www.nature.com/bjp

Differential activation of G-proteins by μ -opioid receptor agonists

^{1,2}Zuzana Saidak, ²Katherine Blake-Palmer, ³Debbie L. Hay, ⁴John K. Northup & *,²Michelle Glass

¹The Liggins Institute, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand; ²Department of Pharmacology and Clinical Pharmacology, Faculty of Medical and Health Sciences, University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, New Zealand; ³School of Biological Sciences, University of Auckland, New Zealand and ⁴National Institute of Health, National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders, Bethesda, MD, U.S.A.

- 1 We investigated the ability of the activated μ -opioid receptor (MOR) to differentiate between myristoylated G_{zi1} and G_{zoA} type G_z proteins, and the maximal activity of a range of synthetic and endogenous agonists to activate each G_z protein.
- 2 Membranes from HEK293 cells stably expressing transfected MOR were chaotrope extracted to denature endogenous G-proteins and reconstituted with specific purified G-proteins. The G_{α} subunits were generated in bacteria and were demonstrated to be recognised equivalently to bovine brain purified G_{α} protein by CB₁ cannabinoid receptors. The ability of agonists to catalyse the MOR-dependent GDP/[35 S]GTP_{α}S exchange was then compared for $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$.
- 3 Activation of MOR by DAMGO produced a high-affinity saturable interaction for G_{zoA} ($K_{\text{m}} = 20 \pm 1 \,\text{nM}$) but a low-affinity interaction with G_{zi1} ($K_{\text{m}} = 116 \pm 12 \,\text{nM}$). DAMGO, metenkephalin and leucine-enkephalin displayed maximal G_{z} activation among the agonists evaluated. Endomorphins 1 and 2, methadone and β -endorphin activated both G_{z} to more than 75% of the maximal response, whereas fentanyl partially activated both G-proteins.
- **4** Buprenorphine and morphine demonstrated a statistically significant difference between the maximal activities between G_{zi1} and G_{zoA} . Interestingly, DAMGO, morphine, endomorphins 1 and 2, displayed significant differences in the potencies for the activation of the two G_z . Differences in maximal activity and potency, for G_{zi1} versus G_{zoA} , are both indicative of agonist selective activation of G-proteins in response to MOR activation.
- 5 These findings may provide a starting point for the design of drugs that demonstrate greater selectivity between these two G-proteins and therefore produce a more limited range of effects. *British Journal of Pharmacology* (2006) **147**, 671–680. doi:10.1038/sj.bjp.0706661; published online 16 January 2006

Keywords:

Opioid; G-protein; MOR; agonist selectivity of G-proteins; inverse agonist; analgesia

Abbreviations:

AEBSF, 4-(2-aminoethyl)benzenesulphonyl fluoride; β-CNA, β-chlornaltrexamine; BSA, bovine serum albumin; CHAPS, 3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulphonate; DAMGO, [D-Ala²,N-Me-Phe⁴,Gly⁵-ol]-enkephalin; DEAE sephacel, diethylaminoethyl sephacel; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; DTT, dithiothreitol; FBS, fetal bovine serum; G418, geneticin; G-protein, guanine nucleotide binding protein; GDP, guanosine diphosphate; GTP_γS, guanosine 5'-O-(3-thio)triphosphate; HEK293 cells, human embryonic kidney cells; HU210, (6aR-*trans*-3-(1,1-dimethylheptyl)-6a,7,10,10a-tetrahydro-1-hydroxy-6,6-dimethyl-6H-dibenzo[b,d]pyran-9-methanol; MOPS, 4-morpholinepropanesulphonic acid; MOR, μ-opioid receptor; ORL1, opioid receptor-like 1 receptor; P2, post nuclear fraction; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; PTX, pertussis toxin; [35S]GTP_γS, [35S]guanosine-5'-O-(3-thio)triphosphate; Sf9, Spodoptera frugiperda cells; SR141716, (6aR-*trans*-3-(1,1-dimethylheptyl)-6a,7,10,10a-tetrahydro-1-hydroxy-6,6-dimethyl-6H-dibenzo [b,d]pyran-9-methanol; Tris, 2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)-1,3-propanediol; Tris/HCl, 2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)-1,3-propanediol hydrochloride

Introduction

The opioid receptors belong to the G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) superfamily. There are three different opioid receptor subtypes – μ , κ and δ and the structurally homologous ORL1 (Dooley & Houghten, 2000), which has also been suggested to bind certain opioid ligands (Lutfy *et al.*, 2003). The μ -opioid receptor (MOR) is primarily involved in the regulation of pain (Przewlocki & Przewlocka, 2001). Like many other GPCRs, MOR couples to multiple G-protein α subunits, including all members of the $G_{\alpha i/\alpha}$ family (Childers, 1991), including the

pertussis toxin insensitive G_{zz} (Wong *et al.*, 1992), and $G_{z1/0}$ (Offermanns & Simon, 1995). Activation of $G_{zi/0}$ subunits by MOR has been shown to decrease forskolin-induced intracellular levels of cAMP, inhibit calcium channels and activate inwardly rectifying potassium (K_{ir}) channels (North *et al.*, 1987; Moises *et al.*, 1994). In addition to the clinically useful analgesic effect, activation of MOR also leads to various other effects, such as vomiting, nausea, hypothermia, constipation, respiratory suppression and death. It has been hypothesised that the different effects of the drugs acting through MOR might be mediated by the activation of different G-proteins (Sanchez-Blazquez *et al.*, 2001).

 $K_{\rm ir}$ channels, which are activated by opioid ligands through $G_{zi/o}$ subunits, have been suggested to be the primary pathway involved in the production of analgesia by opioids and other analgesic drugs (Mark & Herlitze, 2000). It has been shown that the ATP-sensitive potassium ($K_{\rm ATP}$) channels, members of the $K_{\rm ir}$ family, are differentially modulated by distinct $G_{zi/o}$ subunits. In a study by Sanchez *et al.* (1998) G_{zi1} increased channel activity to a greater extent than G_{zi2} . Therefore, we hypothesise that preferential activation of different G_z subunits by certain opioid ligands may lead to a more selective response, devoid of adverse effects and maximising analgesia.

The ability of certain drugs to preferentially activate one intracellular pathway over another has been termed 'stimulus trafficking'. Kenakin first proposed the concept of stimulus trafficking after observing a change in potency order of agonists in activating different intracellular pathways in numerous studies (for review, see Kenakin, 2003). Preferential activation of one signalling cascade over another has previously been shown to occur for cannabinoid receptors (CB₁) (Glass & Northup, 1999), serotonin receptors (Berg et al., 2001) and adrenergic receptors (Eason et al., 1994; Kukkonen et al., 2001). The opioid receptors are good candidates for the investigation of agonist-specific receptor conformations because only four different receptors have been cloned with the potential to bind opioid ligands, yet there are at least 10 different endogenous opioid agonists (Bodnar & Klein, 2004). A possible explanation for the need of surplus endogenous ligands is for differential activation of the receptors.

In vivo studies have suggested that G_{α} coupling to MOR is agonist-selective (Sanchez-Blazquez et al., 1995; 2001). These studies showed that some opioid drugs produced different levels of analgesia in $G_{\alpha i1}$ or $G_{\alpha o1}$ knockdown mice. Analgesia produced by endomorphins 1 and 2, and methadone was dependent on $G_{\alpha i1}$. Methadone also displayed reduced analgesia in $G_{\alpha o1}$ knockdown mice (Sanchez-Blazquez et al., 2001). However, analgesia can be influenced by many other receptors, such as cannabinoid and adrenergic receptors. As both these classes of receptors are coupled to G-proteins, including $G_{\alpha i}$ and $G_{\alpha o}$, these analgesic pathways may not function normally in G_{α} knockdown mice (Meng et al., 1998; Bie et al., 2003). In order to further investigate this, we have utilised $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ in this study, as representative G-proteins of the $G_{\alpha i}$ and $G_{\alpha o}$ subfamilies.

