

Validation and Quantification of Ligand-Biased Signalling and Allosteric Modulation at CB₁ Cannabinoid Receptors

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May 2015

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Abstract

The CB₁ cannabinoid receptor (CB₁R) is a potential target for the treatment of numerous central nervous system disorders. Although a large number of CB₁R ligands exist, their therapeutic applications are limited due to adverse on-target effects. Selective activation of the receptor signalling events that mediate desired therapeutic effects at the expense of those that mediate adverse effects may overcome adverse on-target effects. This could be achieved via a phenomenon referred to as ligand-biased signalling.

There is growing evidence that CB₁R ligands may activate selective signalling pathways and engender biased signalling (Bosier et al., 2008b). More strikingly, CB₁R allosteric modulators, such as Org27569 may also display pathway selective modulation or biased allosterism (Ahn et al., 2012). Several endogenous allosteric modulators at CB₁Rs have also been suggested, including pregnenolone (Vallee et al., 2014), lipoxin A4 (Pamplona et al., 2012) and CRIP1a (Niehaus et al., 2007).

The current investigation aimed to detect and quantify ligand-biased signalling and allosterism at CB₁Rs using sophisticated analytical methods, in order to establish potential CB₁R biased “fingerprints” that may guide structure-activity and drug discovery studies.

Our results showed that 2-AG and WIN55,212-2 had little preference for cAMP inhibition and pERK1/2 activation (bias factor not dissimilar from 1). However, anandamide, Δ⁹-THC, CP55940 and in particular HU-210 and methanandamide with bias factors of over 20 and 15, respectively were biased towards cAMP inhibition. We also demonstrated that Org27569 reduced the CB₁R inverse agonist [³H]SR141716A binding, indicated by a binding cooperativity (α)

value close to 0. However, it had little effect on the binding of cannabinoid agonists (α close to 1). Org27569 completely abolished inhibition of cAMP by all the cannabinoids tested, indicated by functional cooperativity (β) values approaching 0. Interestingly, however, in pERK1/2 assays, Org27569 abolished the response to HU-210 and CP55940, had no significant effect on pERK1/2 activation by anandamide, methanandamide and Δ^9 -THC, and only partially inhibited 2-AG and WIN55,212-2-induced pERK1/2 activation, as indicated by β values ranging from 0 to 1. This clearly indicates strong probe-dependence and biased allosterism by Org27569. Furthermore, our results showed no inhibitory effects on Δ^9 -THC-induced pERK1/2 activation by pregnenolone, and no enhancing effects on anandamide-mediated inhibition of cAMP by lipoxin A4, in contrast to previous findings (Pamplona et al., 2012; Vallee et al., 2014). Our results also demonstrated that CRIP1a knockdown in NG108-15 cells abolished WIN55,212-2-induced cAMP inhibition and reduced KCl-induced Ca^{2+} influx. However, it had no effects on cannabinoid-mediated Ca^{2+} mobilisation. In recombinant HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells, cannabinoid-mediated cAMP and pERK1/2 signalling was unchanged in the absence or presence of CRIP1a. Therefore, further research is required to verify the allosteric nature of these endogenous ligands.

In conclusion, this study quantifies, for the first time, ligand-biased signalling from CB₁Rs, provides quantitative insights into biased allosterism and probe-dependence by the small molecule Org27569 at CB₁Rs, provides evidence against the reported allosteric effects of the endogenous ligands lipoxin A4 and pregnenolone, and demonstrates the cell line-dependent effects of CRIP1a. These novel insights may contribute to the development of selective CB₁R-targeted therapies.

General Declaration

In accordance with Monash University Doctorate Regulation 17.2 Doctor of Philosophy and Research Master's regulations the following declarations are made:

I hereby declare that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

The core theme of the thesis is "evaluation of ligand-biased signalling and allosteric modulation at CB₁ cannabinoid receptors". The ideas, development and writing up of all the papers in the thesis were the principal responsibility of myself, the candidate, working within the Drug Discovery Biology laboratory of the Monash Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences under the supervision of Dr. Katie Leach and Dr. Daniel Malone.

Signed:



Date: 07 May 2015

Acknowledgments

This thesis wouldn't have been possible without the continuous support received from my supervisors Dr. Dan Malone and Dr. Katie Leach. To Dan, a sincere thank you for providing me the opportunity to start the exciting, nurturing and challenging journey of my PhD, and guiding me throughout. To Katie, I greatly appreciate your day-to-day research support and advice, and your encouraging words even when the experiments weren't going so well! Thanks for immensely improving my scientific writing! It's been a great pleasure working with and learning from you. I would like to acknowledge Professor Arthur Christopolous and my panel members, Dr. Chris Langmead and Associate Professor Michelle Glass for their insightful reviews and expertise and providing ideas and suggestions for my research. I'm also very thankful to Dr. John Haynes for teaching me calcium imaging techniques and being supportive throughout these studies.

Many thanks to my friends in the Drug Discovery Biology lab for creating many memorable and joyful moments. To Nel, a big thanks for your research assistance and making me feel more comfortable in the new environment during the early days of my PhD. To Lubna, thanks for your awesome friendship and making time for listening to my work/life stories, and for encouraging me to go boxing! To Joan (Joanne,...!), thank you for being responsible for a lot of our laughter in the office! To Vindhya, thanks for your research advice and for transferring your positive energy to me in the lab and outside! To all other past and present colleagues of mine, thank you for your friendly and helpful attitude and making a very pleasant and convivial environment at work.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my family. I owe you all my lifetime accomplishments, and consider myself the most fortunate for having you in

my life. To my dad, the most supportive and forgiving person in my life. Although you're physically no longer present, your love and memory in my heart and mind have been inspiring me to achieve my goals. To the kindest and most giving person in my life, my mum. Words aren't enough to thank you for even a small part of your unlimited love and support. To my awesome brothers Jahanbakhsh and Jahangir, thank you for being always ready and happy to help me whenever I need you. To my lovely sisters Tahereh, Taiebeh and Elaheh for being the best in making me feel good and confident. I'm so glad I have you to get advice from and share our thoughts, concerns, sorrows and happiness. A very special thanks to my beloved fiancé, Dimetre, for inspiring me to find my passions and improve myself not only in science but also in many other aspects of life. Thank you for listening to my science jibber-jabber and offering mathematical approaches to troubleshoot the problems! Without your presence, support and love, my stay in Melbourne would be far less pleasant and completing my PhD far more difficult. Thank you!

Publications and Communications

Research Article

- Khajehali E., Malone D.T., Sexton P., Christopoulos A. and Leach K. Biased agonism and biased allosteric modulation at the CB₁ cannabinoid receptor. Accepted for publication in *Molecular Pharmacology*.

Manuscripts in preparation

- Khajehali E., Malone D.T., Sexton P., Christopoulos A. and Leach K. Modulation of CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling pathways by CRIP1a. To be submitted to *Molecular Pharmacology*.

Communications

- Khajehali E., Malone D.T., Christopoulos A. and Leach K. Ligand-biased signalling and ligand-biased allosteric modulation at CB₁ cannabinoid receptors. *ASCEPT-MPGPCR*, Melbourne, Australia, 2014.
- Khajehali E., Malone D.T. and Leach K. Allosteric modulation and biased signalling at CB₁ cannabinoid receptors. *International Cannabinoid Research Society (ICRS)*, Baveno, Italy, 2014.
- Khajehali E., Malone D.T. and Leach K. Pathway-selective allosteric modulation of CB₁ receptor signalling. *Federation of European Neuroscience Society (FENS)*, Milan, Italy, 2014.
- Khajehali E., Malone D.T. and Leach K. Pathway-selective modulation of CB₁ receptor signalling by the allosteric modulator Org27569. *ASCEPT*, Melbourne, Australia, 2013.
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- Khajehali E., Malone D.T. and Leach K. Pathway-specific modulation of CB₁ cannabinoid receptors. *Monash Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences (MIPS) 8th Annual Postgraduate Research Symposium*, Melbourne, Australia, 2013.
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- Khajehali E, Malone D, Haynes J, Exintaris B. Modulation of CB₁ receptor-mediated downstream signalling events by Cannabinoid Receptor Interacting Protein (CRIP1a) in neural cells in culture. *2nd Annual Student of Brain Research (SOBR) symposium*, Melbourne Brain Centre, Australia, 2012.

Abbreviations

Δ9-THC	Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol
[³⁵S]GTPγS	Guanosine 5'-O-[gamma-thio]triphosphate
2-AG	2-arachydonylglycerol
7TM	7 transmembrane domain
aa	Amino acid
AP	Activator protein
ATCM	Allosteric ternary complex model
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
Ca²⁺	Calcium
cAMP	Cyclic adenosine monophosphate
CB₁	Cannabinoid type 1
CB₂	Cannabinoid type 2
CHO	Chinese hamster ovary
CRE	cAMP response element
CRIP	CB ₁ receptor interacting protein
DAGL	Diacylglycerol lipase
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
E	Extracellular loops
E. coli	Escherichia coli
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
ERK1/2	Extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1 and 2
FAAH	Fatty acid amide hydrolase
FAN	Factor associated with neutral sphingomyelinase

FBS	Foetal bovine serum
GASP1	GPCR-associated sorting protein
GDP	Guanosine diphosphate
GPCR	G protein-coupled receptor
GRK	G protein-coupled receptor kinase
GTP	Guanosine-5'-triphosphate
HEK	Human embryonic kidney
HEPES	4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid
I	Intracellular loops
IBMX	3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine
K⁺	Potassium
KCl	Potassium chloride
LB	Luria Bertoni
LTP	Long term potentiation
MAGL	Monoacyl glycerol lipase
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase
mmsiRNA	Mismatch siRNA, Inactive negative control siRNA
NADA	N-arachidonyl-dopamine
NAPE-PLD	<i>N</i> -acylphosphatidyl-ethanolamine-specific phospholipase D
OLDA	<i>N</i> -oleoyl dopamine
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline
PI3K	Phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase
PKA	Protein kinase A
PLCβ	Phospholipase C β
PTX	Pertussis toxin
PWR	Plasmon-waveguide resonance

RFU	Relative fluorescence units
RIPA	Radio Immuno Precipitation Assay
SCG	Superior cervical ganglion
siRNA	Small interfering RNA
TREx	Tetracycline-regulated expression
TRPVR	Transient receptor potential cation channel vanilloid receptors
Virodhamine	O-arachidonoyl ethanolamine
Zn²⁺	Zinc

Chapter 1

General Introduction

1.1. G protein-coupled receptors

G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) are one of the largest protein families in vertebrates, encoded by approximately 4% of the human genome (Foord, 2002). They are characterised by an extracellular N-terminus, seven transmembrane domains (TM1-TM7) that form a hydrophobic core, an intracellular amphipathic helix (H8), which contains palmitoylation sites in its C-terminus, three intracellular loops (I1-I3), three extracellular loops (E1-E3) and an intracellular C-terminus (Ji et al., 1998; Nathans and Hogness, 1983; Venkatakrisnan et al., 2013). Each of the TMs are generally composed of 20-27 amino acids, but the terminal and loop segments vary in size (Ji et al., 1995).

A large number of ligands, including hormones, neurotransmitters, peptides, ions, photons and chemotactic agents act at GPCRs to produce many physiological functions, including phenotypic differentiation, cell survival or death, organismal homeostasis, motility, learning and memory, and secretion (Callihan et al., 2011; Kristiansen, 2004; Neves et al., 2002; Radeff-Huang et al., 2004). Therefore, GPCRs are important therapeutic targets for the treatment of many diseases, and are currently the targets for 40% of drugs on the market (Drews, 2000; Hopkins and Groom, 2002; Overington et al., 2006). However, a large population of GPCRs have not been targeted as yet. Therefore, there is still huge potential for developing novel GPCR-based drugs (Lappano and Maggiolini, 2011).

Distinct regions of a GPCR are involved in its binding to endogenous and exogenous molecules depending on the family of receptors. Small molecule ligands often bind to the hydrophobic core of GPCRs, whereas peptide and protein ligands generally interact with the N terminus, extracellular loops and the region

formed by the top of TM3, 5, 6 and 7 (Schwartz and Rosenkilde, 1996; Wess, 1997; Yeagle et al., 2001).

Agonist binding to a GPCR stabilises a conformational state of the receptor that is open at the intracellular receptor surface, promoting its interaction with G proteins. The second and third intracellular loops and the C terminus are necessary for G protein interactions (Venkatakrishnan et al., 2013; Wess, 1997). This interaction leads to the exchange of GDP for GTP on the α -subunit of the G protein, which results in dissociation of the α -subunit from the $\beta\gamma$ G protein complex. α -GTP and $\beta\gamma$ mediate diverse physiological responses (Conklin and Bourne, 1993; Wess, 1997). GPCRs can additionally mediate signal transduction via alternative signalling molecules, such as β -arrestins and kinases (Ji et al., 1998).

The “GRAFS” classification system divides GPCRs into five groups based on sequence homology and receptor function: the glutamate, rhodopsin, adhesion, frizzled/taste 2 and secretin family (Davies et al., 2007; Jacoby et al., 2006; Kolakowski, 1994). The rhodopsin family comprises over 80% of all GPCRs, and are subdivided into α , β , γ and δ groups. Cannabinoid receptors that are the focus of the current project belong to the α group (Fredriksson et al., 2003).

1.2. The endocannabinoid system: A general overview

The endocannabinoid system comprises cannabinoid receptors, their endogenous ligands and the enzymatic systems involved in their synthesis, transport and degradation (Fig.1.1). It is involved in many important physiological functions, including neuronal development and neurogenesis (Jin et al., 2004; Parmentier-Batteur et al., 2002), inhibition of neurotransmitter release (Hashimoto et al., 2007), long-term synaptic plasticity (Marsicano et al., 2003), energy metabolism and cardiovascular function (Cota, 2007; Matias and Di Marzo, 2007), bone formation (Ofek et al., 2006; Tam et al., 2006), and immune cell responses (Massi et al., 2000; Sacerdote et al., 2000).

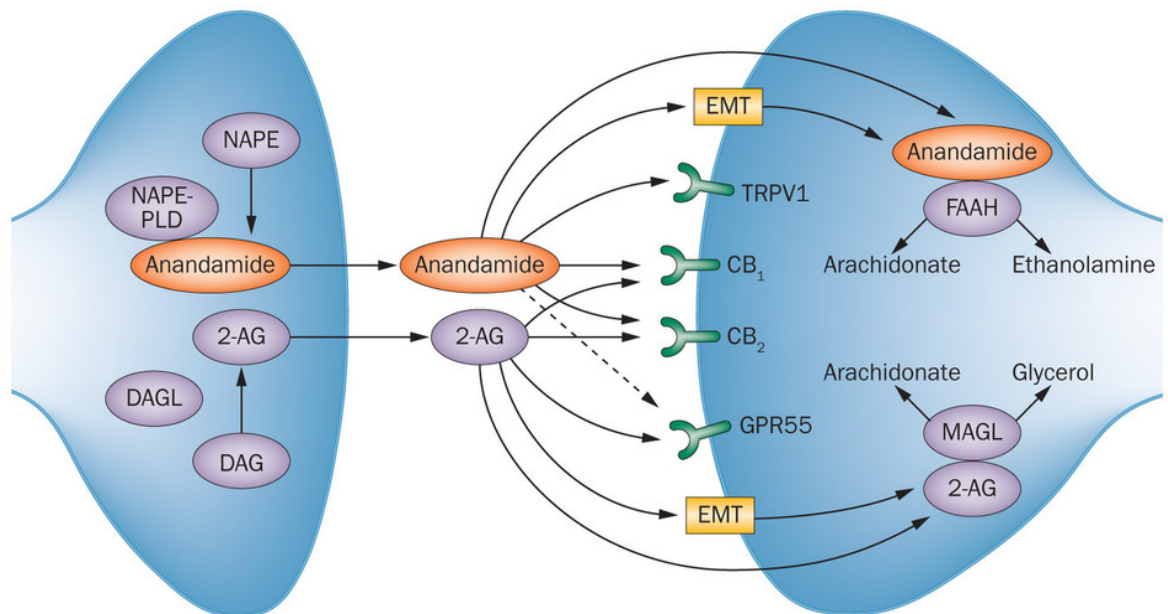


Fig. 1.1. The endocannabinoid system. Cannabinoid receptors, their endogenous ligands and the enzymes involved in the synthesis, transport and degradation of endogenous cannabinoids form the endocannabinoid system (from Schicho and Storr, 2014).

CB₁ and CB₂ cannabinoid receptors, which belong to the rhodopsin-like GPCRs (Fredriksson et al., 2003), mediate the majority of the effects of cannabis and other cannabinoid compounds, such as euphoria, appetite stimulation, sedation, altered perception, and impairments in memory and motor control (Adams and Martin, 1996). The CB₁ receptor is the most abundant GPCR in the brain; highly expressed in the cerebral cortex, hippocampus, substantia nigra, globus pallidus and cerebellum (Devane et al., 1988; Glass et al., 1997; Herkenham, 1991). However, it is also present at lower levels in the testes, spleen and in immune cells (Gerard et al., 1991; Kaminski et al., 1992). The other major cannabinoid receptor, the CB₂ receptor, is more abundant in immune cells; however, it is also expressed in low amounts in the brain (Atwood and Mackie, 2010; Munro et al., 1993; Onaivi et al., 2006). There is also evidence that cannabinoids may act at non-CB₁ and non-CB₂ receptors, including GPR55 (Ryberg et al., 2007), GPR18 (Kohno et al., 2006), and transient receptor potential cation channel vanilloid (TRPV) receptors (Zygmunt et al., 1999).

The CB₁ receptor shows 44% homology with the CB₂ receptor (Munro et al., 1993). There are several important structural differences between CB₁ and CB₂ receptors, mainly in the N-terminal domain, the second extracellular loop, the C-terminus of TM7 and the C-terminal tail of the receptor (Montero et al., 2005). These differences can be used for the development of receptor subtype-selective therapeutics. The CB₁ receptor has a long N-terminus, consisting of approximately 70 residues, which may be involved in the stabilisation and surface expression of the receptor (Montero et al., 2005).

The main endogenous ligands for cannabinoid receptors (endocannabinoids) are N-arachidonylethanolamine or anandamide and 2-

arachydonylglycerol (2-AG). *N*-acylphosphatidyl-ethanolamine-specific phospholipase D (NAPE-PLD) and diacylglycerol lipases (DAGL- α and DAGL- β) are the main enzymes responsible for the biosynthesis of anandamide (Okamoto et al., 2004) and 2-AG (Bisogno et al., 2003), respectively. The two endocannabinoids are hydrolysed mainly by the enzymes fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoacyl glycerol lipase (MAGL), respectively (Di Marzo et al., 2004; Pertwee and Ross, 2002). In addition to these two endocannabinoids, a number of endogenous lipids have been shown to act as CB₁ and/or CB₂ receptor agonists or antagonists, including dihomog- γ -linolenylethanolamide, docosatetraenylethanol-amide, *O*-arachidonoyl ethanolamine (virodhamine), 2-arachidonylglyceryl ether (noladin ether), oleamide, *N*-oleoyl dopamine (OLDA) and *N*-arachidonyl-dopamine (NADA) (reviewed in Pertwee, 2005). However, their physiological roles have yet to be fully elucidated.

1.3. CB₁ cannabinoid receptors

1.3.1. Physiological roles of CB₁ receptors

Studies using CB₁ knockout mice or selective CB₁ receptor inverse agonists have demonstrated the physiological importance of CB₁ receptors. For instance, CB₁ knockout mice demonstrate defective adult neurogenesis (Jin et al., 2004), and increased neurological deficits are particularly apparent in these mice (Parmentier-Batteur et al., 2002). CB₁ knockout mice exhibit hypoactivity and hypoalgesia (Zimmer et al., 1999). These mice are also hypophagic and exhibit reduced body weight and fat mass (Cota et al., 2003). The role of CB₁ receptors in the rewarding effects of drugs of abuse is also well documented. In CB₁ knockout

mice, the antinociceptive and rewarding effects of nicotine are enhanced (Castane et al., 2002) and preference for ethanol and morphine is decreased (Cossu et al., 2001; Lallemand and de Witte, 2005).

1.3.2. CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling

Most of the central nervous system effects of cannabinoids are related to activation of distinct CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling pathways. The CB₁ receptor preferentially couples to Gi/o proteins to modulate multiple downstream signalling events, including inhibition of N- and P/Q-type calcium channels (Twitchell et al., 1997), activation of inwardly rectifying potassium channels (Vasquez et al., 2003), inhibition of adenylate cyclase (Howlett et al., 1986) and stimulation of mitogen-activated protein kinase (Bouaboula et al., 1995b). However, CB₁ receptors may also couple to Gs or Gq/11 proteins which may lead to stimulation of adenylate cyclase, and increases in intracellular levels of Ca²⁺ (Bash et al., 2003; Felder et al., 1995; Glass and Felder, 1997; Lauckner et al., 2005). Evidence for CB₁ receptor coupling specificity is provided below.

1.3.2.1. Regulation of adenylate cyclase

The CB₁ receptor-mediated cAMP signalling pathway is involved in regulation of neurite remodelling. This pathway, at least in part, mediates the psychoactive and neurotoxic effects of cannabinoids (Zhou and Song, 2001). Inhibition of adenylate cyclase activity through coupling to Gi/o proteins (Childers et al., 1993; Howlett et al., 1986) has been shown in both recombinant cell systems (Matsuda et al., 1990; Vogel et al., 1993) and in endogenously expressing

cells such as neuroblastoma cells (Howlett and Fleming, 1984). This effect was inhibited with the selective CB₁ inverse agonist SR141716 (Glass and Felder, 1997; Goodfellow et al., 2011), indicating the involvement of CB₁ receptors.

However, as mentioned above the CB₁ receptor can also couple to Gs. This is apparent when Gi/o proteins are inhibited with pertussis toxin (PTX) (Felder et al., 1995; Glass and Felder, 1997). Stimulation of cAMP production is also mediated by CB₁ receptors, as the response was blocked by SR141716 (Chen et al., 2010). However, in some instances, accumulation of cAMP may be attributable to the membrane-perturbing effects of high micromolar concentrations of cannabinoids (Glass and Felder, 1997; Hillard et al., 1995).

1.3.2.2. Modulation of intracellular Ca²⁺

CB₁ receptor-mediated regulation of Ca²⁺ channel activity is involved in depolarization-induced suppression of synaptic activity (Chevalleyre et al., 2006; Kano et al., 2009). Cannabinoid-induced inhibition of N- and P/Q-type Ca²⁺ channels is mediated by Gi/o proteins acting directly on the channels, independently of cAMP, which conversely can enhance the activity of these channels (Caulfield and Brown, 1992; Mackie and Hille, 1992; Pan et al., 1996; Taguchi et al., 1997; Twitchell et al., 1997). Effects of cannabinoid agonists on other Ca²⁺ channels are controversial. CB₁ receptor agonists may inhibit L- or T-type voltage-gated Ca²⁺ currents in a CB₁ receptor-dependent (Hoddah et al., 2009) or –independent (Chemin et al., 2001) manner, and in some instances they display no inhibitory effects on these channels (Mackie and Hille, 1992). CB₁ receptor-mediated Ca²⁺ influx through L-type voltage gated Ca²⁺ channels could potentially contribute to cannabinoid-induced neurodegeneration (Ho et al., 2001).

Cannabinoids may also stimulate the release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores, and thereby increase intracellular Ca^{2+} levels (Netzeband et al., 1999). Different mechanisms are involved in this response, including coupling of CB_1 receptors to Gs (Bash et al., 2003) or Gq/11 proteins (Lauckner et al., 2005) or activation of phospholipase $\text{C}\beta$ ($\text{PLC}\beta$) enzymes by the $\beta\gamma$ subunits of Gi/o proteins (Varga et al., 2008).

1.3.2.3. Activation of inwardly-rectifying K^+ channels

The CB_1 receptor-mediated activation of K^+ channels has been suggested to be involved in long-term depression of synaptic activity and the suppression of excitatory synaptic transmission (Daniel and Crepel, 2001; Kano et al., 2009). CB_1 receptor agonists activate inwardly rectifying K^+ currents via Gi/o in AtT-20 pituitary tumour cells and rat sympathetic neurons in a cAMP/PKA (protein kinase A) independent manner (Guo and Ikeda, 2004; Mackie et al., 1995) and in dissociated hippocampal neurons, through a cAMP/PKA-dependent pathway (Deadwyler et al., 1995).

1.3.2.4. Activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase

The involvement of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) family, which includes extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1 and 2 (ERK1/2 or p42/p44 MAPK), p38 MAPK and c-JUN N-terminal kinases, in the development of tolerance and addiction to cannabinoids has been reported (Rubino et al., 2006). The ERK pathway is also involved in the regulation of neuronal migration and differentiation, and glucose metabolism by cannabinoids (Berghuis et al., 2005; Guzman and Sanchez, 1999; Rueda et al., 2002; Sanchez et al., 1998).

CB₁ receptor-mediated activation of MAPK via Gi/o has been demonstrated in several cell lines (Bouaboula et al., 1995a; Bouaboula et al., 1995b; Liu et al., 2000; Rueda et al., 2000; Wartmann et al., 1995). Different mechanisms are involved in the regulation of MAPK, such as recruitment of phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K) and phosphorylation of protein kinase B (Sanchez et al., 1998). Phosphorylation of Raf by PKA is another mechanism involved in MAPK activation (Derkinderen et al., 2003). Cannabinoid agonists can also activate MAPK, independent of Gi/o, through CB₁ receptor-mediated ceramide synthesis from sphingomyelin hydrolysis (Sanchez et al., 2001).

1.3.2.5. G protein-independent signalling

Receptor internalisation, desensitisation and downregulation is an underlying mechanism for the development of tolerance to cannabinoids (Appleyard et al., 1997; Kouznetsova et al., 2002; Koo et al., 1997; Martini et al., 2007). β -arrestins (Jin et al., 1999) and G protein-coupled receptor kinases (GRKs) (Jin et al., 1999; Kouznetsova et al., 2002) are involved in CB₁ receptor desensitisation and internalisation, and GPCR-associated sorting protein (GASP1) (Martini et al., 2007) is involved in downregulation of CB₁ receptors. Factor associated with neutral sphingomyelinase (FAN) (Sanchez et al., 2001) is involved in CB₁ receptor-coupled sphingomyelin breakdown. Sphingomyelin hydrolysis is involved in the regulation of many physiological events related to cellular differentiation, proliferation, and apoptosis (Hannun and Luberto, 2000; Kolesnick and Krönke, 1998). Thus, activation of these proteins independent of G protein signalling is also important in the effects of CB₁ receptor agonists.

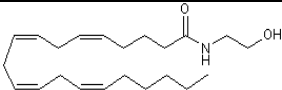
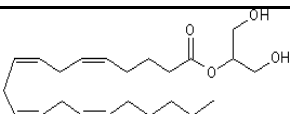
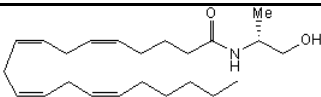
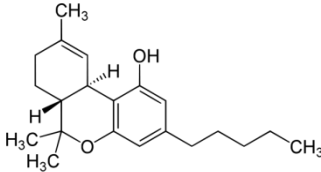
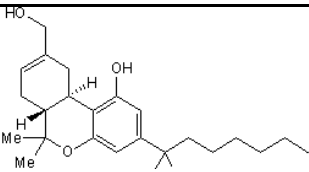
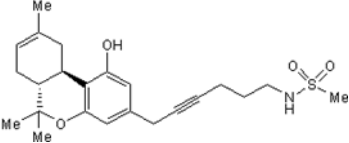
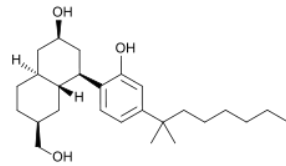
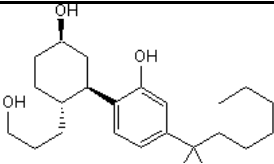
1.3.3. CB₁ receptors as therapeutic targets

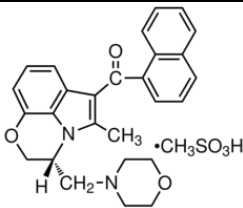
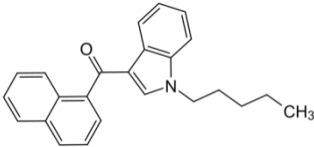
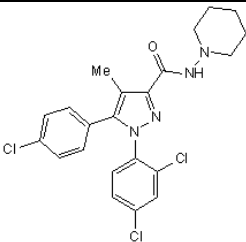
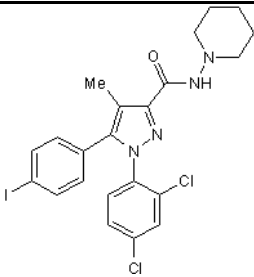
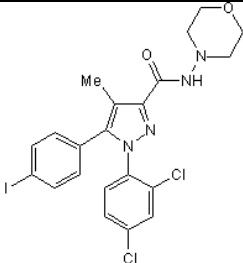
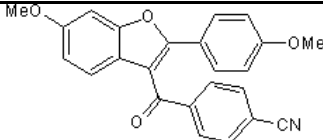
CB₁ receptors are involved in many physiological functions through coupling to various downstream signalling pathways; therefore, they are potential targets for the treatment of a number of diseases. CB₁ receptor antagonists have therapeutic potential for the treatment of a variety of conditions including obesity (Horvath, 2003), osteoporosis (Idris et al., 2005), nicotine and morphine addiction (Castane et al., 2002; Cossu et al., 2001; Le Foll and Goldberg, 2005) and Parkinson's disease (Segovia et al., 2003); and CB₁ receptor agonists for the treatment of pain (Iversen and Chapman, 2002), inflammation (Rice et al., 2002), cancer (Bifulco and Di Marzo, 2002), multiple sclerosis (Pertwee, 2002) and cardiovascular disease (Randall et al., 2002). However, therapeutic applications of cannabinoid compounds, in particular CB₁ receptor agonists, are limited mainly due to their psychotropic effects. For example, essentially all CB₁ receptor agonists that have been tested in humans have the potential to cause psychotic like effects and cognitive impairment (Castaneto et al., 2014). Also, the selective CB₁ antagonist/inverse agonist rimonabant (SR141716), which was approved by the European Medicines Agency (EMA) in 2006 for the treatment of obesity, was withdrawn from the market due to an increased risk of serious psychiatric disorders such as depression and anxiety (Christensen et al., 2007; Mitchell and Morris, 2007). Therefore, there is a great need to identify CB₁ receptor ligands that display relative selectivity in terms of producing therapeutic effects without adverse effects.

1.3.4. Cannabinoid therapeutics

The search for cannabinoid agonists and antagonists has led to the identification of several exogenous cannabinoids. The structure of Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (Δ^9 -THC), the main psychoactive component of cannabis, was first elucidated in 1964 (Gaoni and Mechoulam, 1964). The chemical structures of different classes of cannabinoid ligands, as well as a brief description of the receptor activity, are shown in Table 1.1. Phytocannabinoids such as Δ^9 -THC and synthetic analogues such as HU-210 are classified as classical cannabinoids (tricyclic dibenzopyran derivatives). The non-classical cannabinoids include bicyclic (e.g. CP55940) and tricyclic (CP55244) analogues of Δ^9 -THC, which lack the dihydropyran ring found in classical cannabinoids. Synthetic cannabinoids also include aminoalkylindoles such as WIN55,212-2 and AM 678, which are structurally distinct from other classes of cannabinoids. The diarylpyrazoles are the most commonly used cannabinoid inverse agonists and include SR141716, AM 251 and AM 281. Neutral antagonists include compounds with similar structure to the classical cannabinoids, such as O-2050 (Howlett et al., 2002).

Table 1.1. Some commonly used cannabinoid ligands

Classification	Name	Activity	Chemical structure
Eicosanoids	Anandamide	Endogenous partial agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors; exhibiting lower CB ₂ than CB ₁ efficacy	
	2-arachydonylglycerol	Endogenous agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors. Also a potent agonist at GPR55	
	(R)-(+)-Methanandamide	Selective agonist at CB ₁ receptors. Also an agonist at vanilloid receptors	
Classical	(-)-Δ ⁹ -THC	Partial agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors	
	HU-210	Potent agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors	
	O-2050	CB ₁ receptor antagonist	
Non-classical	CP55244	Potent agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors	
	CP55940	Potent agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors	

Aminoalkylindole	WIN55,212-2	Potent agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors	
	AM 678	Full agonist at CB ₁ and CB ₂ receptors	
Diarylpyrazoles	SR141716	Selective CB ₁ inverse agonist/antagonist	
	AM 251	Selective CB ₁ inverse agonist/antagonist. Also an agonist at GPR55	
	AM 281	Potent selective CB ₁ inverse agonist/antagonist	
Benzofuran	LY320135	Selective CB ₁ inverse agonist/antagonist	

1.4. Ligand-biased signalling

Although a large variety of CB₁ receptor ligands exist, adverse on-target effects have hampered their therapeutic application. However, selective activation of the receptor signalling events that mediate desired effects at the expense of those that cause adverse effects may overcome these problems. This may be achieved via a phenomenon referred to as ligand-biased signalling or biased agonism (Fig. 1.2).

