Opioid-Receptor (OR) Signaling Cascades in Rat Cerebral Cortex and Model Cell Lines: the Role of Plasma Membrane Structure

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Summary
Large number of extracellular signals is received by plasma membrane receptors which, upon activation, transduce information into the target cell interior via trimeric G-proteins (GPCRs) and induce activation or inhibition of adenylyl cyclase enzyme activity (AC). Receptors for opioid drugs such as morphine (µ-OR, δ-OR and κ-OR) belong to rhodopsin family of GPCRs. Our recent results indicated a specific up-regulation of AC I (8-fold) and AC II (2.5-fold) in plasma membranes (PM) isolated from rat brain cortex exposed to increasing doses of morphine (10-50 mg/kg) for 10 days. Increase of ACI and ACII represented the specific effect as the amount of ACIII-ACIX, prototypical PM marker Na, K-ATPase and trimeric G-protein α and β subunits was unchanged. The up-regulation of ACI and ACII faded away after 20 days since the last dose of morphine. Proteomic analysis of these PM indicated that the brain cortex of morphine-treated animals cannot be regarded as being adapted to this drug because significant up-regulation of proteins functionally related to oxidativ e stress and alteration of brain energy metabolism occurred. The number of δ-OR was increased 2-fold and their sensitivity to monovalent cations was altered. Characterization of δ-OR-G-protein coupling in model HEK293 cell line indicated high ability of lithium to support affinity of δ-OR response to agonist stimulation. Our studies of PM structure and function in context with desensitization of GPCRs action were extended by data indicating participation of cholesterol-enriched membrane domains in agonist-specific internalization of δ-OR. In HEK293 cells stably expressing δ-OR-G1α fusion protein, depletion of PM cholesterol was associated with the decrease in affinity of G-protein response to agonist stimulation, whereas maximum response was unchanged. Hydrophobic interior of isolated PM became more "fluid", chaotically organized and accessible to water molecules. Validity of this conclusion was supported by the analysis of an immediate PM environment of cholesterol molecules in living δ-OR-G1α-HEK293 cells by fluorescent probes 22- and 25-NBD-cholesterol. The alteration of plasma membrane structure by cholesterol depletion made the membrane more hydrated. Understanding of the positive and negative feedback regulatory loops among different OR-initiated signaling cascades (µ-, δ- and κ-OR) is crucial for understanding of the long-term mechanisms of drug addiction as the decrease in functional activity of µ-OR may be compensated by increase of δ-OR and/or κ-OR signaling.

Key words
GPCR • Morphine • µ-, δ- and κ-opioid receptors • Rat brain cortex • Adenylyl cyclase I and II • Proteomic analysis • Monovalent cations • Agonist-induced internalization • Plasma membrane structure • Cholesterol • Membrane domains • Fluorescent probes

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Introduction

Hormones, neurotransmitters and growth factors bind to the cell surface membrane receptors, which may be divided into the three main families: i) coupled with guanine nucleotide-binding regulatory proteins (GPCR), ii) ionic channels, and iii) tyrosine-kinases. Binding of hormones or neurotransmitters to the stereospecific site of receptor molecules located at extracellular side of plasma membrane represents the first step in complicated sequence of molecular events transmitting the signal into the cell interior and initiating the ultimate physiological response. In G-protein-mediated cascades, ligand binding induces conformational change of receptor molecule, which, in the next step, induces dissociation of trimeric G-protein complex (non-active) into the free, active Ga and Gβγ subunits. Subsequently, both Ga and Gβγ subunits activate variety of enzyme activities and/or ionic channels which regulate intracellular concentrations of secondary messengers such as cAMP, cGMP, IP3, DAG, arachidonic acid, sodium, potassium or calcium cations (Svoboda et al. 2004, Drastichova et al. 2008).

Receptors for opioid drugs, μ-OR, δ-OR and κ-OR, were classified as members of rhodopsin family of GPCRs. All these receptors are known to inhibit adenylyl cyclase activity in pertussis-toxin-dependent manner by activation of Gi/Go class of trimeric G-proteins. These proteins (G1, G2, G3, G1, G2) are present in large quantities and inhibit adenylyl cyclase activity or regulate ionic channels in pertussis-toxin-dependent manner.