To determine proximal events in MOR signal transduction, we used an in situ reconstitution technique to study agonistdependent MOR activation of different pathways at the G-protein level. This approach enables the precise characterisation of the coupling properties of the receptors to individual G-protein subtypes and has previously been utilised to investigate 5-HT_{2c} receptors coupling to $G_{\alpha q}$ (Hartman & Northup, 1996), gastrin-releasing peptide receptor coupling to $G_{\alpha q}$ (Hellmich et al., 1997) and bombesin receptor coupling to various G_{α} subunits (Jian et al., 1999) and to demonstrate agonist selective G-protein activation of cannabinoid CB1 receptors (Glass & Northup, 1999). These studies utilised G-proteins isolated and purified from native tissues, such as bovine brain or squid retina to obtain G-proteins with the appropriate post-translational modifications for proper functional interaction with receptor. However, it is quite arduous to obtain clearly homogeneous samples of the structurally

similar G-proteins from native membrane sources. In this study, we have utilised homogeneously myristoylated recombinant G_{xi1} and G_{xoA} subunits generated through bacterial expression and $\beta_1\gamma_2$ subunits produced in Sf9 insect cells. We demonstrate that these homogeneous gene products act comparably to those proteins isolated from bovine brain. The $\beta_1\gamma_2$ dimer was used throughout our experiments, as it is the main $\beta\gamma$ dimer expressed in the brain (Clapham & Neer, 1993). In our experiments, *in situ* reconstitution of MOR receptors with purified G-protein subunits revealed G-protein-selective agonist activation with select opioid ligands. We have also demonstrated that the basal and agonist-driven G-protein activation of certain opioid ligands through MOR is Mg^{2+} dependent.

Methods

 CB_1 receptor expression and quantification

Membranes from Sf9 cells infected with baculoviruses encoding the human CB_1 receptor were prepared and washed with urea as previously described (Glass & Northup, 1999). The final pellet was suspended in solution A (10 mM MOPS, 1 mM EGTA and $10\,\mu\text{M}$ AEBSF, pH 7.5) with 200 mM sucrose, and aliquots were snap frozen and stored at -80°C . Binding site abundance was determined by saturation binding assay using 0.1–30 nM [^3H]SR141716A (CB $_1$ antagonist) as previously described (Glass & Northup, 1999).

MOR transfection

HEK293 cells were transfected with pcDNA3 containing hMOR gene utilising Lipofectamine 2000 following manufacturer's instructions. Cells were selected under $400 \,\mu\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ G418 selection pressure for at least a week. Clonal isolation was then performed by limiting dilution. The expression levels of a range of clones were screened by whole-cell receptor binding assays as described below, and the clone expressing the highest level of receptors was utilised for all subsequent studies. High receptor expression was required to obtain an observable signal in our assays.

Whole-cell binding assay to select HEK293 cell clones expressing MOR

Following clonal isolation of transfected cells, clones were screened for receptor expression by whole-cell binding assay utilising [³H]diprenorphine. Cells were plated in a 24-well plate at 2×10^5 cells per well and allowed to grow overnight, before exposure to 5 nM [³H]diprenorphine in Krebs buffer (5.6 mM glucose, 125 mM NaCl, 4.8 mM KCl, 1.2 mM KH₂PO₄, 1.3 mM CaCl₂, 1.2 mM MgSO₄, 25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 1 mM ascorbic acid) at 30°C for 1 h. Nonspecific binding was determined by the addition of 2.5 μ M naloxone. The reaction mix was removed and cells were gently washed with ice-cold Krebs buffer. Then, 250 μ l of 0.1 M NaOH was added per well and the plate was agitated for 20 min. From the resulting cell lysate, 200 μ l was transferred to another plate, scintillation fluid was added and radioactivity was counted in a Wallac Trilux Microbeta counter.

Membrane preparation and chaotrope extraction

HEK293 cells expressing MOR were grown to 80% confluence. Media was removed and the cells were harvested into solution A. The cells were lysed using a dounce homogeniser, with 40 strokes. P2 membrane fractions were collected by repeated centrifugation. Nuclei and cell debri were removed by centrifugation at $1600 \times g$ for $10 \, \text{min}$ at 4°C. The supernatant was centrifuged at $40,000 \times g$ for $30 \, \text{min}$ at 4°C to collect the P2 membrane fraction. Protein content of the P2 was determined using a Lowry protein assay, performed according to manufacturer's protocol (Bio-Rad, Auckland, New Zealand).

To denature endogenous G-proteins, membranes were diluted to $0.75\,\mathrm{mg\,ml^{-1}}$ in $7\,\mathrm{M}$ urea in solution B (50 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.5; 5 mM MgCl₂; 1 mM EDTA, $10\,\mu\mathrm{M}$ AEBSF) and incubated on ice for 30 min before four-fold dilution in solution B. The pellet was sedimented at $125,000\times g$ for 1 h at 4°C, then washed in solution B, and repelleted before resuspension and stored at $-80\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ in solution A with 200 mM sucrose.

Saturation-binding assay to quantify receptor number

Receptor number in $40\,\mu g$ of P2 membranes was determined by saturation-binding assay with [3 H]diprenorphine (0.625–10 nM). Nonspecific binding was determined by the addition of $5\,\mu M$ naloxone as a displacer. The binding reaction was performed for 1 h at 30°C in solution C (10 mM MOPS pH 7.5, 1 mM MgCl₂ and 100 mM NaCl). The reaction was then filtered through GF-B filter paper, washed 3 times with ice-cold solution C. MeltiLex was then melted onto the dried filter and trapped radioactivity was quantified by scintillation counting in a Wallac Trilux Microbeta counter.

Purification of G_{α} subunits

Myristoylated recombinant $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ were produced in Escherichia coli, expressing G_{α} and N-myristoyltransferase, following previously published procedures (Mumby & Linder, 1994) with modifications as described below. Bacterial pellets expressing myristoylated G_{α} were collected and resuspended in TED buffer (50 mm Tris/HCl pH 8, 1 mm EDTA, 1 mm DTT, 100 μM AEBSF). Lysozyme was added to final concentration of $0.2 \,\mathrm{mg}\,\mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ and the mixture was incubated on ice for 30 min. Subsequently, MgSO₄ was added to a final concentration of 5 mM and 50,000 U l⁻¹ of DnaseI was added, this was then incubated on ice for 30 min. The lysate was centrifuged in Beckman JA14 at $19,000 \times g$ for 1 h at 4°C. The supernatant was collected and combined with 200 ml DEAE-A25 Sephadex that has been equilibrated in TED buffer. This was incubated on ice for 30 min with stirring. The resin was collected on a Whatman No. 4 filter in a Buchner funnel and washed with 200 ml TED. The flow through was loaded onto 400 ml DEAE-Sephacel column and this was eluted overnight with 21 gradient from 0 to 300 mM NaCl, collecting 700 drop fractions. G_{α} subunit concentration was assessed by [35S]GTP_yS binding (Northup et al., 1982) and by pertussis toxin-catalysed ADPribosylation (Fawzi et al., 1991). The progress of [35S]GTP_vS binding or ADP-ribosylation was monitored over a time course until the reactions were complete, usually between 90 and 120 min. The positive fractions were pooled and adjusted

to $1.2 \,\mathrm{M}$ (NH₄)₂SO₄, $100 \,\mu\mathrm{M}$ AEBSF and $25 \,\mu\mathrm{M}$ GDP were added to stabilise G_{α} . The G-protein mixture was incubated for 10 min and centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min to remove precipitated protein. The supernatant was applied to an equilibrated 200 ml Phenyl Sepharose column and eluted with a 11 descending gradient of 1.2–0 M (NH₄)₂SO₄ in TED buffer containing 25 µM GDP, collecting 15 ml fractions. TED buffer was applied (250 ml) with 25 μ M GDP. Fractions collected were analysed for the presence of G_{α} using pertussis toxincatalysed ADP-ribosylation assay. Fractions from the second peak of activity, containing the myristoylated G_{α} , were collected and diluted to 20 mm (NH₄)₂SO₄ and applied to a 100 ml fast Q column and equilibrated with TED buffer containing 10 µM GDP. The final purified protein was eluted with a 500 ml gradient of NaCl (0-300 mM) and 6 ml fractions were collected, snap frozen and stored at -80°C.