Ligand-biased signalling is the ability of different ligands to stabilise a unique subset of receptor conformations, with each conformation being able to couple to distinct signalling pathways (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013). Therefore, the pharmacological properties of a ligand depend on the particular signal transduction pathway being studied. For instance, a ligand can behave as an agonist for one pathway, or antagonist or inverse agonist for another (Kenakin, 2007).

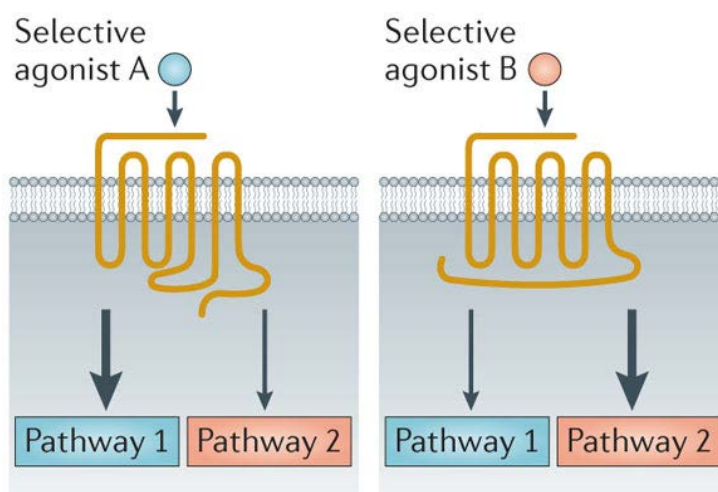


Fig. 1.2. Ligand-biased signalling. Agonist A preferentially activates pathways 1 whereas agonist B preferably activates pathway 2 (from Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013).

1.4.1. Ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors

There is growing evidence that ligand-biased signalling exists at CB₁ receptors. For example, HU-210 and CP55940 display differential regulation of gene transcription, because while they exhibit similar potencies and efficacies in terms of inhibition of cAMP response element (CRE)-mediated gene transcription, only HU-210 inhibits activator protein (AP)-1-mediated gene transcription in transfected N1E-115 cells (Bosier et al., 2008a). Reversals in cannabinoid efficacy or potency in activating different signal transduction pathways, which is a hallmark of ligand-biased signalling, has also been demonstrated. For example, in N1E-115 neuroblastoma cells, HU-210 was more efficacious than CP55940 in activating pERK1/2, while CP55940 displayed higher efficacy than HU-210 in activating JNK (Bosier et al., 2008b).

There is also evidence for activation of distinct Gi protein subtypes by different cannabinoids (Mukhopadhyay and Howlett, 2005). Further proof of ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors was provided by plasmon-waveguide resonance (PWR) spectroscopy, a highly sensitive experimental method that can be used to detect and characterise protein-ligand or protein-protein interactions (for details refer to Varga et al., 2008). Varga and colleagues characterised the interaction of the CB₁ receptor with structurally different ligands and with individual G protein subtypes. The shift in the PWR spectra in opposite directions by WIN55,212-2 and CP55940 indicated that these ligands induce different conformational changes in the receptor. Furthermore, it was demonstrated that WIN55,212-2- and CP55940-occupied CB₁ receptors have different affinities and efficacies for the Gi₁ protein (Varga et al., 2008).

Most importantly, there is evidence that cannabinoid ligand-biased signalling may be operative *in vivo*. This was demonstrated by reversals in potency or efficacy of cannabinoid ligands in producing the “tetrad of effects”, consisting of hypoactivity, antinociception, hypothermia, and catalepsy (Elphick and Egertová, 2009; Wiley and Martin, 2009), through activation of the CB₁ receptor (Abood and Martin, 1992).

Therefore, the ability to selectively direct CB₁ receptor signalling towards therapeutically desirable signalling pathways at the exclusion of pathways linked to unwanted side-effects through ligand-biased signalling may aid the development of more successful CB₁ receptor-targeted therapies.

1.4.2. CB₁ receptor residues important for binding/signalling of cannabinoid ligands

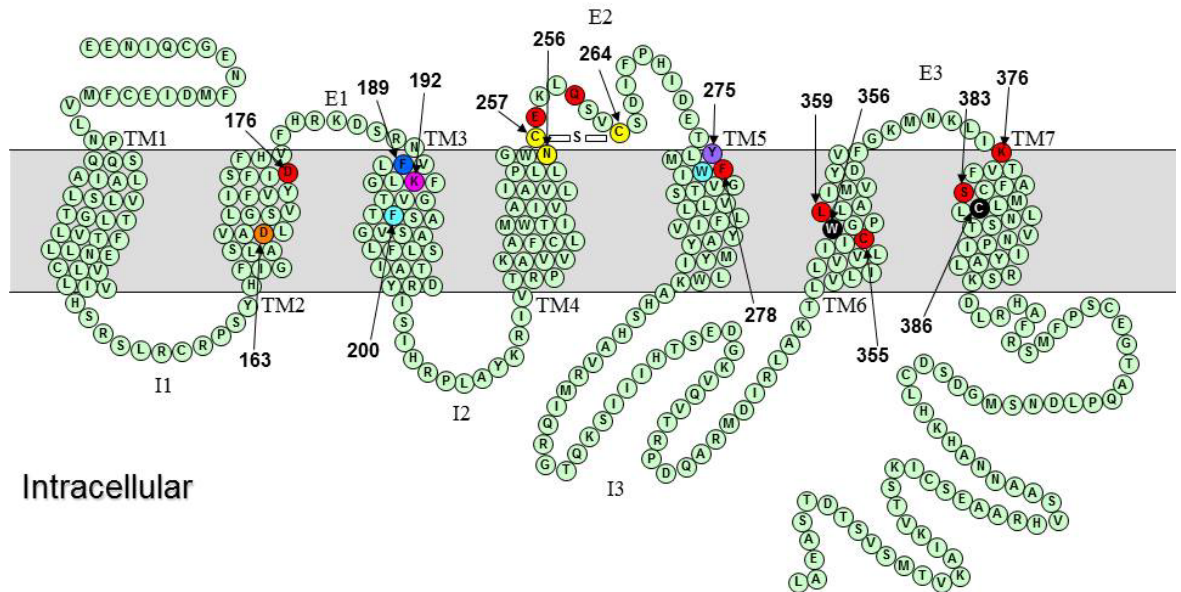
The ability of different ligands to stabilise distinct receptor conformations and therefore engender bias is due to their ability to interact with different receptor regions and/or their ability to engage different amino acids when transmitting their response through the receptor. Therefore, in subsequent sections the CB₁ receptor amino acid residues that are involved in ligand binding or signalling are discussed.

It is now known that different, although overlapping, binding sites exist for different CB₁ receptor ligands. Therefore, ligand binding pocket for cannabinoid compounds has not been well established due to the variety of structurally different cannabinoids. Nonetheless, based on molecular dynamic simulation and mutagenesis studies, it has been proposed that the region formed by TM2, TM3, TM6 and TM7 is important for anandamide binding (McAllister et al., 2003), the

region formed by TM3, TM5, TM6 and TM7 for CP55940 (Reggio, 1999) and the region formed by TM3, TM4, TM5 and TM6 for WIN55,212-2 and SR141716 binding (McAllister et al., 2003).

There is however some overlap between the binding sites that have been defined for each class of ligand (Shim, 2010). In particular, the binding site residues of the aminoalkylindole WIN55,212-2 show some diversity but some overlap to other classes of cannabinoids (Shim and Howlett, 2002). For example, Y275^{5.39} [the amino acids are numbered according to Ballesteros-Weinstein numbering system (Ballesteros and Weinstein, 1995)] is important for binding of WIN55,212-2, CP55940 and anandamide (McAllister et al., 2002), whereas V282^{5.46}, F200^{3.36} and W279^{5.43} are important for the binding of WIN55,212-2 but not other cannabinoids (McAllister et al., 2003), and D176^{2.63} (Kapur et al., 2008) and K192^{3.28} (Song and Bonner, 1996) are involved in binding of cannabinoid compounds other than WIN55,212-2. Figure 1.3 summarises the CB₁ receptor residues that are involved in ligand binding either directly, by forming the binding pocket, or indirectly, through inducing global conformational changes in the receptor, and thereby altering the binding pocket topology. Table 2.2 shows only the residues that directly interact with ligands.

Extracellular



Intracellular

Fig 1.3. Two-dimensional structure of the human CB₁ receptor illustrating amino acid residues important for cannabinoid ligand binding. Seven TM helices (TM1-TM7), three extracellular loops (E1, E2, and E3), three intracellular loops (I1, I2, and I3), and N- and C-terminals are presented. Amino acid residues that have been shown through mutational and ligand docking studies to be critical for anandamide binding are in dark blue, for CP55940 in red, for WIN55,212-2 in orange, for anandamide, CP55940 and WIN55,212-2 in purple, for SR141716 in yellow, for SR141716 and WIN55,212-2 in light blue, for SR141716 and CP55940 in black and for SR141716, anandamide and CP55940 in pink.

Table 2.2. The key CB₁ receptor amino acid residues that directly contact with cannabinoid ligands

Ligand	Amino acid residue	Reference
Anandamide	F189 ^{3.25} Y275 ^{5.39}	(McAllister et al., 2003) (McAllister et al., 2002)
CP55940	E2 residues F268/P269/H270/I271 C355 ^{6.47} Y275 ^{5.39}	(Ahn et al., 2009) (Picone et al., 2005) (McAllister et al., 2002)
WIN55,212-2	G195 ^{3.31} W280 ^{5.43} F201 ^{3.36} W356 ^{6.48} V282 ^{5.46} W279 ^{5.43} F200 ^{3.36} Y275 ^{5.39}	(Reggio et al., 1998) (McAllister et al., 2003) (McAllister et al., 2002)
SR141716	F200 ^{3.36} W279 ^{5.43} W356 ^{6.48} C386 ^{7.42}	(Ahn et al., 2009)

Of the residues listed in Table 2.2, those in TM6 and TM7 of the inactive receptor are not believed to form initial contacts for agonist binding but become available when the receptor is activated by the inward movements of TM6 and TM7. However, these residues form initial contacts for the inverse agonist SR141716 (Shim, 2010). Therefore, it seems that the hydrophobic pocket that interacts with cannabinoids forms dynamically as the receptor equilibrium shifts toward the active state (Shim et al., 2011).

Therefore, differences in the interaction between cannabinoid ligands and the CB₁ receptor may reflect their distinct biased signalling profiles. In fact, it has been demonstrated that the binding of different cannabinoids can evoke coupling of the CB₁ receptor to different signalling proteins. For instance, the I3 loop of the CB₁ receptor is involved in the interaction of the receptor with G α_{i-1} and G α_{i-2} proteins, while the C-terminal domain regulates G α_o and G α_{i-3} (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002). Varga *et al.* (2008) suggested that binding of cannabinoids to helices of

CB₁ receptors that extend to the I3 loop (TM5 and TM6) preferentially evokes G α_{i-1} and G α_{i-2} signalling, and interaction of ligands with TM7 of the receptor changes the conformation of the juxtamembrane C-terminal domain and promotes G α_o and G α_{i-3} coupling (Varga et al., 2008).

Mutagenesis studies have revealed that helix 8 of CB₁ receptors is involved in differential signalling of cannabinoids. The L7.60F mutation of the highly conserved NPXXY(X)_{5,6}L motif, which links the binding pocket and the G protein binding interface (Shim and Padgett, 2013), attenuated [³⁵S]GTP γ S stimulation by WIN55,212-2 and CP55940 but not HU-210, whereas the L7.60I mutation inhibited the response to all three agonists (Anavi-Goffer et al., 2007).

1.5. Allosteric modulation at CB₁ receptors

In addition to the orthosteric binding site, where endogenous agonists bind to the receptor, GPCRs including CB₁ receptors contain a topographically distinct binding site called the allosteric binding site. The binding of a ligand to an allosteric site may alter the binding and/or signalling properties of the orthosteric ligand, indicating that the sites are conformationally linked (May et al., 2007). Allosteric modulators may have divergence in their effects on ligand binding affinity and efficacy, for example being an enhancer of orthosteric ligand binding and a negative modulator of ligand efficacy (Price et al., 2005).

Allosteric modulators have several advantages over orthosteric ligands. Importantly, whereas orthosteric binding sites share high sequence conservation across receptor subtypes, allosteric sites are generally more diverse and therefore offer targets for more selective therapies (Christopoulos and Kenakin, 2002; Rees

et al., 2002). Furthermore, rather than directly mimicking or blocking the actions of the endogenous agonists that bind to the orthosteric site, allosteric modulators can fine-tune pharmacological agonist responses by altering the binding and/or signalling properties of orthosteric ligands (May et al., 2007). However, some allosteric modulators may also display agonist activity in their own right (May et al., 2007).

One of the characteristics of allosteric interactions is that their effects are saturable, with a limit in their effect which can be represented by a cooperativity factor, α . α describes the magnitude of the allosteric change in ligand affinity when the two sites are occupied. An α value >1 describes positive cooperativity (allosteric enhancement of binding), while an α value <1 (but >0) describes negative cooperativity (allosteric inhibition of binding) and an $\alpha = 1$ describes neutral cooperativity, i.e., no net effect on binding affinity at equilibrium (Ehlert, 1988). Saturability leads to a ceiling effect, and therefore assuming no off-target effects, allosteric modulators may be used in larger doses without causing on-target toxicity, normally observed at high concentrations of orthosteric ligands (May et al., 2007).

Like orthosteric ligands, allosteric modulators may engender biased signalling (Fig. 1.4) by promoting unique conformational states of the receptor, which may result in modulation of specific orthosteric ligand-mediated signalling pathways (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013).

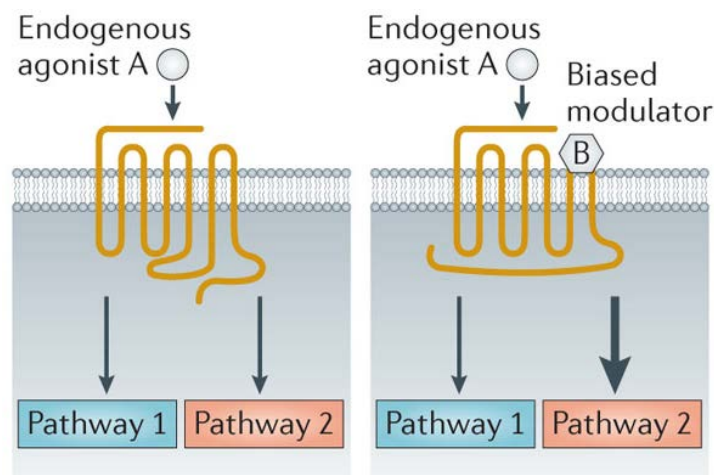


Fig. 1.4. Biased allosteric modulation. An allosteric modulator may selectively modulate specific signalling pathways activated by an orthosteric ligand (from Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013).

Another important feature of allosteric interactions is probe-dependence that is the effects of an allosteric modulator at a given receptor may change depending on the type of orthosteric ligand used (Leach et al., 2007; Valant et al., 2012). Therefore, the same allosteric modulator can act at the same receptor as an enhancer of one orthosteric ligand, an inhibitor of another, and exert no effect on a third (Leach et al., 2007; Valant et al., 2012). Thus, probe-dependence provides the opportunity to target selective signalling pathways using distinct combinations of allosteric and orthosteric ligands. A thorough understanding of allosterism at CB₁ receptors is therefore critical for the development of selective as well as effective therapeutics targeting these receptors.

1.5.1. Small molecule allosteric modulators of the CB₁ receptor

Price *et al.* (2005) reported that the cannabinoid CB₁ receptor contains an allosteric binding site for small molecule ligands. They identified three novel compounds, named Org27569, Org27759 and Org29647 with unique properties. These compounds act as allosteric inhibitors of agonist function at the CB₁ receptor while enhancing agonist binding and, on the other hand, reducing CB₁ receptor inverse agonist [³H]SR141716A binding (Price *et al.*, 2005).

Site-directed fluorescent labelling studies of agonist-occupied CB₁ receptors by Fay and Farrens (2012) showed that Org27569 blocked agonist-induced conformational changes at TM6. It also completely inhibited agonist-stimulated GTPγS binding in purified receptor reconstituted with Gα_i while increasing agonist binding to the purified CB₁ receptor. Therefore, the authors suggested that in the presence of Org27569, the CB₁ receptor is stabilised in an intermediate agonist-bound but non-signalling conformation that lacks the movements in TM6 required for receptor activation (Fay and Farrens, 2012).

PSNCBAM-1, a novel compound with similar structure to the Org series of compounds (Fig. 1.5) was also reported to act as an allosteric modulator at the CB₁ receptor (Horswill *et al.*, 2007). It displays a similar pharmacology to Org27569 by inhibiting cannabinoid agonist function while increasing binding (Horswill *et al.*, 2007).

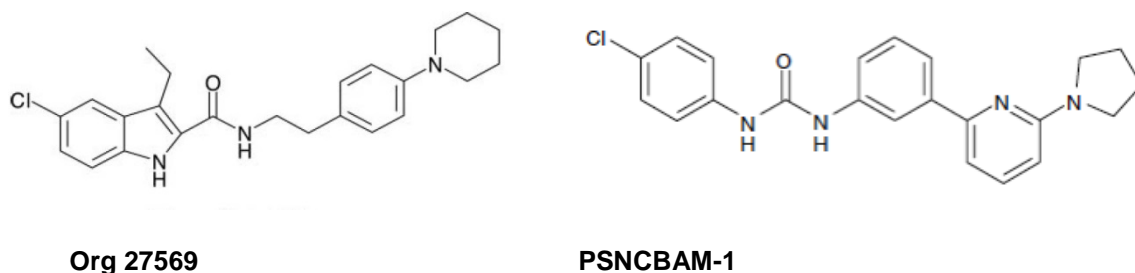


Fig. 1.5. Molecular structure of CB₁ allosteric modulators.

It has been demonstrated that Org27569 and PSNCBAM-1 display probe-dependence and engender biased allosteric effects (biased allosterism) (Ahn et al., 2012; Baillie et al., 2013; Horswill et al., 2007; Price et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2011). Org27569 also displays biased signalling on its own right (Baillie et al., 2013). These effects are discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

1.5.1.1. Amino acid residues involved in binding/activity of CB₁ small molecule allosteric modulators

Limited studies have probed the CB₁ receptor allosteric binding site(s), and the amino acid residues involved in the transmission of cooperativity between the CB₁ allosteric and orthosteric ligands. Nonetheless, Org27569 and PSNCBAM-1 have been suggested to target the same binding site on the CB₁ receptor (Ross, 2007b). In a recent study using combined molecular modelling, mutagenesis and functional studies, Shore and colleagues identified a region involving TM3, 6, 7 of the CB₁ receptor to be important for binding of Org27569. This overlaps with the orthosteric binding site of SR141716 but extends extracellularly (Shore et al., 2014). Docking experiments by Barber et al. (2006) suggested that Org27569 may

interact at the TM5-6 interface of the receptor and an interaction that stabilises W356^{6.48} may particularly be important for binding of Org27569 (Barber et al., 2006). However, mutagenesis studies by Shore and colleagues demonstrated the lack of effect of W356^{6.48} on binding of Org27569 (Shore et al., 2014).

Mutations at K192^{3.28} and W279^{5.43} in the CB₁ receptor caused loss of the ability of Org27569 to inhibit CP55940 signalling, suggesting that these residues are essential for either binding of Org27569 or the transmission of cooperativity across the allosteric and orthosteric binding sites (Baillie et al., 2013; Shore et al., 2014). F189^{3.25}A eliminated inverse agonism of Org27569, whereas it retained its ability to inhibit CP55940 signalling (Shore et al., 2014).

To date, there is only one study quantifying the effects of mutations in CB₁ receptors on the binding of Org27569 or its transmission of cooperativity (Ahn et al., 2012). Ahn and colleagues demonstrated that the alanine mutation of T210^{3.46} caused a 3-fold decrease in the binding affinity of Org27569. Furthermore, the binding affinity of [³H]CP55940 was increased in the wild-type and T210^{3.46}A receptors, but not in T210^{3.46}I receptors, in the presence of Org27569 (Ahn et al., 2012). Figure 1.6 shows the CB₁ receptor amino acid residues that have been suggested to be involved in the binding of Org27569 or the transmission of cooperativity between Org27569 and CP55940.

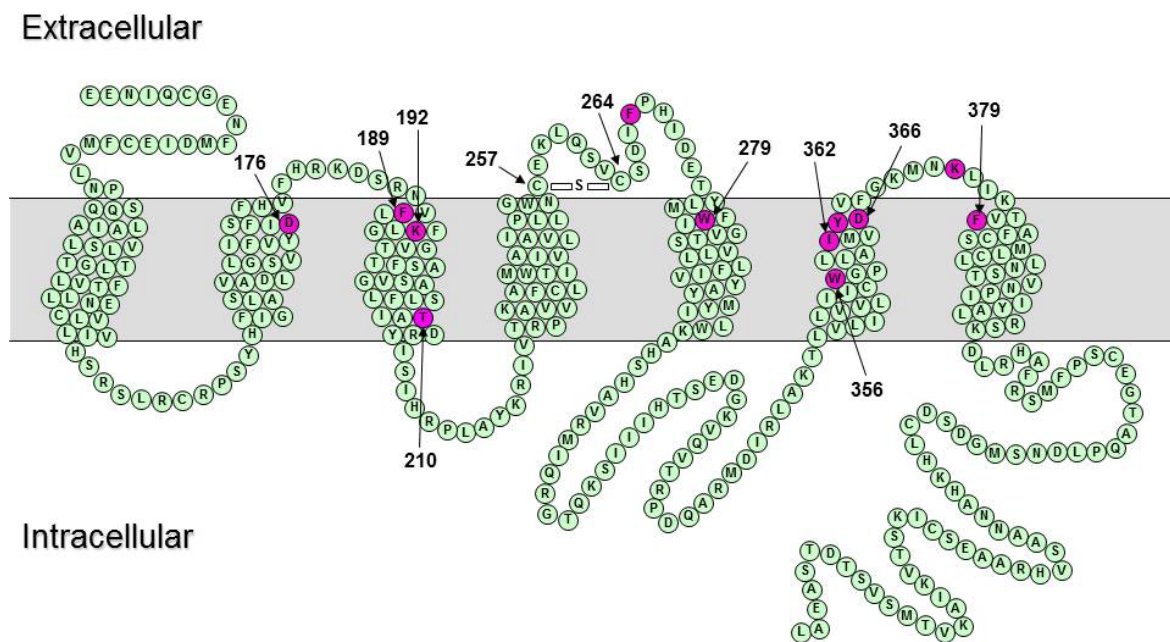


Fig. 1.6. CB₁ receptor amino acid residues involved in the binding of Org27569 or the transmission of cooperativity between Org27569 and CP55940. These residues are highlighted in pink.

Molecular modelling studies suggested that the interactions of Org27569 with F379^{7,35}, I362^{6,54}, Y365^{6,57} and D366^{6,58} prevent the conformational changes in the TM6 necessary for receptor activation. The movement of the E2 loop towards the transmembrane core is also blocked by interaction of Org27569 with F268; thereby the receptor remains in an inactive state. Org27569 also blocks the necessary conformational changes in the E3 loop by preventing the interaction between D176^{2,63} and the E3 residue, K373. Taken together, Shore and colleagues suggested that blocking the necessary conformational changes in the TM6, E2 and E3 during receptor activation by Org27569 appears to be important for antagonising the efficacy of CP55940 (Shore et al., 2014).

Further molecular modelling and mutagenesis studies are required to determine the regions of the receptor involved in the binding, transmission of

cooperativity, and biased allosteric effects of the CB₁ receptor allosteric modulators.

1.5.2. Endogenous allosteric modulators of the CB₁ receptor

Several endogenous allosteric modulators of GPCRs have been implicated in physiological and pathophysiological processes. G proteins and other GPCR-interacting proteins are examples of endogenous allosteric modulators for GPCRs (May et al., 2007) because they can alter the conformation of a GPCR and therefore its ligand binding and signalling properties.

Some ions have been reported to have allosteric activity at different GPCRs. For example, Zn²⁺ allosterically modulates the activity of orthosteric ligands at D1, D2 (Schetz and Sibley, 1997), and D4 (Schetz and Sibley, 2001) dopamine receptors. Ca²⁺ can act both as an allosteric modulator and as an orthosteric ligand for some GPCRs (Conigrave et al., 2000; Galvez et al., 2000). Endogenous peptides (Bauer et al., 2012; Massot et al., 1996) and lipids (Gimpl et al., 1997; Grazzini et al., 1998; Thomas et al., 1997) may also act as allosteric modulators.

Several endogenous allosteric modulators have been suggested for CB₁ receptors. Lipoxin A4, an endogenous lipoxin that is largely involved in immune system regulation, was reported as an allosteric enhancer at CB₁ receptors as it enhanced agonist binding and functions whereas it partially inhibited inverse agonist binding (Pamplona et al., 2012). Bauer et al. (2102) identified pepcans (a new family of endogenous peptides) as allosteric inhibitors of agonist binding and function at CB₁ receptors (Bauer et al., 2012). More recently, the inactive precursor of neurosteroids, pregnenolone, was reported to act as an allosteric inhibitor of

agonist function without altering agonist equilibrium binding at CB₁ receptors (Vallee et al., 2014).

Another endogenous modulator at CB₁ receptors was identified by Niehaus and colleagues in 2007 (Niehaus et al., 2007). They reported the interaction of the last nine amino acids (aa 465-473) of the CB₁ receptor C-terminal tail with two structurally related CB₁ receptor interacting proteins (CRIP1a and CRIP1b). The 164-aa CRIP1a is encoded by a gene on human chromosome 2, which is alternatively spliced to encode the 128-aa CRIP1b. CRIP1a is conserved throughout vertebrates whereas CRIP1b has been identified only in primates (Niehaus et al., 2007). Modulatory effects of CRIP1a on CB₁ receptor-mediated signal transduction pathways were demonstrated by attenuation of inverse agonist but not agonist activity on Ca²⁺ currents in superior cervical ganglion (SCG) neurons over-expressing CRIP1a (Niehaus et al., 2007), suggesting that CRIP1a may act as an endogenous allosteric inhibitor at CB₁ receptors.

However, the allosteric effects of these endogenous modulators warrant further investigation.

1.6. Scope of thesis

As mentioned earlier, the CB₁ receptor is implicated in numerous CNS disorders. Selective activation of receptor signalling events that mediate desired therapeutic effects, at the expense of those that mediate adverse effects, via orthosteric or allosteric ligand-biased signalling is a promising approach to gaining selective therapies targeting these receptors. However, no study has directly quantified ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors to date. The current study therefore aimed to detect and quantify ligand-biased signalling and allosterism at CB₁ receptors using sophisticated analytical methods.

To address this aim, in chapter 2 the binding affinities of several CB₁ receptor endogenous and exogenous ligands were determined in competition binding experiments by displacement of [³H]SR141716A, and the potency and efficacy values were determined in two important CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling pathways, inhibition of cAMP formation and activation of pERK1/2, in FlpIn CHO-CB₁ cells. Ligand-biased signalling from the CB₁ receptor in cAMP and pERK1/2 pathways was quantified for each ligand. In chapters 3 and 4 the allosteric effects of the CB₁ receptor small molecule allosteric modulator Org27569 (Price et al., 2005), and endogenous allosteric modulators pregnenolone (Vallee et al., 2014), lipoxin A4 (Pamplona et al., 2012) and CRIP1a (Niehaus et al., 2007) were investigated. Binding interaction studies between Org27569 and several cannabinoid ligands were performed to quantify the binding cooperativity between the allosteric and orthosteric ligands. The functional cooperativity between the allosteric and orthosteric ligands was then quantified in cAMP and pERK1/2 interaction studies. To determine the activity of pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 at

CB₁ receptors, [³H]SR141716A displacement by these ligands was studied. Furthermore, the ability of pregnenolone, lipoxin A4 and CRIP1a to modulate cannabinoid-mediated signalling was investigated in functional interaction experiments.

These studies provide novel insights into orthosteric ligand-biased signalling, allosteric modulator-biased signalling and probe-dependence at CB₁ receptors, which may help in the development of selective therapeutics targeting these receptors.

Chapter 2

Validation and Quantification of Ligand-Biased Signalling at CB₁ Receptors

2.1. Introduction

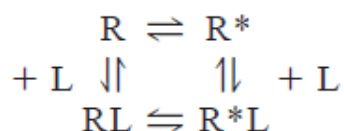
As discussed in the previous chapter, despite the immense potential for CB₁ receptor-based therapies in the treatment of numerous disorders (Zhang et al., 2009), many existing ligands that target these receptors have limited therapeutic value mainly due to their unwanted side effects. Thus, approaches to develop effective cannabinoid drugs with reduced adverse effects must be undertaken.

One drawback to many CB₁ receptor small molecule ligands is their tendency to interact with CB₂, as well as CB₁, receptors. Therefore, subtype selectivity is an important consideration for minimising adverse effects of cannabinoids. However, even when subtype selective drugs are available, some adverse effects may arise from on-target actions of drugs in undesirable tissues. Therefore, to avoid the central nervous system side effects of cannabinoid agonists, an approach to activate only the peripheral CB₁ receptor by developing ligands that do not cross the blood brain barrier may be useful (Hosking and Zajicek, 2008). However, this approach is unlikely to be successful as most of the therapeutic potential of cannabinoid agonists is associated with CB₁ receptors in the brain (Croxford, 2003).

A novel approach to dissociate on-target therapeutic effects from on-target adverse effects is through selective targeting of receptor signalling pathways (Mailman, 2007; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002). This has now been attempted at a number of GPCRs through ligand-biased signalling (reviewed in Kenakin and Miller, 2010).

Early theories of GPCR signal transduction proposed that all agonists stabilise a single active receptor conformation, which activates a set of signalling

proteins. Therefore, the receptor exists in two conformations, inactive (R) and active (R*) (Leff, 1995). In this two-state model, the receptor isomerises between R and R* states represented as,



According to this model, R and R* are in equilibrium in the absence of ligand (L). Ligand binding to the receptor drives the equilibrium towards one of these states, depending on the activity of the ligand. An agonist has a higher affinity for R* while an inverse agonist has a higher affinity for R, and an antagonist displays equal affinities for the two receptor states (Lefkowitz et al., 1993; Leff, 1995).

However, it is now known that distinct agonists can stabilise diverse receptor conformations rather than a single state, and each conformation may couple to a unique subset of signalling pathways (Kenakin, 1995a; Kenakin, 1995b). Therefore a single ligand may show diverse efficacy across different signalling pathways. For instance, a ligand may act as an agonist in one signalling pathway and as an antagonist in another. Therefore, the traditional classification of ligands as full agonists, partial agonists, antagonists and inverse agonists is no longer valid (Kenakin, 2011).

There is evidence that CB₁ receptor agonists engender ligand-biased signalling. For instance, WIN55,212-2 activates all Gi subtypes (Gi₁, Gi₂, and Gi₃), whereas (R)-methanandamide shows agonist activity only at Gi₃ and inverse agonism at Gi₁ and Gi₂ (Mukhopadhyay and Howlett, 2005). Furthermore, there is evidence for reversal in the rank order of cannabinoid efficacy in activating

different signalling pathways, also indicating ligand-biased signalling at these receptors (Bosier et al., 2008a; Bosier et al., 2008b). For instance, in a recent study, anandamide was reported to be more potent than Δ^9 -THC in activating Gi-mediated pERK1/2 activation, whereas Δ^9 -THC was more potent than anandamide in recruiting β -arrestin1 (Laprairie et al., 2014). Furthermore, different cannabinoid ligands may display different rank orders of potency or efficacy in producing the tetrad of cannabinoid effects in mice (consisting of hypoactivity, antinociception, hypothermia, and catalepsy) (Abood and Martin, 1992; Ryan et al., 1995; Smith et al., 1994; Wiley et al., 1998). For example, some novel indole derivatives of WIN55,212-2 are more potent in inducing antinociception than hypolocomotion, while Δ^9 -THC and WIN55,212-2 are more potent in producing hypolocomotion than antinociception (Wiley et al., 1998).

Although ligand-biased signalling has been observed at CB₁ receptors, no study has directly quantified it. Quantification of bias is important in order to determine the effects of structure-activity relationship studies on bias, and to link *in vitro* findings to potential therapeutic value. Furthermore, the classification of agonists already in the clinic based on their bias signalling profiles can be useful retrospectively to link their therapeutic profiles in humans to their *in vitro* bias profiles (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013). Useful methods for quantifying bias are described below.

