

EFFECTS OF MORPHINE AND ITS METABOLITES ON OPIATE RECEPTOR BINDING, cAMP FORMATION AND [³H]NORADRENALINE RELEASE FROM SH-SY5Y CELLS

D. G. LAMBERT,* R. ATCHESON, R. A. HIRST and D. J. ROWBOTHAM

University Department of Anaesthesia, Leicester Royal Infirmary, Leicester LE1 5WW, U.K.

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Abstract—Opiate receptor occupation leads to a variety of intracellular events including inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and cAMP formation. We have examined the opiate binding characteristics, effects on cAMP formation and [³H]noradrenaline release of morphine, morphine-6 (M6G) and -3 (M3G)-glucuronides, and fentanyl in SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cells. M6G and M3G are the major metabolites of morphine formed *in vivo* whose cellular action remains to be fully elucidated. In binding experiments morphine (affinity, $K_{50} = 96$ nM) and fentanyl ($K_{50} = 99$ nM) were more potent than M6G ($K_{50} = 393$ nM), while M3G was inactive. However, for cAMP inhibition morphine (half maximum inhibition, $IC_{50} = 193$ nM) and M6G ($IC_{50} = 113$ nM) were roughly equipotent, with fentanyl ($IC_{50} = 27$ nM) being more potent and producing a greater maximum inhibition (56%). M3G was inactive. These *in vitro* data are in general agreement with the *in vivo* effects of these glucuronides. Moreover, all of the opiates tested failed to inhibit K⁺-evoked release of [³H]noradrenaline. Whilst these data do not support a role for cAMP in neurotransmitter release, alterations in cAMP formation may still have a role to play in the mechanism of analgesia.

Morphine, a naturally occurring opiate extracted from the poppy, was one of the earliest substances used to provide clinical analgesia and is still one of the commonest opioids used in clinical practice. This opioid is glucuronidated *in vivo* at carbon positions three and six to produce morphine 3-glucuronide (M3G†) and morphine 6-glucuronide (M6G) [1]. There is good evidence to suggest that M6G may possess analgesic qualities whereas M3G may antagonize both morphine and M6G analgesia [2–6]. There are few *in vitro* studies examining the biochemical effects of morphine and its glucuronides although receptor binding profiles have been described [4, 7–9]. In these studies M6G appears less potent than morphine and M3G is inactive. It is reasonable to assume that the analgesia observed with M6G is associated with this opiate receptor occupancy and any intracellular biochemical effects consequent upon the occupancy. Typically opiate receptor occupation would result in membrane hyperpolarization [10], inhibition of L- and N-type voltage-sensitive Ca²⁺ channels [11] and an inhibition of adenylyl cyclase [12], although in a recent report NG108-15 cells showed an increase in Ca²⁺ in response to δ receptor occupation [13]. These coordinated changes in membrane potential, Ca²⁺ influx and cAMP levels could potentially depress neurotransmission [14].

In this study we have examined the opiate receptor binding profiles of morphine and its glucuronides, the subsequent inhibition of cAMP formation and

any effects on potassium-evoked [³H]noradrenaline release in undifferentiated SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cells. These cells are particularly useful in such studies as they express both μ and δ (approx. 5:1) opiate receptors [15, 16] and are capable of the uptake and release of [³H]noradrenaline [17]. As a comparison we have included fentanyl, a more potent opioid, structurally related to pethidine [1].

Part of this work has appeared in abstract form [18].

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sources of reagents and miscellaneous methods. All tissue culture media, supplements, trypsin/EDTA, sera and plasticware (Nunc) were from Life Technologies (Uxbridge, U.K.). [15,16(n)-³H]-Diprenorphine (DPN) (31.4 Ci/mmol) and L-[7,8-³H]noradrenaline (41 Ci/mmol) were from Amersham (U.K.). [2,8-³H]cAMP was from NEN DuPont (Boston, MA). Morphine, M6G, M3G, fentanyl, naloxone, cAMP, pargyline and ascorbic acid were from the Sigma Chemical Co. (Poole, U.K.). All other reagents were of the highest purity available. Radioactivity was measured by liquid scintillation spectrophotometry with Optiphase-X (LKB Wallac) as a scintillant.

