



Characterization of prostanoid receptor-evoked responses in rat sensory neurones

Jacqueline A.M. Smith, Shanti M. Amagasu, Richard M. Eglen, John C. Hunter & ¹Keith R. Bley

Department of Analgesia, Center for Biological Research, Roche Bioscience, 3401 Hillview Avenue, Palo Alto, CA 94304, U.S.A.

1 Prostanoid receptor-mediated sensitization, or excitation, of sensory nerve fibres contributes to the generation of hyperalgesia. To characterize the prostanoid receptors present on sensory neurones, biochemical assays were performed on primary cultures of adult rat dorsal root ganglia (DRG) and the F-11 (embryonic rat DRG \times neuroblastoma hybrid) cell line.

2 In DRG cultures, the IP receptor agonists, cicaprost and carbaprostacyclin (cPGI₂) stimulated cyclic AMP accumulation. Prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) also increased cyclic AMP levels, but to a lesser extent, while carbocyclic thromboxane A₂ (cTXA₂), PGD₂ and PGF_{2 α} had negligible effects. The rank order of agonist potency was cicaprost > PGE₂ = BMY45778 = cPGI₂ = PGI₂. In the F-11 cells, the rank order of agonist potency for the stimulation of cyclic AMP accumulation was: cicaprost > iloprost = cPGI₂ = PGI₂ = BMY45778 > PGE₂ = cTXA₂. In DRG cultures, cicaprost induced significantly more accumulation of inositol phosphates than PGE₂.

3 To examine the effects of prostanoids on C-fibre activity, extracellular recordings of d.c. potentials from the rat isolated vagus nerve were made with the 'grease-gap' technique. PGI₂ (0.1 nM–10 μ M) produced the largest depolarizations of the nerve. The rank order of agonist potency was: PGI₂ = cPGI₂ = PGE₁ > cTXA₂ > PGE₂ = PGD₂ = TXB₂ > PGF_{2 α} .

4 Prior depolarization of nerves with either forskolin (10 μ M) or phorbol dibutyrate (1 μ M) alone significantly reduced the response to PGI₂ (10 μ M), while simultaneous application of both forskolin and phorbol dibutyrate attenuated PGI₂ responses almost completely.

5 Putative EP₁ and/or TP receptor-selective antagonists had no effect on the responses to PGI₂, cPGI₂ or PGE₂ in the three preparations studied.

6 Collectively, these data are consistent with a positive coupling of IP receptors to both adenylyl cyclase and phospholipase C in sensory neurones. These findings suggest that IP receptors play a major role in the sensitization of rat sensory neurones.

Keywords: Prostacyclin; prostanoid receptors; sensory neurones; cyclic AMP; dorsal root ganglia; vagus nerve; grease-gap; F-11

Introduction

Prostanoids activate different second messenger pathways through interaction with several G-protein coupled receptors (see Coleman *et al.*, 1994; Pierce *et al.*, 1995 for reviews). The current classification of these prostanoid receptors (i.e. DP, EP, FP, IP, TP) is based upon the differential rank order of potency for prostaglandin D₂ (PGD₂; DP), prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂; EP), prostaglandin F_{2 α} (PGF_{2 α} ; FP), prostaglandin I₂ (PGI₂; IP) and thromboxane (TXA₂; TP), as well as the selective activity of synthetic agonists and antagonists (for reviews, see Coleman *et al.*, 1994; Ushikubi *et al.*, 1995). Differences in either biochemical or tissue responses to PGE₂, together with the use of available selective agonists and antagonists, has led to the subdivision of EP receptors into EP₁, EP₂, EP₃ and EP₄ subtypes. cDNAs encoding prostanoid receptors that correspond to each of these eight subtypes have been cloned from human and mouse tissues (see Pierce *et al.*, 1995; Ushikubi *et al.*, 1995).

Prostanoids, notably PGI₂ and PGE₂, are generated in response to injury or inflammation and can sensitize, or directly activate, sensory nerve endings in several animal models of nociception (reviewed by Ferreira, 1979). PGE₂ has been used most frequently as the sensitizing agent in animal studies (e.g. Schaible & Schmidt, 1988; Tonussi & Ferreira, 1992) probably for several reasons. Firstly, PGE₂ was isolated, and became commercially available, many years before PGI₂.

and, secondly, PGE₂ is inherently more stable than PGI₂. Also, PGE₂ was more potent as a nociceptive agent than PGF_{2 α} , PGD₂ or TXA₂ in early clinical studies (Horton, 1963; Ferreira, 1972). Consequently, PGE₂ has attained wide recognition as a principle, pain-producing, inflammatory mediator, although the receptor(s) mediating its effects are undefined. However, most studies directly comparing the algesic effects of these two compounds suggest that PGI₂, in spite of its short half-life (Dusting *et al.*, 1978), has more potent *in vivo* hyperalgesic properties than PGE₂ (Ferreira *et al.*, 1978; Higgs *et al.*, 1978; Juan, 1979; Doherty *et al.*, 1987; Berkenkamp & Weichman, 1988; Birrell *et al.*, 1991; Schepelmann *et al.*, 1992). These observations thus suggest a primary role for IP, rather than EP, receptors in the induction of hyperalgesia. However, the unequivocal characterization of the prostanoid receptor(s) mediating sensitization of sensory neurones *in vivo* is complicated not only by metabolic and/or pharmacokinetic differences between different endogenous prostanoids, but by a lack of selective antagonists for EP, IP and FP receptors.

Sensitizing effects of endogenous prostanoids have been demonstrated *in vitro* on different indicators of sensory neurone function, including ion channel activation, neuropeptide release and second messenger levels (Pitchford & Levine, 1991; Devor *et al.*, 1992; Rueff & Dray, 1993; Cui & Nicol, 1995; Hingtgen *et al.*, 1995; England *et al.*, 1996; Gold *et al.*, 1996; Nicol *et al.*, 1997). Most of these studies have concentrated on PGE₂, but in general, those studies which have utilized both PGI₂ and PGE₂ suggest that the response to

¹ Author for correspondence.

PGI₂ is of greater magnitude (Pitchford & Levine, 1991; Birrell & McQueen, 1993; Undem & Weinreich, 1993; Hingtgen *et al.*, 1995; Nicol *et al.*, 1997). However, to date, there has not been a rigorous pharmacological characterization of these responses with regards to the relative contributions of EP and IP receptors.

The aim of the present study was to utilize simple *in vitro* models to characterize the prostanoid receptor types on sensory neurones, thus clarifying the role of these receptors in sensitization. Specifically, primary tissue cultures of adult rat dorsal root ganglion (DRG) and F-11 (embryonic rat DRG \times neuroblastoma hybrid) cells were used to examine the coupling of prostanoid receptors to both adenylyl cyclase and phosphoinositide hydrolysis. The use of primary cultures of adult rat DRG for pharmacological studies is limited by the time required to establish such cultures and the small total number of neurones which can be obtained from mature ganglia. Therefore, F-11 cells, which exhibit several of the properties of authentic DRG neurones (Platika *et al.*, 1985; Francel *et al.*, 1987), were used to permit a more comprehensive pharmacological analysis.

Exogenously applied PGE₂ and PGI₂ have been shown to excite the terminals of the vagus nerve *in vivo* (Roberts *et al.*, 1985). However, neurohormonal receptors are localized not only on the terminals or cell bodies of sensory neurones but also on the axons. Indeed, the axons of the vagus nerve, the majority of which are C-fibres (Paintal, 1963), possess both ligand-gated and guanine nucleotide binding protein-linked receptors for several neurotransmitters which have been localized definitively to C-fibre cell bodies (Brown & Marsh, 1978; Ireland & Tyers, 1987; Trezise *et al.*, 1993; Bley *et al.*, 1994). Therefore, the rat isolated vagus nerve preparation also was used to study the role of prostanoids in activation of sensory neurones.

Methods

Preparation of primary culture of adult rat DRG neurones

Rats were killed by CO₂ inhalation in accordance with a protocol approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Roche Bioscience.

DRG were removed from all spinal levels of male Sprague-Dawley rats (200–250 g) under sterile conditions. Cultures were prepared by use of a modification of the method described by Lindsay *et al.* (1991). Briefly, DRG were dissected into Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺-free HBSS containing 10 mM HEPES pH 7.4. The DRG were incubated twice for 90 min each in 0.125% collagenase in HAM's F-12/DME containing 6% glucose (final concentration), 5 mM HEPES, 4% Ultroser G, 1% penicillin-streptomycin (HAM's F-12/DME plus USG) at 37°C. They were rinsed with HAM's F-12/DME before incubation for 30 min at 37°C in 0.125% trypsin in HAM's F-12/DME. The media was aspirated and the DRG dispersed by trituration with a small bore, fire-polished pipette in 0.01% DNase in HAM's F-12/DME plus USG. The cell suspension was centrifuged for 5 min at 1000 r.p.m., the supernatant discarded and the pellet resuspended in the appropriate volume of HAM's F-12/DME plus USG, containing 100 ng ml⁻¹ nerve growth factor (NGF) and 100 μM 5-fluorodeoxyuridine (5-FDU) (to inhibit non-neuronal cell proliferation). Cells were plated onto Nunc 24-well tissue culture plates precoated with poly-D-lysine (10 μg ml⁻¹) and laminin (5 μg/well) and grown for 3–5 days *in vitro* in an

atmosphere with 5% CO₂ at 37°C. Cells were plated at a concentration of 15 \times 10³ cells/well for [³H]-inositol phosphates and cyclic AMP accumulation studies.

Preparation of F-11 cells

F-11 (embryonic rat DRG \times mouse N18TG neuroblastoma) (Platika *et al.*, 1985) cells were grown as monolayers in 162 cm² tissue culture flasks in HAM's F-12 containing hypoxanthine with 15% foetal bovine serum in an atmosphere with 5% CO₂ at 37°C. Flasks were maintained until approximately 80% confluent and then passed at a 1:4 dilution. Before use, cells were mechanically detached from the flasks, centrifuged for 5 min at 1000 r.p.m., rinsed once in 25 mM HEPES-buffered DMEM (pH 7.4), recentrifuged and then resuspended in buffer containing 200 μM isobutylmethylxanthine (IBMX) at a concentration of 2 \times 10⁶ cells ml⁻¹.