The most convincing indication of ligand-biased signalling is a complete reversal in the rank order of agonist potency and/or efficacy in different signalling assays (Kenakin, 2003; Kenakin, 2012b). A comparison of the relative activity (RA), i.e. the ratio between the maximal agonist response and its potency, across different signalling pathways provides a useful method to calculate bias. However,

this scale has limited applications where the slope of concentration-response curves is significantly different from unity (Ehlert, 2008; Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013).

The Black-Leff operational model (Black and Leff, 1983) provides an alternative method to quantify ligand-bias by estimating a “transduction coefficient” (τ/K_A). In this model, the transduction coefficient incorporates agonist efficacy, receptor density, receptor stimulus-response coupling and an operational measure of affinity (K_A) (which may differ from the K_A value obtained from binding studies) (Kenakin et al., 2012).

To determine true ligand bias, the τ/K_A ratio must be compared to a reference agonist in order to eliminate system and observational bias (Black and Leff, 1983; Kenakin et al., 2012; van der Westhuizen et al., 2014). System bias is the relative coupling efficiency of a receptor to different pathways. For example, a weak agonist may only activate the most efficiently coupled pathway. Observational bias is the result of the sensitivity of different assays, and may depend on the experimental conditions under which the assay is performed (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013).

As noted previously, ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors has not been quantified to date. The present study therefore sought to quantify ligand-biased signalling by endogenous and exogenous cannabinoids in two important CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling pathways, inhibition of cAMP formation and activation of ERK1/2 phosphorylation. The cAMP pathway has been shown to be involved in neurite remodelling and facilitates psychoactive and neurotoxic effects of cannabinoids (Zhou and Song, 2001), and pERK1/2 is involved in neuronal migration and differentiation, glucose metabolism and the development of

tolerance and addiction to cannabinoids (Berghuis et al., 2005; Guzman and Sanchez, 1999; Rubino et al., 2006; Rueda et al., 2002; Sanchez et al., 1998). We used the operational model of agonism to detect the differences between tau/K_A values (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014) for numerous cannabinoids to quantify bias.

2.2. Materials and Methods

2.2.1. Materials

(+)-WIN55,212-2, CP55940, HU-210, methanandamide, anandamide, LY320135 and JZL 184 were obtained from Tocris Bioscience, and Δ⁹-THC from THC pharm (Frankfurt, Germany). 2-AG, SR141716A, forskolin and fatty acid free bovine serum albumin (BSA) were obtained from Sigma Aldrich, and hygromycin B from Roche (Mannheim, Germany). Lipofectamine 2000, foetal bovine serum (FBS) and cell culture media were obtained from Invitrogen. The cAMP AlphaScreen[®] kit, *SureFire*[®] ERK1/2 phosphorylation kit and [³H]SR141716A (35-60 Ci/mmol) were obtained from Perkin Elmer.

2.2.2. Generation of hCB₁ receptor expression vectors

DNA was purified from Luria Bertoni (LB) liquid cultures that were inoculated with *E. coli* containing hCB₁ in Gateway[®] P-DONR[™]201 cloning vector, using Promega Wizard[®] Plus SV Minipreps DNA Purification System, and the concentration of DNA was determined using a nanodrop[™] (Thermo Scientific). A Gateway[®] LR clonase[™] II reaction was performed according to manufacturer's

instructions (Invitrogen) to transfer hCB₁ in Gateway[®] P-DONR[™]201 into the Gateway[®] pEF5/FRT/V5[™] destination vector. Briefly, 150 ng of hCB₁ in Gateway[®] P-DONR[™]201 was mixed with 150 ng of the destination vector in Tris-EDTA buffer, and incubated with Gateway[®] LR clonase[™] II enzyme for at least 4 hours at room temperature. The reaction was then incubated with proteinase K solution for 10 minutes at 37 °C. Chemically competent *E.coli* (DHα5) were transformed according to manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen), and plated onto agar plates containing ampicillin (100 µg/ml). Colonies were picked and used to prepare bacterial cultures. DNA was extracted using the Wizard[®] Plus SV Miniprep DNA Purification kit and the concentration was determined using a nanodrop[™] (Thermo Scientific). Sequencing results verified the presence of the hCB₁ receptor gene in the pEF5/FRT/V5-dest vector.

2.2.3. Generation of Flp-In CHO-CB₁ cell line

Flp-In[™] Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells stably expressing human CB₁ cannabinoid receptors (CHO-hCB₁ cells) were generated according to the manufacturer's instructions for the generation of Flp-In cell lines (Invitrogen). Briefly, 0.8 µg of receptor DNA (or equivalent volume of media for a negative control) was co-transfected with 8 µg of the pOG44 Flp-In recombinase expression vector (Invitrogen, USA) using lipofectamine 2000. The transfected cells were selected with 700 µg/ml of hygromycin B. When confluent, cells were harvested using 2 mM EDTA in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 4.3 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄) and passaged until the negative control cells were selected out. Following selection, cells were maintained in Dulbecco's

Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) containing 10% FBS, 16 mM HEPES and 700 µg/ml of hygromycin B.

2.2.4. Ligand preparation

Cannabinoid ligands CP55940, HU-210, Δ⁹-THC, methanandamide, anandamide and 2-AG were dissolved in 100% ethanol, and WIN55,212-2 and forskolin in 100% DMSO to make stock solutions of 10 mM. Subsequently, the compounds were diluted in assay buffer/media to a concentration of up to 100 µM before addition into the assay to achieve a final concentration of up to 10 µM. The appropriate concentrations of ethanol or DMSO were used as negative controls. The final concentration of DMSO or ethanol in all assays did not exceed 0.1% (v/v).

2.2.5. Whole cell radioligand binding assays

[³H]SR141716A was used as the radioligand in all binding experiments. CHO-hCB₁ cells were seeded at a density of 50,000 cells per well in 96-well tissue culture-treated isoplates, and incubated overnight at 37 °C, 5% CO₂. The following day, media was removed and cells were washed twice with 100 µl ice-cold PBS. Cells were then incubated with [³H]SR141716A (1 nM final concentration) and the appropriate concentrations of the test compounds in DMEM containing 5% w/v fatty acid free BSA in a final volume of 200 µl. Assays were terminated by 2 rapid washes with ice cold 0.9% NaCl to remove unbound ligand. After the final wash, 100 µl of Optiphase supermix[®] scintillation fluid (Perkin Elmer) was added to the

wells. Plates were shaken for 30 minutes and then radioactivity was measured for 1 min/well on a microbeta Counter (Perkin Elmer).

Non-specific binding was determined using 10 μ M LY320135. Total binding was defined in the absence of the test ligand. All experiments were performed at 4 °C in order to minimise cannabinoid agonist-induced internalisation or desensitisation.

2.2.5.1. [³H]SR141716A association kinetic assays

[³H]SR141716A association kinetic assays were performed to determine the time taken to reach [³H]SR141716A equilibrium binding, by incubating cells with an approximate K_d concentration (1 nM) of [³H]SR141716A in the absence or presence of 10 μ M LY320135 for different time intervals (0-360 minutes and overnight).

2.2.5.2. Homologous competition binding assays

Homologous competition binding experiments were performed by incubating cells with [³H]SR141716A at 1 nM and a wide concentration range of unlabelled SR141716A, for 6 hours, based on the time required to reach the equilibrium in association kinetic assays.

2.2.5.3. Heterologous competition binding assays

Competition binding assays were performed by incubating cells with 1 nM [³H]SR141716A and increasing concentrations of cannabinoid ligands for 6 hours, based on the time determined in association kinetic assays.

2.2.6. Extracellular signal regulated kinase 1/2 phosphorylation (pERK1/2) assays

CHO-hCB₁ cells were seeded at 50,000 cells/well into 96-well clear bottom culture plates and grown overnight in complete medium. The following day, cells were washed twice with 100 µl of PBS and incubated in serum-free DMEM, supplemented by 16 mM HEPES, at 37 °C for 5 hours to minimise FBS-stimulated pERK1/2 levels. Cells were incubated with varying concentrations of cannabinoid compounds at 37 °C in a final volume of 200 µl. In all experiments, 10% FBS was used as a positive control, and vehicle controls were also included. The assays were terminated by the addition of 100 µl *SureFire*[®] lysis buffer. The lysates were agitated for at least 5 minutes, and then mixed with *SureFire*[®] activation buffer, *SureFire*[®] reaction buffer and AlphaScreen[®] beads in a 4:1:6:0.05 ratio in a 384-well white opaque proxiplate under low light conditions. Plates were read on an Envision[®] plate reader (Perkin Elmer) after 1.5 hours incubation at 37 °C in the dark using standard AlphaScreen[®] settings.

2.2.6.1. pERK1/2 time courses

Initial time course experiments were performed to determine the time that the maximum signal was produced by each ligand. In this set of assays, a 10 µM final concentration of each ligand was used, and cells were incubated for different time intervals (0, 2.5, 5, 7, 10, 15, 20, 30 minutes) before termination of pERK1/2 stimulation.

2.2.6.2. Agonist concentration-response experiments

Agonist concentration-response curves were obtained by adding increasing concentrations of each ligand and terminating the assay at the time at which maximum pERK1/2 was stimulated in time course assays, which was 2.5 minutes for anandamide and methanandamide, and 5 minutes for 2-AG, CP55940, HU-210, WIN55,212-2, and Δ^9 -THC.

2.2.7. AlphaScreen[®] cAMP assays

CHO-hCB₁ cells were seeded at 50,000 cells per well into 96-well clear bottom culture plates, and incubated overnight at 37 °C, 5% CO₂. The following day, cells were serum deprived for 1 hour to minimize basal cAMP signalling, by replacing the growth media with serum-free DMEM/F12, containing 1 mM IBMX (3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine; a non-selective phosphodiesterase inhibitor, to prevent degradation of cAMP) and 0.5% w/v BSA. Cells were then incubated with each ligand in a final volume of 100 μ l for 30 minutes at 37 °C. The assays were terminated by adding 50 μ l of 100% ethanol and cells were lysed using 0.1% BSA, 5 mM HEPES, 0.3% Tween20 in milliQ water. The lysates were agitated for at least 15 minutes, transferred to a 384-well optiplate, and then incubated with AlphaScreen[®] acceptor beads in stimulation buffer in a 2:1:100 ratio, for 30 minutes at 37 °C. AlphaScreen donor beads and the biotinylated-cAMP were prepared in lysis buffer in a 1:0.075:100 ratio, 30 minutes before addition to the cell lysate. Plates were incubated for 2 hours in the dark at 37 °C, and then read on an Envision[®] plate reader (Perkin Elmer) using standard AlphaScreen[®] settings.

2.2.7.1. Forskolin concentration-response experiments

Initial forskolin concentration-response experiments were performed to determine the optimal forskolin concentration for stimulation of adenylate cyclase. Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of forskolin for 30 minutes at 37 °C.

2.2.7.2. Agonist concentration-response experiments

Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of each cannabinoid compound together with the optimal concentration of forskolin determined in forskolin concentration-response experiments (1 µM) for 30 minutes at 37 °C. Control cells were treated with only forskolin or vehicle.

2.2.7.3. Antagonist interaction experiments

cAMP interaction studies with the antagonist were performed by pre-incubating cells with varying concentrations of SR141716A for 10 minutes, before the addition of increasing concentrations of the agonist.

2.2.8. Data analysis

Data were analysed using Prism 6 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA). In all radioligand binding assays, it was ascertained that ligand depletion (a condition in which more than 10% of the total radioligand concentration binds to receptors, thereby leads to erroneous estimation of binding parameters (Hulme and Trevethick, 2010)) did not occur. [³H]SR141716A association kinetic data were fitted to an exponential one-phase association equation to determine the time taken for the radioligand to reach equilibrium (Eq. 2.1),

$$Y = Y_0 + (\text{Plateau} - Y_0)(1 - e^{-Kt}) \quad \text{Eq. 2.1}$$

where Y_0 is the specific radioligand binding when t (time) is zero, Plateau denotes the specific binding at infinite times, and K is the radioligand association rate constant.

Homologous competition binding data were fitted a one-site homologous binding equation to determine the radioligand K_d value (Eq. 2.2),

$$Y = \frac{B_{\max} \text{Hot} n M}{\text{Hot} n M + \text{Cold} n M + K_d n M} + \text{Bottom} \quad \text{Eq. 2.2}$$

where B_{\max} is maximum binding, Bottom denotes the minimal asymptotes of the curve, and K_d is the radioligand equilibrium dissociation constant.

To calculate the B_{\max} (binding sites/cell), the following equation was used (Eq. 2.3),

$$SA \left(\frac{\text{cpm}}{\text{fmol}} \right) = 2.22 \left(SA \left(\frac{\text{ci}}{\text{mmol}} \right) \text{CE} \right)$$

$$B_{\max} \left(\frac{\text{sites}}{\text{cell}} \right) = \left(\frac{B_{\max}(\text{cpm})}{SA \left(\frac{\text{cpm}}{\text{fmol}} \right)} \right) \left(\frac{6.02 \times 10^8}{n} \right)$$

Where, SA is the specific activity for [³H]SR141716A and CE is the counter efficiency. $B_{\max}(\text{cpm})$ is the B_{\max} determined from homologous competition assays analysed using equation 2.2, and n is the cell number.

cAMP interaction studies between the orthosteric agonist and antagonist were fitted to a Gaddum/Schild equation (Eq. 2.4),

$$Y = \frac{(\text{Top} - \text{Bottom})}{1 + 10^{(\log EC - \log[A])n}} + \text{Bottom}$$

$$\text{LogEC} = \text{Log} \left(EC_{50} \left(1 + \frac{[B]}{10^{(pA_2)}} \right)^m \right) \quad \text{Eq. 2.4}$$

Where Y is the response to agonist, Top and Bottom denote the maximal and minimal asymptotes of the curve, respectively; [A] and [B] are the concentration of agonist and antagonist, respectively, EC₅₀ denotes the concentration of agonist that produces half the maximal response in the absence of antagonist, pA₂ is the negative logarithm of concentration of antagonist that shifts the EC₅₀ by a factor of 2, n is the Hill slope, which describes the steepness of the curves, and m denotes the Schild slope, which quantifies how well the shifts correspond to the prediction of competitive interaction. If the antagonist is competitive, the Schild slope will equal 1.0.

For competition binding experiments with orthosteric ligands, a one-site binding equation (Motulsky and Christopoulos, 2004) was used to analyse specific binding of each ligand (Eq. 2.5),

$$Y = \frac{(\text{Top} - \text{Bottom})}{1 + (10^{[I] - \log IC_{50}})} + \text{Bottom} \quad \text{Eq. 2.5}$$

The equilibrium dissociation constant (K_i) of unlabelled ligand was calculated using the Cheng and Prusoff equation (Eq. 2.6) (Cheng and Prusoff, 1973),

$$K_i = \frac{IC_{50}}{1 + \frac{[\text{Radioligand}]}{K_d}} \quad \text{Eq. 2.6}$$

where Y represents the percentage of specific binding; Top and Bottom denote the maximal and minimal asymptotes of the curve, respectively; [I] is the concentration of inhibitor; and IC₅₀ is the concentration of competitor that produces half the maximal response. K_d is the equilibrium dissociation constant derived from homologous competition binding assays.

Concentration-response data generated from cAMP and pERK1/2 assays were fitted to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7)

$$Y = \frac{(\text{Top} - \text{Bottom})}{1 + (10^{\log \text{EC}_{50} - A})} + \text{Bottom} \quad \text{Eq. 2.7}$$

where, Top and Bottom denote the maximal and minimal asymptotes of the curve, respectively; and log EC₅₀ is the A value when the response is halfway between Bottom and Top; or to the following operational model of agonism (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014) to determine the transduction ratio (tau/KA, R) (Eq. 2.8),

$$E = \frac{(E_m - \text{Basal})}{1 + \left(\frac{\left(\frac{[A]}{10^{\log K_A}} + 1 \right)}{10^{\log R \times [A]}} \right)} + \text{Basal} \quad \text{Eq. 2.8}$$

where Em is the maximal possible system response (the top plateau of the dose-response curve obtained for the full agonist, CP55940), Basal is the response in the absence of agonist, KA denotes the equilibrium dissociation constant of the agonist (A), LogR is the logarithm of the transduction ratio, which is an index of the coupling efficacy of the agonist and n is the unitless transducer slope.

2.2.9. Statistics

Values are expressed as means ± S.E.M. Mean values have been compared using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test to determine the statistical differences in cannabinoid potency values between cAMP and pERK1/2 assays, or the differences in ΔΔT/KA ratios. A P value < 0.05 was considered significant.

2.3. Results

2.3.1. [³H]SR141716A displacement by cannabinoid ligands

We first set out to determine the affinity of cannabinoid ligands for the CB₁ receptor using whole cell radioligand binding assays, have the advantage of assessing the binding properties of the receptor under similar conditions as the functional assays conducted in the present study. Furthermore, membrane based assays do not reflect the native environment of the receptor in the cell. For example, the existing ion gradients across the plasma membrane will be disturbed and interactions of the receptor with cytoplasmic components such as effectors and nucleotides will not occur in membrane preparations (Bylund and Toews, 1993). To ensure that radioligand binding reached equilibrium, initial association kinetic assays were performed. By fitting the data to a one-phase association equation (Eq. 2.1), a half-time of the equilibration reaction ($t_{1/2}$) equal to 79 minutes was obtained. The time equivalent to 5 times the $t_{1/2}$ was considered sufficient for 1 nM [³H]SR141716A to reach equilibrium (Fig. 2.1). Therefore, all subsequent experiments were terminated after a 6-hour incubation period.

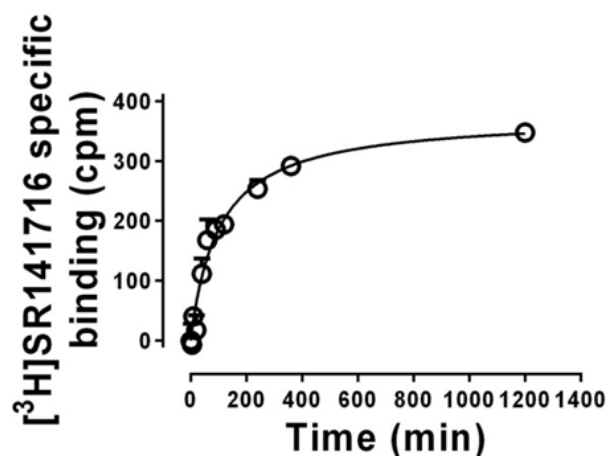


Fig. 2.1. [³H]SR141716A association kinetic assays. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with 1 nM [³H]SR141716A in the absence or presence of 10 μ M LY320135 (to define non-specific binding) for different time intervals at 4 °C. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a one-phase association equation (Eq. 2.1). Data represent mean + S.E.M. of two experiments performed in triplicate.

Next, homologous competition binding assays between SR141716A and [³H]SR141716A were performed to determine the equilibrium dissociation constant (pK_d) for [³H]SR141716A. By fitting the data to a one-site homologous binding equation (Eq. 2.2), a pK_d value of 8.51 ± 0.35 was estimated (Fig. 2.2). The total number of receptors expressed (B_{max}) in our system was estimated to be $800,098 \pm 1868$ sites/cell (Eq. 2.3).

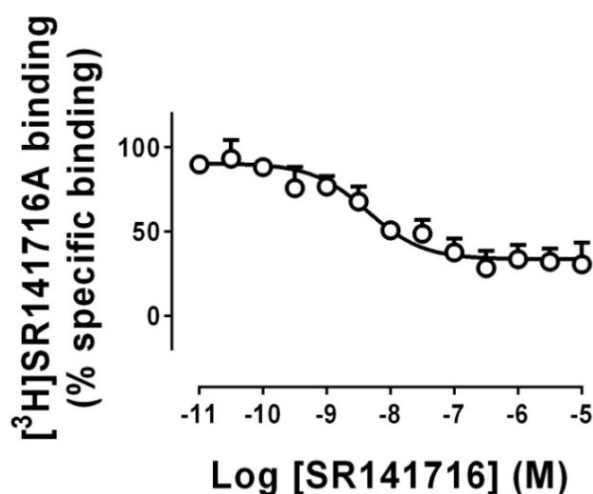


Fig. 2.2. Homologous competition binding assays. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with 1 nM [³H]SR141716A and a wide concentration range of unlabelled SR141716A, for 6 hours at 4 °C. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a one-site homologous binding equation (Eq. 2.2). Data represent mean + S.E.M. of five experiments performed in triplicate.

Unlabelled SR141716A did not completely displace [³H]SR141716A binding in whole cells. This was most likely due to non-receptor radioligand binding events, such as incorporation into the cell plasma membrane. This can occur even in the presence of an unlabelled competitive ligand (Wennerberg et al., 2010). Nonetheless, the pK_d calculated for [³H]SR141716A in these assays (8.51 ± 0.35) was in agreement with its pK_d value determined previously in both membrane

preparations (Govaerts et al., 2004) and in whole HEK293-CB₁ cells (Wennerberg et al., 2011). To confirm the accuracy of the estimated pK_d value for [³H]SR141716A in binding experiments, the interaction between SR141716A and CP55940 was determined in cAMP assays (Fig. 2.3). Data were analysed using the Gaddum/Schild equation (Eq. 2.4). The estimated pA₂ value of 8.89 ± 0.37 for SR141716A was close to the estimated value in binding studies. The pA₂ equals the pK_d when the Schild slope is equal to 1. Thus, [³H]SR141716A was used as the radioligand in all subsequent heterologous binding experiments.

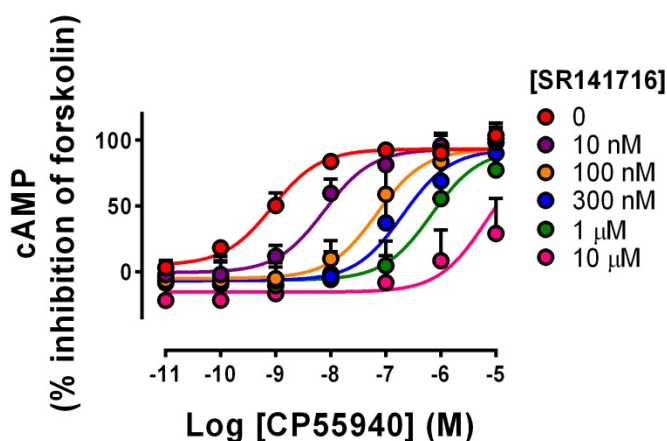


Fig. 2.3. Interaction between SR141716A and CP55940 in cAMP assays. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with varying concentrations of SR141716A for 10 minutes before addition of CP55940. Curves were generated by fitting the data to Gaddum/Schild equation (Eq. 2.4). Data represent mean + S.E.M. of two experiments performed in triplicate.

Heterologous competition binding assays were next performed to determine the binding affinity (pK_i) of endogenous and exogenous cannabinoid agonists. Displacement of [³H]SR141716A was analysed using a one-site binding equation (Eq. 2.5) (Motulsky and Christopoulos, 2004) (Fig. 2.4). The calculated pK_i values

(Eq. 2.6) were in agreement with previously published values, and are presented in Table 2.1. The rank order of agonist affinity was: HU-210 = CP55940 > WIN55,212-2 = Δ^9 -THC > methanandamide = anandamide = 2-AG. Displacement of [³H]SR141716 by the CB₁ receptor inverse agonist, LY320135, yielded an estimated pK_i value of 7.4±0.1.

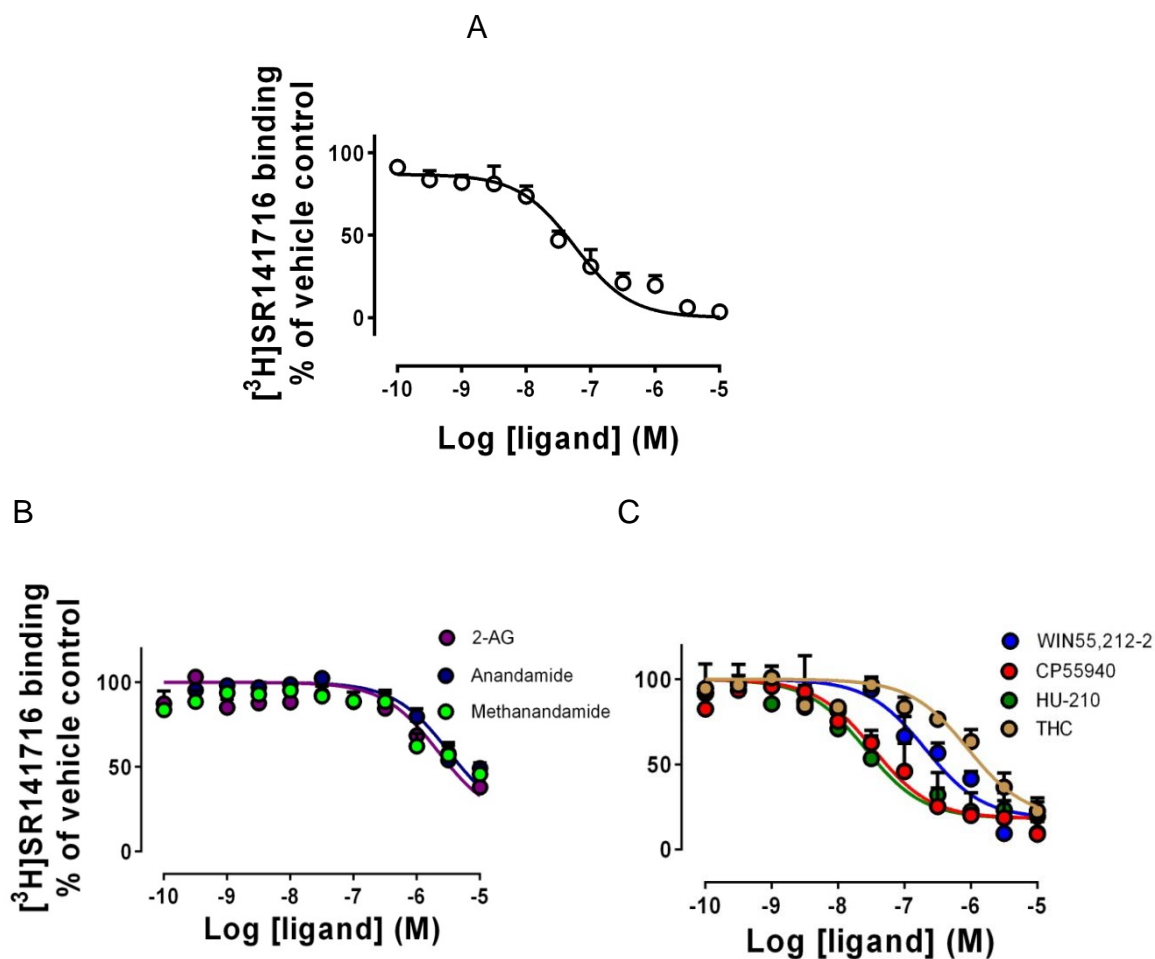


Fig. 2.4. Heterologous competition binding assays. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with 1 nM [³H]SR141716A and increasing concentrations of cannabinoid ligands for 6 hours at 4 °C. [³H]SR141716A displacement by (A) the CB₁ inverse agonist, LY320135, (B) endogenous cannabinoid agonists and (C) exogenous cannabinoid agonists. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a one-site binding equation (Eq. 2.5). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Indeed, although in our experiments fatty acid free BSA was used to minimise the binding of ligands to non-specific sites, none of the cannabinoid agonists used in the current study fully displaced [³H]SR141716A, with approximately 20-30% radioligand binding remaining (Figure 2.4). This suggests that the cannabinoid agonists (but not LY320135, which was used to define nonspecific binding) also displace [³H]SR141716A from some non-specific binding sites such as the assay plates, BSA, or plasma membrane, resulting in an overestimation of specific radioligand binding.

Table 2.1. Binding affinity (pK_i) values for cannabinoid ligands determined by measuring [³H]SR141716A displacement in competition binding assays in CHO-hCB₁ cells.

The previously reported pK_i values for cannabinoids in displacement of [³H]SR141716A or [³H]agonist, in either membrane preparations or whole cells, are also presented. Data were analysed using a one-site binding equation (Eq. 2.5). Values represent the mean ± S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Ligand	pK _i	Published pK _i *	
		[³ H]SR141716A	[³ H]agonist
CP55,940	7.4±0.2	7.3-8.9	7.6-10.2
HU-210	7.7±0.2	7.7-9.6	8.5-10.6
WIN55,212-2	6.3±0.1	5.9-8.9	6.2-8.9
Δ ⁹ -THC	6.6±0.2	6.8-7.5	6.3-8.8
Methanandamide	5.9±0.1	5.2-6.5	6.2-7.7
Anandamide	5.5±0.2	6.1-7.4	5.6-7.6
2-AG	5.6±0.1	ND	5.6-7.0
SR141716A	8.5±0.3	7.9-9.9	

* Reviewed in (McPartland et al., 2007)

2.3.2. Activation of pERK1/2

We next examined activation of pERK1/2 by cannabinoid ligands. The results of pERK1/2 time course experiments showed that the maximum signal for CP55940, WIN55,212-2, HU-210, Δ^9 -THC and 2-AG was stimulated at 5 minutes, and at 2.5 minutes for anandamide and methanandamide. The CB₁ receptor inverse agonists SR141716A and LY320135 did not produce any response on their own (Fig. 2.5).

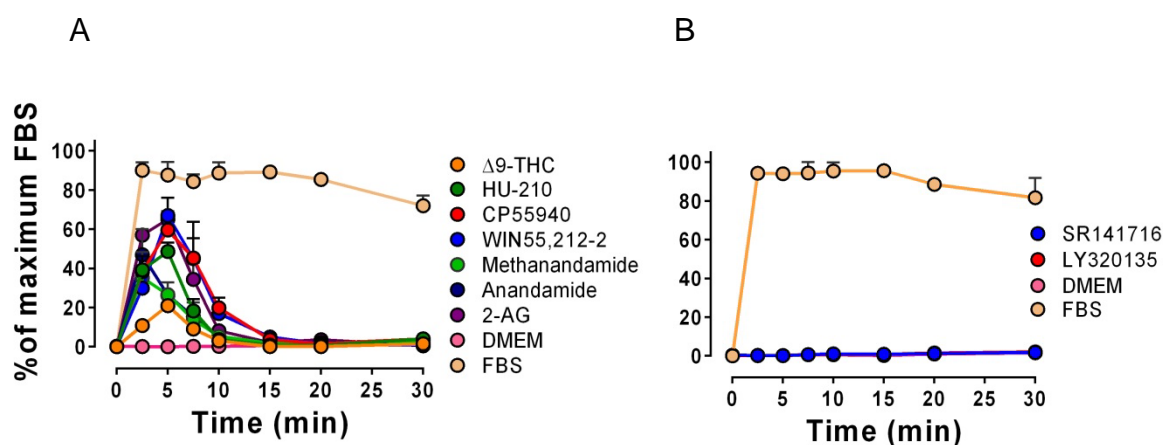


Fig. 2.5. pERK1/2 time course assays for (A) cannabinoid agonists and (B) antagonists/inverse agonists. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with 10 μ M of each ligand at 37 °C for different time intervals before termination of pERK1/2 stimulation. Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from three experiments performed in triplicate.

Endogenous and exogenous cannabinoids activated pERK1/2 in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 2.6). Data were fitted to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7) to derive the functional potency (pEC_{50}) and efficacy (E_{max}) of the ligands (Table 2.2). In pERK1/2 assays, cannabinoid pEC_{50} s generally matched their estimated pK_i values. The rank order of potency was

therefore HU-210 = CP55940 > WIN55,212-2 = Δ 9-THC > methanandamide = 2-AG = anandamide (Table 2.2).

The results also demonstrated that CP55940, HU-210, WIN55,212-2 and 2-AG were full agonists, while Δ 9-THC and methanandamide acted as partial agonists in pERK1/2 assays (Fig. 2.6).

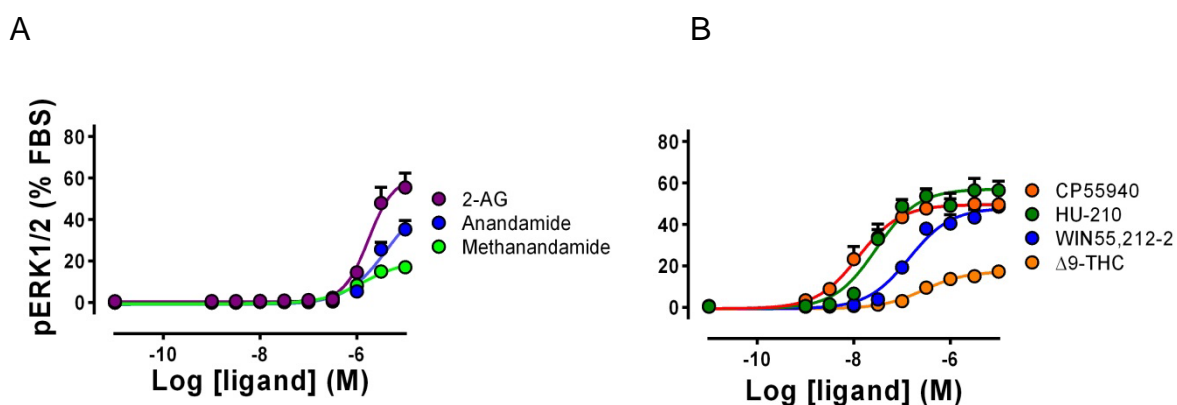


Fig. 2.6. Activation of pERK1/2 by (A) endogenous and (B) exogenous cannabinoids in CHO-hCB₁ cells. Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of each ligand at 37 °C for the time determined in time course assays. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Table 2.2. Potency (pEC₅₀) and relative efficacy (E_{max}) of cannabinoid ligands in pERK1/2 assays in CHO-hCB₁ cells.

