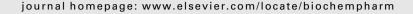


available at www.sciencedirect.com







Aspirin inhibits human bradykinin B₂ receptor ligand binding function

Joëlle Gardes, Stéphanie Michineau ¹, Anne Pizard ¹, François Alhenc-Gelas *, Rabary M. Rajerison

INSERM U652/U872, Paris-Descartes University, Paris, France

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 4 December 2007 Accepted 4 February 2008

Keywords:
Bradykinin
Aspirin B_2 receptor B_2 antagonist
Allosteric regulation

ABSTRACT

The bradykinin B₂ receptor, a member of the G protein-coupled receptors superfamily, is involved in a variety of physiological functions, including vasodilation, electrolyte transfer in epithelia, mediation of pain, and inflammation. The effect of aspirin on bradykinin binding to cell-surface receptor and on signal transduction were studied in CHO-K1 cells, stably expressing the human B2 receptor. Cell-surface organization of the receptor was assessed by immunoprecipitation and Western blot analysis in CHO-K1 cells expressing Nterminally V5-tagged B2 receptor. We found that the widely used analgesic, anti-thrombotic, and anti-inflammatory drug aspirin alters the B2 receptor ligand binding properties. Aspirin reduces the apparent affinity of the receptor for [3H]-bradykinin by accelerating the dissociation rate of [3H]-bradykinin-receptor complexes. In addition, aspirin reduces the capacity of unlabeled bradykinin or the B2 receptor antagonist icatibant to destabilize pre-formed [3H]-bradykinin-receptor complexes. Kinetic and reversibility studies are consistent with an allosteric type of mechanism. Aspirin effect on B2 receptor binding properties is not accompanied by alteration of the cell-surface organization of the receptor in dimers and monomers. Aspirin does not influence the receptor ability to transduce bradykinin binding into activation of G-proteins and phospholipase C. These results suggest that aspirin is an allosteric inhibitor of the B₂ receptor, a property that may be involved in its therapeutic actions.

© 2008 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Bradykinin has a variety of physiological effects including vasodilation and endothelial activation, modulation of water and electrolyte transports in epithelia, and mediation of pain [1,2]. The physiological role of the kallikrein–kinin system has been well documented in the cardiovascular system, where kinins produced in arteries through the action of kallikrein

participate in the control of arterial blood flow, and are involved in vascular remodeling, and in angiogenesis [3–6]. Through its vascular, chemotactic and pain producing effects, BK is also involved in inflammation [7].

BK exerts its effects by interacting with two different subtypes of G protein-coupled receptors, B_1 and B_2 [8]. The B_2 receptor is constitutively synthesized in tissues, contrary to the B_1 receptor, and mediates most of the BK effects described

^{*} Corresponding author at: INSERM U872, 15 rue de l'Ecole de Medecine, F-75006 Paris, France. Tel.: +33 1 44079030; fax: +33 1 44079040. E-mail address: fagu367@fer-a-moulin.inserm.fr (F. Alhenc-Gelas).

¹ These authors contributed equally to this work.

Abbreviations: GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; BK, bradykinin; B_2 receptor, bradykinin receptor B_2 subtype; B_1 receptor, bradykinin receptor B_1 subtype; CHO-K1 cells, K1 type of Chinese hamster ovary cells; IPs, inositol phosphates. 0006-2952/\$ – see front matter © 2008 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.bcp.2008.02.001

so far. We have previously shown that BK binds to the B2 receptor in a negative cooperative manner, as a consequence of interaction between receptor molecules triggered by occupancy of the ligand binding site [9-11]. This phenomenon constitutes an early desensitization mechanism. The specific B₂ receptor antagonist icatibant also triggers allosteric interaction resulting in BK-receptor complex dissociation [9]. However, whether other classes of pharmacological agents can modulate B2 receptor function is not known. Recently, several GPCRs, have been reported to be positively or negatively modulated by compounds acting on sites topographically distinct from the orthosteric site used by the endogenous ligands [12-14]. These compounds are termed allosteric modulators. We tested several candidate compounds for interaction with the B2 receptor and found that aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid), influenced the binding of BK to the receptor.

Aspirin is a widely used drug with analgesic, antiplatelet, and anti-inflammatory properties. It is often used in pathological situations where kinin receptors are activated, such as ischemic heart disease or inflammation. It has been reported previously that aspirin is an allosteric inhibitor of the endothelin ETA receptor, a member of the GPCR family [15]. In the present study, we show that aspirin, at therapeutic concentration, is a negative modulator of the B_2 receptor ligand binding function, bringing a second example of a GPCR influenced by this compound.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

The CHO-K1 cells were from American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, MD, USA. Lipofectamine 2000 and monoclonal anti-V5 antibody were from Invitrogen, Leek, Netherlands. Fetal calf serum (lot no. S01190S0180) was from Biowest, ABCYS-Paris, France. Antibiotic cocktail for cell culture, igepal, protease inhibitor cocktail, bovine serum albumin (A-4378), aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid) were from Sigma Aldrich Chimie, Saint Quentin Fallavier, France. BK was from Alexis, San Diego, California. Icatibant was a generous gift from Hoechst, Germany. [3H]-bradykinin (64 Ci/mmol), [3H]-myoinositol (14 Ci/mmol), [35S]-GTPyS (1065 Ci/mmol) and ECL kit were from Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK. Protein G magnetic beads were from Dynal, Oslo, Norway. Protein markers were from New England BioLabs-Ozyme, Saint-Quentin en Yvelines, France. Polyacrylamide was from Interchim, Montluçon, France. Peroxydase-conjugated secondary antibody was a goat anti-mouse IgG from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Pennsylvania, USA.

2.2. Cell culture and receptor expression

The experiments described below were performed on CHO-K1 cells transfected with previously cloned human B_2 receptor cDNA placed under the control of cytomegalovirus promotor into the eucaryotic expression vector pcDNA3 [9,16]. A human B_2 receptor cDNA construct, having an exogenous V5 epitope coding sequence at the aminoterminal extremity of the

receptor, just after the methionine start codon, was used in experiments involving receptor immunoprecipitation [17]. Lipofectamine 2000 reagent was used for transfection according to manufacturer instructions. G418-resistant cell clones expressing the recombinant receptors were selected on the basis of their ability to bind [³H]-BK. These clones as well as parental CHO-K1 cells were grown at 37 °C in Ham's F12 medium, supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum, antibiotics (penicillin 0.2 unit/ml, streptomycin 20 pg/ml and amphotericin B 0.5 mg/ml) and 0.5 mM glutamine, in a humid atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂. Cells were used at confluence, i.e. 48–72 h after cell passage.