Morphine binds to all three types of OR (μ-, δ- and κ-OR) and represents one of the most effective painkillers. Repeated exposure of experimental animals to morphine results in tolerance to this drug, development of physical dependence and a chronic relapsing disorder – drug addiction (Contet et al. 2004). Physical dependence contributes to a drug seeking behavior and the continuous drug use with the aim to prevent the onset of unpleasant withdrawal symptoms (Preston et al. 1991). Morphine withdrawal generates a set of symptoms like retches, vomiting, blood pressure increase, insomnia, intestines dysfunctions, body shaking and teeth chatter.

Drug addiction to morphine is characterized by a complex etiology including changes in psychology of experimental animals as well as physiology of their brain function. These changes proceed mainly in the brainstem and hippocampus (Connor and Christie 1999, Law et al. 2000, 2004, Chen et al. 2007). However, some of the long-term behavioral consequences of repeated morphine exposure were related to reorganized patterns of synaptic connectivity in the forebrain (Robinson et al. 1999). Morphine-induced changes of brain function were also associated with alterations of neurotransmission, specific signaling cascades, energy metabolism and stability of protein molecules (Miller et al. 1972, Kim et al. 2005, Li et al. 2006, Li et al. 2009).

Hyper-sensitization or super-activation of adenylyl cyclase (AC) activity by prolonged exposure of cultured cells or mammalian organism to morphine has been demonstrated in previous studies delineating the mechanism of action of this drug (Preston 1991, Connor and Christie 1999, Law et al. 2000, 2004, Contet et al. 2004) and considered as biochemical basis for development of opiate tolerance and dependence.

Our previous work on PM fraction isolated from brain cortex in Percoll gradient of rats exposed to morphine for 10 days (10-50 mg/kg) indicated a desensitization of G-protein response to μ-OR (DAMGO) and δ-OR (DADLE) stimulation (Bourova et al. 2009, 2010) and specific increase of ACI (8-fold) and ACII (2.5-fold) isoforms (Ujčíková et al. 2011). The κ-OR (U-23554)-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding and expression level of ACIII-IX in PM was unchanged. Behavioral tests of morphine-treated animals indicated that these animals were fully drug-dependent (opiate abstinence syndrome) and developed tolerance to subsequent drug addition (analgesic tolerance detected by hot-plate and hind paw withdrawal tests). The increase of ACI and ACII was interpreted as a specific compensatory response to prolonged stimulation of brain cortex OR by morphine.

Proteomic analysis of membrane proteins in rat brain cortex: changes induced by the long-term exposure to increasing doses to morphine

The aim of the next step of our work was the description of an overall change of membrane protein composition and recognition of proteins exhibiting the largest changes induced by morphine. This was performed by proteomic analysis of post-nuclear supernatant (PNS) and plasma membrane-enriched fraction isolated in Percoll gradient. PNS was analyzed because it contains proteins of mitochondrial, endoplasmic reticulum, plasma membrane and cytoplasmic origin. Rats were adapted to morphine for
10 days [10 mg/kg (day 1 and 2), 15 mg/kg (day 3 and 4), 20 mg/kg (day 4 and 5), 30 mg/kg (day 6 and 7), 40 mg/kg (day 8) and 50 mg/kg (day 10)] and sacrificed 24 h after the last dose (group +M10). Control animals were sacrificed in parallel with morphine-treated (group −M10). Post-nuclear supernatant fraction was prepared from brain cortex of both groups and resolved by 2D-ELFO. The gels were stained by Coomassie brilliant blue (CBB) and the altered proteins detected by PDQuest software analysis.

The 10 up-regulated or down-regulated proteins exhibiting the largest morphine-induced change were selected, excised manually from 2D-gel and identified by MALDI-TOF MS/MS. The identified proteins were: 1) (gi|148747414, Guanine deaminase), up 2.5-fold; 2) (gi|17105370, Vacuolar-type proton ATP subunit B, brain isoform), up 2.6-fold; 3) (gi|1352384, Protein disulfide-isomerase A3), up 3.4-fold; 4) (gi|40254595, Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 2), up 3.6-fold; 5) (gi|149054470, N-ethylmaleimide sensitive fusion protein, isoform CRAa), up 2.0-fold; 6) (gi|42476181, Malate dehydrogenase, mitochondrial precursor), up 1.4-fold; 7) (gi|62653546, Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase), up 1.6-fold; 8) (gi|202837, Aldolase A), up 1.3-fold; 9) (gi|31542401, Creatine kinase B-type), down 0.86-fold; 10) (gi|40538860, Aconitate hydratase, mitochondrial precursor), up 1.3-fold. Thus, the ten most highly altered proteins in PNS were of cytoplasmic (proteins no. 1, 4, 5, 7, 9), cell membrane (protein no. 2), endoplasmic reticulum (protein no. 3) and mitochondrial (proteins no. 6, 8, 10) origin and nine of them were significantly increased by morphine (1.3 to 3.6-fold).

