

Release and inhibitory effects of prostaglandin D₂ in guinea pig urinary bladder and the role of urothelium



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ABSTRACT

Background: While studying a urothelium-derived inhibitory factor in guinea pig urinary bladders we observed considerable release of prostanoids, including PGD₂-like activity. The present study was carried out to identify the prostanoids and to study their roles in modulating guinea pig urinary bladder motility.

Methods: Release of PGE₂ and PGD₂ in isolated guinea pig urinary bladder preparations was analyzed by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) combined with bioassay on bladder strips. Isolated urothelium-intact (UI) or -denuded (UD) bladder strips were subjected to electrical field stimulation (EFS) and applications of PGE₂ and PGD₂.

Results: A resting release of 95 ± 9 ($n = 5$) ng g tissue⁻¹ h⁻¹ PGE₂-like activity and 210 ± 34 ($n = 4$) ng g tissue⁻¹ h⁻¹ PGD₂-like activity was found, where PGD₂-like was subject to marked spontaneous inactivation during isolation. Prostanoids release was decreased by 70–90% by the cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor diclofenac in UI preparations. Urothelium removal decreased prostanoids release by more than 90%. PGE₂ increased basal tone and spontaneous contractions, whereas PGD₂ had little or no effect on these. Exogenous PGE₂ enhanced and PGD₂ inhibited contractile responses to EFS, exogenous acetylcholine- and ATP, whereas PGD₂ caused marked dose-dependent inhibition. PGE₂ and PGD₂ effects were more pronounced in diclofenac-treated UD tissues.

Conclusions: PGD₂ and PGE₂ are released from guinea pig bladder urothelium and PGD₂ has inhibitory effects on bladder motility, mainly through a postjunctional action on smooth muscle responsiveness.

General significance: The release and inhibitory effects merit further studies in relation to normal biological function as well as overactive bladder syndrome.

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1. Introduction

Overactive bladder (OAB) syndrome is a clinical condition with symptoms such as urgency to void, urge incontinence, usually with frequency and nocturia [1]. Poor understanding of the underlying mechanisms and incomplete knowledge of bladder motility regulation is one reason behind ineffective treatment and management [24]. The urothelium serves as a barrier to separate underlying tissues from urine but it has come into focus also as a source of stimulatory and inhibitory mediators that could modulate bladder motility [8,10]. Bladder contractile motility has been found to be activated by two major neurotransmitters, acetylcholine and ATP, released from autonomic nerves in the bladder smooth muscle where the ATP-mediated

part makes out the atropine-resistant component [8,11,25,54]. In addition neuropeptides from sensory nerves and ATP released from the urothelium can stimulate the bladder to contract [47,48]. The urothelium has also been shown to decrease the action of the contractile neuropeptide substance P [34] and this has led to investigations into whether the urothelium might release a relaxant or inhibitory factor. A seminal paper showed the existence of a diffusible urothelium-derived inhibitory factor (UDIF) in pig urinary bladder by using sandwich-type bioassay experiments [26]. Urothelium-dependent inhibitory influences, suggestedly due to the release of UDIF, were also observed in mouse urinary bladder by using electrophysiology [38] and quantitative analysis of contractile responses in human urinary bladder [12]. In addition to this, studies using co-axial close-proximity bioassay have demonstrated the release of a non-urothelium dependent relaxing factor in rat urinary bladder [9,21,22]. Thus, when considering regulation of bladder motility both excitatory and inhibitory as well as relaxing factors have to be considered as mediators.

Disturbed release of mediators within the urinary bladder wall including the urothelium is among candidate mechanisms in OAB. Prostanoids make up one such group that has roles in modulating the

Abbreviations: ACh, acetylcholine; EFS, electrical field stimulation; HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography; OAB, overactive bladder syndrome; UD, urothelium-denuded; UI, urothelium-intact; UDIF, urothelium-derived inhibitory factor

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detrusor motility [42]. It is well established that these prostanoids are produced locally within the bladder smooth muscle and mucosa in the human and other species [3,5,17,29]. Their production increases under various stimuli under pathological conditions such as bladder outlet obstruction [35,41], spinal cord injury induced bladder overactivity [36] and inflammation [43,50,51]. The production of prostanoids also responds to physical stretch [18,28] and electrical field stimulation (EFS) of urinary bladders strips in vitro [4].

Although the prostanoid effects differ slightly between different species, prostaglandin E and F series and thromboxanes contract the bladder strips and increase the spontaneous activities during in vitro experiments [2,6,40,49]. In in vivo experiments, urodynamic tests showed an increased detrusor pressure and reduced bladder capacity after intravesical administration of prostaglandin E₂ [27,45,46].

In addition to the release of the prostaglandins E and F series, some release studies also showed significant release of PGD₂ from chopped or minced normal rat urinary bladder [32,52] and from guinea pig urinary bladder after ovalbumin sensitization or dietary fat supplementation [43,52]. Whether PGD₂ also plays a role in regulating bladder muscle contractility has not been reported [42]. In the present experiments, initiated during a chemical search for a urothelium-derived inhibitory factor, we wished to measure the release of biologically active compounds from the urinary bladder and in addition to PGE₂ found a significant PGD₂-like release which was urothelium-derived. We found PGD₂ to have a potent and powerful inhibitory modulatory effect on guinea pig detrusor contractile responses.

2. Methods

2.1. Tissue preparation

The experiments were approved by the Stockholm North local animal ethics committee (Dnr N148/08, N178/11). All animals were used and cared for in accordance with EEC/EU guidelines (Directive 86/609/EEC and Directive 2010/63/EU) on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes. Guinea pigs of either sex weighing 350 to 550 g were anesthetized and exsanguinated. The abdominal aorta was perfused with warm saline 30–40 mL to achieve blood-free tissues. Two kinds of preparations were made. First, for the release experiments, the bladder was spirally cut into 2–3 cm long strips and nylon threads were tied to both ends. Second, for bioassay and pharmacological studies, one single bladder dome was cut into several 8 × 2 mm strips. These strips (6 to 8 from each animal) were tied at both ends with thin cotton threads. In some experiments, the bladder urothelium was removed as much as possible by fine dissection with iris scissors and forceps under the microscope. Preparations were placed in a storage bath for 30 min in Tyrode's solution (136.9 mM NaCl, 4.8 mM KCl, 23.8 mM NaHCO₃, 0.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.4 mM NaH₂PO₄, 2.5 mM CaCl₂, and 5.5 mM glucose) aerated with 5% CO₂ in O₂.