Data were analysed using a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7). Values represent the mean ± S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Ligand	pERK1/2	
	pEC ₅₀ (EC ₅₀ nM)	E _{max} ^a
CP55,940	7.7±0.2 (19)	51.4±1.9
HU-210	7.5±0.1 (31)	57.4±3.6
WIN55,212-2	7.0±0.2 (107)	52.2±4.6
Δ9-THC	6.4±0.1 (371)	19.3±3.0
Methanandamide	5.9±0.1 (1230)	26.3±5.7
Anandamide	5.5±0.2 (3162)	~ 40 ^b
2-AG	5.8±0.1 (1585)	~ 60 ^b

^a % of maximum FBS response

^b As the curves did not reach a plateau, the exact E_{max} values could not be defined and were estimated by constraining the value to be not more than the maximum effect produced by the full agonist, CP55940.

No functional response to cannabinoids was observed in untransfected Flp-In CHO cells, confirming the involvement of CB₁ receptors in activation of pERK1/2 by cannabinoid ligands (Fig. 2.7).

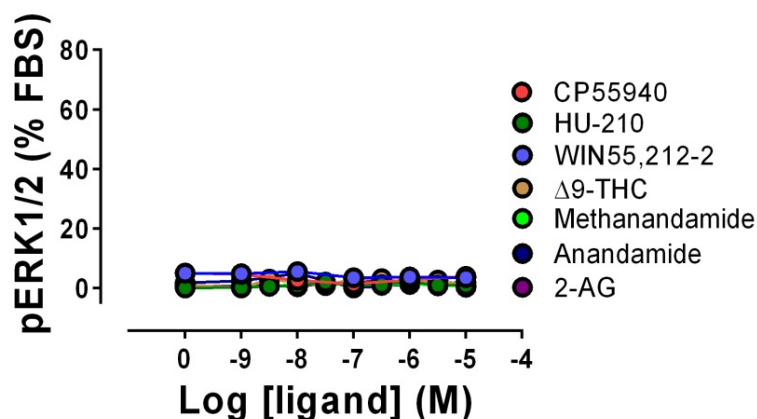


Fig. 2.7. Cannabinoid ligands have no effect on pERK1/2 levels in untransfected Flp-In CHO cells. Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of each ligand at 37 °C for the time determined in time course assays. Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from two experiments performed in triplicate.

2.3.3. Inhibition of forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation

Next, CB₁ receptor-mediated inhibition of cAMP formation was investigated. Based on the results obtained in forskolin concentration-response experiments (Fig. 2.8), an EC₅₀ concentration of 1 μ M forskolin was used for subsequent agonist concentration response experiments.

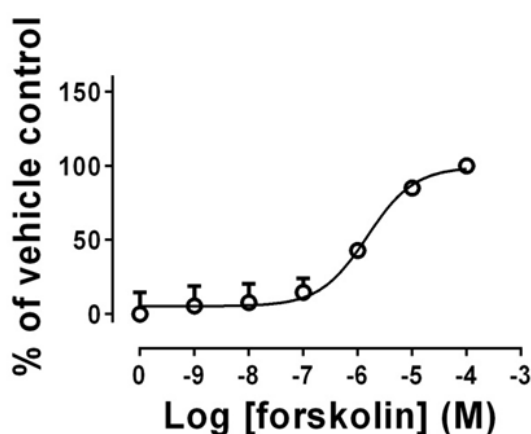


Fig. 2.8. Forskolin concentration-response curve. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of forskolin for 30 minutes at 37 °C. Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from four experiments performed in triplicate.

As shown in figure 2.9, all endogenous and exogenous cannabinoids tested inhibited forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation in a dose-dependent manner in CHO-hCB₁ cells.

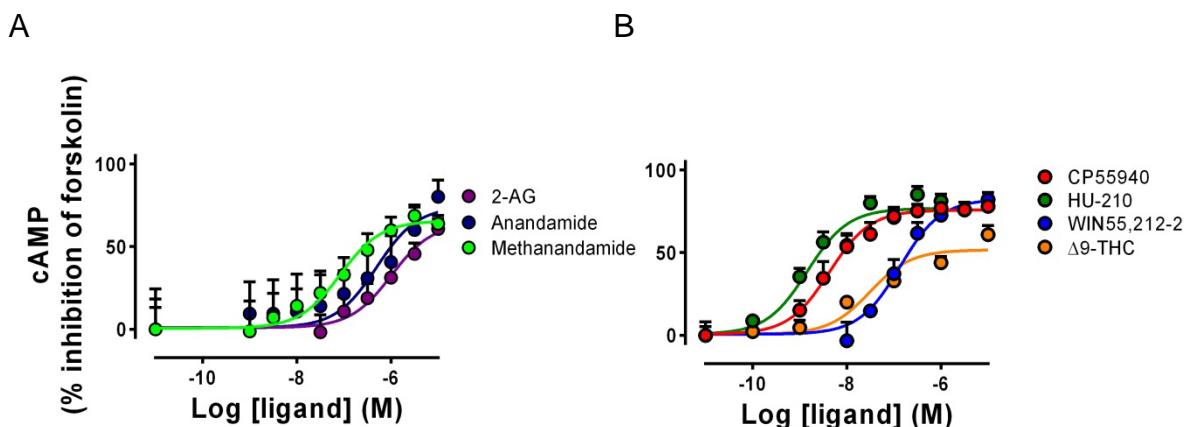


Fig. 2.9. Inhibition of 1 μ M forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation by (A) endogenous and (B) exogenous cannabinoids in CHO-hCB₁ cells. Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of each cannabinoid ligand in the presence of 1 μ M forskolin for 30 minutes at 37 °C. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Potency and efficacy of ligands in inhibition of 1 μ M forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation were determined by fitting the data to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7). The potency and efficacy of WIN55,212-2 and 2-AG were comparable in both cAMP and pERK1/2 assays, suggesting that these cannabinoids showed no preference in activating either pathway. However, HU-210, Δ 9-THC, methanandamide and anandamide showed greater potency and/or efficacy in cAMP versus pERK1/2 assays. The difference in potency between assays was particularly noticeable for HU-210 ($p < 0.0001$),

Δ9-THC ($p < 0.01$) and methanandamide ($p < 0.05$) (Table 2.2 and 2.3). CP55940 showed a tendency towards greater potency in cAMP than pERK1/2 assays, however, it did not reach statistical significance. Therefore, in contrast to pERK1/2 assays, HU-210 was significantly (10 fold; $p < 0.05$) more potent than CP55940 in assays measuring inhibition of cAMP (Table 2.3). Thus, the rank order of potency in cAMP was: HU-210 > CP55940 > WIN55,212-2 = Δ9-THC > methanandamide = anandamide = 2-AG. The results also showed that CP55940, HU-210, WIN55,212-2, 2-AG, anandamide and methanandamide behaved as full agonists while Δ9-THC was a partial agonist in cAMP assays (Table 2.3). Furthermore, whereas Δ9-THC was a partial agonist in both cAMP and pERK1/2 assays, methanandamide behaved as a partial agonist in pERK1/2 assays, but as a full agonist in cAMP assays, indicating its preference towards inhibition of cAMP formation. The enhanced potency and/or efficacy of some but not all agonists in cAMP versus pERK1/2 assays is indicative of ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors.

Table 2.3. Potency (pEC₅₀) and relative efficacy (E_{max}) of cannabinoid ligands in cAMP assays in CHO-hCB₁ cells.

Data were analysed using a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7). Values represent the mean \pm S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Ligand	cAMP	
	pEC ₅₀ (EC ₅₀ nM)	E _{max} ^a
CP55940	8.1 \pm 0.2 (7.9)	81.8 \pm 5.5
HU-210	9.0 \pm 0.2 (1.0)	80.5 \pm 5.1
WIN55,212-2	7.1 \pm 0.1 (79)	86.2 \pm 3.9
Δ 9-THC	7.6 \pm 0.1 (25)	51.9 \pm 4.5
Methanandamide	6.8 \pm 0.4 (158)	70.6 \pm 4.4
Anandamide	6.1 \pm 0.2 (794)	74.0 \pm 9.4
2-AG	5.9 \pm 0.2 (1259)	64.2 \pm 10.6

^a % of maximum inhibition of forskolin response

To ensure that the low affinity and potency of 2-AG in our experiments is not due to the compound being old or due to its breakdown by monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL), we performed competition binding assays and cAMP studies using a new batch of 2-AG in the presence or absence of 100 nM final concentration of JZL 184, a potent and selective MAGL inhibitor. The results showed that 30 minute pre-incubation of cells with JZL 184 did not alter the K_i value of 2-AG. Also, there was no significant difference between the potency of 2-AG in the presence or absence of JZL 184 in the inhibition of cAMP formation (Fig. 2.10, Table 2.4). The potency of the new 2-AG was also comparable to that of the old 2-AG.

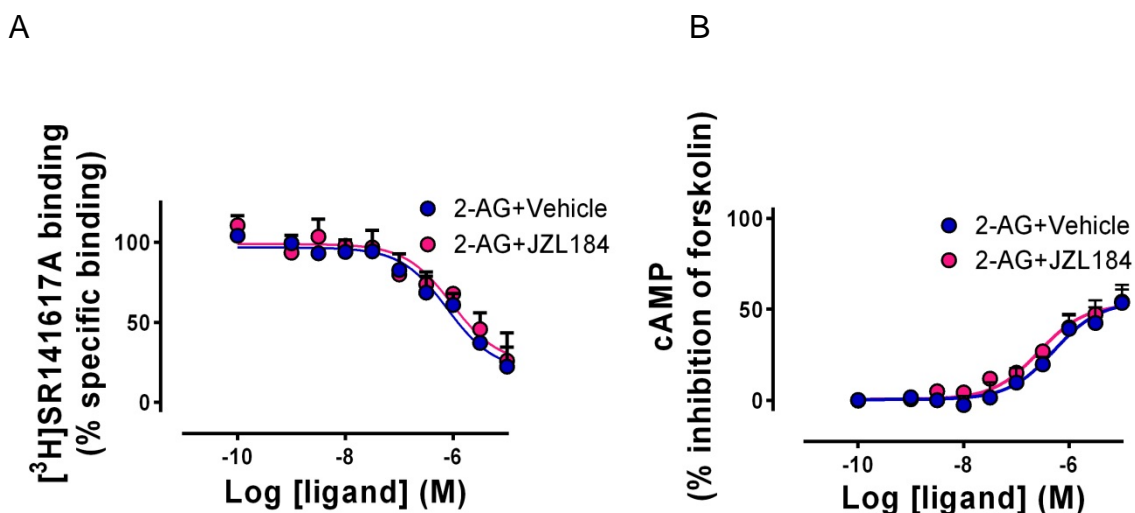


Fig. 2.10. Effects of JZL 184 on 2-AG binding and signalling in CHO-hCB₁ cells. [³H]SR141716A displacement (A) and inhibition of 1 μ M forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation (B) by 2-AG in the presence or absence of JZL 184. Cells were pre-incubated with 100 nM final concentration of JZL 184 for 30 minutes. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a one-site binding equation (Eq. 2.5) for binding experiments, and to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7) for cAMP studies. Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from three experiments performed in triplicate.

Table. 2.4. Binding affinity (pK_i) and potency (pEC_{50}) of 2-AG in the presence or absence of 100 nM JZL 184 obtained from radioligand binding and cAMP assays in CHO-hCB₁ cells.

Data were analysed using a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 2.7). Values represent the mean \pm S.E.M. from three experiments performed in triplicate.

Ligand	pK_i	pEC_{50}
2-AG+vehicle	6.4 \pm 0.2	6.2 \pm 0.2
2-AG+JZL 184	6.3 \pm 0.2	6.4 \pm 0.2

Furthermore, the lack of response in untransfected Flp-In CHO cells confirmed the involvement of CB₁ receptors in inhibition of cAMP formation by cannabinoid ligands (data not shown).

2.3.4. Quantification of ligand bias at CB₁ receptors

Due to differences in agonist potency between pERK1/2 and cAMP assays, we next set out to quantify ligand-biased signalling from CB₁ receptors. Bias plots (Fig. 2.11) were first constructed to more readily visualise the differences in signalling preference of each cannabinoid ligand. These plots represent the response of the receptor to equimolar concentrations of agonist in pERK1/2 (X-axis) versus inhibition of cAMP formation (Y-axis). Curves through the data sets were generated by plotting 150 points that defined each agonist concentration-response curve. Curves that lie either side of the line of identity (shown by the dotted line) highlight preferential coupling to one pathway over the other. It is again apparent from these plots that 2-AG and WIN55,212-2 show little preference for coupling to either pathway, whereas HU-210 and methanandamide, in particular, preferentially mediate inhibition of cAMP.

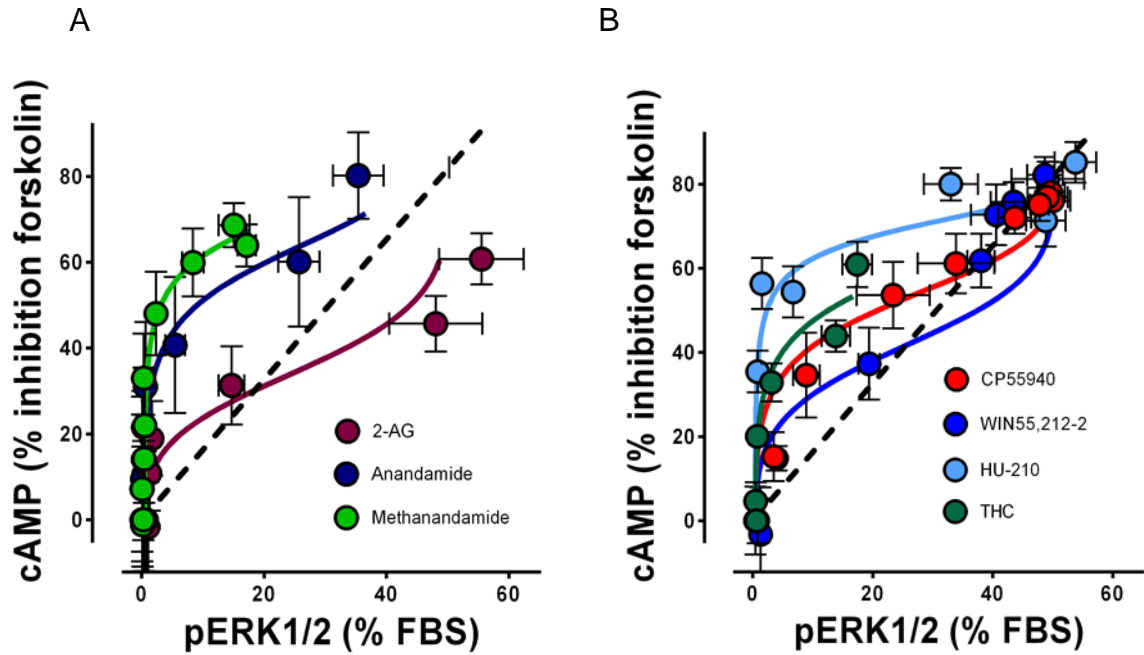


Fig. 2.11. Cannabinoids are biased agonists at CB₁ receptors. Bias plots for inhibition of cAMP formation and activation of pERK1/2 by (A) endogenous and (B) exogenous cannabinoids. The curves represent the response to equimolar concentrations of agonist in pERK1/2 (X-axis) versus inhibition of cAMP formation (Y-axis). Biased ligands fall either side of the line of identity (the dotted line), towards the preferred pathway.

To quantify ligand-biased signalling from the CB₁ receptor, data from cAMP and pERK1/2 agonist concentration-response experiments were next fitted to an operational model of agonism (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014) (Eq. 2.8), to determine the transduction ratio, τ/K_A , of each cannabinoid. To eliminate “system” or “observation bias”, cannabinoid transduction ratios were compared to that of 2-AG, in part because this endogenous CB₁ receptor agonist exhibited little bias towards cAMP or pERK1/2 (Fig. 2.11. A). Thus, the relative effectiveness of cannabinoids in driving the CB₁ receptor towards cAMP or pERK1/2 were calculated as the difference in the transduction ratio between 2-AG and the

cannabinoids (ΔLogR , Table 2.5) (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014). Next, the strength of cannabinoid-mediated receptor coupling towards each pathway was calculated as the difference between the ΔLogR values for each pathway ($\Delta\Delta\text{LogR}$) (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014). The anti-log of $\Delta\Delta\text{LogR}$ represents the bias factor of each agonist (Table 2.5). Bias factors in Table 2.5 equal to 1 demonstrate that the cannabinoid promotes the same coupling preference as 2-AG. Bias factors greater than 1 indicate the cannabinoid preferentially promotes receptor coupling towards cAMP inhibition over pERK1/2.

The bias factors highlight that whereas WIN55,212-2 demonstrates a similar profile to 2-AG with a bias factor not dissimilar from 1, HU-210 and methanandamide exhibit strong bias (over 20 and 15, respectively) towards cAMP inhibition ($p < 0.05$). CP55940, $\Delta 9$ -THC and anandamide displayed a preference towards cAMP inhibition although they did not reach statistical significance (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5. LogR (T/K_A), ΔLogR ($\Delta T/K_A$), $\Delta\Delta\text{LogR}$ ($\Delta\Delta T/K_A$) ratios and bias factors (BF) for cannabinoid ligands, relative to 2-AG, at the CB₁ receptors. Values were obtained by fitting the data to an operational model of agonism (Eq. 2.8), and represent the mean \pm S.E.M. from at least three experiments carried out in triplicate.

Ligand	cAMP		pERK1/2		cAMP/pERK1/2	
	LogR	ΔLogR	LogR	ΔLogR	$\Delta\Delta\text{LogR}$	BF
CP55940	8.3 \pm 0.2	2.6 \pm 0.2	7.9 \pm 0.1	2.0 \pm 0.1	0.6 \pm 0.2	3.8
HU-210	8.8 \pm 0.2	3.1 \pm 0.2	7.6 \pm 0.1	1.8 \pm 0.1	1.3 \pm 0.2*	20.8
WIN55,212-2	6.9 \pm 0.2	1.2 \pm 0.2	6.8 \pm 0.1	1.0 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.2	1.6
Δ 9-THC	7.1 \pm 0.3	1.4 \pm 0.3	6.5 \pm 0.2	0.6 \pm 0.2	0.8 \pm 0.4	5.6
Methanandamide	6.9 \pm 0.2	1.2 \pm 0.2	5.9 \pm 0.2	0.0 \pm 0.2	1.2 \pm 0.3*	15.1
Anandamide	6.3 \pm 0.2	0.6 \pm 0.2	5.6 \pm 0.1	-0.3 \pm 0.1	0.8 \pm 0.2	6.8
2-AG	5.7 \pm 0.2	0.0 \pm 0.2	5.9 \pm 0.1	0.0 \pm 0.1	0.0 \pm 0.2	1.0

*p< 0.05, statistically significant differences in the preference of 2-AG versus other cannabinoids for receptor signalling were determined using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test on $\Delta\Delta\text{LogR}$.

2.4. Discussion

This study quantifies for the first time ligand-biased signalling at the CB₁ receptor, and shows that certain cannabinoid agonists are biased towards inhibition of cAMP formation over pERK1/2 activation. Ligand-biased signalling is an important pharmacological phenomenon that may be used to achieve selective therapeutics through activation of receptor signalling pathways related to desired effects, at the expense of those that mediate adverse effects (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013; Valant et al., 2014). CB₁ receptor-mediated cAMP and pERK signalling may play distinct physiological roles and contribute to different *in vivo* effects produced by cannabinoids (Rubino et al., 2006; Zhou and Song, 2001). Therefore, agonists that activate only one of these two pathways may exhibit therapeutic advantages by avoiding the adverse effects related to the other pathway.

Binding studies were first performed to determine the affinity of cannabinoid ligands in displacing [³H]SR141716A binding. The rank order of efficacy was HU-210 = CP55940 > WIN55,212-2 = Δ9-THC > methanandamide = 2-AG = anandamide. This is consistent with the reported rank order of binding affinity as: HU-210 > CP55940 > Δ9-THC = WIN55,212-2 > anandamide (Bonhaus et al., 1998; Song and Bonner, 1996). It should also be noted that the affinity values determined for cannabinoids are greatly dependent on the radioligand used, with tritiated inverse agonists resulting in lower affinities compared to tritiated agonists (Govaerts et al., 2004; Thomas et al., 1998). For instance, the K_i value reported for WIN55,212-2 using [³H]CP55940 or [³H]SR141716A was 2 and 22 nM, respectively (Thomas et al., 1998). Nonetheless, pK_i values calculated in the

present study for CP55940, HU-210, WIN55,212-2, Δ^9 -THC and methanandamide were in general agreement with those reported previously in membrane-based radioligand binding assays that employed [³H]SR141716A (D'Antona et al., 2006; Muccioli et al., 2005; Thomas et al., 1998). There is no published pK_i values for 2-AG using [³H]SR141716A. However, its estimated pK_i value in the present study is similar to a reported value using [³H]CP55940 (Sugiura et al., 1995). The calculated pK_i value for anandamide was slightly lower than those reported previously using [³H]CP55940 (Adams et al., 1998) or [³H]SR141716A (Bisogno et al., 2000). Therefore, the tendency for affinity values of cannabinoid ligands to lie near the low borderline of reported values (Table 2.1) may be due to the presence of fewer receptors in the active state in whole cells compared to membrane preparations in previous studies, or the different experimental conditions, as well as the competition against [³H]SR141716A rather than tritiated agonists.

Previous reports showed the rank order of potency of three commonly used cannabinoids for pERK1/2 activation as CP55940 > Δ^9 -THC > WIN55,212-2 (Bouaboula et al., 1995b). In the present study, the rank order of potency in activation of pERK1/2 was HU-210 = CP55940 > WIN55,212-2 = Δ^9 -THC > methanandamide = 2-AG = anandamide, which was the same as their rank order of affinity. The rank order of potency in inhibition of cAMP formation was HU-210 > CP55940 > WIN55,212-2 = Δ^9 -THC > methanandamide = 2-AG = anandamide. This is in general agreement with the rank order of potency reported in previous studies as HU-210 > CP55940 > Δ^9 -THC > WIN55,212-2 > anandamide (Bonhaus et al., 1998; Song and Bonner, 1996), and the EC₅₀ values in the present study were similar to the reported values for these ligands in CHO-CB₁ cells (Bonhaus et al., 1998).

Interestingly, although CP55940 and HU-210 had similar potencies in activation of pERK1/2, HU-210 was approximately 10 times more potent than CP55940 in inhibition of cAMP formation, providing evidence for ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors. Reversal in efficacy of CP55940 and HU-210 has also been demonstrated in previous studies measuring activation of pERK1/2 vs. JNK and in inhibition of gene transcription by CRE vs. AP-1 (Bosier et al., 2008a; Bosier et al., 2008b). If *in vitro* effects such as these are translated into *in vivo* effects, cannabinoid ligands that display different therapeutic or adverse effects *in vivo* may do so because they activate selective signalling pathways.

This study sought to quantify, for the first time, ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors using an operational model of agonism (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014). It should be noted that some of the previously reported differential signalling by different ligands may not be true ligand bias. For instance, WIN55,212-2 and HU-210 produce similar efficacies for both Gi and Go, while CP55,940 and anandamide preferentially activate Gi proteins (Bonhaus et al., 1998). However, this could also be the result of strength of coupling as CB₁ receptors preferentially couple to Gi rather than Gs (Felder et al., 1998). HU-210 is a full agonist at both Gi and Go while WIN55,212-2 and anandamide are full agonists at Gi but partial agonists at Go. On the other hand, Δ⁹-THC partially activates both Gi and Go (Glass and Northup, 1999). However, again the effects of strength of coupling cannot be ruled out.

Quantifying bias will be highly important in the development of novel CB₁ receptor therapies to establish correlations between ligand structure, signalling bias profile and therapeutic activity. However, ligand-biased signalling has not been quantified at CB₁ receptors to date. Our quantitative analysis showed that

the exogenous cannabinoids in particular displayed biased agonism at CB₁ receptors. Whereas WIN55,212-2 displayed little bias towards cAMP inhibition or pERK1/2 activation, HU-210, CP55940 and Δ9-THC favoured inhibition of cAMP formation over activation of pERK1/2. In particular, HU-210 was over 20 times more biased towards inhibition of cAMP over activation of pERK1/2. This raises the possibility that cannabinoid agonists may produce different *in vivo* effects. In agreement with this, it has been demonstrated that whereas WIN55,212-2 is 10 times more potent than Δ9-THC in producing hypoactivity in mice, Δ9-THC is approximately 10 times more potent than WIN55,212-2 in producing hypothermia (Abood and Martin, 1992).

Ligand-biased signalling has particular significance where multiple endogenous ligands bind to the same receptor. CB₁ receptors bind multiple endogenous agonists, including anandamide and 2-AG. Although the functional significance of various endocannabinoids is not fully understood, they may mediate distinct or even opposing physiological roles via differential signalling through the same receptor (Basavarajappa et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2011). For instance, elevated anandamide levels reduce CB₁ receptor-mediated inhibition of long term potentiation (LTP) and impair learning and memory (Basavarajappa et al., 2014). In contrast, elevated levels of 2-AG enhance LTP, learning and memory (Pan et al., 2011). It has also been demonstrated that elevated 2-AG concentrations produce analgesia, hypomobility and hypothermia, whereas elevated anandamide concentrations only induce analgesia in mice (Long et al., 2009). Therefore, a striking finding of this study is that 2-AG and anandamide display distinct ligand-biased signalling profiles at CB₁ receptors. Whereas 2-AG shows little preference for inhibition of cAMP formation and activation of pERK1/2,

anandamide is approximately 7 times more biased towards cAMP inhibition than pERK1/2 activation. The bias profile of methanandamide, the more stable analogue of anandamide, was similar to the bias profile of anandamide, and was over 15 times more biased towards inhibition of cAMP. This rules out the possibility that metabolites produced from anandamide breakdown are responsible for the differential effects of anandamide.

Ligand-biased signalling may have real therapeutic application. For instance, the dopamine D2 receptor partial agonist, aripiprazole, does not stimulate receptor internalisation and is biased towards inhibition of cAMP formation over activation of MAPK phosphorylation. Aripiprazole therefore displays advantages in the treatment of schizophrenia by modulating dopamine activity without completely blocking D2 receptors unlike other anti-psychotic agents (Grady et al., 2003; Urban et al., 2007). Carvedilol, unlike most other β -adrenoceptor blockers, shows beneficial effects in congestive heart failure possibly because it activates β -arrestin-mediated ERK signalling while blocking Gs protein-mediated cAMP activation (Wisler et al., 2007). Opioid agonists such as herkinorin, which do not activate β -arrestin-mediated internalisation of the receptor, could offer better chronic analgesic effects with reduced adverse effects such as respiratory depression and constipation (Raehal et al., 2005; Varga et al., 2004). Likewise, potential application of ligand-biased signalling in the treatment of several other diseases such as Parkinson's disease, addiction, depression, hypertension, dyslipidemia, osteoporosis, small-cell lung cancer and HIV infection has also been proposed (reviewed in Kenakin, 2012a; Kenakin and Miller, 2010).

In the present study, ligand-biased signalling at CB₁ receptors was detected and quantified, providing a potential means to selectively promote CB₁ receptor

signalling pathways towards desired therapeutic effects. This may be relevant for treating a number of conditions, including pain (Iversen and Chapman, 2002), obesity (Horvath, 2003), nicotine addiction (Le Foll and Goldberg, 2005) and Parkinson's disease (Segovia et al., 2003).

However, in many instances, it is not yet known which signalling profiles may offer therapeutic advantages (Kenakin, 2012a). It is also possible that both the desired and unwanted effects may be mediated through the same CB₁ receptor signalling pathway in different cells or tissues (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002). Furthermore, the translation of *in vitro* bias profiles into *in vivo* effects is difficult to predict for a number of reasons, including different expression levels of the receptor and signalling elements in different cells/tissues (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013). For instance, a recent study highlighted differences in bias factors for β 2-adrenoceptor agonists in cells over-expressing or endogenously expressing the receptor (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014). Therefore, bias determined in CHO cells in the present study may not necessarily be the same as bias in physiologically relevant systems. Hence, assays that can detect and quantify selective signalling pathways need to be followed by *in vivo* studies to determine whether the phenotypic signalling *in vitro* translates to unique therapeutic phenotypes *in vivo* (Kenakin, 2012a; Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013). Nonetheless, the approach used in the present study may help in the classification/selection of cannabinoids based on their signalling profiles, which may direct structure-activity studies and the drug discovery process towards the development of selective therapeutics with reduced adverse effects targeting the CB₁ receptor.

Chapter 3

Validation and Quantification of Allosteric Modulation at CB₁ Receptors

3.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, ligand-biased signalling was detected and quantified at CB₁ receptors. In this chapter, allosteric modulation, which is an alternative approach to gaining greater selectivity in targeting CB₁ receptors, is presented.

Although attempts have been made to develop selective ligands for CB₁ or CB₂ receptors, the issue of receptor subtype selectivity has not been adequately addressed (Ross, 2007a). Even when cannabinoid compounds selectively act on either of the cannabinoid receptor subtypes *in vitro*, they may activate the other subtype at doses used *in vivo*. For instance, studies using CB₁ knockout mice demonstrated that the CB₁ receptor was responsible for the antispastic effects of so called “selective” CB₂ receptor agonists (Pryce and Baker, 2007).

Targeting potential CB₁ receptor allosteric sites may provide a higher degree of selectivity as allosteric sites are often less conserved across receptor subtypes. Furthermore, even when allosteric modulators do not bind exclusively to one subtype, they may display specificity in action through selective modulation of agonist function at one receptor subtype but not the other (Leach et al., 2007; Ross, 2007a). For example, an allosteric ligand may act as an enhancer on some receptor subtypes, but may display no effect or inhibitory effects on other subtypes (Jensen and Spalding, 2004). Another advantage of allosteric ligands is that their effects are saturable and therefore, unlike orthosteric ligands, they have a reduced propensity to cause on-target toxicity even at high doses (May et al., 2007).

Allosteric ligands may also display biased signalling through stabilisation of specific receptor conformations, which may result in activation of distinct signalling pathways (Leach et al., 2007). Therefore, biased allosteric effects offer the

opportunity to reduce the on-target adverse effects of CB₁ receptor activation through differential modulation of signalling pathways that are associated with therapeutic or adverse effects of cannabinoids.

The nature and magnitude of allosteric effect may also vary depending on the orthosteric probe studied (Leach et al., 2007; Valant et al., 2012). Therefore, probe-dependence has important implications for the detection, validation and subsequent classification of allosteric ligands.

Furthermore, CB₁ receptor allosteric modulators that have no agonist activity on their own may have the potential to retain the spatial and temporal aspects of receptor function, thus producing a more physiological regulation of receptor activity. Therefore, as they act only when the receptor is bound to endogenous cannabinoids, these modulators may avoid the psychoactive effects that are characteristic of direct CB₁ receptor agonism (Cravatt and Lichtman, 2004; Piomelli et al., 2006; Price et al., 2005; Ross, 2007a).

In recent years, there has been remarkable progress in the discovery and development of allosteric modulators at multiple GPCRs for clinical application. The first GPCR allosteric modulators that found their way to the market were cinacalcet and maraviroc. Cinacalcet is an allosteric enhancer of the calcium sensing receptor, which is used in hyperparathyroidism (Harrington and Fotsch, 2007). Maraviroc is an allosteric inhibitor of the chemokine receptor CCR5, which is used in the treatment of HIV infection, by reducing the affinity of the HIV virus to bind to the chemokine CCR5 receptor and to enter the cells (Dorr et al., 2005). Allosteric modulators of mGlu receptors and muscarinic acetylcholine receptors have been proposed to be useful in the treatment of CNS disorders such as

anxiety, schizophrenia, Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease (reviewed in Conn et al., 2009; Conn et al., 2014).