2.3. Cell membrane preparation

After washing three times with PBS, cells grown in 10 cm Petri dishes were resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.4, 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.3 ml EDTA, protease inhibitor cocktail (1:500 dilution), 10 mM captopril, 0.08 unit/ml aprotinin), homogenized by 10 strokes of a "B" glass Dounce homogenizer, and centrifuged (100 × g for 5 min) at 4 °C. Supernatants were recovered and centrifuged (20,000 × g for 20 min) at 4 °C. Membranes were recovered in appropriate volume of membrane buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.4, 5 mM MgCl₂, protease inhibitor cocktail (1:500 dilution), 10 mM captopril, 0.08 unit/ml aprotinin), and stored at -80 °C until use. Protein concentration was determined using the method of Bradford.

2.4. Radioligand binding assay in intact cells

All experiments were started by washing cells grown in 48-well plates with 0.25 ml of modified Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS: 127 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 0.33 mM Na $_2$ HPO $_4$, 0.44 mM KH $_2$ PO $_4$, 20 mM NaHCO $_3$, 20 mM HEPES, 5 mM glucose, 10 mM sodium acetate, 0.8 mM MgSO $_4$, 1 mM MgCl $_2$, 1.5 mM CaCl $_2$, 0.1% BSA, pH 7.4) and by pre-incubation for 30 min at 25 °C in 0.1 ml of solution A (HBSS containing 0.4 M sucrose to block receptor internalization [9,18], and protease inhibitors (10 mM captopril, 0.08 unit/ml aprotinin). When tested, aspirin was added during the pre-incubation period and during additional incubation step(s).

In a first set of experiments, [3 H]-BK binding was determined after incubating cells in 0.1 ml of solution A in the absence or presence of increasing concentrations of aspirin (0.3–20 mM) with a fixed concentration of [3 H]-BK (4nM). Incubation pH remained between 6.8 and 7.4 upon aspirin addition. Reactions were allowed to proceed for 20 min at 25 $^{\circ}$ C. Cells were then washed twice with 0.5 ml of ice-cold HBSS to remove unbound [3 H]-BK [9].

In association kinetic experiments, cells were incubated for various times up to 30 min with 4 nM [3 H]-BK in the absence or presence of aspirin (10 mM). In saturation analysis of [3 H]-BK binding, cells were incubated for 20 min in the absence or presence of aspirin (10 mM) with varying concentrations (0.1–20 nM) of [3 H]-BK.

In reversibility experiments, cells exposed 30 min to 10 mM aspirin were washed twice with 0.5 ml HBSS. They were then incubated for up to 60 min in 0.1 ml of aspirin-free solution A. Binding of $[^3H]$ -BK (4 nM) was then performed for 20 min in the absence of aspirin. Control cells were exposed or not to

aspirin, then immediately incubated with [³H]-BK in the presence or absence of 10 mM aspirin.

In dissociation kinetic experiments, cells were first exposed to $[^3H]$ -BK (4 nM) for 20 min in the absence or presence of aspirin (10 mM). Non-bound $[^3H]$ -BK was removed by two washes with 0.5 ml of ice-cold HBSS. Cells were then incubated in 0.5 ml of solution A with or without aspirin (10 mM) for various times up to 90 min (time-course), or in 0.5 ml of the same solutions containing increasing concentrations (0.05–100 nM) of unlabeled BK or the specific B_2 antagonist icatibant for a fixed time of 10 min. Experiments were terminated by measuring the radioactivity released in the medium and the radioactivity that remained associated to the cells, as previously described [9]. Results were expressed as the ratio between the cell-associated radioactivity and the total specific binding (cell-associated radioactivity plus medium radioactivity).

In all experiments, nonspecific binding was determined using 1000-fold excess of unlabeled BK and subtracted from total binding. It never exceeded 10% of total binding. Cell protein content was determined using the method of Bradford to express data in fmol [³H]-BK bound/mg protein where necessary.

2.5. Phospholipase C assay in intact cells

Phospholipase C activity was measured in cells grown in 24well plates and incubated overnight with 1 μCi/ml [³H]myoinositol [10]. The extra-cellular unincorporated radioactivity was removed by three washes with 0.5 ml of HBSS. Cells were incubated for 30 min in 0.3 ml of solution A in the absence or presence of aspirin (10 mM), then for 10 min with 10 mM LiCl, and for 15 min with 10 mM LiCl plus increasing concentrations of BK (0.1-20 nM) added in 0.3 ml of the same solutions. All incubations were at 37 °C, as previously described. The reactions were terminated by adding 0.2 ml of 7.5% (w/v) perchloric acid and the cells were scraped and transferred into glass tubes. The different hydrophilic compounds (inositol, glycerophosphoinositol and inositol phosphates) were separated from phospholipids by centrifugation after adding 1 ml of chloroform/methanol (2v/1v). Inositol phosphates were separated from inositol and glycerophosphoinositol by AG 1-X8 anion exchange chromatography, after neutralizing the hydrophilic phase with a mixture of KOH-HEPES. Results were expressed as the ratio between radioactivity measured in inositol phosphates and the total radioactivity incorporated into the cells [10].

Corresponding receptor occupancy was estimated in parallel in cells grown on 48-well plates by $[^3H]$ -BK binding at 37 °C with the same peptide concentrations (0.1–20 nM). In these experiments, the cells were incubated for 30 min in 0.1 ml of solution A in the absence or presence of aspirin (10 mM), then for 15 min with $[^3H]$ -BK contained in 0.1 ml of the same solutions.

2.6. [³H]-BK binding and [³⁵S]-GTPγS assays in isolated cell membranes

Membranes (10 μ g/assay) were incubated at 25 °C for 30 min without or with aspirin (10 mM) in 50 μ l of a solution

containing 50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.4, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM captopril, 0.08 unit/ml aprotinin, 0.01 mg/ml leupeptin, 1 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl.