2.2. Superfusion and collection of the superfusate of the urinary bladder

The superfusion system consisted of a water-jacketed superfusion chamber maintained at 37 °C. The chamber was preceded by a thermostated 2 × 35 cm³ Sep-Pak t C₁₈ cartridge (Waters Inc., Milford, MA, USA) through which aerated (5% CO₂ in O₂) Tyrode's solution was pumped at 1.5 mL min⁻¹ by a peristaltic pump and then led onto the urothelium-intact or urothelium-denuded tissue via a suspending nylon ligature. This was connected to an isometric transducer (FT03, Grass Technologies, Warwick, RI, USA), and the initial tension of the bladder was adjusted to 10 mN. The superfusate was for 60 min collected as 15 mL fractions in ice-cold test tubes with acetic acid (2% final) for HPLC analysis as per section 2.3, whereafter tissue wet weight was determined at the end of each experiment. In sets of experiments, diclofenac (10⁻⁷ M) was added to the superfusing solution in order to inhibit prostanoid production, or the urothelium was removed as described above.

In these experiments samples from 3 tissues were pooled for each assay, due to the low amount of bioactive material released.

2.3. Separation and purification of superfusate

2.3.1. Concentration and initial separation by gradient elution (1stHPLC)

The collected cold superfusate was filtered through a Nylon filter (Millex-HN 0.45 µm; Millipore) and directly applied by 7.5 mL repeated injections to a reversed phase HPLC column (ReproSil-Pur C₁₈ AQ, 150 mm × 8 mm, particle size 5 µm; Dr Maisch GmbH, Ammerbuch-Entringen, Germany) in a total of 14 injections before each gradient HPLC run. The gradient profile was from water to 50% methanol in 10 min, 50 to 80% methanol in 60 min and 80 to 100% methanol in 10 min with 1% acetic acid throughout. The flow rate was 1.6 mL min⁻¹. The eluate was continuously monitored at 265 nm and 290 nm by two separate UV detectors in series with a scanning diode array UV absorbance detector (Waters 991, monitoring 190–500 nm at 5 s intervals). The eluate from the HPLC was collected in 1.5 min fractions which were dried by overnight vacuum centrifugation and then immediately bioassayed on bladder smooth muscle preparations or analyzed further in a second step of HPLC. Standards of PGE₂ and PGD₂ were analyzed in the HPLC system for the comparison of retention times (see below).

2.3.2. Purification and isolation by isocratic reversed phase chromatography (2ndHPLC)

The second purification step was by reversed phase HPLC in isocratic elution mode, using a Kromasil C₁₈ column (Kromasil 100, 150 mm × 2 mm, particle size 5 µm; Dr Maisch GmbH) according to a published method [33]. The mobile phase was 36% acetonitrile and 1% acetic acid at a flow rate of 0.45 mL min⁻¹. UV absorbance was monitored at 290 nm by a single wavelength detector and the scanning Waters diode array detector. Fractions (0.5 min) were freeze-dried overnight and then immediately bioassayed on bladder preparations. For calculations of recovery of prostaglandins in HPLC, external authentic standards of PGE₂ (20 nmol) and PGD₂ (5 nmol) were either injected separately or mixed and applied together into HPLC and subjected to the same procedures as biological samples. Similar recoveries were obtained by the two methods of external standards introduction.

2.4. Bioassay of superfusate fractions from the HPLC

Urothelium-denuded bladder strips were mounted vertically in 3.5 mL organ baths with one end fixed to a hook at the bottom of the bath and the top end connected to an isometric transducer, and initial tension was adjusted to 10 mN. EFS was applied by means of two 1 cm platinum electrodes in the walls of the organ baths (50 V, single pulses of 0.2 ms every 30 s). Evoked contractions were recorded by a computerized acquisition system (MP100, Biopac Systems, Goleta, CA, USA). When stable contractions developed, diclofenac 10⁻⁶ M was given and after 15 min the tissues were washed and then diclofenac was reapplied and was present throughout experiment. After 1 hour freeze-dried HPLC sample fractions, dissolved in 25–50 µL of distilled water, were applied and then PGE₂ and PGD₂ dose–response curves for calibration were obtained. Bioactivity was quantified by interpolation between the closest prostaglandin standards. In some experiments, differential assay was performed also on guinea pig colon longitudinal strips prepared as previously described [39].

2.5. Investigation of PGE₂ and PGD₂ bioactivities

2.5.1. Effects of PGD₂ and PGE₂ on EFS-induced contractile responses

The same type of preparations was used as in the bioassay experiments, but using both urothelium-denuded and -intact tissues. PGE₂ and PGD₂ were applied to the tissues cumulatively in half-log

increments from 10^{-9} M up to 3×10^{-7} M at 8–10 min intervals. Log concentration–response curves were constructed of the percentage comparison between control contractile responses before agonist and at 8 min of application of each agonist concentration. The prostaglandin applications were either done on naïve preparations or after pretreatment with diclofenac, where a wash was performed 15 min into the treatment, followed by reintroduction of diclofenac, to facilitate endogenous prostaglandin removal.

2.5.2. Effects of PGD₂ and PGE₂ on acetylcholine and ATP induced contractions

Urothelium-denuded similar bladder strips as used before were studied in the absence of EFS after pretreatment with diclofenac (10^{-6} M). When tissues were stable, acetylcholine (3×10^{-6} M) or ATP (10^{-5} M) were applied for 2.5 min and then washed out. The procedure was repeated at 10 min intervals until contractile responses were reproducible. Thereafter PGD₂ (10^{-8} M) or PGE₂ (10^{-8} M) were administered before the next acetylcholine or ATP application, to compare the contractile agonist effect in the absence and presence of PGE₂ and PGD₂, respectively.