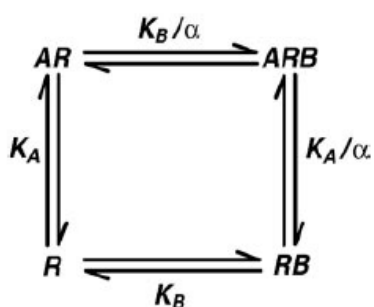
Similarly, allosteric modulation of CB₁ receptors may offer therapeutic advantages in the treatment of diseases where the orthosteric cannabinoid ligands fail to be useful. In 2005, the first CB₁ receptor allosteric modulators were identified, with Org27569 being the most potent among them. In addition to small molecule allosteric modulators, the endogenous ligands pregnenolone (Vallee et al., 2014) and lipoxin A4 (Pamplona et al., 2012) were suggested to act allosterically at CB₁ receptors.

Org27569 and a structurally related compound, PSNCBAM-1, (Fig. 1.4) displayed an intriguing profile by reducing inverse agonist binding and enhancing agonist binding while inhibiting agonist signalling in [³⁵S]GTPγS binding assays (Horswill et al., 2007; Price et al., 2005). The allosteric activity of Org27569 and PSNCBAM-1 is dependent on the orthosteric probe used; they fully inhibit CP55940 or anandamide efficacy in cAMP inhibition and [³⁵S]GTPγS binding assays (Baillie et al., 2013; Horswill et al., 2007; Price et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2011), but only partially inhibit the WIN55,212-2-induced responses (Baillie et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011).

It has also been demonstrated that the allosteric activity of Org27569 is dependent on the signalling pathway studied, such that it displays biased allosteric modulation at CB₁ receptors, as previously shown by inhibition of CP55940-stimulated [³⁵S]GTPγS binding, JNK phosphorylation and cAMP inhibition but potentiation of CP55940-stimulated pERK1/2 (Ahn et al., 2012; Baillie et al., 2013; Cawston et al., 2013).

Pregnenolone inhibited $\Delta 9$ -THC-induced activation of pERK1/2, whereas it had no effect on inhibition of cAMP formation by $\Delta 9$ -THC, and did not modify equilibrium binding of [³H]CP55940 and [³H]WIN55,212-2 in CHO-hCB₁ cells (Vallee et al., 2014). Lipoxin A4 enhanced [³H]CP55940 and to a lesser extent [³H]WIN55,212-2 binding, and shifted the [³H]SR141716A displacement curve by anandamide to the left, whereas it partially inhibited [³H]SR141716A binding. It also enhanced anandamide-mediated inhibition of cAMP in HEK-CB₁ cells and activation of inwardly rectifying K⁺ channels in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes injected with mouse CB₁ receptor. However, an interaction between lipoxin A4 and anandamide was not observed in [³⁵S]GTP γ S binding assays (Pamplona et al., 2012).

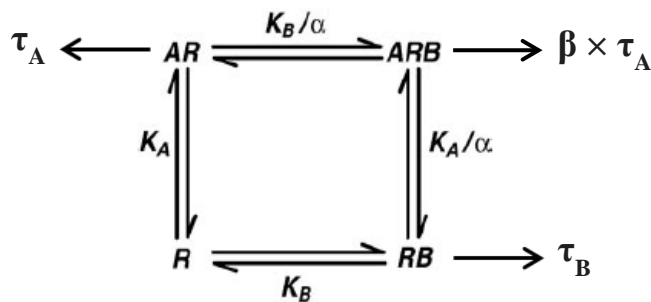
To predict the effects of drugs when tested in animal models, it is beneficial to differentiate allosteric from orthosteric modes of action. Quantification of allosteric effects can be used to select drugs for screening assays and *in vivo* studies. It also can direct structure-activity relationship studies that aim to develop compounds with improved receptor subtype selectivity and high binding affinity to the allosteric site, which can selectively modulate orthosteric agonist affinity and efficacy to only evoke the desired effects of CB₁ receptor activation (Ross, 2007a). The simplest model to quantify allosteric interactions is the allosteric ternary complex model (ATCM) (Ehlert, 1988).



Orthosteric and allosteric ligands bind to their respective binding sites on the receptor. R denotes the receptor; A and B denote the orthosteric and allosteric ligands, respectively; K_A and K_B denote their respective equilibrium dissociation constants. The cooperativity factor, α , describes the magnitude of the allosteric change in ligand affinity when both sites are occupied. Because of conformational linkage, the allosteric interaction between the orthosteric and allosteric sites is reciprocal.

The ATCM model can be applied to quantify allosteric effects on the binding affinity of each ligand, however, it does not account for modulator effects on the signalling properties of the receptor. Therefore the application of the ATCM is inappropriate when allosteric modulators alter orthosteric ligand efficacy (Ehlert, 1988; May et al., 2007).

An alternative operational model of allosterism can be used to quantify allosteric effects on both the affinity and efficacy of the orthosteric ligand (Leach et al., 2007).



Orthosteric ligand efficacy is defined by τ_A . Allosteric modulation of orthosteric ligand efficacy is defined by a cooperativity factor, β . τ_B represents the operational efficacy of the allosteric agonist. In this model, allosteric modulation is governed by both affinity modulation (α) and efficacy modulation (β), permitting allosteric modulators to have divergence in their effects on ligand binding affinity

and efficacy. For example Org27569 is a positive modulator of orthosteric agonist binding but a negative modulator of agonist efficacy (Price et al., 2005).

Research into the allosteric modulation of CB₁ receptors is relatively new and to date, has not been thoroughly quantified. Furthermore, previous observations of the modulatory effects of Org27569 were mainly obtained using CP55940 or WIN55,212-2 as the agonist probes, rather than endogenous cannabinoids. Therefore, the present study aimed to fully quantify the allosteric effects of Org27569 on binding and signalling properties of endogenous and exogenous cannabinoids, using the models mentioned above. Given the important implications of biased allosteric effects and probe-dependent effects of allosteric modulators, cAMP and pERK1/2 assays were performed to validate biased allosteric effects, and several cannabinoid ligands were tested to detect the probe-dependent effect of Org27569. It was hypothesised that Org27569 would display probe- and signalling pathway-selective modulation at CB₁ receptors.

Furthermore, an in-depth characterisation of the activity of pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 at CB₁ receptors has not been undertaken. Therefore, the binding of these ligands to CB₁ receptors and their functional interactions with cannabinoid agonists were investigated. Pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 were hypothesised to modulate the binding or activity of cannabinoid ligands through allosteric interactions.

Given the therapeutic advantages of allosteric modulators over orthosteric ligands, detection and quantification of allosteric interactions at CB₁ receptors is important in order to produce clinically useful compounds.

3.2. Materials and Methods

3.2.1. Materials

5(S), 6(R)-Lipoxin A4 was obtained from Tocris Bioscience. Org27569 and pregnenolone (3 β -Hydroxy-5-pregnen-20-one) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Details for purchasing all other materials used in this chapter were the same as detailed in Chapter 2.

3.2.2. Ligand preparation

Ligands were prepared as previously described in Chapter 2, with the addition of Org27569 that was dissolved in 100% DMSO for a stock solution of 10 mM. Stock solutions of 10 mM and 250 μ M were prepared in ethanol for pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 respectively.

3.2.3. Cell line

Flp-In CHO-hCB₁ cells were generated as described in Chapter 2, and maintained in DMEM containing 10% FBS, 16 mM HEPES and 700 μ g/ml of hygromycin B.

3.2.4. Whole cell radioligand binding assays

The general protocol for the preparation of cells, termination of assays and detection of radioligand binding is described in Chapter 2.

3.2.4.1. Allosteric modulator titration assays

Allosteric modulator titration assays were performed by incubating cells with 1 nM [³H]SR141716A and increasing concentrations of Org27569, pregnenolone or lipoxin A4, for 6 hours, based on the equilibrium time determined in association kinetic assays (Chapter 2).

3.2.4.2. Binding interaction studies

For interaction studies between the unlabelled competitor and allosteric modulators, cells were incubated with 1 nM [³H]SR141716A and increasing concentrations of orthosteric ligands in the presence or absence of various concentrations of Org27569 for 6 hours.

3.2.5. AlphaScreen cAMP assays

The general protocol is described in Chapter 2.

3.2.5.1. cAMP interaction studies

For cAMP interaction studies with the allosteric modulators, cells were pre-incubated with varying concentrations of Org27569, pregnenolone or lipoxin A4 for 10-15 minutes, before the addition of different concentrations of orthosteric ligands.

3.2.6. pERK1/2 assays

The general protocol is described in Chapter 2.

3.2.6.1. pERK1/2 time courses

Initial time course experiments for allosteric modulators were performed, as described in chapter 2 for orthosteric ligands, by incubating the cells with 10 µM final concentration of each allosteric modulator for different time intervals to determine the time that the maximum signal was produced for subsequent concentration-response studies. The effects of allosteric modulators on the time course of cannabinoid agonists were investigated by incubating 10 µM final concentration of each agonist in the presence of 10 µM final concentration of each modulator.

3.2.6.2. pERK1/2 interaction studies

pERK1/2 interaction studies with the allosteric modulators were performed by pre-incubating cells with varying concentrations of Org27569, pregnenolone or lipoxin A4 for 10-15 minutes, before the addition of increasing concentrations of orthosteric ligands for the time determined in the time course experiments (Chapter 2).

3.2.7. Data analysis

Data were analysed using Prism 6 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA). Data from [³H]SR141716A displacement by Org27569 were fitted to an allosteric ternary complex model (Price et al., 2005) (Eq. 3.1),

$$Y = \frac{[A]}{[A] + \left[\frac{K_a(1+[B]/K_b)}{1+\alpha[B]/K_b} \right]} \quad \text{Eq. 3.1}$$

where Y is the fractional specific binding, K_a and K_b denote the equilibrium dissociation constants of the radioligand and the allosteric ligand, respectively, [A],

and [B] are their respective concentrations, α is the cooperativity factor between the allosteric ligand and radioligand. An α value >1 describes positive cooperativity (allosteric enhancement of radioligand binding), while an α value < 1 (but >0) describes negative cooperativity (allosteric inhibition of binding) and an $\alpha = 1$ describes neutral cooperativity, i.e., no net effect on binding affinity at equilibrium (Ehlert, 1988).

Binding interaction experiments between cannabinoid agonists, Org27569 and [³H]SR141716A were fitted to the following allosteric ternary complex model (Leach et al., 2010) (Eq. 3.2),

$$Y = \frac{B_{\max}[A]}{[A] + \left[\frac{K_a K_b}{\alpha[B] + K_b} \right] \left[1 + \frac{[I]}{K_i} + \frac{[B]}{K_b} + \frac{\alpha'[I][B]}{K_i K_b} \right]} \quad \text{Eq. 3.2}$$

where Y , K_a , K_b , $[A]$ and $[B]$ are as defined above, K_i denotes the equilibrium dissociation constant of unlabelled orthosteric ligand, and $[I]$ is its concentration, B_{\max} is the total number of receptors, and α and α' are the cooperativity factors between the allosteric ligand and radioligand or unlabelled ligand, respectively.

To define allosteric effects on intrinsic efficacy of orthosteric ligands (β), data from functional interaction experiments were fitted to the following operational model of allosterism (Leach et al., 2007) (Eq. 3.3),

$$\text{Effect} = \frac{E_m(\tau_A[A](K_b + \alpha\beta[B]) + \tau_B[B]K_a)^n}{(K_b[A] + K_a K_b + K_a[B] + \alpha[A][B])^n + (\tau_A[A](K_b + \alpha\beta[B]) + \tau_B[B]K_a)^n} \quad \text{Eq. 3.3}$$

where τ_A and τ_B denote the efficacy of orthosteric and allosteric ligands respectively, α and β denote allosteric effects on binding affinity and efficacy of orthosteric ligands, respectively. K_a and K_b are the equilibrium dissociation constants of orthosteric and allosteric ligands, respectively; and $[A]$ and $[B]$ denote

their respective concentrations. E_m is the maximal possible system response and n is the slope factor of the transducer function.

Competition binding experiments between pregnenolone or lipoxin A4 and the radiolabelled SR141716A were fitted to a one-site binding equation (Motulsky and Christopoulos, 2004) (Eq. 3.4),

$$Y = \frac{(\text{Top} - \text{Bottom})}{1 + (10^{[I] - \log IC_{50}})} + \text{Bottom} \quad \text{Eq. 3.4}$$

where Y represents the percentage of specific binding; Top and Bottom denote the maximal and minimal asymptotes of the curve, respectively; $[I]$ is the concentration of inhibitor; and IC_{50} is the concentration of competitor that produces half the maximal response.

Functional interaction studies with pregnenolone or lipoxin A4 were fitted to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 3.5),

$$Y = \frac{(\text{Top} - \text{Bottom})}{1 + (10^{\log EC_{50} - A})} + \text{Bottom} \quad \text{Eq. 3.5}$$

where Top and Bottom denote the maximal and minimal asymptotes of the curve, respectively, A is the concentration of agonist, and $\log EC_{50}$ is the concentration of agonist that produces half the maximal response.

3.3. Results

3.3.1. Org276529 displays probe-dependent allosteric modulation at CB₁ receptors

Previous studies have shown that Org27569 increases the binding of the CB₁ receptor agonist, [³H]CP55940, has no effect on [³H]WIN,55212 binding and displays negative binding cooperativity with the CB₁ receptor inverse agonist [³H]SR141716 (Baillie et al., 2013; Price et al., 2005). Thus, we first validated the effects of Org27569 on [³H]SR141716A binding and then on displacement of [³H]SR141716A by cannabinoid agonists.

In agreement with previous findings (Price et al., 2005), our results showed that Org27569 completely displaced [³H]SR141716A, indicating high negative allosteric cooperativity between these two ligands (Fig. 3.1). Thus, a pK_b value of 5.81±0.08 for Org27569 was determined by fitting the displacement data to an allosteric ternary complex model (Eq. 3.1). An α value less than 1 ($\alpha \sim 0$), indicated negative allosteric modulation of [³H]SR141716A binding. Due to the very high negative cooperativity estimated ($\text{Log}\alpha > -10$), this model then effectively becomes a competitive binding model.

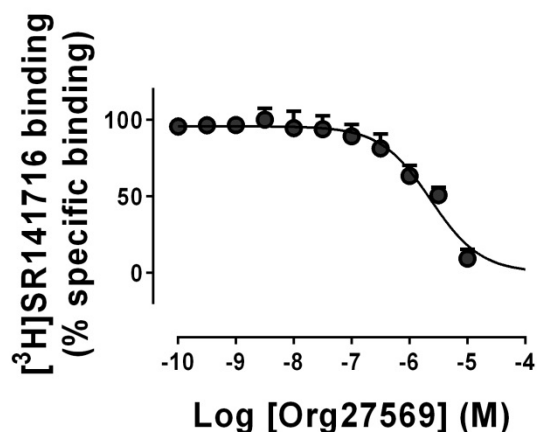


Fig. 3.1. [³H]SR141716A displacement by the CB₁ receptor allosteric modulator Org27569. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with 1 nM [³H]SR141716A and increasing concentrations of Org27569 for 6 hours at 4 °C. Curves were generated by fitting the data to an allosteric ternary complex model (Eq. 3.1). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from four experiments carried out in triplicate.

Binding interaction studies were next performed to determine the effects of Org27569 on the binding of cannabinoid agonists, by measuring agonist displacement of [³H]SR141716A in the absence and presence of various Org27569 concentrations. The data were fitted to an allosteric ternary complex model (E.q. 3.2) to quantify the allosteric binding cooperativity between Org27569 and the cannabinoid agonists (Fig. 3.2. and Table 3.1).

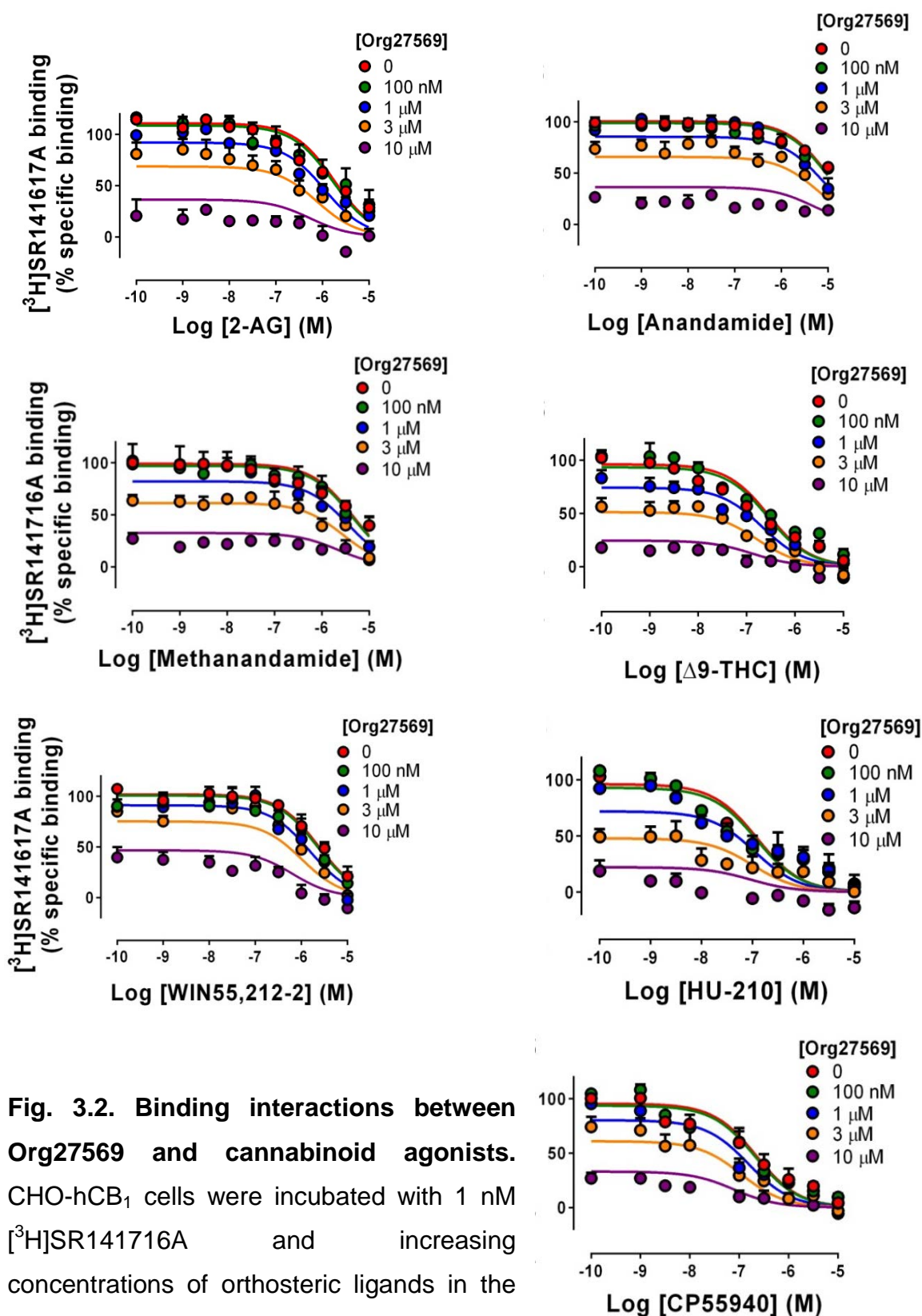


Fig. 3.2. Binding interactions between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with 1 nM $[\text{^3H}]$ SR141716A and increasing concentrations of orthosteric ligands in the presence or absence of various concentrations of Org27569 for 6 hours at 4 °C. Curves were generated by fitting the data to an allosteric ternary complex model (Eq. 3.2). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from at least three experiments carried out in triplicate.

Table 3.1. Binding parameters for the allosteric interaction between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists determined in binding interaction experiments.

Data were fitted to an allosteric ternary complex model (Eq. 3.2) to determine the cooperativity between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists ($\text{Log}\alpha'$). The binding cooperativity between [³H]SR141716A and Org27569 ($\text{Log}\alpha$) was highly negative (>-10). The negative logarithm of the radioligand dissociation constant was fixed to that determined from homologous competition binding experiments (pK_a 8.5). Values represent the mean \pm S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Ligand	$\text{Log}\alpha'^a$ [α']	pK_b^b	pK_i^c
CP55940	0.5 \pm 1.0 [3.2]	5.4 \pm 0.1	6.8 \pm 0.6
HU-210	0.0 \pm 0.7 [1.0]	5.6 \pm 0.1	7.0 \pm 0.3
WIN55,212-2	0.6 \pm 0.5 [4.0]	5.2 \pm 0.1	5.8 \pm 0.2
Δ 9-THC	0.3 \pm 0.2 [2.0]	5.6 \pm 0.1	6.7 \pm 0.1
Methanandamide	0.3 \pm 0.6 [2.0]	5.4 \pm 0.1	5.5 \pm 0.2
Anandamide	0.3 \pm 0.4 [2.0]	5.4 \pm 0.0	5.2 \pm 0.1
2-AG	0.5 \pm 0.2 [3.2]	5.4 \pm 0.1	5.9 \pm 0.6

^a Logarithm of the binding cooperativity factor between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists

^b Negative logarithm of the allosteric modulator dissociation constant

^c Negative logarithm of the competing orthosteric ligand dissociation constant

Our quantitative analysis demonstrated that Org27569 had little effect on the binding of CP55940, indicated by only a small (3 fold) enhancement in CP55940-mediated displacement of [³H]SR141716A. A similar observation was made for WIN55,212-2, HU-210, Δ 9-THC, methanandamide, anandamide and 2-AG (Fig. 3.2). The analysis had difficulty determining binding cooperativity between Org27569 and cannabinoid ligands as seen by the large error, probably because it

was close to neutral. This can be shown by no significant change in the pIC₅₀ values (Table 3. 2).

Table 3.2. Effects of various concentrations of Org27569 on pIC₅₀ values of cannabinoid agonists in displacement of [³H]SR141716A.

Data were analysed using a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 3.5). Values represent the mean \pm S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Ligand	Concentration of Org27569 (M)				
	-5	-5.5	-6	-7	0
	pIC ₅₀				
CP55940	-7.0 \pm 0.3	-7.1 \pm 0.3	-7.3 \pm 0.2	-7.0 \pm 0.1	-7.6 \pm 0.1
HU-210	-8.2 \pm 0.3	-7.8 \pm 0.4	-7.7 \pm 0.2	-7.7 \pm 0.2	-7.8 \pm 0.1
WIN55,212-2	-6.0 \pm 0.3	-5.8 \pm 0.2	-5.6 \pm 0.2	-5.6 \pm 0.3	-5.6 \pm 0.2
Δ 9-THC	-6.5 \pm 0.3	-6.7 \pm 0.2	-6.9 \pm 0.2	-7.0 \pm 0.1	-7.0 \pm 0.1
Methanandamide	-5.7 \pm 0.4	-5.4 \pm 0.4	-6.0 \pm 0.3	-5.7 \pm 0.3	-6.0 \pm 0.2
Anandamide	-5.9 \pm 0.8	-5.3 \pm 0.4	-5.4 \pm 0.2	-5.8 \pm 0.3	-5.7 \pm 0.1
2-AG	-6.3 \pm 0.5	-6.9 \pm 0.3	-6.4 \pm 0.1	-6.4 \pm 0.3	-6.3 \pm 0.2

3.3.2. Determination of the optimum incubation time in functional studies

pERK1/2 time course experiments were performed to determine potential stimulation of pERK1/2 activation by Org27569 in its own right, and its effect on the time at which the maximum signal is produced by each cannabinoid agonist. The results showed that Org27569 by itself did not produce any response during the 30 minute incubation period, but it did abolish the peak pERK1/2 signal produced by CP55940, HU-210 and 2-AG. However, the time at which the maximum signal was produced by WIN55,212-2, Δ 9-THC, methanandamide and anandamide did not alter in the presence of Org27569 (Fig. 3.3). Therefore, the time point determined in Chapter 2 for each agonist (in the absence of Org27569) was used in subsequent pERK1/2 interaction studies.

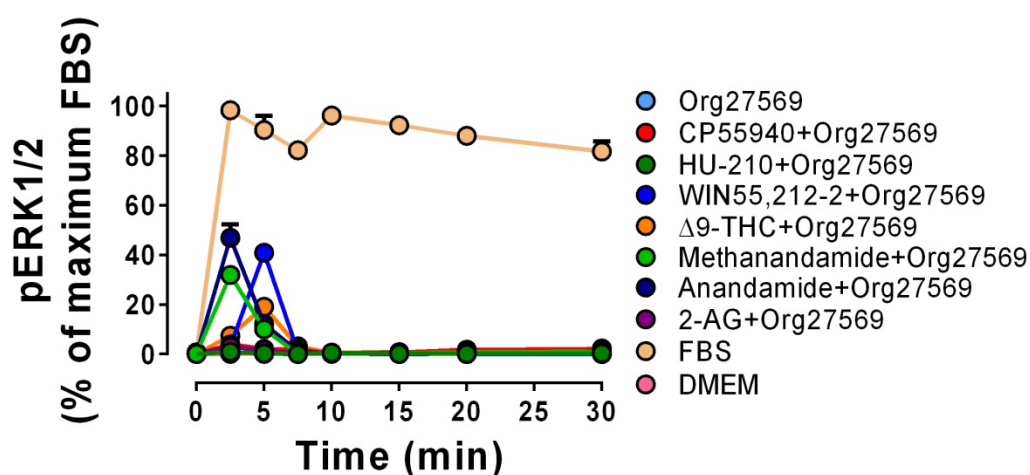


Fig. 3.3. pERK1/2 time course assays. CHO-hCB₁ cells were incubated with 10 μ M final concentration of Org27569, or with 10 μ M of each cannabinoid ligand in the presence of 10 μ M final concentration of Org27569 at 37 °C for different time intervals before termination of pERK1/2 stimulation. Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from two experiments performed in triplicate.

Our initial pERK1/2 interaction studies demonstrated that when Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists, CP55940 or WIN55,212-2, were added together, weak or no modulatory effect by Org27569 was observed on pERK1/2 activation (Fig. 3.4.A). However, a 15 minute pre-incubation with Org27569 resulted in modulation of CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling (Fig. 3.4.B). Therefore, in all subsequent interaction experiments a 15 minute pre-incubation with Org27569 was performed prior to agonist addition.

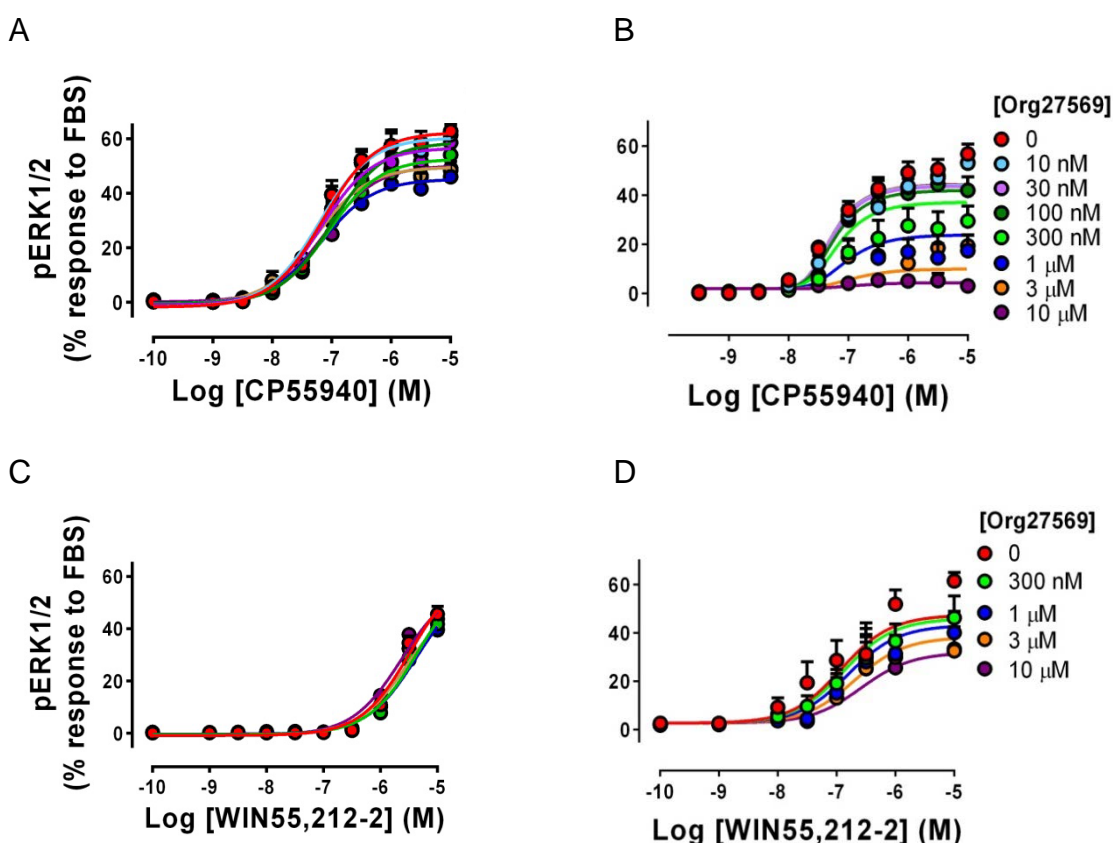


Fig. 3.4. Effects of incubation time with Org27569 on activation of pERK1/2 by cannabinoid agonists. Org27569 and CP55940 (A) or WIN55,212-2 (C) were co-added to CHO-hCB₁ cells. Org27569 was added to the cells 15 minutes prior to the addition of CP55940 (B) or WIN55,212-2 (D). Assays were terminated 5 minutes (the time determined in the time course experiments) after incubation of cells with CP55940 or WIN55,212-2. Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from at least three experiments carried out in triplicate.

3.3.3. Org27569 displays probe- and signalling pathway-dependent allosteric modulation at CB₁ receptors

Functional interaction studies between Org27569 and various cannabinoid agonists were performed to detect and quantify the allosteric effects of Org27569 on CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling.

Org27569 completely abolished inhibition of cAMP formation by 2-AG, anandamide, methanandamide, Δ^9 -THC, WIN55,2212-2, HU-210 and almost completely abolished CP55940-mediated inhibition of cAMP (Fig. 3.5). Interestingly however, in pERK1/2 assays, Org27569 had no significant effects on activation of pERK1/2 by anandamide, methanandamide and Δ^9 -THC (Fig. 3.6). This indicates strong biased allosteric effects of Org27569. Our results also demonstrated striking probe-dependence by Org27569. Thus, while Org27569 did not modulate activation of pERK1/2 by anandamide, methanandamide and Δ^9 -THC, it partially inhibited 2-AG and WIN55,212-2-induced pERK1/2 activation and completely abolished pERK1/2 activation by HU-210 and CP55940 (Fig. 3.6).