Correlation with functional properties of these proteins indicated up-regulation of proteins related to guanine degradation (protein no. 1), vacuolar acidification (protein no. 2), apoptotic cell death (protein no. 3), oxidative stress (proteins no. 4, 6, 7, 10), membrane traffic (protein no. 5) and glycolysis (protein no. 8). The role in apoptosis has been also described for glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (protein no. 7), already mentioned as major target protein in oxidative stress (Hwang et al. 2009). All together, the spectrum of altered proteins suggests a major change of energy metabolism of brain cortex tissue when exposed to increasing doses of morphine. Judged from functional point of view, the most significant change was the up-regulation of proteins related to oxidative stress (proteins no. 4, 6, 7, 10) and apoptotic cell death (proteins no. 3, 7).

We could therefore conclude that the brain cortex of rats exposed to increasing doses of morphine (10-50 mg/kg) for 10 days cannot be regarded as being adapted to this drug. Significant up-regulation of proteins functionally related to oxidative stress and apoptosis indicates the state of severe “discomfort” of brain cells or even damage.

Identification of an active, minority pool of trimeric Gβ subunits responding to chronic morphine in rat brain cortex: proteomic analysis of Percoll-purified membranes

In PM, the altered proteins were of plasma membrane origin [BASP1, Brain acid soluble protein, down-regulated 2.1-fold; GBB, Guanine nucleotide-binding protein subunit beta-1, down 2.0-fold], myelin membrane [MBP, Myelin basic protein S, down 2.5-fold], cytoplasmic [CRKB, Creatine kinase B-type (EC 2.7.3.2), down 2.6-fold; AINX, alpha-internexin, up-regulated 5.2-fold; DPYL2, Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 2, up 4.9-fold; SIRT2, NAD-dependent deacetylase sirtuin-2, up 2.5-fold; SYUA, Alpha-synuclein, up 2.0-fold; PRDX2, Peroxiredoxin-2, up 2.2-fold; TERA, Transitional endoplasmic reticulum ATPase, up 2.1-fold; UCHL1, Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase L1 down 2.0-fold; COR1A, Coronin-1A, down 5.4-fold; SEP11, Septin-11, up 2.2-fold; RL12, 60S ribosomal protein L12, up 2.7-fold] and mitochondrial [DHE3, Glutamate dehydrogenase 1, up 2.7-fold; SCOT1, Succinyl-CoA:3-ketoacid-coenzyme A, up 2.2-fold; AATM, Aspartate aminotransferase, down 2.2-fold; PHB, Prohibitin, up 2.2-fold].

The only member of GPCR-initiated signaling cascades identified by LC-MS/MS in PM was trimeric Gβ subunit (2-GBB) which was decreased 2-fold in samples from morphine-adapted rats. Similarly, proteomic analysis of protein alterations induced by long-term stimulation of HEK293 cells stably expressing TRH-receptor and G11α protein by TRH, indicated the change of 42 proteins, but none of these proteins represented the plasma membrane protein functionally related to G-protein-mediated signaling cascades (Drastichova et al. 2010).

The immunoblot analysis of the same PM resolved by 2D-ELFO indicated that the “active” pool of Gβ subunits affected by morphine, which was decreased 2x, represented just a minor fraction of the total signal of Gβ subunits in 2D-gels (Fig. 1). The total signal of Gβ was
decreased 1.2-fold only but dominant/major part of the total signal was unchanged. Accordingly, the immunoblot analysis of Gβ after resolution by 1D-SDS-PAGE in 10 % w/v acrylamide/0.26 % bis-acrylamide gels indicated no change of this protein. We could therefore conclude that proteomic analysis represents a valuable tool for identification of membrane proteins. However, the analysis of low-abundance proteins of OR-initiated signaling cascades in plasma membranes has to be accompanied by specific immublot analysis. Identification of an “active”, minority pool of Gβ subunits down-regulated by morphine represents an original finding which has not been described in current literature dealing with drug addiction and morphine effect on mammalian brain.