2.6. Data analysis and chemicals

All the data are presented as mean \pm standard error mean (SEM). Student's *t*-test was used to compare prostaglandin release and to compare effect outcomes. A *p*-value less than 0.05 was considered significant. EC₅₀, IC₅₀ and maximal effect values were calculated by Prism software (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). Diclofenac, acetylcholine, ATP, tetrodotoxin, acetonitrile, acetic acid and methanol were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Prostaglandin E₂ and Prostaglandin D₂ were generous gifts from Professor Ernst Oliw, Uppsala. PGE₂ and PGD₂ stock solutions (10^{-3} M) were dissolved in ethanol and fresh further dilutions were made in water based medium by an initial further at least 10-fold dilution, and final organ bath concentration of ethanol was $\leq 0.03\%$, appropriate solvent controls having no effects on bladder strips.

3. Results

3.1. Release of prostaglandin E₂ and D₂

When superfusate was analyzed by reversed phase gradient HPLC a multitude of peaks appeared as determined by UV detection and it soon became clear that these to a large extent emanated from several non-biological sources such as buffer salts (despite these being of highest quality), oxygenation gas and tubings (data not shown). The most effective way to minimize this was the inclusion of a large preadsorbing C₁₈ column immediately before the superfused tissue (see *Methods*), and the resulting relatively quiet background pattern from a run with a sham tissue is shown in Fig. 1 (panel A, lower trace). When tissue superfusates were analyzed by HPLC several additional peaks appeared, and when the HPLC fractions were bioassayed an excitatory activity was observed (Fig. 2). The release of excitatory activity was sensitive to cyclo-oxygenase inhibition, appeared at 48 ± 2 min, and was without any evident accompanying UV absorbing peak. The retention time for the bioactivity coincided with that for prostaglandin E₂, and was later determined to coincide also with prostaglandin D₂ (Fig. 1).

Isocratic separation of major smooth muscle excitatory prostaglandins is feasible in a single run [33]. We therefore subjected excitatory fractions from the gradient elutions to this kind of separation (Fig. 1B). Subsequent bioassay on isolated urothelium-denuded bladder tissues revealed an excitatory activity corresponding to the retention time of authentic PGE₂ (Fig. 2, lower panel, and Fig. 3), and an inhibitory activity corresponding to the retention time of PGD₂ (Fig. 3). PGE₂ recovery after two steps of HPLC, determined by external standard, was 36.5% while

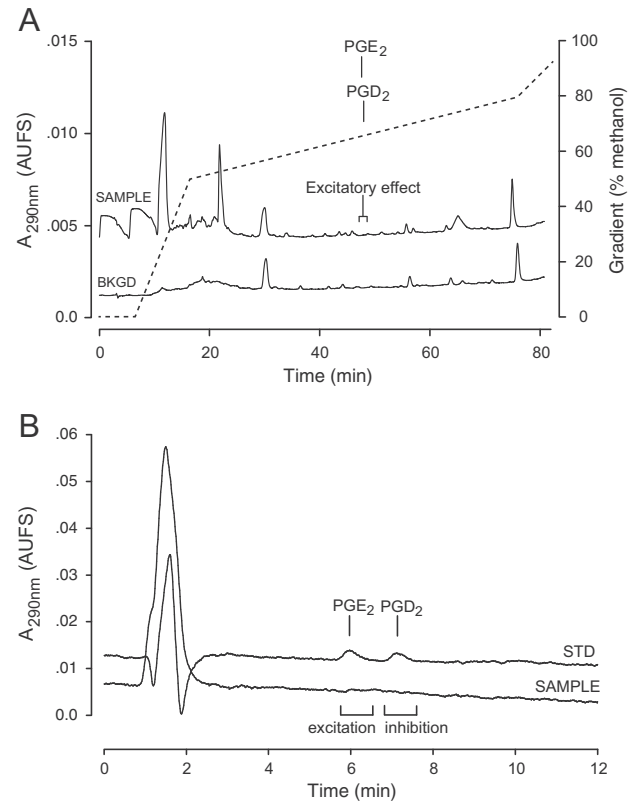


Fig. 1. Isolation and purification of excitatory and inhibitory prostaglandin-like bioactivity from guinea-pig urinary bladder. (A) HPLC chromatograms with absorbance detection at 290 nm showing elution profile of on-column accumulated material applied by repeated direct injections of guinea pig urinary bladder superfusate collected from an urothelium intact urinary bladder (SAMPLE) and elution profile of a run with a sham tissue (BKGD). Indicated are the retention times of standard PGE₂ and PGD₂ around 48 min under the same elution profile. Fractions of the HPLC eluent were bioassayed on contractile responses induced by electrical field stimulation of guinea pig urothelium-denuded detrusor, and excitatory activity was found to elute at 47.8–49.3 min. The stationary phase was a C₁₈ column (150 mm \times 8 mm, 5 μ m Reprosil-Pur C₁₈-AQ). The mobile phase started with A) 1% acetic acid in water to B) methanol with 1% acetic acid at a flow rate of 1.6 mL min⁻¹. The dotted line indicates the gradient used which started at 8 min and was from 0% B to 50% B in 10 min, from 50% B to 80% B in 60 min, 80% B to 100% B in 10 min. (B) Purification and isolation by isocratic reversed phase chromatography of excitatory activity fractions obtained at 48 min from first step HPLC as in panel A (SAMPLE) and compared with standard PGE₂ and PGD₂ (STD) monitored at 290 nm. The stationary phase was a C₁₈ column (150 mm \times 2 mm, 5 μ m Kromasil 100). The mobile phase was 36% acetonitrile and 1% acetic acid at a flow rate of 0.45 mL min⁻¹. Indicated two peaks in curve STD denote the retention times of standard PGE₂ and PGD₂. Excitatory and inhibitory activities, detected by bioassay in guinea pig detrusor, were eluted in the fractions as indicated in the tracing labeled SAMPLE.

the loss of PGD₂ amounted to almost 99%. After adjusting for recovery, the biological productions of PGE₂- and PGD₂-like bioactivity from urothelium-intact bladder tissue were 95 ± 9 ng g tissue⁻¹ h⁻¹ (*n* = 5) and 210 ± 34 ng g tissue⁻¹ h⁻¹ (*n* = 4), respectively. Removal of the urothelium abolished 95% of PGE₂-like production, reducing it to 4 ng g tissue⁻¹ h⁻¹. PGD₂-like bioactivity was by the present method undetectable in superfusates from urothelium-denuded bladder tissue. When superfusates from urothelium-intact bladders pretreated for 1 h with diclofenac (10^{-7} M) were carried through the two HPLC separations and bioassayed, the diclofenac pretreatment abolished more than 68% of PGE₂-like and 94% of PGD₂-like release, yielding 30 ng g tissue⁻¹ h⁻¹ (*n* = 3) PGE₂ and 12 ng g tissue⁻¹ h⁻¹ (*n* = 3) PGD₂ bioactivity (Fig. 4). The data thus indicated that cyclo-oxygenase in the urothelium was the major source of PGE₂- and PGD₂-like bioactivity, although a full blockade with diclofenac (10^{-7} M) was obviously not obtained. The use of a higher diclofenac concentration (10^{-6} M) resulted in column overload in the first HPLC separation step.