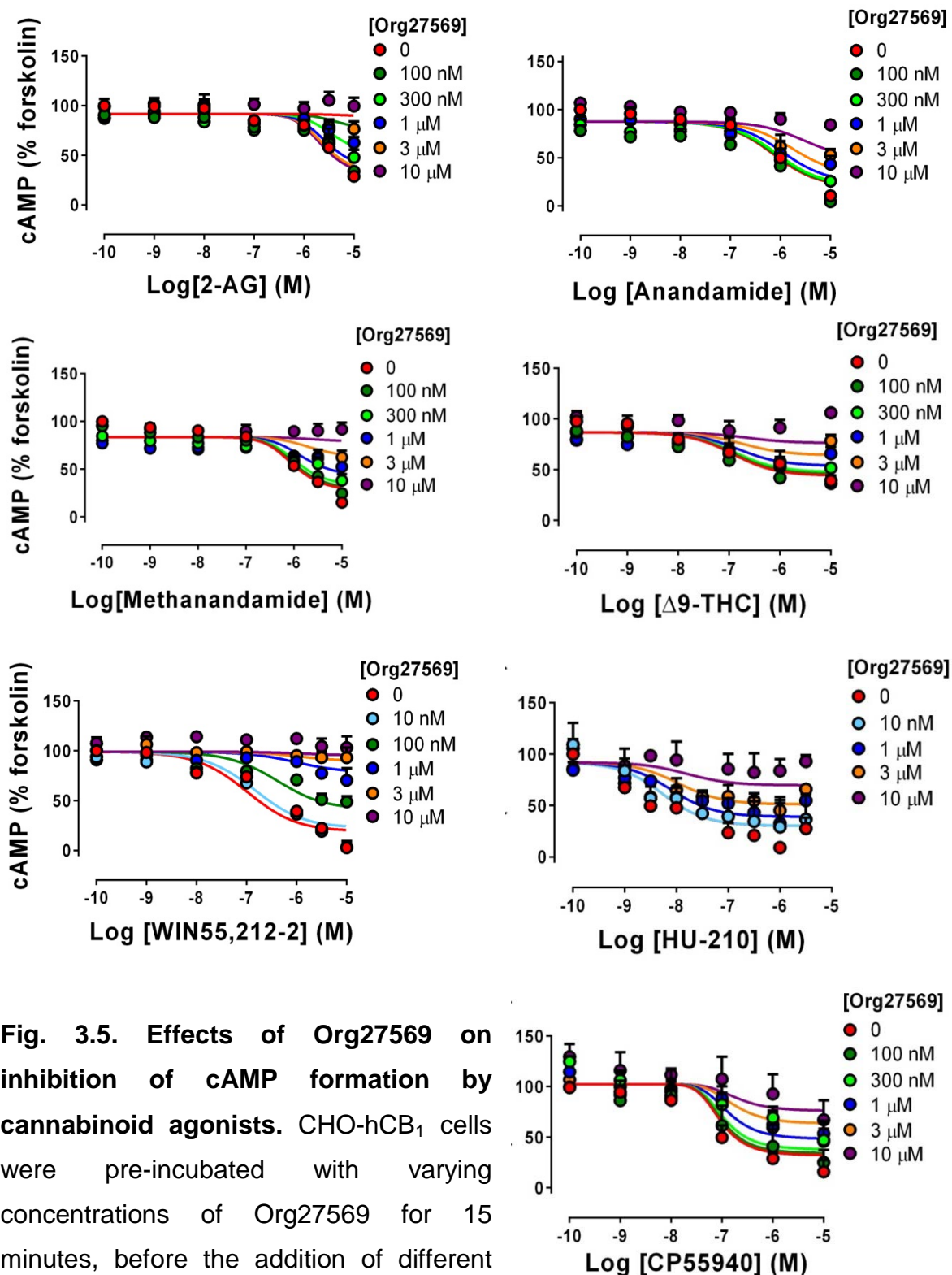


Fig. 3.5. Effects of Org27569 on inhibition of cAMP formation by cannabinoid agonists. CHO-hCB₁ cells were pre-incubated with varying concentrations of Org27569 for 15 minutes, before the addition of different concentrations of orthosteric ligands in the presence of 1 μ M forskolin for 30 minutes at 37 °C. Curves were generated by fitting the data to an operational model of allosterism (Eq. 3.3). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from at least three experiments carried out in triplicate.

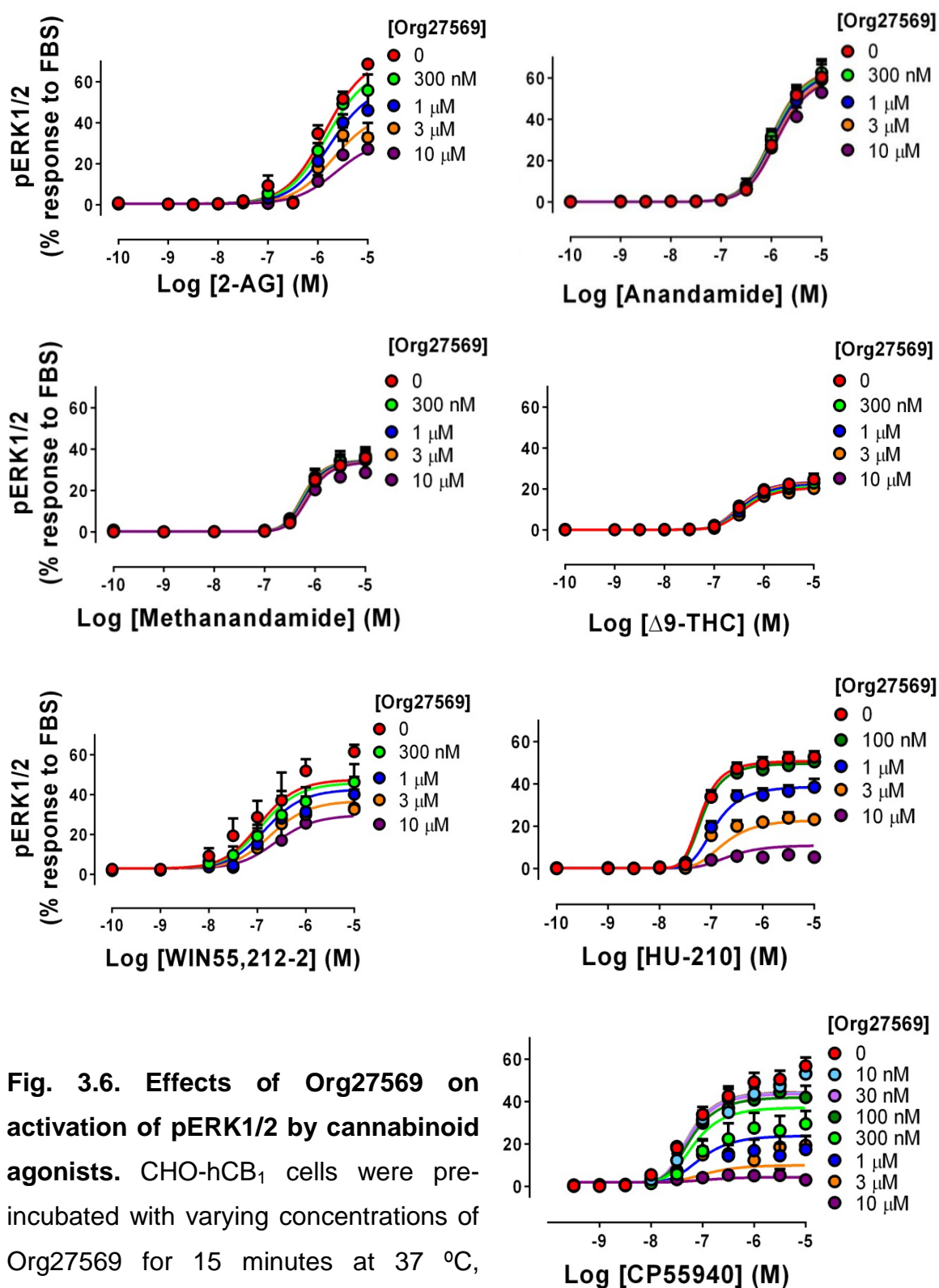


Fig. 3.6. Effects of Org27569 on activation of pERK1/2 by cannabinoid agonists. CHO-hCB₁ cells were pre-incubated with varying concentrations of Org27569 for 15 minutes at 37 °C, before the addition of different concentrations of orthosteric ligands. Curves were generated by fitting the data to an operational model of allosterism (Eq. 3.3). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from at least three experiments carried out in triplicate.

The data from functional interaction studies were fitted to an operational model of allosterism (Eq. 3.3) to quantify the functional cooperativity between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists (Table 3.3). The binding affinity of orthosteric ligands were fixed to the values determined in binding interaction assays (Table 3.1), the binding affinity of the modulator was fixed to the value obtained in competition binding assays (pK_b 5.8), which is close to its estimated pK_b values in binding interaction assays (Table 3.1), and α was fixed to 1 to reflect the neutral binding cooperativity. This enabled determination of the functional cooperativity (β) between Org27569 and the cannabinoids. In cAMP interaction studies, β between Org27569 and CP55940 was 0.11. For the interaction between Org27569 and all other tested cannabinoid agonists, β was close to 0. This indicates very strong negative functional cooperativity between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists tested. In pERK1/2 interaction studies, β between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists varied from close to 0 for CP55940 to close to 1 for Δ^9 -THC (Table 3.3). This indicates that depending on the cannabinoid agonist used, the effects of Org27569 on cannabinoid-mediated pERK1/2 activation vary from strong inhibition to no modulation. The strong negative functional cooperativity is demonstrated by the large effect of Org27569 on the maximum signalling capacity (E_{max}) of the cannabinoids, whereas the neutral cooperativity is shown by no change on the E_{max} (Fig. 3.5 and 3.6). The potency (EC_{50}) of all tested cannabinoid agonists was unchanged in cAMP and pERK1/2 assays, which is in agreement with the neutral binding cooperativity between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists.

Taken together, our results clearly indicate strong probe-dependence and biased allosteric effects by Org27569, whereby it negatively modulated cAMP

inhibition by all cannabinoids tested, and some, but not all, cannabinoid-mediated pERK1/2 signalling.

Table 3.3. Operational model parameters (Eq. 3.3) for the functional interaction between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists.

pK_a was fixed to values estimated in binding interaction assays and pK_b to 5.8 determined in allosteric titration assays. $\text{Log}\alpha$ was fixed to 0, and logT_B to -1000. Values represent the mean \pm S.E.M. from at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Ligand	$\text{Log}\beta^a [\beta]$		$\text{LogT}_A^b [T_A]$	
	pERK1/2	cAMP	pERK1/2	cAMP
CP55940	>-10 [\sim 0]	-1.0 \pm 0.5 [0.1]	0.3 \pm 0.1 [2.0]	0.3 \pm 0.4 [2.0]
HU-210	-1.0 \pm 0.1 [0.1]	>-10 [\sim 0]	0.3 \pm 0.0 [2.2]	0.7 \pm 0.8 [5.0]
WIN55,212-2	-0.6 \pm 0.2 [0.2]	>-10 [\sim 0]	0.4 \pm 0.3 [2.5]	0.3 \pm 0.1 [2.0]
Δ^9 -THC	-0.1 \pm 0.0 [0.9]	>-10 [\sim 0]	0.1 \pm 0.1 [1.3]	0.1 \pm 0.8 [1.3]
Methanandamide	-0.1 \pm 0.1 [0.8]	>-10 [\sim 0]	0.8 \pm 0.0 [6.3]	0.4 \pm 0.2 [2.5]
Anandamide	-0.1 \pm 0.1 [0.7]	>-10 [\sim 0]	0.8 \pm 0.1 [6.6]	0.9 \pm 0.3 [7.9]
2-AG	-0.4 \pm 0.1 [0.4]	>-10 [\sim 0]	0.0 \pm 0.2 [1.1]	0.2 \pm 0.2 [1.6]

^a Logarithm of the activation cooperativity factor between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists

^b Logarithm of the functional efficacy of orthosteric ligands

3.3.4. Pregnenolone, but not lipoxin A, displays weak activity at CB₁ receptors

To verify the allosteric activity of pregnenolone at CB₁ receptors, we first investigated its effects on displacement of [³H]SR141716A. Our results showed a concentration-dependent decrease in [³H]SR141716A binding by pregnenolone (Fig. 3.7). However, as pregnenolone completely displaced [³H]SR141716A, it cannot be distinguished whether pregnenolone acts as an allosteric inhibitor with very high negative cooperativity or acts as a competitive inhibitor. The data therefore were fitted to a one-site binding equation (Eq. 3.4).

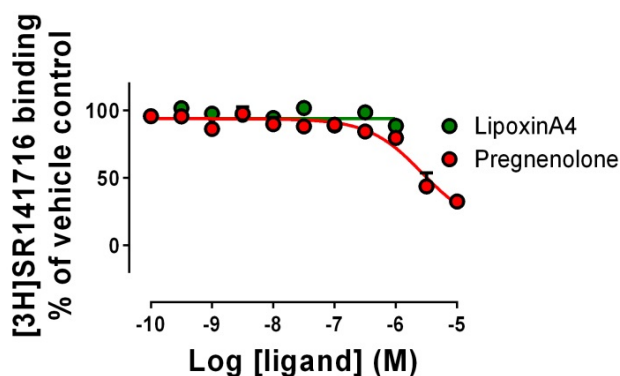
pERK1/2 interaction studies were next performed between pregnenolone and Δ9-THC. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 3.5). In contrast to the previous study by Vallee and colleagues (Vallee et al., 2014), our results revealed a complete lack of modulation of Δ9-THC-induced signalling by pregnenolone (Fig. 3.7). As modulatory effects of allosteric ligands can be dependent on the agonist used to detect the effect, we also determined effects of pregnenolone on activation of pERK1/2 by WIN55,212-2. However, it also had no effect on the response to WIN55,212-2 (Fig. 3.7). The possibility that pregnenolone may change the time at which maximum pERK1/2 signal is produced by cannabinoid agonists was ruled out in our time course experiments (data not shown).

We next investigated the effects of lipoxin A4 on [³H]SR141716A displacement and on the cAMP response to anandamide. In contrast to previous findings, lipoxin A4 did not alter the binding of [³H]SR141716A (Fig. 3.7), and did

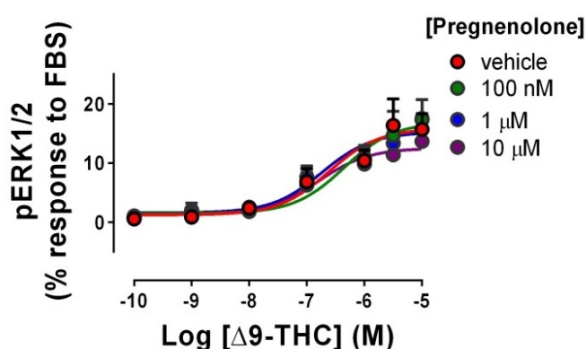
not modulate cAMP inhibition induced by anandamide. Similarly, there was no cAMP interaction between lipoxin A4 and CP55940 (Fig. 3.7).

Therefore, the previously reported allosteric effects of pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 were not verified in the present study.

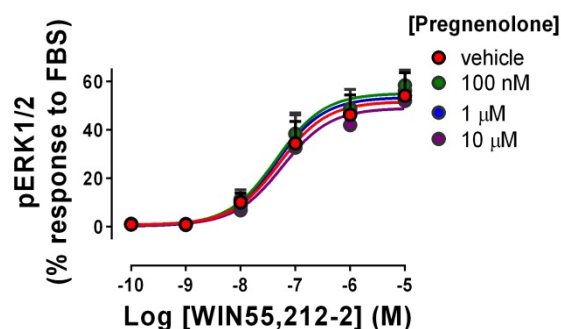
A



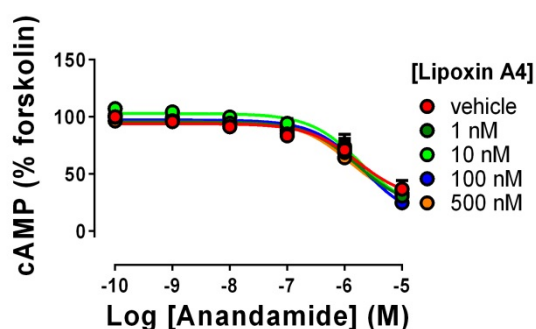
B



C



D



E

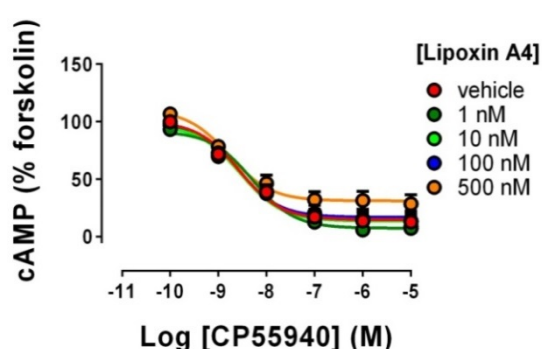


Fig. 3.7. Pregnenolone, but not lipoxin A4, binds to CB₁ receptors, but neither ligand modulates cannabinoid-mediated signalling. (A) [³H]SR141716A displacement by CB₁ receptor allosteric modulators, pregnenolone and lipoxin A4. Interaction between pregnenolone and Δ9-THC (B) or WIN55,212-2 (C) in pERK1/2 assay, and interaction between lipoxin A4 and anandamide (D) or CP55940 (E) in cAMP assay in CHO-hCB₁ cells. Curves were generated by fitting the data to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 3.4). Data points represent mean values + S.E.M. from four experiments carried out in triplicate.

3.4. Discussion

This study provides quantitative insight into biased allosterism and probe-dependence by the small molecule, Org27569, at CB₁ receptors, and demonstrates evidence against the previously reported allosteric effects of the endogenous ligands pregnenolone and lipoxin A4.

Quantification of allosteric effects may provide useful information for the development of better therapeutics. However, to date only a few studies have investigated allosteric interactions at CB₁ receptors, in which there are few quantitative findings reported. Therefore, the present study sought to validate and quantify allosteric modulation at these receptors.

We first performed radioligand binding experiments. Org27569 reduced the binding of [³H]SR1417161A with a pK_b value of 5.81 and an α value close to 0, indicating strong negative binding cooperativity between Org27569 and [³H]SR1417161A. This is in agreement with the previously reported pK_b and α values of 5.95 and 0.09, respectively (Price et al., 2005). However, the results of our binding interaction studies demonstrated little or no effect of Org27569 on [³H]SR141716A displacement by CP55940, and other tested cannabinoid agonists. This may suggest that Org27569 differentially modulates binding of different cannabinoid ligands; thereby it affects inverse agonist binding but not agonist binding. The probe-dependent effect of Org27569 on cannabinoid ligand binding was previously demonstrated by its weak effect on the binding of [³H]WIN55,212-2, while enhancing [³H]CP55940 binding (Baillie et al., 2013).

The pK_b values estimated for Org27569 in our binding interaction studies were similar using different cannabinoid agonists, and were close to the estimated

pK_b value for Org27569 in [³H]SR141716A displacement assays, confirming the validity of our model. Similarly, Price and colleagues reported a pK_b value for Org27569 in enhancing [³H]CP55940 binding, close to that estimated from [³H]SR141716A displacement assays (Price et al., 2005).

In contrast to the close to neutral cooperativity between Org27569 and CP55940 in the present study, Price et al. and Ahn et al. demonstrated positive cooperativity with α values of 14 and 7, respectively, for the displacement of [³H]CP55940 by Org27569 (Ahn et al., 2012; Price et al., 2005). This may be explained by the different experimental approach used in our study. We studied [³H]SR141716A displacement by cannabinoid agonists in the presence of Org27569, whereas in previous studies the direct effect of Org27569 on binding of tritiated agonists ([³H]CP55940 or [³H]WIN55,212-2) was investigated. Therefore, the presence of the inverse agonist in our study may change the equilibrium of high and low affinity binding sites, influencing the activity of Org27569. The difference may also be explained by the use of whole cells in the present study versus mouse brain membrane preparations used in previous studies (Baillie et al., 2013; Price et al., 2005). Different receptor populations may be present in whole cells versus membranes (e.g. different proportions of receptor-G protein complexes), reducing the positive cooperativity between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists.

The probe-dependent effect of Org27569 extends to functional assays, demonstrated previously by its ability to modulate CP55940-induced activation of pERK1/2 and inhibition of cAMP formation, while having weak or no effect on responses to WIN55,212-2 (Baillie et al., 2013). We further investigated this by screening a wider range of cannabinoid ligands. Our results clearly show that

Org27569 displays probe-dependence by inhibiting pERK1/2 activation by HU-210 and CP55940, while only partially inhibiting 2-AG and WIN55,212-2 responses and having no significant effects on pERK1/2 activation by anandamide, methanandamide and Δ 9-THC. The results of our quantitative analysis demonstrated β values ranging from close to 0 (indicating strong negative functional cooperativity) to close to 1 (indicating neutral functional cooperativity) between Org27569 and cannabinoid agonists in pERK1/2 interaction studies. This highlights the probe-dependent effect of Org27569.

Our findings that Org27569 either negatively modulates or has no effect on cannabinoid-induced pERK1/2 signalling, depending on the probe used, are in contrast to previous studies where it positively modulated this signalling pathway activated by CP55940 (Ahn et al., 2012; Baillie et al., 2013). This could be explained as the cell background and subsequent complement of intracellular signalling proteins may greatly influence the modulatory effects of Org27569 on CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling.

The present study confirmed that the allosteric activity of Org27569 is also dependent on the signalling pathway studied, such that it displays biased allosteric modulation at CB₁ receptors. Thus, whereas Org27569 had a partial inhibitory or no effect on pERK1/2 signalling induced by some of the cannabinoids tested, it completely abolished inhibition of cAMP formation by every agonist, highlighting the pathway-specific modulation of CB₁ receptor signalling. Therefore, our quantitative analysis provided β values close to 0 for the cAMP interaction between Org27569 and all cannabinoid agonists, except for CP55940, which was 0.11. This indicates strong negative modulation of cannabinoid-mediated inhibition of cAMP formation by Org27569. Previous studies reported biased allosteric

effects of Org27569 as it antagonised inhibition of cAMP formation, stimulation of [³⁵S]GTPγS binding and JNK phosphorylation by CP55490, while potentiating cannabinoid-induced activation of pERK1/2 (Ahn et al., 2012; Baillie et al., 2013).

This is the first study that provides a comprehensive quantitative analysis of the binding and functional parameters for the interaction between Org27569 and several cannabinoid agonists, including endocannabinoids. Taken together, our study demonstrates that Org27569 displays probe-dependence and biased allosterism.

We also evaluated the allosteric nature of the two previously reported endogenous allosteric ligands at CB₁ receptors, pregnenolone and lipoxin A4. Previous binding interaction studies demonstrated no effect of pregnenolone on equilibrium binding of [³H]CP55940 and [³H]WIN55,212-2 (Vallee et al., 2014). However, our results demonstrate a complete displacement of [³H]SR141716A by pregnenolone, suggesting an interaction between these two ligands at CB₁ receptors, which may be through a competitive or an allosteric action. It also could be due to CB₁ receptor-independent mechanisms, such as cell membrane disruption by lipophilic pregnenolone. Similarly, highly lipophilic cannabinoid ligands display high levels of non-specific binding in radioligand binding experiments (Ashton et al., 2008). In contrast to previous findings (Vallee et al., 2014), we saw no inhibitory effect of pregnenolone on Δ9-THC-induced activation of pERK1/2. It also had no effect on the response to WIN55,212-2.

Also, in contrast to previous results, where lipoxin A4 partially inhibited [³H]SR141716A binding and enhanced [³H]SR141716A displacement by anandamide (Pamplona et al., 2012), it had no effect in our binding studies. Furthermore, our results demonstrated no effect on the cAMP response to

anandamide or CP55940 by lipoxin A4, in contrast to the previously reported enhancement of anandamide-mediated cAMP inhibition (Pamplona et al., 2012).

However, it may be necessary to test a wider range of cannabinoid ligands to ascertain that the potential allosteric effects of pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 are not masked by a probe-dependent nature. Nonetheless, the previously reported allosteric effects of pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 were not verified in the present study.

It should be noted that it might be difficult to predict the activity of allosteric modulators *in vivo*, in particular where the target receptor, such as the CB₁ receptor, interacts with multiple endogenous ligands, resulting in more than one set of pK_b, α and β values. Even for a single combination of orthosteric ligand and allosteric modulator, different pharmacological effects may be produced in different cells or tissues (Kenakin, 2012b; Leach et al., 2007). Nonetheless, the quantitative insight into allosteric modulation of CB₁ receptors provided in the present study may help in differentiation of allosteric and orthosteric actions of ligands, and guide structure-activity relationships and drug discovery studies towards developing successful therapeutics targeting CB₁ receptors.

Chapter 4

Modulation of CB₁ Receptor- Mediated Signalling Pathways by CRIP1a

4.1. Introduction

In addition to Org27569, pregnenolone and lipoxin A4, which were previously discussed in Chapter 3, an endogenous protein named cannabinoid receptor interacting protein 1a (CRIP1a) was reported to modulate CB₁ receptor function through an interaction with the receptor C-terminal tail (Niehaus et al., 2007). CRIP1a was shown to co-immunoprecipitate with the CB₁ receptor in membranes from rat brain, and co-localise at the plasma membrane in superior cervical ganglion (SCG) neurons (Niehaus et al., 2007). CRIP1a does not interact with CB₂ receptors (Niehaus et al., 2007).

Similar to the pattern of CB₁ receptor expression, CRIP1a is highly expressed in the brain; however it is also found in other tissues such as heart, lung, intestine, kidney, testis, spleen, liver and muscle. Endogenous expression of CRIP1a was also detected in multiple cell lines, such as rat cerebellar granule neurons, SCG neurons, N18TG2 neuroblastoma and pituitary adenoma cell line (AtT-20 cells) (Niehaus et al., 2007). Previous studies have demonstrated that modulation of CRIP1a expression in SCG neurons and N18TG2 cells does not alter CB₁ receptor expression (Blume et al., 2015; Niehaus et al., 2007).

CB₁ receptors are expressed on both excitatory glutamatergic and inhibitory GABAergic neurons (Katona and Freund, 2008), and activation of CB₁ receptors inhibits the release of both neurotransmitters in the brain. Interestingly, CRIP1a is selectively expressed on glutamatergic neurons but not GABAergic neurons (Ludanyi et al., 2008). Therefore, the most profound effect of CRIP1a is anticipated to be on CB₁ receptor-mediated glutamatergic neurotransmission. Thereby, selective modulation of CB₁ receptors by CRIP1a may retain the beneficial effects

of cannabinoids mediated by glutamatergic signalling, such as neuroprotection and reduced excitotoxicity, without causing the adverse effects associated with activation of GABAergic neurons such as memory impairment (Ludanyi et al., 2008; Puighermanal et al., 2009).

However, evidence for a role of CRIP1a in the brain is conflicting. For instance, a reduction in mRNA levels of CRIP1a and CB₁ receptors was detected in glutamatergic axon terminals in hippocampal tissues surgically removed from human epileptic patients, suggesting a neuroprotective role for the endocannabinoid system, which is diminished in epileptic hippocampi (Ludanyi et al., 2008). However, in hippocampal samples of epileptic rats, higher expression levels of the CB₁ receptor and CRIP1a compared to non-epileptic rats were reported. The authors suggested that increased expression of CB₁ receptors may be an adaptive neuroprotective mechanism (Bojnik et al., 2012). CRIP1a has been reported to prevent cannabinoid agonist-mediated neuroprotection, while inducing cannabinoid antagonist-mediated neuroprotection in primary neuronal cortical cultures over-expressing CRIP1a. In this instance, WIN55,212-2 did not protect neurons from glutamate-induced cell death, whereas SR141716 attenuated glutamate-induced cell death (Stauffer et al., 2011). Therefore, modulation of CB₁ receptors in specific tissues or neurons in a ligand-dependent manner by CRIP1a may provide an approach to develop more selective CB₁ receptor-targeted therapeutics in particular for diseases associated with excessive excitatory transmission, such as epilepsy (Ludanyi et al., 2008).

The mechanisms of CRIP1a function at CB₁ receptors have not been well investigated. The modulatory effect of CRIP1a on CB₁ receptor-mediated signal transduction pathways has been demonstrated by attenuation of SR141716

enhancement of Ca²⁺ currents (indicating attenuation of CB₁ receptor-mediated constitutive inhibition of Ca²⁺ channels), in SCG neurons over-expressing CRIP1a (Niehaus et al., 2007). This suggests that CRIP1a may act as an endogenous allosteric modulator at CB₁ receptors. The binding affinity and maximum binding of [³H]SR141716A in membranes from HEK-hCB₁ cells were unaffected by the presence of CRIP1a (Niehaus et al., 2007), suggesting that it has specific effects on receptor signalling events without effects on ligand binding. Furthermore, neither the time course of inhibition nor recovery from inhibition of Ca²⁺ currents by WIN55212-2 was significantly altered in the presence of CRIP1a (Niehaus et al., 2007), suggesting CRIP1a does not alter agonist function. CRIP1a may selectively block CB₁ receptor coupling to G_{α_{i-3}} that was reported to enhance the constitutive inhibition of Ca²⁺ channels, but not to G_{α_{oA}} responsible for agonist-mediated inhibition of Ca²⁺ channels (Anavi-Goffer et al., 2007; Niehaus et al., 2007). CRIP1a over-expression in the striatum or in N18TG2 cells was reported to reduce pERK1/2 levels without altering phosphorylated cAMP response element-binding protein (pCREB) and forskolin-stimulated cAMP levels (Blume et al., 2013; Blume et al., 2015). Activation of pERK1/2 by WIN55212-2, CP55940 or methanandamide was unaltered in CRIP1a over-expressing cells. However, the response to CP55940 was enhanced in CRIP1a knockdown cells. The inhibition of forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation by CP55940, and to a lesser extent by WIN55212-2, was also enhanced in CRIP1a knockdown cells but was unchanged in over-expressing cells (Blume et al., 2015). However, CRIP1a over-expression abolished SR141716A-induced reduction of basal levels of pERK1/2 (Blume et al., 2015). The authors suggested that CRIP1a may act as a negative modulator of CB₁ receptor function in a ligand-specific manner (Blume et al., 2015). The effects

of CRIP1a on CB₁ receptor signalling are somewhat variable depending on the agonist and cell line used. For instance, a recent study demonstrated a reduction in the E_{max} of 2-AG, WIN55,212-2, HU-210 and CP55940 in [³⁵S]GTPγS binding assays when CRIP1a was over-expressed in HEK cells (Smith et al., 2015). However, CRIP1a over-expression did not alter methanandamide- or Δ9-THC-mediated [³⁵S]GTPγS binding (Smith et al., 2015). CRIP1a over-expression in mouse neuroblastoma N18TG2 cells did, however, reduce methanandamide-stimulated [³⁵S]GTPγS binding, whilst CRIP1a knockdown in these cells increased agonist-mediated G protein activity (Smith et al., 2015).

To date, there are only a few studies investigating the modulation of CB₁ receptor signalling pathways by CRIP1a, and the results are inconclusive. Therefore, the present study sought to further investigate CRIP1a's mechanism of action at CB₁ receptors. cAMP inhibition and pERK1/2 activation studies were performed in CB₁ receptor and CRIP1a over-expressing HEK293 cells. We hypothesised that CRIP1a may modulate CB₁ receptor inverse agonist, but not agonist-mediated signalling pathways. The effects of CRIP1a in cAMP and Ca²⁺ mobilisation assays were further investigated in a more physiologically relevant cell line (neuroblastoma × glioma, NG108-15 cells), which endogenously express CB₁ receptors and CRIP1a.

4.2. Materials and Methods

4.2.1. Materials

Poly-D-Lysine and tetracycline were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Lipofectamine RNAiMAX, Opti-MEM reduced serum medium, blasticidin and HAT supplement were purchased from Invitrogen. EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail tablets were obtained from Roche Applied Science, and Laemmli buffer from Bio-Rad. Ambion CNRIP1 Silencer Select Pre-designed siRNA and mismatch siRNA were obtained from Applied Biosystems. Rabbit anti-CNRIP1 antibody was obtained from Abcam, and mouse anti- β -actin antibody from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. Donkey anti-rabbit IRDye 680 nm[®] and donkey anti-mouse IRDye 800 nm[®] were purchased from LI-COR Biosciences. Fura 2-AM was purchased from Merck Millipore, and puromycin from Integrated Sciences (Australia). All other materials used in this chapter were from the same suppliers as detailed in Chapter 2.

4.2.2. Ligand preparation

Ligands were prepared as previously described in Chapter 2.

4.2.3. Cell line

4.2.3.1. HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells

HEK293 cells with stable expression of the CB₁ receptor and tetracycline-regulated expression of CRIP1a (HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a), provided by Dr. Stewart Fabb and Ms. Nilushi Karunaratne (Monash Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences), were maintained in DMEM containing 10% FBS, 16 mM HEPES,

3 µg/ml puromycin (for selective expression of CB₁ receptors), 200 µg/ml of hygromycin B (for selective expression of CRIP1a) and 15 µg/ml of blasticidin (tetracycline repressor).

4.2.3.2. Neuroblastoma × glioma hybrid cells

Neuroblastoma × glioma hybrid cells (NG108-15) were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% HAT (10 mM hypoxanthine, 0.1 mM aminopterin, 1.6 mM thymidine), and incubated at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂, 95% O₂.

4.2.4. Induction of CRIP1a expression in HEK-CB₁ cells

HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells were incubated with 1 µg/ml tetracycline for 18 hours to induce CRIP1a expression.

4.2.5. CRIP1a knockdown in NG108-15 cells

NG108-15 cells in poly-D-lysine coated 6-well plates or T-75 flasks at approximately 50% confluence were transfected with siRNA targeting CRIP1a (20 nM) or negative control mismatch siRNA (mmsiRNA) using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (6:1 ratio of siRNA to RNAiMAX) in serum free medium. siRNAs and Lipofectamine RNAiMAX were separately diluted in Opti-MEM reduced serum medium, and after 20 minutes incubation at room temperature, were mixed together and further incubated for 30 minutes, after which they were gently added to the cells. Five hours after transfection, the medium was replaced with complete

growth medium and cells were maintained for 24 or 48 hours before being used for subsequent experiments.