Measurement of cyclic AMP formation

Adenylyl cyclase activity in DRG cultures and F-11 cells was determined by measuring the accumulation of cyclic AMP in the presence of a phosphodiesterase inhibitor. DRG cultures at 3–4 days *in vitro* were rinsed, then incubated in 10 mM HEPES-buffered DMEM, pH 7.4, containing 10 μM indomethacin (to inhibit tonic prostanoid synthesis) and 10 μM rolipram, at 37°C for the duration of the experiment. Cells were preincubated for 15 min in the absence or presence of antagonist, before incubation for 15 min with agonist. The reactions were terminated by addition of ice-cold, 20% perchloric acid with subsequent incubation for 20 min on ice. Samples were neutralized by addition of 2 M KOH containing 25 mM HEPES, then aliquots of the supernatant were taken, acetylated and assayed with an adenosine 3':5'-cyclic monophosphate (cyclic AMP) Flashplate kit. All experiments were performed in duplicate.

F-11 cells (400 \times 10³ cells) were incubated in 25 mM HEPES-buffered DMEM, pH 7.4, containing 200 μM IBMX at 30°C for the duration of the experiment. Cells were preincubated for 10 min in the absence or presence of antagonist before incubation for 20 min with agonist. The reactions were terminated as described above and aliquots of the supernatant were taken and assayed with a cyclic AMP SPA kit. All experiments were performed in triplicate.

The cyclic AMP content of individual samples was determined by interpolation from the appropriate Flashplate or SPA kit cyclic AMP standard curve, constructed with the Origin 4.1 (Microcal Software Inc., Northampton, MA) graphics programme.

[³H]-inositol phosphates formation

Phospholipase C (PLC) activity in DRG cultures was determined by measuring the accumulation of total [³H]-inositol phosphates, in the presence of LiCl, in cells that had been preincubated with *myo*-2-[³H]-inositol. Briefly, DRG cultures at 3–4 days *in vitro* were incubated overnight at 37°C in inositol-free HAM's F-12 media containing 50 μCi ml⁻¹ *myo*-2-[³H]-inositol. Cells were rinsed then preincubated for 10 min at 37°C in inositol-free HAM's F-12 containing 10 μM indomethacin, before incubation with agonist for 10 min, in the presence of 10 mM LiCl, at 37°C. The reactions were terminated by addition of ice-cold 20% perchloric acid, with subsequent incubation for 20 min on ice. Samples were neutralized by addition of 1 M KOH and 100 mM Tris buffer, before separation of the [³H]-inositol

phosphates on Dowex columns as described previously (Brown *et al.*, 1984). The radioactivity in the [³H]-inositol phosphate fraction was expressed as a percentage of the total lipid radioactivity. All experiments were performed in triplicate.

Rat isolated vagus nerve

Extracellular recordings of d.c. potentials in the desheathed rat vagus were made according to standard 'grease-gap' techniques (Marsh *et al.*, 1987; Newberry, 1988), with the slight modifications described by Bley *et al.* (1994). Modified Marsh ganglion baths (Hugo Sachs Electronics, Type #858) were used for all recordings; Ag-AgCl electrodes were fabricated from 1 ml syringes and filled with agarose containing 1.5 M NaCl. Male Sprague-Dawley rats (200–300 g; Charles River, MA) were killed by halothane inhalation and 2–3 cm lengths of vagus nerve (caudal to the nodose ganglia) were removed, desheathed, and placed in cold, oxygenated Krebs solution that contained the following (in mM): NaCl 119, KCl 2.5, MgSO₄ 1.3, NaHCO₃ 26.2, NaH₂PO₄, CaCl₂ 2.0 and glucose 11.0. After incubation, for approximately 30 min, in cold (4°C) Krebs solution (in the absence or presence of antagonist) the nerves were transferred to the Hugo Sachs chambers and sealed with high-vacuum grease (Dow-Corning Silicone). A circulating water heater was used to set the temperature of the static portion of the Hugo Sachs chambers and to heat the superfusate, via a glass condenser, to 30°C. The portion of the nerve in the centre section of each bath was continuously superfused with Krebs solution in the absence or presence of drug, gassed with 5% CO₂ in O₂. The flow rate to each chamber was approximately 6 ml min⁻¹, driven by a peristaltic pump. To confirm the integrity of the nerve and adequacy of superfusion, all experiments began with depolarizations induced by exposure to Krebs solution augmented with 3 mM KCl for 1 min. Initial experiments demonstrated that this concentration of potassium ions caused depolarizations similar in amplitude to the largest prostanoid receptor-mediated events. The results include data from only those nerves that showed trans-partition resistances of greater than 25 kΩ and potassium-mediated depolarizations greater than 300 µV.

Prostanoids were added to the oxygenated Krebs solution reservoirs approximately 30 s before perfusion over the nerve. When experiments required relatively long (approximately 25 min) prostanoid applications, small quantities of freshly prepared PGI₂- or cPGI₂-containing Krebs solution were repeatedly added to the larger oxygenated reservoir. For generation of non-cumulative concentration-response curves, agonist exposures were for 1 min, with 15 min between addition of agonists. The nerves were exposed to receptor antagonists for at least 45 min before subsequent agonist application. Only one concentration-response curve was obtained from each nerve.

D.C. voltages were amplified 1000 times, filtered at 1000 Hz, and sampled at 3 Hz. A dedicated computer data acquisition system, using an analog-digital converter (Axon Instruments, Foster City, CA) and an Axobasic programme (Keith Bley) displayed, stored and analysed the voltage records. The acquisition programme also directed a motorized valve (Hamilton Company, Reno, NV) to switch between solutions at set intervals. During each experiment, simultaneous recordings were made from four nerves.

Data analysis

To account for the variability in the levels of cyclic AMP accumulation between individual DRG culture preparations,

the fold increase over basal cyclic AMP accumulation was calculated, where fold increase = (cyclic AMP accumulation-basal)/basal. Concentration-response curves for DRG cultures (fold increase over basal versus concentration) and F-11 cells (pmol mg⁻¹ protein versus concentration) were fitted individually to a sigmoidal concentration-response model by non-linear regression analysis within the Origin 4.1 graphics programme (Microcal). For DRG cultures the minimum response was constrained to zero, with the exception of BMY45778 curves, where the slope was constrained to 1 and the minimum value was not fixed. The mean pEC₅₀ was calculated by taking the average of the individual estimates. Agonist potencies (expressed as the pEC₅₀) in the isolated vagus nerve preparation were calculated by the relationship of Parker & Waud (1971), by use of iterative curve fitting techniques (Leung *et al.*, 1992). These calculations were undertaken in the Department of Biomathematics, Roche Bioscience. Independent agonist concentration-response curves were fitted simultaneously to a sigmoidal model and a mean pEC₅₀ ± s.e.mean value determined. Statistical levels of significance (*P* < 0.05) were calculated by use of parametric *t* tests, or analysis of variance (ANOVA) with *post-hoc* Fisher's LSD test for pairwise comparisons.

Compounds

The following chemicals and materials were obtained from the sources indicated: bradykinin, phorbol dibutyrate (Research Biochemicals Inc., Natick, MA); PGD₂, PGE₂, PGF_{2α}, PGI₂, carbaprostanacyclin (see Coleman *et al.*, 1994), carbocyclic thromboxane A₂, thromboxane B₂, SQ 29,548 ([15(1α,2β(5Z), 3β,4α)]-7-[3-[2(phenylamino)carbonyl]hydrazino]methyl]-7-oxobicyclo[2.2.1]-hept-2-yl]-5-heptenoic acid; Sprague *et al.*, 1980) (Cayman Chemical Company, Ann Arbor, MI); cicaprost was a generous gift from Dr Fiona McDonald (Schering AG., Germany); SC-19220 (8-chorodibenz[B,F] [1,4]oxazepine-10 (11H)-carboxylic acid, 2-acetylhydrazide), SC-25469 (8-chorodibenz[B,F][1,4]oxazepine-10(11H)-carboxylic acid, 2-(5-chloro-1-oxopentyl)hydrazide) and SC-51332 (8-chorodibenz[B,F] [1,4]oxazepine-10(11H)-carboxylic acid, 2-[3-[2-(furanylme-thyl)thio]-1-oxopropyl]hydrazide; Hallinan *et al.*, 1994) were kindly provided by Dr E. Ann Hallinan of Searle (Skokie, IL); rolipram, BMY45778 ([3-[4-(4,5-diphenyl-2-oxazolyl)-5-oxazolyl]phenoxy]acetic acid; Seiler *et al.*, 1997) and AH6809 (7-isopropoxy-9-oxoanthen-2-carboxylic acid) were synthesized by the Roche Bioscience Institute of Organic Chemistry; Ham's F-12 medium, DMEM, penicillin-streptomycin, Hanks Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS), mouse laminin (Gibco BRL, Life Technologies Ltd., Grand Island, NY); foetal bovine serum (Hyclone Labs, Logan, UT); Ultroser G (Life Technologies Ltd., Paisley, U.K.); HAM's F-12/DME high glucose powdered media (Irvine Scientific, Irvine, CA.); nerve growth factor 2.5 s (Promega, Madison, WI); trypsin (Worthington Biochemical Corporation, Freehold, NJ); collagenase, hypoxanthine (Boehringer-Mannheim, Indianapolis, IN); forskolin, (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA); iloprost, *myo*-2-[³H]-inositol (17.1 Ci mmol⁻¹), cyclic AMP Scintillation Proximity Assay kit (Amersham, U.K.); cyclic AMP Flashplate Assay kit (NEN, Boston, MA); DNase I, isobutylmethylxanthine, 5-fluorodeoxyuridine, poly-D-lysine (70–100 kDa) (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). F-11 neuroblastoma cells were a kind gift from Dr Mark Fishman (Massachusetts General Hospital, MA).

PGD₂, PGE₂, PGF_{2α}, PGI₂ carbaprostanacyclin (cPGI₂), SC-51322, SC-25469, SC-19220, AH6809, indomethacin and rolipram were dissolved with dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO)

into 10 mM stock solutions, and immediately stored at -20°C . Carbocyclic thromboxane A₂ (cTXA₂) was stored as a 10 mM stock solution in ethanol. Due to the chemical instability of many prostanoids, care was taken to minimize the time that compounds spent in an aqueous state. Thus, ampules of the DMSO stock solutions were thawed only immediately before use.