For [3 H]-BK binding assay, the incubation was prolonged for 35 min following the addition of [3 H]-BK (4 nM, final concentration) in 50 μ l of the same solutions.

For [35 S]-GTP γ S binding assay, the incubation was prolonged for 20 min following the addition of 40 μ l of the same solutions containing (stimulated condition) or not (basal condition) BK (4 nM, final concentration), and then for further 15 min after addition of [35 S]-GTP γ S (10 nM, final concentration) in 10 μ l of the same solutions.

For both assays, the reaction was stopped by adding 2 ml of ice-cold washing solution (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.4, 5 mM MgCl₂) and the incubation medium was immediately filtered onto Whatman glass fiber (0.8–1.2 μ m) presoaked overnight in 50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.4 buffer that contained ([³H]-BK binding assay) or not ([³5S]-GTP γ S binding assay) polyallylamine (0.1 mg/ml). The filters were then rinsed five times with 2 ml of washing solution, and the remaining radioactivity was measured by liquid scintillation.

2.7. Cell-surface receptor immunoprecipitation and Western blot

The technique used for immunoprecipitation of cell-surface receptors was that of Hilairet et al. [19] with slight modifications [11]. Experiments were performed on cells expressing Nterminally V5-tagged B2 receptor grown in 6-well plates [17]. The cells were washed three times with PBS. They were incubated in 1 ml of solution A in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin for 30 min at 25 °C, then with or without 100 nM BK or icatibant in 0.25 ml of the same solutions in the presence of monoclonal anti-V5 antibody (1:500 dilution) for 20 min at 25 °C. After two washes in solution A and two washes in PBS at 4 °C, the cells were lysed in 0.25 ml of ice-cold lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1% (v/v) igepal, 0.1% (w/v) SDS, 0.5% (w/v) deoxycholate, protease inhibitor cocktail (1:500 dilution) and 10 mM iodoacetamide), rocked for 45 min, and centrifuged (15,000 \times g for 20 min). Cell-surface receptor-anti-V5 antibody complexes were then precipitated at 4 °C by rocking the supernatant for 2 h after adding 30 µl of a protein G magnetic beads suspension. The immunoprecipitate was washed three times with PBS and resuspended in 30 μ l of a solution containing 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer pH 7, 10 mM iodoacetamide and 1% (w/v) SDS. After adding 30 μl of a 2 \times non-reducing sample buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 25% (v/v) glycerol, 5% (w/ v) SDS, 0.002% bromophenol blue) and heating (100 °C for 5 min), the proteins contained in 10 µl as well as protein markers were resolved by 10% (w/v) SDS-PAGE for 50 min, transferred to nitrocellulose membrane, and subjected to immunoblotting using anti-V5 antibody (1:5000 dilution) and a goat anti-mouse peroxydase-conjugated secondary antibody (1:5000 dilution) as previously described [11]. Finally, proteins were visualized via chemiluminescence reactions using the ECL kit.

2.8. Data analysis

In saturation experiments, because binding saturation was not achieved with the highest [3H]-BK concentration and

because the Scatchard plots of the binding data were nonlinear as observed before [9], the binding values at the three highest [3 H]-BK concentrations were used in Scatchard coordinates [20] to estimate the maximal binding capacity (Bmax). Then, by using the estimated Bmax and the overall binding values in the Hill transformation [21], it is possible to estimate the [3 H]-BK concentrations corresponding to half-saturation (Kd app) and the Hill coefficients (nHill) for the binding reaction.

In dissociation experiments data were fitted by non-linear regression analysis with sigmoidal dose–response variable slope equation (Graph PadTM Prism software) to estimate the concentrations of unlabeled BK and icatibant (EC₅₀) necessary for half-reduction of the complexes, and the corresponding Hill coefficients of the dissociation curves.

Experiments were repeated at least three times, each time with duplicate or triplicate determinations. All values are means \pm S.E.M. The effect of aspirin on kinetic parameters was assessed by ANOVA or unpaired Student's t test.

3. Results

3.1. Aspirin decreases BK binding to B2 receptor

Aspirin induced a concentration-dependent reduction of [3 H]-BK binding (Fig. 1). The inhibition curve was steep and a concentration of 20 mM aspirin inhibited [3 H]-BK binding by \approx 95%. Half maximum inhibition was observed with 8.7 ± 1.8 mM aspirin in these experimental conditions. Incubation solution containing acetic acid at pH 6.8 instead of aspirin had no effect on BK binding (not shown).

Association kinetic analysis performed with 4 nM [³H]-BK and 10 mM aspirin showed that aspirin inhibition developed over time, despite the fact that the cells were pre-treated for 30 min with aspirin before adding [³H]-BK (Fig. 2). The

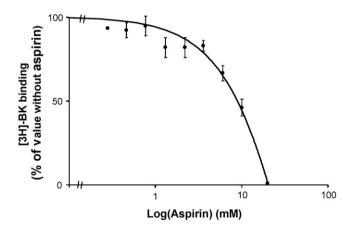


Fig. 1 – Inhibition by aspirin of [3 H]-BK binding to recombinant B $_2$ receptors expressed in intact CHO-K1 cells. Binding of [3 H]-BK (4 nM) was measured after 20 min incubation at 25 $^{\circ}$ C in the presence of increasing concentrations of aspirin. The specific binding obtained in aspirin-treated cells was expressed as percent of the specific binding obtained without aspirin (425 \pm 5 fmol of [3 H]-BK/mg of protein).