4.2.6. Western blotting to detect CRIP1a over-expression or knockdown

Cells in poly-D-lysine coated 6-well plates were lysed by Radio Immuno Precipitation Assay (RIPA) lysis buffer, containing 150 mM NaCl, 1.0% Triton X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS (sodium dodecyl sulphate), 50 mM Tris and freshly added protease inhibitors, and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm at 4 °C for 20 minutes. The supernatant was collected and the pellet discarded. Protein concentration was quantified using the BCA or Bradford protein assay according to the manufacturer's instructions (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Equal amounts of protein and Laemmli buffer, containing 4% SDS, 10% 2-mercaptoethanol, 20% glycerol, 0.004% bromophenol blue and 0.125 M Tris HCl, were mixed and heated at 95 °C for 10 minutes. Samples were loaded into 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and electrophoresis was performed at 150 V for 60 minutes. Electrophoretic transfer to nitrocellulose membranes was then carried out using a Transblot semi-dry electrophoretic transfer cell (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) at 10 V for 60 minutes. Membranes were blocked in 5% skim milk and incubated overnight with rabbit anti-CRIP1a antibody (1:1,000) against the full length of human CRIP1a, and mouse anti- β -actin (loading control) primary antibody (1:300) with constant shaking at 4 °C. The following day, membranes were washed with TBST buffer (a mixture of Tris-Buffered Saline and Tween 20) three times for 5 minutes, and incubated with fluorescent-conjugated donkey anti-rabbit IRDye 680 nm[®]

(1:10,000) and donkey anti-mouse IRDye 800 nm[®] (1:30,000) secondary antibodies in TBST for 60 minutes at room temperature. After three 10 minute washes, the membrane blots were scanned by a densitometer (Odyssey model 9120, Li-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE). To quantify band density, Photoshop software was used. Background was subtracted from CRIP1a and β -actin band density. Data were normalised to β -actin.

4.2.7. AlphaScreen[®] cAMP assays

HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells were seeded at 100,000 cells/well into 96-well clear bottom culture plates and grown overnight in complete medium (as described earlier under 4.2.3. cell line) for un-induced cells, or complete medium containing 1 μ g/ml tetracycline (for inducing CRIP1a expression). Untreated, mmsiRNA-treated or CRIP1a siRNA-treated NG108-15 cells were seeded at 20,000 cells/well into poly-D-lysine pre-coated 96-well clear bottom culture plates and grown overnight in complete medium. The general protocol for cAMP assays is described in Chapter 2.

4.2.7.1. Agonist concentration-response experiments

Agonist concentration-response studies were performed as described in Chapter 2, with or without induction of CRIP1a.

4.2.7.2. cAMP interaction studies

For cAMP interaction studies, cells in the presence or absence of CRIP1a were pre-incubated with varying concentrations of Org27569 for 15 minutes,

before the addition of different concentrations of orthosteric ligands. cAMP assays were subsequently performed as described in Chapter 2.

4.2.8. pERK1/2 assays

To investigate effects of CRIP1a on CB₁ receptor-mediated pERK1/2 activation, cells were seeded as mentioned above (under AlphaScreen cAMP assays). The general protocol for pERK1/2 assays is described in Chapter 2.

4.2.8.1. Agonist concentration-response experiments

Agonist concentration-response studies were performed as described in Chapter 2, with or without induction of CRIP1a.

4.2.8.2. pERK1/2 interaction studies

For pERK1/2 interaction studies, cells in the presence or absence of CRIP1a were pre-incubated with varying concentrations of Org27569 for 15 minutes, before the addition of different concentrations of orthosteric ligands. pERK1/2 assays were subsequently performed as described in Chapter 2.

4.2.9. Ca²⁺ mobilisation assays

4.2.9.1. Single cell Ca²⁺ imaging

NG108-15 cells were grown on coverslips pre-coated with poly-D-lysine. On the day of recording, media was removed and cells were washed with HEPES-based buffer (HEPES 10 mM; NaCl 145 mM; KCl 5 mM; MgSO₄·6H₂O 1 mM; CaCl₂ 2.5 mM; glucose 10 mM; 0.5% BSA; pH 7.4), and incubated with 5 µM of

the Ca²⁺-sensitive dye, fura-2 acetoxymethyl ester (fura-2 AM), for 30 minutes at 37 °C in the dark. Cells were then washed three times with the dye free buffer, and incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes to allow for de-esterification of the dye. Live video images of individual neurons were acquired every 1-3 seconds using a Nikon inverted microscope. The dye was excited by 340 and 380 nm light and emitted light was collected at 510 nm. Changes in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration were indicated by changes in the ratio of the fluorescence signals (340/380 nm) obtained using Metafluor software. Background fluorescence at 340 and 380 nm was acquired and subtracted from each series of recordings. Changes in Ca²⁺ levels were measured in 20-50 cells within a microscopic field of view. Each well of 24-well plates was used for only one experiment and each experiment included multiple stimuli.

4.2.9.2. High throughput Ca²⁺ mobilisation assays

NG108-15 cells were seeded at 20,000 cells/well into poly-D-lysine pre-coated 96-well clear bottom culture plates and grown overnight in DMEM/F12 containing 10% FBS and 1% HAT. The following day, media was removed and cells were washed with HEPES-based buffer containing 0.5% BSA, and incubated with 1 µM fura-2 AM for 1 hour at 37 °C. Cells were then washed three times with dye free buffer, and incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes. Fluorescence signals (340/380 nm) were recorded for 6 minutes per well every 2 seconds using a Flexstation microplate reader (Molecular Devices, California).

4.2.10. Data analysis

Data were analysed using Prism 6 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA). Data from agonist concentration-response and functional interaction studies with Org27569, in the presence or absence of CRIP1a, were fitted to a three parameter concentration response equation (Eq. 4.1).

$$Y = \frac{(\text{Top} - \text{Bottom})}{1 + (10^{\log \text{EC}_{50} - A})} + \text{Bottom} \quad \text{Eq. 4.1}$$

where Top and Bottom denote the maximal and minimal asymptotes of the curve, respectively, A is the concentration of agonist, and logEC₅₀ is the agonist concentration that produces half the maximal response.

4.2.11. Statistics

Values are expressed as means ± S.E.M. Mean values were compared using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test. A P value <0.05 was considered significant.

4.3. Results

HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells were used to investigate the effects of CRIP1a over-expression on CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling pathways.

4.3.1. Validation of CRIP1a over-expression in HEK293 cells

Western blotting was performed on HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells to confirm the induction of CRIP1a expression after treatment of cells with tetracycline for 18 hours. In Western blots of samples prepared from tetracycline-induced cells, a band of the expected molecular mass (18 KD) for CRIP1a was observed. However, there was no band labelled using non-induced cell membrane preparations (Fig. 4.1).

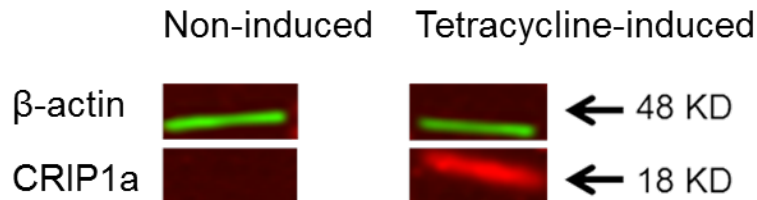


Fig. 4.1. Western blot of non-induced and tetracycline-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. The incubation of cells with 1 μ g/ml tetracycline for 18 hours induced CRIP1a expression, whereas no CRIP1a was detected in non-induced cells. β -actin was used as the loading control.

4.3.2. CRIP1a does not modulate cannabinoid-mediated signal transduction in HEK293 cells

4.3.2.1. Cannabinoid agonist-mediated cAMP inhibition and pERK1/2 activation

In a recent study, it was demonstrated that CRIP1a over-expression in N18TG2 cells (which endogenously express CB₁ receptors and CRIP1a) reduced basal pERK1/2 levels, whereas it did not alter forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation (Blume et al., 2015). Therefore, effects of CRIP1a over-expression in the absence of cannabinoid agonists on cAMP and pERK1/2 signalling were first investigated.

To induce expression of CRIP1a, HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells were incubated with 1 µg/ml tetracycline for 18 hours. Our results showed that the basal levels of cAMP and pERK1/2 were not significantly different in tetracycline-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells compared to non-induced cells. CRIP1a also did not alter forskolin-stimulated intracellular levels of cAMP and FBS-stimulated pERK1/2 levels (Fig. 4.2).

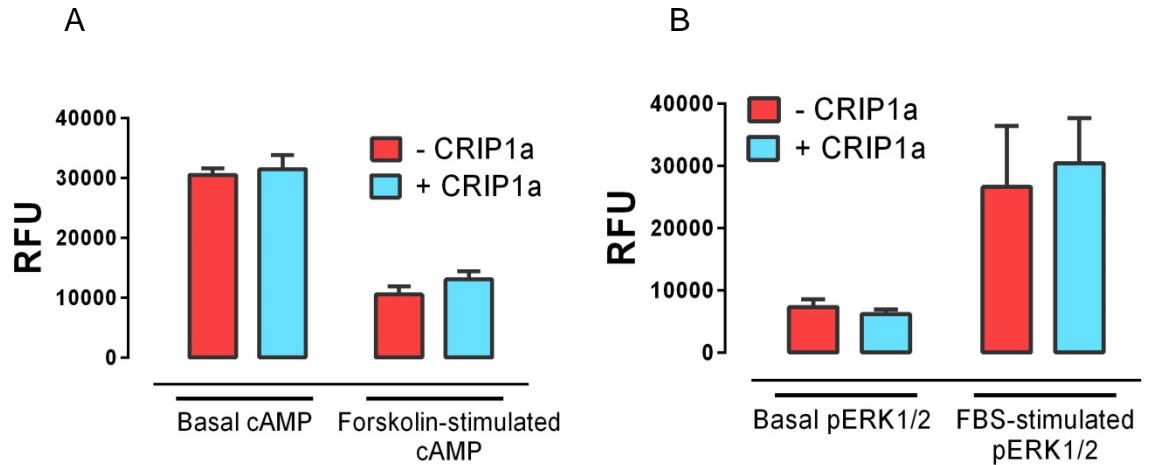


Fig. 4.2. CRIP1a over-expression does not alter cAMP and pERK1/2 levels in the absence of cannabinoid ligands. Non-induced or tetracycline-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells were incubated (A) with DMEM or 1 μ M forskolin to determine the basal or forskolin-stimulated levels of cAMP, or (B) with DMEM or 10% FBS to determine the basal or FBS-stimulated pERK1/2 levels, in the absence and presence of CRIP1a. RFU: relative fluorescence units. In cAMP assays, the higher levels of cAMP will result in lower RFU. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least four experiments performed in triplicate.

Next, the effects of CRIP1a on agonist-mediated CB₁ receptor signalling pathways were studied. As shown in Fig. 4.3, cannabinoid agonists inhibited cAMP formation and activated pERK1/2 in a dose-dependent manner in non-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. These effects were unaffected in the presence of CRIP1a in tetracycline-induced cells.

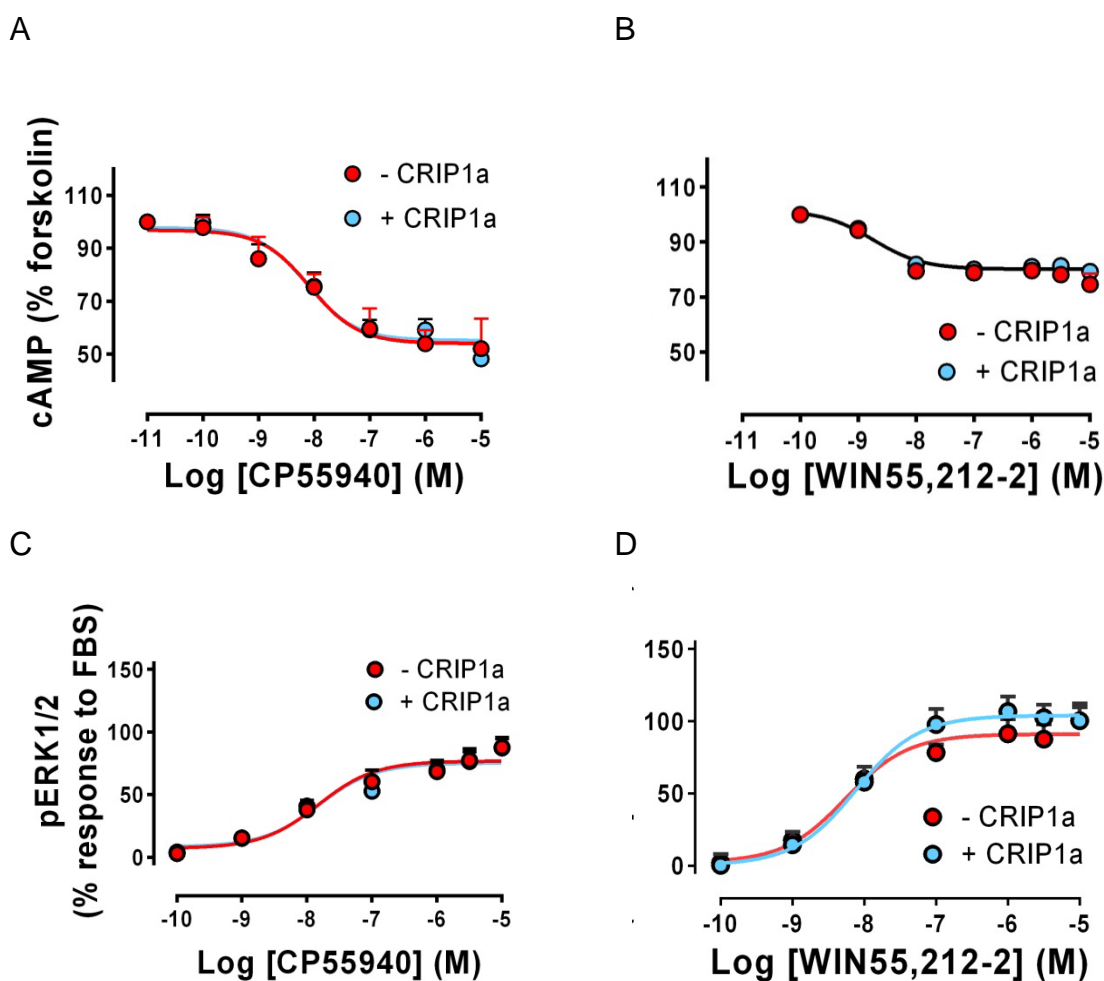


Fig. 4.3. CRIP1a expression does not modulate CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling in HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. (A) CP55940- and (B) WIN55,212-2-induced cAMP inhibition, (C) CP55940- and (D) WIN55,212-2-induced pERK1/2 activation, in the absence and presence of CRIP1a. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

4.3.2.2. Modulation of CB₁ inverse agonist-mediated cAMP accumulation

It was previously shown that CRIP1a over-expression reduced the enhancement of Ca²⁺ currents by the CB₁ receptor inverse agonist, SR141716, in SCG neurons (Niehaus et al., 2007). Therefore, we hypothesised that it may also reduce SR141716-induced cAMP accumulation. Our results showed that in non-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells, SR141716 increased basal levels of cAMP. However, the response to SR141716 did not change in the presence of CRIP1a in tetracycline-induced cells (Fig. 4.4).

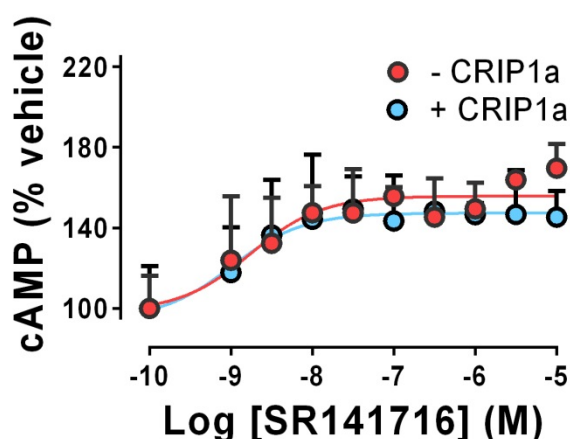


Fig. 4.4. CRIP1a expression does not modulate SR141716-induced cAMP accumulation in HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of SR141716 for 30 minutes at 37 °C, in the presence or absence of CRIP1a. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of three experiments performed in triplicate.

4.3.3. CRIP1a does not alter Org27569 modulation of cannabinoid-mediated signal transduction

In Chapter 3, we demonstrated that Org27569 inhibited cAMP inhibition and pERK1/2 activation by some cannabinoid agonists in CHO-hCB₁ cells. To determine whether CRIP1a alters the modulatory effect of Org27569 at CB₁ receptors, cAMP and pERK1/2 interaction studies between cannabinoid agonists and Org27569 were investigated in the presence or absence of CRIP1a.

Org27569 completely abolished CP55940-induced inhibition of cAMP formation in non-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. Inducing CRIP1a expression, however, had no effect on Org27569-induced inhibition of CP55940-mediated responses (Fig. 4.5). Similar results were obtained using WIN55,212-2 (data not shown).

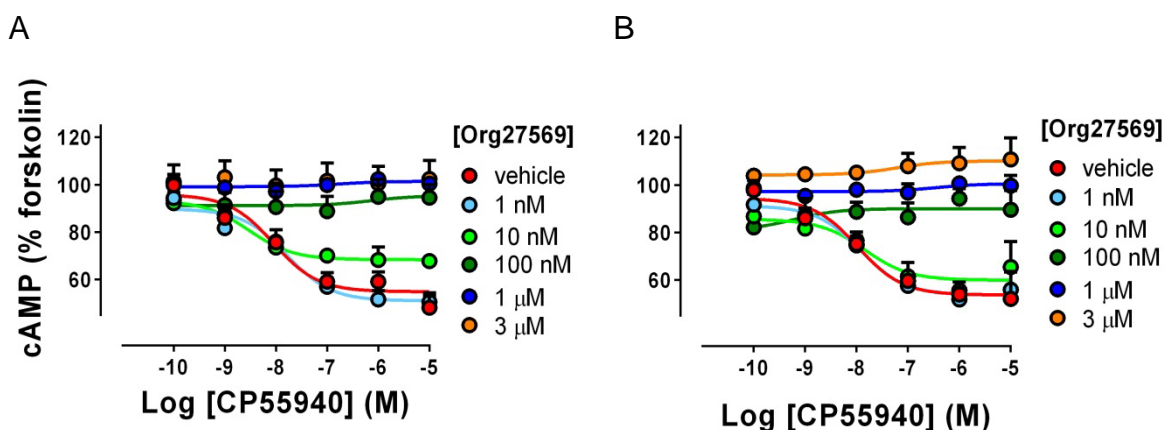


Fig. 4.5. CRIP1a expression does not alter modulatory effects of Org27569 on cannabinoid agonist-mediated cAMP inhibition. Inhibition of CP55940-induced cAMP inhibition by Org27569 in (A) non-induced and (B) tetracycline-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Similarly, Org27569 inhibited CP55940-induced pERK1/2 activation in non-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. The inhibitory effect of Org27569 was unchanged in the presence of CRIP1a in tetracycline-induced cells (Fig. 4.6). Similar results were obtained using WIN55,212-2 (data not shown).

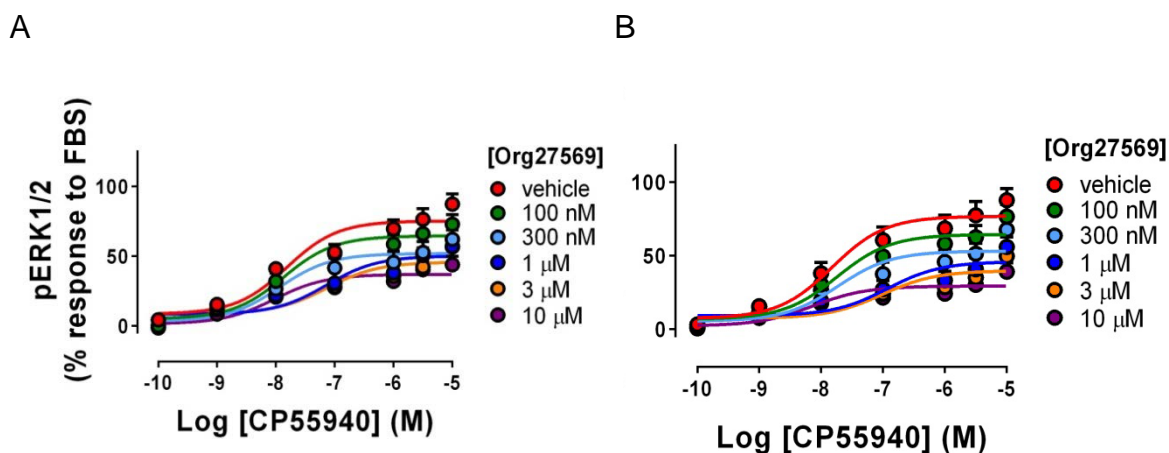


Fig. 4.6. CRIP1a expression does not alter the modulatory effects of Org27569 on cannabinoid agonist-mediated pER1/2 activation. Inhibition of CP55940- or WIN55,212-2-induced pERK1/2 activation by Org27569 in (A) non-induced and (B) in tetracycline-induced HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

Taken together, the results demonstrate that CRIP1a does not modulate cannabinoid-mediated signalling or the modulatory effects of Org27569 on cannabinoid signalling in HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells.

4.3.4. CRIP1a knockdown in NG108-15 cells

To ensure that the lack of effects of CRIP1a in HEK cells was not due to the use of a recombinant over-expressing cell line, we next sought to investigate effects of CRIP1a in an endogenously expressing cell line, neuroblastoma x glioma (NG108-15).

In order to determine the effects of CRIP1a on CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling in NG108-15 cells, siRNA technology was used to reduce the expression of CRIP1a. Western blotting was performed on lysates prepared from untreated, mmsiRNA-treated or CRIP1a siRNA-treated NG108-15 cells to confirm the reduced expression of CRIP1a after 24 or 48 hours treatment with siRNA.

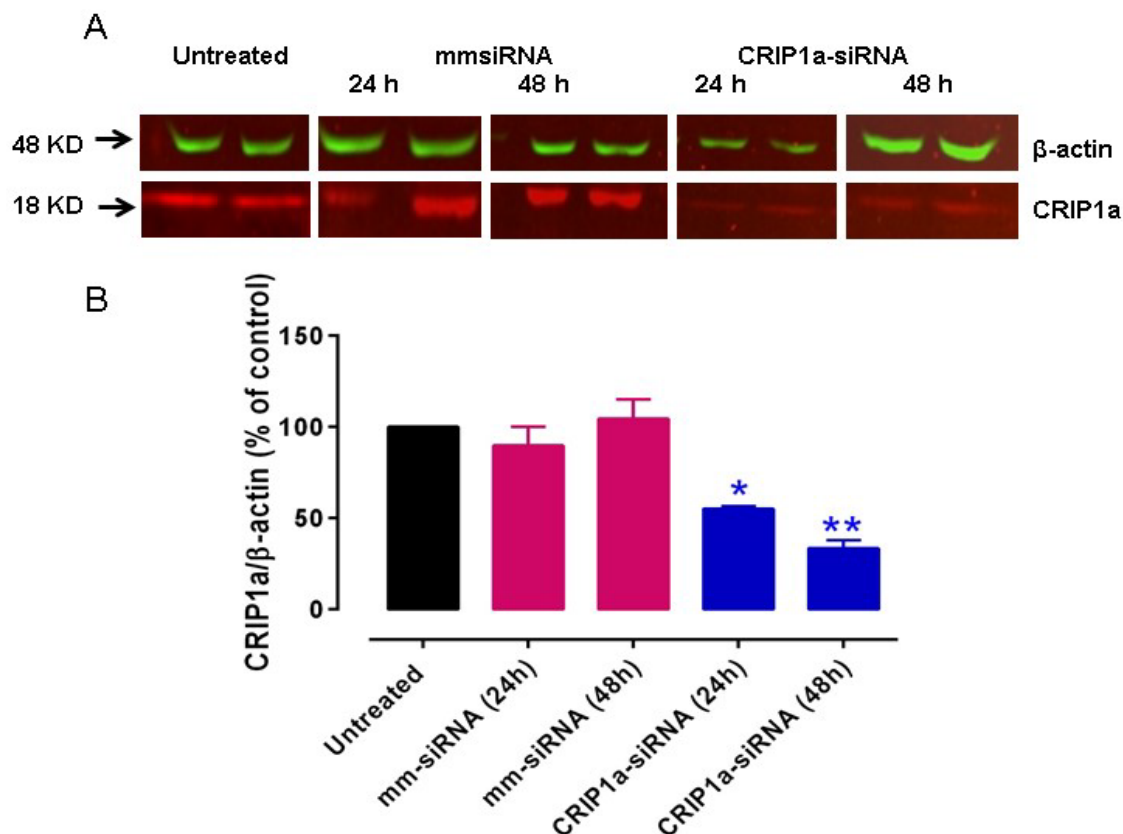


Fig. 4.7. CRIP1a knockdown in NG108-15 cells. (A) Western blot of cells expressing CRIP1a and cells with reduced expression of CRIP1a. (B) Densitometric analysis of CRIP1a expression levels, quantified from bands of western blot. Data were normalised to corresponding β -actin levels, and expressed as a percentage of CRIP1a levels in untreated samples. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, statistically significant differences using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test.

A greater level of CRIP1a knockdown was observed in cells treated with 20 nM CRIP1a-siRNA, when measured 48 hours post transfection compared to 24 hours. Thus, 48 hours transfection was used for subsequent experiments. The inactive negative control siRNA (mmsiRNA) did not knockdown CRIP1a (Fig. 4.7).

4.3.5. CRIP1a knockdown reduces cannabinoid agonist-induced inhibition of cAMP

Cannabinoid agonist-induced inhibition of cAMP formation was studied in the presence and absence of CRIP1a. The results showed that WIN55,212-2 reduced 10 μ M forskolin-stimulated cAMP inhibition in a concentration-dependent manner in untreated and mmsiRNA-treated NG108-15 cells. Interestingly, however, the response to WIN55,212-2 was abolished in CRIP1a knockdown cells (Fig. 4.8).

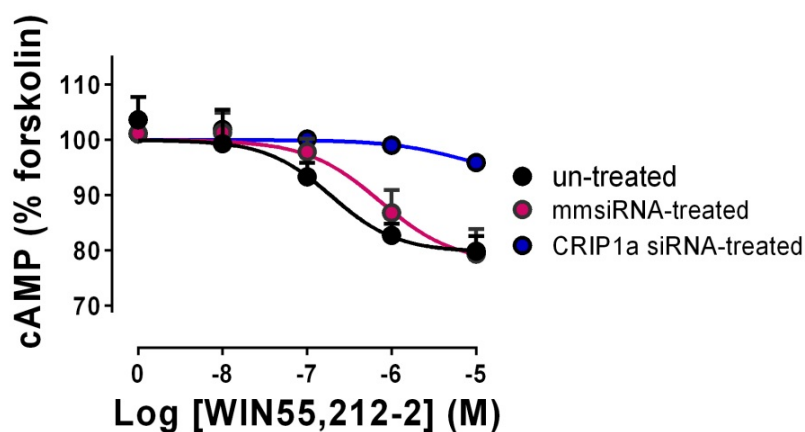


Fig. 4.8. CRIP1a knockdown in NG108-15 cells blocks WIN55,212-2-induced cAMP inhibition. Untreated, mmsiRNA-treated or CRIP1a siRNA-treated NG108-15 cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of WIN55,212-2 for 30 minutes at 37 °C. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

4.3.6. Single cell Ca²⁺ imaging

4.3.6.1. Effects of cannabinoids on Ca²⁺ levels in the presence and absence of CRIP1a

Effects of cannabinoid agonists on Ca²⁺ channels are controversial. In contrast to the study by Hoddah et al., where WIN55,212-2 inhibited L-type voltage-gated Ca²⁺ currents in hypothalamic neurons, L- and T-type Ca²⁺ channels were not affected by this ligand in NG108-15 cells (Mackie and Hille, 1992).

In this study, the effects of WIN55,212-2 on basal levels of Ca²⁺ in the absence or presence of CRIP1a were studied in NG108-15 cells. WIN55,212-2 (10 µM) alone appeared to increase basal levels of Ca²⁺ in untreated and mmsiRNA-treated cells, but the effect did not reach statistical significance. Similar results were obtained using CRIP1a-siRNA treated cells (Fig. 4.9), indicating that CRIP1a does not alter the basal or cannabinoid-elevated Ca²⁺ levels.

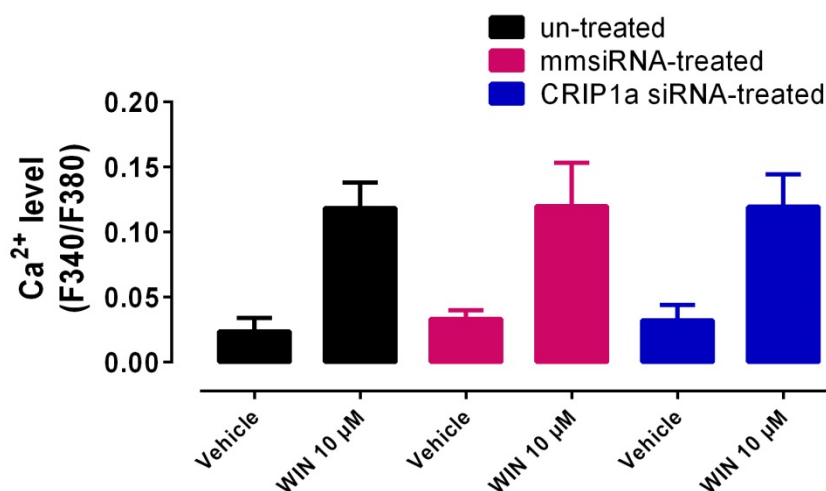


Fig. 4.9. CRIP1a knockdown does not alter basal and cannabinoid-elevated levels of Ca²⁺. The basal levels of Ca²⁺ and the Ca²⁺ signal in response to WIN55,212-2 (WIN) were not significantly different in untreated, mmsiRNA-treated and CRIP1a siRNA-treated NG108-15 cells. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least 80 cells from four experiments.

Previous studies have shown that cannabinoid-induced inhibition of L-type voltage-gated Ca²⁺ currents is cAMP/PKA-dependent (Hoddah et al., 2009). NG108-15 cells mostly express L- and T-type channels (Lukyanetz, 1998). Therefore, we next investigated the effects of WIN55,212-2 on forskolin-stimulated levels of Ca²⁺. Forskolin increases the intracellular levels of cAMP through activation of adenylate cyclase. Our results showed a concentration-dependent increase in intracellular levels of Ca²⁺ during the first 5 minutes after the addition of forskolin (Fig. 4.10).

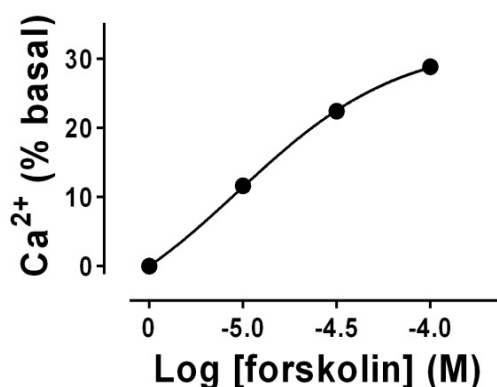


Fig. 4.10. Forskolin increases intracellular Ca²⁺ levels in a concentration-dependent manner. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least 60 cells from three experiments.

We next investigated effects of WIN55,212-2 or vehicle in the presence of 10 μ M forskolin, in the absence or presence of CRIP1a. In untreated cells, WIN55,212-2 and forskolin together had an additive effect and significantly increased levels of Ca²⁺ compared to vehicle or WIN55,212-2 alone. Similar observations were made for cells treated with mmsiRNA and also for CRIP1a siRNA-treated cells (Fig. 4.11).

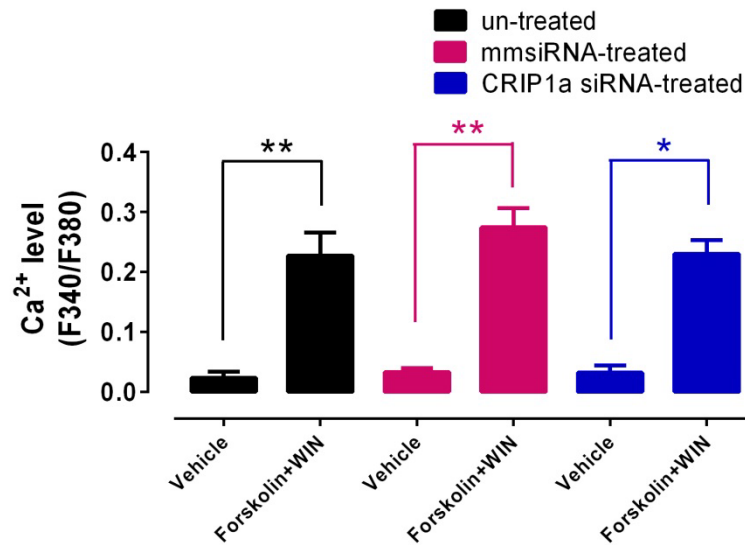


Fig. 4.11. CRIP1a knockdown does not alter Ca²⁺ signal in response to the combination of WIN55,212-2 and forskolin. The Ca²⁺ signals in response to 10 μ M WIN55,212-2 (WIN) in the presence of 10 μ M forskolin were not significantly different in untreated, mmsiRNA-treated and CRIP1a siRNA-treated NG108-15 cells. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least 60 cells from three experiments. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, statistically significant differences using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test.