Cell culture. Stock cultures of SH-SY5Y cells (a kind gift from Dr J. Biedler, Sloane-Kettering Institute, NY, U.S.A.), passages 69–85, were maintained in minimum essential medium supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine, 100 IU/mL penicillin, 100 μ g/mL streptomycin, 2.5 μ g/mL fungizone and 10% foetal calf serum at 37° in 5% CO₂/humidified air. Stock cultures were passaged weekly (1:3–1:6) and refed twice weekly. For receptor binding and cAMP determinations cells were

* Corresponding author. Tel. (0533) 541414 ext. 5474; FAX (0533) 854487.

† Abbreviations: HEPES, N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulphonic acid; M3G, morphine-3-glucuronide; M6G, morphine-6-glucuronide; DPN, diprenorphine.

harvested by a brief exposure to HEPES (10 mM)-buffered saline containing EDTA (0.5 mM). For [3 H]noradrenaline release studies, cells harvested with trypsin/EDTA were plated into six well multitray at 2.5×10^6 cells/well and allowed to grow to confluence (5–7 days).

Measurement of [3 H]DPN binding. The binding of [3 H]DPN to whole cell suspensions (approx. 200 μ g) was performed at 37° for 60 min in Krebs/HEPES buffer pH 7.4 of the following composition (mM): Na $^+$ (143.3), K $^+$ (4.7), Ca $^{2+}$ (2.5), Mg $^{2+}$ (1.2), Cl $^-$ (125.6), HCO $_3^-$ (25), H $_2$ PO $_4^-$ (1.2), SO $_4^{2-}$ (1.2), glucose (11.7) and HEPES (10) [19]. Non-specific binding was defined in the presence of 10 μ M naloxone. Bound and free [3 H]DPN were separated by vacuum filtration using a Brandell cell harvester onto Whatman GF/B filters and washed with 2×4 mL aliquots of ice-cold buffer. Saturation studies (0.01–4 nM [3 H]DPN) and displacement studies (0.3–0.5 nM [3 H]DPN) were performed in 1 mL assay volumes.

Measurement of cAMP formation. Whole cell suspensions (approx. 200 μ g) were incubated in microfuge tubes using Krebs/HEPES buffer containing isobutylmethylxanthine (1 mM), forskolin (10 μ M) and opioids in various combinations. Incubations were performed at 37° for 15 min. The reaction was terminated by addition of 20 μ L HCl (10 M), 20 μ L NaOH (10 M) and 180 μ L Tris (1 M) pH 7.4. cAMP in the supernatant (after centrifugation, 13,000 rpm/2 min, MSE micro-centaur) was determined by a radioreceptor method [20] using a binding protein prepared from bovine adrenal cortex.

Measurement of [3 H]noradrenaline release. [3 H]-

Noradrenaline release was measured using a modification of the method described by Murphy *et al.* [17]. Briefly, SH-SY5Y cells grown in six well multitray were loaded with 0.5 mL [3 H]-noradrenaline (48 nM) for 1 hr at 37° in Krebs/HEPES buffer supplemented with pargyline (0.2 mM) and ascorbic acid (0.2 mM). After this loading period excess [3 H]noradrenaline not taken up was removed by 3×15 min \times 1 mL washes with fresh buffer. Cells were then exposed to 1 mL high potassium buffer (100 mM with Na $^+$ adjustment to maintain tonicity) for 3 min. Opioids were preincubated by inclusion in the second and third wash period and were present during stimulation. Naloxone was added from the first wash onwards. [3 H]Noradrenaline released was removed and that remaining in the monolayer was extracted with perchloric acid (0.4 M). [3 H]Noradrenaline release was expressed as percentage of total content.