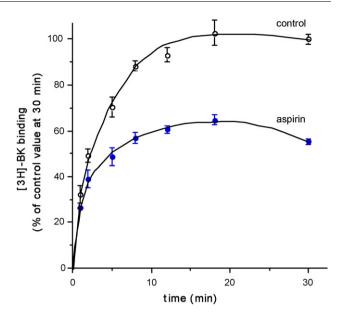


Fig. 2 – Association kinetics of [3 H]-BK to B $_2$ receptors in intact cells in the absence or presence of aspirin. Binding of [3 H]-BK (4 nM) was determined at 25 $^\circ$ C at different incubation times in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin. Results (specific bindings) are expressed as percent of the specific binding obtained at 30 min without aspirin (693 \pm 80 fmol of [3 H]-BK/mg of protein).

inhibition was 18% after 1 min, and progressively increased until 20 min up to about 40%. BK binding reached equilibrium at 20 min in the presence or in the absence of aspirin. The reversibility of aspirin effect (Fig. 3) was studied as described in Section 2. No effect of aspirin could be observed once aspirin was removed from the incubation medium, suggesting that the effect of aspirin is rapidly reversible or that this effect only occurs when the receptor binds BK.

Aspirin (10 mM) inhibited the binding of [3 H]-BK over a wide range of BK concentration (0.1–20 nM), (Fig. 4). Binding saturation was not achieved with the highest [3 H]-BK concentration. Bmax, estimated as described above, were 157 \pm 12 and 187 \pm 22% of the binding determined with 20 nM [3 H]-BK in the absence of aspirin and in aspirin-treated cells, respectively. Kd app and Hill coefficient were 10 ± 1 nM (control) and 29 ± 3 nM (aspirin) (p < 0.01), and 0.98 ± 0.10 (control) and 0.98 ± 0.10 (aspirin), respectively. Comparison of the above values indicates that aspirin neither changed the maximal binding capacity nor the Hill coefficient for [3 H]-BK binding, but decreased the apparent affinity of the B $_2$ receptor for [3 H]-BK.

3.2. Aspirin destabilizes BK-B2 receptor complex

An interesting observation is that the dissociation rate of [3 H]-BK-B $_2$ receptor complexes (formed during 20 min incubation with 4 nM [3 H]-BK) was greater in the presence than in the absence of 10 mM aspirin ($p < 10^{-4}$, Fig. 5). This suggests that decreased stability of [3 H]-BK-receptor complex very likely contributes to the reduction in the receptor apparent affinity observed with aspirin.

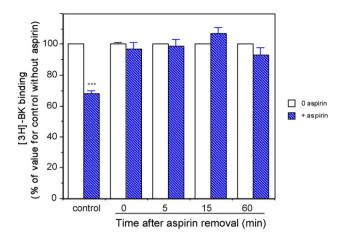


Fig. 3 – Reversibility of aspirin effect on [3 H]-BK binding in intact cells. Cells exposed (filled bars) or not (open bars) 30 min at 25 $^\circ$ C to 10 mM aspirin were either immediately incubated (control) for 20 min with 4 nM [3 H]-BK in the absence or presence of aspirin, respectively, or washed with aspirin-free solution then incubated for 0–60 min with aspirin-free solution before assaying [3 H]-BK binding in the absence of aspirin. The specific binding obtained in aspirin-treated cells was expressed as percent of the specific binding obtained in the corresponding nontreated cells (510 \pm 21 fmol of [3 H]-BK/mg of protein). $^{\cdots}$ p < 0.001 compared to control value without aspirin (unpaired Student's t test).

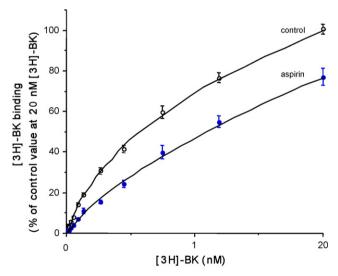


Fig. 4 – "Concentration-dependence" of [3 H]-BK binding in the absence or presence of aspirin in intact cells. [3 H]-BK binding was measured after 20 min incubation at 25 $^\circ$ C with eleven different concentrations of [3 H]-BK (0.1–20 nM) in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin. In each experiment, specific binding was expressed as percent of the specific binding (915 \pm 150 fmol of [3 H]-BK/mg of protein) determined in the absence of aspirin with 20 nM [3 H]-BK.

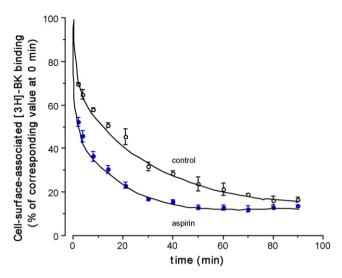


Fig. 5 – Aspirin promotes dissociation of [3 H]-BK-receptor complexes in intact cells. Specific binding fractions released in the medium and remaining associated to the cells were determined after a 20 min incubation at 25 $^\circ$ C with 4 nM [3 H]-BK in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin, followed by removal of non-bound [3 H]-BK, and incubation for the indicated times in the absence or presence of aspirin, respectively. The cell-associated specific binding was expressed as percent of the specific total binding (642 \pm 32 fmol of [3 H]-BK/mg of protein (control) and 309 \pm 12 fmol of [3 H]-BK/mg of protein (aspirin)). Effect of aspirin, $p < 10^{-4}$ (ANOVA).

3.3. Aspirin influences the cooperativity in ligand binding

We previously reported that unlabeled BK or the B2 receptor antagonist icatibant increased the dissociation rate of [3H]-BK-B₂ receptor complexes [9]. The experiments depicted in Fig. 6 were designed to examine whether aspirin interferes with the dissociating effect of these ligands. For this purpose, the dissociation of [3H]-BK-B2 receptor complexes (formed after 20 min incubation with 4 nM [3H]-BK) was measured after 10 min incubation with increasing concentrations of unlabeled BK or icatibant (0.05-500 nM) in the absence or presence of aspirin (10 mM). In both absence and presence of aspirin, the addition of unlabeled BK or icatibant resulted in a concentration-dependent increase in the dissociation of [3H]-BK-receptor complexes. However, a larger fraction of complexes remained in the presence of aspirin, indicating that unlabeled BK and icatibant are less potent in dissociating [3H]-BK-B₂ receptor complexes when aspirin is present.

 EC_{50} and Hill coefficients for BK and icatibant effects are presented in Table 1. EC_{50} values for both unlabeled BK and icatibant remained unchanged with aspirin. Hill coefficient of the dissociation curves did not change with aspirin in the case of BK, but was markedly reduced in the case of icatibant. This indicates that aspirin differentially influences the abilities of unlabeled BK and icatibant to dissociate [3 H]-BK-receptor complexes. Finally, it can be noted that, in absence of aspirin, the Hill coefficient for [3 H]-BK-B $_2$ complex dissociation was close to 2 for icatibant, and close to unity for BK.

