtOH (g/kg) intake between H101R and wild-type
472 mice. These findings may indicate that, in H101R mutants, the presentation of a non-EtOH-
473 containing bottle is sufficient to diminish limited-access drinking. It is possible that single-bottle
474 access to EtOH may drive compulsive intake and that providing an alternative is sufficient to
475 disrupt escalated drinking. Future lickometer assessments will see if presentation of a second
476 bottle disrupts the pattern of licking during the four-hour DID access period. In addition, work

477 should address how other environmental enrichments may disrupt single-bottle EtOH drinking
478 and whether this effect is specific to H101R mutants.

479 To clarify the present findings, future work must establish how $\alpha 2$ (H101R)-containing
480 GABA_A receptors respond to ethanol. In recombinant receptors, the $\alpha 2$ (H101R) mutation
481 produces a rightward shift of the GABA dose-response curve (Benson et al.,1998), which might
482 suggest a reduced sensitivity to GABA *in vivo*. However, at least in central and
483 lateral/basolateral amygdala, the amplitudes of extracellularly evoked inhibitory postsynaptic
484 currents are unchanged by the $\alpha 2$ (H101R) mutation, which is consistent with no change in
485 GABAergic functions in the absence of benzodiazepines (Marowsky et al. 2004). Until we have
486 a more complete understanding of how the $\alpha 2$ (H101R) mutation alters the properties of GABA_A
487 receptors throughout the brain, we cannot formally exclude the possibility that increased binge-
488 like drinking by H101R mutants may reflect altered GABA sensitivity and/or potentiation of
489 GABA-induced currents by ethanol.

490 Animals rendered selectively insensitive to ALLO and THDOC at $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A
491 receptors reduced their drinking in a protocol that models dependence-inducing ethanol intake.
492 The Q241M mutation impedes neurosteroid positive modulator binding to the membrane-bound
493 modulatory site of the $\alpha 2$ -subunit (Hosie et al., 2006). Because both low-concentration
494 potentiation and activation by high concentrations of neurosteroids require this modulatory site,
495 these mutants should be insensitive to all neurosteroid action at $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors.
496 Indeed, *in vitro* dose-effect curves do show that this single amino acid substitution can block
497 ALLO-potentiation of GABA currents (Hosie et al., 2009). A number of studies demonstrate that
498 ALLO or its synthetic analog, ganaxolone, can increase responding for alcohol and can escalate
499 alcohol intake (Janak and Gill 2003; Nie and Janak 2003; Ramaker et al., 2014). Yet, studies

500 also provide evidence for reduced drinking with regional increases in ALLO or following ALLO
501 or ganaxolone treatment (Besheer et al., 2010; Cook et al., 2014; Ramaker et al., 2015);
502 conflicting evidence may reflect dose- and time-dependent effects of ALLO and/or an interaction
503 between ALLO and history of alcohol consumption (Janak et al., 1998; Ford et al., 2005;
504 Ramaker et al., 2011). In the present investigation, Q241M mutants showed reduced alcohol
505 intake beginning with their first day of access, indicating that neurosteroids may need to act on
506 $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A receptors for alcohol to have its rewarding effects. One hypothesis is that
507 ALLO or THDOC initially binds to the membrane-bound GABA_A receptor modulatory site to
508 induce a conformational change in the receptor. This may subsequently render an extracellular
509 site more accessible to ethanol, leading to receptor positive modulation. Additional studies need
510 to establish whether or not $\alpha 2$ (Q241M)-containing receptors are sensitive to ethanol-potential
511 of GABA-induced currents. The possibility that ethanol reward value may be altered in Q241M
512 mutants must be addressed directly in studies comparing alcohol-reinforced responding by
513 mutants to responding by wild-type controls.