Purification of $G_{\beta I\gamma 2}$ proteins

Heterodimeric $\beta_1 \gamma_2$ were isolated from Sf9 cells coinfected with baculoviruses encoding these subunits. P2 membranes were prepared as described above and extracted with 1% cholate and the $\beta_1 \gamma_2$ was purified essentially as described by Wildman et al. (1993). Briefly, the cholate extract was chromatographed over a 50 ml column of DEAE Sephacel eluted with a gradient of 0-250 mm NaCl in solution D (20 mm Tris pH 8.0, 1 mm EDTA, 1 mm DTT) and 1% cholate. The $G_{\beta_{1}\gamma_{2}}$ protein pool was collected, concentrated to about 4ml with an Amicon stirred filtration cell and applied to a 200 ml column of Ultrogel ACA 34 sizing gel. The subunits were eluted from the column with solution D with 100 mM NaCl and 1% cholate. The subunits were then placed into a storage solution (10 mM MOPS pH 7.5, $1\,\text{mM}$ MgCl₂, $100\,\text{mM}$ NaCl with $8\,\text{mM}$ CHAPS) by chromatography on a Sephadex G50 column, snap frozen and stored at -80° C.

In situ reconstitution of cannabinoid CB_1 receptors with G-protein subunits

Receptor catalysed GDP/[35S]GTP_yS exchange was determined as previously described (Glass & Northup, 1999) by incubation of $\sim 4 \text{ nM}$ of CB₁ receptor (8–12 μ g membrane protein), with varying concentrations of G_{α} subunits in the presence of a saturating concentration of $\beta_1 \gamma_2$ (100 nM) (Glass & Northup, 1999). As [35S]GTP_vS binding proceeded linearly beyond 10 min this time was used to estimate rates in all experiments (Glass & Northup, 1999). The assays were carried out at 30°C in a final reaction volume of 50 µl containing 10 mm MOPS pH 7.5, 2 mm MgCl₂, 1 mm EDTA, 100 mm NaCl, 0.5% (w/v) BSA, $2.5 \,\mu\text{M}$ GDP and [^{35}S]GTP_vS (0.4–0.8 nM to 2–5 × 10⁵ c.p.m.). G-protein-binding activity was measured with urea-washed membrane reconstituted with purified G_{α} and $G_{\beta\gamma}$ proteins in the presence and absence of saturating levels of HU210 (1 μ M). Reactions were terminated by the addition of 2.5 ml of solution E (20 mm Tris/HCl pH 8, 100 mm NaCl, 11 mm MgCl₂), and filtered over nitrocellulose membranes on a Millipore vacuum manifold. Filters were washed 4 times with 2.5 ml of solution E and then dried, before addition of Starscint scintillation fluid and counting in a Wallac Trilux. All experiments were carried out in siliconised test tubes, to prevent adsorption of HU210 to the tubes.

In situ reconstitution of MOR with G-protein subunits

MOR catalysed GDP/[35 S]GTP $_{\gamma}$ S exchange was determined by incubation of MOR containing membranes ($\sim 4\,\mathrm{nM}$, $10\,\mu\mathrm{g}$ protein per reaction) with varying concentrations of G_{α} subunits in the presence of saturating $\beta_1\gamma_2$ (200 nM). The assays were carried out as described above with a slightly modified reaction mixture containing 50 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.5, 3 mM MgCl $_2$, 0.2 mM EDTA with all other reagents as specified above. Reactions were terminated and the filters scintillation counted as described above. Agonist concentration—response experiments were performed to compare the opioid receptor activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ or $G_{\alpha oA}$, using several different endogenous, synthetic or plant-derived agonists compared to the highly efficacious synthetic opioid DAMGO. All experiments were performed using K_{m} levels of either $G_{\alpha i1}$ or $G_{\alpha oA}$, under conditions described above.

Magnesium dependence of β -CNA, naloxone, buprenorphine and DAMGO

The *in situ* reconstitution assay was used to determine the influence of Mg^{2+} on the basal activity of MOR and to test the effect of Mg^{2+} on the maximal activity of opioid drugs (β -CNA, naloxone, buprenorphine and DAMGO) at $1\,\mu$ M at MOR. Urea-washed membranes (4 nM, $10\,\mu$ g per reaction) were incubated with $20\,\text{nM}$ G_{α OA} or $116\,\text{nM}$ G_{α II} and $200\,\text{nM}$ $\beta_1\gamma_2$ with 0, 1, 3 and $10\,\text{mM}$ additional Mg^{2+} , in a reaction mix of $10\,\text{mM}$ MOPS pH 7.5, $1\,\text{mM}$ EDTA, $100\,\text{mM}$ NaCl, 0.5% (w/v) BSA, $4\,\mu$ M GDP and $\sim 0.5\,\text{nM}$ [35 S]GTP $_\gamma$ S. The reaction was carried out as described above.

Data analysis

The [3 H]diprenorphine saturation binding experiments were conducted in triplicate and were repeated at least 3 times. Nonspecific binding was subtracted from total binding. Nonlinear regression analysis for a single site Michaelis–Menton interaction was fitted to the resulting data with GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, U.S.A.; version 3.02), and using the B_{max} from this curve, the receptor number was calculated using the specific activity of [3 H]diprenorphine.

 G_{α} protein saturation experiments were performed at least 3 times for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ in duplicate for both CB_1 and MOR. K_m values for the agonist catalysed $GDP/[^{35}S]GTP_{\gamma}S$ exchange were calculated using nonlinear regression analysis for a single site Michaelis–Menton interaction with GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, CA, U.S.A.; version 3.02).

Agonist saturation analyses were determined for both G_{zoA} and G_{zi1} . Experiments were performed at approximate K_m values (20 nM G_{zoA} and 116 nM G_{zi1}). All experiments were repeated at least 3 times with duplicate determinations of each condition. Seven to nine different concentrations of each agonist were used and the resulting curve was used to determine the EC_{50} values and the maximal G_z activation for each agonist, given as a percentage of the maximal G_z activation produced at saturating concentrations of DAMGO (10 μ M), a highly efficacious MOR agonist (Traynor *et al.*, 2002), using the GraphPad Prism (version 3.02) sigmoidal dose–response curve analysis. Statistical analysis, comparing

results for G_{zi1} versus G_{zoA} , was performed on all data using GraphPad Prism, version 3.02, t-test analysis.

In Mg^{2+} dependence experiments, the ratios of the basal activity were determined by dividing the basal activity at each Mg^{2+} concentration by the basal activity in the absence of added Mg^{2+} . Signal ratios were determined by dividing the agonist-specific signal at each Mg^{2+} concentration by the basal activity at the same concentration. To analyse differences between the two G_{α} subunits and between different Mg^{2+} concentrations, statistical analysis was performed on all data using GraphPad Prism, version 3.02 two-way ANOVA. To analyse differences between two groups of values, *t*-test analysis was used (GraphPad Prism, version 3.02).

Materials

DAMGO was purchased from Tocris, Australian Laboratory Services NZ Ltd, Auckland, New Zealand. Endomorphin 1, endomorphin 2, leucine-enkephalin, met-enkephalin, β -endorphin, morphine, methadone, fentanyl, buprenorphine, naloxone and β -CNA were purchased from Sigma, Sydney, Australia. [3H]Diprenorphine, [35S]GTP_vS, MeltiLex A (Wallac) and Starscint were purchased from Perkin-Elmer, Melbourne, Australia. Lipofectamine 2000, G418, GDP, DMEM, FBS and trypsin-EDTA were purchased from Invitrogen, Auckland, New Zealand. [3H]SR141716A was purchased from Amersham Biosciences, Auckland, New Zealand. DEAE-Sephacel, Phenyl Sepharose, Fast Q and Sephadex G50 columns were purchased from Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Piscataway, NJ, U.S.A. Ultrogel ACA 34 sizing gel was received from IBF Biotechnics, Villeneuve-la-Garenne, France. Lowry assay reagents were purchased from Bio-Rad, Auckland, New Zealand. HEK293 cells were purchased from ATCC (Manassas, VA, U.S.A.) and Sf9 cells were received from Invitrogen, Rockville, MD, U.S.A. A pcDNA3 expression plasmid encoding for human MOR was a generous gift from Professor L. Devi (Mount Sinai School of Medicine, NY, U.S.A.).