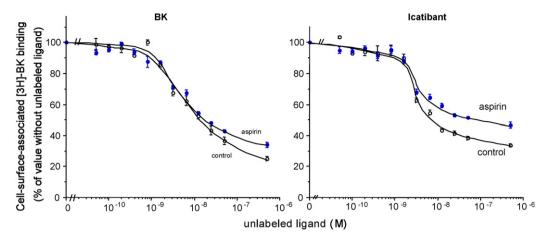


Fig. 6 – Aspirin affects unlabeled BK- and icatibant-promoted dissociations of [3 H]-BK-receptor complexes in intact cells. Specific binding fractions released in the medium and remaining associated to the cells were determined after a 20 min incubation at 25 $^{\circ}$ C with 4 nM [3 H]-BK in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin, followed by removal of non-bound [3 H]-BK and 10 min incubation with increasing concentrations of unlabeled BK (left panel) or icatibant (right panel) in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin, respectively. After calculation of the cell-associated specific binding as percent of the corresponding specific total binding, the results are given as percent of the value without unlabeled BK or icatibant (61.5 \pm 1.4% (control) and 46.8 \pm 1.0% (aspirin)).

3.4. Aspirin has no effect on the cell-surface organization of B₂ receptor molecules

To get insight into the molecular mechanism underlying the effect of aspirin on B_2 receptor binding properties, cells expressing N-terminally V5-tagged B_2 receptor were incubated without or with 10 mM aspirin, then without or with BK or icatibant (100 nM), as in binding experiments. Cell-surface receptor molecules were then immunoprecipitated and resolved on Western blot with anti-V5 antibody. As reported previously [11], the receptor was found as dimers (D) and two species of monomers, glycosylated on two (M2) or all of three (M3) extra-cellular potential N-glycosylation sites of the receptor (Fig. 7). Aspirin, BK or icatibant alone had no effect on the cell-surface organization of the B_2 receptor molecules.

Table 1 – Effects of aspirin on the dissociation of [3 H]-BK-B₂ complexes induced by BK or icatibant in intact CHO cells

		Inducin	Inducing ligand	
		ВК	Icatibant	
EC50 (nM)	Control Aspirin	$5.8 \pm 1.2 \\ 6.7 \pm 1.2$	$\begin{aligned} 3.4 \pm 0.4 \\ 4.3 \pm 0.6 \end{aligned}$	
Hill coefficient	Control Aspirin	$\begin{array}{c} 0.97 \pm 0.02 \\ 0.97 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$	$\begin{aligned} 1.79 \pm 0.09^{***} \\ 0.97 \pm 0.01^{\S\S\S} \end{aligned}$	

Values are estimates of BK or icatibant concentrations for half-reduction of [3 H]-BK-B $_2$ complexes (EC50), and of the Hill coefficient governing the dissociation elicited by BK or icatibant. These values were obtained from non-linear regression plots of Fig. 6 data with the sigmoidal dose–response variable slope equation (Graph PadTM Prism software). $^{***}p < 0.001$, icatibant versus BK. $^{\$\$\$}p < 0.001$ aspirin versus corresponding control (unpaired Student's t test).

Aspirin had also no effect when combined with BK or icatibant, suggesting that it does not influence ligand binding by altering the oligomerization of the receptor molecules on the cell surface.

3.5. Aspirin has no effect on B_2 receptor coupling efficiency

To examine whether aspirin affects receptor coupling efficiency, BK binding and phospholipase C activity were determined in parallel in intact cells, in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin, by using the same concentrations range (0.1–20 nM) of [³H]-BK for binding study and unlabeled BK for phospholipase C assay. Data are presented in Fig. 8. The IPs production increased with [³H]-BK binding in both absence and presence of aspirin, but aspirin reduced the basal (no BK) phospholipase C activity. A similar relationship (inset) between receptor occupancy and phospholipase C activation was observed when the latter is expressed as the ratio between BK-stimulated and basal activities. This suggests that aspirin does not affect the ability of the receptor to transduce BK binding into phospholipase C activation.

Receptor coupling efficiency was also studied by parallel measurements of [3 H]-BK and [3 5S]-GTP $_{\gamma}$ S bindings. The experiments were performed without (basal condition) or with 4 nM unlabeled BK (stimulated condition) for [3 5S]-GTP $_{\gamma}$ S binding assay, and with 4 nM [3 H]-BK for [3 H]-BK binding assay. The data (Table 2) confirm that aspirin inhibits [3 H]-BK binding to B $_2$ receptor. They also show that interaction of BK with B $_2$ receptor resulted in an increase in [3 5S]-GTP $_{\gamma}$ S binding, which was of a lower magnitude when aspirin was present. It is worth noting that aspirin alone increased [3 5S]-GTP $_{\gamma}$ S binding, and the same result was also observed with membranes from non-transfected cells. This means that aspirin activates G protein(s) other than B $_2$ receptor-dependent G protein(s). The activation of such G

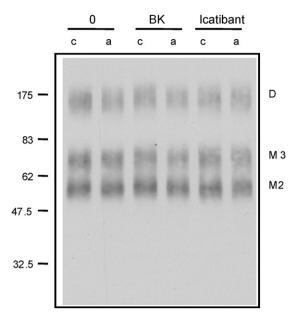


Fig. 7 – Aspirin does not influence cell-surface organization of B₂ receptor molecules. After incubating CHO-K1 cell lines expressing N-terminally V5-tagged B₂ receptor for 20 min at 25 °C with anti-V5 antibody in the absence (0) or presence of 100 nM unlabeled BK (BK) or icatibant (icatibant), and in the absence (c) or presence of 10 mM aspirin (a), cell-surface receptor molecules were immunoprecipitated with anti-V5 antibody, run on 10% (w/v) SDS-PAGE, and analyzed on Western blot with anti-V5 antibody. D corresponds to dimers, and M2 and M3 to di- and tri-glycosylated monomers, respectively. Molecular standard masses (in kDa) positions are indicated on the left side of the panel. The results are representative of experiments repeated three times.

protein(s) might be responsible for the reduced basal phospholipase C activity observed in intact cells treated by aspirin. In any case, the ratio between the BK-dependent increase in [35 S]-GTP γ S binding and [3 H]-BK binding did not vary in the presence of aspirin, supporting the conclusion that aspirin does not impair B $_{2}$ receptor coupling efficiency.