Data analysis. Saturation isotherms were analysed according to Scatchard [21] to yield the equilibrium dissociation constant (K_d) and the maximum binding capacity (B_{max}). IC $_{50}$ values (half maximum displacement) were obtained by computer-assisted curve fitting using ALLFIT [22]. IC $_{50}$ values were corrected for competing mass of ligand to yield K $_{50}$ values according to Cheng and Prusoff [23]. Full dose-response curves were analysed statistically by ANOVA and where appropriate IC $_{50}$ /K $_{50}$ values and degrees of inhibition were then compared using Student's unpaired *t*-test and considered significant when $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

The specific binding of [3 H]DPN to whole SH-

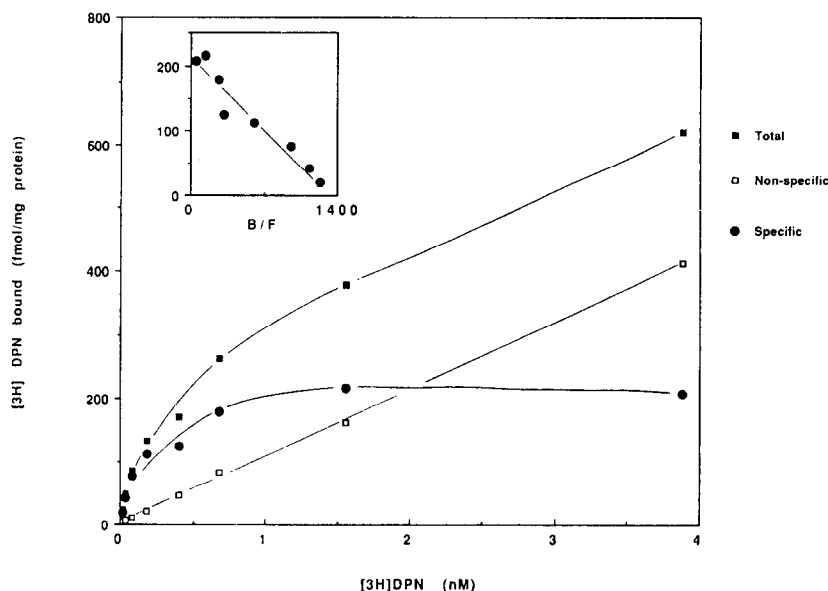


Fig. 1. Dose-dependent and saturable binding of [3 H]DPN to whole SH-SY5Y cells. Insert shows Scatchard transformation. Studies were performed at 37° in 1 mL vol. for 60 min. Non-specific binding was defined in the presence of 10 μ M naloxone. Data are from a single representative experiment from $N = 4$.

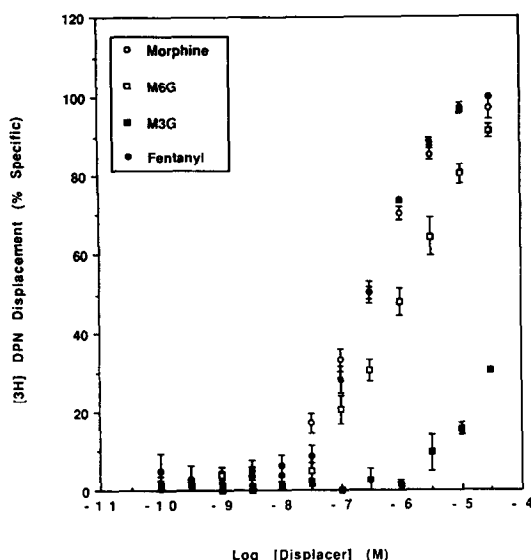


Fig. 2. Inhibition of specific [3 H]DPN binding to whole SH-SY5Y cells by morphine, M6G, M3G and fentanyl. Studies were performed at 37° in 1 mL vol. for 60 min. Non-specific binding was defined in the presence of 10 μ M naloxone. Data are means \pm SEM $N = 5$, except M3G where $N = 3$. Computer analysis of the curves to yield K_{50} is shown in Table 1.