The effect of lithium and other monovalent cations on ligand binding and efficiency of δ-opioid receptor-G-protein coupling

Lithium is still one of the most effective therapies for depression. Comparison of the effect of lithium, sodium and potassium on δ-opioid receptors was studied in HEK293 cells stably expressing PTX-insensitive δ-OR-Gi1α (Cys351-Ile351) fusion protein. δ-OR-Gi1α (C351-I351) cells represent useful experimental tool as the covalent bond between δ-OR and Gi1α(C351-I351) provides the permanent and fixed 1:1 stoichiometry and C351-I351 mutation provides resistance to PTX together with extraordinary high efficacy of coupling between δ-OR and Gi1α(C351-I351) protein (Bourova et al. 2003, Brejchova et al. 2011).

Agonist [3H]DADLE binding was decreased with the order: Na⁺≫Li⁺>K⁺>NMDG⁺. When plotted as a function of increasing NaCl concentrations, binding was best-fitted with a two phase exponential decay considering the two Na⁺-responsive sites (r²=0.99). High-affinity Na⁺-sites were characterized by Kd=7.9 mM and represented 25 % of the basal level determined in the absence of Na⁺ ions. Remaining 75 % represented the low-affinity sites (Kd=463 mM). Inhibition of [3H]DADLE binding by lithium, potassium and NMDG⁺ proceeded in low-affinity manner only. Preferential sensitivity of δ-OR-Gi1α to sodium was thus clearly manifested.

Surprisingly, the affinity/potency of DADLE-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding, quantitatively characterized by comparison of dose-response curves in different ion media (EC₅₀ values), was increased in reverse order: Na⁺<K⁺<Li⁺. This result was demonstrated in PTX-treated as well as PTX-untreated cells (Table 1). Therefore, this finding is not restricted to Gi1α present in fusion protein, but is also valid for stimulation of endogenous G-proteins of G1/G0 family.
Table 1. DADLE-stimulated \[^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP}^\gamma\text{S} binding in membranes prepared from PTX-treated and PTX-untreated \(\delta\)-OR-G\(\alpha_1\) - HEK293 cells.

|                | PTX-treated | PTX-untreated |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
|                | EC\(_{50}\) | %  | B\(_{\text{total}}\) | B\(_{\text{max}}\) | \(\Delta_{\text{max}}\) | EC\(_{50}\) | %  | B\(_{\text{total}}\) | B\(_{\text{max}}\) | \(\Delta_{\text{max}}\) |
| NaCl           | 5.1 \times 10^{-9} M | ** | 350 | 0.143 | 0.499 | 0.356 | 6.5 \times 10^{-9} M | ** | 327 | 0.178 | 0.582 | 0.404 |
| KCl            | 9.6 \times 10^{-9} M | ** | 216 | 0.241 | 0.520 | 0.279 | 2.0 \times 10^{-9} M | ** | 237 | 0.222 | 0.526 | 0.304 |
| LiCl           | 5.4 \times 10^{-9} M | ** | 231 | 0.209 | 0.481 | 0.272 | 8.4 \times 10^{-9} M | ** | 248 | 0.211 | 0.523 | 0.312 |

\[^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP}^\gamma\text{S} binding was measured in P2 membrane fraction isolated from PTX-treated (A) or PTX-untreated cells (B) as described in methods. Binding assays were performed in 200 mM NaCl, KCl or LiCl. EC\(_{50}\) (M) and B\(_{\text{max}}\) (pmol x mg\(^{-1}\)) values were calculated by GraphPadPrism4. B\(_{\text{max}}\) values were also expressed as the ratio (%) between maximum DADLE-stimulated (B\(_{\text{max}}\)) and the basal level (B\(_{\text{basal}}\)) of binding. Net-increment of agonist stimulation (\(\Delta_{\text{max}}\)) was calculated as the difference between B\(_{\text{max}}\) and B\(_{\text{basal}}\) values. Numbers represent the mean ± SEM of 3 binding assays, each performed in triplicates. Data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Neuman-Keuls post test (* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, NS non-significant). (A) In PTX-treated membranes, \[^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP}^\gamma\text{S} binding in the absence of ions was 0.622 pmol x mg\(^{-1}\) and this level was decreased to 0.143 (NaCl), 0.241 (KCl) and 0.209 (LiCl) pmol x mg\(^{-1}\) by addition of 200 mM NaCl, KCl or LiCl, respectively. (B) In PTX-untreated membranes, \[^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP}^\gamma\text{S} binding in the absence of ions was 0.809 pmol x mg\(^{-1}\) and this level was decreased to 0.178 (NaCl), 0.222 (KCl) and 0.211 (LiCl) pmol x mg\(^{-1}\) by addition of 200 mM NaCl, KCl or LiCl, respectively.