4. Discussion

The notion that GPCR function can be altered by compounds, termed allosteric modulators as opposed to orthosteric ligands that use the natural ligand binding site, has emerged during the last decade [12–14]. Allosteric modulators of GPCRs described so far are chemically very different in nature. However, there is high specificity regarding modulators acting on a given GPCR. Brucine and gallamine, are active on muscarinic acetylcholine receptors [22–24]. Amiloride is active on dopamine receptors, α -adrenergic receptors and adenosine receptors [25–29] whereas oleamide is active on 5-hydroxy-tryptamine receptor [30]. We found that none of these compounds influenced the human B2 receptor (data not

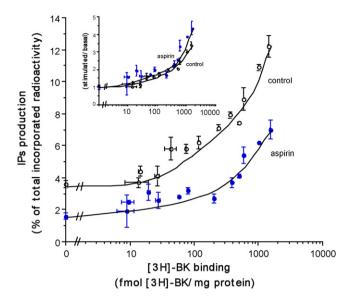


Fig. 8 – Aspirin does not alter B₂ receptor coupling efficiency in intact CHO-K1 cells expressing B₂ receptor. In each experiment, phospholipase C activity (ordinates) and [3 H]-BK binding (abscissa) were measured in parallel, after 15 min incubation of the cells with the same increasing unlabeled BK (phospholipase C) and [3 H]-BK (binding) concentrations (0.1–20 nM). Inset: inositol phosphates production was expressed as the ratio between the stimulated production and the corresponding basal production (3.6 \pm 0.2% for control and 1.6 \pm 0.2% for aspirin).

shown). By contrast, aspirin was able to influence the ligand binding properties of this receptor.

All experiments of the present work were performed in intact cells pre-treated for 30 min with sucrose to prevent receptor internalization [9,18], or on purified cell plasma membranes, to study receptor molecules located on cell surface. Aspirin decreased the stability of BK–receptor complexes resulting in a decrease in the apparent affinity of the receptor for BK. No effect of aspirin was observed in cells previously exposed to aspirin, if BK binding was monitored in the absence of aspirin. This can either mean that aspirin effect on BK binding is rapidly reversible, or that the receptor needs to bind BK to be in an aspirin-sensitive configuration. Association kinetic data are rather in favor of the second hypothesis, because the effect of aspirin developed progressively with time during BK binding, even after a long 30 min pre-exposure of cells to aspirin.

These results are consistent with aspirin being an allosteric modifier of the B_2 receptor. However, it may be difficult to distinguish on the basis of kinetic data mechanisms based on allosteric interaction from those related to chemical modification. Thus, the compound SCH-202676 firstly described as an allosteric modulator of a variety of structurally distinct GPCRs, was then suggested to be rather a protein modifier influencing GPCRs function via thiol modification [31,32]. Aspirin has been found to be active, besides the bradykinin B_2 receptor, on the endothelin ETA receptor but not on the

Table 2 – Effects of aspirin on [35 S]-GTP γ S binding to membranes of cells expressing the B_2 receptor

	Control	Aspirin		
Cells expressing human B ₂ receptors				
[³ H]-BK binding (A)	477 ± 53	$228\pm39^{^{\ast}}$		
[³⁵ S]-GTPγS binding				
BK-dependent (B)	174 ± 13	$98\pm14^{^*}$		
B/A	$\textbf{0.36} \pm \textbf{0.04}$	$\textbf{0.42} \pm \textbf{0.05}$		
Basal	363 ± 15	446 ± 30		
Non-transfected cells				
[35S]-GTP γ S binding, basal	$\textbf{331} \pm \textbf{13}$	$504\pm16^{^{**}}$		

[35S]-GTPγS and [3H]-BK binding assays were performed at 25 °C in parallel using the same membrane preparations. [3H]-BK binding (A) was measured after incubating the membranes for 35 min with 4 nM [³H]-BK in the absence or presence of 10 mM aspirin. For [³⁵S]-GTPyS binding assay, membranes were incubated without or with aspirin for 20 min in the absence (basal condition) or presence (stimulated condition) of 4 nM BK, then for 15 min after adding [35S]-GTPγS to determine the BK-dependent [35S]-GTPγS binding (B), i.e. the difference between the stimulated and basal [35S]-GTPγS bindings. Basal binding of [35 S]-GTP $_{\gamma}$ S in the absence and presence of aspirin was also determined using membranes from nontransfected CHO-K1 cells. Values for the bindings (expressed in fmol/mg protein) and for the ratio B/A are the means \pm S.E.M. of three independent experiments, each performed in triplicate. p < 0.05, p < 0.01, versus corresponding control value (unpaired) Student's t test).

endothelin ETB receptor, the purinergic P2Y2 receptor or the neuromedin B-preferring bombesin receptor [15]. Moreover, the present study documents that the effect of aspirin is quickly reversible upon drug removal, and is not observed after a 30 min pre-incubation with the receptor followed by aspirin withdrawal before BK addition. These features are not consistent with aspirin acting as a chemical modifier of GPCRs, or as a membrane modifier, and are rather suggestive of an allosteric type of mechanism.