Results

Validation of recombinant myristoylated G-proteins

This study has utilised $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ generated by recombinant expression in E. coli to evaluate receptor activation of specific G_{α} proteins. In order to ensure that the recombinant G-proteins behaved similarly to the previously utilised brain G-proteins, we first assessed the affinity of their interaction with cannabinoid CB1 receptors. All reactions were carried out in the presence of saturating $\beta_1 \gamma_2$ (100 nm) (Glass & Northup, 1999) to determine the contribution of G_{α} subunit to the extent of activation. Cannabinoid CB1 receptor (~4 nM) was incubated with varying concentrations of G_{α} in the presence or absence of the high-affinity cannabinoid agonist HU210. As previously demonstrated (Glass & Northup, 1999), activated CB₁ receptors catalysed GDP/[35S]GTP_yS exchange for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ (Figure 1a) and $G_{\alpha oA}$ (Figure 1b) with high affinity. The affinity of interaction of CB_1 receptors with $G_{\alpha i1}$ was identical to that previously reported for a $G_{\alpha i}$ trimer pool from bovine brain (Figure 1a; $K_{\rm m=}26\pm2$, n=3 versus 28 ± 2 nM; Glass & Northup, 1999). In contrast, recombinant $G_{\alpha o A}$ displayed a

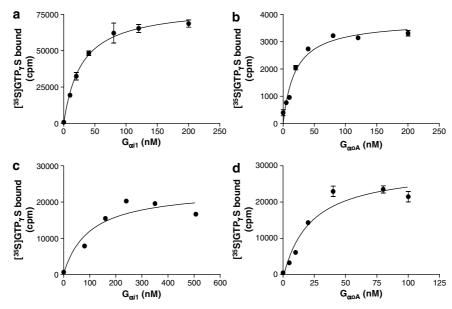


Figure 1 Reconstitution of CB_1 (a, b) and MOR (c, d) receptors with G_{zi1} (a, c) and G_{zoA} (b, d). Urea-extracted CB_1 or MOR membranes were assessed for agonist stimulated [^{35}S]GTP $_{\gamma}S$ binding at the indicated concentrations of G_z protein in the presence of 100 nM $\beta_1\gamma_2$ or 200 nM $\beta_1\gamma_2$, respectively, with either 1 μ M HU210 (a, b) or 1 μ M DAMGO (c, d). Specific agonist-stimulated [^{35}S]GTP $_{\gamma}S$ binding was calculated by subtracting binding in the presence of agonist from binding in the absence of agonist at each G_z concentration. The data presented are the averages and errors of duplicate values from a representative experiment. The experiments were performed 3 times.

2.3-fold higher affinity for CB₁ receptor than that observed for bovine brain G_{zo} ($K_m = 29 \pm 4$, n = 3 versus 81 ± 9 previously; Glass & Northup, 1999) (Figure 1b). Agonist stimulation at K_m G_{zi1} and G_{zoA} concentrations resulted in an approximately three-fold increase above basal activity.

Reconstitution of opioid receptor signal transduction

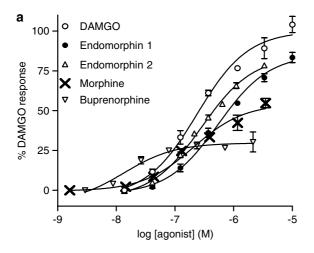
HEK293 cells were transfected with a plasmid construct expressing MOR and clonally isolated. Individual clones were screened for receptor expression by whole-cell binding assay using [3H]diprenorphine. Membranes from the selected clone contained a receptor number of $21 \pm 3 \,\mathrm{pmol \, mg^{-1}}$ of membrane protein, determined by saturation binding assay. The remainder of the harvested membranes were urea-washed, as described in Methods. [3H]Diprenorphine binding was equivalent in membranes before and following urea washing, indicating that the receptors are not denatured by the chaotrope extraction (data not shown). No opioid regulation of the rate of [35S]GTP₂S binding was observed in the absence of expressed MOR (data not shown). The opioid receptor containing membranes displayed a low rate of GDP/ [35S]GTP_yS exchange for $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ in the absence of agonist, which was related to G_{α} protein concentration in a linear fashion (data not shown). The addition of DAMGO significantly increased the rate of $GDP/[^{35}S]GTP_{\gamma}S$ exchange for both G_{α} . When the contribution of the endogenous membrane [35S]GTP_vS binding and basal G-protein activity were removed from the total binding signal to assess the specific agonist-stimulated GDP/[35S]GTP_vS exchange rates, the data were best fit by a single site saturation isotherm (Figure 1c and d). From the nonlinear regression, a five-fold higher apparent affinity of MOR for $G_{\alpha o A}$ than for $G_{\alpha i 1}$, with $K_{\rm m}$ of $20\pm1\,{\rm nM}$, compared to $116\pm12\,{\rm nM}$ could be determined. Agonist stimulation at $K_{\rm m}$ $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ concentrations resulted in an approximately three-fold increase above basal activity.

Agonist concentration-response curves

To address whether agonist-selective G-protein regulation occurs, we performed a set of agonist concentration–response experiments. These experiments compared the ligand saturation of the opioid receptor activation of G_{zi1} or G_{zoA} , with several different endogenous, synthetic or plant-derived agonists compared to the highly efficacious synthetic opioid DAMGO (Traynor *et al.*, 2002). All experiments were performed using K_m levels of either G_{zi1} or G_{zoA} .

All endogenous opioid ligands displayed high maximal activity in the activation of both G-protein α subunits. Endomorphins 1 and 2 and β -endorphin activated both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha o A}$ to more than 75% of the maximal response produced by DAMGO (Figure 2 and Table 1). Both met-enkephalin and leucine-enkephalin maximally activated both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ (Table 1). Plant-derived and synthetic opioid ligands generally produced lower maximal activities in the activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha o A}$ than the endogenous opioids. Morphine caused a partial $(66\pm4\%)$ activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ (Figure 2a), but activated $G_{\alpha oA}$ to a greater extent ($88 \pm 2\%$ of maximal; Figure 2b). Fentanyl displayed high potency in activating both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ and it activated both G_{α} subunits partially (Table 1). Buprenorphine partially activated both G_{α} subunits, but for $G_{\alpha i1}$ produced a very low maximal activity, $29 \pm 4\%$ of the maximal response (Figure 2a) compared to $48\pm2\%$ for $G_{\alpha o A}$ (Figure 2b). Methadone activated both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ to more than 75% of the maximal response (Table 1).

Interestingly, morphine and buprenorphine showed a statistically significant difference between the extents of



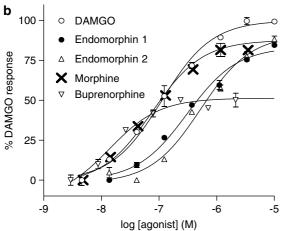


Figure 2 Agonist saturation-binding analysis for MOR agonist stimulated [35 S]GTP $_{7}$ S binding to purified G-proteins. Urea-washed MOR membranes were incubated at 116 nM G_{si1} (a) and 20 nM G_{zoA} (b) with 200 nM added β_{172} and the indicated concentrations of endomorphin 1, endomorphin 2, morphine, buprenorphine and DAMGO. The data presented are the averages and errors of duplicate values from a representative experiment, given as a percentage of the maximal DAMGO response ($10\,\mu\text{M}$). The experiments were performed at least 3 times.

activation of the two G_{α} subunits as shown in Figure 2. For both morphine and buprenorphine, maximal activation of $G_{\alpha o A}$ was greater than that of $G_{\alpha i 1}$. The potencies of certain opioid agonists for the activation of $G_{\alpha i 1}$ compared to $G_{\alpha o A}$ also differed. The EC_{50} values of DAMGO, endomorphin 1, endomorphin 2 and morphine were significantly different for $G_{\alpha i 1}$ versus $G_{\alpha o A}$ (Table 1). DAMGO, morphine and endomorphin 1 displayed higher potency in activating $G_{\alpha o A}$ than $G_{\alpha i 1}$, whereas endomorphin 2 activated $G_{\alpha i 1}$ with greater potency compared to $G_{\alpha o A}$.