This surprising but fully reproducible result may be considered in connection with clinical use of lithium in the treatment of manic depression. In electrically active cells, Li\(^+\) enters the intracellular compartment via "fast" sodium channel (Richelson, 1977) and also via ouabain-sensitive K\(^-\)-influx catalyzed by Na,K-ATPase. However, the efflux of Li\(^+\) via Na,K-ATPase is limited because ATP+Mg\(^+\)+Na-dependent phosphorylation proceeding at inner side of the plasma membrane and outward oriented efflux of Na\(^+\) cations via Na\(^+\)-pump are strictly specific for sodium. Thus, if available in extracellular space, the intracellular Li\(^+\) concentration will be slowly increased. It is reasonable to assume that such conditions may arise in neuronal or glial cells of depressive patients as the effective range of plasma Li\(^+\) concentrations under clinical conditions is 0.6-1.0 mM. The 2 mM LiCl is regarded as toxic. This is exactly the concentration range in which the first significant inhibition of the basal level of \[^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP}^\gamma\text{S} binding was detected in our experiments. The first significant decrease of the basal level of \[^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP}^\gamma\text{S} binding measured in the absence of cations was noticed at 1-2 mM NaCl, KCl and LiCl; the 50% inhibition was reached at 62 mM NaCl, 88 mM LiCl and 92 mM KCl, respectively (Vosahlikova and Svoboda 2011). Thus, in the treatment of acute depression, competitive effect of Li\(^+\) on inverse agonist-like effect of Na\(^+\) on \(\delta\)-OR and, in parallel, on G\(\alpha_0\) class of G-proteins, might be considered as one of plausible mechanisms of Li\(^+\) action besides its numerous other effects on overall cell metabolism (Young 2009).
The role of cholesterol, cholesterol depletion and membrane domains/rafts in structural organization of plasma membrane and transmembrane signaling through G-protein-coupled receptors

Cholesterol constitutes a major component of mammalian plasma (cell) membrane. Its correct distribution among plasma membrane and intracellular membrane compartments is essential for the homeostasis of mammalian cells and intracellular membrane traffic plays a major role in the correct disposition of internalized cholesterol and in the regulation of cholesterol efflux (Maxfield and Wüstner 2002, Scheidt et al. 2003). Furthermore, lateral and transbilayer organization of cholesterol molecules in the plasma membrane determines plasma membrane structure and dynamics. However, neither its intracellular pathways of trafficking nor its precise lateral organization in cholesterol-enriched microdomains such as membrane rafts and caveolae is fully understood. The same applies to the transbilayer distribution between the two leaflets of biological membranes (Simons and Ikonen 1997, Brown and London 1998, Anderson and Jacobson 2002).

Cholesterol- and sphingolipid-enriched membrane domains, characterized by high content of cholesterol, saturated phospholipids, glycolipids and sphingomyelin, have been described as lipid platforms capable to harbor and confine trimeric G-proteins in high amounts (Simons and Ikonen 1997, Brown and London 1998, Anderson 1998, Moffett et al. 2000, Oh and Schnitzer 2001, Anderson and Jacobson 2002, Pike 2004, Quinton et al. 2005). Considering the function of trimeric G-proteins in membrane domains containing caveolin, heterologous desensitization of GPCR signaling was described as specific binding of G-proteins to caveolin (Murthy and Makhlof 2000).