Results

Effect of prostanoids on cyclic AMP levels in DRG cultures

The effects of prototypical agonists (at 1 μM) for the five prostanoid receptors on cyclic AMP accumulation in adult rat DRG cultures at 3–4 days *in vitro*, are shown in Figure 1a. The basal cyclic AMP accumulation in DRG cultures in the presence of indomethacin (10 μM) and rolipram (10 μM) was 1.65 ± 0.10 pmol/well ($n = 37$ independent culture preparations). A stable analogue of prostacyclin, cPGI₂, and PGE₂ at concentrations of 1 μM , produced an accumulation of cyclic AMP of 4.85 ± 0.43 pmol well ($n = 13$) and 3.82 ± 0.26 pmol well ($n = 14$), respectively. The stable thromboxane analogue

cTXA₂ evoked a smaller response and both PGD₂ and PGF_{2 α} had negligible effects. In comparison, forskolin, which directly activates adenylyl cyclase, stimulated accumulation of 6.49 ± 0.55 pmol cyclic AMP/well ($n = 12$) and 26.66 ± 4.63 pmol cyclic AMP/well ($n = 3$), at concentrations of 0.1 and 1 μM , respectively, which corresponded to 2.67 ± 0.21 and 13.38 ± 0.84 fold increases over basal.

To characterize further the distinction between EP and IP receptor-mediated increases in cyclic AMP levels in DRG cultures, concentration-response curves to cPGI₂, PGI₂, PGE₂ and the IP agonists, cicaprost and BMY45778, were constructed (Figure 1b; Table 1). The selective IP receptor agonist, cicaprost, and cPGI₂ evoked similar maximum responses but cicaprost was more potent than cPGI₂ (Table 1). In comparison, the maximum responses to PGI₂, BMY45778 and PGE₂ were lower (Table 1). The rank order of agonist potency was cicaprost > PGE₂ = BMY45778 = cPGI₂ = PGI₂.

At a concentration of 1 μM , the mixed IP/EP₁ receptor agonist, iloprost, evoked an accumulation of 4.62 ± 0.37 pmol cyclic AMP/well ($n = 3$). In contrast, in the presence of the mixed EP₁/EP₃ receptor agonist, sulprostone (1 μM), and the mixed EP₂/EP₃ receptor agonist, misoprostol (1 μM), cyclic AMP accumulation in adult DRG cultures was 1.66 ± 0.13 ($n = 3$) and 1.29 ± 0.17 pmol cyclic AMP/well ($n = 3$), respectively, which was not significantly different from basal accumulation ($P > 0.05$). To investigate further the role of EP₃ receptors in sensory neurones, the effect of sulprostone on both forskolin- (100 nM) and cicaprost- (100 nM) stimulated cyclic AMP accumulation was examined. Following pretreatment with sulprostone (15 min, 1 μM), cyclic AMP accumulation was 2.02 ± 0.63 pmol/well ($n = 3$), which was not significantly different from 2.01 ± 0.52 pmol/well ($n = 3$) in control cultures ($P > 0.01$). Both forskolin (100 nM) and cicaprost (100 nM) evoked a significant increase in cyclic AMP accumulation in control and sulprostone-pretreated cells. Cyclic AMP accumulation was respectively, 7.54 ± 1.92 pmol/well ($n = 3$) and 6.33 ± 0.35 pmol/well ($n = 3$), in control cells ($P < 0.05$ compared to basal, Fisher's LSD test), and 7.07 ± 1.87 pmol/well ($n = 3$) and 5.65 ± 0.34 pmol/well ($n = 3$), after sulprostone pretreatment ($P < 0.05$, compared to basal; Fisher's LSD test). There was no significant difference in the magnitude of response to either cicaprost or forskolin between control and sulprostone pretreated cells ($P > 0.05$).

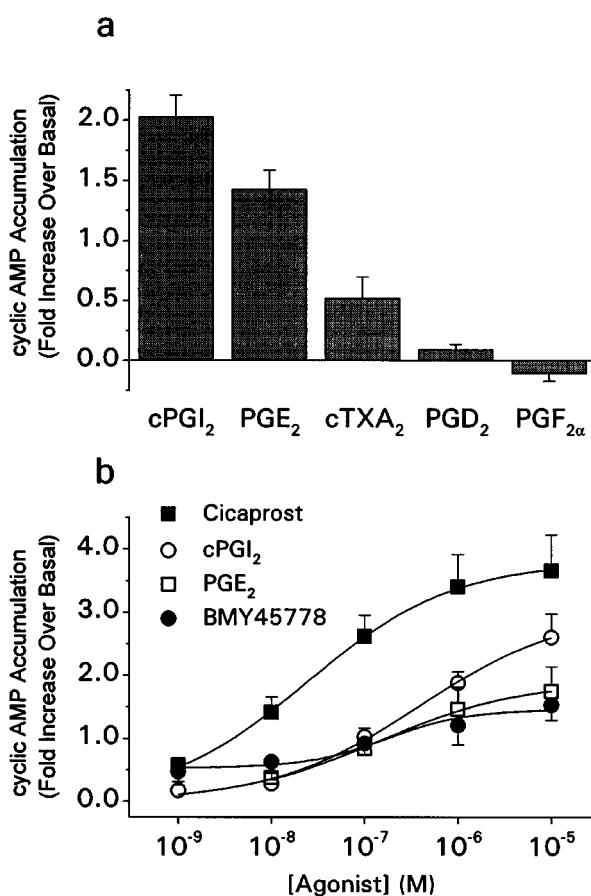


Figure 1 Effect of prostanoids on cyclic AMP accumulation in adult rat DRG cultures. Cells were preincubated for 15 min in HBSS containing 10 mM HEPES, 10 μM rolipram and 10 μM indomethacin at pH 7.4 and 37°C , before incubation with agonist at the indicated concentrations for 15 min in the same buffer. (a) Effect of cPGI₂, PGE₂, cTXA₂, PGD₂ and PGF_{2 α} (each at 1 μM). (b) Effect of increasing concentrations of cicaprost, cPGI₂, PGE₂ and BMY45778. Data represent mean of 3–14 independent experiments, each performed in duplicate; vertical lines indicate s.e.mean.

Table 1 Prostanoid-mediated cyclic AMP accumulation in adult rat DRG cultures

	<i>pEC₅₀</i>	Maximum fold increase over basal	Slope	n
Cicaprost	7.86 ± 0.28	3.74 ± 0.56	0.78 ± 0.09	6
cPGI ₂	6.53 ± 0.17	2.94 ± 0.43	0.61 ± 0.03	5
BMY45778	6.82 ± 0.22	1.41 ± 0.22	1.0*	4
PGI ₂	6.01 ± 0.47	1.81 ± 0.08	0.89 ± 0.07	3
PGE ₂	6.92 ± 0.18	1.90 ± 0.42	0.59 ± 0.08	4

Data represent mean \pm s.e.mean for *pEC₅₀*, maximum response and slope for the number of independent experiments indicated (*n*). Each experiment was performed in duplicate. Concentration-response (fold increase over basal) curves were analysed as described in Methods. *For BMY45778 the minimum response was consistently greater than vehicle control, therefore the minimum fold increase over basal was not constrained to zero, but rather, sigmoidal concentration-response curves were fitted to a model where the slope was constrained to 1.

The putative EP₁ receptor antagonist SC-51322 (1 μ M) had no effect on cicaprost (100 nM)-, cPGI₂ (1 μ M)- or PGE₂ (1 μ M)-evoked cyclic AMP accumulation in DRG cultures (data not shown).

Effect of prostanoids on cyclic AMP accumulation in F-11 cells

In F-11 cells, prostanoid receptor agonists produced a concentration-dependent increase in cyclic AMP accumulation (Figure 2; Table 2) over a basal cyclic AMP accumulation of 94.9 ± 14.2 pmol mg⁻¹ protein ($n=11$). Cicaprost was the most potent agonist tested, while PGI₂, cPGI₂ and iloprost were somewhat less potent, although each agonist evoked a similar maximum response (Table 2). In comparison, PGE₂ was significantly less potent than each of the IP agonists. The

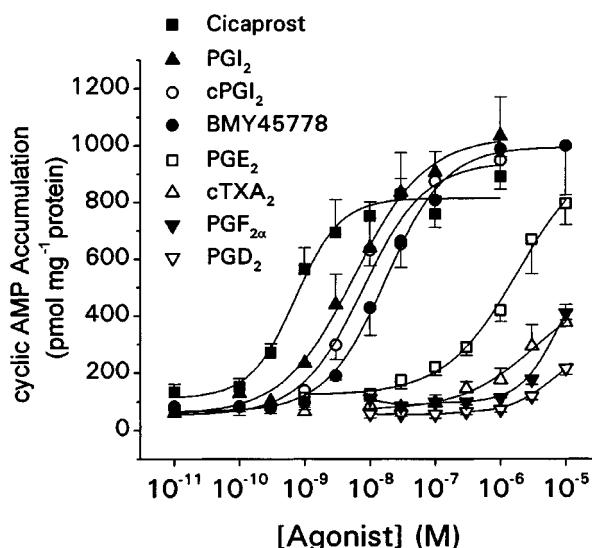


Figure 2 Effect of prostanoids on cyclic AMP accumulation in F-11 cells. Cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of agonist for 20 min in DMEM containing 25 mM HEPES, 200 μ M IBMX at 30°C. Data represent mean of 3–7 independent experiments, each performed in triplicate; vertical lines indicate s.e.mean.

Table 2 Prostanoid-mediated cyclic AMP accumulation in F-11 cells

	<i>pEC₅₀</i>	Maximum (pmol mg ⁻¹ protein)	Slope	n
Cicaprost	9.13 ± 0.07	824 ± 54	1.16 ± 0.20	4
Iloprost	8.38 ± 0.24	958 ± 51	1.04 ± 0.16	4
cPGI ₂	8.21 ± 0.09	930 ± 49	1.28 ± 0.15	6
PGI ₂	8.16 ± 0.22	1037 ± 132	0.90 ± 0.15	3
BMY45778	7.72 ± 0.14	995 ± 113	1.00 ± 0.12	3
PGE ₂	5.66 ± 0.11	$1042 \pm 133^*$	0.90 ± 0.13	7
cTXA ₂	5.48 ± 0.39	526 ± 161	1.06 ± 0.26	3
PGD ₂	<5	—	—	3
PGF ₂ _α	<5	—	—	3

Data represent mean \pm s.e.mean for the *pEC₅₀*, maximum response and slope for 3–7 independent experiments (each performed in triplicate). Concentration-response curves were analysed as described in Methods. *At concentrations of PGE₂ greater than 10 μ M, a dramatic increase in cyclic AMP accumulation was observed. The nature of this response was not investigated further, and for concentration-response curve analysis, data for more than 10 μ M PGE₂ were not included.

maximal response to PGE₂ could not be determined accurately, since at concentrations greater than 10 μ M, there was a dramatic increase in cyclic AMP accumulation, the nature of which was not investigated. The responses to PGF₂_α, PGD₂ and TXA₂ were significantly smaller than those to cicaprost, even at 10 μ M. Therefore, the rank order of potency was: cicaprost > iloprost = cPGI₂ = PGI₂ = BMY45778 > PGE₂ = cTXA₂.