Effect of magnesium on the basal activity of MOR and on the maximal activity of opioid ligands

The activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ through MOR increased in the absence of an agonist (basal activity), with increasing concentrations of Mg²⁺ (Figure 3). This increase was statistically significant (P<0.0001), at each Mg²⁺ concentration, when compared to activation in the absence of additional

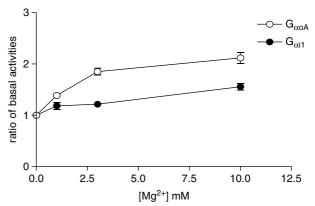


Figure 3 Magnesium dependence of basal activity through MOR. $[^{35}S]GTP_{\gamma}S$ binding, in the presence of different magnesium concentrations, was measured with 20 nM G_{zoA} or 116 nM G_{zi1} and 200 nM $\beta_1\gamma_2$. The data are represented as ratios, calculated by dividing basal activity at each Mg^{2+} concentration by basal activity in the absence of additional Mg^{2+} .

Table 1 Agonist–concentration response experiments

	$G_{lpha il}$		$G_{lpha oA}$	
	% Maximal activation	EC_{50} (nM)	% Maximal activation	EC_{50} (nM)
DAMGO ^a	100	243 ± 20	100	132±19***
Endomorphin 1 ^a	86 ± 3	653 ± 113	85 ± 5	$327 \pm 44*$
Endomorphin 2 ^a	89 ± 3	252 ± 24	91 ± 4	$421 \pm 55*$
β -Endorphin	78 ± 1	365 ± 100	84 ± 3	298 ± 80
Met-enkephalin	103 ± 5	504 ± 108	96 ± 1	278 ± 17
Leucine-enkephalin	101 ± 5	1011 ± 241	99 ± 3	842 ± 190
Morphine ^{a,b}	66 ± 4	213 ± 39	$88 \pm 2**$	89 ± 15*
Fentanyl	69 ± 4	119 ± 19	72 ± 3	67 ± 38
Methadone	88 <u>+</u> 1	185 ± 60	83 <u>+</u> 4	64 ± 24
Buprenorphine ^b	29 ± 4	21 ± 4	$48 \pm 2**$	15 ± 2
Buprenorphine ^b	29 ± 4	21 ± 4	48±2**	15 ± 2

Maximal activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ by each drug is given as a percentage of maximal DAMGO-induced activation. Also shown are the EC₅₀ values for the activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ by each drug.

^{*}P < 0.05, **P < 0.01 and ***P < 0.001 by Student's *t*-test.

Morphine produced a statistically significant difference for both the % maximal activation and EC₅₀ values. Data are mean \pm s.e.m.

^aDrugs that showed a statistically significant difference between the EC₅₀ values for the two G_α.

^bDrugs that showed a statistically significant difference between % maximal activation for $G_{\alpha i1}$ versus $G_{\alpha oA}$.

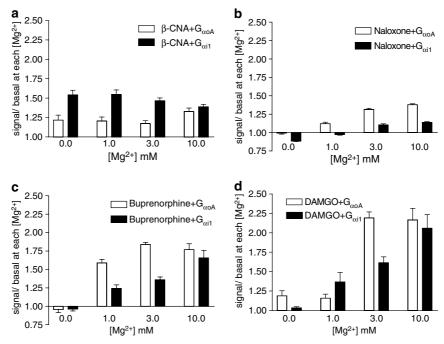


Figure 4 Magnesium dependence of β-CNA (a), naloxone (b), buprenorphine (c) and DAMGO (d). Magnesium dependence of the efficacy of these four drugs through MOR was tested by measuring [35 S]GTP_{$_{7}$}S binding in the presence of 0, 1, 3 or 10 mM added Mg $^{2+}$. G-proteins were used at 20 nM G_{zoA} or 116 nM G_{zi1} and 200 nM $β_{1}γ_{2}$. The data are represented as ratios, calculated by dividing ligand-mediated signal by the signal produced in the absence of ligand at each Mg $^{2+}$ concentration.

 ${\rm Mg^{2}^{+}}$, using two-way ANOVA analysis. For ${\rm G_{zoA}}$, the basal activity was 2.1 times higher with the addition of 10 mM ${\rm Mg^{2}^{+}}$. When ${\rm G_{zi1}}$ was used, the increase in ${\rm Mg^{2}^{+}}$ concentration had a lesser effect than for ${\rm G_{zoA}}$ (Figure 3). For this G-protein the basal activity was 1.6 times higher at 10 mM added ${\rm Mg^{2}^{+}}$ than in the absence of additional ${\rm Mg^{2}^{+}}$ (Figure 3). The difference in ${\rm Mg^{2}^{+}}$ sensitivity between the two G-proteins was statistically significant (P<0.0001).

Four different drugs were investigated in this study to determine their sensitivity to Mg²⁺ in their ability to activate either $G_{\alpha i1}$ or $G_{\alpha oA}$. β -CNA was reported to behave as an inverse agonist and naloxone as an antagonist in previous studies (Liu & Prather, 2001; Wang et al., 2001). DAMGO and buprenorphine were chosen to investigate Mg²⁺ dependence of agonists (full and partial, respectively). Two-way ANOVA analysis was used to compare the effect of Mg²⁺ on the signalling ability of each drug, and between the two G-proteins. In contrast to previous reports, in this assay β -CNA did not display inverse agonist properties at any Mg^{2+} concentrations. For both G-protein α subunits, β -CNA behaved as an agonist at all Mg²⁺ concentrations (Figure 4a). With no added Mg^{2+} , β -CNA produced only a small activation of $G_{\alpha o A}$, which was not significantly different from the basal activity at the same Mg²⁺ concentration, as determined by a t-test analysis. β -CNA behaved as an agonist in the absence of added Mg^{2+} in its activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$. Statistical analysis using two-way ANOVA revealed that the effect of increasing Mg²⁺ concentration was not statistically significant for the activation of either G_{α} subunit by β -CNA. However, the difference between the two G-proteins was significant and $G_{\alpha i1}$ was activated to a greater extent than $G_{\alpha oA}$ (P<0.0001). Naloxone did not activate $G_{\alpha o A}$ in the absence of additional Mg²⁺ and displayed a low level of activity at higher Mg²⁺

concentrations (Figure 4b). The only evidence of inverse agonism at MOR was observed for naloxone and Gail; naloxone decreased G-protein bound [35S]GTP_yS in the absence of added Mg^{2+} (Figure 4b). In contrast, with the addition of 1 mM Mg^{2+} , naloxone-induced activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ was not significantly different from basal activity. At higher Mg²⁺ concentrations, naloxone acted as a weak agonist in its activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ (Figure 4b). The increase in the extent of MOR activation by naloxone with increasing Mg²⁺ was statistically significant (P < 0.0001), as was the difference between $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ and with this drug $G_{\alpha oA}$ was activated more efficiently at all Mg2+ concentrations. Buprenorphineinduced activation was not significantly different from basal activity in the absence of added Mg²⁺. Buprenorphine behaved as a weak agonist at all Mg²⁺ concentrations, for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ (Figure 4c). DAMGO-induced G_{α} activation was equal to basal activity in the absence of added Mg^{2+} and behaved as an agonist for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ at all higher Mg²⁺ concentrations (Figure 4d). For both buprenorphine and DAMGO, the increase in MOR signalling with increasing Mg²⁺ concentration and the difference between the extent of activation of $G_{\alpha i 1}$ and $G_{\alpha o A}$ were statistically significant (P<0.0001). Buprenorphine activated $G_{\alpha oA}$ more efficiently than $G_{\alpha i1}$ at all tested Mg^{2+} concentrations. DAMGO also preferentially activated $G_{\alpha oA}$ at most Mg^{2+} concentrations but interestingly, at 1 mM additional Mg²⁺, DAMGO preferentially activated $G_{\alpha i1}$ (Figure 4d).