SY5Y cell suspensions was dose-related and saturable (Fig. 1). Scatchard analysis revealed B_{\max} and K_d values of 167 ± 26 fmol/mg protein and 0.17 ± 0.01 nM ($N = 4$), respectively. Nonspecific binding at the radioligand K_d was $< 25\%$ of the specific bound ligand. [3 H]DPN binding was displaced dose-dependently by morphine, M6G and fentanyl ($P < 0.05$, ANOVA); significant displacement by M3G was not observed until the concentration exceeded 10 μ M (Fig. 2). The rank order potency (K_{50}) for displacement was: morphine = fentanyl $>$ M6G \gg M3G (Table 1). Binding slope factors were 0.71 ± 0.05 , 0.94 ± 0.05 and 0.69 ± 0.03 for morphine, fentanyl and M6G, respectively.

Basal and forskolin (10 μ M)-stimulated cAMP levels in whole cell suspensions were 10.6 ± 2.8

and 177 ± 12.7 pmol/mg protein, respectively, and represented a 17-fold increase over basal. Forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation was inhibited dose-dependently by morphine, M6G and fentanyl ($P < 0.05$, ANOVA); M3G was inactive up to 10 μ M (Fig. 3). The rank order potency (IC_{50}) for cAMP inhibition was fentanyl $>$ morphine \approx M6G \gg M3G (Table 1). Fentanyl also produced a greater maximum inhibition (approx. 2-fold) than either morphine or M6G (Table 1).

In agreement with the previous study of Murphy *et al.* [17] SH-SY5Y cells are clearly capable of the uptake and release of [3 H]noradrenaline. After 60 min loading, uptake accounted for around 15% of the total added [3 H]noradrenaline. This is also consistent with our previous work examining the effects of fentanyl on [3 H]noradrenaline uptake [19]. A 3 min exposure of the monolayer to 100 mM K^+ increased basal release from $3.6 \pm 0.2\%$ ($N = 21$) to $11.7 \pm 0.6\%$ ($N = 21$) amounting to a 3-fold stimulation. Because of variation in maximum response observed all data are normalized to the K^+ challenge ($= 100\%$). Only fentanyl (10 μ M) produced a significant inhibition of [3 H]noradrenaline release but this response was not reversed by 10 μ M naloxone (Fig. 4).

DISCUSSION

Metabolism of morphine *in vivo* produces two glucuronides: M3G and M6G [1], with levels of the former generally peaking before the latter and reaching higher peak concentrations [24]. Peak serum concentrations seen in healthy volunteers are increased in a variety of disease states [25–27] but are consistent with those used in this study. Plasma levels of fentanyl vary considerably [1] and values of up to 0.6 μ M have been reported in cardiopulmonary bypass [28, 29].

Generally, drug metabolism (e.g. glucuronidation) is described as a means of termination of bioactivity [2]. However, M6G retains significant bioactivity as shown in this study. *In vivo* studies show, in general, that M6G is more potent or equipotent with morphine as an analgesic (differences appear related to the route of administration) and M3G is inactive [1, 3–6]. However, there is evidence to support an anti-analgesic role for this latter glucuronide, where

Table 1. Effects of morphine, M6G, M3G and fentanyl on opiate receptor binding and cAMP formation in undifferentiated SH-SY5Y cells

Opioid	Binding K_{50} (nM)	cAMP	
		IC_{50} (nM)	Maximum inhibition (%)
Morphine	95.9 ± 5.2	192.7 ± 57.8	28.8 ± 4.1
M6G	$393.3 \pm 95.8^*$	112.8 ± 40.4	29.1 ± 2.7
M3G	$> 30,000$	$> 30,000$	—
Fentanyl	98.7 ± 5.2	$26.9 \pm 7.7^\dagger$	$56.3 \pm 5.3^\ddagger$

Data are means \pm SEM, $N = 5$ –8, except M3G binding, where $N = 3$.

$P < 0.05$, *weaker than morphine, † more potent than morphine or M6G, ‡ greater than morphine or M6G.