In the presence of the putative EP₁ receptor-selective antagonist SC-19220 (100 nM), the response to cPGI₂ (10 nM) and PGE₂ (1 μ M), respectively, was $95.2 \pm 3.9\%$ ($n=3$) and $92.0 \pm 12.7\%$ ($n=3$) of the control response in the absence of antagonist.

Effect of prostanoids on [³H]-inositol phosphates accumulation in DRG neurones

To examine the effect of prostanoids on phosphoinositide hydrolysis in adult DRG cultures, agonist concentrations were chosen which evoked near-maximal responses in the cyclic AMP accumulation studies. cPGI₂ and PGE₂ at a concentration of 1 μ M, stimulated accumulation of [³H]-inositol phosphates over a basal level of $0.63 \pm 0.05\%$ total [³H]-PI (phosphatidyl inositol) ($n=15$; Figure 3). In contrast, cTXA₂, PGF₂_α and forskolin (100 nM), at a concentration which evoked a similar increase in cyclic AMP accumulation to cicaprost (1 μ M) (see above), had negligible effects on [³H]-inositol phosphates levels (Figure 4). PGD₂ (1 μ M)-evoked [³H]-inositol phosphates accumulation was $0.68 \pm 0.14\%$ total [³H]-PI ($n=4$), which also was not significantly different from basal ($P>0.05$). The greatest effect was observed with the IP agonists cPGI₂ (1 μ M) and cicaprost (100 nM) (Figure 4). However, the response magnitude was less than that seen with bradykinin (10 nM), which evoked a significant accumulation of [³H]-inositol phosphates to $2.47 \pm 0.26\%$ total [³H]-PI ($n=8$) ($P<0.01$).

Since prostanoids stimulated both cyclic AMP and inositol phosphates accumulation, potential interactions between these

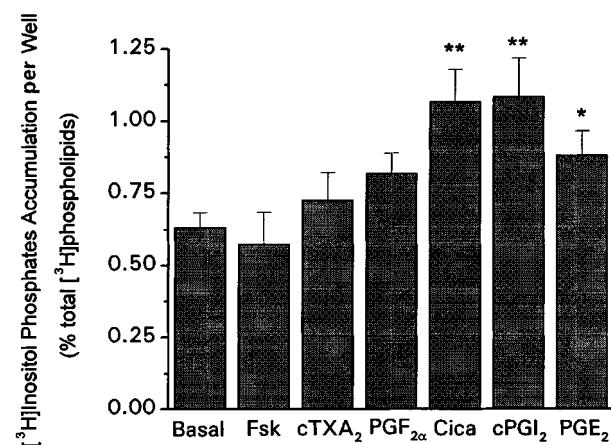


Figure 3 Effect of prostanoids and forskolin on [³H]-inositol phosphates accumulation in DRG cultures. Adult DRG cultures were loaded overnight with *myo*-2-[³H]-inositol. Cells were preincubated for 10 min in inositol-free HAM's F-12 medium at 37°C, containing 10 μ M indomethacin, before incubation with forskolin (100 nM; Fsk); cTXA₂ (1 μ M), PGF₂_α (1 μ M); cicaprost (100 nM; Cica); cPGI₂ (1 μ M) and PGE₂ (1 μ M) for 10 min in the same medium with 10 mM LiCl added. Total [³H]-inositol phosphates were extracted and separated. Data represented mean \pm s.e.mean for 4–13 independent experiments, each performed in triplicate. * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, significantly different from basal [³H]-inositol phosphates accumulation.

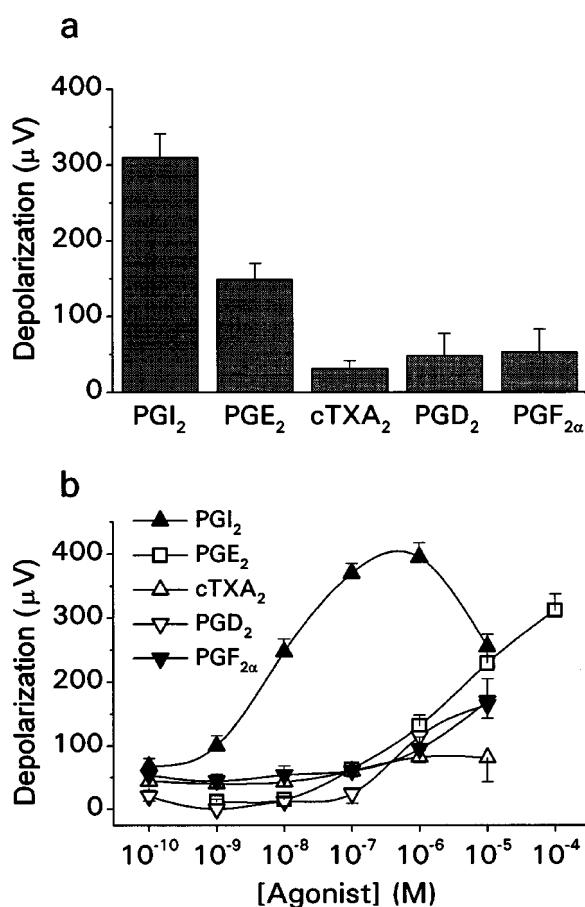


Figure 4 Prostanoid receptor-mediated depolarizations in the rat isolated vagus nerve. (a) Mean voltage deflections caused by 1 min applications of PGI₂, PGE₂, cTXA₂, PGD₂ and PGF_{2α} at 1 μM at 30°C. (b) Non-cumulative concentration-effect curves. Mean voltage deflections caused by 1 min applications of increasing concentrations of prostanoid at 30°C with 15 min inter-application intervals.

two signalling pathways were examined. Forskolin alone had no effect on [³H]-inositol phosphates accumulation in DRG cultures (see above). To determine whether activation of the phosphoinositide pathway, and hence protein kinase C (PKC), influenced cyclic AMP accumulation the PKC-activating phorbol ester, phorbol dibutyrate (PDBU) was used. PDBU (1 μM) significantly increased basal cyclic AMP accumulation (Table 3). Furthermore, following pretreatment with PDBU (1 μM, 15 min) there was a significant increase in both cicaprost (100 nM)- and forskolin (100 nM)-evoked cyclic AMP accumulation (Table 3). Thus, cicaprost and forskolin, respectively, evoked an accumulation of cyclic AMP over basal of 4.25 ± 0.34 (n = 4) pmol/well and 5.26 ± 1.14 (n = 4) pmol/well in control cells, in comparison to a 8.50 ± 0.51 ± (n = 4) pmol/well and 12.42 ± 2.01 (n = 3) pmol/well in PDBU-pretreated cells.

Effect of prostanoids on rat isolated vagus nerve preparation

Single concentrations of PGD₂, PGE₂, PGF_{2α}, PGI₂ and cTXA₂ (1 μM) depolarized the vagus nerve (Figure 4a). The greatest depolarization was observed with PGI₂ followed by PGE₂, while PGD₂, PGF_{2α} and cTXA₂ had negligible effects. The endogenous prostanoids (0.1 nM–10 μM) produced concentration-dependent increases in depolarizations of the

Table 3 Effect of PDBU (1 μM) on cicaprost- and forskolin-mediated cyclic AMP accumulation in adult DRG cultures

	Control (pmol/well)	PDBU pretreatment (pmol/well)
Basal	1.93 ± 0.38	3.64 ± 0.47#
Cicaprost (100 nM)	6.17 ± 0.29*	12.15 ± 0.34*
Forskolin (100 nM)	7.19 ± 1.41*	14.66 ± 2.18*

Data represent mean ± s.e.mean for 3–4 independent experiments (each performed in duplicate). Cells were pretreated PDBU (1 μM) for 15 min before incubation in the absence or presence of cicaprost or forskolin at the concentrations indicated. #P < 0.05, significantly different from control basal; *P < 0.05, significantly different from appropriate basal, in the absence or presence of PDBU (Fisher's LSD test).

Table 4 Potency and maximal responses of various prostanoid receptor ligands in the rat isolated vagus nerve

Agonist	pEC ₅₀	Maximum depolarization (μV)	n
PGI ₂	8.42 ± 0.19	393 ± 21	11
PGE ₂	6.24 ± 0.12	279 ± 26	12
PGD ₂	6.22 ± 0.12	164 ± 21	4
TxA ₂	6.96 ± 0.23	81 ± 38	4
PGF _{2α}	5.82 ± 0.46	170 ± 35	8
cPGI ₂	7.92 ± 0.77	181 ± 8	4
PGE ₁	7.52 ± 0.05	331 ± 42	4
TXB ₂	6.20 ± 0.70	61 ± 23	4
PGI ₂ + 1 μM AH6809	8.79 ± 0.34	423 ± 12	4
PGI ₂ + 10 μM SC-19220	8.55 ± 0.14	442 ± 40	4
PGI ₂ + 1 μM SC-25469	8.51 ± 0.23	402 ± 35	4
PGI ₂ + 1 μM SC-51322	8.12 ± 0.10	445 ± 38	4
PGI ₂ + 1 μM SQ-29548	8.88 ± 0.19	322 ± 15	4
PGI ₂ + 10 μM indomethacin	8.65 ± 0.15	403 ± 24	4
PGE ₂ + 1 μM SQ-25469	6.24 ± 0.09	349 ± 21	8

Values are expressed as means ± s.e.mean. All maximum depolarizations were determined at 10 μM, except those for PGI₂, PGE₁ and cPGI₂, which were measured at 1 μM.

vagus nerve (Figure 4b). PGI₂ was the most potent agonist studied and also exhibited the greatest maximal response (Table 4). Maximal responses to PGE₂, PGF_{2α}, PGD₂ and cTXA₂ from non-cumulative concentration-response curves were significantly smaller than those to PGI₂ in the tested concentration range (Figure 4b, Table 4). cPGI₂ yielded complex concentration-response curves, since depolarizations at 0.1 nM were greater than observed at 1 nM. The potency of cPGI₂ was similar to that of PGI₂, but the maximum response magnitude was smaller. The non-sigmoidal shape of the cPGI₂ concentration-response curve may have been a result of receptor desensitization. Indeed, when nerves were exposed to a single, maximal concentration of cPGI₂ (10 μM) the resulting average depolarization (472 ± 44 μV, n = 8) was significantly larger than that evoked by cPGI₂ (10 μM) during measurement of the non-cumulative concentration-response curve (98 ± 4 μV, n = 4). Depolarizations induced by PGI₂ also exhibited desensitization, thus the response to PGI₂ (10 μM) during concentration-response experiments was 235 ± 19 μV (n = 11), in comparison to 542 ± 34 μV following a single exposure to PGI₂ (n = 4). The rank order of all agonists studied was, therefore: PGI₂ = cPGI₂ = PGE₁ > cTXA₂ > PGE₂ = PGD₂ = TXB₂ > PGF_{2α} (Table 4).