Our results demonstrate that cannabinoid agonists in combination with forskolin can cause a significant increase in Ca²⁺ levels in NG108-15 cells. This effect is unaffected by CRIP1a knockdown.

4.3.6.2. CRIP1a knockdown reduces depolarisation-induced Ca²⁺ influx

Previous studies have shown that cannabinoid agonists inhibit Ca²⁺ influx evoked by KCl-induced depolarisation in cerebellar granule neurons or in differentiated NG108-15 cells (Nogueron et al., 2001; Sugiura et al., 1997). We therefore investigated effects of CRIP1a knockdown on 30 mM KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx.

KCl caused a significant increase in Ca²⁺ levels. WIN55,212-2 had a small effect on KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx in undifferentiated NG108-15 cells, however, the effect did not reach statistical significance. Interestingly, CRIP1a knockdown reduced depolarisation-induced Ca²⁺ influx. Significance for this effect was only reached in WIN55,212-2-treated cells (Fig. 4.12).

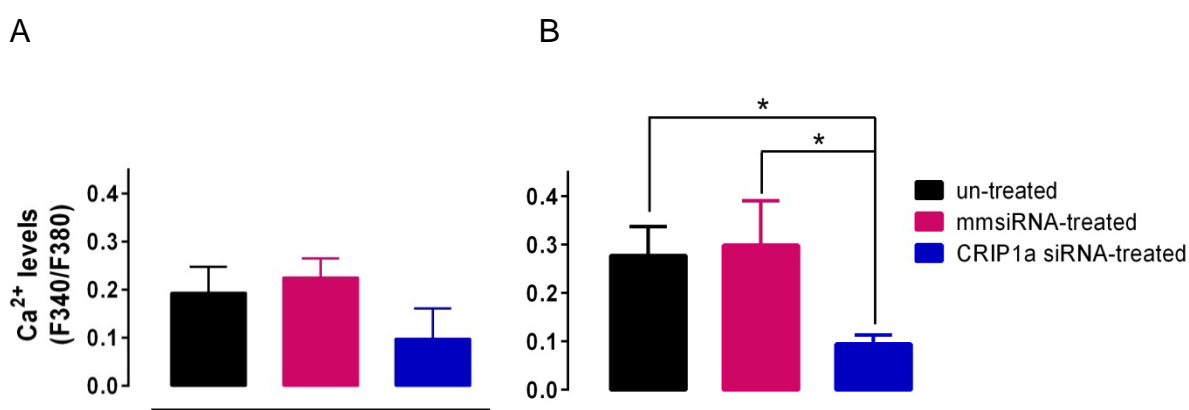


Fig. 4.12. CRIP1a knockdown reduces KCl-induced Ca²⁺ signal in the presence of a cannabinoid agonist. Ca²⁺ signal to 30 mM KCl in (A) vehicle-treated, and (B) WIN55,212-2-treated NG108-15 cells, in the presence or absence of CRIP1a. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least 60 cells from three experiments. **p* < 0.05, statistically significant differences using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test.

The results suggest that CRIP1a is involved in KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx in undifferentiated NG108-15 cells in the presence of the cannabinoid agonist (Fig. 4.12 B). Although there was a reduction in KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx in the absence of the agonist in CRIP1a knockdown cells, the effect did not reach statistical significance (Fig. 4.12 A). Therefore, the involvement of CB₁ receptors cannot be verified in this set of experiments.

4.3.7. High throughput Ca²⁺ mobilisation assays

To confirm the findings obtained from single cell Ca²⁺ imaging, high throughput Ca²⁺ imaging assays were performed.

4.3.7.1. Effects of cannabinoids on Ca²⁺ levels in the presence and absence of CRIP1a

The cannabinoid agonists WIN55,212-2 and methanandamide had no effect on basal levels of Ca²⁺ in NG108-15 cells, in agreement with previously published results (Mackie and Hille, 1992), neither in the absence nor presence of CRIP1a (Fig. 4.13).

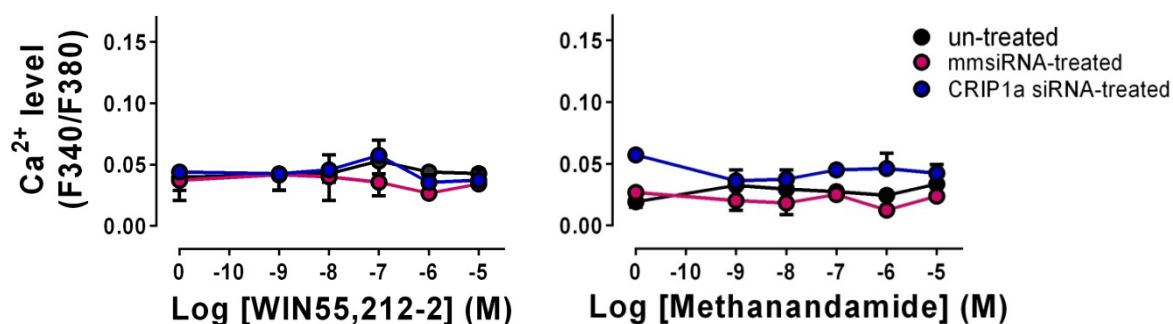


Fig. 4.13. Lack of effect of cannabinoid agonists on basal levels of Ca²⁺ in NG108-15 cells. Untreated, mmsiRNA-treated or CRIP1a siRNA-treated cells were incubated with WIN55,212-2 or methanandamide for 6 minutes. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of at least three experiments performed in triplicate.

4.3.7.2. CRIP1a knockdown reduces depolarisation-induced Ca²⁺ influx

Similar to the results of our single cell Ca²⁺ imaging experiments, KCl caused a significant increase in Ca²⁺ levels in untreated and mmsiRNA-treated NG108-15 cells. In CRIP1a knockdown cells, KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx was significantly lower than in untreated and mmsiRNA-treated cells (Fig. 4.14). However, as opposed to results presented in Fig. 4.12, this effect was not dependent on the activation of CB₁ receptors by an agonist.

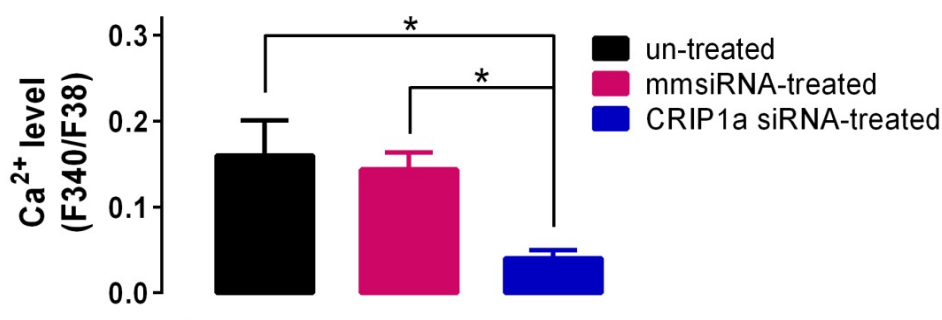


Fig. 4.14. CRIP1a knockdown reduces KCl-induced Ca²⁺ signal. Ca²⁺ signal to 30 mM KCl in NG108-15 cells, in the presence or absence of CRIP1a. Data represents mean + S.E.M. of five experiments performed in triplicate. *p< 0.05, statistically significant differences using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test.

The results suggest that CRIP1a may have a non-CB₁ receptor-mediated effect on KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx, or that the effect may be mediated by agonist-independent, constitutive activity on CB₁ receptors.

4.4. Discussion

This study provides further insight into the modulation of CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling pathways by an endogenous protein interacting with CB₁ receptors, named CRIP1a, in cell lines that over-express or endogenously express this protein. The results demonstrated that the effects of CRIP1a vary depending on the signalling pathway studied and the cell line used. However, a non-CB₁ receptor-mediated mechanism might be involved in the observed effects.

As previously described in Chapter 3, CB₁ receptor allosteric modulators offer an intriguing approach to obtaining selective therapeutics, by modulating only the desired therapeutic pathways, through biased allosterism and probe-dependence. The attenuation of SR141716 enhancement of, but not WIN55,212-2-induced inhibition of, Ca²⁺ currents in SCG neurons (Niehaus et al., 2007) suggests that CRIP1a may allosterically modulate CB₁ receptors. Therefore, CRIP1a may be a potential target for the development of selective CB₁ receptor-based therapies.

However, there are limited studies that have explored the modulation of CB₁ receptor downstream signalling pathways by CRIP1a. We demonstrated that the basal levels of cAMP and pERK1/2 were unchanged in the presence of CRIP1a in HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. CRIP1a had no effect on enhancement of cAMP accumulation by SR141716, or on cAMP inhibition or pERK1/2 activation induced by WIN55212-2 or CP55940 in HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. Surprisingly, in NG108-15 cells, which endogenously express CB₁ receptors and CRIP1a, WIN55,212-2-induced cAMP inhibition was abolished by knocking down CRIP1a, indicating that CRIP1a may be required for the cAMP response to WIN55,212-2 in

these cells. The results suggest the importance of the cell line used in the modulation of cannabinoid-activated signal transduction pathways by CRIP1a. However, a direct effect of CRIP1a on the CB₁ receptor could not be verified in this study. Similarly, Blume et al. (2015) demonstrated differences in modulatory effects of CRIP1a using CRIP1a over-expressing or knockdown N18TG2 cells. Whereas pERK1/2 and cAMP responses to CP55940 were unaltered in CRIP1a over-expressing N18TG2 cells, they were enhanced in CRIP1a knockdown cells (Blume et al., 2015). In a recent study, CRIP1a knockdown enhanced CB₁ receptor-mediated G protein activation in N18TG2 cells endogenously expressing CB₁ receptors and CRIP1a. Furthermore, CRIP1a inhibited CB₁ receptor-mediated [³⁵S]GTPγS binding by cannabinoid agonists in HEK cells stably expressing CB₁ receptors and CRIP1a (Smith et al., 2015). Therefore our observed lack of effect of CRIP1a in HEK cells is unlikely related to over-expression of these proteins.

The differences between the results of the present study and the previous findings may be explained by the presence of different isoforms of adenylate cyclase and G protein populations in different cells (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002). CRIP1a has been shown to bias the G protein-CB₁ receptor pool. For instance, CP55940-induced Gi₃ and Go activation was attenuated, whereas Gi₁ and Gi₂ activation was enhanced in cells over-expressing CRIP1a. CRIP1a knockdown enhanced CP55940-mediated Gi₃ and Go activation, whereas it had no effect on Gi₁ and Gi₂ activation (Blume et al., 2015). Therefore, the effects of CRIP1a on the G protein-CB₁ receptor pool may vary in different cell lines (Blume et al., 2015).

In Chapter 3, we showed that the CB₁ receptor small allosteric modulator Org27569 inhibits cAMP or pERK1/2 signalling by some cannabinoids in CHO-hCB₁ cells. An allosteric interaction of CRIP1a with CB₁ receptors could alter the

receptor conformation such that it might change the response to allosteric ligands as well as orthosteric ligands at CB₁ receptors. However, our results demonstrated that CRIP1a expression had no effect on small molecule allosteric modulation of CB₁ receptors in HEK-CB₁-TREx CRIP1a cells. This suggests a lack of effect of CRIP1a on binding of Org27569 or on the transmission of cooperativity between Org27569 and cannabinoid ligands.

Pathway-specific modulation of cannabinoid-mediated signalling by CRIP1a was demonstrated by its lack of effect on Ca²⁺ signalling as opposed to cAMP signalling by WIN55,212-2, in NG108-15 cells. NG108-15 cells express only low-voltage sensitive calcium channels (activated at -30 mV and completely inactivated at holding potentials of -60 to -50 mV), mostly of the L- and T-types, whereas after differentiation they also express high voltage N and P/Q type calcium channels (activated by larger depolarisations and slower inactivation) (Lukyanetz, 1998). Unlike inhibition of N and P/Q type calcium channels, inhibition of L-type Ca²⁺ currents is cAMP/PKA-dependent (Caulfield and Brown, 1992; Hoddah et al., 2009; Mackie and Hille, 1992; Pan et al., 1996; Taguchi et al., 1997; Twitchell et al., 1997), as demonstrated in our study by the forskolin-induced increase in Ca²⁺ currents. However, WIN55,212-2 was reported to have no effect on L-type voltage-gated Ca²⁺ currents in NG108-15 cells (Mackie and Hille, 1992). We observed a non-significant increase in Ca²⁺ levels by WIN55,212-2 and a significant increase by WIN55,212-2 and forskolin together. This is in agreement with the observation that the inhibitory effect of cannabinoids on Ca²⁺ channels may be overcome by the release of Ca²⁺ from intracellular stores when channels are not highly active (Netzeband et al., 1999), such as in undifferentiated NG108-15 cells in the present study. Furthermore, the response to WIN55,212-2 and/or

forskolin was unaltered by knockdown of CRIP1a in these cells. This is in agreement with the lack of modulation of WIN55,212-2-induced inhibition of Ca²⁺ currents by CRIP1a over-expression in SCG neurons (Niehaus et al., 2007).

Additionally, WIN55,212-2 had no significant effect on KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx in our undifferentiated NG108-15 cells, whereas previous studies demonstrated inhibition of the Ca²⁺ signal to KCl by cannabinoid agonists in cerebellar granule neurons or in differentiated NG108-15 cells (Nogueron et al., 2001; Sugiura et al., 1997). The difference might be explained by the presence of different types of Ca²⁺ channels in differentiated or undifferentiated cells. Interestingly, CRIP1a knockdown significantly reduced depolarisation-induced Ca²⁺ influx. Further investigation is required to explain the mechanisms by which CRIP1a knockdown reduces KCl-induced Ca²⁺ signals. However, this may be due to a non-CB₁ receptor-mediated effect. Alternatively, this may be due to a global effect of CRIP1a on CB₁ receptor signalling. CB₁ receptors exhibit high levels of constitutive activity (reviewed in Meye et al., 2014), and CRIP1a over-expression has been shown to reduce CB₁ receptor constitutive activity (Niehaus et al., 2007). Therefore, the higher constitutive activity of CB₁ receptors in CRIP1a knockdown cells may result in lower levels of K⁺ or Ca²⁺ inside the cells.

The present study demonstrates that CRIP1a modulates cannabinoid-mediated signalling in a pathway-dependent manner in neuron-like cells while having no effects on cannabinoid-mediated signalling in HEK cells over-expressing CB₁ and CRIP1a. However, our results did not verify whether the modulatory effects of CRIP1a are mediated through its action on CB₁ receptors or through non-specific effects. Therefore, further research is required to elucidate CRIP1a

mechanisms of action, and its therapeutic advantages in a number of CB₁ receptor-associated central nervous system disorders.

Chapter 5

General Discussion

The widespread expression and biological role of CB₁ receptors in the brain makes them intriguing targets for the treatment of numerous central nervous system disorders (Zhang et al., 2009). Several exogenous cannabinoid ligands have therefore been developed; however, attempts to develop selective CB₁ receptor-targeted therapeutics with minimal adverse effects have failed. This is in part due to loss in selectivity at high concentrations of CB₁ receptor ligands and subsequent activity at CB₂ receptors. Also the same receptor subtype can mediate both therapeutic and adverse effects (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002). Therefore, due to extensive off-target and on-target adverse effects, currently there are only a few cannabinoid-based therapeutics on the market, including dronabinol, nabilone, levonantradol and Sativex[®].

In the present study, two novel approaches to obtaining more selective therapeutics at CB₁ receptors were investigated; ligand-biased signalling and allosteric modulation. Ligand-biased signalling has proved useful in the treatment of several pathophysiological conditions, such as schizophrenia, Parkinson's disease, addiction, depression, cardiovascular disorders, dyslipidemia, osteoporosis and cancer, through selective activation of receptor-mediated signalling pathways related to the therapeutic effects, at the exclusion of those related to the adverse effects (reviewed in Kenakin and Miller, 2010).

Allosteric modulators may offer several advantages over orthosteric ligands. If they have no intrinsic efficacy, they may only act in the presence of the endogenous ligand, thus producing a more physiological response. They may also offer receptor subtype specificity as allosteric sites are often less conserved across receptor subtypes (May et al., 2007). Allosteric modulators may display probe-dependence (May et al., 2007; Valant et al., 2012), which is depending on

the orthosteric probe used, different effects can be produced by the same allosteric modulator (Leach et al., 2007; Valant et al., 2012). This has particular importance where the receptor binds to various endogenous ligands involved in diverse physiological effects. Therefore, allosteric ligands that modulate binding or signalling of one endogenous ligand but not the other may be used to enhance or reduce specific physiological responses where necessary. Allosteric modulators may also display biased signalling by promoting unique conformational states of the receptor, which may lead to modulation of distinct signalling pathways activated by orthosteric ligands (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013). In fact, there are several allosteric modulators with therapeutic advantages in clinical trials or on the market for the treatment of several central nervous system disorders (including anxiety, cognitive disorders, schizophrenia, Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease), gastroesophageal reflux, HIV infection and hyperparathyroidism (reviewed in Conn et al., 2009; Conn et al., 2014).

Ligand-biased signalling and allosteric modulation at CB₁ receptors has not been thoroughly investigated to date. However, there is evidence for differential activation of distinct G proteins and signalling pathways by different cannabinoid ligands (reviewed in Bosier et al., 2010; Varga et al., 2008). CB₁ receptor allosteric modulators such as Org27569 have also been identified, and demonstrated to engender ligand-biased signalling and probe-dependence (Baillie et al., 2013; Price et al., 2005).

However, in order to link *in vitro* findings to potential therapeutic outcomes, robust methods that can quantify ligand-biased signalling and/or allosteric modulation must be applied. This has not been done at CB₁ receptors to date, and therefore, the present study aimed to use sophisticated analytical methods to

quantify these phenomena using two important CB₁ receptor-mediated signalling pathways, inhibition of cAMP formation and activation of pERK1/2, which are involved in different CB₁ receptor-mediated physiological and pathophysiological functions (Berghuis et al., 2005; Guzman and Sanchez, 1999; Rubino et al., 2006; Rueda et al., 2002; Sanchez et al., 1998; Zhou and Song, 2001). CB₁ receptor modulation of cAMP signalling has been linked to neurite remodelling, which has been suggested to facilitate some of the psychoactive and neurotoxic effects of cannabinoids (Zhou and Song, 2001). The ERK1/2 pathway is involved in regulation of cannabinoid-mediated neuronal migration and differentiation (Berghuis et al., 2005; Rueda et al., 2002), and may play an important role in the development of tolerance and addiction to cannabinoids (Rubino et al., 2006). Furthermore, pCREB and pERK1/2 are key regulators of synaptic plasticity, learning and memory (Basavarajappa et al., 2014).

Herein, results have been presented that provide quantitative insight into orthosteric and allosteric ligand-biased signalling using an operational model of agonism (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014) or allosterism (Leach et al., 2007), respectively. The first important finding of the present study is that the endocannabinoids 2-AG and anandamide display different biased signalling profiles in pERK and cAMP assays. Thus, whereas 2-AG shows little bias between pathways, anandamide is more biased towards cAMP inhibition over pERK1/2 activation. Our quantitative analysis estimated a bias factor of 7 for anandamide towards cAMP inhibition. This is the first study that detects and quantifies biased agonism by endocannabinoids. It is well established that 2-AG and anandamide are involved in different physiological and pathophysiological functions (Bernabo et al., 2013; Luchicchi and Pistis, 2012). For instance, most studies have determined

anandamide as a principal modulator of learning and memory, whereas it appears that 2-AG is the predominant agonist involved in synaptic plasticity and neuroprotection (reviewed in Luchicchi and Pistis, 2012). There is evidence that some of the different effects of these two endocannabinoids are mediated through CB₁ receptors (Basavarajappa et al., 2014; Long et al., 2009; Pan et al., 2011). Therefore, our findings suggest that the distinct physiological roles of 2-AG and anandamide may be associated with activation of distinct CB₁ receptor signalling pathways by these endogenous agonists. Thus, selective modulation of 2-AG- or anandamide-mediated signalling in different tissues may provide an approach to achieve a desirable therapeutic outcome.

Another important finding of this study is that the CB₁ receptor allosteric modulator Org27569 does not modulate endocannabinoid binding, indicated by almost neutral (α close to 1) binding cooperativity factors, quantified using an allosteric ternary complex model (Leach et al., 2010). To our knowledge this is the first study that has investigated the effects of Org27569 on binding of these two main endocannabinoids. Our results also demonstrated that Org27569 partially inhibited 2-AG-induced pERK1/2 activation, while having no effect on the response to anandamide, indicating its probe-dependent effect. Using an operational model of allosterism (Leach et al., 2007), functional cooperativity factors, β , of 0.36 and 0.72 were estimated between Org27569 and 2-AG or anandamide respectively, in pERK1/2 assays. In contrast, Org27569 blocked cAMP inhibition by both anandamide and 2-AG, indicated by β values approaching 0. This provides a striking example of biased allosteric effects of Org27569 between pathways. Previous findings demonstrated that Org27569 inhibited cAMP inhibition (Cawston et al., 2013), [³⁵S]GTPγS binding and β -arrestin recruitment by anandamide (Baillie

et al., 2013). However, these effects were not quantified. Also, there is no other published study on modulation of 2-AG signalling by Org27569. This is the first study that demonstrates differential modulation of 2-AG and anandamide signalling by Org27569. Allosteric modulators that display differential binding or functional cooperativity with endocannabinoids may therefore be used to obtain desired pharmacological effects.

Similar to the endocannabinoids, exogenous cannabinoids also displayed distinct biased profiles in pERK1/2 and cAMP assays. The present study demonstrated that HU-210, Δ^9 -THC and to a lesser extent CP55940 favoured inhibition of cAMP formation over activation of pERK1/2. Interestingly, WIN55,212-2 displayed an unbiased profile similar to that of 2-AG. Using an operational model of agonism (van der Westhuizen et al., 2014) bias factors of 21, 6, 4 and 2 were estimated for HU-210, Δ^9 -THC, CP55940 and WIN55,212-2, respectively. These findings may aid the development of biased ligands that could mediate only desirable therapeutic effects. In particular, ligands with biased profiles similar to the endocannabinoids may have potential to produce effects close to the natural physiological response. Previous studies have provided evidence that cannabinoid agonists may engender bias. For instance, differential activation of different G proteins by cannabinoid ligands (Laprairie et al., 2014; Mukhopadhyay and Howlett, 2005), or reversal in efficacy of CP55940 and HU-210 in activation of pERK1/2 vs. JNK and inhibition of gene transcription by CRE vs. AP-1 was demonstrated (Bosier et al., 2008a; Bosier et al., 2008b). However, this is the first study that used a systematic approach to detect and quantify biased agonism by various cannabinoid ligands.

Similar to the close to neutral binding cooperativity between Org27569 and the endocannabinoids, the binding of exogenous cannabinoid agonists was weakly modulated by Org27569, whereas there was a high negative cooperativity between the CB₁ inverse agonist, [³H]SR141716A, and Org27569. This indicates that Org276529 modulates cannabinoid binding in a ligand-specific manner. Previous findings also demonstrated negative binding cooperativity between [³H]SR141716A and Org27569. However, strong positive cooperativity ($\alpha = 14$) was reported for the displacement of [³H]CP55940 by Org27569 (Price et al., 2005). The differences between our results and the previous findings could be due to the different experimental conditions, or the use of whole cells compared to membrane preparations in the previous studies.

Similar to biased allosteric effects between Org27569 and endocannabinoids, the present study demonstrates differential modulation of exogenous cannabinoid-mediated signalling between pathways. Thus, Org27569 inhibited cAMP signalling by CP55940, HU-210, WIN55,212-2 and Δ^9 -THC, whereas it only inhibited pERK1/2 activation by CP55940 and HU-210, partially inhibited the response to WIN55,212-2, and had no effect on pERK1/2 signalling by Δ^9 -THC, as indicated by β values ranging from 0 to 1 depending on the agonist used. The biased allosteric effects and probe-dependence by Org27569 was previously demonstrated as it had weak or no effect on the pERK1/2 or cAMP response to WIN55,212-2, but potentiated CP55940-induced pERK1/2 activation while inhibiting CP55940-induced cAMP inhibition (Baillie et al., 2013). The negative cooperativity between Org27569 and some of the tested cannabinoids in pERK1/2 assays is in contrast to the previously reported potentiation of CP55940-activated pERK1/2 by Org27569 (Ahn et al., 2012; Baillie et al., 2013). This could be due to

the presence of different types or proportions of intracellular signalling proteins in different cells. Nonetheless, our findings provide further evidence for the probe-dependent and biased allosteric effects of Org27569 and for the first time thoroughly quantifies binding and functional parameters for the interaction between Org27569 and several cannabinoid agonists. Therefore, the information provided herein suggest that a unique combination of allosteric and orthosteric ligands may be used to selectively activate desired CB₁ receptor signalling pathways.

Although Org27569 acts as a potent allosteric modulator of CB₁ receptor functions *in vitro*, it has been reported that the effects do not necessarily translate into *in vivo* effects. In mice, Org27569 did not modulate analgesia, catalepsy, or hypothermia induced by anandamide, CP55940 or Δ^9 -THC, and although Org27569 reduced food intake, it did so independently of CB₁ receptors (Gamage et al., 2014). In rats, however, Org27569 inhibited hypothermia produced by CP55940 and anandamide. In contrast, it had no effect on CP55940-induced catalepsy and antinociception, and did not modulate SR141716A-induced grooming and scratching behaviours. Org27569 also decreased food intake in rats. However, the involvement of CB₁ receptors in these effects is unclear (Ding et al., 2014). Nonetheless, differential modulation of behavioural effects of cannabinoids *in vivo* by Org27569 may be explained by differential modulation of cannabinoid-mediated signalling pathways. Overall, these findings indicate that *in vitro* drug activity at CB₁ receptors must be further validated in relevant cell lines, tissues and whole animals to assess the correlation between observed cell-based pharmacology and subsequent *in vivo* effects.

An interesting observation is that WIN55212-2 and 2-AG, despite being structurally very different, display a similar pattern of modulation by Org27569, as well as having a similar pattern of ligand biased signalling. This may help in the prediction of *in vivo* effects of small molecule cannabinoids or their effects in the presence of an allosteric modulator. It may also facilitate the development of cannabinoid-based drugs that may produce effects close to the physiological responses produced by endocannabinoids.

In addition to the small molecule allosteric modulator, Org27569, the present study further investigated the effects of putative endogenous allosteric modulators at CB₁ receptors, pregnenolone, lipoxin A4 and CRIP1a. In contrast to previous findings (Vallee et al., 2014), in the present study, pregnenolone did not modulate CB₁ receptor-mediated pERK1/2 signalling although it reduced the binding of radiolabelled SR141716A. It was unclear whether inhibition of [³H]SR141716A binding was via a competitive or an allosteric interaction at CB₁ receptors or even a non-specific effect. Therefore, further research is necessary to validate whether these effects are mediated through an allosteric site on CB₁ receptors. Similarly, the present study did not verify the previously reported (Pamplona et al., 2012) allosteric action of lipoxin A4 at CB₁ receptors. In contrast to previous findings in HEK-CB₁ cells (Pamplona et al., 2012), lipoxin A4 did not inhibit [³H]SR141716A binding, and did not enhance anandamide-mediated inhibition of cAMP in our CHO-hCB₁ cells.

Previous studies in mice demonstrated that pregnenolone inhibited the “cannabinoid tetrad” of effects (analgesia, catalepsy, hypoactivity and hypothermia), increased food intake and memory impairment produced by Δ⁹-THC, and reduced self-administration of WIN55,212-2 (Vallee et al., 2014).

Lipoxin A4 has also been shown to potentiate the cataleptic effect of anandamide in mice, and to a lesser extent CP55940, without altering the response to 2-AG (Pamplona et al., 2012). Thus, it appears that pregnenolone and lipoxin A4 modulate behavioural effects of cannabinoids. However, this is not conclusive evidence of an allosteric interaction of these ligands at CB₁ receptors. Therefore, further research is required to validate their mechanism of action.

The present study further investigated the effects of CRIP1a over-expression or knockdown on cannabinoid-mediated signalling pathways. It was previously reported that CRIP1a over-expression in superior cervical ganglion (SCG) neurons attenuated SR141716 enhancement of Ca²⁺ currents while leaving the inhibition of Ca²⁺ currents by WIN55212-2 unaltered (Niehaus et al., 2007). In the present study, a reduction in CRIP1a expression did not alter cannabinoid-mediated Ca²⁺ mobilisation, but it reduced KCl-induced Ca²⁺ influx in NG108-15 cells. We also demonstrated that unlike its lack of effect in recombinant HEK cells, CRIP1a was required for WIN55,212-2-induced cAMP inhibition in NG108-15 cells, which endogenously express CB₁ receptors and CRIP1a. Thus, another important finding of the present study is that the modulatory effect of CRIP1a depends on the expression levels of CRIP1a and the cell line used. In a previous study, different effects of CRIP1a were observed in CRIP1a over-expressing or knockdown N18TG2 cells (Blume et al., 2015). In N18TG2 cells endogenously expressing CB₁ receptors and CRIP1a, CRIP1a knockdown enhanced CB₁ receptor-mediated G protein activation and specifically increased CB₁ receptor-coupling to Gi₃ and Go proteins. In contrast, CRIP1a over-expression switched CB₁ receptor signalling towards interactions with Gi₁ and Gi₂ (Blume et al., 2015).

Thus, this may reflect the importance of the types and proportions of G proteins and other signalling elements in cells.

The expression levels of CB₁ receptors in HEK and NG108-15 cells have not been determined in the present study. Given that CB₁ receptor signalling properties (potency, E_{max}) were similar in CHO and HEK cells, and that both cell lines represent an over-expressing recombinant cell system, CB₁ receptor expression levels would likely be comparable in CHO and HEK cells. Indeed, previous studies have demonstrated comparable levels of CB₁ receptor expression in different cell preparations. For instance, the B_{max} was estimated to be 0.95 pmol/mg in HEK293-hCB₁ and 0.83 pmol/mg in CHO-hCB₁ (Tao and Abood, 1998). Encouragingly, these values are not dissimilar to those determined in mouse brain (1.81 pmol/mg) (Abood et al., 1997). CB₁ receptor expression levels are likely lower in endogenously expressing cell lines. For instance, mouse neuroblastoma N18TG2 cells were reported to express 0.2 pmol/mg CB₁ receptors (Abood et al., 1997), and a similar expression level would be expected in our related NG180-15 cells. Furthermore, according to a recently published study, the B_{max} value for CB₁ receptors is unaltered by CRIP1a over-expression or knockdown (Smith et al., 2015).

CRIP1a also did not alter the modulatory effects of Org27569 on cannabinoid-mediated cAMP or pERK1/2 signalling in recombinant HEK cells. Thus, although CRIP1a may modulate some cannabinoid-mediated signalling pathways, this study cannot conclude that its effects are mediated through a direct effect on the CB₁ receptor. Nonetheless, the results suggest that CRIP1a is involved in activation of some of the intracellular signalling events in NG108-15 cells.

Taken together, the present study provides quantitative insight into CB₁ receptor function, which may aid the development of orthosteric and allosteric CB₁ receptor ligands that are biased towards activation of therapeutically relevant signalling pathways.

However, many challenges remain in the area of CB₁ receptor ligand-biased signalling and allosteric modulation. For instance, in most cases, it is not yet known which signalling pathways are associated with therapeutic or adverse effects. It is also possible that overlapping signalling pathways may mediate both types of effect (Kenakin, 2012a; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002). Furthermore, it is difficult to predict the ligand biased effects or allosteric activities in different cells or tissues (Kenakin and Christopoulos, 2013; Kenakin, 2012b), and the effects in recombinant cell lines may not translate into the same effects in primary cell lines, tissues or whole animals. Therefore, one might argue that the results obtained using over-expressing cell lines might be physiologically irrelevant. However, recombinant systems provide a robust pharmacological tool to detect the ability of ligands to display bias or allosterism, and can inform future mechanistic studies. Ligands can then be selected for further research in physiologically relevant and model disease systems (Kenakin, 2011; Valant et al., 2014). Ultimately, as more biased ligands and allosteric modulators enter the clinic, further opportunities will be provided to establish the correlation between their *in vitro* and therapeutic effects (Kenakin, 2011).

To conclude, the present study demonstrates an approach that can quantitatively evaluate ligand-biased signalling and allosteric modulation at CB₁ receptors. This serves as an initial step in determining ligand-biased “fingerprints” that can guide structure-activity studies and the selection of drug candidates for *in*

vivo studies, which may ultimately aid the development of more successful CB₁ receptor-targeted therapies.

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