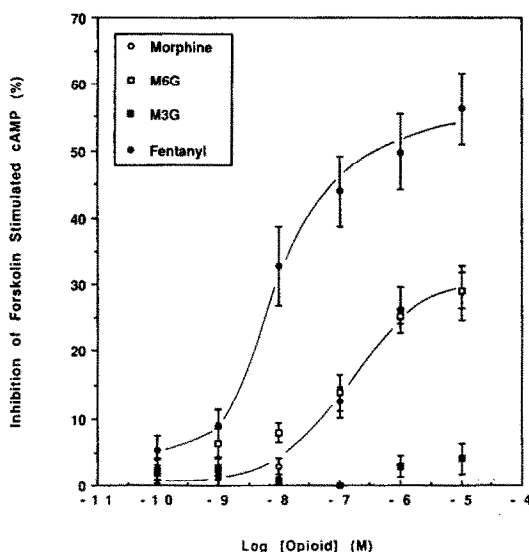


Fig. 3. Effects of morphine, M6G, M3G and fentanyl on forskolin-stimulated cAMP formation. Studies were performed at 37° in 0.3 mL vol. for 15 min containing forskolin (10 μ M), isobutylmethylxanthine (1 mM) and opioids at the indicated concentrations. Data are means \pm SEM N = 6–8. Computer analysis of the curves to yield IC_{50} and maximum inhibition are shown in Table 1.

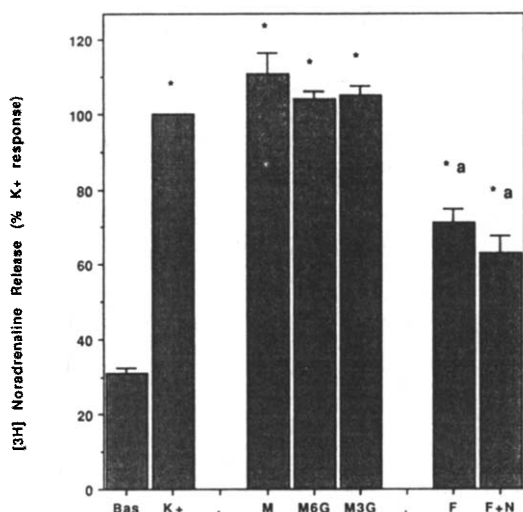


Fig. 4. Effects of morphine, M6G, M3G and fentanyl (F), all 10 μ M, on K⁺-evoked [³H]noradrenaline release from SH-SY5Y cells. Cells were incubated for 3 min with either basal (Bas) buffer or 100 mM K⁺ in the presence or absence of the opiates as indicated. N, 10 μ M naloxone. Data are means \pm SEM N = 4–21 and are normalized to the K⁺ stimulus (=100%). Absolute values for basal and K⁺-stimulated release were $3.6 \pm 0.2\%$ (range 1.4–5.3) and $11.6 \pm 0.6\%$ (range 6.2–16.2) of content, respectively. P < 0.05, *Increased compared with basal, *reduced compared with K⁺.

M3G antagonized morphine- and M6G-induced analgesia (measured as tail flick latencies in rats) [6]. The *in vivo* characteristics of morphine and its glucuronides described above are somewhat contradictory to data from *in vitro* studies. Firstly, M3G is generally inactive at the μ and δ receptors [7, 9]. This inactivity implicates a non-opioid receptor site of action in the anti-analgesic effects reported for this glucuronide. Secondly, M6G varies from being less than 2-fold to a maximum of 7-fold more potent than morphine [4, 7–9]. In this study M3G was inactive and M6G was 4-fold weaker than morphine in binding experiments but roughly equipotent for cAMP inhibition. The use of [³H]-DPN, a relatively non-selective ligand, would give little information regarding any μ and δ selective effects of the opiates used in this study. However, it is unlikely that a significant proportion of the binding would be to δ receptors since the small selectivity difference of DPN for μ over δ receptors (approx. 5-fold [30]) and the expression of 5-fold less δ than μ receptors implies that probably <10% of [³H]DPN in displacement studies would be bound to δ receptors. Furthermore, morphine, M6G and fentanyl show 35-, 20- [7] and 118-fold [31] μ selectivity. In addition, the Hill slope of <1 for morphine and M6G could not be explained in terms of multiple receptor subtypes. A more likely explanation relates to the G-protein coupling in that the opiates used here are all agonists. Further experiments in membrane preparations will be required to determine the relative proportion of G-protein-coupled (high affinity) and free (low affinity) receptors.