Besides the effect of aspirin described here, other allosteric modifications can influence BK binding to the B₂ receptor. One of these allosteric modifications results from the interaction of the receptor with specific G proteins [9], as for any GPCR [12]. In addition, BK itself or the specific B2 receptor antagonist icatibant trigger interactions between receptor molecules that accelerate the dissociation of [3H]-BK-B2 complexes [9]. To try to gain further mechanistic insight into the allosteric regulation of B2 receptor we examined whether the aspirin- and the ligand-triggered modulations of the complex dissociation interfere with each other. We found that aspirin reduced the potency of BK or icatibant for destabilizing pre-formed [3H]-BK-B2 receptor complexes. Interestingly, the kinetics of aspirin effect on either BK or icatibant actions differed. Indeed, the Hill coefficient describing the ligand-induced dissociation of [3H]-BK-B2 receptor complexes did not change with aspirin for BK, but was reduced in the case of icatibant. This observation is likely to be related to the fact that BK and icatibant act via distinct binding sites on the B2 receptor [6,33,34], so that aspirin may differentially interfere with the dissociating effect of these two ligands. The concept that BK and icatibant act via distinct sites is further supported in the present study by the difference observed, in the absence of aspirin, in the Hill coefficients for BK and icatibant-induced

[3H]-BK-B₂ complex dissociations. Hill coefficient was indeed close to 2 for icatibant, and close to 1 for BK, consistent with the fact that icatibant may either occupy one or two sites, whereas BK can only occupy one site when inducing [3H]-BK-B₂ receptor dissociation. The modulations of BK binding induced by orthosteric ligands or by aspirin occur without apparent modification in the arrangement of the B2 receptor molecules into dimers and monomers. After immunoprecipitation and Western blot, the receptor is found on the cell surface as both dimers and monomers. Assuming that there is only one BK binding site on each receptor molecule, the observation of BK-induced BK-B2 receptor complex dissociation implies that BK reduces the affinity of the occupied receptors via binding to free receptors. This could be achieved within the dimers by trans-conformational change [35,36] whereas separated monomers need to interact with each other for the establishment of the required conformational change. For icatibant-induced BK release, similar mechanisms may be involved. But, it is also possible that icatibant-induced BK release occurs in individual monomers, since icatibant acts on a site distinct from that of BK. The same mechanistic hypotheses as for icatibant can be made for aspirin. In addition, aspirin may interact directly with the receptor or via associated proteins such as G proteins, even though aspirin does not modify the transduction of BK binding into phospholipase C activation. Aspirin may also interact with BK. In any case the study suggests the presence on the BK-B2 receptor complex of an allosteric site accommodating aspirin and having possibly alternate ligands of higher affinity.

Aspirin is widely used as an analgesic, anti-inflammatory and anti-thrombotic agent acting by means of cyclooxygenasedependent as well as cyclooxygenase-independent mechanisms [37,38]. The proinflammatory and pain promoting effects of BK involves the B_2 and B_1 receptors [2,6,7]. Since we found that aspirin reduces the affinity of B2 receptor for BK, it is conceivable that the anti-B₂ receptor effect of the drug participates in the analgesic and anti-inflammatory effect of aspirin although this is speculative. It can be pointed out that the anti-BK effect was observed for aspirin concentrations of 1 mM and above (Fig. 1). The anti-inflammatory effect of aspirin requires achieving plasma acetylsalicylate and salicylate concentrations of 1-3 mM, while the anti-thrombotic effect occurs at lower drug concentration [39,40,41]. The comparison of these concentrations with those inhibiting BK binding in our experimental conditions, makes the anti-BK effect of aspirin of putative therapeutic relevance in inflammation. In thrombosis prevention however, while inhibition of BK action can be expected to be detrimental, aspirin concentration may be too low for triggering anti-B2 receptor effect.

Conflicts of interest

The authors state no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by INSERM, by the European Vascular Genomics Network, a Network of Excellence supported by the European Community's sixth Framework Program for Research Priority 1 "Life sciences, genomics and biotechnology for health" (Contract no. LSHM-CT-2003-503254), and by the National Research Agency (grant ANR 05-PCOD-027).

We thank Annie Depardieu, Florence Bordu and Julie Perruca for their assistance in preparing the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bhoola KD, Figueroa CD, Worthy K. Bioregulation of kinins: kallikreins, kininogens, and kininases. Pharmacol Rev 1992;44:1–80.
- [2] Wang H, Kohno T, Amaya F, Brenner GJ, Ito N, Allchorne A, et al. Bradykinin produces pain hypersensitivity by potentiating spinal cord glutamatergic synaptic transmission. J Neurosci 2005;25:7986–92.
- [3] Meneton P, Bloch-Faure M, Hagege AA, Ruetten H, Huang W, Bergaya S, et al. Cardiovascular abnormalities with normal blood pressure in tissue kallikrein-deficient mice. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2001;98:2634–9.
- [4] Silvestre JS, Bergaya S, Tamarat R, Duriez M, Boulanger CM, Levy B. Proangiogenic effect of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition is mediated by the bradykinin B(2) receptor pathway. Circ Res 2001;89:678–83.
- [5] Azizi M, Boutouyrie P, Bissery A, Agharazii M, Verbeke F, Stern N, et al. Arterial and renal consequences of partial genetic deficiency in tissue kallikrein activity in humans. J Clin Invest 2005;115(3):588–91.
- [6] Leeb-Lundberg LM, Marceau F, Muller-Esterl W, Pettibone DJ, Zuraw BL. International union of pharmacology. XLV. Classification of the kinin receptor family: from molecular mechanisms to pathophysiological consequences. Pharmacol Rev 2005;57:27–77.
- [7] Calixto JB, Cabrini DA, Ferreira J, Campos MM. Kinins in pain and inflammation. Pain 2000;87:1–5.
- [8] Regoli D, Barabe J. Pharmacology of bradykinin and related kinins. Pharmacol Rev 1980;32:1–46.
- [9] Pizard A, Marchetti J, Allegrini J, Alhenc-Gelas F, Rajerison RM. Negative cooperativity in the human bradykinin B2 receptor. J Biol Chem 1998;273:1309–15.
- [10] Pizard A, Blaukat A, Michineau S, Dikic I, Muller-Esterl W, Alhenc-Gelas F, et al. Palmitoylation of the human bradykinin B2 receptor influences ligand efficacy. Biochemistry 2001;40:15743–51.
- [11] Michineau S, Alhenc-Gelas F, Rajerison RM. Human bradykinin B2 receptor sialylation and N-glycosylation participate with disulfide bonding in surface receptor dimerization. Biochemistry 2006;45:2699–707.
- [12] Christopoulos A, Kenakin T. G protein-coupled receptor allosterism and complexing. Pharmacol Rev
- [13] Soudijn W, Van Wijngaarden I, AP IJ. Allosteric modulation of G protein-coupled receptors: perspectives and recent developments. Drug Discov Today 2004;9:752–8.
- [14] May LT, Leach K, Sexton PM, Christopoulos A. Allosteric modulation of G protein-coupled receptors. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 2007;47:1–51.
- [15] Talbodec A, Berkane N, Blandin V, Breittmayer JP, Ferrari E, Frelin C, et al. Aspirin and sodium salicylate inhibit endothelin ETA receptors by an allosteric type of mechanism. Mol Pharmacol 2000;57:797–804.
- [16] Pizard A, Blaukat A, Muller-Esterl W, Alhenc-Gelas F, Rajerison RM. Bradykinin-induced internalization of the human B2 receptor requires phosphorylation of three