These structures were also reported to play an important role in both positive and negative regulation of transmembrane signaling through G-protein-coupled receptors (Gimpl et al. 1995, Klein et al. 1995, Feron et al. 1997, De Weerd and Leeb-Lundberg 1997, Schwencke et al. 1999, De Luca et al. 2000, Dessy et al. 2000, Lasley et al. 2000, Igarashi and Michel 2000, Ostrom et al. 2000, 2001, Rybin et al. 2000, 2003, Ushio-Fukai et al. 2001, Gimpl and Farenholz 2002, Sabourin et al. 2002, Ostrom and Insel 2004, Pucadyil and Chattopadhyay 2004, 2007, Monastyrskaya et al. 2005, Savi et al. 2006, Xu et al. 2006, Allen et al. 2007, Ostasov et al. 2007, 2008, Chini and Parenti 2009). More specifically, the functional significance of OR presence in membrane domains is far from being understood as cholesterol reduction by methyl-β-cyclodextrin attenuated δ-OR-mediated signaling in neuronal cells but enhanced it in non-neuronal cells (Huang et al. 2007).

In HEK293 cells stably expressing δ-OR-G,1α fusion protein, depletion of PM cholesterol was associated with a decrease (by one order of magnitude) in affinity/potency of G-protein response to agonist stimulation. The maximum response was unchanged (Brejchova et al. 2011). Hydrophobic interior of isolated PM became more “fluid", chaotically organized and more accessible to water molecules. The analysis of PM environment by fluorescent derivatives of cholesterol (22- and 25-NBD-cholesterol) in living δ-OR-G,1α-HEK293 cells confirmed these results because the alteration of plasma membrane structure by cholesterol depletion made the membrane more hydrated (Ostasov et al. 2013). Our data also indicated that small perturbation of PM structure by low, non-ionic detergent concentrations increased GPCR-G-protein coupling, while the high concentrations were strictly inhibitory (Sykora et al. 2009). The close-to-zero level of basal and agonist-stimulated G-protein activity is the typical feature of detergent-resistant membrane domains (DRMs) prepared at high detergent concentrations, 0.5-1 % Triton X-100 (Bourova et al. 2003).

Agonist-induced internalization of δ-opioid receptors

The first evidence for agonist-induced internalization of GPCRs was brought by subcellular fractionation studies of cell homogenate using differential or sucrose density gradient centrifugation. The internalized, endosomal pool of receptor molecules was separated from the major pool of receptor molecules in plasma membranes and was found to be increased by agonist stimulation (Stadel et al. 1983, Waldo et al. 1983, Clark et al. 1985, Hertel et al. 1985, Sibley et al. 1987). In intact cells, the specific, agonist-induced sequestration and internalization of GPCRs was detected by immunofluorescence microscopy of cells expressing β2-AR receptors. β2-AR were transferred from clathrine-coated pits (in the plasma membrane) to clathrine-coated vesicles, rab5-containing early endosomes and back to the plasma membrane (von Zastrow and Kobilka 1992, 1994, Moore et al. 1995,
Pippig et al. 1995). Cellular and molecular mechanisms of GPCR internalization are in focus of OR studies as one the leading theories of drug addiction is directly based on atypical parameters of μ-OR internalization (Whistler and von Zastrow 1998, Whistler et al. 1999). When exposed to morphine, μ-OR remain at PM and in this way elude desensitization by β-arrestin.

Our analysis of HEK293 cells transiently expressing Flag-epitope tagged version of δ-OR indicated that cholesterol depletion alone induced transfer of receptor molecules into the cell interior (Fig. 2A, upper right and left panels). Incubation of cells with 10 mM β-cyclodextrin (β-CDX, 30 min) caused significant increase of intracellular fluorescence (p<0.05), while in control, β-CDX-untreated cells, the small intracellular signal distributed among numerous faint fluorescent patches was unchanged in the course of 30 min incubation in serum-free medium alone (Fig. 2B). Massive transfer of receptor molecules from the cell surface (plasma membrane) into the intracellular compartments was noticed after agonist stimulation (100 nM DADLE). This transfer was decreased in β-CDX-treated cells (Fig. 2A, lower right and left panels). Difference between β-CDX-treated and β-CDX-plus DADLE-treated samples was highly significant (p<0.01) (Fig. 2B).