The present findings suggest that sustained applications of either cPGI₂ or PGI₂ cause receptor desensitization. To investigate whether PGI₂- and PGE₂-evoked depolarizations were mediated through activation of a single prostanoid receptor, cPGI₂ (10 μ M; $n=8$) or PGI₂ (10 μ M; $n=4$) were superfused over the nerves for 20 min before the simultaneous application of PGE₂ (10 μ M) for one minute. The rate of desensitization was significantly greater for cPGI₂ (Figure 5a) than PGI₂. The addition of PGE₂ (10 μ M) to the superfusate, in the continued presence of cPGI₂ or PGI₂, produced depolarizations of 19 \pm 4 μ V and 54 \pm 7 μ V, respectively, which were significantly ($P<0.01$) smaller than those recorded for PGE₂ (10 μ M) alone (279 \pm 26 μ V) (Figure 5b).

The onset of prostanoid receptor-mediated depolarizations was slower than that for responses induced by ligand-gated ion channel receptors, such as capsaicin or nicotine (Bevan & Geppetti, 1994). Thus, the average rate of depolarization induced by single applications of PGI₂ (10 μ M) was 4 \pm 1 μ V s⁻¹ ($n=4$), which was significantly different from the rates of depolarization of 18 \pm 3 μ V s⁻¹ ($n=8$) for capsaicin

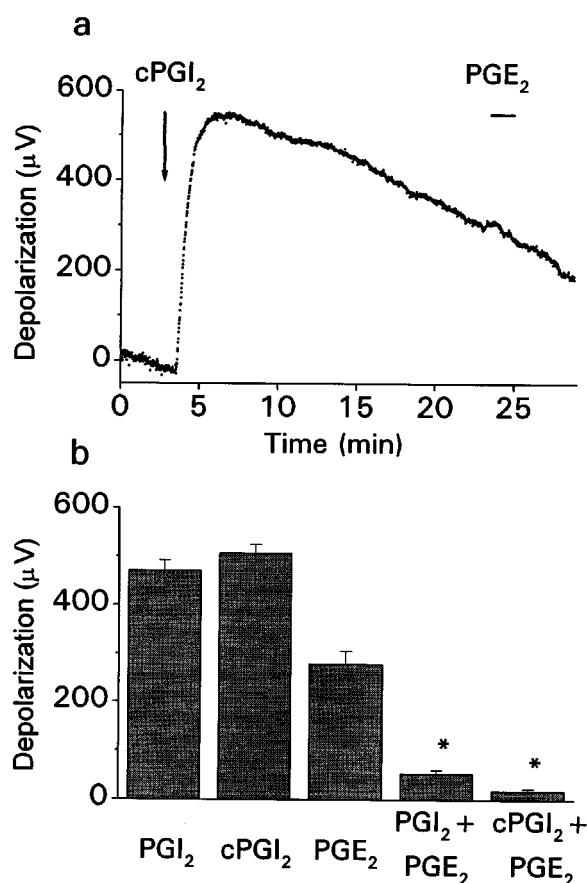


Figure 5 Desensitization of IP receptors attenuated responses to PGE₂. (a) D.c. voltage trace from a representative isolated nerve recording. Superfusion with 10 μ M cPGI₂ commenced at the time indicated by the downward arrow (and continued for the duration of the experiment). The 1 min application of 10 μ M PGE₂ is indicated by the horizontal bar. (b) A comparison of the maximum mean responses generated by the following conditions: 20 min applications of 10 μ M PGI₂ (PGI₂) or 10 μ M cPGI₂ (cPGI₂); 1 min applications of 10 μ M PGE₂ (PGE₂) during construction of PGE₂ concentration-response curves; 1 min applications of 10 μ M PGE₂ on top of the sustained depolarizations produced by PGI₂ (PGI₂+PGE₂) or cPGI₂ (cPGI₂+PGE₂). * $P<0.01$, significantly smaller depolarization for PGI₂+PGE₂ or cPGI₂+PGE₂ compared to PGE₂ alone.

(10 μ M) and 12 \pm 1 μ V s⁻¹ ($n=4$) for nicotine (30 μ M) ($P<0.01$).

Prostanoid receptors on the rat isolated vagus nerve were characterized further by use of available antagonists. The putative EP₁ receptor-selective antagonist, SC-51322 (1 μ M) and other related dibenzoxapines such as SC-19220 (1 or 10 μ M) or SC-25469 (1 or 10 μ M) did not significantly reduce the potency or maximal response of PGI₂ (see Table 4). Similarly, neither the EP₁/DP receptor antagonist, AH6809 (1 μ M) nor the TP receptor antagonist SQ-29548 (1 μ M) affected responses to PGI₂ (Table 4). Finally, SC-25469 (1 μ M, $n=4$) failed to antagonize responses to PGE₂ (Table 4).

Role of adenylyl cyclase and phosphoinositide hydrolysis in PGI₂-mediated depolarizations of the vagus nerve

The present study has demonstrated that in adult rat DRG cultures, IP receptors are positively coupled to both adenylyl cyclase and PLC. Therefore, forskolin and PDBU were used in an attempt to mimic the depolarization kinetics of PGI₂ receptor activation. Exposure to forskolin (10 μ M; $n=4$) for 1 min evoked depolarizations that were significantly smaller (342 \pm 54 μ V) and slower (2.7 \pm 0.4 μ V s⁻¹) than those caused by PGI₂ (10 μ M). Likewise, PDBU (1 μ M; $n=3$) for 1 min evoked depolarizations (439 \pm 9 μ V at a rate of 1.6 \pm 0.3 μ V s⁻¹) that were significantly larger and slower. The inactive analogues 1,9-dideoxy-forskolin (10 μ M) and α -phorbol 12,13-didecanoate (1 μ M) have been shown previously to produce negligible effects (Rang & Ritchie, 1988; Bley *et al.*, 1994).

The effect of prior activation of adenylyl cyclase and PKC on PGI₂-mediated depolarizations was examined next. Preparations were treated with forskolin (10 μ M) or PDBU (1 μ M), for 15 min, and once stable depolarizations were attained the nerves were exposed to PGI₂ (10 μ M) for 1 min (Figure 6a). Under these conditions, PGI₂-induced responses were significantly ($P<0.01$) smaller in nerves exposed to forskolin than to PDBU alone, even though the stable depolarizations caused by forskolin were smaller (Figure 6b). When nerves were superfused with both forskolin (10 μ M) and PDBU (1 μ M) for 15 min ($n=8$), the stable depolarizations were significantly ($P<0.01$) larger than those obtained with either agent alone (Figure 6). Under these conditions, the effect of PGI₂ (10 μ M) was extremely small and significantly different ($P<0.01$) from the PGI₂ response observed when nerves were pretreated with either forskolin or PDBU alone (Figure 6b).

Discussion

Pharmacology of prostanoid responses in adult rat DRG cultures, F-11 cells and rat isolated vagus nerve

In DRG cultures, both the IP and EP receptor agonists, cPGI₂ and PGE₂, respectively, increased cyclic AMP levels, while cTx_{A₂}, PGD₂ and PGF_{2_a} had negligible effect. The highly selective IP receptor agonist cicaprost was the most potent agent tested and, analogous to cPGI₂, evoked a greater maximal increase in cyclic AMP accumulation than PGE₂. The IP receptor agonist BMY45778 also increased cyclic AMP levels but the response magnitude was smaller, which may reflect its partial agonist activity at the IP receptor (Wise & Jones, 1996).

In DRG cells the small response to PGE₂ may result from simultaneous activation of EP receptors which are positively-

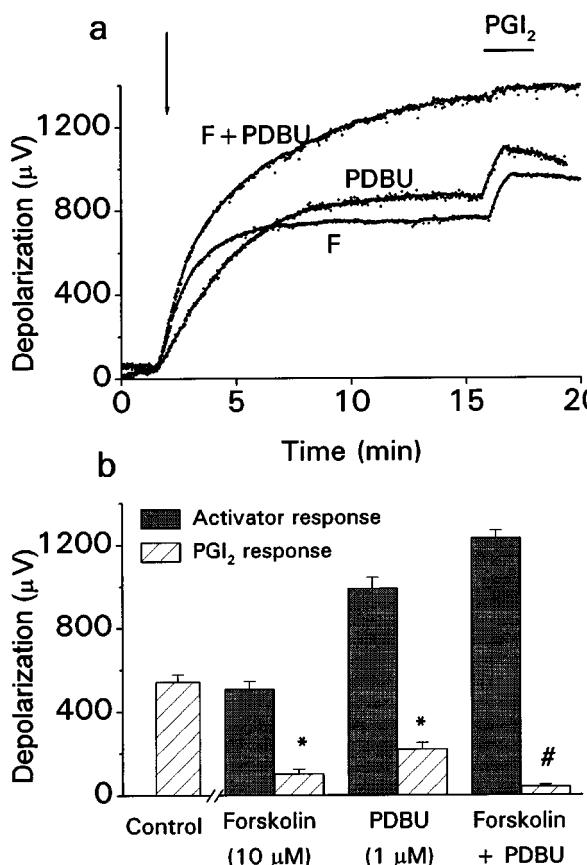


Figure 6 Effect of forskolin and phorbol dibutyrate on PGI₂-mediated depolarization in the rat isolated vagus nerve. (a) Superimposed voltage traces from 3 experiments where 10 μM forskolin (F), 1 μM phorbol dibutyrate (PDBU) or 10 μM forskolin and 1 μM phorbol dibutyrate (F+PDBU) were applied to nerves at the time indicated by the downward arrow and remained present for the duration of the experiment. The concomitant application of 10 μM PGI₂ for 1 min is indicated by the bar. (b) Maximum responses to 10 μM forskolin and/or 1 μM PDBU, in addition to maximum responses to a 1 min application of 10 μM PGI₂ to naive nerves (control) or nerves preincubated for 15 min with enzyme activator (10 μM forskolin and/or 1 μM PDBU). Data represent mean ± s.e.mean ($n=4-12$). * $P<0.01$, significantly different from control PGI₂ response; # $P<0.01$, significantly different from PGI₂ response in the presence of forskolin or PDBU alone.