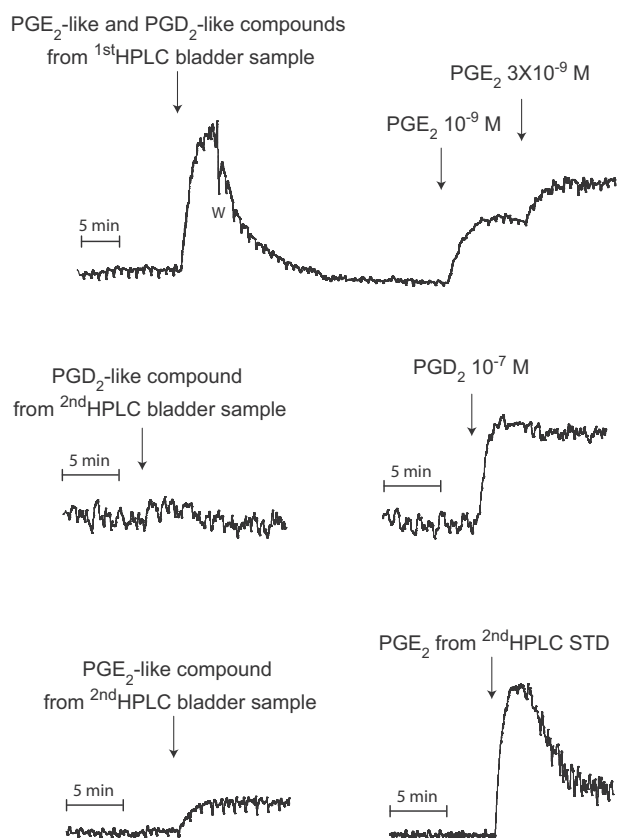


Fig. 2. Guinea pig isolated colon longitudinal muscle preparations. Original experimental recordings showing bioassay of superfusates from guinea pig bladder obtained as fractions from 1stHPLC (gradient elution) and further purified by the subsequent 2ndHPLC (isocratic elution), and for comparison effects of authentic PGE₂ and PGD₂ and external standard PGE₂ (STD) which had been subjected to the same two-step purification. PGE₂, PGD₂, PGE₂-like and PGD₂-like fractions of bladder released material all caused contractile responses on colon muscle strips. W denotes wash.

3.2. Effects of prostaglandin E₂ and D₂ on bladder contractile responses evoked by nerve stimulation

Electrical field stimulation induced regular contractions (Fig. 5) which were nerve-mediated as indicated by their abolishment with tetrodotoxin (5×10^{-7} M, data not shown), whereas concomitant spontaneous activity was unaffected by tetrodotoxin. The responses to EFS were partially cholinergic and $50 \pm 8\%$ ($n = 6$; $p < 0.01$) remained after atropine 10^{-6} M. The tissues were studied under 4 different conditions, urothelium-intact and -denuded, and in the absence or presence of the cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor diclofenac. In the urothelium-intact non-pretreated tissues the spontaneous activity was most evident, and the effects of prostaglandins were minor or sometimes even absent (Fig. 5A). In urothelium-denuded tissues the responses to prostaglandins became more evident, and even more so with the combination of urothelium removal and treatment with diclofenac. Thus, in urothelium-denuded tissues, the amplitudes of the contractile responses were reduced by about 25% by diclofenac (10^{-6} M) and spontaneous contractions decreased or ceased, especially if a tissue wash was introduced and diclofenac reapplied (Fig. 5B). Prostaglandin effects already in the nanomolar concentration range now appeared and were more pronounced than before pretreatment (Fig. 5B). Diclofenac 10^{-6} M combined with wash inhibited the contractile responses to EFS by $41 \pm 7\%$ in urothelium-intact tissues ($p < 0.01$; $n = 8$) and by $24 \pm 6\%$ in urothelium-denuded tissues ($p < 0.01$; $n = 9$). With PGE₂ three major effects were found. First, the EFS induced contraction amplitude was enhanced dose-dependently by PGE₂.

Second, the tissue tone was increased and, third, spontaneous contractions appeared or were increased. Under the same conditions PGD₂ markedly inhibited the nerve-induced contractile responses but had no effect on tone or spontaneous contractions (Fig. 5C). Dose-response curves were obtained (Fig. 6A and C) and when EC₅₀ values were calculated the pEC₅₀ for PGE₂ in UD + diclofenac treated tissues was 8.0 ± 0.38 ($n = 6$) and for the inhibitory effect by PGD₂ the pIC₅₀ was 7.6 ± 0.23 ($n = 8$). At PGE₂ 3×10^{-7} M and PGD₂ 3×10^{-7} M near-maximal effects were attained (Fig. 6).

An analysis was made for the 4 different conditions of prostaglandin applications by plotting the dose-response data for the different conditions, expressing the data as percent of the EFS-induced contractile response immediately before prostaglandin application (Fig. 6 and Supporting Information Table S2). Although a seemingly left-ward shift of the dose-response curves was obtained in urothelium-denuded diclofenac-treated tissues this was not statistically significant and was mainly a result of an upward shift of the dose-response curves as demonstrated by significantly increased maximal effects (Supporting Information Table S2).