Discussion

Opioid drugs produce a variety of pharmacological effects, such as analgesia, nausea and respiratory arrest. It is feasible

that these different effects are produced through activation of distinct intracellular pathways. The aim of this study was to investigate how agonists differentially regulate G-protein coupling to MOR. We investigated the ability of a range of endogenous and synthetic opioid ligands to activate $G_{\alpha i1}$ versus $G_{\alpha o A}$, using in situ reconstitution model, which directly studies the activation of G-proteins by the receptor. This method has previously been utilised to investigate $G_{\alpha i}$ and $G_{\alpha o}$ coupling of CB₁ and CB₂ receptors (Glass & Northup, 1999) and $G_{\alpha q}$ coupling of 5-HT_{2c} receptors (Hartman & Northup, 1996), and has demonstrated stimulus trafficking for CB₁ (Glass & Northup, 1999). In this study, chaotrope extraction of the HEK-MOR membranes did not alter the receptor affinity for diprenorphine in membrane binding assays. Furthermore, a previous study has demonstrated the ability to restore high-affinity opioid binding by the addition of G-proteins to urea-washed HEK-MOR membranes (Lim & Neubig, 2001), indicating that MOR remain undenatured and fully functional following this treatment.

Initial experiments were conducted to determine the relative affinity of the receptor for each G_{α} subunit. These studies utilised the highly efficacious agonist DAMGO (Traynor et al., 2002), to activate the receptor at increasing concentrations of either $G_{\alpha i1}$ or $G_{\alpha oA}$ in the presence of saturating concentrations of $\beta_1 \gamma_2$. $G_{\alpha o A}$ demonstrated a significantly higher apparent affinity for activated MOR than did $G_{\alpha i1}$ (20 ± 1 nM compared to $116 \pm 12 \,\mathrm{nM}$). These results are comparable to a previously published study (Laugwitz et al., 1993), where MOR displayed a two-fold preferential coupling to $G_{\alpha o A}$ in comparison to $G_{\alpha i 1}$. In this study, differential coupling of G-protein α subunits to MOR was assessed by measuring the levels of radioactivity $(\alpha^{-32}P)$ GTP) incorporated in immunoprecipitated G-protein α subunits after addition of $1 \mu M$ DAMGO. It might be argued that as naturally occurring G_{α} express two post-translational modifications, myristoylation and palmitoylation (Mumby et al., 1990; Linder et al., 1993), our purified G_{α} might function differently from bovine-brain derived G_{α} because they lack palmitoylation. In our study, we have shown that activated CB₁ receptors catalysed the GDP/[³⁵S]GTP_vS exchange for both $G_{\alpha o A}$ and $G_{\alpha i 1}$ with high affinity. For $G_{\alpha i 1}$, the apparent affinity was identical to the apparent affinity produced by bovine brain derived $G_{\alpha i}$ (Glass & Northup, 1999). The relative affinity for $G_{\alpha o A}$ produced in E. coli was 2.3 times higher than for $G_{\alpha\alpha}$ purified from bovine brain (Glass & Northup, 1999). One of the functions of palmitoylation is to promote membrane association (Smotrys & Linder, 2004), which may be a possible reason for this difference. Supporting our results is a study by Cao & Youguo (2005) in which they observed a three-fold higher affinity of nonpalmitoylated $G_{\alpha o}$ for [35S]GTP_yS compared to palmitoylated $G_{\alpha o}$. Also, bovine brain-derived $G_{\alpha o}$ is a combination of $G_{\alpha o1}$ and $G_{\alpha o2}$, which offers another possible explanation for the difference in apparent affinities.

We then investigated the ability of a range of synthetic, plant-derived and endogenous opioid ligands to activate each G_{α} protein. Interestingly, four of the drugs tested – DAMGO, endomorphins 1 and 2 and morphine – displayed significant differences in their potencies for the activation of the two G_{α} proteins. We found that two of the 10 agonists tested, buprenorphine and morphine, produced different maximal activities for the activation of one G_{α} over another, with $G_{\alpha oA}$ being activated to a greater extent in both cases. For

buprenorphine there was a small but statistically significant difference in the maximal activity for G_{zil} versus G_{zoA} . Previously, buprenorphine has been suggested to act as a partial agonist at MOR, consistent with our findings (Wesson, 2004). In our investigation, morphine activated G_{zoA} to more than 75% of the maximal response, but it activated G_{zil} only partially. This weak activation of G_{zi} likely underlies partial agonism of morphine towards inhibition of the cAMP pathway, which occurs via $G_{zi/o}$ (Massotte et al., 2002; Gharagozlou et al., 2003). These differences in maximal activity and potency between G_{zil} and G_{zoA} are both indicative of stimulus trafficking of G-proteins in MOR activation (Kenakin, 2003).

Our finding that four drugs, DAMGO, endomorphins 1 and 2, and morphine produced significant differences in potencies for $G_{\alpha i1}$ versus $G_{\alpha oA}$ suggests that the cellular response elicited upon agonist binding can be modulated by the concentration of the agonist, leading to a more selective response. Endomorphin 1 preferentially recruited $G_{\alpha oA}$, whereas endomorphin 2 displayed a lower EC₅₀ for $G_{\alpha i1}$. Therefore, 350 nM endomorphin 1 will result in significant activation of $G_{\alpha o A}$ pathway but only minimal $G_{\alpha i1}$ pathway activation. Both endomorphins 1 and 2 are four amino-acid peptides differing in one amino-acid residue (tryptophan for endomorphin 1 versus phenylalanine for endomorphin 2) (Zadina et al., 1997). This amino-acid residue may be directly involved in binding to the MOR, perhaps changing the overall structure of the receptor significantly thus changing the extent of activation of MOR- $G_{\alpha i1}$ versus MOR- $G_{\alpha oA}$. Differences between potencies produced by the two endomorphins have also been reported in a study by Storr et al. (2002), comparing electrically induced twitch contractions on smooth muscle to the peristaltic reflex. In this study, endomorphin 1 produced comparable IC₅₀ for both of these effects; however, endomorphin 2 was less potent in the twitch contraction experiments and more potent in the reflex model than endomorphin 1 (Storr et al., 2002).

An in vivo study, in which the expression of various G_{α} subunits was reduced by administration of oligodeoxynucleotides directed at their mRNA, has suggested that G_{\alpha} knockdown mice displayed differential decreases in the functionality of distinct opioid drugs, depending on the G_{α} subunits that were knocked down (Sanchez-Blazquez et al., 2001). In this study, analgesia produced in G_{α} knockdown mice after the administration of endomorphins 1 and 2 and methadone was dependent on Gail, but DAMGO, morphine and buprenorphine-induced analgesia was Gail independent (Sanchez-Blazquez et al., 2001). Only methadone-induced analgesia was reduced in G₂₀₁ knockdown mice. These results are mainly inconsistent with the findings of our study, where all of these six drugs produced an equal or higher maximal activation of $G_{\alpha o A}$ than of $G_{\alpha i 1}$ and five out of the six drugs (endomorphin 2 excluded) produced a higher potency for $G_{\alpha oA}$ than for $G_{\alpha i1}$. A possible explanation for this discrepancy is that the ratios of different G_{\alpha} subunits are not consistent throughout different pain pathways. Therefore, if certain opioid drugs preferentially act on one of these pathways over another, they may be affected differently depending on the G_{α} subunits knocked

Specific cellular effects of different opioid ligands have also been reported in the development of desensitisation and internalisation. Unlike most other opioid agonists, morphineactivated MOR avoids phosphorylation by G-protein-coupled receptor kinase and the subsequent desensitisation produced by arrestin binding (Whistler & von Zastrow, 1998). Morphine also does not induce internalisation of MOR (Keith *et al.*, 1998), unlike endogenous opioid ligands and methadone (Trapaidze *et al.*, 2000). This further shows that different opioid agonists produce distinct intracellular effects upon receptor binding, and these effects are also indicative of agonist-specific receptor conformations.

The maximal activities of most opioid drugs for the activation of $G_{\alpha i1}$ versus $G_{\alpha oA}$ did not differ in our study. Met-enkephalin and leucine-enkephalin were full agonists for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$. Endomorphins 1 and 2 and β -endorphin activated both G_{α} subunits to more than 75% of the maximal response, as did methadone. Contrary to our findings, methadone has previously been reported to be a full agonist with efficacy equal to that of DAMGO (Selley et al., 1998). However, in the study by Selley et al. (1998), MOR-expressing CHO membranes were used, which may contain G-protein subunits other than $G_{\alpha i/o}$, such as $G_{\alpha z}$, possibly accounting for these differences. Fentanyl displayed high potency for the activation of both G-proteins, which is in accordance with previous data on this drug (Lee & Lee, 2003). It was a partial agonist for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$, which is consistent with a finding by Selley et al. (1997), where fentanyl was a partial agonist in a [35S]GTP_yS binding assay in the rat thalamus, in comparison to DAMGO.