(EP_{2/4}) or negatively- (EP₃) coupled to adenylyl cyclase (Mao *et al.*, 1996). EP₃ and, to a lesser extent EP₁ and EP₄, receptor mRNA has been identified in mouse DRG neurones (Oida *et al.*, 1995). The localization of EP₂ mRNA in DRG has not been determined. The role of EP_{2/4} receptors in PGE₂-mediated stimulation of adenylyl cyclase in DRG cultures cannot be determined at present, due to lack of receptor subtype selective agonists or antagonists. However, the mixed EP₁/EP₃ and EP₂/EP₃ receptor agonists, sulprostone and misoprostol (Coleman *et al.*, 1994), respectively, had no effect on basal cyclic AMP accumulation. Furthermore, sulprostone had no effect on either forskolin- or cicaprost-stimulated cyclic AMP accumulation. These data, therefore, provide no evidence for functional EP₃ receptors in adult rat DRG cultures. However, a significant degree of tonic inhibitory activity was observed in DRG cultures, as suggested by the ability of pertussis toxin pretreatment to significantly enhance basal cyclic AMP accumulation (Jacqueline Smith, unpublished observations.). This high level of basal inhibition may

have obscured detection of EP₃ receptor-mediated inhibition of adenylyl cyclase.

Pharmacological characterization of prostanoid receptor-mediated activation of adenylyl cyclase in the F-11 cells demonstrated that the rank order of agonist potency was: cicaprost > iloprost = cPGI₂ = PGI₂ = BMY45778 > PGE₂ = cTXA₂. Therefore, in both DRG cultures and F-11 cells the response to an IP agonist(s) was greater than that to other endogenous prostanoids, consistent with IP receptor activation (Kiriyama *et al.*, 1997). The absolute potencies of the IP agonists tested were higher in F-11 than DRG cells, which may be a function of differences in receptor-coupling efficacy or stability of compounds in the various incubation conditions. In addition, the potency of PGE₂ was greater in DRG cultures, which may reflect a greater complement of EP receptors in these cells.

The rank order of agonist potency for depolarization of the isolated vagus nerve preparation was: PGI₂ = cPGI₂ = PGE₁ > cTXA₂ > PGE₂ = PGD₂ = TXB₂ > PGF_{2α}. This rank order is also consistent with IP receptor activation (Kiriyama *et al.*, 1997) and, to our knowledge, is the first extensive characterization of IP receptor-mediated depolarizations of the isolated vagus nerve. These data support *in vivo* studies, suggesting a physiological role for vagal IP receptors. Thus, PGI₂ and PGE₂ are known to stimulate reflex coughing and bronchoconstriction, probably via stimulation of afferent vagal C-fibres which innervate the lung (Roberts *et al.*, 1985).

The endogenous prostanoids exhibit a considerable degree of receptor cross-reactivity (Coleman *et al.*, 1994; Kiriyama *et al.*, 1997), therefore it is conceivable that the effects of PGE₂ in these *in vitro* preparations may, in part, be mediated via the IP receptor. Several putative EP antagonists, including SC-19220 and SC-51322, had no effect on the responses to either PGI₂/cPGI₂ or PGE₂. However, it should be noted that these compounds are known as EP₁ antagonists (Coleman *et al.*, 1994) and as such would not be expected to inhibit EP₂ and/or EP₄ receptors, which are coupled to activation of adenylyl cyclase. The EP₁ receptor-selectivity of these compounds is based upon their antagonist activity against PGE₂-evoked responses in guinea-pig isolated ileum. However, the results from this bioassay must be interpreted with caution, since additional EP receptors, other than the EP₁ subtype, are involved in the response (Lawrence *et al.*, 1992). Moreover, SC-19220 exhibits negligible affinity for any one of the four stably-expressed mouse EP receptors (Kiriyama *et al.*, 1997) or human EP₁ and EP₃ receptors (Keith Bley, unpublished observations).

In the isolated vagus nerve preparation, pretreatment with cPGI₂ and PGI₂ attenuated the response to a subsequent application of PGE₂. One interpretation of this finding is that PGI₂, cPGI₂ and PGE₂ depolarize vagus nerves through action at a single receptor. Vagal nerves still exhibited a response to high K⁺ after agonist pretreatment, indicating that nerve depolarization could occur. However, the possibility that cPGI₂ and PGI₂ had caused heterologous receptor desensitization cannot be excluded.

IP receptor activation also stimulated phosphoinositide hydrolysis in adult rat DRG cultures, although the response to both 1 μM cicaprost and cPGI₂ was less than half that to 10 nM bradykinin. The potency of cicaprost for activation of PLC was not determined. Activation of IP receptors stably-expressed in CHO cells increases both cyclic AMP and IP₃ levels, suggesting that IP receptors can couple to multiple signal transduction pathways, although with different efficacies (Namba *et al.*, 1994). Furthermore, in a number of different

cell types endogenous IP receptor-mediated increases in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ have been observed (Watanabe *et al.*, 1991; Vassaux *et al.*, 1992; Schwaner *et al.*, 1992).

The present findings suggest that PGI_2 -evoked depolarization of the vagus nerves may be mediated through a concomitant activation of cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) and PKC. Both forskolin and PDBU (Rang & Ritchie, 1988) produce depolarizations similar to those following exposure to PGI_2 . In addition, pretreatment of nerves with forskolin or PDBU alone reduced subsequent PGI_2 -evoked depolarizations, and when added in combination, virtually abolished them. In DRG cultures, PDBU elevated cyclic AMP levels and potentiated the response to both cicaprost and forskolin. PKC can modulate the adenylyl cyclase system at several sites (see Houslay, 1991 for review) and the mechanism(s) underlying the effects of PDBU on cyclic AMP levels is unclear. PKC may act directly on adenylyl cyclase to increase enzyme sensitivity or indirectly via phosphorylation of $G_{i/o}$ -coupled receptors to attenuate tonic inhibitory activity.

IP receptors on sensory neurones

The present findings support autoradiographic and *in situ* hybridization studies which have demonstrated IP receptors on sensory neurones. A high density of binding sites for [3H]-iloprost was observed in rat DRG and the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (Matsumura *et al.*, 1995). The latter sites are thought to represent IP receptors on the terminals of primary afferents, since binding site density decreased following dorsal rhizotomy. Furthermore, [3H]-iloprost binding sites accumulated following ligation of the vagus nerve, consistent with axonal transport of IP receptors to the central and/or peripheral terminals of primary afferents. In mouse DRG, ~40% of neurones were strongly labelled with IP mRNA, the majority of these were small diameter neurones, although both large and small neurones were labelled (Oida *et al.*, 1995). The latter cells are thought to correspond to the unmyelinated C-fibre and thinly-myelinated A δ -fibre nociceptive neurones (Lawson, 1992). In the present study, it is unclear if only a subset of DRG neurones responded to prostanoids, since the biochemical responses of the total population of DRG neurones were measured. To resolve this question it would be necessary to conduct experiments directed at single cells, by use of either dynamic imaging or electrophysiological techniques.

PGI_2 was a potent agonist in F-11 cells and the isolated vagus nerve preparation, but was consistently less potent when tested in DRG cultures. PGI_2 is a very labile compound (Dusting *et al.*, 1978) and therefore may undergo differential degradation in the various incubation conditions. An alternative explanation is that the IP receptor in spinal DRG is different from that in F-11 cells and nodose ganglion cells. However, this seems unlikely, given the similarity in responses to both the stable PGI_2 analogue, c PGI_2 , and to the highly selective IP receptor agonist, cicaprost.

Pharmacological evidence has been presented recently which suggests the existence of two subtypes of the IP receptor in neuronal tissue (Takechi *et al.*, 1996). The 'IP $_1$ ' receptor, which is equivalent to the platelet and smooth muscle form of the IP receptor, exhibits high affinity for c PGI_2 , cicaprost and iloprost. In contrast, the 'IP $_2$ ' subtype has high affinity for isocarbacyclin and c PGI_2 , but low/negligible affinity for iloprost and cicaprost. In F-11 and DRG cells, cicaprost was the most potent agonist tested, suggesting that the IP receptor in these cells corresponds to the putative IP $_1$ subtype. Furthermore, preliminary studies with reverse-transcriptase

polymerase chain reaction techniques have identified molecular species in rat DRG and F-11 cells which are completely homologous to the rat and mouse platelet IP receptors, respectively (R. Salazar, personal communication).

IP receptors and sensitization of sensory neurones

In sensory neurones, activation of PKA and PKC induces neuronal sensitization (reviewed by Ferreira & Nakamura, 1979; Coderre, 1993). A number of recent electrophysiological studies have demonstrated that several types of ion channel can be regulated by PGI_2 or PGE $_2$ or agents which elevate intracellular cyclic AMP levels. Thus cyclic AMP- or PGI_2 /PGE $_2$ -mediated inhibition of potassium channel currents in sensory neurones has been demonstrated (Fowler *et al.*, 1985; Nicol *et al.*, 1997). In guinea-pig nodose and trigeminal ganglion cells, PGE $_2$ and forskolin enhance I_h , an inward, hyperpolarization-activated cation current that plays a role in the control of repetitive firing (Ingram & Williams, 1994). In small DRG neurones the activation threshold of a tetrodotoxin-resistant sodium current is lowered by PGE $_2$, forskolin or other neurotransmitters which activate adenylyl cyclase (Gold *et al.*, 1996; England *et al.*, 1996; Cardenas *et al.*, 1997). Persistently active tetrodotoxin-sensitive Na $^+$ channels may contribute to the resting potential of peripheral nerves, as both in isolated vagus (S. Amagasu, personal communication) and optic (Stys *et al.*, 1993) nerves, superfusion of tetrodotoxin produces a rapid hyperpolarization.