3.3. Effects of prostaglandin E₂ and D₂ on acetylcholine and ATP induced contractions

In diclofenac-pretreated (10^{-6} M) urothelium-denuded bladder strips with EFS turned off, acetylcholine (3×10^{-6} M) caused contractions which were sustained until wash and were reproducible when repeated (Fig. 7). Application of PGE₂ (10^{-8} M) increased the tone and also enhanced the contractile response to exogenous acetylcholine (Fig. 7, upper trace). When PGD₂ (10^{-8} M) was similarly applied there was no effect on basal tone but responses to exogenous acetylcholine were significantly inhibited (Fig. 7, lower trace and Fig. 8A). ATP (10^{-5} M) elicited a fast twitch-contraction in the guinea pig urinary bladders treated with cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor, as reported by others [7]. PGE₂ (10^{-8} M) enhanced the ATP induced contraction while PGD₂ (10^{-8} M) inhibited the ATP-induced contractions, in similarity with their effects on the acetylcholine-induced contractile responses (Fig. 8B).

4. Discussion

The major findings of this study were that a urothelium-dependent release of prostaglandin like material from guinea-pig urinary bladder was found by combining HPLC separation with bioassay, that significant amounts of PGD₂-like activity was found when further purifying an excitatory PGE₂-like bioactivity, and that PGD₂ unexpectedly had potent inhibitory effects on bladder motility measured as effects on contractile responses to EFS. The observed effects of authentic PGD₂ suggest that it exerts its action mainly by a postjunctional inhibitory effect.

A major reason for performing the present studies was to investigate whether an inhibitory factor, UDIF, could be isolated by HPLC from the urinary bladder. The found inhibitory PGD₂-like bioactivity does not constitute the unknown bladder-derived relaxing factor nor UDIF, since these are not blocked by cyclo-oxygenase inhibition [22,26]. However, the developed method for on-column accumulation and gradient HPLC separation of bioactive material should be useful in further search for UDIF. Importantly, the finding in the second HPLC step of an inhibitory PGD₂-like bioactivity hidden within an excitatory PGE₂-like activity as observed in the first gradient HPLC underpins the need to perform bioassays in every step during purification of biologically active principles as in the search for UDIF.

When searching for bioactive principles it is very important to be able to minimize background interference in e.g. UV detection and other sensing methods. We were surprised to find that there were so many sources contributing to this background, including tubes and aeration gas. The solution we found effective, inclusion of a C₁₈ in-line column cleaning the superfusion fluid immediately before the releasing

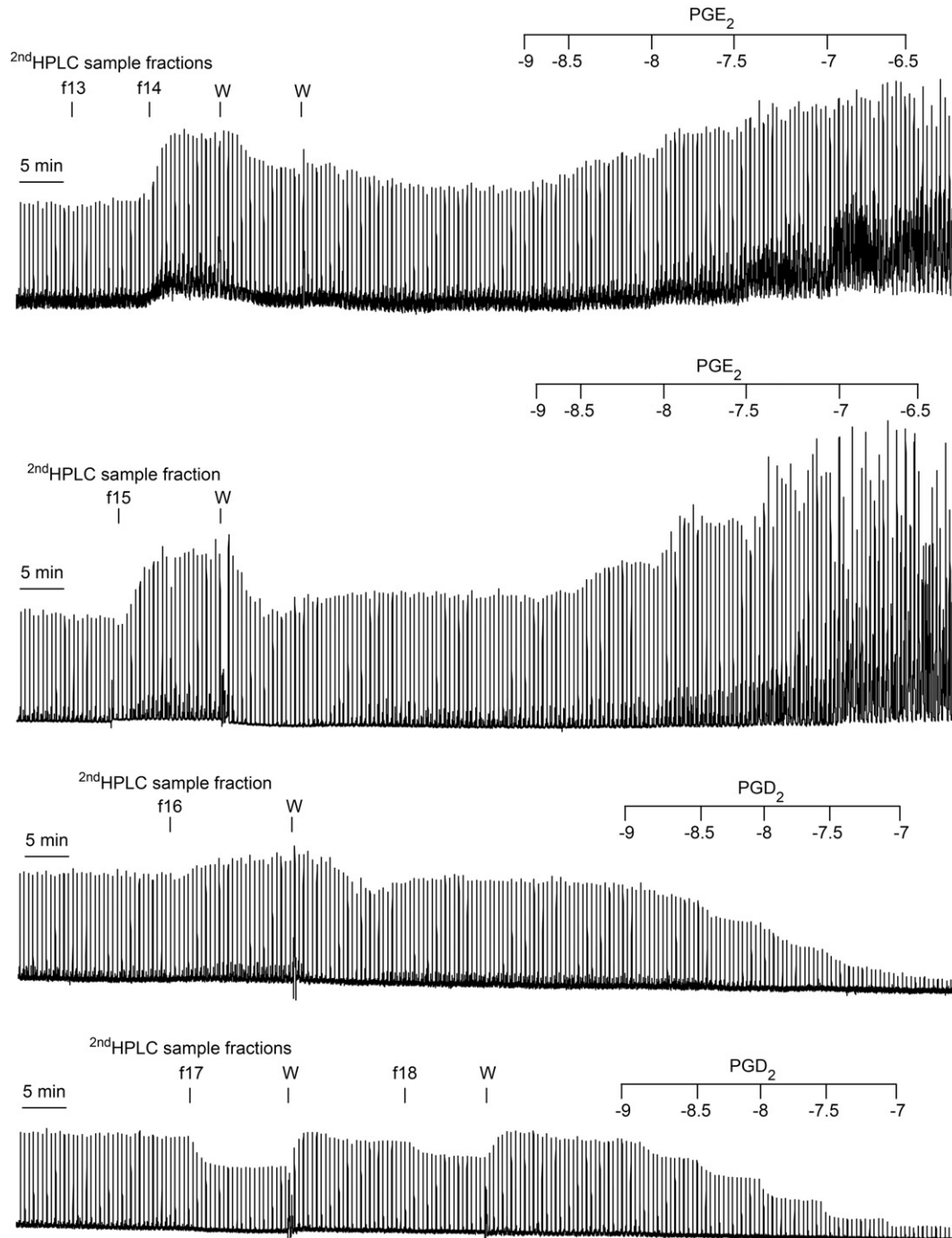


Fig. 3. Original experiments recordings showing bioassay results of guinea pig bladder release fractions after 2ndHPLC performed in parallel on 4 guinea pig urothelium-denuded bladder strips. All the bladder strips were pretreated with diclofenac 10^{-6} M, and were made to contract by electrical field stimulation (EFS). After bioassay of HPLC fractions, PGE₂ or PGD₂ cumulative dose–response curves were obtained on the same tissue. Authentic PGE₂ and HPLC fractions f14, f15, and f16 caused enhancement of EFS-induced contractions in bladder strips while PGD₂ and HPLC fractions f17 and f18 inhibited EFS-induced contractions. W denotes wash.

tissue, we believe might be useful in general in attempts on purification of bioactive compounds from isolated tissues.