Our next aim was to investigate the influence of Mg2+ on the extent of MOR basal activation via $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ and the resulting effect on the maximal activity of four opioid ligands through MOR. Magnesium has previously been shown to be essential for high-affinity interaction of GTP_{ν}S with G_{α} (Gilman, 1987; Zelent et al., 2001). However, intracellular Mg²⁺ concentrations are not constant, but rather have been shown to fluctuate. For example, Murphy et al. (1989) have shown that the intracellular [Mg2+] in cultured embryonic chicken heart cells, can increase from its basal level of 0.48 to 1.6 mM, depending on the intracellular [Ca²⁺]. We found that the basal activity of MOR increased with increasing Mg²⁺ for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$ and this effect was more pronounced for $G_{\alpha o A}$ than for $G_{\alpha i 1}$, which may suggest that $Mg^{2\,+}$ stabilises the $G_{\alpha o A}$ -[35S]GTP_yS complex to a greater extent than $G_{\alpha i 1}$ -[35 S]GTP_{γ}S. The effect of Mg²⁺ on the extent of activation of G_{α} also differed for the four drugs and we found that with increasing maximal activity of a drug, Mg2+ sensitivity also increased. We observed a large influence of Mg²⁺ on G_{vi1} activation with DAMGO and buprenorphine, yet none with β-CNA. For naloxone, buprenorphine and DAMGO, Mg²⁺ had a much greater effect when using $G_{\alpha oA}$ compared to β -CNA. Several studies have suggested that β -CNA displayed inverse agonism through MOR (Burford et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2001). Wang et al. (2001) observed inverse agonism of β -CNA at 0 and 1 mM Mg²⁺ (peaking at 1 mM). In our system β -CNA behaved as a neutral antagonist (i.e. producing neither an increase nor decrease in basal activity) or a weak agonist at all Mg^{2+} concentrations, for both $G_{\alpha i1}$ and $G_{\alpha oA}$, which may partly be due to the low level of MOR basal activity in our system. The only evidence of inverse agonism was observed with naloxone acting through the $G_{\alpha i1}$ pathway in the absence of added Mg²⁺. Buprenorphine and DAMGO were agonists at all Mg²⁺ concentrations; however, in the absence of added Mg²⁺ neither compound produced a significant stimulation of either G-protein activation. Interestingly, at 1 mm added Mg^{2+} DAMGO preferentially activated $G_{\alpha i1}$ over $G_{\alpha oA}$; however, at 3 mM a switch occurred between the two G_{α} , and $G_{\alpha o A}$ was activated to a greater extent than $G_{\alpha i 1}$. Although the physiological significance of our findings still requires further investigation, our results suggest that Mg²⁺ concentration may be another factor influencing the selectivity of pathway activation by MOR in in vitro studies.

Our study showed that there are statistically significant differences in maximal activities and potencies of certain opioid ligands for the activation of G_{zi1} versus G_{zoA} . Although further investigation is still required to elucidate the physiological effects resulting from the activation of each intracellular pathway, these findings may provide a starting point for the design or structural screening of drugs that demonstrate greater selectivity for the beneficial pathways activated through MOR, such as analgesia mediated by activation of K_{ir} channels.

This work was funded by a Marsden Fast Start Grant from the Royal Society of New Zealand, a grant from the Auckland Medical Research Foundation and an equipment grant from Lottery Health New Zealand. We thank Dr Christopher Kearn for critical reading of the manuscript.

References

- BERG, K.A., CROPPER, J.D., NISWENDER, C.M., SANDERS-BUSH, E., EMESON, R.B. & CLARKE, W.P. (2001). RNA-editing of the 5-HT(2C) receptor alters agonist–receptor–effector coupling specificity. *Br. J. Pharmacol*, **134**, 386–392.
- BIE, B., FIELDS, H.L., WILLIAMS, J.T. & PAN, Z.Z. (2003). Roles of alpha1- and alpha2-adrenoceptors in the nucleus raphe magnus in opioid analgesia and opioid abstinence-induced hyperalgesia. *J. Neurosci.*, **23**, 7950–7957.
- BODNAR, R.J. & KLEIN, G.E. (2004). Endogenous opiates and behavior: 2003. *Peptides*, **25**, 2205–2256.
- BURFORD, N.T., WANG, D. & SADEE, W. (2000). G-protein coupling of mu-opioid receptors (OP3): elevated basal signalling activity. *Biochem. J.*, **348**, 531–537.
- CAO, Y. & YOUGUO, H. (2005). Palmitoylation regulates GDP/GTP exchange of G protein by affecting the GTP-binding activity of Goα. *Int. J. Biochem. Cell. Biol.*, 37, 637–644.
- CHILDERS, S.R. (1991). Opioid receptor-coupled second messenger systems. *Life Sci.*, 48, 1991–2003.

- CLAPHAM, D.E. & NEER, E.J. (1993). New roles for G-protein beta gamma-dimers in transmembrane signalling. *Nature*, 365, 403–406.
- DOOLEY, C.T. & HOUGHTEN, R.A. (2000). Orphanin FQ/nociceptin receptor binding studies. *Peptides*, **21**, 949–960.
- EASON, M.G., JACINTO, M.T. & LIGGETT, S.B. (1994). Contribution of ligand structure to activation of alpha 2-adrenergic receptor subtype coupling to Gs. *Mol. Pharmacol.*, **45**, 696–702
- FAWZI, A.B., FAY, D.S., MURPHY, E.A., TAMIR, H., ERDOS, J.J. & NORTHUP, J.K. (1991). Rhodopsin and the retinal G-protein distinguish among G-protein beta gamma subunit forms. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **266**, 12194–12200.
- GHARAGOZLOU, P., DEMIRCI, H., DAVID CLARK, J. & LAMEH, J. (2003). Activity of opioid ligands in cells expressing cloned mu opioid receptors. *BMC Pharmacol.*, **3**, 1.
- GILMAN, A.G. (1987). G proteins: transducers of receptor-generated signals. Annu. Rev. Biochem., 56, 615–649.