A key question is which endogenous prostanoid, and associated receptor, is important with respect to activation and/or sensitization of sensory neurones *in vivo*? Evidence suggests that PGI_2 is at least as important as PGE $_2$ for the induction of hyperalgesia associated with inflammation or injury. The major metabolite of PGI_2 , 6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$, is found in higher concentrations than PGE $_2$ in inflammatory exudates (Brodie *et al.*, 1980), human arthritic knee joint synovial fluid (Bombardieri *et al.*, 1981) or the peritoneal cavity fluid from mice injected with irritants (Berkenkamp & Weichman, 1988). With two exceptions (Tyers & Haywood, 1979; Whelan *et al.*, 1991); which may reflect species and/or tissue differences or PGI_2 instability, most studies have found that PGI_2 is at least equipotent with PGE $_2$ at exciting sensory neurones (see review by Ferreira, 1979; Juan, 1979; Birrell *et al.*, 1991; Mizumura *et al.*, 1991; Devor *et al.*, 1992; Schepelmann *et al.*, 1992; Birrell & McQueen, 1993) and causing algesia (Ferreira *et al.*, 1978; Higgs *et al.*, 1978; Doherty *et al.*, 1987; Taiwo & Levine, 1988). The most convincing evidence for a role of IP receptors in inflammatory hyperalgesia has been obtained from recent studies with transgenic mice lacking the IP receptor (Murata *et al.*, 1997). In these animals, the acetic acid-induced writhing response and paw oedema, resulting from carrageenan injection, were reduced to the same levels as those observed in indomethacin-treated wild-type mice. The modest writhing response induced by PGE $_2$ was unchanged in the transgenic animals. Direct evidence for a role of PGE $_2$ in inflammatory pain comes from studies in which a selective, neutralizing anti-PGE $_2$ monoclonal antibody was used. This antibody (2B5) inhibits, to the same extent as indomethacin, phenylbenzoquinone-induced writhing in mice (Mnich *et al.*, 1995), or carrageenan-induced paw hyperalgesia and oedema in rats (Portanova *et al.*, 1996).

Conclusion

IP receptor agonists potently stimulate both adenylyl cyclase and phosphoinositide hydrolysis in primary cultures of sensory

neurones and neuroblastoma \times sensory neurone hybrid cells, and evoke excitatory responses in the rat isolated vagus nerve. Unequivocal characterization of the receptor type(s) responsible for the physiologically relevant prostanoid-mediated responses in sensory neurones awaits the development of selective antagonists for the IP receptor and the different EP receptor subtypes. However, the rank orders of both endogenous and synthetic agonist potency, and the lack of effect of the available EP or TP receptor antagonists in each *in vitro* preparation, are consistent with IP receptor activation. These findings suggest that IP receptors may play an important role in the sensitization of sensory neurones.

We would like to thank Dr Jeffrey Jasper, Department of Molecular Pharmacology, Roche Bioscience, for assistance with cyclic AMP accumulation experiments and for critical review of this manuscript, and the Department of Biomathematics, Roche Bioscience, for statistical analysis of data.

References

BERKENKOPF, J.W. & WEICHMAN, B.M. (1998). Production of prostacyclin in mice following intraperitoneal injection of acetic acid, phenylbenzoquinone and zymosan: its role in the writhing response. *Prostaglandins*, **36**, 693–707.

BEVAN, S. & GEPPETTI, P. (1994). Protons: small stimulants of capsaicin-sensitive sensory nerves. *Trends Neurosci.*, **17**, 509–512.

BIRRELL, G.J., MCQUEEN, D.S., IGOO, A., COLEMAN, R.A. & GRUBB, B.D. (1991). PGI₂-induced activation and sensitization of articular mechanoreceptors. *Neurosci. Lett.*, **124**, 5–8.

BIRRELL, G.J. & MCQUEEN, D.S. (1993). The effects of capsaicin, bradykinin, PGE₂, and cicaprost on the discharge of articular sensory receptors *in vitro*. *Brain Res.*, **611**, 103–107.

BLEY, K.R., EGLEN, R.M. & WONG, E.H.F. (1994). Characterization of 5-hydroxytryptamine-induced depolarizations in rat isolated vagus nerve. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*, **260**, 139–147.

BOMBARDIERI, S., CATTANI, P., CIABATTONI, G., DI MUNNO, O., PASERO, G., PATRONO, C., PINCA, E. & PUGLIESE, F. (1981). The synovial prostaglandin system in chronic inflammatory arthritis: differential effects of steroidal and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **73**, 893–901.

BRODIE, M.J., HENSBY, C.N., PARKE, A. & GORDON, D. (1980). Is prostacyclin the major pro-inflammatory prostanoid in joint fluid? *Life Sci.*, **27**, 603–608.

BROWN, D.A. & MARSH, S.J. (1978). Axonal GABA-receptors in mammalian peripheral nerve trunks. *Brain Res.*, **156**, 187–191.

BROWN, E., KENDALL, D.A. & NAHORSKI, S.R. (1984). Inositol phospholipid hydrolysis in rat cerebral cortical slices. I. Receptor characterisation. *J. Neurochem.*, **42**, 1379–1387.

CARDENAS, C.G., DEL MAR, L.P., COOPER, B.Y. & SCROGGS, R.S. (1997). 5HT₄ receptors couple positively to tetrodotoxin-insensitive sodium channels in a sub-population of capsaicin-sensitive rat sensory neurons. *J. Neurosci.*, **17**, 7181–7189.

CODERRE, T.J. (1993). The role of excitatory amino acid receptors and intracellular messengers in persistent nociception after tissue injury in rats. *Mol. Neurobiol.*, **7**, 229–246.

COLEMAN, R.A., SMITH, W.L. & NARUMIYA, S. (1994). Classification of prostanoid receptors: properties, distribution, and structure of the receptors and their subtypes. *Pharmacol. Rev.*, **46**, 205–229.

CUI, M. & NICOL, G.D. (1995). Cyclic AMP mediates the prostaglandin E₂-induced potentiation of bradykinin excitation in sensory neurons. *Neuroscience*, **66**, 459–466.

DEVOR, M., WHITE, D.M., GOETZL, E.J. & LEVINE, J.D. (1992). Eicosanoids, but not tachykinins, excite C-fiber endings in rat sciatic nerve-end neuromas. *NeuroReport*, **3**, 21–24.

DOHERTY, N.S., BEAVER, T.H., CHAN, K.Y., COUTANT, J.E. & WESTRICH, G.L. (1987). The role of prostaglandins in the nociceptive response induced by intraperitoneal injection of zymosan in mice. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **91**, 39–47.

DUSTING, G.J., MONCADA, S. & VANE, J.R. (1978). Disappearance of prostacyclin (PGI₂) in the circulation of the dog. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **64**, Suppl. 414P.

ENGLAND, S., BEVAN, S. & DOCHERTY, R.J. (1996). Prostaglandin E₂ modulates the tetrodotoxin-resistant sodium current in neonatal rat dorsal root ganglion neurones via the cyclic AMP-protein kinase A cascade. *J. Physiol.*, **495**, 429–440.

FERREIRA, S.H. (1972). Prostaglandins, aspirin-like drugs and analgesia. *Nature*, **230**, 200–203.

FERREIRA, S.H. (1979). Site of action of aspirin-like drugs and opioids. In *Mechanisms of Pain and Analgesic Compounds*. ed. Beers, R.F. Jr. & Bassett, E.G. pp. 309–321. New York: Raven Press.

FERREIRA, S.H. & NAKAMURA, M. (1979). I-Prostaglandin hyperalgesia, a cAMP/Ca²⁺ dependent process. *Prostaglandins*, **18**, 179–190.

FERREIRA, S.H., NAKAMURA, M. & DE ABREU CASTRO, M.S. (1978). The hyperalgesic effects of prostacyclin and prostaglandin E₂. *Prostaglandins*, **16**, 31–37.

FOWLER, J.C., GREENE, R. & WEINREICH, D. (1985). Prostaglandins block a Ca²⁺-dependent slow spike after hyperpolarization independent of effects of Ca²⁺ influx in visceral afferent neurons. *Brain Res.*, **345**, 345–349.

FRANCEL, P.C., HARRIS, K., SMITH, M., FISHMAN, M.C., DAWSON, G. & MILLER, R.J. (1987). Neurochemical characteristics of a novel dorsal root ganglion X neuroblastoma hybrid cell line, F-11. *J. Neurochem.*, **48**, 1624–1631.

GOLD, M.S., REICHLING, D.B., SHUSTER, M.J. & LEVINE, J.D. (1996). Hyperalgesic agents increase a tetrodotoxin-resistant Na⁺ current in nociceptors. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **93**, 1108–1112.

HALLINAN, E.A., STAPELFELD, A., SAVAGE, M.A. & REICHMAN, M. (1994). 8-Chorodibenz[B,F][1,4]oxazepine-10(1H)-carboxylic acid, 2-[3-[2-(furanylmethyl)thio]-1-oxopropyl]hydrazide (SC-51332): a potent PGE₂ antagonist and analgesic. *Bioorgan. Medic. Chem. Lett.*, **4**, 509–514.

HIGGS, E.A., MONCADA, S. & VANE, J.R. (1978). Inflammatory effects of prostacyclin (PGI₂) and 6-oxo-PGF_{1α} in the rat paw. *Prostaglandins*, **16**, 153–162.

HINGTGEN, C.M., WAITE, K.J. & VASKO, M.R. (1995). Prostaglandins facilitate peptide release from rat sensory neurons by activating the adenosine 3', 5'-cyclic monophosphate transduction cascade. *J. Neurosci.*, **15**, 5411–5419.

HORTON, E.W. (1963). Action of prostaglandin E₁ on tissues which respond to bradykinin. *Nature*, **200**, 892–895.

HOUSLAY, M.D. (1991). 'Crosstalk': a pivotal role for protein kinase C in modulating relationships between signal transduction pathways. *Eur. J. Biochem.*, **195**, 9–27.

INGRAM, S.L. & WILLIAMS, J.T. (1994). Opioid inhibition of I_h via adenylyl cyclase. *Neuron*, **3**, 179–186.

IRELAND, S.J. & TYERS, M.B. (1987). Pharmacological characterization of 5-hydroxytryptamine-induced depolarization of the rat isolated vagus nerve. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **90**, 229–238.

JUAN, H. (1979). The pain enhancing effect of PGI₂. *Agents Actions Suppl.*, **4**, 204–212.

KIRIYAMA, M., USHIKUBI, F., KOBAYASHI, T., HIRATA, M., SUGIMOTO, Y. & NARUMIYA, S. (1997). Ligand binding specificities of the eight types and subtypes of the mouse prostanoid receptors expressed in Chinese Hamster Ovary cells. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **122**, 217–224.