The PGE₂- and PGD₂-like bioactivities found to be released from the urinary bladder we find strong reasons to consider identified as PGE₂ and PGD₂. First, they co-eluted in two different HPLC separations with authentic PGE₂ and PGD₂. Second, they had bioactivities on the urinary bladder identical with those of authentic PGE₂ and PGD₂. Third, in differential bioassay on guinea pig ileum and colon they behaved as PGD₂ and PGE₂ (Fig. 2 and Supporting Information Table S1). Fourth, their release was strongly inhibited by cyclo-oxygenase inhibition. Finally, the second isocratic HPLC separation we performed is identical with that previously

reported for the two prostaglandins [33] where, at the expected retention times, these prostaglandins were identified by mass-spectrometry.

When quantifying the bladder release of PGE₂-like and PGD₂-like activity it was evident that there was a large loss of PGD₂ during the isolation and separation process. Therefore the exact amount of release of PGD₂-like has to be interpreted with caution although we feel it reasonable to conclude that it was at least comparable to PGE₂ and safe to conclude it was derived from the urothelium (Fig. 4). Although we did not investigate it, one possible explanation for the low recovery of PGD₂ could be its spontaneous conversion by dehydration to PGJ₂ metabolites which have much less smooth muscle activities [23,44].

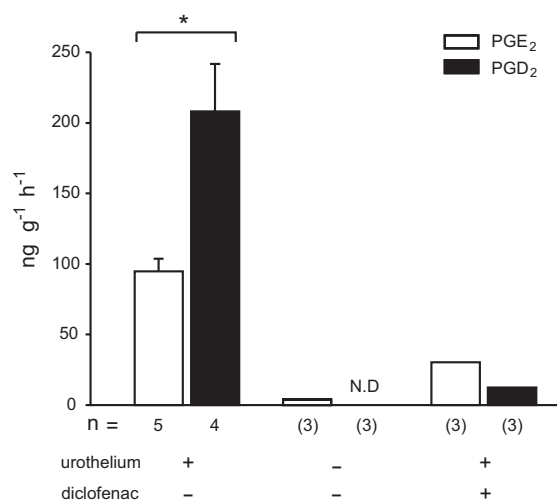


Fig. 4. Quantification of PGE₂- and PGD₂-like material released from urothelium-intact guinea pig urinary bladders determined by bioassay of pooled HPLC fractions with excitatory and inhibitory activity obtained after two-step purification as in Fig. 1 and corrected for recovery of external authentic prostaglandin standards. Denoted below x-axis is the presence and absence of urothelium and/or diclofenac treatment, respectively. Y-axis indicates how many ng PGE₂ or PGD₂ was produced per g guinea pig urinary bladder in 1 h. Data were acquired from three to five animals in each group. * denotes $p < 0.05$ by Student's *t*-test. In order to increase the detection, samples in the urothelium denuded and diclofenac treated groups were pooled from 3 guinea pig bladders, denoted by numbers within parentheses and therefore no error bar is shown in these two groups. N.D. indicates not detected.

Release of PGD₂ from urinary bladder tissue has been reported before. Thus, Saban et al. by GC/MS determination found a basal release of $9.8 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ from mucosa and $0.22 \text{ ng g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ from detrusor in minced bladder tissues from ovalbumin sensitized guinea pigs, and the release was in parity with the basal release of PGE₂ [43]. A comparable release was by LC/MS found in minced bladders from safflower-supplemented animals and the PGD₂ release was increased by allergen challenge [52]. In incubates of urothelium-denuded rat detrusor muscle PGD₂ release was by radioimmunoassay found at 10–15% of that of PGE₂ and to be stimulated by ATP application [32]. In comparison the present results show a significantly higher release of prostaglandins from intact superfused bladders, suggesting that the release is not due to tissue damage, and that also under these conditions the urothelium is the major source of released prostaglandins with PGD₂ being comparable to PGE₂. It is in agreement with a marked localization of cyclooxygenase 1 to the urothelium [17] and merits further investigations on the physiological conditions favoring PGD₂ release. Stretch and several autacoids have been shown to stimulate E and F prostaglandins release as well as thromboxane release in urinary bladders [8] and might be considered also in the regulation of PGD₂ production and release.

A major and novel finding was the inhibitory effects of PGD₂ on contractile responses in the guinea pig bladder. There might be several reasons why this effect has not been reported before. First, the effects of PGD₂ were quite minor when urothelium was present. The basal urothelium release of PGD₂ might desensitize the bladder smooth muscle to low concentrations of exogenously added PGD₂ and the urothelium might offer a penetration block towards the smooth muscle. The urothelium might also release proteins, which are known to enhance the breakdown of PGD₂ also in vitro [20,33,44], and therefore might inactivate low concentrations of added PGD₂. Second, PGD₂ at relatively high concentrations has been reported to contract human bladder detrusor muscle [40]. Therefore a concomitant excitatory effect by PGD₂, if present in the guinea pig bladder, might counteract the inhibitory effect and thereby minimizing it to the extent that it might be overlooked. This should be addressed by future studies.