- GLASS, M. & NORTHUP, J.K. (1999). Agonist selective regulation of G proteins by cannabinoid CB(1) and CB(2) receptors. *Mol. Pharmacol.*, **56**, 1362–1369.
- HARTMAN, J.I. & NORTHUP, J.K. (1996). Functional reconstitution *in situ* of 5-hydroxytryptamine2c (5HT2c) receptors with alphaq and inverse agonism of 5HT2c receptor antagonists. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **271**, 22591–22597.
- HELLMICH, M.R., BATTEY, J.F. & NORTHUP, J.K. (1997). Selective reconstitution of gastrin-releasing peptide receptor with G alpha q. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **94**, 751–756.
- JIAN, X., SAINZ, E., CLARK, W.A., JENSEN, R.T., BATTEY, J.F. & NORTHUP, J.K. (1999). The bombesin receptor subtypes have distinct G protein specificities. J. Biol. Chem., 274, 11573–11581.
- KEITH, D.E., ANTON, B., MURRAY, S.R., ZAKI, P.A., CHU, P.C., LISSIN, D.V., MONTEILLET-AGIUS, G., STEWARD, P.L., EVANS, C.J. & VON ZASTROW, M. (1998). Mu-opioid receptor internalization: opiate drugs have differential effects on a conserved endocytic mechanism in vitro and in the mammalian brain. Mol. Pharmacol., 53, 377–384.
- KENAKIN, T. (2003). Ligand-selective receptor conformations revisited: the promise and the problem. Trends Pharmacol. Sci., 24, 346–354.
- KUKKONEN, J.P., JANSSON, C.C. & AKERMAN, K.E. (2001). Agonist trafficking of G(i/o)-mediated alpha(2A)-adrenoceptor responses in HEL 92.1.7 cells. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **132**, 1477–1484.
- LAUGWITZ, K.L., OFFERMANNS, S., SPICHER, K. & SCHULTZ, G. (1993). mu and delta opioid receptors differentially couple to G protein subtypes in membranes of human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells. *Neuron*, 10, 233–242.
- LEE, P.W. & LEE, Y.M. (2003). Transcriptional regulation of mu opioid receptor gene by cAMP pathway. *Mol. Pharmacol.*, 64, 1410–1418.
- LIM, W.K. & NEUBIG, R.R. (2001). Selective inactivation of guanine-nucleotide-binding regulatory protein (G-protein) α and $\beta\gamma$ subunits by urea. *Biochem. J.*, **354**, 337–344.
- LINDER, M.E., MIDDLETON, P., HEPLER, J.R., TAUSSIG, R., GILMAN, A.G. & MUMBY, S.M. (1993). Lipid modifications of G proteins: alpha subunits are palmitoylated. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **90**, 3675–3679.
- LIU, J.G. & PRATHER, P.L. (2001). Chronic exposure to mu-opioid agonists produces constitutive activation of mu-opioid receptors in direct proportion to the efficacy of the agonist used for pretreatment. Mol. Pharmacol., 60, 53-62.
- LUTFY, K., EITAN, S., BRYANT, C.D., YANG, Y.C., SALIMINEJAD, N., WALWYN, W., KIEFFER, B.L., TAKESHIMA, H., CARROLL, F.I., MAIDMENT, N.T. & EVANS, C.J. (2003). Buprenorphine-induced antinociception is mediated by mu-opioid receptors and compromised by concomitant activation of opioid receptor-like receptors. J. Neurosci., 23, 10331–10337.
- MARK, M.D. & HERLITZE, S. (2000). G-protein mediated gating of inward-rectifier K+ channels. *Eur. J. Biochem.*, **267**, 5830–5836.
- MASSOTTE, D., BRILLET, K., KIEFFER, B. & MILLIGAN, G. (2002). Agonists activate Gi1 alpha or Gi2 alpha fused to the human mu opioid receptor differently. *J. Neurochem.*, **81**, 1372–1382.
- MENG, I.D., MANNING, B.H., MARTIN, W.J. & FIELDS, H.L. (1998).
 An analgesia circuit activated by cannabinoids. *Nature*, 395, 381–383.
- MOISES, H.C., RUSIN, K.I. & MACDONALD, R.L. (1994). mu-Opioid receptor-mediated reduction of neuronal calcium current occurs *via* a G(o)-type GTP-binding protein. *J. Neurosci.*, **14**, 3842–3851.
- MUMBY, S.M., HEUKEROTH, R.O., GORDON, J.I. & GILMAN, A.G. (1990). G-protein alpha-subunit expression, myristoylation, and membrane association in COS cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, 87, 728–732.
- MUMBY, S.M. & LINDER, M.E. (1994). Myristoylation of G-protein α subunits. *Methods Enzymol.*, **237**, 254–268.
- MURPHY, E., FREUDENRICH, C.C., LEVY, L.A., LONDON, R.E. & LIEBERMAN, M. (1989). Monitoring cytosolic free magnesium in cultured chicken heart cells by use of the fluorescent indicator Furaptra. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **86**, 2981–2984.
- NORTH, R.A., WILLIAMS, J.T., SURPRENANT, A. & CHRISTIE, M.J. (1987). μ and δ receptors belong to a family of receptors that are coupled to potassium channels. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **84**, 5487–5491.

- NORTHUP, J.K., SMIGEL, M.D. & GILMAN, A.G. (1982). The guanine nucleotide activating site of the regulatory component of adenylate cyclase. Identification by ligand binding. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **257**, 11416–11423.
- OFFERMANNS, S. & SIMON, M.I. (1995). G alpha 15 and G alpha 16 couple a wide variety of receptors to phospholipase C. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **270**, 15175–15180.
- PRZEWLOCKI, R. & PRZEWLOCKA, B. (2001). Opioids in chronic pain. Eur. J. Pharmacol., 429, 79–91.
- SANCHEZ, J.A., GONOI, T., INAGAKI, N., KATADA, T. & SEINO, S. (1998). Modulation of reconstituted ATP-sensitive K + channels by GTP-binding proteins in a mammalian cell line. J. Physiol., 507, 315–324.
- SANCHEZ-BLAZQUEZ, P., GARCIA-ESPANA, A. & GARZON, J. (1995). In vivo injection of antisense oligodeoxynucleotides to G alpha subunits and supraspinal analgesia evoked by mu and delta opioid agonists J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther., 275, 1590–1596.
- SANCHEZ-BLAZQUEZ, P., GOMEZ-SERRANILLOS, P. & GARZON, J. (2001). Agonists determine the pattern of G-protein activation in mu-opioid receptor-mediated supraspinal analgesia. *Brain Res. Bull.*, 54, 229–235.
- SELLEY, D.E., LIU, Q. & CHILDERS, S.R. (1998). Signal transduction correlates of mu opioid agonist intrinsic efficacy: receptor-stimulated [35S]GTP gamma S binding in mMOR-CHO cells and rat thalamus. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*, **285**, 496–505.
- SELLEY, D.E., SIM, L.J., XIAO, R., LIU, Q. & CHILDERS, S.R. (1997). mu-Opioid receptor-stimulated guanosine-5'-O-(gamma-thio)-triphosphate binding in rat thalamus and cultured cell lines: signal transduction mechanisms underlying agonist efficacy. *Mol. Pharmacol.*, **51**, 87–96.
- SMOTRYS, J.E. & LINDER, M.E. (2004). Palmitoylation of intracellular signalling proteins: regulation and function. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.*, 73, 559–587.
- STORR, M., HAHN, A., GAFFAL, E., SAUR, D. & ALLESCHER, H.D. (2002). Effects of endomorphin-1 and -2 on mu-opioid receptors in myenteric neurons and in the peristaltic reflex in rat small intestine. *Clin. Exp. Pharmacol. Physiol.*, 29, 428–434.
- TRAPAIDZE, N., GOMES, I., CVEJIC, S., BANSINATH, M. & DEVI, L.A. (2000). Opioid receptor endocytosis and activation of MAP kinase pathway. *Brain Res. Mol. Brain. Res.*, 76, 220–228.
- TRAYNOR, J.R., CLARK, M.J. & REMMERS, A.E. (2002). Relationship between rate and extent of G protein activation: comparison between full and partial opioid agonists. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*, **300**, 157–161.
- WANG, D., RAEHAL, K.M., BILSKY, E.J. & SADEE, W. (2001). Inverse agonists and neutral antagonists at mu opioid receptor (MOR): possible role of basal receptor signalling in narcotic dependence. J. Neurochem., 77, 1590–1600.
- WESSON, D.R. (2004). Buprenorphine in the treatment of opiate dependence: its pharmacology and social context of use in the U.S. *J. Psychoact. Drugs Suppl,* **2,** 119–128.
- WHISTLER, J.L. & VON ZASTROW, M. (1998). Morphine-activated opioid receptors elude desensitization by beta-arrestin. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, 95, 9914–9919.
- WILDMAN, D.E., TAMIR, H., LEBERER, E., NORTHUP, J.K. & DENNIS, M. (1993). Prenyl modification of guanine nucleotide regulatory protein gamma 2 subunits is not required for interaction with the transducin alpha subunit or rhodopsin. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **90**, 794–798.
- WONG, Y.H., CONKLIN, B.R. & BOURNE, H.R. (1992). Gz-mediated hormonal inhibition of cyclic AMP accumulation. *Science*, 255, 339–342.
- ZADINA, J.E., HACKLER, L., GE, L.J. & KASTIN, A.J. (1997). A potent and selective endogenous agonist for the mu-opiate receptor. *Nature*, **386**, 499–502.
- ZELENT, B., VEKLICH, Y., MURRAY, J., PARKES, J.H., GIBSON, S. & LIEBMAN, P.A. (2001). Rapid irreversible G protein alpha subunit misfolding due to intramolecular kinetic bottleneck that precedes Mg²⁺ 'lock' after GTP/GDP exchange. *Biochemistry*, 40, 9647–9656.

(Received August 10, 2005 Revised November 2, 2005 Accepted December 14, 2005 Published online 16 January 2006)