There have been a number of studies describing the effects of opiate peptides on cAMP formation in SH-SY5Y cells and the involvement of a pertussis toxin-sensitive G-protein (G_i/G_o) in this response has been demonstrated (Ref. 32 and Lambert DG, unpublished). In addition μ receptor occupation in SH-SY5Y cells produces greater inhibition of cAMP formation than δ receptor occupancy [16]. In a recent, elegant study, Laugwitz *et al.* [33] reported that activated μ and δ opioid receptors on SH-SY5Y cells coupled preferentially to separate pertussis toxin-sensitive G_i G-proteins, with the μ receptor coupling to G_{i3} and the δ receptor coupling to G_{i1} . Whether this differential coupling is the underlying basis of the differences in maximum inhibition of cAMP formation is unclear. However, it should also be remembered that SH-SY5Y cells express around 5-fold more μ than δ receptors [15, 16]. Also, in agreement with many other studies in a variety of other tissues, opiate receptor-mediated inhibition of cAMP rarely exceeded 50% [12]. However, the lower maximum inhibition of cAMP formation produced by morphine (and M6G) relative to fentanyl can be explained by the partial agonist nature of morphine (and presumably M6G) relative to fentanyl [31].

Inhibition of neurotransmitter release is thought to be the underlying cellular mechanism of analgesia [14]. Opiates inhibit the release of a variety of neurotransmitters including noradrenaline, dopamine and acetylcholine [34, 35]. Yet, in this study fentanyl (via the opiate receptor, i.e. naloxone

reversible), morphine and its metabolites were unable to inhibit K^+ -evoked release of $[^3H]$ -noradrenaline. K^+ -evoked release of $[^3H]$ -noradrenaline in these cells is dependent on extracellular Ca^{2+} (Ref. 17 and Atcheson R, unpublished). Whilst the link between inhibition of cAMP formation and inhibition of neurotransmitter release is tenuous [36, 37], opiate receptor-mediated closing of voltage-sensitive Ca^{2+} channels has been demonstrated [11] and may be important in the control of neurotransmitter release. Indeed, in differentiated SH-SY5Y cells Seward *et al.* [38] showed a closing of N-type voltage-sensitive Ca^{2+} channels via a pertussis toxin-sensitive G-protein [38]. Interestingly and in parallel with the inhibition of cAMP formation, maximum inhibition of the Ca^{2+} current was less than 50%. This information makes our data more difficult to explain unless the opioid receptor and Ca^{2+} channel (opened by K^+) are poorly coupled, but this seems unlikely. Furthermore, in NG108-15 cells which express δ opioid receptors, an increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} has been reported in Indo-1-loaded cells. The δ agonist [D-Ala⁵, D-Leu⁵]-enkephalin produced a transient increase in Ca^{2+} that was dependent on extracellular Ca^{2+} and blocked by nitrendipine suggesting an excitatory effect of opiates on dihydropyridine-blockable voltage-sensitive Ca^{2+} channels in these cells [13].

In conclusion, we have examined the binding profiles for morphine, M6G, M3G and fentanyl, and have shown inhibition of cAMP formation with morphine, M6G and fentanyl, whose bioactivity is in agreement with the analgesic effects of these compounds. However, all of the opiates used were unable to reduce (via the opiate receptor) K^+ -evoked $[^3H]$ -noradrenaline release. Whilst clearly not involved directly in $[^3H]$ -noradrenaline release in this preparation, alterations in neuronal cAMP formation, and the subsequent alterations in protein phosphorylation [39], may be an important facet of the cellular basis of analgesia.

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