LAWRENCE, R.A., JONES, R.L. & WILSON, N.H. (1992). Characterization of receptors involved in the direct and indirect actions of prostaglandins E and I on the guinea-pig ileum. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **105**, 271–278.

LAWSON, S.N. (1992). Morphological and biochemical cell types of sensory neurons. In *Sensory Neurons, Diversity, Development and Plasticity*. ed. Scott, S. pp. 27–59. New York: Oxford UP.

LEUNG, E., MICHELSON, S., VILLARUBIA, C., PERKINS, L.A. & EGLEN, R.M. (1992). Analysis of concentration-response relationships by seemingly unrelated non-linear regression (SUNR) techniques. *J. Pharmacol. Toxicol. Methods*, **28**, 209–216.

LINDSAY, R.M., EVISON, C.J. & WINTER, J. (1991). Culture of adult mammalian peripheral neurones. In *Cellular Neurobiology: A Practical Approach*, Vol. 1. ed. Wheal, H. & Chad, J. pp. 3–17. New York: Oxford UP.

MAO, G.-F., JIN, J.-G., BASTEPE, M., ORTIZ-VEGA, S. & ASHBY, B. (1996). Prostaglandin E₂ both stimulates and inhibits adenylyl cyclase on platelets: comparison of effects on cloned EP₄ and EP₃ prostaglandin receptor subtypes. *Prostaglandins*, **52**, 175–185.

MARSH, S.J., STANSFIELD, C.E., BROWN, D.A., DAVEY, R. & MCCARTHY, D. (1987). The mechanism of action of capsaicin on sensory C-type neurons and their axons *in vitro*. *Neuroscience*, **23**, 275–289.

MATSUMURA, K., WATANABE, Y., ONOE, H. & WATANABE, Y. (1995). Prostacyclin receptor in the brain and central terminals of the primary sensory neurons: an autoradiographic study using a stable prostacyclin analog [³H]iloprost. *Neuroscience*, **65**, 493–503.

MIZUMURA, K., SATOP, J. & KUMAZAWA, T. (1991). Comparison of the effects of prostaglandins E₂ and I₂ on testicular nociceptor activities studied *in vitro*. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*, **344**, 368–376.

MNICH, S.J., VEENHUIZEN, A.W., MONAHAN, J.B., SHEEHAN, K.C.F., LYNCH, K.R., ISAKSON, P.C. & PORTANOVA, J.P. (1995). Characterization of a monoclonal antibody that neutralizes the activity of prostaglandin E₂. *J. Immunol.*, **155**, 4437–4444.

MURATA, T., USHIKUBI, F., MATSUOKA, T., HIRATA, M., YAMASAKI, A., SUGIMOTO, Y., ICHIKAWA, A., AZE, Y., TANAKA, T., YOSHIDE, N., UONO, A., OH-ISHI, S. & NARUMIYA, S. (1997). Altered pain perception and inflammatory response in mice lacking prostacyclin receptor. *Nature*, **388**, 678–682.

NAMBA, T., OIDA, H., SUGIMOTO, Y., KAKIZUKA, A., NEGISHI, M., ICHIKAWA, A. & NARUMIYA, S. (1994). cDNA cloning of a mouse prostacyclin receptor. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **269**, 9986–9992.

NEWBERRY, N.R. (1988). M₁ and M₂ receptors mediate different effects on synaptically evoked potential of the rat superior cervical ganglion. *Neurosci. Lett.*, **88**, 100–106.

NICOL, G.D., VASKO, M.R. & EVANS, A.R. (1997). Prostaglandins suppress an outward potassium current in embryonic rat sensory neurons. *J. Neurophysiol.*, **55**, 167–176.

OIDA, H., NAMBA, T., SUGIMOTO, Y., USHIKUBI, F., OHISHI, H., ICHIKAWA, A. & NARUMIYA, S. (1995). *In situ* hybridization studies of prostacyclin receptor mRNA expression in various mouse organs. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **116**, 2828–2837.

PAINTAL, A.S. (1963). Vagal afferent fibers. *Ergebn. Physiol.*, **52**, 74–156.

PARKER, R.B. & WAUD, D.R. (1971). Pharmacological estimation of drug-receptor dissociation constants. Statistical evaluation. I. Agonists. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*, **177**, 1–12.

PIERCE, K.L., GIL, D.W., WOODWARD, D.F. & REGAN, J.W. (1995). Cloning of human prostanoïd receptors. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*, **16**, 253–256.

PITCHFORD, S. & LEVINE, J.D. (1991). Prostaglandins sensitise nociceptors in cell culture. *Neurosci. Lett.*, **132**, 105–108.

PLATIKA, D., BOULOS, M.H., BAIZER, L. & FISHMAN, M.C. (1985). Neuronal traits of clonal cell lines derived by fusion of dorsal root ganglia neurons with neuroblastoma cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **82**, 3499–3503.

PORTANOVA, J.P., ZHANG, Y., ANDERSON, G.D., HAUSER, S.D., MASFERRER, J.L., SEIBERT, K., GREGORY, S.A. & ISAKSON, P.C. (1996). Selective neutralization of prostaglandin E₂ blocks inflammation, hyperalgesia and interleukin 6 production *in vivo*. *J. Exp. Med.*, **184**, 883–891.

RANG, H.P. & RITCHIE, J.M. (1988). Depolarization of nonmyelinated fibers of the rat vagus nerve produced by activation of protein kinase C. *J. Neurosci.*, **8**, 2606–2617.

ROBERTS, A.M., SCHULTZ, H.D., GREEN, J.F., ARMSTRONG, D.J., KAUFMAN, M.P., COLERIDGE, H.M. & COLERIDGE, J.C. (1985). Reflex tracheal contraction evoked in dogs by bronchodilator prostaglandins E₂ and I₂. *J. Appl. Physiol.*, **58**, 1823–1831.

RUEFF, A. & DRAY, A. (1993). Sensitization of peripheral afferent fibres in the *in vitro* neonatal rat spinal cord-tail by bradykinin and prostaglandins. *Neuroscience*, **54**, 527–535.

SCHAIBLE, H.-G. & SCHMIDT, R.F. (1988). Excitation and sensitization of fine articular afferents from cat's knee joint by prostaglandin E₂. *J. Physiol.*, **403**, 91–104.

SCHEPELMANN, K., MESSLINGER, K., SCHAIBLE, H.-G. & SCHMIDT, R.F. (1992). Inflammatory mediators and nociception in the joint: excitation and sensitization of slowly conducting afferent fibers of the cat's knee by prostaglandin I₂. *Neuroscience*, **50**, 237–247.

SCHWANER, I., SEIFERT, R. & SCHULTZ, G. (1992). The prostacyclin analogues, cicaprost and iloprost, increase cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentration in the human erythroleukemia cell line, HEL, via pertussin toxin-insensitive G-proteins. *Eicosanoids*, **5**, Suppl: S10-2.

SEILER, S.M., BRASSARD, C.L., FEDERICI, M.E., ROMINE, J. & MEANWELL, N.A. (1997). [3-[4-(4,5-diphenyl-2-oxazolyl)-5-oxazolyl]phenoxy]acetic acid is a potent non-prostanoid prostacyclin partial agonist: effects on platelet aggregation, adenylyl cyclase, cyclic AMP levels, protein kinase, and iloprost binding. *Prostaglandins*, **53**, 21–35.

SPRAGUE, P.W., HEIKES, J.E., HARRIS, D.N. & GREENBERG, R. (1980). Stereo controlled synthesis of 7-oxabicyclo [2.2.1] heptane prostaglandin analogs as TXA₂ antagonists. *Adv. Prostaglandin Thrombox. Res.*, **6**, 493–496.

STYS, P.K., SONTHEIMER, H., RANSOM, B.R. & WAXMAN, S.G. (1993). Noninactivating, tetrodotoxin-sensitive Na⁺ conductance in rat optic nerve axons. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.*, **90**, 6976–6980.

TAIWO, Y.O. & LEVINE, J.D. (1988). Characterization of the arachidonic acid metabolites mediating bradykinin and norepinephrine hyperalgesia. *Brain Res.*, **458**, 402–406.

TAKECHI, H., MATSUMURA, K., WATANABE, Y., KATO, K., NOYORI, R., SUZUKI, M. & WATANABE, Y. (1996). A novel subtype of the prostacyclin receptor expressed in the central nervous system. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **271**, 5901–5906.

TONUSSI, C.R. & FERREIRA, S.H. (1992). Rat-knee carrageenan incapacitation test: an objective screen for central and peripheral analgesics. *Pain*, **48**, 421–427.

TREZISE, D.J., KENNEDY, I. & HUMPHREY, P.P.A. (1993). Characterization of purinoceptors mediating depolarization of rat isolated vagus nerve. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, **110**, 1055–1060.

TYERS, M.B. & HAYWOOD, H. (1979). Effects of prostaglandins on peripheral nociceptors in acute inflammation. *Agents Actions Suppl.*, **6**, 65–78.

UNDEM, B.J. & WEINREICH, D. (1993). Electrophysiological properties and chemosensitivity of guinea pig nodose ganglion neurons *in vitro*. *J. Autonom. Nervous System*, **44**, 17–34.

USHIKUBI, F., HIRATA, M. & NARUMIYA, S. (1995). Molecular biology of prostanoïd receptors: an overview. *J. Lipid Mediators Cell Signal.*, **12**, 343–359.

VASSAUX, G., GAILLARD, D., AILHAUD, G. & NEGREL, R. (1992). Prostacyclin is a specific effector of adipose cell differentiation. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **268**, 11092–11097.

WATANABE, T., YATOMI, Y., SUNAGA, S., MIKI, I., ISHII, A., NAKAO, A., HIGASHIHARA, M., SEYAMA, Y., OGURA, M., SAITO, H., KUROKAWA, K. & SHIMIZU, T. (1991). Characterization of prostaglandin and thromboxane receptors expressed on a megakaryoblastic leukemia cell line, MEG-01s. *Blood*, **78**, 2328–2336.

WHELAN, C.J., HEAD, S.A., POLL, C.T. & COLEMAN, R.A. (1991). Prostaglandin (PG) modulation of bradykinin-induced hyperalgesia and oedema in the guinea-pig paw – effects of PGD₂, PGE₂ and PGI₂. *Agents Actions Suppl.*, **32**, 107–111.

WISE, H. & JONES, R.L. (1996). Focus on prostacyclin and its novel mimetics. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*, **17**, 17–21.

(Received October 27, 1997)

Revised January 20, 1998

Accepted February 25, 1998