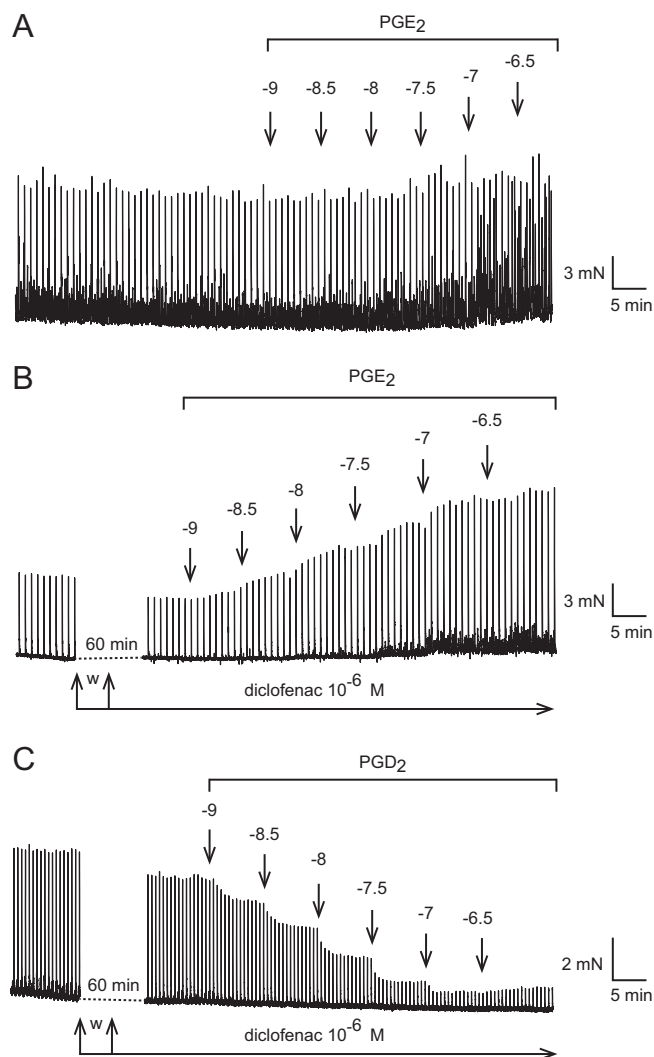


Fig. 5. Original experimental recordings of PGE₂ and PGD₂ effects on isometric contractile responses evoked by electrical field stimulation of guinea pig detrusor strips. Panel (A) shows a urothelium-intact, non-pretreated bladder strip tracing. Panels (B) and (C) are the recordings of urothelium-denuded diclofenac treated bladder strips, where diclofenac 10^{-6} M was applied to the tissues after stable contractions had developed and as indicated by arrows below tracings. 10 min after diclofenac application the tissues were washed and diclofenac 10^{-6} M was reapplied and remained throughout the experiments in panels (B) and (C). Note the inhibitory effect of diclofenac on contractile responses. Arrows above tracings indicate the administrations of PGE₂ and PGD₂ cumulatively in half-log increments from 10^{-9} M up to $3 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$.

The enhancing effect by PGE₂ on responses to nerve activation by electrical field stimulation as well as on responses to the exogenous neurotransmitters ATP and acetylcholine are well in agreement with previous studies, suggesting that the mechanism is an enhancing effect on responsiveness to stimulation at the postjunctional effector level [8,11,16]. The enhancing effect has been shown to involve a depolarizing effect at the smooth muscle membrane [16]. Presently, PGD₂ in addition to its inhibitory effect on contractile responses to nerve stimulation also inhibited the responses to the neurotransmitters acetylcholine and ATP. It can therefore be concluded that PGD₂ mainly acts by a postjunctional inhibitory effect. Whether this involves changes in membrane potential or changes in second messengers or both remain to be studied, but PGD₂ has been shown to have both calcium-, cyclic AMP- and phosphoinositide-dependent actions [53]. Additional prejunctional effects by PGE₂ and PGD₂ cannot be excluded from the present results.

Considerable interest has been given to the role of prostaglandins, and especially the excitatory role of PGE₂ and its receptors, in bladder

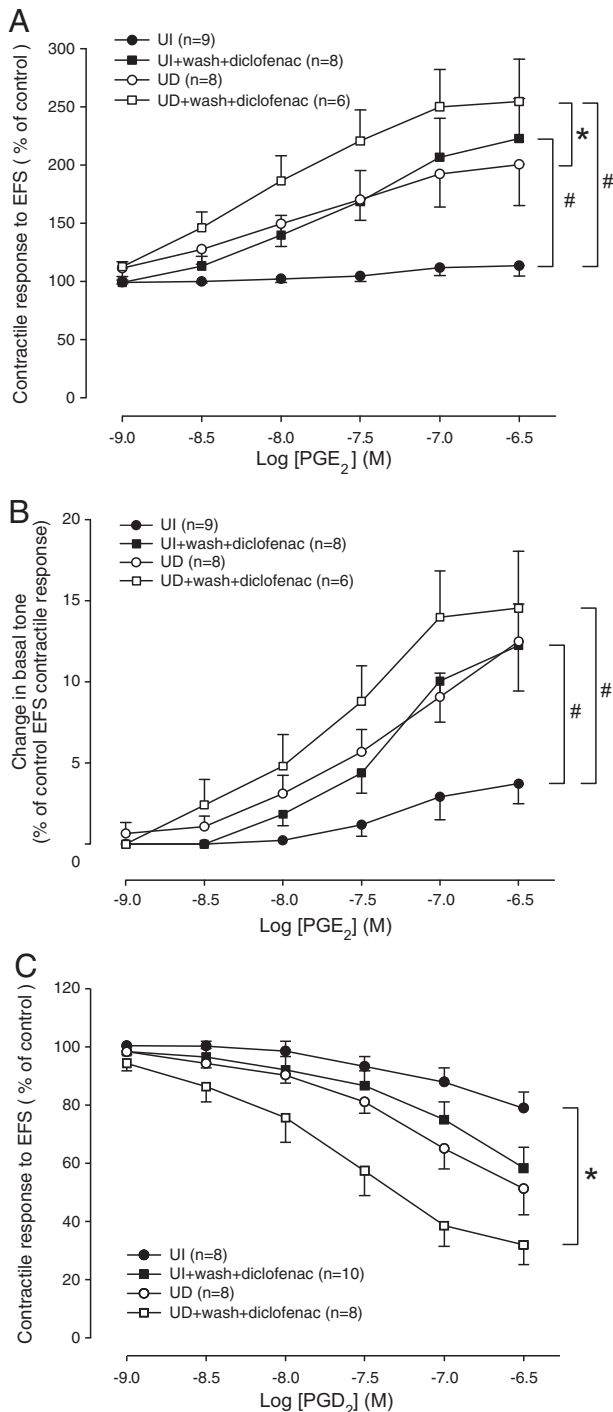


Fig. 6. Guinea pig urinary bladder strips subjected to electrical field stimulation (EFS). Dose–response curves of (A) PGE₂ enhancing effect on contractile responses to EFS, (B) PGE₂ effect on basal tone measured between contractile responses to EFS, and (C) PGD₂ inhibitory effect on contractile responses to EFS. Bladder strips were either urothelium intact (UI) or urothelium denuded (UD) with or without diclofenac treatment (10^{−6} M). Y-axis indicates the percentage changes after PGE₂ and PGD₂ applications compared with 100% control response to EFS induced contractions. Data were collected from 6 to 10 individual strips from at least 4 animals and presented as mean ± SEM. # denotes *p* < 0.005 and * denotes *p* < 0.05 for comparison of maximal response data between the different conditions as indicated by brackets and as further described in Supporting Information Table S2.