514 During a chronic intermittent access to alcohol procedure, wild-type, H101R, and
515 S270H/L277A mice all consumed ~20 g/kg/24 hr for six weeks. Despite consistently drinking
516 substantial amounts of alcohol, S270H/L277A mutants did not show wild-type-like deficits in
517 social behavior during withdrawal from alcohol. These mutants harbor two mutations, one to
518 block potentiation by ethanol and the other is a gain-of-function mutation that normalizes GABA
519 sensitivity (Homanics et al., 2005; Borghese et al., 2006b). To identify the specific substitution
520 that affects behavior in withdrawal, it would be necessary to pair the S270H mutation with an
521 alternative gain-of-function mutation; if these mutants were to behave like the present

522 S270H/L277A mice, then withdrawal-like symptoms may specifically involve serine at location
523 270 in the $\alpha 2$ -subunit protein sequence.

524 In agreement with earlier work, the present findings demonstrate similar binge-like
525 ethanol intake by mutant male S270H/L277A and wild-type mice (Blednov et al. 2011).

526 However, drinking by S270H/L277A mutants may exceed that of wild-types when animals
527 receive intermittent access to a high concentration of ethanol (i.e. 20% EtOH (w/v); this
528 difference is not evident when animals receive 15% EtOH (v/v; Blednov et al. 2011).

529 S270H/L277A mutants may be less sensitive to some of the aversive effects of alcohol as
530 supported by their escalated chronic ethanol consumption, insensitivity to conditioned taste
531 aversion (Blednov et al. 2011) and intact social approach behavior in withdrawal from chronic
532 alcohol. Future studies need to clarify whether these mice are selectively insensitive to the
533 aversive effects of ethanol or if they also show deficits in their sensitivity to reward.

534 High-risk alcohol dependence–associated *GABRA2* allelic variants do not affect primary
535 protein sequence in humans, and therefore, mutant mice with amino acid substitutions *do not*
536 serve as humanized preclinical models to assess alcohol dependence risk. The present study
537 does, however, provide insight regarding how alcohol or endogenous ligands may interact with
538 the GABA_A receptor $\alpha 2$ -subunit protein to either increase or reduce drinking. Because previous
539 studies using *Gabra2* null mutants did not reveal any differences in ethanol intake (Dixon et al.,
540 2012), we chose to use mice harboring targeted amino acid substitutions to address the role of
541 precise GABA_A receptor modulatory sites in consumption. Although the action of alcohol on
542 these mutated receptors is not fully characterized, we speculate that $\alpha 2$ -containing GABA_A
543 receptor sensitivity to benzodiazepines, neurosteroids, or another presently unidentified
544 endogenous ligand may influence specific patterns of drinking. To determine if the present

545 preclinical findings translate to alcohol-dependent patients, clinical studies should investigate
546 individuals with the high-risk *GABRA2* haplotype for their sensitivity to benzodiazepines,
547 allopregnanolone and THDOC. Interestingly, recent clinical findings suggest that high AUD-risk
548 *GABRA2* SNPs may occur in spans of sequence that regulate GABA_A receptor gene expression
549 during a specific perinatal period (Lieberman et al., 2015). Altered expression of receptor
550 subunits during development may change GABA_A receptor composition and sensitivity to
551 endogenous modulators. Future research addressing the potential regulatory role of AUD-
552 associated *GABRA2* SNPs may guide the development of pharmacogenetic tools to aid in the
553 diagnosis and treatment of alcohol use disorders.

554

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559

560 **Conflict of Interest** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Table 1

	Experimental group <i>ns</i>			
	WT	H101R	Q241M	S270H/ L277A
DID	<i>n</i> = 10	9	9	10
DID with lickometer	<i>n</i> = 5	5	9	8
2-bottle choice DID	<i>n</i> = 9	8	-	-
Intermittent Access (IA)	<i>n</i> = 11	10	10	10
IA social approach	<i>n</i> = 10	9	10	10
EtOH-naïve social approach	<i>n</i> = 9	11	9	11
Continuous Access	<i>n</i> = 9	8	9	9
Ascending concentrations of EtOH (3-20%)	<i>n</i> = 8	9	9	10
Ascending concentrations of sucrose or quinine	<i>n</i> = 8	4	5	7-8 ^{&}

[&] One mouse euthanized following sucrose testing