We could therefore conclude that the treatment of HEK293 cells with β-CDX alone, i.e. degradation of membrane domains, induced destabilization of HEK293 plasma membrane structure manifested as spontaneous transfer of a portion of δ-OR molecules into the cell interior. Massive internalization of δ-OR proceeding in the presence of specific agonist was suppressed by β-CDX. This part of internalized receptor molecules may be regarded as functionally related to membrane domains.

Fig. 2. Agonist (DADLE)-induced internalization of δ-OR is attenuated by cholesterol depletion. HEK293T cells transiently transfected with FLAG-tagged δ-OR were in vivo labeled with the corresponding anti-tag antibodies, exposed to serum-free DMEM (Control), 10 mM β-CDX in serum-free DMEM (CDX), 100 nM DADLE (DADLE), or 10 mM β-CDX plus 100 nM DADLE in serum-free DMEM (CDX+DADLE) for 30 min, and fixed. After fixation the cells were subjected to indirect immunofluorescence with Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated secondary antibodies and imaged with laser scanning confocal microscopy. Left panels (A) show representative micrographs of cells expressing FLAG-tagged δ-OR and treated as described above. Right panel (B) displays results from quantification of micrographs performed by ImageJ software. Fraction of internalized receptors was calculated as a ratio of intracellular to total signal determined in 8 cells per each condition, averaged and normalized to values obtained by agonist (DADLE) stimulation. Data represent the average of three experiments, i.e. three independent transfections, ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA repeated measurements with Bonferroni post-hoc test. *, **, represent the significant difference, p<0.05, p<0.01.
Conclusions and future perspectives

Understanding of the positive and negative feedback regulatory loops among different OR-initiated signaling cascades (µ-, δ-, and κ-OR) is crucial for understanding of the long-term mechanisms of drug addiction as the decrease in functional activity of µ-OR may be compensated by increase of δ-OR and/or κ-OR signaling. In our experiments using increasing doses of morphine (10-50 mg/kg) for 10 days, the decrease of functional activity of µ-OR in brain cortex PM was measured together with decrease of δ-OR signaling (agonist-stimulated, high-affinity [35S]GTPγS binding). In parallel PM samples, membrane density of adenylyl cyclase I and II was markedly increased; the other AC isoforms (III-IX) were unchanged. The highly positive and “optimistic” result (for drug addicts) was that the up-regulation of ACI and ACII faded away 20 days since the last dose of morphine.

Rat brain cortex of rats sacrificed 24 h after the last dose of morphine (50 mg/kg) cannot be regarded as “being adapted” as the proteomic analysis suggests a major alteration/reorganization of energy metabolism of brain cortex cells: four out of nine up-regulated proteins were described as functionally related to oxidative stress; the two proteins were related to genesis of apoptotic cell death. This was not an optimistic finding indeed (for drug addicts), however, further research is needed to find out whether these changes are reversible as the up-regulation of ACI and ACII after 20 days of drug withdrawal.

Analysis of model HEK293 cell line expressing the defined type of OR (δ-OR) indicated that degradation of membrane domains/rafts by cholesterol depletion resulted in decrease of affinity of δ-OR-response to agonist stimulation in parallel with increase of “fluidity” and hydration of PM. Agonist binding to δ-OR was unchanged. Perturbation of optimum PM organization by cholesterol depletion deteriorated the functional coupling between δ-OR and G-proteins while receptor ligand binding site was unchanged. Therefore, the biophysical state of hydrophobic PM interior should be regarded as regulatory factor of δ-OR-signaling cascade.

In HEK293 cells expressing δ-OR-G1α (Cys351-Ile351) fusion protein, the inverse agonist-like effect of monovalent cations on δ-OR was detected as inhibition of agonist binding. Maximum of G-protein response to agonist stimulation was preferentially oriented to sodium with the order: Na+≫Li+>K+>NMDG+. Surprisingly, affinity of G-protein response was preferentially supported by lithium.

Modern biophysical and confocal microscopy techniques (fluorescence lifetime imaging, fluorescence resonance energy transfer, raster image correlation spectroscopy) are being introduced at present time for the analysis of agonist-induced change of receptor mobility in HEK293 cell lines transiently expressing δ-OR-CFP, δ-OR-YFP and δ-OR-CFP plus δ-OR-YFP. Stably transfected HEK293 cells expressing TRH-R-eGFP and fluorescence recovery after photobleaching are used as reference standard when testing agonist-specific alteration of receptor mobility in living cells.

Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest.

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