overactivity [5,15,37,42,45]. Blockade of at least one of these receptors the EP₁ receptor, highly implicated in the biology of overactive bladder syndrome, failed to show clinical efficacy [13]. Although inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis has been considered as one possible treatment

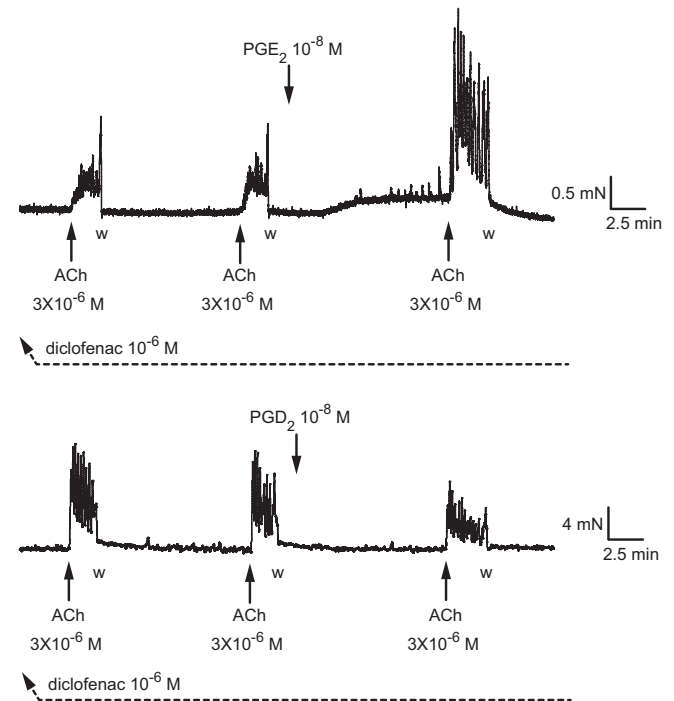


Fig. 7. Urothelium-denuded guinea pig urinary bladder strips monitored by isometric recording of muscle responses in the absence of EFS. Original experimental recordings of enhancing PGE₂ (upper trace) and inhibitory PGD₂ (lower trace) modulation of contractile responses induced by repeated applications of exogenous acetylcholine (ACh) with washings indicated by w. Tissues were pretreated with diclofenac 10^{−6} M, repeated after each wash.

of overactive bladder syndrome it should be noted that inhibitors of prostaglandin formation have been reported both to modify and not modify contractile responses of urinary bladders [7,11,14,16,19,30,31]. The current findings, that prostaglandin D₂ is released and may have inhibitory effects, perhaps to a variable degree balancing the excitatory effects of prostaglandin E₂, might explain the variable reported effects of cyclo-oxygenase inhibition and should be considered in both studies on normal bladder biology and in overactive bladder syndrome where a decreased formation or release of inhibitory factors ought to be evaluated as an alternative explanation for bladder overactivity. We believe prostaglandin D₂ might be one such compound, deserving further studies concerning both its physiological and possible pathophysiological roles in bladder function.

5. Conclusions

We have found that isolated normal guinea pig urinary bladders release prostaglandin D₂ in significant amounts, comparable to prostaglandin E₂. The release is urothelium-derived and is sensitive to cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor. Prostaglandin D₂ can exert an inhibitory effect on bladder contractile responses by an action mainly on the smooth muscle. The inhibitory effect occurs in the nanomolar concentration range and probably balances the well-known excitatory effect of endogenous prostaglandin E₂ release. Prostaglandin D₂ deserves further investigations considering whether it is a major regulator of bladder function and whether this might have pathophysiological implications in e.g. overactive bladder syndrome.

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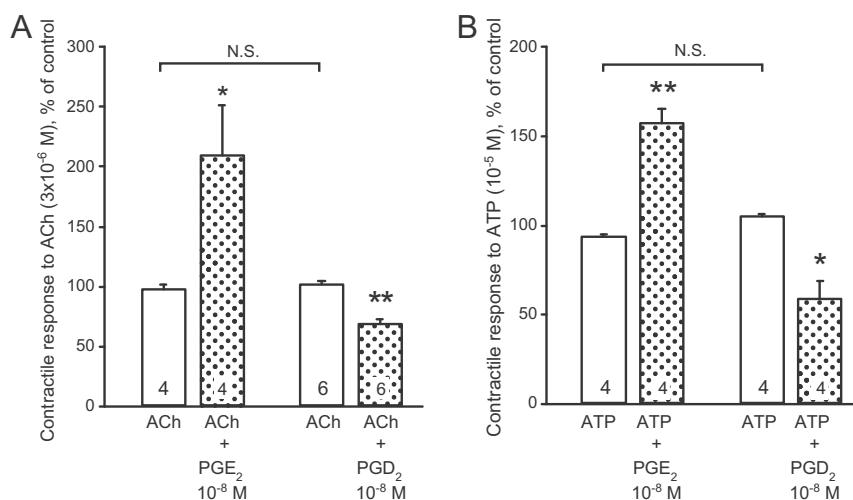


Fig. 8. Summary of PGE₂ enhancing and PGD₂ inhibitory modulation of guinea-pig urothelium-denuded diclofenac treated bladder strip contractile responses induced by applications of exogenous ACh (Panel A) and ATP (Panel B). Data were acquired from four to six animals in each group (indicated within each bar) and presented as mean \pm SEM. * and ** denote $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$ by Student's *t*-test. N.S. denotes not significant.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbagen.2014.09.010>.

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