- serine and two threonine residues at its carboxy tail. J Biol Chem 1999;274:12738–47.
- [17] Michineau S, Muller L, Pizard A, Alhenc-Gelas F, Rajerison RM. N-linked glycosylation of the human bradykinin B2 receptor is required for optimal cell-surface expression and coupling. Biol Chem 2004;385:49–57.
- [18] Heuser JE, Anderson RG. Hypertonic media inhibit receptormediated endocytosis by blocking clathrin-coated pit formation. J Cell Biol 1989;108:389–400.
- [19] Hilairet S, Foord SM, Marshall FH, Bouvier M. Protein-protein interaction and not glycosylation determines the binding selectivity of heterodimers between the calcitonin receptor-like receptor and the receptor activity-modifying proteins. J Biol Chem 2001;276:29575–81.
- [20] Scatchard G. The attraction of proteins for small molecules and ions. Ann NY Acad Sci 1949;51:660–72.
- [21] Hill AV. A new mathematical treatment of changes of ionic concentration in muscle and nerve under the action of electric currents, with a theory as to their mode of excitation. J Physiol 1910;40:190–224.
- [22] Birdsall NJ, Farries T, Gharagozloo P, Kobayashi S, Lazareno S, Sugimoto M. Subtype-selective positive cooperative interactions between brucine analogs and acetylcholine at muscarinic receptors: functional studies. Mol Pharmacol 1999:55:778–86.
- [23] Avlani V, May LT, Sexton PM, Christopoulos A. Application of a kinetic model to the apparently complex behavior of negative and positive allosteric modulators of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 2004;308:1062–72.
- [24] May LT, Lin Y, Sexton PM, Christopoulos A. Regulation of M2 muscarinic acetylcholine receptor expression and signaling by prolonged exposure to allosteric modulators. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 2005;312:382–90.
- [25] Hoare SR, Coldwell MC, Armstrong D, Strange PG. Regulation of human D(1), d(2(long)), d(2(short)), D(3) and D(4) dopamine receptors by amiloride and amiloride analogues. Br J Pharmacol 2000;130:1045–59.
- [26] Schetz JA. Allosteric modulation of dopamine receptors. Mini Rev Med Chem 2005;5:555–61.
- [27] Leppik RA, Birdsall NJ. Agonist binding and function at the human alpha(2A)-adrenoceptor: allosteric modulation by amilorides. Mol Pharmacol 2000;58:1091–9.
- [28] Leppik RA, Mynett A, Lazareno S, Birdsall NJ. Allosteric interactions between the antagonist prazosin and amiloride analogs at the human alpha(1A)-adrenergic receptor. Mol Pharmacol 2000;57:436–45.
- [29] Gao ZG, Kim SK, Ijzerman AP, Jacobson KA. Allosteric modulation of the adenosine family of receptors. Mini Rev Med Chem 2005;5:545–53.
- [30] Thomas EA, Carson MJ, Neal MJ, Sutcliffe JG. Unique allosteric regulation of 5-hydroxytryptamine receptormediated signal transduction by oleamide. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1997;94:14115–9.
- [31] Fawzi AB, Macdonald D, Benbow LL, Smith-Torhan A, Zhang H, Weig BC, et al. SCH-202676: an allosteric modulator of both agonist and antagonist binding to G protein-coupled receptors. Mol Pharmacol 2001;59:30–7.
- [32] Lewandowicz AM, Vepsalainen J, Laitinen JT. The 'allosteric modulator' SCH-202676 disrupts G-protein-coupled receptor function via sulphydryl-sensitive mechanisms. Br J Pharmacol 2006;147:422–9.
- [33] Herzig MC, Leeb-Lundberg LM. The agonist binding site on the bovine bradykinin B2 receptor is adjacent to a sulfhydryl and is differentiated from the antagonist binding site by chemical cross-linking. J Biol Chem 1995;270:20591–8.
- [34] Jarnagin K, Bhakta S, Zuppan P, Yee C, Ho T, Phan T, et al. Mutations in the B2 bradykinin receptor reveal a different

- pattern of contacts for peptidic agonists and peptidic antagonists. J Biol Chem 1996;271:28277–86.
- [35] Mesnier D, Banères JL. Cooperative conformational changes in a G-protein-coupled receptor dimer, the leukotriene B₄ receptor BLT1. J Biol Chem 2004;279:49664–70.
- [36] Urizar E, Montanelli L, Loy T, Bonomi M, Swillens S, Gales C, et al. Glycoprotein hormone receptors: link between receptor homodimerization and negative cooperativity. EMBO J 2005;24:1954–64.
- [37] Amin AR, Attur MG, Pillinger M, Abramson SB. The pleiotropic functions of aspirin: mechanisms of action. Cell Mol Life Sci 1999;56:305–12.
- [38] Amann R, Peskar BA. Anti-inflammatory effects of aspirin and sodium salicylate. Eur J Pharmacol 2002;447:1–9.
- [39] Ali M, Mc Donald JWD, Thiessen JJ, Coates PE. Plasma acetylsalicylate and platelet cyclooxygenase activity following plain and enteric-coated aspirin. Stroke 1980;119– 213
- [40] Kopp E, Ghosh S. Inhibition of NF-kappa B by sodium salicylate and aspirin. Science 1994;265:956–9.
- [41] Borthwick GM, Johnson AS, Partington M, Burn J, Wilson R, Arthur HM. Therapeutic levels of aspirin and salicylate directly inhibit a model of angiogenesis through a Coxindependent mechanism. FASEB J 2006;20:2009–16.